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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.

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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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3rd European Coaching Psychology Conference

13th and 14th December 2011 City University, London, UK

In the spirit of continuing to bring together the growing coaching psychology community SGCP is delighted to announce the 3rd European Coaching Psychology Conference. This is an event for those that are interested in or currently using coaching psychology in their practice, and those who wish to learn more about how they can benefit from coaching psychology for themselves or their organisations.

Invited speakers include:
Adrian Furnham (UK)
Siegfried Greif (Germany)
Ida Sirolli (Italy)
Stephen Palmer (UK)
Pascale Reinhardt (France)
Ole Michael Spaten (Denmark)

For further information please go to http://sgcp-conference.bps.org.uk

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Contents

Editorial

Stephen Palmer & Michael Cavanagh

WELCOME to another interesting and varied issue of the *International Coaching Psychology Review*. In this issue we have six main articles, a book review, coaching psychology congress and news reports. As coaching psychology develops internationally our publication will attempt to keep you up-to-date with relevant research and news.

The first paper in this issue is 'A model of executive coaching: A qualitative study' by Marie-Therese Augustijnen, Gila Schnitzer and Raoul Van Esbroeck. The authors focus on the development of an experimental-based model of executive coaching using a qualitative analysis of semi-structured interview data with coachees. They found six central themes or categories which informed the development of the model.

In the next article, Alan Bond looks at the role of coaching in managing leadership transitions. He reviews the literature and considers the driving and restraining forces relating to widespread adoption of leadership transition coaching. He concludes that the on-going potential challenges to organisations, particularly in the current economic climate, are in considering both the value to be gained in adopting some form of leadership transition coaching for their leadership appointments and the risks of ignoring this as a talent management tool.

Erik de Haan literally goes back to basics. Seldom in our publication do we publish papers that consider the work of Freud in any depth and use it to inform modern day coaching and coaching psychology practice. In this paper he asserts that transference is increasingly held to be highly relevant for executive coaches, organisational consultants and supervisors alike.

In the following paper, Marc Khan explores an integrative and systemic approach to business coaching which captures the way it interfaces with organisational, interpersonal and intrapsychic systems. The notion of a 'Coaching Axis' is used to describe the interface between three systemic dimensions, the environment, individual and coaching relationship, and a dialogical process is offered to track themes, insights and actions across this axis in order to ensure alignment with the business reality.

In the next paper, Courtney Newnham-Kanas, Jennifer Irwin, Don Morrow and Danielle Battram describe a health study in which they undertook a quantitative assessment of Motivational Interviewing using Co-Active Life Coaching skills as an intervention for obese adults (ages 35 to 55). Weight reduction and management is notoriously challenging for many people and health and well-being coaching can have a positive impact in helping clients/coachees to attain their health-related goals. As industrialised countries are experiencing increasing rates of obesity which can lead to diabetes and heart disease, financially stretched health care systems are likely to take seriously all effective interventions.

In the last paper, Anthony Grant provides a personal reflection as the psychologist presenter of an Australian reality television. The popular show, *Making Australia Happy*, followed eight individuals as they completed an intensive eight-week positive psychology coaching programme using scientifically-validated positive psychology interventions. In his paper he outlines the findings and discusses some of the challenges for psychologists working at the intersection of science and commercialism. It is worth noting that at a 24-week follow-up the gains in positive psychological functioning were maintained.

In addition to the book review and SGCP and IGCP news reports, we have included two International Congress of Coaching Psychology reports which highlight the development and growing interest in coaching psychology around the world from South Africa to Ireland. Both the SGCP and IGCP support the on-going international congress events with the SGCP having held their congress last December in London. There are two more events this year in Spain and Sweden with more congresses being planned for 2012 in Australia, Brazil, Italy and Netherlands. There has been talk of a Scandinavian Congress in 2012 too. The international congresses have had the added bonus of bringing together the representatives of the leading coaching psychology bodies onto the congress steering committee which has encouraged much discussion about the nature of coaching psychology and also how the bodies can work closer together. For example, at the South African congress the International Society for Coaching Psychology (ISCP), the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology of South Africa (SIOPSA) and the SIOPSA Interest Group of Coaching and Consulting Psychology (IGCCP) signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) acknowledging a desire to communicate, and work together in support of the development of the Coaching Psychology profession in South Africa and internationally. These are exciting times for the development of coaching psychology.

Finally, we encourage you to submit theoretical or research papers about any aspect of coaching psychology.

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A model of executive coaching: A qualitative study

Marie-Therese Augustijnen, Gila Schnitzer & Raoul Van Esbroeck

Objective: *This paper targets the development of an experimental based model of executive coaching using a qualitative analysis of interview data with coachees.*

Design: *In this study data on the process of executive coaching were collected ex post facto with 10 persons who had gone through executive coaching during 2008–2009.*

Methods: *The data were collected through semi-structured interviews and analysed following the grounded theory method.*

Results: *The analysis of the interview data results in a coaching model constructed around six essential interconnected central themes. The six themes are divided into four phases related to the development of the coaching process and two central variables directing the development.*

Conclusions: *The model of executive coaching developed in this study presents a coherent set of phases and variables and gives an insight into the development of a coaching process based on the experience of the coachee. The importance of the model lies in the indication of how the coaching process evolves, under which circumstances an executive coaching process can start and which variables play a role in continuing and completing a coaching process. Study limitations are discussed.*

Keywords: *executive coaching; grounded theory; coaching model; coaching process.*

THE POPULARITY of executive coaching in the business world and society as a whole has grown over the last 15 years. This is reflected by an increase in the literature on coaching in general and an increase of coaching support in business companies. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) (2010) mentions in their annual report that coaching is used in 82 per cent of the UK organisations. In the US-based Global 100 companies the proportion increases to 93 per cent (Bono et al., 2009). This has resulted in a growing number of professional coaches. In 2008, Bresser Consulting (2008) estimated the number of coaches in Europe and worldwide at 16,000 and 50,000 respectively. This figure probably underestimates the real situation, because it is based on the membership figures of national or local federations, while many coaches or persons who operate as coaches are not members of such organisations.

Though the concept of coaching appears more and more in academic publications and the number of publications has increased over the last 10 years, it still concerns only a fairly modest number of contributions. After an extensive literature survey, Grant (2009) found only 518 such articles between 1937 and 2009. The creation of new academic journals on coaching will certainly contribute to growing attention for the topic. There is still a long way to go, however, and some agree that further research is needed (Bono et al., 2009; Grant et al., 2010).

One of the hurdles that stands in the way of the study of coaching is the lack of a univocal definition (Palmer & Whybrow, 2005). The multiple definitions reflect different interests (Bluckert, 2005), which constitutes a problem, in particular if a general definition is sought that can cover the broad field of coaching. This situation is to some extent reflected in the coaching practice where barriers to entering the coaching profession may lead to a situation where many practitioners call themselves coaches. When, however, coaching is more narrowly defined and the concept of coaching psychology is intro-

duced, a more precise concept appears. Palmer and Whybrow (2005) – underlining the importance of psychology in coaching – describe coaching psychology as a contribution '...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…' (p.7, adapted from Grant & Palmer, 2002).

A frequently used definition is formulated by Kilburg (1996), who defines executive coaching as:

> 'a helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organisation and a consultant who uses a variety of behavioural techniques and methods to assist the client achieve a mutually identified set of goals to improve his or her professional performance and personal satisfaction and consequently to improve the effectiveness of the client's organisation within a formally defined coaching agreement' (p.142).

This definition has the advantage of defining the role of the three stakeholders (coach, coachee, organisation), the goals, the methods and techniques. Also, the coach-coachee relationship variable is included. The reference to this last variable is important, because the coach-coachee relationship is regarded as an important factor for change and is intrinsically linked to the success of coaching (Gyllenstyn & Palmer, 2007; Kemp, 2008).

In addition to the lack of a univocal definition and clarity about effecting variables, comes the absence of an empirical developed theoretical coaching model. This is certainly the case for commercial training programmes, which sometimes lack a sound theoretical background (Grant et al., 2010) and literature-based models (e.g. Baek-Kyoo, 2005). Other models rely upon counselling models such as, for example, the rational-emotional behaviour therapy (Sherin & Caiger, 2004) and the solution-oriented coaching and cognitive behaviour therapy (Grant & Cavanagh, 2002). Also, Kilburg's executive coaching model (2004b), based on 17 dimensions, is deduced from psychodynamic psychotherapy and system therapy. This approach can raise some questions because there are similarities, but also differences between coaching and counselling/therapy, which are still being debated (Kets de Vries, 2004; Maxwell, 2009; McKenna & Davis, 2009). In his study, Passmore (2010) has identified attributes and behaviours of the coach as well as behaviours of the coachee, which are very similar to those that play a role in the counselling/therapy relationship. He refers, for example, to the experience of the coach, the non-judgmental and trusting attitude of the coach, the listening and reflecting, the empathy, the non-directive attitude, etc. According to Kets de Vries (2004), the differences are related to the fact that coaches have a broader perspective in the sense that they must also consider the organisation and its context. Passmore (2009) supports the idea of differences, which are connected to the different stakeholders in a business environment, the need for business insight, the critical nature of challenge, combined with an understanding of human behaviour, cognition, and emotion at work. It can be concluded that therapy and executive coaching may have some features in common, but that there are also considerable differences. The existing therapeutic models can certainly serve as building blocks for the development of coaching models, but they cannot replace it.

The discussion on the differences and similarities between therapy and coaching could benefit from the development of an experimentally based specific model of executive coaching. Though some interesting new models have been developed they are still not entirely experimentally based. Passmore (2007) developed an integrative model based on a more holistic approach including behaviour, cognitive and unconscious elements. The integrative model consists of six interwoven streams: developing the coaching partnership, maintaining the coaching

partnership, behavioural focus, conscious and unconscious cognition. The sixth stream, the cultural context, surrounds the model. The importance of the model lies in highlighting the role of the relationship between coach-coachee and environment and the recognition that this relationship is not sufficient for behavioural change. Another model has been presented by de Haan (2009). This author tries to understand the process of coaching and the causality of coaching by evaluating dilemmas and turning points. It proposes that the results of an experienced coach intervention are determined primarily by their ability to tolerate tension and deliberately engage into tensions within the coaching relationships.

The development of experimentally based model becomes the main goal of this contribution. The model resulting from this study should help to explain under which circumstances effective executive coaching can arise and be achieved. It should integrate the possible central and influencing variables into a coherent entity and explain the role they fulfil. The model should also help assess whether influencing variables presented in other studies actually occur and play a role. The importance attributed to the counsellor-client relationship on counselling outcomes (McLeod, 2003) indicates that special attention should be devoted to this issue when studying coaching. Lambert and Barley (2001) even conclude that the effect of counselling is not to be attributed to the used methods and techniques, but rather to non-specific factors among which relationship figures as the most important. The importance of the relationship is more considerable for the client than for to the counsellor (Horvath & Bedi, 2002). Based on these findings and in the context of the present project, a model will be developed on the basis of the viewpoints of the coachees. Indeed, the insights of the coachees will contribute to a better understanding of executive coaching and of how the outcome is established.

Method

Data collection and analysis

Grounded Theory was chosen as the methodological approach for this study. This theory was developed in the 1960s by the American sociologists Glaser and Strauss (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). It is a method for developing a theory that is grounded in the data through an iterative process of systematically gathering and analysing data. Various alternatives in Grounded Theory have been developed (Heath & Cowley, 2004) depending on the ontological and epistemological beliefs of the authors. The classic Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) adopts a post-positivist ontology and emphasises objectivity. The theory is emerging from data separate from the scientific observer (see Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The reformulation of this classic mode developed by Strauss and Corbin (1998) adopts a more relativistic ontological position. 'The researcher is shaped by the data, just as the data are shaped by the researcher,' and 'a state of complete objectivity is impossible.'

Moreover, the vision of Strauss and Corbin (1998) also allows a literature review before data collection and analysis whereas Glaser and Strauss disagree about the need to conduct an initial literature review. Besides the variant of Strauss and Corbin (1998), there is the constructivist view of Charmaz (2006) indicating that the researcher constructs the theory with the participant. Charmaz (2006) assumes that neither data nor theories are discovered. Grounded theories are developed through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives and research practices.

In this study the method proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1998) was chosen because it better reflects the practical approach of this study and focuses on the analytical techniques such as coding, writing memos and diagrams and is accordingly a more structured version. In addition, the early literature review adopted in this study (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) stimulates ques-

tions, theoretical sensitivity and directs theoretical sampling. A second review of the literature was conducted after data collection which links existing theory with the new theory. Finally, special attention is devoted to staying open minded and applying the constant comparison method, as this will eliminate any bias stemming from pre-knowledge (McGhee et al., 2007).

Grounded Theory starts with collecting data that are immediately coded and analysed in different consecutive stages. The first stage is the initial coding aiming at developing concepts that constitute the building blocks for the theory. Central here are the questions: 'What is it about', 'What is this', and 'What does it represent' (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). At this stage, abstraction is made of all possible assumptions. Actions, interactions, objects and events are grouped into more abstract categories or concepts based on similarities and differences. The initial coding is done line by line. The second stage includes the axial coding, which is the process of clustering categories into subcategories according to properties and dimensions to discover patterns and give meaning to categories. At this stage, the data are structured at a higher level of abstraction in order to answer the questions: 'Who, when, what, where, how much' (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). In the final selective coding stage, a central category is defined. The central category is determined by linking all (sub) categories and represents the focus of the research (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This stage represents the actual development of the theory.

What is essential in the procedure is that Grounded Theory looks for concepts that arise from the data. The process of encoding is designed to arrive at these concepts, which then form the basis of the theory. The stages of data collection and analysis are not sequentially organised. On the contrary, they are interwoven and run simultaneously. The analysis of the data at the different levels starts with the first interview. Typical for Grounded Theory are the processes of theoretical sampling and constant comparison. The sampling leads to the discovery of concepts until saturation occurs. The constant comparison consists of comparing new data with existing data and categories and is a process of looking for similarities between old and new data. If no similarities between new data and categories are found, the categories are adjusted or new ones created. This process goes on until saturation occurs. Saturation is reached during analysis when new data are added and no new insights or categories are found.

Participants

A Grounded Theory approach does not allow for the sample size to be decided beforehand as is usually the case in other empirical studies. A group of 13 persons who had been in an executive coaching process in 2008–2009 were approached to participate in the study and all of them agreed. The coachees were identified through networking. This was done by direct contact with the coachees or indirectly via their coaches.

Ultimately, only 10 coachees, six men and four women, were interviewed when saturation occurred during the analysis of the data. The average age of the respondents was 43 years, ranging from 34 to 54 years (see Table 1). All respondents had a different coach, completely independent of the researcher organisation and were satisfied with the coaching outcome.

Procedure

In this study it was decided to use semi-structured interviews. The interviews lasted on average one hour. They were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The initial questionnaire was based on the results of the literature survey. In particular questions from studies by Bedi, Davis and Williams (2005), Pope-Davis and colleagues (2006) served as a source of inspiration. Only open questions that did not contain assumptions or constructs from existing theories were withheld. The sequence of the interview schedule was determined by the interaction between the

Table 1: Bio data coachee.

	M/F	*Age*
Respondent 1	F	45
Respondent 2	M	46
Respondent 3	M	47
Respondent 4	M	54
Respondent 5	F	35
Respondent 6	M	34
Respondent 7	F	42
Respondent 8	M	49
Respondent 9	M	38
Respondent 10	F	45

coachee and the researcher and depended, for example, on the openness of the coachee. In general, the interview started with questions on personal data such as age, position and number of years in the organisation. Afterwards, items such as the objectives of the coaching support, how the coachee experienced the process, the relationship coach-coachee and the influence of the coach were questioned. During the research process, however, questions were refined as recommended in Grounded Theory (Charmaz, 2006). Questions such as 'What were the initial objectives? Have they changed over the coaching process?' resulted from this refining process. It also appeared from the data of the first interviews that the relationship coach-coachee changed during the coaching process. Initially the question 'Can you describe how it felt for you to be coached?' was asked. This question was refined and became a string of questions such as 'Has this changed during the process? Could you say more about that? Can you remember things in the coaching that you experienced positively? Can you remember things you experienced as negative?'

Results

A model of executive coaching

The analysis of the interview transcriptions results in a coaching model with six central themes or categories (see Figure 1). In a first stage, efforts were made in line with a Grounded Theory approach to identify a central category via selective coding. This central category should have represented the main theme of the model and originate from all related (sub)-categories. Unfortunately the data did not allow a main theme to be identified. This may have been due to the differences in the processes through which the coachees went as well as complexity of the processes. The data allowed six interconnected central themes to identify all being essential to the model. The six themes are divided into four phases related to the development of the coaching process and two central variables directing the development.

The four phases are:

- Defining formal organisation-bound objectives between coach, coachee and employer;
- Self-reflection;
- Self-awareness;
- Changes in behaviour and personal changes.

In principle, the coachees go through all the phases. The process may, however, be ended at any moment, which will prevent coachees from achieving the formal objectives.

The two central variables are: (a) the relationship based on trust between coach and coachee; and (b) openness to coachee introspection. These variables will dynamically steer and guide the development of the process and what happens within the phases. Without these variables there would be no coaching process. They will also define the extent to which the objectives of the coaching process, i.e. personal change and related initial organisation-bound formal objectives will or will not be realised.

The variable dyadic relationship of trust between coach and coachee is a complex relationship determined by aspects connected to the characteristics of: (a) the coach; (b) the coachee; and (c) the similarity of values between coach and coachee. The characteristics of coach and coachee refer to the attitudes, behaviour, and experience of the coach as well as to the feelings of

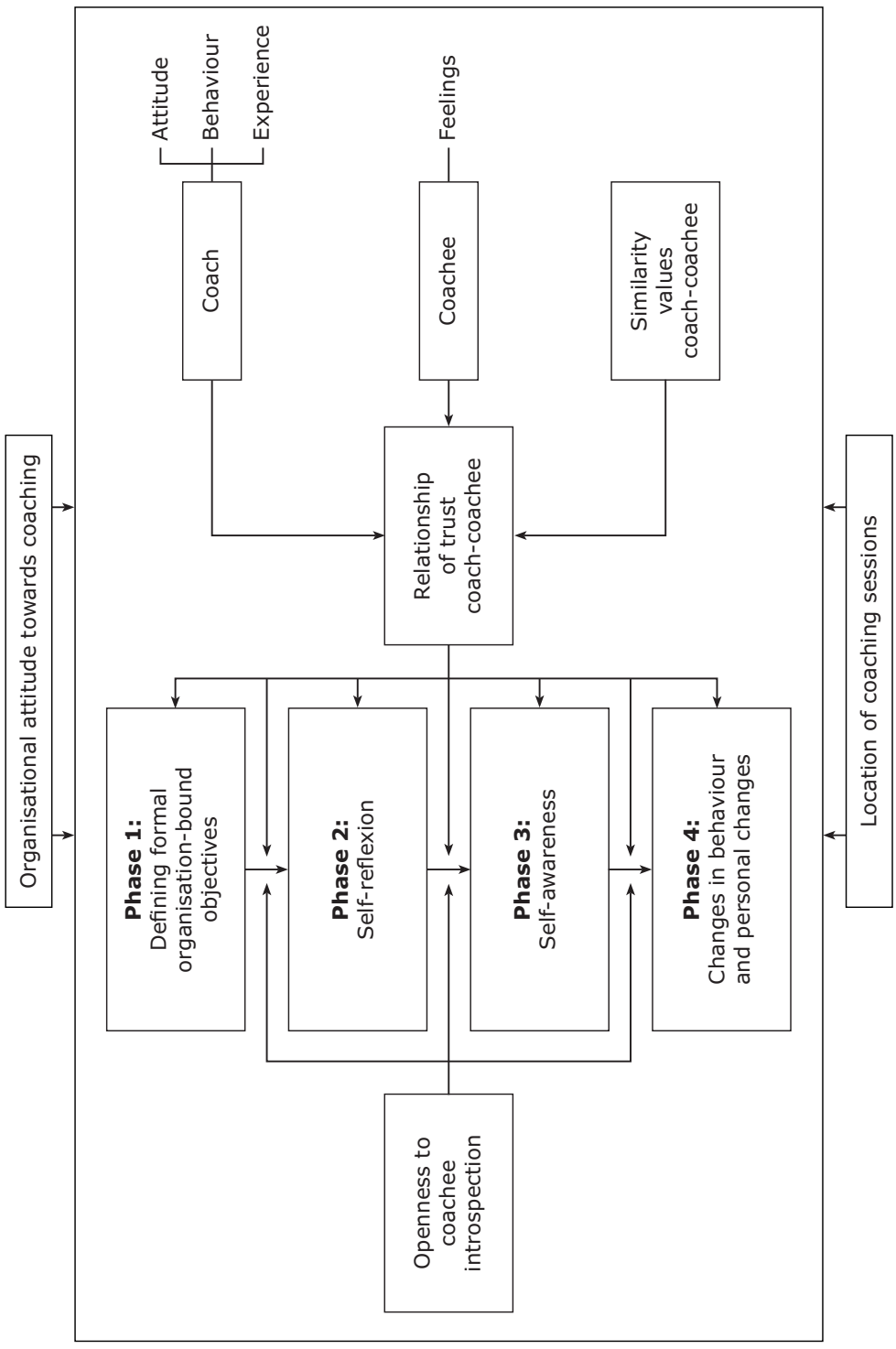

Figure 1: Model of executive coaching.

the coachee. The relationship of trust between coach and coachee plays a role from the start of the coaching process. This relationship influences the four phases as well as the process itself. When a relationship of trust does not develop, the coaching process may stop and the objectives will obviously not be achieved. The second central variable, i.e. openness to introspection of the coachee, clearly has an influence on the process. If there is no openness to introspection, the transition to the second phase, i.e. self-reflection, may be blocked; the same is true for the transition to other stages of development. The influence of this variable on the process within the phases is uncertain. The analysis of the data did not allow for such an influence to be detected.

The coaching process and the dyadic coach-coachee relationship progresses in a set environment. This environment can have a moderating influence on the central variables and the coaching process. The data in this study indicate that such moderating variables could be the attitude of the organisation as well as to the location of the coaching process.

The four phases, the central variables as well as the moderating variables all participate in determining the success of the coaching. Based on available data it is to some extent possible to identify how the phases and central variables are interconnected and in which direction the influences can go. The analysis does not allow to identify to which phases and central variable the influences can be connected. They appear more as general moderating variables influencing the coaching process.

Phases

The first phase in the model is built around defining the formal organisation-bound objectives. The objectives are defined during an intake session in which the three parties, i.e. coach, coachee and organisation, are involved. Regardless of whether the coachee enters an executive coaching process on his/her own initiative or upon the request of the organisation, the goals always contain an organisation-related component. This is well illustrated by one of the participants *(Respondent 5: 71–72)* when he states '*…Actually, my question was: What do I have to do to become a worthy Operations Manager…*'. This phase also includes making the decision to participate or not. This certainly is a major issue when the coaching option is offered by the organisation. One of the respondents *(Respondent 4: 3–6)* worded it as follows: '*…they offered it to all of us throughout the entire company… I am interested… there are I think, let's guess there were six eligible, I think I am the only one who headed for it…*'.

The second phase of the coaching process is the moment where the coachees develop a willingness to reflect on themselves. The term self-reflection is used during the interviews by the respondents (e.g. *Respondent 6 (303)*, saying '*…yes… self-reflection…* '). This self-reflection phase in which they stay focused on the initial objectives is an essential transition phase to prepare them and make them mentally ready to continue the process. *Respondent 7 (176)* phrases it as '*…I think that in order to achieve the ultimate objective, one has to work on himself in the first place…*'. During this phase, a dyadic relationship of trust between coach and coachee develops and the relation moves into a personal and informal relationship between coach and coachee. The organisation is from that moment onwards no longer important or involved in the process. The statement '*…A coaching process is per definition informal…*' given by *Respondent 3 (858)* is a good illustration of this viewpoint.

The third phase is the stage of self-awareness. The phase begins when the coachees start an introspection process. The coachees assess and analyse themselves and reflect on the outcomes. This process may eventually lead to growing self-awareness. The coachees bring to the surface aspects and characteristics within themselves, which were unknown to them. The respondents indicate this by using expressions like '*…You actually have to expose yourself. You start digging together and*

discovering things…' (Respondent 3: 291), '…through coaching several insights rose to the surface which I had not seen before…' (Respondent 9: 496). Going through this phase could be compared with overcoming a number of obstacles, such as defence mechanisms and ignoring some characteristics that could hinder the further development of the coaching process. *Respondent 3 (583)* acknowledges the existence of such defence mechanisms and states *'…I had built many defence mechanisms around myself, which she obviously spotted immediately, which I did not, but which to her, as a coach, were an enormous problem to overcome…'.*

The final and fourth phase includes the personal and behavioural change of the coachee and ultimately leads to the achievement of the initial objectives of the coaching support. This is illustrated by *Respondent 10 (229–231)* who states *'…I discovered much about myself and eventually came out of it much more self-confident. The result is that I have a regional job [Read: a new position on international level and a promotion] now…'.* This statement also illustrates that prior to arriving at the moment of change the person must hold a significant level of self-awareness. *Respondent 7 (46–47)* illustrates this even more clearly by stating *'…That you should have an insight in what is happening before you can change or adapt…'.* The changes are first to be located at the behavioural level. *Respondent 3 (373),* for example, situated his change at the behavioural level when stating *'…therefore my behaviour started to change…'.* The changes at a personal level are mainly related to changes in emotional intelligence *('…I am now capable of correcting myself when I walk into a trap…' [Respondent 3: 365–366])* and values *('…I have to do something about myself, because there are fields in which I definitely cannot use my value anymore in order to find my way…' [Respondent 4: 377–378]).* The impact of the change, however, goes beyond the organisational environment. Some coachees indicated that the coaching process had, perhaps indirectly, an influence on their social and family lives. *Respondent 3 (492–493)* phrased it as follows: *'…Thus, I think that I have become a warmer person… I think that I have become richer… yes, it had an impact on my social and family life. Definitely.'*

Central variables

Relationship of trust between coach and coachee

The relationship based on trust is a central variable, and it is essential in order to start and develop the coaching process. The influence of this type of relation remains at all phases of the development. The coachee must be convinced that the coach can be trusted to respect absolute confidentiality in relation to what is going on between them. Indeed, since most of the executive coaching support fits within the framework of an organisation, the coachee needs to be certain from the beginning onwards that there is no direct information line to the organisation. Without this kind of trust, the coaching relationship is put under pressure and may even be broken off. This is well-phrased by *Respondent 2 (368–369) '…he [the coach] has to keep everything confidential anyhow… that is what I heard, that the coach is actually in a direct line with your boss, yes, then it all ends quickly, doesn't it?...'.* Evidently the initial relationship may need to evolve towards a higher level of trust during the coaching process. This is illustrated by the statement: *'…Gradually, you tell more and a bond of trust is created with that coach… Thus, that trust is an absolutely crucial factor…' (Respondent 5: 294–295).* Trust must come from the coachee as well as from the coach. Even defining the formal objective is conditional upon a minimal level of trust on both sides. Indeed, the coach also needs to demonstrate a feeling of trust in the coachee. *Respondent 1 (288–289)* illustrates this well when saying *'…But if it does not click, she [coach] would have reported it and would not have worked with me…'.* The same type of reasoning appears when some respondents indicate that immediately after the intake session they could choose another coach if one of the parties thought that it would not be possible to create a relationship of trust. Other respondents gave it some more time and waited a few sessions before speaking up and

asking for a change of coach. The coachees are aware of the importance that this mutual level of trust should continue all the time in order to continue the relationship. *Respondent 3 (909–910)* expresses this feeling when he states '*…You go to your coach or you continue going to your coach because of the relationship: if the relationship does not fit, you do not continue going…*'. The relationship of trust is of great importance in the phase of self-awareness and change. *Respondent 3 (360–362)* clarifies this with the following statement '*…then, you have a real bond of trust… that permitted me to open up, to be more relaxed and to dig further and then, you can correct [change your behaviour]. My problem was that I made mistakes and did not realise that it all boils down to self-awareness…*'.

Characteristics of the coachee

An important factor determining the relationship between coach and coachee are the feelings of the coachee. At the beginning of the process, most of the coachees are somewhat sceptical and ill at ease. *Respondent 4 (555–556)* illustrates this as '*…that they touch my soul too much, which I did not like either at certain moments…*'. This feeling changes as the intimacy gradually develops into, among other things, respect and a general and positive feeling of well-being, which is clarified by *Respondent 9 (736–737)* when saying '*…where one feels very small and bad in the beginning, one senses growth throughout the sessions…*'.

Characteristics of the coach

Several characteristics of the coach play a role in the development of the relationship. These characteristics can be grouped into attitude, behaviour and experience of the coach (see Table 2). The characteristics related to the personality of the coach can be grouped under the label 'attitude of the coach' and include openness, respect, empathy, commitment, presence, honesty, sounding board and non-judgmental. These characteristics are interconnected, have some overlap and cannot be easily separated. The importance of these attitudes are clarified by *Respondent 7 (311–313)* who states '*… what is needed for that [characteristics of the coach in order to develop a relationship], respectful I think, non-judgmental, that someone understands what you are talking about, who can appreciate it…*'. Next to that, the coachees also indicate that it is important to them that the coach should to some extent show some self-disclosure because this may bring the coachees to a better understanding of their own situation and may serve as a sign of confidence in the relationship. There should remain, however, some psychological distance between the two partners.

Respondent 4 (863–865) clarifies this when referring to the start of building the coaching relationship by saying '*…I think... to disclosing himself a bit as well, which is wrong as a coach, because you cannot become too close, he did this in the right amount, I think…*'. The coach can also be seen as a role model with whom the coachee can identify. This is explained by *Respondent 4 (510–512)* who states '*…Yes, I became more motivated when I heard his personal story and I saw how he changed. Not that I wanted to mirror this change, but… a number of things did appeal to me…*'.

Coaching is not considered an exchange of ideas without commitment. Some specific types of behaviour are expected from the coaches such as, for example, confrontations, mirroring and giving direct feedback. Several coachees state '*…She mainly gave direct feedback regarding my body language, which was really confronting…' (Respondent 3: 652–653)*, '*…Well, for me is a good coach someone who can actually hold a mirror in front of you…' (Respondent 5: 55–56).* Listening is also part of the attitude of the coach, as is clear from a statement from *Respondent 10 (184–185)* '*…that you know that you can say anything and that he [coach] absorbs it while listening…*'. Eventually, the coachees will come to a point where they find their own solutions themselves. They expect the coaches to encourage them to do so, but at the same time they should give them the opportunity to find their own solutions. *Respondent 5(179–180)* explains this as follows:

Table 2: Characteristics of the coach.

Attitude of the coach	Behaviour of the coach	Experience of the coach
● Openness ● Respect ● Empathy ● Commitment ● Being present ● Honest ● Sounding board ● Non-judgmental ● Self disclosure ● Role model	● Confronting ● Giving feedback ● Non pedantic ● Mirroring ● Listening ● Stimulating problem solving behaviour ● Helpful and give psychological support ● Using techniques	● Business world ● Coaching

'…No, she never gave me advice, which I always appreciated about her. The only thing she did was coaching. Thus, let me come up with the solution…'. Although the coachees find it important to learn how to find solutions themselves, they do also consider the relationship of trust as a kind of help and psychological support. They describe this as *'…I guess I can consider it as a kind of helping…' (Respondent 8: 327)* or even *'...of course, it is psychological support. That it is, certainly…' (Respondent 5: 358*). Some respondents even consider coaching essentially as a psychological process. *Respondent 3 (552)* phrases it as follows: *'…To me, it is a niche in psychology, coaching, yes…'*. They do not really see it as a learning process that follows a number of clear didactic rules. This is illustrated by *Respondent 7 (265–267)*, who states: *'…What do you need for that [characteristics of the coach]?... not too didactical…'*. Next to that, the analysis of the transcription shows that most coaches do use a number of techniques. This aspect was not analysed in depth however, as it was not part of the research objectives. Indeed, from counselling research, it is known that the effect of counselling is not to be attributed to the methods and techniques that are used.

All respondents indicate that the experience of the coach in the business world and coaching is important. It is not possible to determine whether the experience directly influences the development of the coaching process or what happens in the phases. It is, however, an important variable that can affect the relationship between coach and coachee. This is illustrated by *Respondent 9 (658–660)*, who states: *'…Thus, which profile does the [coach] have to comply with? Certainly some experience, albeit professional, albeit in coaching, having experience is truly a necessity…'*. According to the coachees, experience in the business world means the coaches are more able to put themselves in the coachees' shoes and facilitates dialogue. This is clarified by *Respondent 6 (685–686) '… I think that that [experience in the business world] indeed facilitates the dialogue, because he can also better assess the situation you are in…'*.

The age of the coach was not mentioned as such, but it appears in connection with the issue of experience and accordingly becomes a subjacent variable that plays a role in the creation of the relationship of trust. *Respondent 8 (377–379)* phrases it as follows: *'…If one speaks about expertise and experience, then one immediately thinks about someone older, isn't it?... If it would be someone of 25- to 26-years-old, who is just starting, then I would have passed I think…'*.

Sharing values

A similarity in values between coach and coachee plays a role in the development of their mutual relationship. *Respondent 10 (173–175)* phrases it as follows: *'… that it clicks in two directions, that not only you think it*

fits, but the other way around as well. Maybe someone who has the same principles or values…'. A number of respondents give examples of values like philosophy of life, religion, having a family *(Respondent 4: 859–860)*, openness and honesty *(Respondent 10: 180–181).*

Openness towards coachee introspection

According to the respondents, coachee openness to arrive at introspection is a crucial factor that influences the coaching process and can thus be considered a central variable. *Respondent 2 (401–403)* phrases it with this statement: '*…persevere and be open, if you do not want that, you do not want it and then it [coaching process] is a fiasco without end…'.* How and how far this central variable influences the phases cannot be determined from the available data.

Environmental variables

The data allow two environmental variables to be identified that played a mediating role in the coaching process: the location where the coaching session is held and the organisational attitude towards coaching.

There are several options concerning where the coaching sessions are held, but the main distinction is between within the premises of the organisation or outside. Respondents feel that it is better to have the conversations outside of the organisation. This will improve the progress of the coaching process. The statement of *Respondent 5 (205–206)* on this topic makes it clear: *' … I think that a coaching session runs much more smoothly and more openly if you are not in your work environment…'.*

The attitude of the organisation with regard to coaching turns out to be another influencing environmental factor for the coaching process. The coachees feel that it is important for the employer to be convinced of the benefit of coaching. This attitude will contribute to avoiding a rejection or premature termination of coaching support by the coachees. *Respondent 10 (245–246)*'s statement: '*…it [the coaching activity] has faded away because [company X] was absolutely not ready for it…'* is a nice example of what can happen if the organisation in general does not have a positive attitude towards coaching. The respondents pointed to another topic in relation to the organisational attitude. All too often, organisations tend to consider coaching as a method of solving specific problems. Coaching is seen too much as a remediation and not as an instrument that contributes to growth and positive development. This leads to the situation that coachees are rather reserved when it comes to communicating the process to peers or other colleagues. The coachees plead for a more development-oriented vision, which could eliminate the taboo that sometimes exists in organisations. This is illustrated by the following statements: *'…I regret that many people conceal that they are being coached…' (Respondent 5: 338–339), '…I think there still are many companies not ready for that [coaching as a means of developing yourself]…' (Respondent 10: 515).*

Discussion

The different phases, the central and environmental variables in the model resulting from the present study can be connected to some extent to results from other coaching studies. This is, however, not the case with the general structure in which the different aspects are integrated.

The first phase of the coaching process that determines the formal objectives is identified as a crucial step where the objectives related to the organisation are determined in a consultation between coach, coachee and organisation. Kilburg (1996) already describes this consultation in his definition of executive coaching and it is also confirmed by the results of Miller and Rollnick (2002) and Runde and Bastians (2005), who identify a similar stage.

The second and third phase in the proposed model, self-reflection and self-insight, are essential in establishing personal changes and changes in behaviour. The two phases also appear in the counselling approach of Baek-Kyoo (2005), who refers to

them as part of the psychodynamic therapy. The importance of self-insight is further supported by Wasylyshyn (2003), who suggests that self-insight is one of the success factors for a positive outcome of executive coaching. The role of 'willingness' in the second phase identified in our model is to some extent confirmed by Maxwell (2009) when he refers to the willingness to disclose personal material as an important motivation for entering a coaching relationship.

The fourth phase, personal and behaviour change, is the concluding stage where the initial objectives related to the organisation are reached. Behaviour change generally receives a fair amount of attention in coaching studies and is even indicated as the main focus of executive coaching by some authors (Bono et al., 2009, Grant, 2007). The personal change identified in the present study, which related to emotional intelligence and values, is less frequently found in coaching research. Kets de Vries (2004) states that with the help of an executive coach the coachee will arrive at self-reflection and self-insight, which will lead to a change of emotional intelligence and eventually influence leadership. These views support the finding of the present study in relation to personal change. Unfortunately, the available results do not allow confirming the connection to leadership. This is related to the fact that leadership was not included as a target of study. The central variables in the proposed model are also supported by various authors. Gyllensten and Palmer (2008) and Kemp (2008) refer to the role of the relationship of trust between coach and coachee while the crucial role of trust is found in the coaching definition of Stern (2004) and also identified by Passmore (2007, 2010). Next to trust, the results of the present study also refer to the 'helping' aspect in the relationship. This result has been confirmed by Kilburg (1996). The importance of the attitude of the coach, as found in the present model and demonstrated by Passmore (2010), relates to counselling and especially in the client-centred approach of Rogers (Bluckert, 2005; McLeod, 2003). According to Bluckert (2005), this attitude is necessary for a good relationship between coach and coachee, which in turn will provide a secure environment that allows self-reflection and change. Other characteristics of the coach's attitude identified in the present study such as self-revelation and the coach as a role model do not very often appear in the coaching literature. Their role, however, is recognised in the counselling literature. Hill and Knox (2001), for instance, describe how self-revelation can contribute to a better therapeutic relationship. Passmore (2010) identified 'use the self as tool' as a positive element in the coachee's experience. Regarding the coach as a role model and the influence of the role model on self-efficacy, reference can be made to the social cognition theory of Bandura (1986). When applying Bandura's ideas, a coach could serve as a role model stimulating self-efficacy in such a way that the coachee becomes capable of finding solutions to the problem(s) and fulfilling the organisation's expectations. This connection could not be established in the new model.

The experience of the coach in a business environment together with a supportive attitude from the coach are important variables in the presented model. This raises the question (McKenna & Davis, 2009; Passmore, 2009) whether the coach should come from a business community and/or should have knowledge of psychology. The results of this study indicate that both experience in a company and knowledge of psychology can be useful. This fits in with the vision put forward by Wasylyshyn (2003), Kets de Vries (2004) and Passmore (2009). On the one hand, knowledge of psychology is important because a number of psychological skills are needed to achieve behavioural changes, which are the focus of executive coaching (Passmore, 2009). Although executive coaching does not aim to treat psychopathology, coaches should be able to recognise dysfunctional behaviour patterns and underlying psychological problems like

fear, stress and depression (Coutu & Kauffman, 2009; Wasylyshyn, 2003) and deal with transfer (Kemp, 2008). On the other hand, business experience is also necessary because of the semantics and the fact that executives must feel they are understood (Kets de Vries, 2004; Passmore, 2009).

Accordance in values between coach and coachee is one of the factors that contribute to the coach-coachee relationship and is supported by research results in the counselling literature (Coleman, Wampold & Casali, 1995; McLeod, 2003). Next to the 'accordance' aspect, there are data available in the literature that refer to a change in values in the protégé, coachee and client via respectively mentoring (Kram, 1985), coaching (Kets de Vries, 2004; Kilburg, 2004a) and counselling (McLeod, 2003). According to Kilburg (2004a) and Kets de Vries (2004), the executive coach will help change the values that are necessary for efficient functioning.

The second central variable in our model, i.e. openness towards introspection, fits in with the terms openness and willingness to be honest with oneself as proposed by Baek-Kyoo (2005) and Kets de Vries (2004). These authors assume that no change will occur if the coachee is not prepared to be open and honest with him/herself.

The environmental variable, i.e. the attitude of the organisation, also has an impact on the coaching process. A result that is supported by the vision of Maxwell (2009) and McKenna and Davis (2009). Although the respondents in our study were supported by their organisations, they indicated that a taboo still exists within the organisation. This situation may prevent the development of a general positive perception of coaching and influence future developments of the process. Wasylyshyn (2003) indicates such problems and suggests that organisations could take the necessary steps in order to see coaching more as a way of developing their employees' potential. The role of the environment where the coaching process takes place cannot, as our data indicate, be retraced in other coaching literature.

Conclusions

The model of executive coaching developed in this study is built around a coherent set of phases and variables, and gives an insight into the development of a coaching process based on the experience of the coachee. The phases and variables are largely supported the counselling and coaching literature even if they are not exactly the same as in the proposed model. The importance of the model lies in the indication of how – see the phases – the coaching process evolves, under which circumstances an executive coaching process can start and which variables play a role, and how, in order to continue and complete a coaching process. This information may guide practitioners towards designing a format for successful executive coaching. At the same time, the model sets guidelines for further research. The present model was developed based on qualitative research. A next step could be an experimental validation of the model using quantitative techniques that would allow the exact role and importance of the identified variables to be refined. In particular, defining the direction of the impact of the variables and the sequence and interweaving between them could be a point of attention. A similar analysis could also be made on the basis of data on the executive coaching process as it is experienced by the coaches themselves. This might allow other variables to be identified that play a role in the coaching process and help expand the model.

The present study has some limitations. First, there is a selection bias as the respondents in this research all have positive experiences. It would be interesting to include coachees with negative experiences. This might allow for a better understanding to be achieved of how a coaching process leads to failure and which variables play a role in the process and how. A second limitation is related to the fact that the methodology that is used does not allow us to assess how change comes about during the process. This is regrettable because the data indicate change to be an important issue. The third

limitation is related to the option to work only with coachees. This approach excludes the confrontation of the views of the coachee with those of the coach. Including coaches in the data gathering would make it possible to assess the role of other variables in more depth such as, for instance, the role of techniques.

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The role of coaching in managing leadership transitions

Alan S. Bond & Nicola Naughton

The transition into a new leadership role can be extremely challenging to navigate and is one where leadership transition coaching may benefit both the individual and the organisation. This paper reviews the literature on the nature of leadership transition coaching in the workplace. It highlights commonly reported leadership transition challenges and adopts an analytical approach that considers the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) associated with using leadership transition coaching as a means of addressing these. The paper considers the benefits of leadership transition coaching, additional opportunities which may be facilitated by its implementation within organisations, possible limitations and impediments to its more widespread adoption and the means by which these may be overcome. Ultimately, successful leadership transition management practices which incorporate leadership transition coaching are summarised in the form of a suggested transition planning tool. The paper concludes that the on-going potential challenges to organisations, particularly in today's economic climate, are in considering both the value to be gained in adopting some form of leadership transition coaching for their leadership appointments and the risks of ignoring this as a talent management tool.
Keywords: *leadership transition coaching; SWOT; transition planning tool.*

COACHING IN THE WORKPLACE often involves helping people to manage transitions in terms of personal development, goal attainment or role changes within organisations, including leadership roles. The case for leadership coaching is compelling, with 21st century businesses needing leaders at all levels and from all backgrounds (Clutterbuck, 2007; Hunt & Weintraub, 2007; Jarvis, Lane & Fillery-Travis, 2006; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005). In the area of leadership, the outcome data collected to date reveal that coaching more generally does help executives become more effective leaders (Dagley, 2006; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kampa-Kokesch, 2002) and can offer a substantial return on an organisation's investment in the coaching effort (McGovern et al., 2001).

An executive may seek out or be referred for coaching for many reasons (Giglio, Daimante & Urban, 1998; Stern, 2004). In some cases, superiors may identify an executive as being at risk of derailment, which may involve failure in the leadership transition phase; in these cases the organisation may provide the opportunities for coaching (Nelson & Hogan, 2009). In other cases, an organisation may create a programme for all of their senior leaders, 'high potential' middle managers, or others to enhance their personal development as leaders. Charan, Droddler and Noel (2011) identify six significant 'leadership passages' , spanning roles from first line manager to Enterprise manager, or CEO, and refer to the value that coaching can provide to individuals during the development of the abilities, attitudes and values demanded by each passage. The challenge, and often the reason for hiring executive coaches, is that the leadership behaviour that was associated with yesterday's results may not be the behaviour that is needed to achieve tomorrow's innovation (Goldsmith, 2009).

The focus of this paper is on the role of coaching in addressing the particular challenges associated with the transition into leadership roles.

Individuals' desires for support associated with the transition to leadership positions and the potential costs to businesses of executive failures have been recognised

since at least the early 1980s (Wolf & Sherwood, 1981). Almost 30 years later, corporate surveys sponsored by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) reveal that the desire of new leaders for transitional support remains strong. For example, 54 per cent of those responding to the 2006 CIPD survey rated their organisation's attempts to develop leaders before their next promotion as below average; 60 per cent of first level leaders and 57 per cent of middle level leaders said that support for new leaders was managed ineffectively; 33 per cent of first-level leaders felt that better self-awareness would have had the biggest impact on their success (Development Dimensions International (DDI), 2007). It appears that organisations are not always doing the right things, at the right time, for the right people.

In the area of leadership development, Passmore (2010) argues that coaching can contribute in a number of ways . The first is in helping leaders and managers to transfer learning from the classroom to the workplace, personalising the material, and making links from theory to practice and from conceptual to previous knowledge. A second benefit is to enhance skills and a third area is in the development of greater self-awareness. A fourth potential benefit of leadership coaching is through enhancing the motivation of managers. A fifth area where coaching can demonstrate a positive contribution in leaders is in helping them develop stronger personal confidence or self-regard (Evers, Brouwers & Tomic, 2006). The final area where coaching can impact on leadership is through well-being. The bottom line requirement for post-modern organisations, companies and communities is that leadership be a coachable skill (Wood & Gordon, 2009).

Ultimately, coaching and coaching psychology are ideally placed to assist leaders in developing new, creative responses to the challenges of the present and the future (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2009). Coaching and leadership alliances, it has also been claimed, provide an exciting opportunity for that exploration which actively bridges the gap between coaching psychology and leadership development (Kemp, 2009).

Despite a general acknowledgement by coaches, professional bodies and leaders themselves of the challenges that are common to leadership transitions, there appears to have been little attempt to review the evidence for individuals and organisations to adopt leadership transition coaching. This paper contributes to the understanding of this branch of coaching practice by adopting a strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) approach when reviewing the evidence in the literature for implementing leadership transition coaching. Successful practices cited by coaching providers and corporate adopters of leadership transition coaching are summarised by means of a suggested transition planning tool. The paper also considers what may need to change to enable leadership transition coaching to be adopted more widely and challenges organisations to consider the merits of leadership transition coaching, especially in today's economic climate, as a talent management tool and as a business risk management tool.

Terminology associated with leadership transition coaching

Understanding in this area is confounded by the lack of a universal terminology to describe what is meant by leadership transition coaching. This paper provides definitions of some of the terminology relating to leadership transition coaching which is widely used in the literature and in the corporate environment.

Integration, also known as induction or orientation, is the process of building an individual's awareness of an organisation's purpose, strategic goals, operating activities and performance expectations. This is often a short, intensive and largely one-way process, with the aim of enabling newly employed staff to quickly bring their existing skills to bear on the organisation.

Transition coaching refers to the range of internal and external support processes that an organisation provides to facilitate role

changes for individuals. Transition coaching is similar to development coaching in that it aims to develop the capability, skills and effectiveness of an individual to improve or sustain the performance of an organisation. Typically, it has a forward-looking focus that aims to equip the individual for imminent change and then support that individual through the transition into the new role. Transition coaching has applications in organisational restructuring, strategic changes, new organisational responsibilities associated with promotions and succession planning.

Leadership transition coaching is a particular category of transition coaching that addresses the specific challenges of adopting a new leadership role. It has applications across the spectrum of leadership roles from first leadership positions to the appointment of seasoned veterans brought into an organisation to provide sought-after wisdom and experience. The common thread is that new leadership roles require individuals to adopt different approaches from those adopted in their previous roles. A distinctive feature of leadership transitions is the impact on other parts of the organisation, creating the need to manage the transitional business risks as well as the individual effectiveness risks. Often, there is a range of internal and external stakeholders with a vested interest in the success of such leadership appointments and so it is common to find that these stakeholders have some degree of influence over the leadership transition process. This focus on the wide-reaching effects of leadership appointments throughout and beyond an organisation is the main characteristic that distinguishes leadership transition coaching from transition coaching in general.

Onboarding and *Onboarding Coaching* are terms that appeared in several journal articles and were less familiar to the authors. In the context of those articles, onboarding typically refers to the process of equipping a new leader with the knowledge and skills to enable rapid integration into an organisation and/or to the organisation's management of the transition process. Where it is used in this paper, the term 'onboarding coaching' can be taken to mean the same as leadership transition coaching.

SWOT analysis of leadership transition coaching

Leadership challenges that leadership transition coaching might address (opportunities)

An organisation's requirements in the context of leadership transitions have been identified as: a smooth transition; new leaders understanding the business expectations of the role; new leaders' awareness of what skills are needed and awareness of what each stage of leadership contributes to the business (DDI, 2007). When leadership appointments fail or the transition is not managed effectively, the organisation can suffer due to additional recruitment costs, loss of productivity and disruption to the rest of the organisation.

The demand for support from leaders themselves is also evident from the CIPD surveys, in which leaders have consistently expressed their need for transitional support. Sparrow (2007) provides a vivid illustration of this by highlighting the finding in a 2006 CIPD-sponsored leadership survey that 80 per cent of leaders rated 'transition anxiety' second only to dealing with divorce.

Given the needs to manage business risks and support leaders through the transition into new roles, what is the case for leadership transition coaching as a solution? To answer that we should first consider what challenges are associated with leadership transitions that leadership transition coaching might help to address.

The potential failure modes for new leaders that organisations need to guard against are illustrated by Butterfield (2008): a gap in pre-hire expectations versus realities; a change in senior leadership causing a change in business direction; reliance on old skills and mindsets in a new position; failure to cultivate what is needed in the new role; not knowing how to navigate and succeed in the new culture; failure to quickly forge relationships.

Another important consideration from the organisation's perspective is the business cost attached to ineffective leadership appointments: Van Vark (2006) refers to an observation in *The Economist* that 728 US chief executives left their jobs in the first half of 2006. He states that, when it can cost between 30 and 40 per cent of annual salary to hire a new leader, it is clear that such failures are costly for the organisations concerned.

Transitions in working identities, while common, can be quite destabilising – particularly when a person is in a position of organisational leadership. One response to this has been to create executive leadership programmes that have a component of identity work as part of the process. Florent-Treacy (2009) explored written participants narratives of identity transition through group coaching in a leadership development programme where the narratives showed participants moving through an epigenic process similar to group psychotherapy.

One of the key transitions identified by Wolf and Sherwood (1981) for public sector organisations was the challenge of changing from a technical to a managerial role, which involves moving away from a role that emphasises functional competence to one that requires a broader mix of technical, interpersonal and political skills and activities. The article refers to research that showed that people developed anchors involving values, interests and beliefs based on their experiences. It suggests coaching as a way of helping new managers to evaluate the validity of such anchors for the new role and to consider some new behavioural options. The article also promotes the idea of using a corps of senior executives as coaches to utilise their history and experience and to signal to staff that such support roles are valued by the organisation (Wolf & Sherwood, 1981).

More recent surveys continue to suggest that external advisers, mentors or coaches can play an important role in successful transitions. For example, the 2006 CIPD leadership transitions survey found that 45 per cent of middle level leaders and 43 per cent of senior level leaders cited the value of such support (DDI, 2007).

In an article on the topic of succession planning, Seymour (2008) attaches significance to the transition processes when leaders are about to leave an organisation and when organisations are planning a merger or acquisition, not just when appointing new leaders. This implies that transition coaching has more widespread applications, including leadership departures, internal promotions, career transitions and other organisational upheavals.

Perceived benefits (strengths) of leadership transition coaching

There are potential business and individual risks associated with leadership appointments that create opportunities for some form of coaching support. Is there evidence that leadership transition coaching can address these risks?

Bossert (2005) asserts that incorporating transition coaching into the leadership appointment process produces business benefits that result in long-term cost savings, sets new leaders on a course for success, eliminates the need to repeatedly fill top positions and avoids loss of productivity.

Similarly, Gierden (2007) identifies some of the benefits of 'onboarding coaching' from the client organisation's perspective as: reducing turnover rate (a Harvard Business School study is cited that found an executive turnover rate of 17 per cent in large companies); avoiding the high cost of failure, when investment in recruitment can be '200 to 250 per cent of remuneration'; improving knowledge transfer, 'an area where coaching takes centre stage'; increasing the likelihood of realising the desired results through a planned integration process.

Gierden (2007) cites Sysco Canada as an example of a company that has adopted and seen the benefits of onboarding; Sysco executives who worked with coaches during and after their leadership transitions were more

disciplined and achieved results faster than those who did not receive coaching support.

Stern (2005) provides an example of applying coaching in a different kind of transition, namely a merger between two information technology businesses, Logica and CMG, where a leadership coaching programme was developed to groom future members of the executive committee soon after the merger. Its success has led to the coaching programme being expanded throughout the company for new senior employees and being developed into a useful strategic tool as the new company continues with a series of further acquisitions (Stern, 2005). Van Vark (2006) also refers to the LogicaCMG example, noting that their 'early-days' coaching and mentoring programme has reduced attrition at senior levels over a three-year period from 33 per cent to 10 per cent.

The following two success stories, one relating to a corporate adopter and one relating to a coach practitioner, illustrate the typical benefits claimed by those using leadership transition coaching practices for leadership appointments.

The Bank of America (BoA) has adopted a detailed leadership transition management, or onboarding, process that includes structured coaching. This has been successfully deployed in their organisation since 2001 (Conger & Fishel, 2007). In the BoA, the three major categories of interventions for the induction phase, the next 100 to 130 days and the full onboarding programme of up to one year are: providing the tools and processes; providing orientation forums; providing peer coaches and career mentors. The BoA allocates an onboarding team to each new executive to deliver these interventions, consisting of the hiring manager, an HR generalist, a learning and development specialist, a peer coach, and a mentor. The BoA recommends that the process of onboarding does not rely on a single intervention, such as an orientation programme, but uses a breadth of intervention tools, including coaching, mentoring and formal feedback, including 360° feedback.

The BoA's measures of success include avoidance of the high costs of leadership failures, reduction in time to reach the breakeven point (the point where the new leader's contribution matches the cost of appointment), extension of their onboarding process to internal promotions and an improved executive turnover rate: The BoA recruited 189 executives between 2001 and 2006, with an annualised termination rate of 12 per cent, which they found contrasted favourably with a study that estimated executive turnover in large companies as high as 40 per cent (Conger & Fishel, 2007).

Xancam Consulting, a UK-based coaching provider, has developed a specialised approach to role transition management that aims to reduce the adjustment period required by new leaders (Yapp, 2004). It is designed to help overcome three challenges that are common to most role transition experiences:

- delivering results when the rules change; approaches that worked well before may no longer be appropriate in the new role;
- understanding the new territory; changed expectations, who does what, politics of the role;
- handling complexity and ambiguity; new ways of thinking to meet the challenge of a bigger, more strategic role.

Electrocomponents plc is cited by Yapp (2004) as a company that had decided to implement a policy of encouraging senior staff to learn from being in at the deep end and by giving them 'stretch' promotions. It had been observed that, while this had been somewhat successful as a development tool, it had the inherent risk of producing hit or miss results. Adopting a more structured approach, using Xancam Consulting's role transition management tools, has delivered real business benefits for Electrocomponents plc of increased revenue, cost-effective project execution, and delivery of priorities ahead of schedule.

Successful practices that incorporate some form of coaching support to manage the transition risks can be described in terms

of beneficial outcomes for the individual and for the organisation. In the foregoing examples, a key measure of success was the beneficial impact on business performance outcomes.

Limitations (weaknesses) of leadership transition coaching

There appears to be good evidence that coaching can address at least some of the risks associated with leadership transitions. What are the weaknesses or limitations of coaching as a support tool?

Gierden (2007) asserts that coaching provides the greatest leverage in the onboarding process for new leaders. She also draws attention to the complementary benefits of functional performance training, traditional orientation and performance feedback in the process. While this illustrates the important role of coaching in the overall process, it also signals that coaching does not provide the whole solution.

Another limitation of the coaching component of transition management is the lack of a standard approach to measures of effectiveness, which makes it difficult to compare transition coaching successes across different organisations and clients. This deficiency is by no means exclusive to transition coaching, as discussed in a review of the current state of research into the value of coaching interventions (Palmer & Cavanagh, 2007). The development and application of common measures of coaching effectiveness may ultimately help in the evaluation of coaching generally, by promoting standard approaches. One approach that is already commonly used in the corporate environment is Return On Investment (ROI), which is a financial measure that does not discriminate between rapid or slow payback of the investment in coaching. An example of a more sophisticated approach is Goal Attainment Scaling (GAS), which takes account of the time element and difficulty of attainment as well as achievement of goals (Spence, 2007). Even without universal, standard measures of coaching effectiveness, it is certainly possible to agree measures that relate to the desired outcomes from transition coaching, such as time-to-competence and impact on productivity. The obvious opportunities to design and agree these measures are in advance of the leadership appointment or when the coaching contract is being developed.

Whilst coaching research is amassing, a lack of agreed definition or the operationalisation of a successful coaching outcome (SCO) mean that methods of evaluation are under-developed. Qualitative analyses by Stewart et al. (2008) revealed that coaches and organisational stakeholders believed coaching outcomes comprised intra-personal development, personal and performance outcomes.

Threats to widespread adoption of leadership transition coaching

The published success stories illustrate that leadership transition coaching can be utilised as an effective support tool, yet leadership surveys continue to imply that there remains a gap between the demand for support from leaders and its provision by organisations. The literature provides some possible explanations for this demand/supply gap.

For example, the 'Managing Employee Careers Survey' (CIPD, 2003) provides one possible insight into the less-than-widespread adoption of transition coaching across the spectrum of leadership roles in organisations. It found that while over two thirds of organisations offer some form of career support, a high proportion of respondents said that these were aimed at specific populations such as graduates and high potential candidates.

Underhill, McAnally and Koriath (2008) suggest that the 'evolution of coaching requires organisations to link coaching to their leadership development and talent management goals'. Coaching connects both the 'who' (talented employees) and the 'how' (leadership development) with organisational goals and strategies. However, in

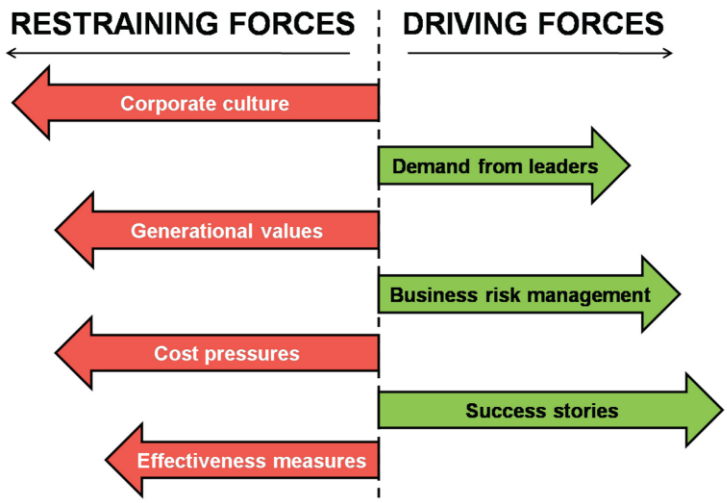
the current economic climate, cost is perceived as a major barrier to implementing talent management as a strategy (CIPD, 2009).

The following observations, based partly on the review of literature for this paper and partly on the author's own corporate experience, provide some further perceptions of the restraining forces working against the demand for leadership transition support and its availability within organisations.

A coaching culture is one where 'coaching is the predominant style of managing and working together, and where a commitment to grow the organisation is embedded in a parallel commitment to grow the people in the organisation' (Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2005, p.19). However, there are challenges to the evolving of such an organisational culture. Wolf and Sherwood (1981) describe the 'go it alone' approach of public sector managers and executives as role isolation. Coupled to this, they argue, there is a 'myth of competence' surrounding the idea of the executive role, a 'macho culture' in business and a natural reluctance among male leaders to seek support from, or offer support to, those who could be potential rivals in the organisation and where it may be considered a sign of weakness to seek support. The author's observation, based on his own 26-year career in a corporate environment, is that, while there has been undoubted progress in the development of organisational support for career development since the 1980s, notably in the areas of coaching and mentoring, the traits identified by Wolf and Sherwood (1981) remain stubbornly embedded in the corporate culture of the 21st century and are just as apparent today. This is supported by the observations of Conger and Fishel (2007) in their discussion of the causes of executive appointment failures.

In the case of leadership transition coaching, supply does not appear to have caught up with demand. Figure 1 summarises the driving and restraining forces relating to widespread adoption of leadership transition coaching that reflect the current status gleaned from the literature and the author's own corporate experience.

Figure 1: Driving and restraining forces relating to widespread adoption of leadership transition coaching.



Considerations in managing leadership transitions

Starting from the premise that a change in the balance of restraining and driving forces is needed to convince an organisation of the value of adopting leadership transition coaching, it may be helpful to focus on how the individual and business risks associated with leadership appointments may be managed.

Provided that an organisation accepts the proposition that individuals making a leadership transition require structured support, there is a range of organisational tools and processes that may be implemented to manage the risks, under the broad heading of leadership transition management. From an analysis of the literature, two key considerations emerge as being important: timing and content.

Timing

A new leader needs support through several phases: in advance of the role transition, such as in succession planning for his/her replacement, for skill building and to coach behavioural changes; during the critical first 90 to 120 days of the transition itself, following a structured transition plan; after the appointment, to minimise the time-to-competence and break-even, to embed behavioural changes, to break old habits/form new habits and to develop new social networks.

According to DDI's 2004–2005 Selection Forecast, new leaders need three to four months to become fully functional in their jobs. Highly competitive organisations are unwilling, however, to accept the drop in productivity that can accompany the appointment of a new leader. Such organisations treat onboarding as a process rather than a one-off orientation event, to ensure that new leaders get up to speed quickly (Bernthal & Erker, 2005).

Concelman and Burns (2006) go even further by asserting that companies that can identify and develop new supervisors and frontline leaders within 90 to 120 days will achieve a competitive advantage in the next decade.

Content

Sparrow (2007) highlights how leadership training, described as a mixture of general management training and coaching, can help to develop more effective leaders through: designing a multi-faceted development plan that incorporates coaching; creating a four-way contract involving a mentor, coach, coachee and sponsor; using development centres to assess raw potential and test for the required competencies; measuring the effectiveness of coaching over a six- to 12-month period by what the leader does differently. With a four-way contract, accountability for leadership success is visibly shared between the new leader and others in the organisation. This is also recognised by Concelman and Burns (2006), with a specific focus on shared accountability with the new leader's manager for a successful transition.

Bossert (2005) recommends preparing a transition plan for newly-appointed leaders and that the first step in that plan should be transition coaching, which he describes as ' a proven, integrated and systematic process that engages new leaders in the company's corporate strategy and culture to accelerate productivity'. He goes on to recommend that the remainder of the transition plan should define the critical actions that must take place within the first 100 days to position the leader and the team for long-term success.

Concelman and Burns (2006) list three critical areas to be addressed in the new leader's transition process: (i) relationships and networks; new subordinates, new peers, more exposure to senior leaders; (ii) making the connections; grasping the big picture view and communicating strategy, values, culture and the impact of recent/impending organisational changes; and (iii) planning for success; to reduce time-to-competence, new leaders need a concrete plan with specific tasks, assignments and milestones.

Concelman and Burns (2006) argue that a veteran manager can help in all these areas by giving structured coaching to a new leader and by providing valuable perspectives and insights to build competence, instil confidence and accelerate development. Developing a cadre of internal coaches has the benefits of: (1) cost containment; (2) internal capacity to create a coaching culture; and (3) coaches making better managers (McKee, Tilin & Mason, 2009)

Johnson (2005) provides further support for the foregoing points of view by declaring that onboarding is a process rather than a one-off event. The article states 'rapid onboarding has become particularly vital as workplace turnover rises' and 'providing intensive feedback and coaching is one way to get managers off and running.' Johnson (2005) also suggests that there is significant value to be gained by complementing intensive coaching with the development of social bonds and networks, citing the success of this approach when adopted by Intel to appoint a new programme manager for their Mobile Platforms Group. Goldsmith (2009) states that the people who improve the most from executive coaching have a support group or network that holds them accountable.

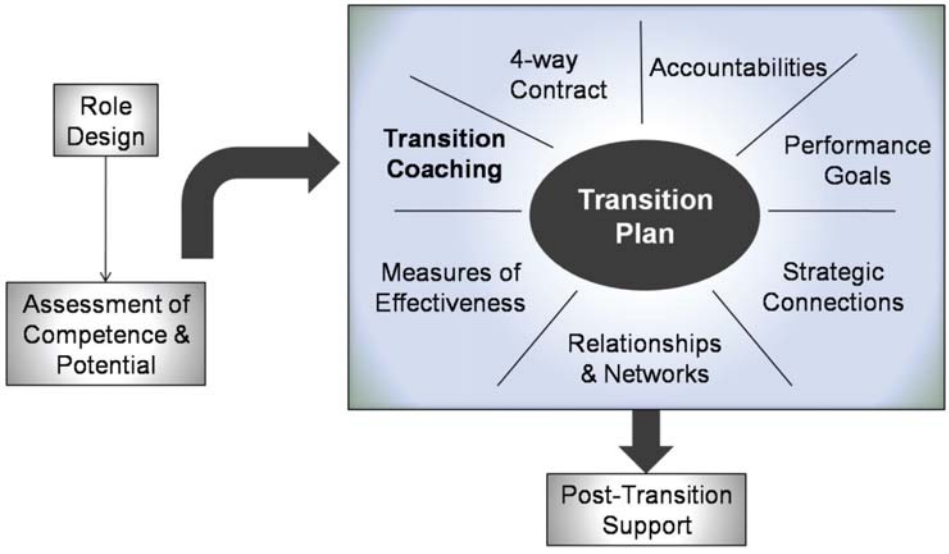
Structured leadership transition management

A suggested transition planning tool

If one accepts that timing and content are important general considerations relating to the effectiveness of leadership appointments, what specific examples of successful practices should be included in a structured approach to leadership transition management and how would leadership transition coaching fit into such a structure?

Based on the preceding empirical analysis of the literature, with a focus on ways of managing the potential risks and challenges for organisations and individuals, Figure 2 illustrates the key elements of a suggested transition planning tool, based on commonly reported practices in the literature.

Figure 2: Key elements of a suggested transition planning tool.



Assessment of leadership competence and potential; evaluates the technical, business and people skills of candidates to match these to the desired leadership profiles. A practical example of this is the use of assessment centres, where a combination of tools and techniques such as psychometric testing, competence assessments and interviews are used in the evaluation.

Transition coaching, including peer coaching, feedback and mentoring; provides support for the new leader through the role change and in developing new styles and behaviours. Coaches should be appointed early in the process so that the new leader has access to coaching and mentoring support before, during and after the critical first few months in post. Internal coaches and mentors provide much of the organisational know-how, such as company culture, how decisions are made, internal politics, past and future projects/strategic initiatives and how to influence others within the organisation. External coaches also have a unique role to play, as they can provide objective insights and act as confidantes for issues that the new leader may not feel comfortable to share within the organisation. Cashman and Smye (2007) assert that, in a structured transition management process, integration of coaching with other best practices in leadership support is vital to successful onboarding of new leaders.

A four-way contract with the coach, coachee, mentor and sponsor; defines the overall objectives of the transition planning process, timescales, who does what, ground rules for external/internal coaching and mentoring support.

Accountabilities of the new leader and other organisational stakeholders; creates clarity regarding the expectations of all stakeholders, defines the boundaries of what is in-scope and out-of-scope for the new leader. This is needed by the organisation to set the transition process up for success while minimising the impact on productivity and disruption for the rest of the organisation.

Planning for success, through a performance agreement; provides business targets, milestones and deadlines that challenge the new leader and focus attention on the organisation's expectations.

Making connections to the wider, strategic picture; is a key skill to be developed for those making the first move from a technical role into a leadership role and for externally recruited leaders. For such roles, support from peers and senior colleagues can be particularly helpful. The new leader needs to quickly learn how to make the links between short term performance and longer term plans and strategies, as well as being able to communicate these to others in the organisation.

Developing relationships, networks and social bonds with colleagues; involves all those in the organisation who can assist the new leader to develop the appropriate networks for the role and to create new relationships. It can be helpful to include time in the process for the new leader to attend company social events and get to know colleagues better through informal lunches, dinners and other out-of-work opportunities.

Measures of effectiveness for the overall process; should be designed into the process at the outset and include success measures for the individual, for the organisation and for the appropriate stakeholders so that progress can be recorded. Success measures for the individual normally includes attainment of performance goals and can also include goals that demonstrate integration into the organisation, such as development of a new team structure, execution of a change process or achieving an agreed level of connectivity across the organisation. Typical financial/business performance measures for the organisation would be time to break-even, productivity gains and cost savings. Feedback from stakeholders during and

after the transition process can also help to set and meet their expectations of the new leader and the new leader's expectations of them and can be a useful calibration mechanism during the transition process (using a mid point and end point 360° feedback process, for example).

In this suggested transition planning model, the role of the coach providing leadership transition coaching can be limited to the transition coaching element described above or can be as extensive as the overall programme integrator, depending on the internal capabilities of the organisation. There are opportunities for a coach to be involved in planning the transition, supporting the new leader to meet personal and organisational goals during the transition and facilitating the measurement of effectiveness of the transition process from start to finish. If fully involved in the process, the coach's role could include: helping to design the role by interviewing key stakeholders on the skills/abilities, experience, competences and behaviours required; drafting the contracts for the coach, coachee, mentor and sponsor that describe the measures of transition effectiveness and stakeholders' expectations (both of which can be used to design a 360° feedback process); facilitating the agreement of organisational performance targets; working with the new leader to identify and develop appropriate behaviours for the role (using techniques such as SWOT analysis, coaching to develop self-awareness/awareness of others, analysis of barriers to success, timely use of stakeholder feedback) and track progress against the agreed success measures; supporting the new leader to develop relationships and manage any personality clashes/difficult conversations; providing ad hoc telephone support for the new leader as well as regular face-to-face coaching sessions throughout the transition process.

Clearly, not all organisations have the resources and capability to fully implement this model, nor should it be expected that every leadership appointment will lend itself to rigid adherence to all components of the model. The model offers a template that organisations can use or adapt to plan and manage specific leadership transitions. Models are useful heuristics for leaders but they are not the answer (Passmore, 2010). Here, its purpose is to provide a tool that can raise awareness by helping individuals and organisations to learn from examples of successful practice and use this as a template to identify and then mitigate the risks of the most common leadership failures.

Discussion and conclusions

Leadership transition coaching is recognised as a potential talent management tool by professional bodies, business organisations, HR professionals and coaches. However, despite continuing demand from leaders for better and more support, the case for widespread adoption of leadership transition coaching in the workplace does not yet appear to have achieved sufficient momentum for leadership transition coaching to have become commonplace.

The combination of cultural and generational factors identified by Wolf and Sherwood (1981) and further illustrated by Conger and Fishel (2007) closely align with the author's own corporate experience and will be recognised by many in the corporate environment. These factors may have been the natural inhibitors of a more rapid uptake and a more widespread adoption of transition coaching for new leaders in the workplace. Factors such as cultural trends and generational values have the potential to self-correct to some extent, as the post-baby boomer generation gradually takes over from the baby boomer generation of leaders. Furthermore, new leaders in today's corporate organisation are expected to be more open to collaborative approaches, such as peer coaching and upward feedback on their effectiveness. However, such approaches do not always sit comfortably with leaders whose career experience has been predominantly within a corporate culture that admired and

valued the ability to manage without the support of others. Consequently, excellent interpersonal and negotiation skills are likely to be required to challenge the existing cultural, generational and gender biases that may be encountered within organisations. Improving the availability of tools such as those in the suggested transition planning tool can assist those organisations that choose to speed up the natural process of demographic change. Conversely, without such tools, or other agents of change, new leaders are more likely to rely on their peers and seniors to provide examples of best practice, which would tend to perpetuate the prevailing leadership culture of the organisation.

Leadership transition coaching also faces the same challenge as coaching in general, namely a scarcity of independent academic research on the effectiveness of coaching and a lack of standard measures of effectiveness. If transition coaching is to become more widely adopted across the leadership spectrum in organisations, it would seem sensible to further develop and apply a range of meaningful measures of coaching effectiveness. There is a need for the sponsoring organisations and researchers, who can take a more impartial view than those who make a living from coaching, to continue to fund and undertake original research to improve both the quantity and quality of coaching research and close the gap on the more mature state of counselling research. Meanwhile, anecdotal evidence, such as the corporate and coaching organisation examples in this paper that make the link between transition coaching and business performance, can provide compelling arguments for a prospective corporate adopter of leadership transition coaching, especially if the evidence comes from a competitor or another organisation in the same industry sector. Therefore, while the availability of a significant body of independent, validated coaching research may be several years away (Passmore & Gibbes, 2007, p.125), it could be argued that this is not necessarily an impediment to a more widespread adoption of transition coaching in the corporate environment. The strongest endorsements of leadership transition coaching identified in this review come not only from coaching providers, who clearly have a vested interest in commending transition coaching to prospective clients, but also from corporate adopters of leadership transition coaching who are willing to share their success stories. Coaching research needs to continue, and studies using larger sample sizes, control groups and random allocation of participants should become the norm not the exception. Clearly there are benefits of such research for both organisations and coaching practitioners. The benefits for organisations are to understand more accurately whether coaching is an effective investment, and what outcomes can be anticipated. The benefits of coaching research for coaching practitioners is to help them better understand which interventions work and when (Passmore & Gibbes, 2007).

Promoting transition coaching as the only way to make leadership transitions effective would be an extravagant claim. Rather, it should form part of a best practice 'tool-kit' which comprises a structured transition management process and other support mechanisms that organisations can provide to enhance the transition experience for the organisation and for the individual. Further research into other examples of applications of leadership transition coaching in the workplace across a wide range of business sectors, organisation sizes and financial scales could help to make the case more compelling for those considering adopting leadership transition coaching practices.

The review of literature suggests that benefits for individuals and organisations can be realised by adopting a structured transition management approach to leadership transitions and that transition coaching practices can have more widespread applications in the workplace than the appointment of new leaders, such as for succession planning and

corporate mergers. In the context of leadership appointments, corporations that have embraced transition coaching and coaching providers that have developed a specialised approach in this area perceive coaching as a key component of a comprehensive approach to transition management and as a means of reducing the adjustment period required by new leaders. A challenge for coaching and HR professionals is to be able to demonstrate to organisations that there is value to be realised by investing in transition coaching or that the cost of not investing in transition coaching would have a negative impact on the bottom line. While there are costs associated with leadership transition coaching, particularly if there is a high reliance on external coaches, these costs are likely to be significantly lower than the risked cost of leadership failures or productivity losses that could arise from ineffective transitions.

Organisations are continually searching for new sources of competitive edge and are strongly motivated in the current economic climate to find innovative ways of managing their costs. There is an opportunity for organisations to consider leadership transition coaching as a talent development and business risk management tool which has the potential to enhance competitive advantage. This paper concludes with these questions for organisations:

Do you believe that organisations that provide the best leadership transition management processes rank among the best performing organisations and is this a potential source of competitive advantage for you or your competitors? Or, to look at it another way, if your organisation is not providing some form of leadership transition coaching for leadership appointments, what hidden costs are you already incurring that could be avoided?

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Back to basics: How the discovery of transference is relevant for coaches and consultants today

Erik de Haan

Purpose: *In this study the phenomenon of transference (and parallel process) is explored in terms of its historical understanding and possible occurrences in real life sessions with clients.*

Design/Methodology: *After a summary of the main historical breakthroughs in the discoveries of defences, resistance, transference, countertransference, working alliance and parallel process; this process of discovery itself, which parallels the discovery of these phenomena in coach training and in new client relationships, is reversed to reveal a sensible approach to working with new clients in such a way that one makes maximum use of information that comes through countertransference, transference and informing layers underneath.*

Results: *It is shown that Freud's approach to the phenomenon of transference is still relevant today and particularly within organisational contexts. Moreover the article shows that the discovery process of transference, both by Freud and others and by new practitioners entering the field today, can be reversed to yield an approach to new clients which helps to understand them more fully earlier on in the relationship.*

Conclusions: *Transference is still a very lively and relevant topic a good century after its first discovery. Coaches would do well to notice transference phenomena within themselves and their clients.*

Keywords: *transference; parallel process; working alliance; consulting; history of psychoanalysis; coaching interventions; Sigmund Freud.*

TRANSFERENCE is a powerful phenomenon that underpins the great importance of the relationship in coaching outcome (De Haan, 2008a). Unnoticed or misperceived transference seems to lie at the root of mistakes and deterioration as reported in executive coaching relationships, such as misjudging the relationship, aggravating the status quo by collusion, the illusion of being all-powerful, or abuse of their power by coaches (Berglas, 2002). In Berglas' article transference is explicitly mentioned as a phenomenon that is missed at the coach's peril. In short, both to become relationally more perceptive and to learn to avoid very real dangers in executive coaching, it is essential that executive coaches take time to study transference. It is worthwhile then to go back to the source and study the early writings about transference, in particular Freud's technical papers. There is something powerful and unavoidable about the story of the discovery of transference which may be recreated in the development of every coach and in the discovery process that every coach and client undertake together. This paper is aimed at helping to appreciate the process of discovery of transference and countertransference. The paper inquires into what the process insights we can gather could teach us when taking on new clients. It argues that coaches can learn both from Freud's discoveries and from the benefit of hindsight.

In many of the guides to the coaching profession, transference is mentioned extensively in the context of psychodynamic approaches to executive coaching (e.g. Peltier 2001, Chapter 2; De Haan & Burger, 2004, Chapter 8; Stober & Grant, 2006, Chapter 5; and Palmer & Whybrow, 2007, Chapter 14). Moreover, a lot of executive coaching handbooks and articles that are clearly not psychodynamically orientated still underline the importance of the phenomenon of transference, for example, Zeus and Skiffington, 2000 (p.24 and others) and

Rogers, 2004 (pp.195–196). Books about psychodynamic approaches in consulting also mention transference as an important phenomenon to be encountered and worked with in practice (see, for example, De Board, 1978; Hirschhorn, 1988; Czander, 1993). Increasingly, we find transference mentioned in publications on consulting and coaching, often under the name of 'parallel process'.

In the past decades substantial empirical evidence has demonstrated the phenomenon of transference ('old issues from past relationships emerging in new relationships') more objectively. For an overview of that evidence, see Andersen and Berk (1998) and Kraus and Chen (2010).

However, it is worthwhile and insightful to go back to the original publications on this phenomenon starting from Sigmund Freud's famous discovery, particularly if one wants to gain a fresh understanding of the phenomenon and its various manifestations. The next sections will trace the discoveries around transference from its first mentioning in 1904 (Freud, 1904) until some 50 years later: 1955, when the related term 'parallel process', and 1965, when the 'working alliance' was introduced.

Freud on transference

Zur Dynamik der Übertragung (Freud, 1912) is without doubt Freud's core text in the area of transference. In it he defines transference as that part or those parts of the person's highly individual, highly personal and largely unconscious loving impulses which is not being satisfied in her relationships. He writes literally that everyone will repeat one or several of such 'clichés' regularly in the course of a lifetime (Freud, 1912). He defines transference, therefore, as at the same time: (a) highly individual in its modelling itself after previous relationships; (b) unconsciously motivated; and (c) related to thwarted libido. He assures us there is nothing special about the phenomenon, except for two 'problems': (1) more neurotic people have more thwarted libido, and, therefore, a more intensive transference; and (2) transference becomes the strongest resistance against treatment in psychoanalysis – in spite of it being originally an important bearer of healing and condition for success. Freud (1912) argues that it is precisely that part of the resistance that becomes transference (the example he gives more than once is the faltering of 'free association' which may point at thoughts about the therapist) which is the first that may come into conscious awareness. Time and time again, he points out, when pathogenic material is approached, that part of the pathology that may translate into transference, will be the first in consciousness and defended most vigorously. In other words, the illness tries to defend itself by defending itself in transference, by acting into transference; i.e. the relationship offered to the therapist becomes the illness. The consequence is that conflicts with the illness will have to be fought out (i.e. healing needs to be done) in transference, within this very relationship here and now. Victory in that conflict, Freud (1912) assures us, heralds an enduring cure of the illness. In Freud (1913) he expands by stating that if and only if the full intensity of transference has been used up on overcoming resistances, will it become impossible for the patient to continue the illness even after the transference is dissolved, i.e. after treatment.

For Freud (1917) transference is *always the same thing* ('immer das Gleiche') which will never 'allow its origins to be mistaken': it is libido streaming back from the symptoms – through heightened understanding of them – and into the relationship with the therapist.

There are for Freud (1912) essentially two types: positive, loving[1] transference and negative, hostile transference. Of the loving variety there are again two, associated with *eros* (erotic transference; see also Freud,

[1] It is hard to translate the tender German word 'zärtlich' but loving will do.

1915) and with *agape* (friendly transference). Transference is always there, from the very start of the cure. In the initial phases loving transference represents the 'strongest drive to the work' (Freud, 1917) – later on, it may become an obstacle as it attracts additional libido from freed symptoms, defences and resistances. Negative transference occurs only in a minority of cases, and usually somewhat later in the cure.

The history of the discoveries related to transference and countertransference, seems to be transferential in itself, as it clearly is a repetition of the process of overcoming or eliminating obstacles (again, see Freud's 1917 lecture *Die Übertragung*):

1. 1st Obstacle (1880s): *the problem is (related to the) unconscious*, a hidden feeling or wish. Pills don't work, hypnosis is not of long effect, arguing with the patient – when it is at all successful – only instils an idea *next* to the unconscious, and doesn't really touch it. Solution: (1) find out about the unconscious by listening closely and with dedication; (2) discover some of the suppressed material; (3) make it more conscious. Then one can work with it more directly.
2. 2nd Obstacle (early 1890s): remembering stops, memory does not give in or give away its treasures. At such a moment one discovers *defences*, such as repression. Solution: name them and shame them.
3. 3rd Obstacle (late 1890s): remembering halts again as it touches on something painful, embarrassing or contrary to morality, and the patient becomes reluctant. At such a moment one discovers *resistance*. Solution: overcome it, by guessing or intuiting it[2] and naming it. Historically, this discovery corresponded with the start of the 'fundamental rule' of free association – as Freud's earlier technique was found to invite unnecessary resistance by its directive nature.
4. 4th Obstacle (1900s): free association halts again, or becomes repetitive. A heightened interest in the helper becomes apparent. *Transference* arrives on the scene. In extreme cases we encounter 'transference neurosis', as a new re-enactment of the neurosis. Solution: (1) maintain the transference, as it 'opens up an intermediate region between illness and real life, through which the transition from the former to the latter takes place' (Freud, 1914); and (2) demonstrate how the feelings and actions do not originate in the present situation, so that repetition can be transformed into remembrance and reflection (Freud, 1917). Here what we see is that 'transference itself is used for resolving transference' (Strachey, 1934), i.e. that the force behind analysing the transference is itself transferential in origin: it is the positive, friendly transference underpinning the therapy as a whole.
5. 5th Obstacle (late 1900s): *counter-transference*. First mentioned in Freud (1910) as the influence from the patient on the 'unconscious sensing' of the therapist. Although, as many (see, for example, Lear, 2005) have pointed out, countertransference must have been experienced without being recognised or named as such well before, for example, by Breuer in his work with 'Anna O.' or by Freud in his work with 'Dora'. Solution: for this purpose Freud (1910) suggested self-analysis and ongoing analysis ('supervision') for the therapist in order to understand and overcome the obstacle so as to be able to return to the work.
6. 6th Obstacle (late 1940s; i.e. post Freud): the therapist's anxiety keeps bubbling up even if well-understood. Solution: welcoming and using counter-transference as an antenna to deeper listening (Heimann, 1950).

[2] Freud seems to use 'erraten' and 'vermuten' interchangeably. Interestingly, Freud's original term for working through, 'überwinden', means to get through it or overcome it, not so much to work with it in any way.

Historically, each of these developments was 'first considered a somewhat annoying interference with the work, then an instrument of great value, and finally, the main battleground for treatment' (Racker 1968).

On the way of discovery a lot of people were left behind: initially peer hypnotherapists, then Joseph Breuer, then Freud himself (witness the delay in publishing the 'Dora' case), and then certain earlier Freudian assumptions. This seems a path not just of discovery, but also of a gradually emerging honesty about the discoveries. Freud (1914) himself notes that 'the development of psychoanalytic therapy was probably delayed by a decade at the start, because of an erotic transference situation', hinting at Breuer with 'Anna O.', Racker (1968) surmises that perhaps according to some Haeckelian law[3] this discovery process repeats itself with every new analyst and indeed every new school of psychoanalysis, as they struggle initially with defences and resistances, only to become more open about their own countertransference at a relatively late stage.

Bruchstück einer Hysterie-Analyse (Freud, 1905) is the first publication we have that is explicit about transference. There is only one clear-cut transference example in the case study, related to the first dream, involving smoke 'Dora' smells just after dreaming. The smoke is linked in the therapy to Freud, whilst bearing in mind that also 'Dora's father and 'Herr K' were passionate smokers. So in this very first book about (erotic) transference we find the full Menninger-Malan (Malan, 1979) triangle-of-person (father, significant other and analyst) all connected around a cigar – the same cigar which has become so proverbially associated with Freud. Later on, but more implicitly, it seems to be the un-interpreted negative transference which leads to the breakdown of treatment.

In the 'Nachwort' (epilogue), which was added almost four years after writing the case study, we find the first definition of transference (p.279), and Freud makes a different distinction from later years: the one between 'unchanged reprint' versus 'revised edition'. This is an important distinction: the first boils down to a primitive displacement of one person by another, and the second has an element of sublimation and adaptation to it, and so, Freud continues, the content of the second is 'milder' (Freud, 1905). Freud adds that the job of guessing and interpreting transference is the 'hardest' part of the work, whilst the analyst has to work in a self-reliant manner, with very scant evidence and without getting carried away. This may be the first, veiled reference to countertransference, a concept that is not yet mentioned at this stage, but we know from other sources Freud experienced with regard to 'Dora'.

He then notes that people will judge this phenomenon as a disadvantage, and perhaps even as evidence that the psychoanalytic cure engenders new pathology – and argues against both positions, stressing first the inevitability of transference and then the converse of the imagined opponent: 'this, the biggest obstacle of the cure, is destined to become the strongest instrument of it when we succeed to guess it time and time again, and translate it to the patient'.

By the time of the 'Rat Man' case (Freud, 1909), Freud shows himself a real master of the transference. He demonstrates in some detail how crucial breakthroughs in this treatment happen after Freud is able to sustain and interpret a heightened negative transference (rude and denigrating abuse directed at Freud combined with existential fear of Freud) and to link the transference to some of the main discoveries of the treatment so far, after which the Rat Man is able to provide a host of new associations and improves.

[3] In 1866, the German zoologist Ernst Haeckel proposed that the embryonic development of an individual organism (its ontogeny) followed the same path as the evolutionary history of its species (its phylogeny) (Haeckel, 1866).

There are clear connections between transference and some of Freud's other discoveries: resistance, repetition compulsion and death drive.

- *Resistance* was introduced by Freud as early as 1895 (Breuer & Freud, 1895): overcoming resistance is the crowning piece of *Studien über Hysterie*. Is transference 'resistance' as the word 'transference neurosis' (Freud, 1914) would lead us to believe, or is transference rather the 'resisted', the relationship that the patient is unable to remember or express, and does not allow into consciousness (Freud, 1920)? Racker (1968) points to these two contradictory positions that Freud must have held at different times.
- The *repetition compulsion* is introduced in Freud (1914) as something under-pinning transference; indeed, in Freud (1920) as something even more funda-mental than the pleasure principle. Transference is by definition a repetition, and when it is central to session, after session it can well be experienced as a compulsion.
- In 1920 Freud also introduces the *death drive* as an explanation of negative transference. Before that, Freud was thinking of 'love' and 'hate' in the unconscious as very similar, almost interchangeable, as he demonstrates in dream analysis ('representation by opposites'; Freud, (1900)). There is good support for the earlier explanation: erotic and hostile transference produce very similar obstacles to treatment – so it would seem the death drive is not necessary to grasp the phenomenon of transference.

One can reconcile Freud's various positions by looking at transference as repeating ('being'), rather than remembering ('reflecting on'), who we are in this very moment (this is close to the argument in Freud, 1914). Transference is then an expression of the unconscious root of our behaviour which springs from earlier experience. When the task is remembering, transference offers resistance to the task. When the task is understanding or interpreting, transference comes across as the resisted: the aspects of our being here now that would complete the picture. Transference is not *a priori* driven in either direction, it is 'always the same' (Freud, 1917): that part of our relating here and now that we are not conscious of. It can be an expression of love (Freud, 1912), it can be neurosis (Freud, 1913) and it can be an expression of hate and self-destructiveness (Freud, 1920).

The importance of transference

From the earliest days, transference has struck Freud and other participating observers as a form of sublime co-operation and sublime resistance at the same time. The importance of transference for psychoanalytic treatment is considerable. Indeed, in Freud's view transference has the capacity to take over the whole treatment (Freud, 1917). Nonetheless, if one looks at the reports from Freud's patients about his technique, he rarely appears to address or interpret transference head-on (see, for example, Lohser & Newton, 1996). Other schools of therapy also teach the concept, and it has found its way into our field of organisational consulting and coaching (see the references mentioned at the start of this article, or Ledford (1985)).

One can encounter the power of transference in coaching and consulting both early-onset and in longer-term relationships. I was first 'struck' by transference in my work in management development through the 1990s where we were wont to end a workshop with an afternoon working with trained actors. The participants would think of a conversation or a relationship that they wanted to improve, the actor would receive short instructions, and then the scene would be played out several times, comprising its original course and trials of new approaches. The actors would consistently get standing ovations at the end of the afternoon and would remain with the participants as the highlight of the workshop. Many participants remarked on how real the role-play

had been for them, how it had felt like being in the room with the real person. It was similarly fascinating to observe the changes in the participants when they were in the scenes, trying to wrestle with their bosses, rivals and clients. In organisational work nowadays one often uses Searles' (1955) term 'parallel process' to refer to phenomena where both transference and countertransference play a part, acknowledging one's own possible contribution to the phenomenon. The terms transference and countertransference can then be limited to describe individual responses or behaviours.

Case example

A shadow consultant had just started supervising a team of change consultants working at a financial services organisation. As the group session progressed, she noticed that whenever the project leader was speaking her mind wandered and even when she forced herself to listen, she was only able to follow what was being said for a few minutes at most. When others in the team spoke, she found it easier to concentrate, but was concerned about the quality of her supervision because she had not fully followed the project leader's contribution. When the same thing happened during the second session she decided to share her experience with the group in a way that avoided criticising the project leader. She asked whether others felt the same way and whether this might be a reflection of their work with the organisation in some way. To her astonishment several team members admitted that they too found it hard to follow their project leaders' thought process. The leader was initially embarrassed, but with the help of the group came to realise that their key client, the CEO, was isolated and remote from their colleagues, who also seemed to only half-understand what they were trying to communicate. The supervisor pointed out that the team's experience of the project leader was in fact a classic example of a parallel process, in other words a replication of what was happening in the client system.

The supervisor then helped the team think through what the project leader could do differently and how this insight might also be relevant to the CEO. This resulted in a profound shift in the team's effectiveness, as they learned to share what might be construed as negative feedback in a spirit of mutual inquiry rather than criticism. The CEO was similarly defensive when the project leader shared their observations but was astonished at their accuracy when he sought feedback from his closest colleague.

Readers will recognise the power of 'transference interpretations' in their work as coaches or consultants: the inescapable and often quite unhinging effect of feedback on here-and-now behaviour whilst it occurs. One senses an almost devastating power when such interpretations cut through a stuck situation just by bringing to someone's attention how they seem to initiate or respond here and now with the consultant or coach, and one is reminded of the quote 'it is impossible to slay an adversary *in absentia* or *in effigie*' (Freud (1912) and in different words in Freud (1914)), i.e. of the very real power to 'destroy' behaviour by a single hypothesis or even summary *in situ*.

In contrast to the careful and slow first journey of discovery of transference, nowadays we recognise the immediacy of transference and are inclined to see 'parallel processes' everywhere, in our clients, in ourselves, in the relationships we engage in. Freud (1913) also gives an example of immediate-onset transference, a patient to whom in the very first session 'nothing' springs to mind whilst in reality he is obsessed with the treatment, the consulting room, and lying on the couch. Harold Searles writes in 1955: *'…my experience in hearing numerous therapists present cases before groups has caused me to become slow in forming an unfavourable opinion of any*

therapist on the basis of his presentation of a case. With convincing frequency I have seen that a therapist who during an occasional presentation appears lamentably anxious, compulsive, confused in his thinking, or what not, actually is a basically capable colleague who, as it were, is trying unconsciously, by this demeanour during the presentation, to show us a major problem-area in the therapy with his patient.'
(Searles, 1955; pp.169–170)

Case example

Here is a recent example of quickly developing transference from one of my own supervision groups of executive coaches. The client was an English management consultant who had been sent by his English client organisation to a subsidiary in Italy where he was to coach a senior manager. He described how he found the exuberance of expression and emotionality of his new coachee difficult to handle. During supervision he worked with another participant and discussed the challenges posed by this new client. At the end of that short coaching conversation one of the supervisors drew attention to the fact that the client seemed to have changed; he had never seen him so animated and extravert. We realised that he had copied his client's behaviour, particularly his gestures, and he agreed when this was pointed out. It is surprising that he first felt almost intimidated by his client, and then was able to intimidate someone else in the very same way. This type of transference that comes across as 'repetition compulsion' can also be viewed as an unconscious learning process that helps the individual to handle new behaviour by first adopting that behaviour themselves. It is the age-old story of how the victim becomes the victimiser.

In summary, the importance of transference is not only related to the ubiquity and the immediate onset of the phenomenon, but also to the myriad of possibilities and the complexity of relational patterns that are copied, repeated, partially repeated, or mirrored in transference. Transference is not only 'always the same' (Freud, 1917), but it is at the same time an immensely rich phenomenon that plies and adapts itself to session after session, and within sessions.

Newer thinking about transference/countertransference

Nowadays the term 'transference resistance' (Freud, 1912) is less and less heard, whilst the emphasis now is more on the associative quality of transference. As a consequence of this, Freud's (1913) advice to leave the theme of transference untouched as long as the patient's communications run on is observed less, and more therapists feel that transference can be explicitly addressed from day one (an observation that also Racker, 1968, makes).

Here is a brief summary of a few newer influential papers in the area of transference:

- Strachey (1934) looked into the conditions which have to be fulfilled for a transference interpretation to be 'mutative' or 'killing' as Freud called it in 1912.
- Heimann (1950), in a short article, broke ground for reappraising the concept of countertransference. Heimann and follow-up studies such as Racker's (1968), gave therapists permission to listen more deeply to the countertransference they bring to the occasion as well as in particular their our own transferential response to the patient, and to use the information contained in our countertransference for the benefit of the patient.
- Harold Searles (1955) was the first to make an important new distinction in the phenomena of transference, as he pointed out the fact that there are essentially two possibilities, namely that the patient either relives his/her earlier position (e.g. feeling how it felt with father, acting as they acted with father,

etc.) or incorporates the position of the other (e.g. feeling and/or acting like father). He called these two options 'unconscious identification' and 'complementary unconscious identification'. In our field they are sometimes called parallel and inverse transference (see, for example, De Haan, 2004, pp.82–84). Freud must have been aware of the distinction, see, for example, his analysis of the play of his 18-month-old grandson in *Jenseits des Lustprinzips* (Freud, 1920), chapter 2, where he shows a boy who takes the role of the 'perpetrator', his mother, and thus displays inverse transference from the earlier interaction with his mother. Another example is the case example on the previous page.

- Greenson (1965) introduces the concept of *working alliance* as a broadening of Freud's (1912) 'zärtliche Übertragung' (friendly transference), which opened up the prospect of actually measuring transference. Bordin (1979) was instrumental both in creating a 'two-person' or interpersonal description of the working alliance and in identifying three measurable aspects of it (goals, tasks and bonds), which allowed the working alliance to be operationalised. There is now a plethora of working-alliance psychometrics available, for example, the Working Alliance Inventory (Horvath & Greenberg, 1986) which has been made available to executive coaches.

The still newer, relational school of psychoanalysis also attaches great importance to transference, arguing

1. the idea that change happens in the relationship, and only in the relationship, which brings the hypothesis that change in the transferential relationship here-and-now is a necessary and perhaps sufficient condition to bring about change outside the consulting room (Stolorow & Atwood, 1992);
2. the philosophical position that it is not really libido as Freud used to think (Freud, 1917), and it is not our objects either (Fairbairn, 1952) that drive us, but that it is relationship (Mitchell & Aron, 1999), i.e. being in a relationship that is familiar to us and where we can thrive or continue to suffer in similar ways because we have experienced it before.

Relational psychoanalysis moves the concept of transference right to the centre of personality theory as well as of psychotherapy, where perhaps it should have been all the time since that very first case history in *Studien über Hysterie* (Breuer & Freud, 1895), that of 'Anna O.', were it not for the intricacies of the discovery and revelation process. It is important to note that many of the innovations that the relational school claims to have made are perhaps not as new as advertised, and that much of relational thinking goes all the way back to Freud or is at least not contrary to Freud's theories (Mills, 2005).

In summary, it is safe to say that transference has become completely mainstream in psychodynamic psychotherapy, and that therapists are open to a very broad spectrum of occurrences, or phenomena, or events in the here and now, whilst they are working with their patients, ranging from the 'real' relationship (rapport, working alliance) to repetitions of patterns taken from elsewhere, both as intuited from their patients and as sensed from within themselves. The psychoanalytic literature gives them full encouragement to think about these phenomena and to use them to build what are hopefully 'mutative' interpretations, or interpretations that really make a difference.

Applications for taking on new clients

Freud (1917) stated that the natural emergence of neurotic transference and countertransference tends to have a rather late onset, i.e. after defences and resistance have already appeared and been noted. As discussed before, nowadays it is thought that this observation may have been due to missing earlier transference (Racker, 1968). It seems worthwhile to consider actively working against missing out on earlier transfer-

ence phenomena by attending to transference from the earliest relationship with the client. There are two clear advantages of thus working against the phylogenesis of psychoanalytical technique. Firstly, it prepares us better for our sessions as we will have already considered our own share in the process. Secondly, we would be literally countering a process which in itself contributes to pathology as it repeats itself largely unnoticed, against the possibility of new learning or thinking.

Let us embark on a thought experiment reversing the 'order of appearance' as discussed in the first section, i.e. the natural and historical genesis of therapeutic discovery which indicates that the 'root of the matter' is

1. avoided altogether;
2. hidden in the unconscious;
3. defended against;
4. buried beneath resistance to the therapy;
5. transferred into the therapy room (repeated rather than remembered);
6. obscured by countertransference.

This would mean that we train ourselves to be aware of our countertransference responses in general, and also specifically before contracting with a new client. We would be literally counting back from this final discovery, countertransference. And in this way we can identify six principles to bear in mind during a coaching relationship:

6. **'Put your own countertransference first'** Racker (1968) suggested that there is a universal countertransference response which is oedipal (Freud, 1900) in nature. In essence and if we are completely honest, we will find that we want our clients of the other sex to love us, and we want to defeat ('murder') our clients of the same sex, even if these tendencies might well be reversed (according to the 'negative Oedipus complex'; Freud, 1923). Not exactly an ideal situation to begin a helping relationship, which is precisely why these tendencies were not written about for such a long time and why we need to think hard about them before we commence a coaching relationship.

What we might try to do when preparing for new client work or for individual sessions, is ask ourselves what instinctual responses we can detect within ourselves. This can go a bit further than just liking and disliking, attraction and aversion. We can easily form a spontaneous 'image' of the client in our mind, even if we have not met the client. Sometimes it is a glance, sometimes a posture, sometimes an action in the room – rarely is this image verbal. It is more of a sense of being-in-the-room with the other person. Once we have this sense we can analyse it and explore how we are unconsciously preparing for our client: are we feeling superior, condescending, anxious, desiring, etc. Rarely do we feel 'neutral', despite all the exhortations of classical psychoanalysis, and if we do there is probably scope for more analysis of our own felt neutrality and what it masks.

Whilst the client meeting draws closer and we gather more information and experience, general counter-transferential patterns become more specific. The client will remind us of someone in particular or will prompt in us a flurry of emotion with a single gesture. Emotions that we feel during the sessions have a counter-transferential component. Racker (1968) also describes how some of our outlook may change into a 'depressive' one where much of our feelings are related to our superego, and we may experience feelings of self-doubt, inadequacy, or superiority with regard to our client.

Later uses of countertransference include our response to perceived ruptures in the relationship. Experienced coaches and consultants learn that annoying interferences may turn out to be the main arena of their work. This is true both for individual clients and for sponsors of the coaching work as well as organisational clients.

Time and time again one can notice that the best and most effective consulting work is done soon after an annoying frustration or irritation, but only if the relationship survives this rupture.

5. **'Attend to the client's transferential patterns from the start'**
   Once we are somewhat aware of our countertransference response and we have analysed some of our feeling toward our client, we can begin attending to what the client brings in terms of transference. In this regard, it is productive to think about this quote: *'place yourself on the side of the tendency towards repetition, or on the side of the struggle against the resistances which oppose repetition'* (Freud, 1920; as quoted by Racker, 1968; p.48). In other words, we can keep our empathy firmly on the side of the transference in order to try to understand its origins from within, in particular to understand some of the client's central conflicts through the acting out of the transference, and also the repressed memory or impulse that has given rise to this particular transference at this particular time. Transference need not be something that is developed over time between coach and client. Similar to counter-transference, transference will start from session 1 and even before.

   It is important to work with transference in a way that is at the same time open-minded and robust, in other words to adopt both a thick and a thin skin when responding to transference (De Haan, 2008b). A thick skin allows us to sustain the workings of transference and preserve us in the midst of pulls to respond in certain emblematic or 'cliché' ways. A thin skin helps us to sense and pick up subtle cues that can inform us about this behaviour and its trans-ferential origins.

4. **'Within the sessions notice 'resistance to coaching' as an undercurrent'**
   Within what we perceive of the transference towards us, we try to identify and overcome the resistance of the client from moment to moment. Freud (1912) wrote that 'resistance accompanies treatment on every step' and later (Freud, 1940) that 'overcoming resistances is that part of the work which causes the most time and the greatest trouble'. Within the context of this paper it is relevant to note that in the last technical introduction that Freud wrote, from his last year in London and left unfinished, he follows the same order as here: he covers transference first and then moves on to resistance as the 'other important part of our job' (Freud, 1940), whilst in his earlier, more historically based overview (Freud, 1917), resistance comes first.

3. **'Try to pick up cues – defences – which help to deepen the conversation'**
   Whilst spotting relational phenomena like countertransference, transference and resistance, we continue practicing our 'evenly hovering' free association to listen to our client both consciously and unconsciously. On this level the information in our sessions is well captured by Malan's (1979) triangle of conflict, which includes defences, anxieties and hidden feelings or impulses. Malan (1979) argues that the first of these we will notice is the defence, as defences form layers of (pre-)consciousness around more hidden anxieties and feelings. Resistance and defence are coupled: resistance can be defined as 'defence protracted into the here-and-now', i.e. as additional defence needed when the coach comes uncomfortably close.

2. **'Follow the deepening content of the conversation: anxieties'**
   Being somewhat aware of the context at this moment (countertransference, transference and resistance), helps to be secure enough to become more fully aware of the content of the session in this very moment, i.e. what goes on for the client underneath words spoken, issues

and ideas offered and defences demonstrated. We can see the origin of defences as a layer of protection, isolation, and/or dampening of anxiety, which thus becomes the next discovery in our journey of understanding.

1 **'Spot authentic feelings and wishes beneath those anxieties'**
Finally, anxiety can be seen as a consequence of an emerging desire or feeling which is problematic or unwelcome. This deep feeling or impulse lies at the root of much of the perspectives that went before, and will only be discovered last through under-standing ever better the relationship in the room, resistances, defences and anxiety.

Figure 1 is a sketch of the various aspects of (or perspectives on) the here-and-now in a coaching session, without wanting to reify any of these aspects. Each of the six concepts may describe the same affect or emotion during a session, under various viewpoints, so all six amount essentially to one and the same 'thing', the thing that is going on at this moment, which could be called the symptom as it presents itself right now. The various perspectives or ways the symptom engages with us, are each always there and they are themselves multilayered, ambiguous and contradictory. Of these six, resistance would probably be the one most 'objective', or best observable. All others are usually hidden under the surface, to various degrees.

Conclusion

Transference, or the re-emergence of past relationships within present relationships, is a fascinating phenomenon. Not just because it is so infinitely varied and rich, as the traces of meaningful relationships in our lives and careers are bound to be. Not just because transference leads to curious misunderstandings and impositions on partners in a relationship. What makes transference so fascinating is that it occurs, or at least begins, subliminally, in an area of consciousness that we do not have much access to, not even through introspection. Transference phenomena have great potential for self-understanding and personal development, as they provide us with a 'royal road' towards perceiving how previous relationships have affected us. In the realm of leadership and coaching, transference gives us the promise of access to the 'shadow side' of our leadership aspirations, the aspects of ourselves and our past that propel us forward to take up certain roles and engage in certain relationships, but that are largely hidden from our own view, and barely accessible by reflection or introspection. These shadow sides may well have something to do with the frustration of our own desires and wishes (as Freud suggested), which would explain why there are such frequent indications for transference in helping conversations.

By opening our eyes to the possibility of transference, even of crossed or inverse transference where we repeat other people's roles in a relationship rather than our own, we may enrich our relationships and our lives. And as a minor concomitant, we may enrich our experience of executive coaching and enhance our effectiveness as coaches as well. Studying the roots of transference as we have done in this article, both the historical roots and the roots in our own client relationships, may bring a great return on our efforts to find meaning and understanding.

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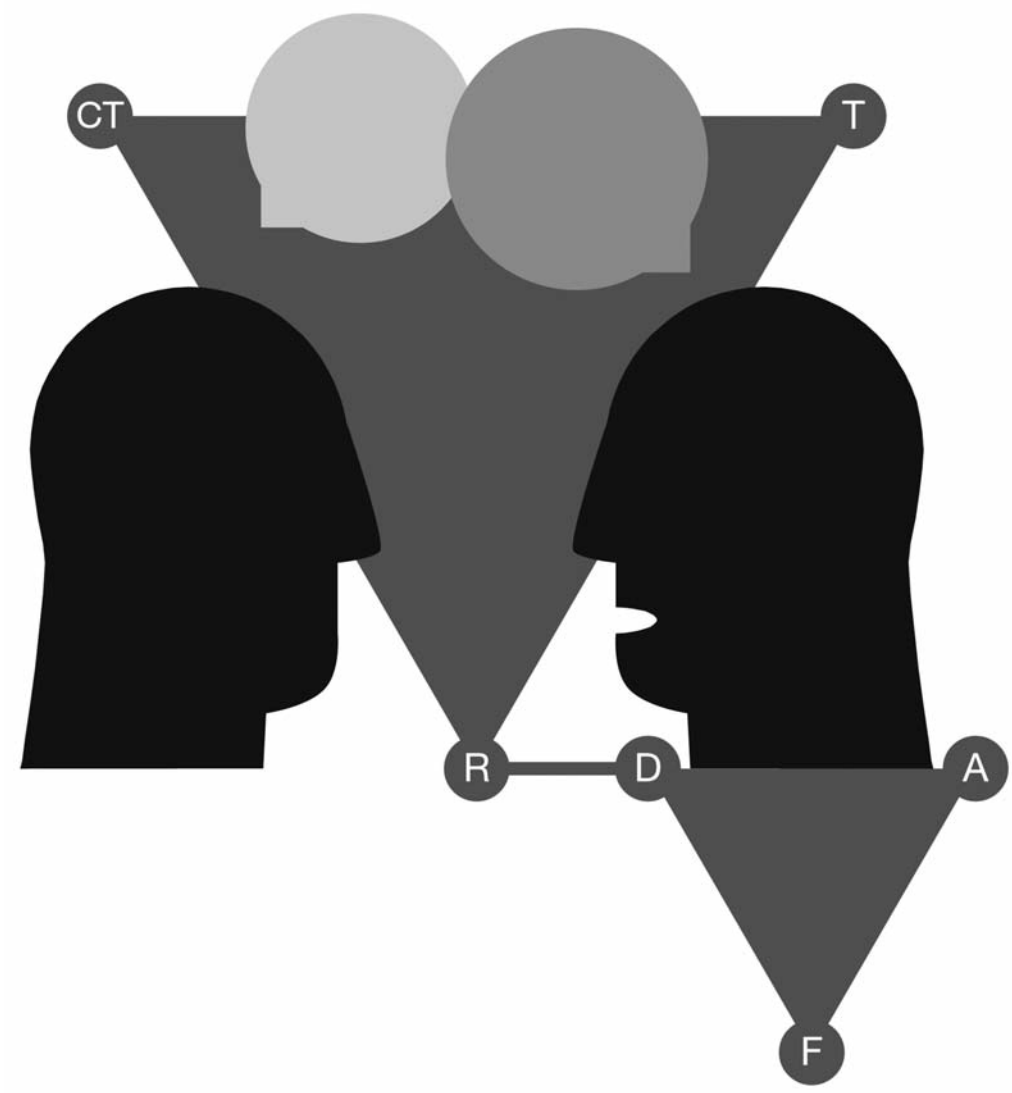
Figure 1.



This is an overview of the six 'stages of discovery' or the six Freudian distinctions that inform the phenomenon of transference, building on Malan's Chapter 10, Figure 1 (1979, p.90). This is an effort to depict graphically how countertransference may be an entry point for an understanding of the other person, and can be built upon through transference, resistance, etc. The figure contains:

- three relational perspectives on the other person:
  1. CT: countertransference;
  2. T: transference;
  3. R: resistance;
- and three intrapersonal perspectives on the other person:
  4. D: defence;
  5. A: anxiety;
  6. F: hidden feeling or impulse.

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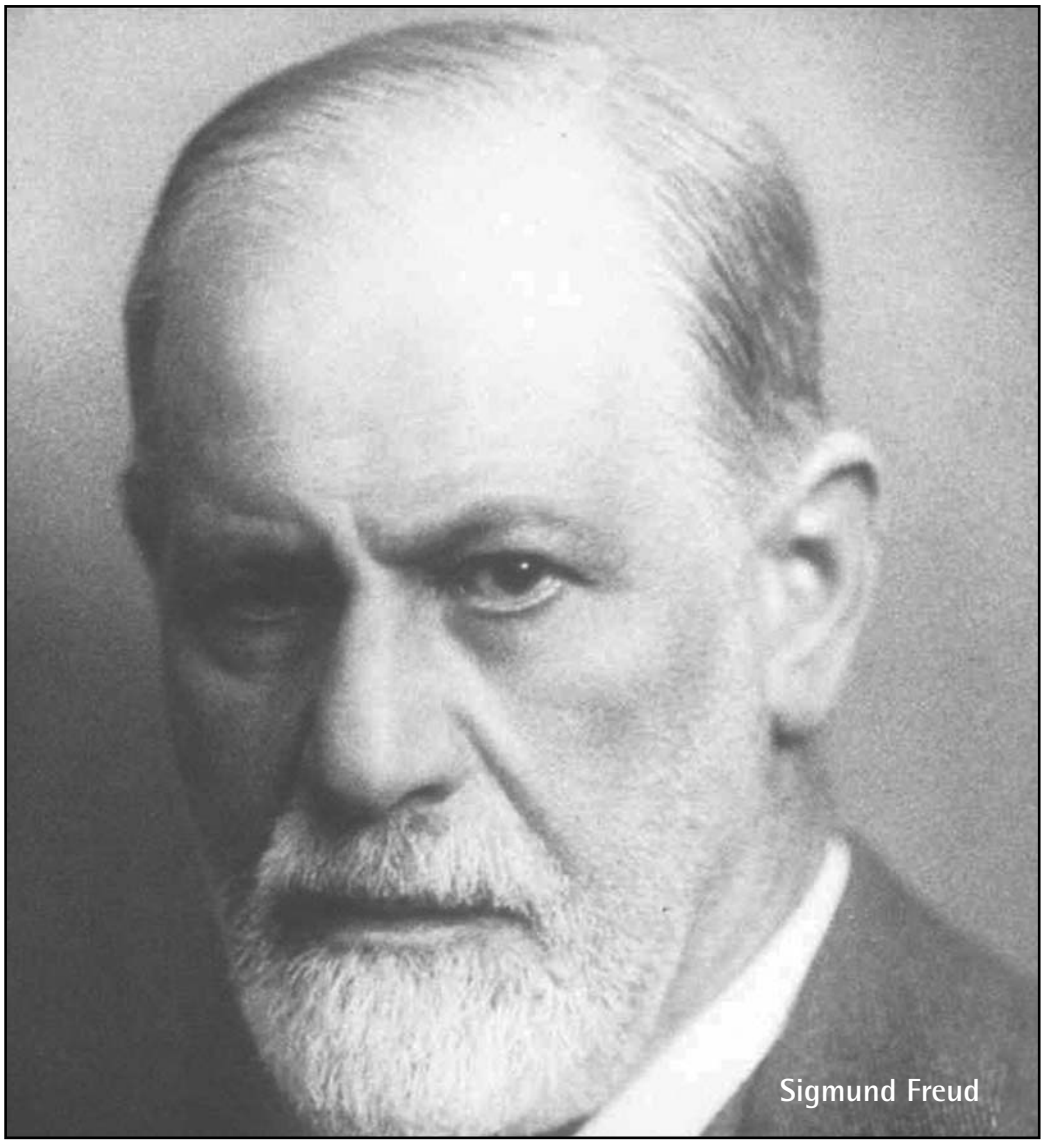


Coaching on the Axis: An integrative and systemic approach to business coaching

Marc Simon Kahn

Business coaching is defined as occurring within an organisational context with the goal of promoting success at all levels of the organisation by affecting the actions of those being coached. Its success is based in the quality of the coaching relationship and the degree to which it successfully aligns with the organisation from which it takes direction and sanction. This paper explores an integrative and systemic approach to business coaching which captures the way it interfaces with organisational, interpersonal and intrapsychic systems. The integrative orientation ensures the coach is unrestricted theoretically and practically in delivering the most viable intervention and the systemic orientation works with the relational interfaces between coach, coachee and organisation to ensure alignment with organisational reality. These interfaces are viewed in three dimensions, the environment, the individual and the coaching relationship, existing on an axis that a coach may track thematically. A practical dialogical process is offered to elicit insights and test actions systemically along this axis. A detailed case study is provided.
Keywords: *Business coaching; executive coaching; integrative; systemic; dialogical.*

BUSINESS COACHING is defined as 'a process of engaging in meaningful communication with individuals in businesses, organisations, institutions or governments, with the goal of promoting success at all levels of the organisation by affecting the actions of those individuals' (Worldwide Association of Business Coaches, 2007). The past decade has seen a significant increase in literature addressing the way coaching interfaces with organisations to deliver business results. Many authors (Brunning, 2006; Cavanagh, 2006; de Haan, 2008; Huffington, 2006; Kemp, 2008; O'Neill, 2007; Passmore, 2007; Rosinski, 2003) established the theoretical and practical foundations for a relational and systemic approach to business coaching in which success of the intervention is based in the quality of the coaching relationship and the degree to which it successfully integrates and aligns with the sponsoring organisation. These authors show that business coaching is more an engagement of relatedness than any one particular method or skill (Kemp, 2008, p.32; Passmore, 2007, p.69) and that this relatedness is embedded in a greater systemic context, commonly an organisational culture (Rosinski, 2003; Schein, 1992). Successful approaches to business coaching, therefore, incorporate significant consideration of the relational dynamics between the triad of coach, coachee and organisation, and focus on the coaching relationship and its systemic interface with the business environment.

From a theoretical perspective many coaching offerings have tended to be effective conversions from established psychotherapeutic approaches (Passmore, 2007; Stout Rostron, 2009) with 'a focus on transferring a single model from its therapy origins to coaching' (Passmore, 2007, p.68). In many respects this has been a blessing as it has ensured that early coaching practices were automatically underpinned by rich and deep theory and research. However, business coaching occurs within the context of a marketplace not a therapy room, and thus there is a clear argument for more coaching offerings that begin with this as the starting point informed by psychotherapy and other

established fields rather than the other way around. For example, Passmore (2007) offers an eclectic and integrative approach to business coaching inviting coaches to 'work in an eclectic way, mixing tools and techniques from methodologies, but with a focus on the primary objective of executive[1] coaching; enhancing performance in the workplace' (p.76). Integrative and eclectic approaches encourage the use of diverse strategies without being restricted by theoretical differences and practitioners use the most viable theoretical lens or intervention based on their experience and what makes most sense (Brooks-Harris, 2008; Norcross & Goldfried, 2005; Palmer & Woolfe, 1999). Such an approach best suits interventions in business which has a unique and distinct context and boundary system from that of the psychotherapeutic world. It allows for the strongest application of viability in any intervention, which from the context of business is particularly desirable, and it offers some liberation from problem orientated, psychopathological or remedial coaching orientations typical of the therapy room.

Informed by an integrative and systemic theoretical orientation this paper describes an approach to business coaching that explores the way the coaching relationship, a system in itself, interfaces with organisational, interpersonal and intrapsychic systems through its course, and demonstrates it through the use of a case study. It suggests that it is helpful to view these interfaces in three dimensions existing on an axis that a coach can track thematically thereby ensuring the coaching process successfully aligns with the business reality from which it takes its direction and sanction.

The Coaching on the Axis approach to business coaching

This approach is termed Coaching on the Axis and the metaphor of a tree is used for illustration (Figure 1). The paper further provides a dialogical process within this axial orientation that may be used to track themes, elicit insights and generate coaching actions in a way that ensures alignment with business outcomes.

Business coaching may be viewed in three systemic dimensions: The environment (branches and leaves), the individual being coached (the root system), and the coaching relationship itself (the tree trunk).

1. The environment

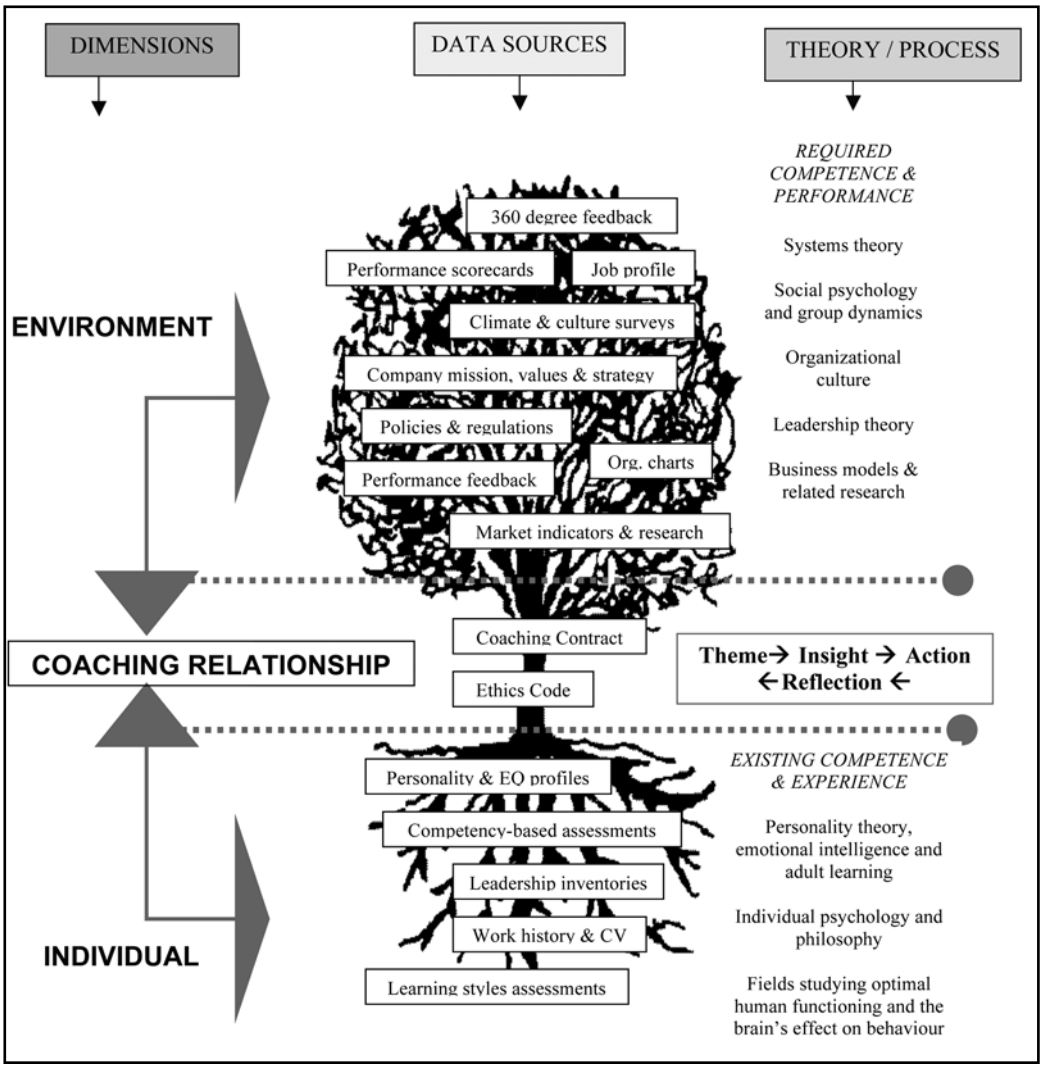
The environment is the current systemic reality. For the coachee this is the business context (business model, strategy and market forces), organisational culture, work-based team and socio-political situation within which they operate. The coachee's job profile, required competencies and performance deliverables are born in this dimension and are a concrete expression of it. The environment specifically includes how the coachee is perceived by others, ergonomics and all environmental stressors. In the visual metaphor of a tree this dimension is located in its leaves, branches and 'above the ground' atmosphere. This symbolises the entangled relationships that give rise to the growth of the tree and its probability of bearing fruit. The metaphor of photosynthesis is useful here in reflecting the chemistry between the coachee and their environment that is necessary for growth.

Examples of data sources that can inform the coaching process from this dimension are:

1. Job profile
2. Performance scorecards and competency frameworks
3. 360 degree feedback
4. Climate & culture surveys
5. Company mission, vision and values
6. Leadership and performance feedback
7. Organisational charts

[1] Although Passmore uses the term 'executive' coaching and the author has used the term 'business' coaching, executive coaching is clearly a form of business coaching and the author would argue that other forms of business coaching such as leadership coaching are subject to very similar (and in many cases exactly the same) systemic realities.

Figure 1: Coaching on the Axis illustrated in the metaphor of a tree.



8. Strategy documents
9. Market indicators and research
10. Company policies.

The way the environment articulates desired outcomes for the coachee (often through their manager or HR) is a central expression of this dimension, and the way people (including the coachee) describe culture, history and relationships is relevant. The object is to understand the way the environmental system works and what the coachee is 'holding' for the system in their role. Some important questions are: 'How do things work around here? How does one get ahead? Who is who, and who is ahead and behind? What kind of things happen here that nobody would easily and openly admit? What should one never and always do here? What has happened in the history of this place that most people know has set the current tone and direction? What is the secret to success here? How do decisions really get made?'

The theoretical frameworks that inform this dimension describe the way human beings perceive and behave within the environment (system/group/company/market),

and how the environment simultaneously drives their behaviour and perceptions. Below are some good examples of classic texts and recent literature:

1. Systems theory and social psychology (Brunning, 2006; Cavanagh, 2006; Lencioni, 2005; Lewin[2] 1947a, 1947b; McRae & Short, 2010; Minuchin, 1974; Senge, 1990).
2. Organisational culture (Rosinski, 2003; Schein[3], 1992).
3. Business models and research (Chesbrough, 2007; Collins, 2001; Sisodia et al., 2007).
4. Leadership theories (Covey, 1989, 1992; Maxwell, 1995; Northouse, 2010).
5. Performance management theory and practice (Luecke & Hall, 2006).

2. The individual (being coached)

The individual dimension refers to the personal psychology, competence and history the coachee brings to their relationship with their environment; their personal reality. People bring their personality and psychosocial history to bear on everything they do in their work, coachees commonly refer to this as their 'personal make-up', their 'past', their 'mindset', or their 'baggage'.

The coachee's resume tells part of this; naturally peoples' competence and experience embedded in their career story resides inside them. However, the deeper, and often more critical components of this dimension are less visible and sometimes unconscious to the individual. For example, coachees' personality type, relationship with authority, power and control, their self-esteem, confidence, learning style and self-limiting beliefs are commonly hidden but nevertheless play a powerful role in determining success. The individual dimension is, therefore, placed underground in the metaphor of the tree, where the tree's roots symbolise the notion of origins, roots. In fact, coachees will sometimes speak about their 'roots,' and how these are driving their current behaviour and perception.

The term 'roots' has cultural resonance reflecting the coachee's cultural origins and diversity differentials as well as the previous impacts they have endured as a result. This is also the place to explore ethical, moral and spiritual beliefs and history and how these influence perceptions for they are indeed often 'deeply rooted'.

Examples of data sources that inform the coaching process from this dimension are:

1. Personality profiles and emotional intelligence assessments.
2. Work history and resume.
3. Competency-based assessments.
4. Leadership inventories.
5. Learning styles assessments.

The way individuals articulate the story of who they are, and from where they come, is important here. Some good questions to elicit this are: 'Please tell me about yourself. Who are you really? Where do you come from? What are you about? How did you get here?' In addition, their personal wishes and goals are key lenses and so next questions could be, 'What do you want from your work and your life? What do you want personally from this coaching process?'

The theoretical frameworks that inform this dimension explain the way human beings perceive and behave as a function of their past relationships, personality and social history. This is an enormous field[4], and below are a few classic examples alongside some current literature:

1. Personality theory (Crowne, 2010; von Fanz & Hillman, 1991) including assessments such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Hirsh, 1985), the field of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2005) and associated assessments (Bar-On &

[2] Although Lewin's work is dated, it has been included because his theories are relevant today.

[3] Schein's quintessential text on organisational culture and leadership is seminal to this dimension.

[4] It is worth mentioning that it is not necessary to be familiar with all these frameworks. Most coaches will likely immerse themselves in one or two and have a cursory knowledge of several others.

Parker, 2000), and adult learning theory (Kolb, 1984; Merriam et al., 2006).

2. Fields of psychology and philosophy such as psychodynamic psychology (Corsini & Wedding, 2008; Malan, 1995), humanistic psychology (Bridges, 2004; Schneider et al., 2001), behaviorism (Rachlin, 1991; Woollard, 2010), existentialism (Frankl, 2008; Schneider, 2008; Spinelli, 1989), narrative psychology (Sarbin, 1986; White, 2007), Jungian psychology (Hauke, 2005; Jung, 1965; Jung, 1996; Stevens, 1994) and Integral theory (Wilber, 2000, 2006).
3. Fields studying optimal human functioning and the way the brain drives behaviour such as neuro-linguistic programming (Bandler, Grinder & Stevens, 1979; Burn, 2005; Mathison & Tosey, 2010), positive psychology (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Peterson, 2006; Seligman, 2004) and relevant developments in neuroscience (Page & Rock, 2009) such as the recent field of NeuroLeadership (Ringleb & Rock, 2009).

3. The coaching relationship (constituting the centre of the Coaching Axis)

The coaching relationship constitutes at the centre of the Coaching Axis and is its core. This dimension brings the individual and the environment into dialogue in a way that promotes alignment, integration and improved performance. In other words, business coaching is born from the desire of both the environment and the individual to exist in an improved state of relationship. Business coaching goals are expressions of this call to relationship, for example: 'Since I've been promoted to executive I need to move from a management mindset to more of a leadership mindset.' Here the desire is to shift something on the individual dimension (mindset), to meet a need on the environmental dimension (executive deliverables). Another example expressed by a human resource manager is: 'He (the coachee) jumps to conclusions too quickly. He is impulsive and speaks without thinking. Technically he is great, but when it comes to people he damages relationships. Can you help with coaching?' Again the environment calls for the individual to behave in alignment with consensual behavioural parameters (organisational culture) and looks to coaching to facilitate this alignment. It might be the case that the individual calls for the environment to shift and come into alignment. An example of this is when a new CEO arrives with a vision for the company. Here the Coaching Axis helps the CEO find ways to influence environmental shift in order to realise his or her vision.

This relational orientation ensures that the outcomes of business coaching are continuously linked to better business. The suggestion here is that although good coaching may be delivered where there is a win for the individual but none for the business, that is not business coaching. Business coaching is about business; otherwise it is unacceptable, possibly even unethical, for business to pay for coaching which is failing to deliver business outcomes[5] and for which there is no clear intention for a return on investment.

Furthermore this approach offers relative freedom from moral or clinical judgements because business coaching is not so much about correcting something 'wrong' with the coachee or the organisation but more about bringing them into an improved state of relationship. Clearly coaching is often about change and transformation, but the foundation from which the coaching works is relationship. This opens the door to coaching outcomes that are not just about change, but also about acceptance of what is; letting go of the expectation of something different for both the individual and the environment

[5] This excludes situations where the individual is seeking life coaching, not business coaching, and hoping that the business will pay for this. Such a request is ethically tricky and the author would argue this kind of request is best dealt with through another service provision such as an employee assistance programme.

and appreciating the value of what is already there. This relational orientation offers some methodological protection from the temptation to collude with a system that marks a coachee as bad, sick or deviant and asks the coach to 'fix them', or the converse where the coachee marks the system in a similar way and uses the coaching as an agony aunty or complaints department.

The term 'axis' is used to describe this orientation then because the coaching relationship is actually constituted as a systemic and relational axis between the individual and their environment and because, put simply; business coaching is more about gaining awareness and finding agreement between the dimensions than it is about fixing a deviant, damaged or resistant individual.

As previously discussed the quality of the coach-coachee relationship is central to success and is itself a systemic indicator of the themes playing out in the Coaching Axis. The interpersonal dynamics between coach and coachee come to the fore here. For example, the coachee might indicate that the reason they could not action the intentions of the previous session was because they didn't really believe the insights that emerged and the coach had 'seemed so convinced'. Here the interpersonal dynamic between coach and coachee is a theme in itself and may liberate insight for both parties as they explore what this means in terms of the coach and coachee's interpersonal patterns. It is important to remember that the coach is learning about themselves in each interaction. For example, Kemp (2008) suggests that the coach is 'a central instrument in facilitating the relationship' (p.33) and would describe the above example as 'the coach's Achilles Heel' where the coach has 'a tendency to overestimate the accuracy of his beliefs and opinions and to be more confident in these opinions then accurate' (p.35). Also playing out here are the powerful phenomena of transference and countertransference[6] (Racker, 2002). It is, therefore, important that significant attention be paid to the interpersonal experience of the coaching relationship and in particular the role the coach as an individual, with his or her own psychosocial context and history, plays in the process. This lens can be profound and is particularly effective when the coach undergoes supervision (Moyes, 2009) especially since the coach may be unconscious of their own personal process.

In the metaphor of the tree, the trunk, which connects the branches and leaves to the roots, symbolises the coaching relationship. This is used to reflect the idea of a space or axis where the continual focus is relationship between the parts.

There are also several 'hard' data sources that inform the coaching relationship. These express the contract between the environment, the individual and the coach, for example:

1. The coaching contract, outlining boundaries, fees, timelines and expecta-tions.
2. The coaches' ethical code of practice.
3. Company policies or processes that affect the conduct of the coaching relationship.

Furthermore the systemically agreed outcomes against which the coaching is to be measured are central to this dimension, and as is often the case these change over time. When this occurs an immediate re-contracting must happen between the parties otherwise the fundamental integrity of the axis is destabilised and success compromised.

The theoretical frameworks that inform this dimension come from literature that specifically explores coaching practice. Examples are coaching journals such as *The International Journal of Evidence-Based Coaching and Mentoring*, *The International Coaching Psychology Review*, and *Coaching: An Inter-*

[6] This refers to the psychoanalytic considerations of the way in which the therapist and the patient (coach and coachee) activate each other's projections and unconsciously recreate their personal issues (from their roots) in the therapeutic (coaching) relationship. Specifically, there is an opportunity to use this phenomenon as a mechanism for awareness and transformation.

national Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, as well as coaching and relevant consulting texts such as Flaherty (2005), O'Neill (2007), Palmer and Whybrow (2007), Peltier (2009), Stout Rostron (2009), Schein (1999, 2009) and Stober and Grant (2006).

The dialogical process embedded in the Coaching on the Axis approach

The dialogical process embedded in the Coaching on the Axis approach facilitates a practical method of exploring the dimensions and the way they interface. Although this process was created and refined by the author over time it is acknowledged that it has loosely been influenced by David Kolb's experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984) and some facets of insight-orientated psychotherapy (Scaturo, 2010). This process is explained below:

1. Theme:

As soon as the coach is engaged by the environment or the individual they track emerging themes. From the first conversation these emerge, usually in the form of descriptions of issues to be addressed or goals. Examples are: 'shifting mindset from manager to leader' (theme=*leadership*) or 'improving communication' (theme=*communication*). Coaching goals are captured as themes in themselves. Environmental themes are tracked and captured, examples of this would be that the business is under sudden market pressure to perform or that the coachee is in a new role that has never existed before, or perhaps it's something about the organisational culture that emerges, for example, it's reported as being 'unforgiving'. Simultaneously individual themes are being identified, for example the coachee may believe they are not fully supported in their role or perhaps they don't feel confident.

A thematic picture gradually appears of both the individual and environmental dimensions through a process of incisive questioning and active listening in the coaching dialogue, and through a sensitive interrogation of all the available data sources including relevant individuals in the environment (e.g. HR, coachee's colleagues and/or the coachee's manager). The coach offers their understanding of the themes to the coachee on an ongoing basis, testing assumptions and clarifying themes. In so doing the thematic exploration deepens and becomes increasingly clear. In particular the coach is looking for points of alignment and misalignment between the environmental and individual dimensions, and reflecting these back to the coachee and others in the environment where contracted.

2. Insight:

The process of thematic exploration is like an archaeological excavation. As deeper aspects of the coachee's experience are uncovered insights emerge, often spontaneously, on the part of the coachee and the coach. These insights are captured and reflected. Commonly, the coachee uses a coaching journal[7]. A simple example of an insight would be when one realises that one is limiting oneself from stepping into power because of having assumed that others will not accept one's authority. Such an insight might emerge from the coach questioning how the coachee really knows that 'nobody will listen to me', when they have not tested that in reality. This question uncovers a previously hidden distortion in the belief system of the coachee which spontaneously liberates the insight.

3. Action:

Once insight has emerged the coach must look to embed the insight into action – real, preferably measurable, behavioural change. In the example above, the coach would ask: 'Now that you have the insight that your own self-limiting beliefs around power have been

[7] This is an act of ownership, and empowers the coachee in self-coaching practice for moments when the coach is not around and after the coaching officially terminates.

in the way of you feeling fully authorised in your role how will you act differently?' and the coachee would then articulate new behaviour. The coach is ready to challenge the coachee to make the change in their environment and see how it feels. In a single coaching session, many actions might be captured or none for that matter, depending on the number of insights that emerge. Also, some insights are not related to obvious behavioural change, for example, realising the impact of a past negative experience on self-image. In such an insight the action is intrapsychic and the transformation is immediate, though not obviously visible in behavioural terms.

4. Reflection

Once actions have been identified it is important to reflect on the learning process. This serves to embed the awareness gained and make further learning easier as the coachee becomes increasingly familiar with the way coaching works. Reflection occurs within and across sessions as the dyad explore 'how it is going' – the coach should be particularly interested in whether or not the coachee will be or has been successful in putting into action the insights of the session, and if not, what prevents this. It is here that the interpersonal dynamics between coach and coachee may be reflected upon and mined for insight as discussed in the example earlier.

This reflective loop often gives rise to deeper themes and layers of the coaching axis and in turn further insights emerge. The level of alignment between insights and related actions from the coachee's perspective and the requirements, expectations and cultural norms from the organisation's perspective are tested here. For example, a coachee may think that the solution to reducing their work stress (an axially agreed outcome of the coaching) is an improvement in work-life balance by reducing working hours; however, the organisation may reject this and so coaching actions need to be tested from a systemic perspective before being implemented. The use of circular and reflexive questions (Huffington & Hieker, 2006) is helpful in achieving this, for example, a circular question might be: 'If you reduce your hours how would this impact others in the organisation who work full day?' And a reflexive question would be: 'Let's imagine how your manager will feel when you ask her to reduce your hours, can we appreciate what that might bring up for her?'

4. Termination

As the cycle of theme, insight, action, reflection continues, no single point is reached where one can say: 'There are no more themes, no more insights, so coaching is over.' Because opportunities for awareness and growth continue throughout life the Coaching Axis needs to remain in integrity with the initial goals as per the contract, and when such are sufficiently achieved the coaching should be terminated or a new contract agreed. The litmus test is to ask: 'Is there sufficient alignment between the environment and the individual against the goals?' If the answer is largely in the affirmative then coaching is complete.

Case study methodology

A single case study (George & Bennett, 2005) was used with the object of illustrating the effectiveness of the approach described above. Purposive sampling was employed where a single coachee undergoing business coaching by the author was selected. The richness and accessibility of the coachee's early coaching experience was the reason for selection. The data was sourced within the contract of the business coaching relationship and collected within the coaching sessions using coaching notes. Thematic analysis (Braun & Victoria, 2006) of the coaching notes was used to help make sense of the data.

The case of Des[8]

Des was a newly-appointed executive in a multinational company. She engaged my[9] services as an executive coach based on a referral from another client with whom she was acquainted. Des contacted me directly and said she needed coaching to help her 'step up' in her new senior executive role.

In our first meeting we explored her wants and goals:

1. Move from a more task-based managerial mindset to a more relationship orientated leadership mindset.
2. Build her ability to influence and empower as opposed to direct and control others in order to achieve outcomes.

These individual dimension outcomes were articulated in terms of the environmental requirements for her role. Des explained that both her boss and her job description made it clear that 'leadership through influence' was required and that success in such would be an important consideration 'come bonus time'. She further shared that she 'was not good at this politics stuff'.

During our first meeting I asked myself a series of internal questions:

Is business coaching the appropriate service here?
This is an axial question tapping for integrity between the business need (environment) and the individual request for coaching. Business coaching is commonly used to address mindset change particularly when it involves development of leadership competencies as required in a complex business environment (Stout Rostron, 2009, pp.18–20). In such a case, training would be too generalised, consulting would be inappropriate as 'solutions on a silver plate' usually have little impact on mindset, and psychotherapy wouldn't be right as the focus is not on healing a wound or treating a disorder. Mentoring might be helpful, but not necessarily more so than coaching. So coaching seemed a good fit and in integrity with the axis.

Was there good chemistry between the coachee and I?
This question is an early axial tap for the quality of the coach-coachee interpersonal relationship. Rapport was quickly established between us. The conversation flowed both ways without struggle. Body signals from the coachee indicated openness to the dialogue and an increasing level of trust and safety as the meeting went on. I felt an increasing eagerness and interest to engage further.

What themes emerged beyond those overtly articulated?
My initial impression of Des was a focused, articulate and determined individual; tough, but not hard. As she shared more I noticed a 'softer' inside peeping through, but it was quickly defended away. Her posture and physical manner was forward moving, upright with opening motions indicating confidence and receptivity. She moved easily and spontaneously indicating freedom from significant anxiety and comfort with the context and her personal power. Her tonality, pace and speech indicated an obvious partiality to the masculine archetype (Jung, 1996) and I wondered already at this stage about her relationship with the feminine. She described her company as delivery orientated, results-focused and committed to maintaining its status as the international leader in the industry. She said the company 'only employs the best,' and 'expects staff to score winning runs.' Of import here is that she shared a sincere appreciation for such a culture and a deep desire to 'put points on the board.'

[8] Names and significant details have been changed or completely replaced with the permission of the coachee to protect her identity.

[9] The author has chosen to write the case study in the first person to provide the reader with more direct and intimate access to the experience of working with this coachee.

What contracts and boundaries need to be acknowledged and understood in order to proceed?
Des explained that she ran her own budget and her manager had already agreed to sign off for a coach. She would not need any triangulation in reporting on progress. She would let her manager know directly how the coaching was going. HR was to have no involvement in the process (this proved to be an interesting systemic issue later on and I recall wondering if there were any issues between her and the HR director[10]).

What is the coachee expecting? Do they understand coaching process?
Des had received coaching before and her understanding of coaching process was sound. She recognised the difference between coaching and other modalities and expressed this as, 'therapists love, consultants answer, trainers teach and coaches ask the important questions.' I enjoyed the simplicity of her statement and noted a further theme here around her remarkable ability to understand quickly and make complex things simple. Later on we discovered this strength was also her Achilles Heel.

We contracted to work together for one year, meeting on average twice per month for approximately two hours at a time with availability on email and telephone as needed.

We began our coaching process by turning our attention to gathering data from the environmental and individual dimensions.

1. Des nominated her boss, two colleagues and two direct reports for me to interview in a 360 process that focused on her leadership competencies.
2. I administered an Insight Discovery Personality Profile (Insights® Learning and Development, 2005) to assess Des's personality.
3. I took a comprehensive personal and work history.
4. I perused a range of company documents she provided which included her divisional strategy, company mission and values, Des's performance scorecard and her job description.

Our early sessions focused on exploring all the data sources as a whole, looking for emerging themes. The task was a collaborative one in which together, coach and coachee, acted as archaeologists, excavating Des's individual roots and environmental branches.

The following themes and insights emerged in early sessions:

Individual Dimension:

1. Her personality was strongly Type A (Friedman, 1996). She had high scores in the extraverted thinking range and very strong judging functions. In Insights® Discovery Profile terms (Insights® Learning & Development, 2005) she was 92 per cent Fiery Red with only six per cent Earth Green. This meant that she expected people to 'be brief, be bright and be gone!' and she had little patience for non-task-based dialogue and was unlikely to 'show how much she cares' even when she did.
2. Her personal history was populated with repeated and consistent threats to her social and emotional survival. Nothing had come easy. This had resulted in high levels of independence and a need for total control of her environment. She carried the following beliefs: 'God helps those who help themselves' and 'in this world there is only one person that looks after No. 1, and that is No.1.' She admitted that she secretly believed that if she could not take care of herself one

[10] Although I have found it common for senior executives to act independently of HR where their own coaching is concerned, this case felt different. Usually the head of HR is a team member on the same executive committee of the coachee (or may even report into them) and so boundary issues are trickier to negotiate (and understandably so), however, in Des's case other issues were at play for her not wanting HR to be involved, and these will be explored later.

day, 'nobody would give a damn' and she would 'probably die in a gutter somewhere (she laughed).' I did not laugh; instead, I reflected how hard it must be for her inside to carry this everyday. For the first time she revealed just how vulnerable she was underneath all her armour by nodding and her eyes welled up.

3. Her work history was truly impressive. Success after success based on solid delivery and target-breaking achievements; 24-hour days and an absolute, unbridled determination and focus. It was obvious why she had made senior executive at the age of 38. She was a machine.
4. Throughout her career all her roles were strongly operational in nature. She had little experience with influencing. She had always been focused on control and directives. As she explained: 'there was always a clear task and deadline to meet, and come hell or high water, I was gonna meet it with time to spare!' For this, she had been rewarded by the environment with promotions and bonuses for over 13 years.

Environmental Dimension:

1. The 360 was largely aligned in opinion. They all expressed a degree of respect for Des based on her solid history of delivery and 'no-nonsense' straight-talking approach. However, there were varying degrees of concern about her ability to 'lead from influence' as opposed to 'control and direct.' Some called her autocratic. Others described her as tough, honest and fair. Idiosyncratic responses included that she failed to understand the importance of 'certain relationships' in the system and that this would end up being her downfall as an executive.
2. The culture of the company was characterised by an aggressive focus on delivery in a meritocracy. Hierarchy was in place only so much as it served delivery. Long work hours were expected and admired and the place had a reputation for being 'unforgiving', 'hard' but 'fair'. Generous bonus based remuneration for performers were the order of the day. I characterised the underlying cultural motto as 'perform, perform… and then we will love… but stop performing and the love is gone', and several staff including Des confirmed it as accurate.
3. We unpacked the company culture and discovered it changes at executive level. What was previously a delivery orientated focus now changed to a relationship orientated focus. Hierarchy was less important than 'who you were in with' and whether or not you had the CEO's ear. Also, deliverables on several counts were rather subjective and the 'softer' skills of people management and leadership were seen as more important than whether you hit a particular number or not. Here the common feeling seemed to be that 'politicians rule'. It was on this theme that Des's aggression emerged: 'Screw that!' she said. 'I am not playing politics. Firstly I am crap at it and secondly its bulls..t!' It was clear that the environmental dimension, at this level, was deeply at odds with her individual value system and competence.
4. Interpretation of Des's scorecard suggested leadership skills and emotional intelligence to be important as well as stakeholder management. When juxtaposed against the above point Des recognised that she had 'a lot of inner work to do to deliver on this baby', pointing to her performance scorecard.

Over time Des brought her daily experiences to our sessions. Each was unpacked thematically and explored in terms of other themes. An integrative thematic picture slowly took shape and grew richer as sessions progressed. A few of these themes have been selected to demonstrate this:

1. Jane

Des came to one session in an aggressive mood expressing her need to 'vent' her frustration with the HR Director, Jane, who she explained 'is just a typical bleeding heart female who knows as much about delivery as I know about brain surgery!' Further probing revealed that Jane had confronted Des on her 'harsh tone and shortness' in addressing Jane's HR team members after they had (in Des's view) failed to deliver on a talent project Des had commissioned some months earlier. When Des rejected Jane's critical feedback on her style, Jane raised several other circumstances where she had observed Des in this manner and asked Des if she was 'in denial' about her inability to appreciate how others feel around her. Des promptly told Jane that the only denial that was happening was the one where the company denied just how dysfunctional the HR department was. It now became clear why Des had initially instructed that her coaching was to have nothing to do with HR 'whatsoever'.

We explored Des's relationship with Jane. I asked her to imagine, in an appreciative way, how Jane's mind worked and what it must be like to be Jane. We also looked at whether there was anything at all about Jane's feedback, even if only in a tiny part, that might be true and worth exploring. Several themes and insights emerged. She recognised that Jane in many respects represented all the things that Des was not. She was into people more than tasks, she was into feelings more than ideas, she spoke softly and tentatively, she wore bright summer dresses to work (that was a big one for Des), she was a good listener and a poor driver of people, and finally she came from a happy family, best education, married money and was a mother of three (Des was divorced, no kids and self-made). The insight came for Des when I proposed that Jane could be a valuable psychological barometer for Des in achieving her goals. The very things that hooked Des about Jane were the same themes that she was challenged with as a leader, and for which coaching had been sought. Ironically her rejection of Jane was a rejection of the outcomes both her and the environment had set as behavioural deliverables.

The action that Des decided to follow from this realisation was profound. She said: 'I am gonna go to Jane and apologise. I am gonna tell her that I am short on what she is long, and I am gonna ask her to support me.' This was powerful not only for the reversal in perception in which she owned her issues but on a deeper level. For Des to ask for support was something that went against her every fibre. She was fiercely independent and this shift was so big that I was taken aback. I realised that Des's emotional competence was stronger than I had previously predicted, and I shared this with her. She smiled and told me that most men underestimated her. This led to the emergence of a new theme, gender.

2. The feminine and dresses

Des commented that it irritated her when woman wore light short dresses to work in summer. We explored this as 'the summer dress theme' and discovered a deep value system challenge. She judged that 'woman use their sexuality to get ahead and it's unethical and pathetic and work is not a place for fairies and flowers.' We then explored her sense that men underestimate her and she explained that this happens because men are used to woman not delivering and being short on certain competencies, and that she was as good as any man, if not better since she was a woman.

Des seemed to carry an ambivalent relationship with the feminine, at one level she rejected it and at another saw it as her edge over men. I reflected this to her and a great debate ensued. As a man I suddenly found myself in a strong transference in which Des experienced me as the 'other'. I too found myself entangled in the conversation with my own personal views and had to take a step back to separate my coaching role from my personal process. A subsequent supervision session helped keep me focused in serving

Des and not myself[11] in this particular dialogue as it emerged repeatedly in subsequent sessions.

Over time it became clearer for Des that there was a strong link between her capacity to listen, show care and tune into others feelings (as capacities she was seeking to acquire as a goal in the coaching) and her ambivalent relationship with the feminine as an archetypal force. This struck her one session when we did a scan of her friends and realised that her best friends had always been men. It also made sense to her when she connected her divorce into the theme and recalled that her husband had accused her of 'being the man.' She also had no interest in having children, something other woman had challenged her on repeatedly.

As actions around this theme Des began to 'play' with the feminine. For example, she decided to wear make-up to work and even tried a dress on one day 'just to see how it feels'. She reported that people complemented her on how she looked and that it made her feel 'uncomfortable but nice'. She found it curious that during this coaching experiment she found she was 'less harsh with people' and wondered if it was the dress. I interpreted that the make-up and the dress were simply expressions of a psychological shift inside her, a shift that welcomed rather than rejected the feminine competencies. She laughed and said: 'Nonsense! It is the dress. Sometimes life is simple and you make it complicated.' Her tendency to simplify in this way led us to another theme: Simplification as a strength and Achilles Heel.

3. Simplification as a strength and Achilles Heel

Des explained that one of the other directors, John, had picked her out about cutting him short when he spoke in meetings. In a subsequent discussion with Henry, another person whom she respected and who attended the same meeting, he explained that Des 'can't cope with ambiguity' and 'tended to deconstruct everything into simplifications which were often unhelpful and sometimes ignored the complexity of the situation.' Des was perplexed by this feedback because she always had felt that her ability to 'cut through the bulls..t' and make things simple was one of her greatest strengths.

In exploring this feedback we separated out the usefulness of her ability to simplify 'noise' and get down to the bottom of things quickly from the kind of behaviour being pointed out by John and Henry. The former was a useful competence that did not need to change; the latter could be a problem. I asked Des to think about the difference between the two. At first she was unable to see any difference at all but after more reflection she realised that the latter had something to do with 'grey'. She said: 'I guess when an issue doesn't lend itself to a bottom line of black or white and actually leaves me sitting in the grey, I find it hard to handle.' I wondered aloud if this might mean she has difficulty managing ambiguity and she agreed. It appeared her tendency to simplify things was at one level very helpful (when simplification was required) and at another level very unhelpful (when complexity and comfort with ambiguity was required). In the latter her tendency to simplify acted as a defence against sitting with ambiguity (because to do so meant that she was in the 'grey' and therefore not fully in control).

Des found this session very helpful and the insight shifted her paradigm. At an action level she decided to mentally track each time she fell into this behaviour and remind herself to 'sit in the grey, and hold'.

We made a link into the emerging thematic picture by suggesting that cutting through the noise to the bottom line was a

[11] The supervision was really about letting go of my need to: (a) be right in whatever way and; (b) influence Des one way or the other on the matter. It was reminding me that my role was to ensure that we simply explored how Des's thoughts and feelings drove her behaviour, and whether or not that behaviour worked for her and the environment.

truly masculine competence and being able to 'hold' ambiguity is a truly feminine competence. We also had an interesting conversation at this point about left and right brain and how the former function is left brain and the latter is right brain[12].

4. Politics

One day Des described how 'sick and tired' she was of having to play politics. She kept finding herself on the short end of various 'political' relationships because she 'spoke so straight without calculating if this one or that one was going to be put out.' Apparently she had been picked out 'once again' for doing something without 'including the right people in the decision-making process.' The 'right people' in her estimation were 'the wrong people' in terms of execution, but her boss had picked her out nevertheless explaining that it wasn't up to her to decide who she worked with and 'if she couldn't play nicely with the other children she would have to reconsider if this was the right playground for her'.

In the session, Des admitted that she had taken 'a hit'. Her boss had been particularly annoyed with her deliberate exclusion of two other executives in a project he had personally commissioned. She realised it was important that she understand and face up to her choices as they were clearly at odds with her coaching objectives.

We took several sessions exploring the theme of 'politics', moving between separating out different meanings that she was attributing to the phenomenon and reality testing her perceptions and judgments. We delved deeply into her value system and ideas of ethics and unearthed several early experiences of 'politics' in her teenage years at school that wounded her deeply (particularly relating to other girls). Over a period of time Des began to reframe her distaste for the phenomenon as she found insight after insight through our dialogue. Some key insights were that she had 'thrown the baby out with the bathwater' in seeing the entire phenomenon as bad due to the wounds she had experienced at school. She began to see that 'good politics' was really about managing relationships, collaboration and community which are good for business and that 'bad politics' was about manipulation, intrigue and off-task behaviour which was bad for business. This separation into good and bad politics was helpful in shifting her appreciation for relationship management – a key goal in the coaching. She realised that she could still attack or ignore 'bad politics' but she could embrace 'good politics' and maintain her personal value system. We renamed 'good politics' – relationship management.

We once again threaded this theme into the overarching thematic picture. Working well with relationships (good politics) and leading in a way that encourages collaborative work culture might be said to be feminine in vision, whereas driving passionately for targets in a task-based, single-minded fashion might be said to be masculine in vision. Whether true or not[13], this thread was taken up by Des and constellated a powerful guiding dialectic that she used to manage development in the work environment.

Throughout Des would return to sessions and we would reflect on how she was shifting around the overarching goals. On several occasions we met with her manager and she shared what she was learning and the relationship with her manager became increasingly meaningful as his appreciation for her increased. Her relationship with Jane, the HR director, blossomed into a friendship which in turn moved Jane to support Des in recognising 'good politics' when it was important.

[12] I have chosen not to explore this brain theme further here in the interests of brevity.

[13] Some theorists might challenge the validity of this gender-based dialectic. However, whether valid or not, it was viable as a linking theme that helped the coachee mentally hold the complex behavioural shifts she needed to make to achieve her goals.

After a year of coaching Des was not free from critical feedback, there were some executives who maintained a fairly negative view of her leadership style. However a 360 review showed significant positive change in the way she was experienced by her subordinates and moderate improvement from her colleagues. Her manager shared with me that he believed the coaching had been instrumental for Des and that he had initially been worried as to whether or not she 'would make it' but was now confident that she 'will be fine'.

Conclusion

A systemic and integrative approach to business coaching has been explored which accounts for the complex relationships between the coach, coachee and organisation with the goal of delivering systemically agreed business outcomes, whilst at the same time drawing on the power of the widest range of theoretical and practical frameworks for such an intervention. Such an approach allows for the strongest application of viability in a coaching intervention and provides a degree of liberation from problem orientated, psychopathological or remedial orientations typical in coaching applications that draw straight from psychotherapy or other established fields. The notion of a 'Coaching Axis' is used to describe the interface between three systemic dimensions, the environment, individual and coaching relationship, and a dialogical process is offered to track themes, insights and actions across this axis ensuring alignment with business reality. This axial orientation ensures business coaching is properly linked to better business and that interventions remain relatively free from moral or clinical judgements. Finally, the approach was demonstrated in a case study in which an executive was able to measurably adapt her leadership and relational style to deliver on business expectations in her new role.

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The quantitative assessment of Motivational Interviewing using Co-active Life Coaching Skills as an intervention for adults struggling with obesity

Courtney Newnham-Kanas, Jennifer D. Irwin, Don Morrow & Danielle Battram

Objectives: *The purpose of this study was to explore Motivational Interviewing (MI) applied through Co-Active Life Coaching (CALC) skills on obese adults' (ages 35 to 55) weight, waist circumference, self-esteem, functional health status, quality of life, self-efficacy, physical activity, and nutrition.*

Design: *A single-subject multiple-baseline method research design was utilised.*

Method: *One volunteer Certified Professional Co-Active (CPCC) coach provided 18 35-minute weekly coaching sessions with eight women residing in London, Ontario whose BMI was ≥30. Measures included weight, waist circumference, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Short-Form 36 (SF-36) Health Survey, the World Health Organization Quality of Life Questionnaire, self-efficacy questionnaires, The International Physical Activity Questionnaire, and two three-day dietary intakes. Participants returned six months after their final coaching session for a follow-up weigh-in and waist circumference measurement. Visual inspection was used to analyse weight and waist circumference to determine whether changes were observed. Statistical interpretations were used to analyse the remaining measures to determine whether a clinically significant change was made.*

Results: *Visual inspection indicated a change in weight and waist circumference. Clinically significant changes were observed in participants' self-esteem, functional health status, quality of life, self-efficacy, physical activity, and nutrition. At the six-month follow-up, three participants had gained weight (although two participants were still below their baseline weight), one participant continued to lose weight and four participants maintained the weight lost during the intervention phase.*

Conclusions: *MI using CALC skills is a behavioural intervention that is an effective tool in aiding individuals to conquer their battle with weight.*

Keywords: *Motivational Interviewing; Life Coaching; Obesity Intervention; Behaviour change.*

THE World Health Organisation (WHO) reports that globally, at least 400 million adults were obese in 2005 (WHO, 2006). Based on these numbers, it is projected that by 2012, obesity levels will rise to 700 million adults worldwide. While obesity was once believed to be a problem in high-income countries, rates are climbing substantially in low- and middle-income countries (WHO, 2006). The recent 2007–2009 Canadian Health Measures Survey (Shields et al., 2010) reported that over the past 25 to 30 years, Canadian adults have become heavier for their heights (Tjepkema, 2006). As a result, 19 per cent of males and 21 per cent of females aged 20 to 39 years were considered obese in 2009 and the percentage increased to one-third for ages 60 to 69. From 1981 to 2007–2009, the number of obese females aged 40- to 59-years-old doubled. Based on current waist circumference (WC) measurements, 31 per cent of females and 21 per cent of males aged 20- to 39-years-old are at high risk for health problems and for ages 60 to 69 years, those percentages rose to 65 per cent and 52 per cent, respectively. Body mass index (BMI) has been deemed limited in assessing general

health because it does not take the overall distribution of body fat into account. Therefore, WC, which assesses abdominal fat (a predictor of increased risk of disease for both sexes), is used in conjunction with BMI to reflect overall health (Janssen, Heymsfield & Ross, 2002; Janssen, Katzmarzyk & Ross, 2002, 2004). If these trends continue, in 25 years, half of all males and females in Canada will be considered obese. These alarming rates of obesity have considerable physical, psychological, and economic consequences for an avoidable non-communicable disease (Shields et al.).

Because on the drastic rise in obesity in a relatively short period of time (i.e. shorter than needed for genetic changes in a population to be expressed), it is believed that behavioural factors play a more pivotal role rather than biological factors in shaping the development and maintenance of obesity (Stice, Presnell & Shaw, 2005). While it has been reported widely that inactivity and food consumption are at the root causes of increased rates of obesity, these two behavioural challenges may, in part, be symptoms of other psychosocial challenges (e.g. depression, low self-esteem). Although this problem of underestimating the psychosocial contribution to the obesity epidemic is gaining widespread attention within academic journals and medical sources, new clinical approaches for treating/reducing obesity are lacking (Hardeman et al., 2000; Slevin, 2004). One such treatment is Motivational Interviewing (MI). MI is a directive, client-centred counselling style for eliciting behaviour change by helping people explore and resolve their ambivalence for change (Miller & Rollnick, 2002). MI has been well documented as an effective behaviour change intervention in the health care field since its inception in 1983, especially in the areas of addiction with particular emphasis on behaviours associated with alcohol use (Brown & Miller, 1993; Miller, 1998; Miller, Yahne & Tonigan, 2003). Recently, Dr Freedhoff and Dr Sharma (2010) recommended MI as an essential behavioural intervention needed as part of a comprehensive treatment plan for individuals struggling with obesity. A primary concern with using MI as a behaviour change intervention has been putting MI principles into action (Mesters, 2009). Previous research and experiences indicate that the tenets and premises of MI are contained entirely within, and brought to fruition via the skills of Co-Active Life Coaching (CALC; Whitworth, Kimsey-House & Sandahl 1998, 2007; Gorczynski, Morrow & Irwin, 2008; Irwin & Morrow, 2005; Newnham-Kanas, Morrow & Irwin, 2010; Newnham-Kanas, Irwin & Morrow, 2008; Newnham-Kanas et al., 2009; van Zandvoort, Irwin & Morrow, 2008; 2009). MI holds the same principles as CALC and is an accepted methodology that has been utilised in the worlds of medicine and allied health care for some time; CALC builds on these MI roots by providing the tools to effectively put MI principles into action. With MI's potential in aiding individuals struggling with obesity, the recent recommendations by Freedhoff and Sharma, and the application-based tools provided by CALC to properly implement MI principles into action, MI using CALC skills combine to represent a theoretically sound and evidence-based strategy worth investigating as an intervention for obesity.

When using MI administered via CALC tools as an intervention for obesity, our previous research has demonstrated a statistically significant decrease in WC and increases in self-esteem and functional health status. Qualitatively, participants reported an increase in daily physical activity and healthier dietary choices, feelings of optimism, and greater self-acceptance (Newnham-Kanas et al., 2008). Another study that used CALC as an intervention for obesity found coaching, and particular coaching skills, were associated with a trend towards a decrease in waist circumference and clinically significant increases in participants' self-esteem and their mental, physical, and overall health statuses (van Zandvoort et al., 2008). While coaching has been defined historically as a behaviour change tool for a non-clinical pop-

ulation, a recent annotated bibliography of 72 critically appraised health-related coaching studies, which demonstrated that life coaching has been utilised effectively in ameliorating many health issues, including, but not limited to diabetes, asthma, poor cardiovascular health, fitness, and depression (Newnham-Kanas et al., 2009). It should be noted that life coaches are not trained as mental health professionals. In fact, Grant and Zackon (2004) reported that only 40 per cent of life coaches received 11 or more hours of training in mental health issues in the form of professional development workshops or programmes. In a recent survey of Certified Professional Co-Active Coaches (CPCC), over 60 per cent of respondents did not have any formal training in recognising mental health issues (Newnham-Kanas, Irwin & Morrow, under review). Therefore, it is crucial that life coaches recognise mental health issues and refer on or work simultaneously with a mental health professional. Participants of the current study were informed that they must continue under a physician's or a trained mental health professional's care for any co-morbidities (e.g depression, diabetes, etc.).

CALC uses MI principles to create a proactive alliance in which coach and client work together as equals to meet the needs of the client. The approach has been evaluated as a theoretically-grounded behaviour change method (Irwin & Morrow, 2005) that includes constructs from Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977), the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1988). CALC also shares some of the elements from Egan's Skilled Helper Model (Egan, 1997), Self-Regulation Theory (Kanfer, 1970) and Self-Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000). From a behavioural perspective it stands to reason that the MI using the CALC approach may work to produce desirable impacts on obesity because of its impact on self-regulation, and self-regulation in one domain (e.g. life stress) often increases self-regulation in other, unrelated domains (e.g. dietary intake and/or physical activity). Our experience with short-term, MI-obesity research studies suggests that obesity includes modifiable conditions (physical and psychological) that respond to an MI treatment, and a longer-term study is now required (Newnham-Kanas, Irwin & Morrow, 2008; van Zandvoort, Irwin & Morrow, 2008; 2009). For a full review of Co-Active life coaching, please refer to Whitworth, Kimsey-House and Sandahl (1998, 2007). The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of six-months of MI, administered via CALC skills (hereafter referred to as the coaching intervention), on the body composition, self-esteem, self-efficacy, quality of life, physical activity, dietary intake, and functional health status of eight adults struggling with obesity (aged 35 to 55; BMI values greater than 30). A secondary purpose was to determine the impact of MI using CALC six months after the end of the intervention.

Study design and methods

This study utilised a multiple-baseline, single-subject research design as explained by Kazdin (1982). This quasi-experimental design allows investigators to examine the pattern and stability of two or more behaviours within one participant or of a similar behaviour across two or more participants before and during the intervention phase (Kazdin). This design is particularly useful when assessing change in behaviour in a small number of participants because this methodology allows for new interventions to be observed on a small number of participants before it is tested on a larger sample size (Hayes, 1981). Eight women participated in this study, which allowed for an attrition rate of two participants, which was a feasible number for the study's single volunteer Certified Professional Co-Active Coach (CPCC). The larger the number of baselines, the clearer the demonstration that the intervention was responsible for the reported change and smaller the probability that changes between the baseline and intervention phase could be due to chance (Backman & Harris,

1999; Hayes, 1992; Kazdin, 1982). Typically, two baselines are a minimum requirement and for the present study, a minimum of four baselines was conducted to reduce the chance of coincidental extraneous events.

Recruitment

A sample of eight women was recruited via a local London Ontario newspaper. Participants were eligible to participate in the study if they were between the ages of 35 to 55, had a BMI equal to or greater than 30, spoke and read English fluently and continued under a physician's care for any co-morbidities (e.g. diabetes). Thirty-five people contacted the researcher and the first eight who met the study's eligibility requirements became the study participants. Ethical approval was received from The University of Western Ontario's Office of Research Ethics.

Participants

All eight participants were White women between the ages of 35 to 55. All participants had a starting BMI greater than or equal to 30. Participants one, two, three, five, seven, and eight had co-morbidities that presented after the study began and were under the supervision of a medical professional. The co-morbidities included depression, steroid medication, cancer, asthma, and injuries from a car accident. The specific co-morbidity is not attached to the corresponding participant to ensure confidentiality. A number of participants also experienced and received physician support for their symptoms related to menopause during the study.

Procedure

During the initial, face-to-face meeting between the lead researcher (CNK) and each participant, the nature of the study and the coaching intervention were explained and each participant received a letter of information for review. Once they agreed to participate (all eight agreed to participate), participants completed a consent form, and their height, weight, and waist circumference (the measuring tape was placed along their belly button to ensure a reliable reading and the same digital scale was used throughout the entire study) were measured and they provided a $10 fee for each coaching session ($180 total). This fee helps to create a sense of personal buy-in from the client, which translates into participants showing up for their appointments on time and doing the work they commit to during their session. Unbeknown to participants, the money would be returned at the end of the intervention. Participants were then asked to complete a series of previously validated tools/ questionnaires. Specifically: the SF-36 short form Functional Health Status Questionnaire (Ware, 1997); the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1989); a self-efficacy questionnaire; the International Physical Activity questionnaire (IPAQ); a three-day food record (Chronic Disease and Injury Prevention Team, 2009), and The World Health Organization Quality of Life Scale (WHOQOL-BREF; World Health Organization, 1997). Once the questionnaires were complete, a short 10-minute semi-structured interview was conducted assessing qualitatively participants' experiences associated with being obese and the effect of these experiences on their lives. The qualitative components of the study are presented in detail elsewhere (Newnham-Kanas, Irwin & Morrow, under review). To account for the repeated testing threat to internal validity (i.e. participants remembering correct answers or being conditioned to know the assessments; Cook & Campbell, 1979), baseline assessments (after the initial meeting) and assessments during the intervention consisted of having participants' weight and waist circumference measured only.

Participants one, two, and three had their first coaching session after four baseline assessments, while participants four, five, and six had their first coaching session after five baseline assessments, and participants seven and eight had their first coaching session after six baseline assessments. Baseline assessments were scheduled one week apart while assessments during the intervention were spaced at one-month intervals. To

determine whether the intervention might be associated with any changes, participants were asked not to alter their behaviour during the pre-intervention phase in order to capture an accurate portrayal of the stability of their weight and waist circumference.

One CPCC known to the researchers donated her time for the study. The coach received her training and certification through The Coaches Training Institute. The CPCC was not involved in the initial meeting with participants and was not privy to any of the information collected during assessments. The only contact that the CPCC and the researchers had about the study was to confirm that participants attended their sessions. After the baseline phases, each participant met with the CPCC at the host University, for her first and only hour-long face-to-face meeting. The lead researcher (CNK) then scheduled the remaining 35-minute telephone sessions. Each participant received one coaching session per week, after the first session, for 17 weeks. Missed appointments were rescheduled. All participants received all 18 sessions (no attrition occurred throughout the study) over six months. For each of these telephone sessions, it was each participant's responsibility to phone the CPCC at the designated appointment time (the CPCC telephoned one participant as a result of a telephone plan arrangement). At the beginning of each telephone coaching session, each participant was free to focus on any issue she wished, whether or not the issue seemed directly related to weight management; previous studies using CALC have demonstrated that obesity issues are connected to a wide variety of apparently unrelated issues extant in each client's life (Newnham-Kanas, Irwin & Morrow, 2008; van Zandvoort, Irwin & Morrow, 2008, 2009). The majority of questions and coaching content with a CPCC are unscripted open-ended questions, a primary characteristic of the CALC model (see Whitworth et al., 1998, 2007 and van Zandvoort et al., 2008, for additional information about the content of coaching sessions).

At the conclusion of the intervention (i.e. at six-months post initial coaching session), participants returned to the host University where they completed the same body composition, nutrition, quality-of-life, self-esteem, self-efficacy, physical activity measures, and their cheques were returned. Participants returned one year post initial coaching session for a final weigh-in and waist circumference measurement.

Date analysis and interpretation

BMI and WC for each participant during the baseline and intervention phase were graphed and analysed using visual inspection (as described by Kazdin, 1982) to determine the reliability or consistency of the intervention effects. Results from the measures assessing physical activity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, functional health status, quality of life, and nutrition were examined to determine whether a clinically significant difference was attained using effect size. Effect size is a measure of the strength of the relationship between two variables. Cohen's *d* is defined as the difference between two means divided by a standard deviation for the data (Cohen, 1988).

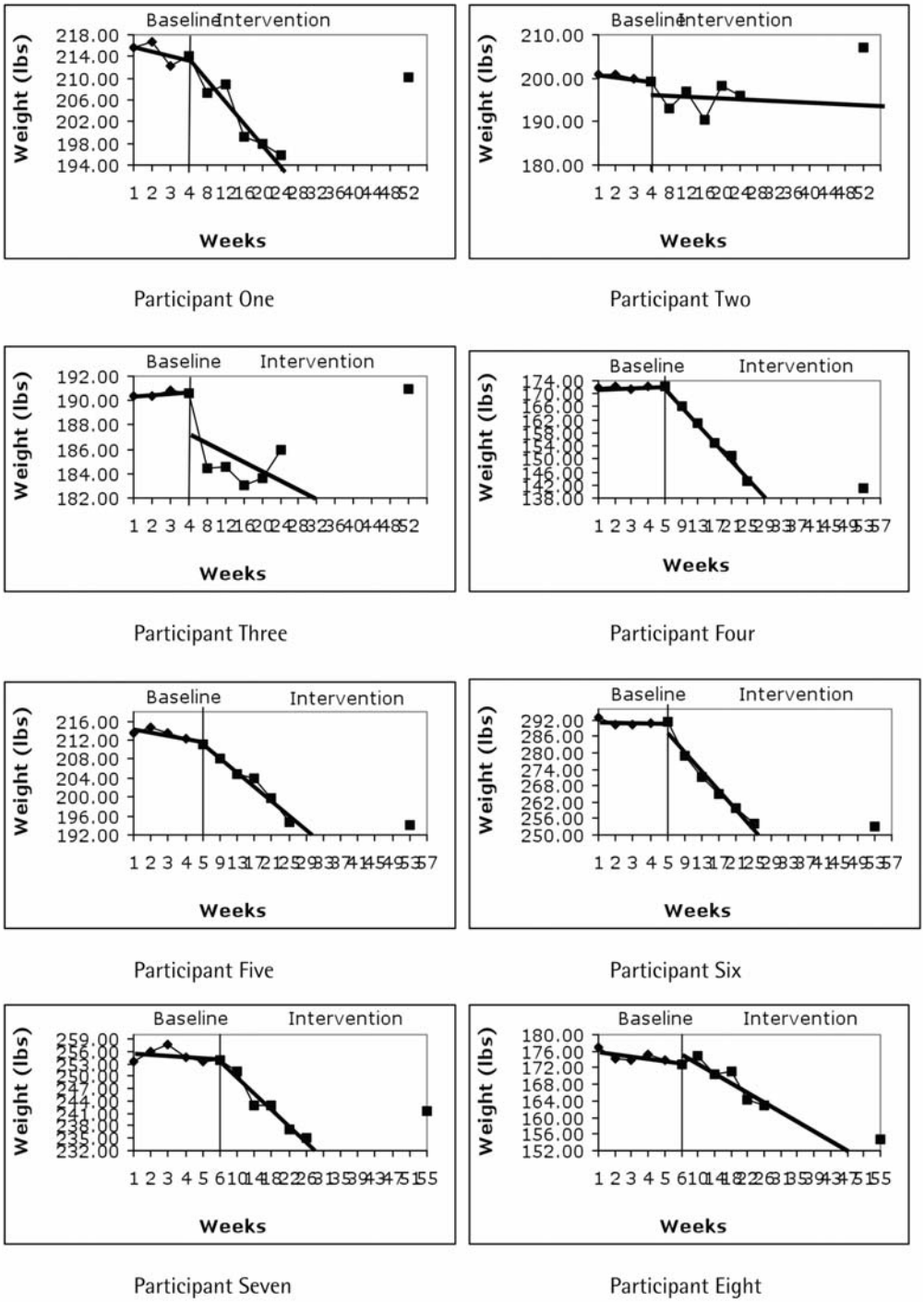
Values used to determine the effect size for the nutrition data were calculated by inputting the food intake records into a food processor computer program (Food Processor SQL 10.5, ESHA Research Inc., Salem, OR) and an average of the three days were calculated. In addition, the number of vegetable and fruit (V&F) servings according to Eating Well with Canada's Food Guide (EWCFG, 2007) was calculated manually (Health Canada).

Results

Visual inspection

Weight. BMI is an appropriate measure when assessing a change across participants because it provides a standard against which to compare (Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, 2011). However, when comparing within a participant, height is already a constant leaving weight as the only inde-

Figure 1: Graphed data of weight for participants one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, and eight. The vertical lines indicate the period prior to the intervention's implementation (baseline phase) and when it was implemented (intervention phase).



pendent variable. As a result, weight was reported in order to highlight the considerable changes these participants experienced.

Participant one's weight decreased from a baseline score of 214.2 lbs to 195.8 lbs at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 18.4 lbs from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Weight decreased consistently throughout the study period. However, participant one increased her weight by 14.4 lbs from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a decrease in participant one's weight across the intervention phase with an increase at the six-month follow-up, although still 5.4 lbs below her baseline weight. Weight data for participants one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, and eight are presented in Figure 1.

Participant two's weight decreased from a baseline score of 199.2 lbs to 196.0 lbs at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 3.2 lbs from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Weight decreased consistently throughout the study period. However, participant two increased her weight by 11 lbs from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up. Weight decreased slightly at the beginning of the intervention phase and then proceeded to increase half-way through the intervention. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a very slight decrease in participant two's weight by the end of the intervention with a 6 lbs increase from baseline to the six-month follow-up.

Participant three's weight decreased from a baseline score of 190.6 lbs to 186.0 lbs at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 4.6 lbs from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant three gained 5 lbs from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up, although only 0.6 lbs above her baseline weight. Weight decreased slightly throughout the study period. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a small decrease in participant three's weight across the intervention phase.

Participant four's weight decreased from a baseline score of 172.2 lbs to 143.0 lbs at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 29.2 lbs from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant four lost an additional 2 lbs from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. Participant four lost a total of 30 lbs from her baseline weight to the six-month follow-up. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a steady and steep decrease in participant four's weight throughout the intervention phase while continuing to maintain her weight from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up.

Participant five's weight decreased from a baseline score of 211.0 lbs to 194.8 lbs at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 16.2 lbs from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant five lost an additional 0.6 lbs from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. Participant five lost a total of 19.2 lbs from her baseline weight to the six-month follow-up. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a decrease in participant five's weight across the baseline and intervention phases with continued maintenance of her weight from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up.

Participant six's weight decreased from a baseline score of 291.4 lbs to 254.0 lbs at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 37.4 lbs from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant six lost an additional 1 lbs from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. Weight decreased consistently throughout the intervention phase. Participant six lost a total of 40 lbs from her baseline weight to the six-month follow-up. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a steady decrease in participant six's weight throughout the intervention phase with a continued maintenance of the weight lost from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up.

Participant seven's weight decreased from a baseline score of 254.0 lbs to 235.2 lbs at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 18.8 lbs from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant seven gained an additional 6.4 lbs from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a steady decrease in participant seven's weight throughout the intervention phase with an increase in weight from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up, although still 12 lbs below her baseline weight.

Participant eight's weight decreased from a baseline score of 172.8 lbs to a score of 163.0 lbs at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 9.8 lbs from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant eight lost an additional 8.2 lbs from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. Participant eight lost a total of 22.2 lbs from her baseline weight to the six-month follow-up. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a steady decrease in participant eight's weight throughout the intervention phase with a continued decrease in weight from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up.

To summarise, weight decreased for all participants from baseline to the end of the intervention with a more pronounced decrease in participant's one, four, five, six, seven, and eight. Three participants gained part of their weight back that was lost during the six-month follow-up and five participants maintained and continued to lose additional weight at the six-month follow-up.

Waist Circumference (WC). Participant one's WC decreased from a baseline score of 43.7in to a score of 42.0in at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 1.7in from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant one maintained her WC from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. After using visual inspection, there appeared to be a decrease in participant one's WC throughout the intervention phase while maintaining her WC from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up. Waist circumference data for participants one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, and eight are presented in Figure 2.

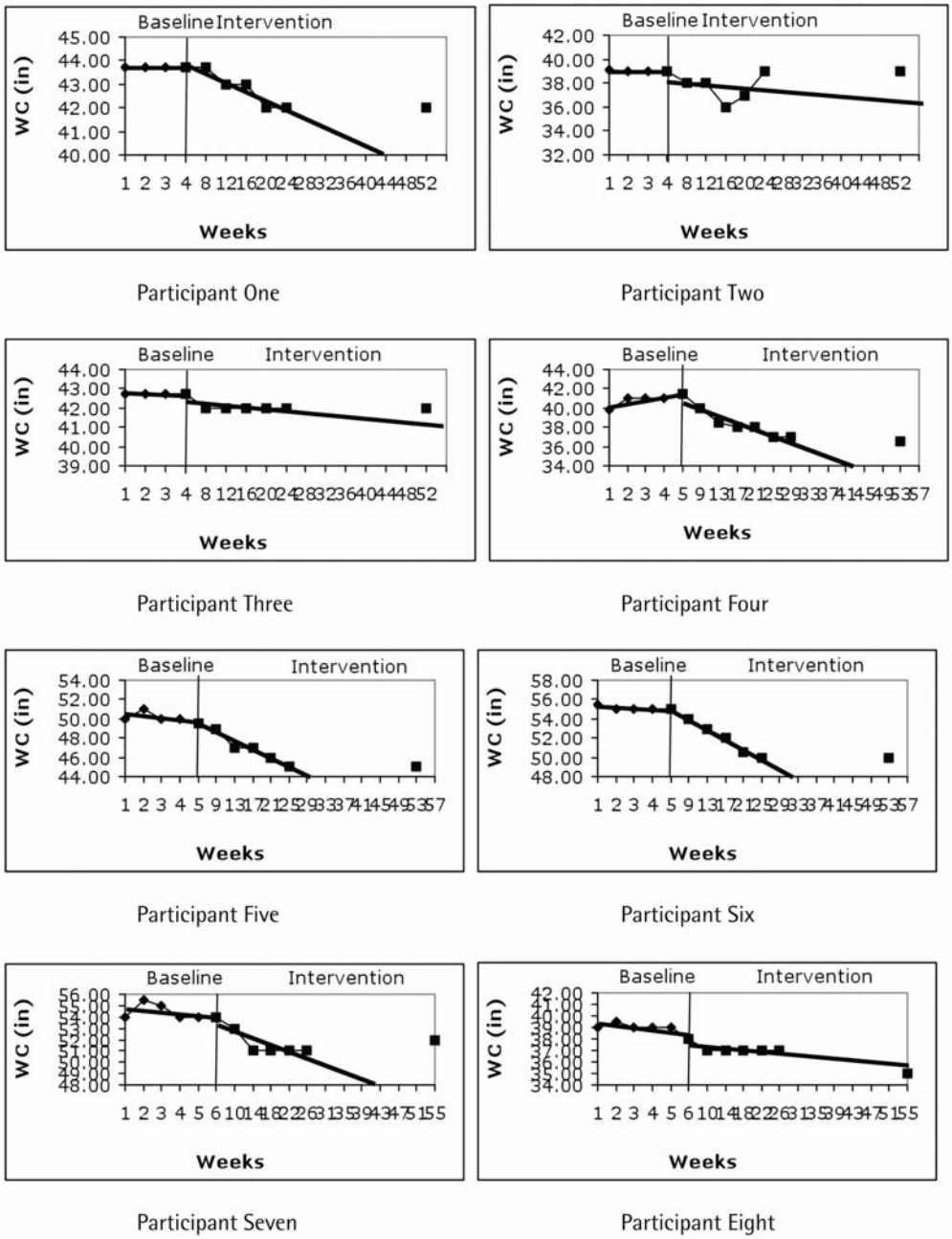
Participant two's WC did not change from a baseline score of 39.0in to 39.0in at the end of the intervention phase. Participant two maintained her WC from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. After applying visual inspection, there appeared to be a slight decrease in participant two's WC throughout the early intervention phase with an increase near the end of the intervention and no change from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up.

Participant three's WC decreased from a baseline score of 42.7in to 42.0in at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 0.7in from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant three maintained her WC from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. After applying visual inspection, there appeared to be a decrease in WC from baseline to the beginning of the intervention phase with WC remaining constant throughout the majority of the intervention phase and no change was detected from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up.

Participant four's WC decreased from a baseline score of 41.5in to 37in at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 4.5in from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant four decreased her WC by 0.5in from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. After applying visual inspection, there appeared to be a decrease in participant four's WC throughout the intervention phase with a slight decrease from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up.

Participant five's WC decreased from a baseline score of 49.5in to 45in at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 4.5in from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant five

Figure 2: Graphed data of waist circumference for participants one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, and eight. The vertical lines indicate the period prior to the intervention's implementation (baseline phase) and when it was implemented (intervention phase).



maintained her WC from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. After applying visual inspection, there appeared to be a sharp decrease in participant five's WC throughout the intervention phase and no change was detected from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up.

Participant six's WC decreased from a baseline score of 55in to 50in at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 5.0in from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant six maintained her WC from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. After applying visual inspection, there appeared to be a sharp decrease in participant six's WC throughout the intervention phase with no change from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up. It should be noted that participant six could not make time to come in for her final assessment. Her weight and waist circumference were self-reported.

Participant seven's WC decreased from a baseline score of 54in to a score of 51in at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 3.0in from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant seven increased her WC from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up by 1.0in. After applying visual inspection, there appeared to be steady decrease in participant seven's WC throughout the intervention phase and a small increase from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up.

Participant eight's WC decreased from a baseline score of 38.0in to 37.0in at the end of the intervention phase. The level decreased 1.0in from the end of baseline to the end of the intervention phase. Participant eight continued to decrease her WC by 2.0in from the end of the intervention phase to the six-month follow-up. After applying visual inspection, there appeared to be a decrease in participant eight's WC when the intervention was applied and remained constant throughout the intervention phase with a continued decrease from the end of the intervention to the six-month follow-up.

To summarise, WC decreased for participants one, four, five, six, seven, and eight and remained stable for participants two and three. This demonstrates a trend towards a decrease in WC.

Clinical significance

Pre-post changes in self-esteem, functional health status, quality of life, self-efficacy, physical activity, and nutrition were evaluated for clinical significance by assessing statistical change through an examination of effect size using Cohen's *d* (Cohen, 1988).

Self-esteem. Participants' scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale revealed a large effect (i.e. increase) in self-esteem (Cohen's d=1.85). Collectively, the effect size indicates a clinically significant improvement in participants' self-esteem after completing the coaching intervention.

Functional health status. Participants' scores on the overall health dimension of the SF-36 revealed a considerable increase (i.e. large effect) in overall health status (Cohen's d=1.34). Participants' scores on the physical health dimension of the SF-36 revealed an increase (i.e. large effect) in overall physical health status (Cohen's d=0.95). Participants' scores on the mental health dimension of the SF-36 revealed a considerable increase (i.e. large effect) in overall mental health status (Cohen's d=1.89). Collectively, the effect sizes for physical, mental, and overall health indicate a clinically significant improvement in participants' health status after completion of the coaching intervention.

Quality of Life (QOL). Participants' scores on the overall QOL on the WHOQOL-Bref revealed a moderate to large effect in overall QOL status (Cohen's d=0.72). Participants' scores on the overall health dimension revealed a considerable increase (i.e. large effect) in overall health status (Cohen's d=1.21). Participants' scores on the physical dimension revealed a considerable increase (i.e. large effect) in overall physical health

status (Cohen's *d*=1.44). Participants' scores on the psychological dimension revealed a considerable increase in overall psychological health status (Cohen's *d*=2.36). Participants' scores on the overall social dimension revealed a moderate increase in overall social status (Cohen's *d*=0.49). Participants' scores on the environmental dimension revealed a small to moderate effect in overall environmental status (Cohen's *d*=0.38). Collectively, the effect sizes for QOL dimensions indicate a clinically significant improvement in participants' overall QOL after finishing the coaching intervention.

Self-efficacy. Participants' scores on the self-efficacy barriers to nutrition questionnaire revealed an increase (i.e. large effect) in participants' ability to manage barriers to healthy nutrition (Cohen's *d*=0.77). Participants' scores on the barriers to physical activity questionnaire revealed a considerable increase in participants' ability to handle barriers to physical activity (Cohen's *d*=1.22). Participants' scores on the achieving tasks in physical activity questionnaire revealed a moderate increase (i.e. medium effect) in participants' ability to achieve tasks in physical activity (Cohen's *d*=0.51). Collectively, the effect sizes for self-efficacy indicate a clinically significant improvement in participants' overall self-efficacy after completing the coaching intervention.

Physical activity. Participants' scores on the IPAQ revealed a moderate increase (i.e. medium effect) in participants' level of physical activity (Cohen's *d*=0.6). The effect size for physical activity does not indicate a clinically significant improvement in participants' overall physical activity level after completing the coaching intervention.

Nutrition. Participants' food records revealed a large increase (i.e. large effect) in vegetables and fruits (Cohen's *d*=1.06) and protein (Cohen's *d*=1.30) and a large decrease in sodium (Cohen's *d*=–1.53), total calories (Cohen's *d*=–1.50), and saturated fat (Cohen's *d*=–1.08). There was a moderate decrease (i.e. medium effect) in fibre (Cohen's *d*=–0.51) and total fat (Cohen's *d*=–0.52) and a small to moderate decrease (i.e. small to medium effect) in cholesterol (Cohen's *d*=–0.39). The decrease in carbohydrates was too small to even classify as a small effect (Cohen's *d*=–0.04).

Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of MI using CALC skills as an intervention for decreasing obesity. The secondary purpose was to examine the effect of MI on participants' self-esteem, functional health status, quality of life, self-efficacy, physical activity, and nutrition behaviours.

Weight decreased for all participants directly following the six-months of coaching. At the six-month follow-up, participants four, five, six, and eight continued to decrease or maintain their weight. Participants one, two, three, and seven gained weight at the six-month follow-up but participants one and seven were still below their baseline weight. It should be noted that of the three participants who regained weight, one participant reported an increase in asthma symptoms that reduced her ability to exercise consistently and two participants reported an injury from a car accident as factors that influenced their weight. Based on Shaw et al.'s (2007) literature review examining psychological interventions for treating obesity and Douketis et al.'s (2005) systematic review that examined methods used for weight loss, these results are not surprising. Both sets of researchers report that longer behavioural interventions result in significantly greater weight loss than shorter behavioural treatments. However, these results are surprising to the researchers of the current study due to the participants' reported co-morbidities. One participant was using Prednisone, a steroidal drug used to treat her asthma. Prednisone's side effects include weight gain, fatigue or weakness, joint pain, and severe swelling (Senecal, 1998). In a study conducted by Everdingen

et al. (2002) that assessed the impact of Prednisone on patients with early active rheumatoid arthritis, the treatment group who received Prednisone had a significant increase (p=0.001) in weight gain with no change in weight in the placebo group. One participant was dealing with depression. According to the Canadian Mental Health Association (2010), depressed individuals have a tendency to eat more, experience a loss of energy, and often feel tired. Three participants were going through menopause and presented symptoms that might have influenced weight inclusive of, aching joints, chronic fatigue, sweet, caffeine, junk food, and carbohydrate cravings, depression and anxiety, dizziness, weight gain, and sleep problems (Greendale & Judd, 1993). One participant received radiation therapy for detected cancerous cells. Radiation side effects include anxiety and depression, changes in appetite, fatigue, and sleep disturbances (Canadian Cancer Society, 2010). Moreover, this same participant quit smoking during the intervention, which can result in an increased appetite, problems sleeping, and slight social withdrawal (American Cancer Society, 2010). Given these co-morbidities it was not expected that participants would decrease their weight. However, participants one, four, five, six, seven and eight lost as little as 9.8 pounds and as much as 37.4 pounds. In a similar study conducted by Newnham-Kanas et al. (2008), it was suggested that coaching continue for a longer period of time which may garner greater weight loss. Directly following the final coaching session, three participants were no longer obese and two participants moved from Class II obesity to Class I and Class III obesity to Class II. At the end of the six-month follow-up, two participants were no longer obese and one participant moved from Class III to Class II. The current study's results highlight the effectiveness of MI using CALC skills' for six-months as a viable intervention for losing weight even when co-morbidities and psychological distress contributing to and/or resulting from obesity are present that may impact the amount of weight lost.

Waist circumference decreased for participants one, three, five, six, seven, and eight directly following the intervention. There was no change in waist circumference for participant two. Waist circumference continued to decrease for participants one and eight at the six-month follow-up. Participants three, five, and six maintained their WC from the end of the intervention, and participant seven increased her WC but it was lower than her baseline measurement. Waist circumference might have resulted from an increase in physical activity and healthier eating habits as reported in the exit interview. These results are particularly important given that WC is perceived as a more accurate representation of excess body fat which, in turn, is a good predictor of all-cause mortality in middle-aged men and women (Bigaard et al., 2005; Janssen, Katzmarzyk & Ross, 2004).

Self-esteem increased for participants with a large effect detected. This result is analogous to results reported by a similar study conducted by Newnham-Kanas et al. (2008) and Van Zandvoort et al. (2008). Gover (1991) explains that one way to build self-esteem is to become aware and challenge the individual's inner critic. In coaching we refer to this inner critic as the saboteur and identifying and confronting the thoughts associated with the saboteur were skills reportedly used by the coach during participants' coaching sessions. Self-concept is integral to increased self-esteem and is determined by the self-talk or internal thoughts the individual has about him/herself. By challenging the negative self-talk and thoughts, it is presumed that an individual will be able to set more challenging goals and suggest solutions to his/her problems (Hall, 2007). In balance coaching, a specific form of CALC, the coach works with clients to envision new perspectives to help them become aware of their current perspective and how to create action plans to generate new perspectives and new ways of looking at

life events and challenges (Whitworth, Kimsey-House & Sandahl, 1998, 2007). As reported by the coach of the current study (Newnham-Kanas, Irwin & Morrow, under review), balance coaching was one of the styles of coaching used predominately with participants. Increased self-esteem allows individuals to feel worthwhile, capable of helping themselves, and optimistic about the future (Gover). All of these traits are necessary for weight loss to be possible and may be one reason participants in the current study lost a considerable amount of weight and for some, were able to maintain and even further reduce that weight six-months later.

Functional health status (FHS) increased for participants with a large effect detected for the overall, physical, and mental dimensions of health. These findings were also reported in studies conducted by Newnham-Kanas et al. (2008) and Van Zandvoort et al. (2008). Stress has been reported as an important risk factor for weight loss and maintenance (Elfhag & Rossner, 2005). Additionally, individuals who tend to regain weight have a tendency to increase their eating habits to cope with the stress (Elfhag & Rossner). All of the participants in the current study struggled with their weight for many years and might fit within that paradigm. These increased FHS results after the coaching sessions suggest that MI applied via CALC aided participants in finding solutions to manage their stress and in turn adopt healthy behaviours that improved their sense of well being. These results are particularly surprising given the number of co-morbidities and resulting stress these participants were dealing with prior to and during the intervention.

Participants' overall quality of life (QOL) increased with a large effect detected for overall, physical, and psychological QOL dimensions. A moderate and small to moderate effect was detected for social and environmental dimensions. Research confirms that increased weight decreases health-related QOL, which would contribute to explaining the mechanism by which participants QOL increased (Jia & Lubetkin, 2005; Pinhas-Hamiel et al., 2005). These results are particularly surprising because it has been reported that as individuals increase in age, their physical QOL scores decrease (Zabelina et al., 2009). It is not surprising that psychological dimensions increased as self-esteem and learning to cope with life stressors are key components of the psychological dimension, which increased at the end of the coaching intervention (WHO-QOL-BREF; World Health Organisation, 1997). Although social and environment QOL increased moderately, participants reported in their exit interview and focus group (Newnham-Kanas et al., under review) that they have been stepping outside of their comfort zone by joining social clubs (e.g. book clubs) and reuniting with old friends.

Participants were viewed by the coach as naturally, creative, resourceful, and whole – a cornerstone of the Co-Active model (Whitworth et al., 2007). In other words, the coach viewed participants as having the capability to find their own solutions to problems and strong enough to work through difficult moments in order deepen their learning and/or commit to some specific behavioural action to ameliorate their health concern (reflective of another Co-Active cornerstone). Given the increase in nutrition barriers, physical activity barriers, and physical activity-related task self-efficacy (large and medium effect sizes detected) perceived by participants over the duration of the intervention, it is evident that participants increased their belief and ability to conquer obstacles such as working through issues that were impeding their ability to lose weight, increasing their physical activity (as reported in their post-interviews; Newnham-Kanas, Irwin & Morrow, under review), and making healthier nutritional changes. CALC tools that support clients in engaging in healthful actions and increasing self-acceptance are some of the reasons MI using CALC skills is believed to be an intervention that can have a more permanent effect on weight loss. These self-efficacy results are different from

the study conducted by Newnham-Kanas et al. (2008); our interpretation is that the difference in the present study is due to increasing the number of coaching sessions and the concomitant link to increased self-efficacy scores.

Although a moderate effect size was reported for physical activity, it should be emphasised that even with the co-morbidities listed above, participants still found ways to increase their physical activity. As well, six of the eight participants shared in the exit interview that they had to work through 'emotional baggage' before they could even contemplate integrating physical activity into their daily lives. Physical activity did increase in this study compared to the results report by Newnham-Kanas et al. (2008); this indicates that increasing the number of coaching sessions might aid in increasing participants frequency of engaging in healthful behaviours.

Participants reported a large reduction in energy intake of approximately 900 kcal per day, which likely contributed significantly to the observed weight loss. This large reduction in overall energy intake may be attributed to the increase (large effects) in protein and vegetable and fruit (V&F) intake with a simultaneous reduction in total fat intake – all of which may have enhanced the satiety value of participants' diets. In particular, a diet containing 25 per cent of total energy intake (TEI) from protein, which is similar to that observed in the present study, has demonstrated a spontaneous reduction in energy intake of about 400 kcal per day (Skov et al., 1999). Furthermore, the large increase in V&F intake in combination with reductions in total fat, saturated fat, cholesterol, and sodium may reduce participants' risk of developing future chronic diseases, such as Type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular diseases (Institute of Medicine, 2005). With respect to sodium alone, it is estimated that an 1800 mg/d reduction in sodium intake, which is approximately 50 per cent of what our participants achieved, could reduce systolic and diastolic blood pressure by 5.06 and 2.7 mmHg respectively and may reduce the overall prevalence of hypertension by 30 per cent (Joffres et al., 2007). It is noteworthy that fibre intake was moderately reduced throughout the study. This is an undesirable finding, as fibre intake is negatively associated with chronic disease development (Institute of Medicine). In future studies, some nutritional education may be warranted to ensure that participants meet their recommended intake of nutrients known to contribute to health and chronic disease prevention.

There are several limitations to the current study. Although recruitment methods were used to attract a variety of individuals, the final group of participants was homogenous in sex and ethnicity. Because the study had only one coach and due to the multiple-baseline, single-subject design, a small sample size was necessary. As a result of these two factors, these results are not representative of individuals struggling with obesity aged 35 to 55. Another limitation was the lack of a control group, which could have strengthened internal validity thereby increasing confidence that the measured effects could be attributed to the intervention. However, it should be noted that the current study incorporated suggestions reported by Newnham-Kanas et al. (2008) by standardising the number of coaching sessions for each participant (all participants completed 18 coaching sessions) and the number of coaching sessions increased from eight weeks to six months, and follow-up continued to one-year post-baseline.

Even though monthly weigh-in sessions may be viewed as an intervention in and of itself, this is unlikely for the current study. Participants were not shown their weight until the final weigh-in after all coaching sessions were complete. As well, none of the participants in the exit interview reported that the weigh-ins had any effect (positive or negative) on their final weight outcome.

Given the results of the current study, it is apparent that increasing the number of coaching sessions has a beneficial effect on

weight loss. Based on suggestions from participants, it is recommended that coaching continue for at least one year due to the multiplicity of areas in participants' lives that obesity affects, and that affect obesity. Although a significant amount of weight was lost in only six months, it has been reported that dietary/lifestyle therapy can require two to four years to maintain weight loss (Douketis et al., 2005). It is also recommended that a larger, more representative sample of participants, be used in conjunction with a control group to augment internal validity. Currently there are two other studies (Newnham-Kanas et al., 2008; Van Zandvoort et al., 2008) that have reported MI using CALC skills as an effective intervention for obesity. Thus, MI's effectiveness has been documented and thereby points the way toward integrating formal physical activity and nutritional programs in conjunction with MI to determine what impact these added programmes would have on obesity.

Despite these limitations and suggestions, the following conclusions can be drawn from the reported results:

1. MI applied via CALC was associated with a trend towards a decrease in weight and WC.
2. MI applied via CALC was associated with a trend towards maintaining or continuing to decrease weight and WC six months after the last coaching session.
3. MI applied via CALC was associated with clinically significant increases in self-esteem.
4. MI applied via CALC was associated with clinically significant increases in functional health status.
5. MI applied via CALC was associated with clinically significant increases in quality of life.
6. MI applied via CALC was associated with clinically significant increases in self-efficacy.
7. MI applied via CALC was associated with a moderately detected increase in physical activity.

As obesity levels continue to rise in Canada and around the world, it is crucial that research continue to test new strategies aimed at helping individuals decrease their weight. As research persists, a common theme of incorporating behavioural treatments with traditional physical activity and nutrition programmes are emphasised as vital in aiding obese individuals in decreasing their weight (Foster, Makris & Bailer, 2005; Kausman & Bruere, 2006). Specifically, treatments that empower individuals to find solutions to their own problems, make healthier choices, and learn to cope with life stressors are deemed effective strategies in losing and maintaining weight (Elfhag & Rossner, 2005; Kausman & Bruere). MI using CALC skills is one such intervention and it is an effective tool in aiding individuals conquer their battle with weight.

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Personal reflection

Reality TV gets positive: Psychological reflections on *Making Australia Happy*

Anthony M. Grant

The Australian ABC television series Making Australia Happy *followed eight individuals as they completed an intensive eight-week positive psychology coaching programme using scientifically-validated positive psychology interventions. The show generated the largest ever web-based response to an ABC programme with over 1,000,000 hits on the ABC website (initially crashing the ABC servers) and over 45,000 registered individuals taking online assessments and doing positive psychology exercises. Over the eight weeks participants' levels of stress, anxiety and depression reduced remarkably, levels of subjective well-being and psychological well-being increased and there were significant improvements in a range of biochemical markers including blood pressure, cortisol and melatonin. Participants' mean performance on a cold presser task (a measure of physical resilience) increased from 57 seconds to 131 seconds post-programme. In addition, pre-post Magnetoencephalography (MEG) brain scans showed significant positive changes in brain functioning. A 24-week follow-up indicated that the gains in positive psychological functioning were maintained. This reflective article, written by the psychologist presenter of the show outlines these findings and discusses some of the challenges for psychologists working at the intersection of science and commercialism, particularly in areas such as positive psychology.*
Keywords: *Positive psychology; coaching; Reality TV.*

FROM *Big Brother* to *Who Wants to Marry My Dad?* and on to a huge range of shows about obese people, Reality TV exploded as a television phenomena in the 1990s and now forms a staple part of our television entertainment diet. Reality TV has been defined as a genre of television programmeming that shows supposedly unscripted dramatic or humorous situations or events, typically featuring ordinary people rather than professional actors, and often depicting them in everyday life or in competition with each other (Hill, 2005). Reality television garners large audiences. The 2000 final of *Survivor* drew over 50 million viewers and there are now at least three television channels devoted to Reality TV (Fox Reality – USA; Global Reality – Canada; and Zone Reality – UK). In short it appears that Western television audiences have a ferocious appetite for Reality TV.

The disappointing reality of Reality TV

Reality TV has the potential to be a significant positive force in the media. Reality TV gives the viewer the opportunity to empathetically look into private aspects of other people's lives, and learn how different people live and make meaning of their lives. From this standpoint Reality TV has the potential to broaden minds, to give the viewer new perspectives from which to make sense of the world, develop tolerance, understanding and empathy, and in so doing, it presents the potential to enrich our own lived experiences.

Unfortunately the reality of Reality TV is very different. Many of these shows involve the systematic degradation, humiliation or embarrassment of their participants, and feature high-risk activities such as radical plastic surgery and rapid weight loss, and seem to 'spotlight a world rife with sexual situations, (which is) focused obsessively on physical attractiveness, and dominated by competition, scheming, humiliation, and

voyeurism' (Christenson & Ivancin, 2006, p.16).

Watching Reality TV may well have detrimental effects on viewers. For example, in one study female viewers were randomly assigned to one of two conditions, watching a Reality TV radical cosmetic surgery programme or a Reality TV home improvement programme. Women in the cosmetic surgery programme group who reported higher internalisation of the thin-ideal at baseline manifested significantly lower self-esteem at post-testing two weeks later. The findings lead the authors to conclude that Reality TV cosmetic surgery makeover programmes may contribute to eating disordered attitudes and behaviours among young women, particularly those who have internalised the thin body-ideal (Mazzeo et al., 2007). Other research has suggested that regular viewers of Reality TV have an above-average need to feel self-important and that such viewing helps them meet this need because they feel superior to participants in such programmes (Reiss & Wiltz, 2004; Turner, 2008).

Indeed, all too often with Reality TV, we the viewer, look into the misery of other people's lives and feel good about ourselves simply because we are not them.

Reality TV gets positive? From sceptic to advocate

But it does not have to be this way. Reality TV has the very real potential to provide positive role models and spread positive, worthwhile information about health and well-being. It was this potential that provided the impetus for the making of the ABC television series *Making Australia Happy*.

I was fortunate to be asked to be the coaching psychologist and the central presenter of the show and in this article I reflect on my experiences, and I present results from a follow-up study demonstrating that the positive effects of involvement were still apparent 24 weeks after filming ended.

I should state that I was highly sceptical and somewhat guarded when I was first approached to contribute to this programme. My views of Reality TV echoed the negative notions outlined above. I was anxious about being manipulated by the media. I was concerned for the well-being of the participants. And I worried about how those at the School of Psychology, University of Sydney (my primary place of employment) and others in the (often somewhat conservative) psychological science community would judge my on-screen antics. After all, I had put a considerable number of years into trying to help establish coaching as a valid evidence-based methodology for creating purposeful positive change, and working to establish coaching psychology as a legitimate psychological sub-discipline worthy of being taken seriously – and that had not been an easy undertaking. Would my participation undo such efforts? Would the show undermine the good work of the positive psychology movement? These were very real concerns for me as I weighed up the pros and cons of participation.

However, in conducting my due diligence I was greatly reassured by the quality of various television programmes made previously by the producers and I was comforted by their solid reputations for developing well-grounded, science-based documentaries, and after considerable consultation with family, peers and trusted colleagues, and following in-depth and frank discussions with the production team I decided to get involved. After all, I rationalised, if the whole thing was a disaster I could write an insider's exposé on the dangers and ethical ineptitudes of the Reality TV industry! Fortunately, I have not had to do so. Indeed, my experiences have been overwhelmingly positive. Hard work, but a real pleasure.

Making Australia Happy: Positive Psychology and Coaching

Over three years in the planning and making, and finally screened in November 2010, the three-part ABC television series *Making Australia Happy* was part documentary, part Reality TV. The series followed eight individuals from Marrickville, a suburb in inner-city

Sydney, as they completed an intensive eight week holistic positive psychology coaching programme using scientifically-validated positive psychology interventions.

There is a considerable public interest in positive psychology. The show generated the largest ever web-based response to an ABC programme with over 1,000,000 hits on the ABC website (initially crashing the ABC servers) with over 45,000 individuals registering, taking online assessments and doing positive psychology exercises. The overarching aim of the series was to introduce scientifically-validated positive psychological concepts to the general Australian television-viewing pubic in order to encourage the use of empirically-validated approaches to the enhancement of well-being on an individual and community level. In order to meet this objective we needed to select a broad representation of the contemporary inner-city Australian population.

Duty of care considerations and the selection process

The selection process was detailed, challenging and rigorous. Information flyers were handed out in Marrickville and surrounding inner-city areas. We used local newspapers, radio and the internet to develop interest in the programme.

The tension between the need to attract individuals who were experiencing a measure of life dissatisfaction (and would thus be engaged in the programme) and the need to ensure that we only recruited participants who were resilient enough to deal with the stresses of filming was not easy to navigate.

Of course, duty of care considerations were primary. As with coaching, the programme was not intended to directly treat major depression or other mental illness, and appearing on television can itself be extremely stressful, so all potential participants were carefully assessed and screened by an independent clinical psychologist to ensure that those who were finally selected did not have severe depression or other major mental health or psychiatric problems.

As the coaching psychologist and the central presenter I was particularly concerned to ensure that participation in the show would not adversely effect participants in any way, and the producers and directors were equally adamant about this key point. Finally, following extensive background checks, in-depth interviews with family members and comprehensive mental health assessments we selected eight individuals.

The participants

We wanted to have people on the programme that the general public could easily identity with. It was not an easy choice. Finally, after much debate, repeated interviews and testing we chose; Ben (26), working full-time but in debt, single male; Liz O (34), working and recently separated, a now single mother with two young children; Liz K (63), a recently retired female academic in a long-term relationship; Tony (42), happily married with two young children, but very stressed with the pressures of running his own real estate business; Steven (51), a former architect now working long hours in the family business and married with four children; Rebekah (40), a somewhat harassed mother of twin boys under three; Cade (34), highly creative and artistic but lacking the confidence to take his art to the world and living with Mathew his defacto partner of eight years; Natalia (34 and single), working full-time, trapped by worries, resentments and negative self-talk, unfit, overworked, and really wanting to meet someone, fall in love and start a family. In short, we chose eight very 'normal' people trying to deal with the all-too-familiar stress and strains of contemporary Australian life (for more participant details see the series website at http://makingaustraliahappy.abc.net.au/ or the series book – *Eight Steps to Happiness* (Grant & Leigh, 2010)).

The challenge of measuring 'success'

In order to engage viewers, the show format required a single, easy-to-understand 'Happiness Score' that would allow participants and viewers to track the participant's progress (or

lack thereof) over time. Having been schooled in the complexities of psychological measurement through three degrees in psychology I was initially less than comfortable with the idea of reducing such a complex construct as happiness to a single score. After much discussion with the producers, and in consultation with peers and psychometric advisors we developed a composite measure – the 'Happy 100 Index'.

We needed a measure that was both scientifically meaningful and easy to understand, so the 'Happy 100 Index' was designed so that a score of 50 represented a neutral affect level, with scores greater than 50 indicating more positive than negative affect and scores less than 50 indicating more negative than positive affect. This was a composite measure using a number of well-validated assessments including The Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scales (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995), positive and negative affect balance (Bradburn, 1969), the Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (Tennant et al., 2007) and the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985).

But the aim of the programme was to give viewers insight into the both the psychological science and the biology underpinning positive psychology. To do this we felt we really needed to go beyond self-report psychology measures. So we also used a range of physiological and biological measures including blood pressure, cholesterol, the stress-related hormone cortisol, the sleep-related hormone melatonin and the immunity marker Immunoglobulin A. We also reasoned that, if the programme was truly effective there should also be changes in brain functioning – after all we were hoping to have a positive impact on participants' thinking! In order to examine this hypothesis we decided to assess the impact of participation in the eight-week programme on participants' brain activity using Magnetoencephalography (MEG) brain imagining.

The eight-week positive psychology coaching programme

For eight weeks the participants undertook a range of scientifically-validated positive psychology interventions. The programme mandate called for participants to undertake only previously-validated positive psychology interventions. Everything on the show had to be science-based. After reviewing the positive psychology literature we decided on using a number of key interventions.

These included goals and values identification exercises (Anshel, Brinthaupt & Kang, 2010; Locke, 1996), the enactment of acts of kindness and altruism (Batson, 1992; Isen & Levin, 1972) mindfulness exercises (Hayes, 2004), strengths-related assessments (Dweck, 2006; Peterson, 2006b) and solution-focused coaching (Grant, 2006), the expression of gratitude (Emmons & Crumpler, 2000) and forgiveness (McCullough & Witvliet, 2002; Wohl, Pychyl & Bennett, 2101) and the utilisation and creation of positive, supportive community-based social networks (Cacioppo, Fowler & Christakis, 2009; Fowler & Christakis, 2008). In addition, we provided on-going coaching and reflective learning through processes such as journaling and diary keeping (Boud, 2001; Frisina, Borod & Lepore, 2004). For full details of the interventions see Grant and Leigh (2010).

The programme took an overtly holistic approach. In addition to completing the above positive psychology interventions, participants had their physical exercise levels, sleep patterns and diet examined. All participants wore lightweight armbands that recorded physical movement. They were given detailed feedback on these measures, and exercise and dietary changes were implemented where needed.

Results

Initial psychological results

The initial results were fascinating. As a psychologist I had anticipated some self-reported changes in psychological state. As expected, over the eight-weeks participants'

self-reported levels of depression, anxiety and stress reduced remarkably, and levels of subjective well-being and psychological well-being increased. In short, negative effect decreased and positive affect increased. (See Table 1 and Figures 1 to 4).

The results indicated that the groups levels of depression were in the moderate range (as designated by population normative data reported in the DASS manual (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995)) at the beginning of the series at Time 1, but these levels dropped to the lower mild range by Time 2 and were in the normal range by Time 4.

The same pattern of results can be seen for anxiety. Initially the group's mean anxiety scores were in the mild range, but then dropped to upper normal range and then to the normal range over time. Again, the pattern was similar for stress. The group's mean stress scores were in the high moderate range at the beginning of the programme, but dropped remarkably quickly to the high normal range by Time 2 and then by Times 3 and 4 the scores were in the normal range.

Biological markers of well-being

I had not expected the substantial improvements in biological markers of well-being. At the start of filming half the group had high cholesterol, five of the eight had low melatonin levels, and six had unhealthily high levels of cortisol. At the end of filming those with unhealthy blood pressure and cholesterol levels showed a substantial decline, comparable to what would be expected if they had taken medication (those with high blood pressure experienced an average drop of 35/16). Their cortisol levels became normal and there was an average 60 per cent increase in melatonin levels. In addition, their levels of the immunity marker Immunoglobulin A increased 36 per cent following a day of altruistic charity work. Their increases in psychological functioning were manifest in other physical markers of resilience. At the start of the filming we put the participants through the cold presser test – asking them to hold their arms in ice cold water for as long they could stand it. At the beginning of the programme the average time was 57 seconds, increasing to 131

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations for Measures over Time.

	25th Jan Time 1		15th Feb Time 2		3rd March Time 3		25th March Time 4		1st Sept Time 5	
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Depression	19	*6*	7	*5*	6	*5*	2	*2*	4	*4.2*
Anxiety	8	*4*	6	*6*	5	*5*	1	*1*	1	*2.3*
Stress	24	*4*	12	*7*	11	*5*	5	*4*	7	*5.2*
PANAS +	15	*4*	20	*2*	19	*4*	21	*2*	20	*1.8*
PANAS –	15	*4*	11	*4*	10	*4*	6	*5*	9	*4.8*
SWL	21	*6*	23	*7*	25	*6*	30	*5*	29	*3.6*
WEMWBS	28	*7*	37	*5*	37	*5*	41	*2*	39	*5*

PANAS + = Positive Affect; PANAS – = Negative Affect; SWL = Satisfaction With Life;
WEMWBS = Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale

Figure 1: Group Average PANAS Scores over Time.

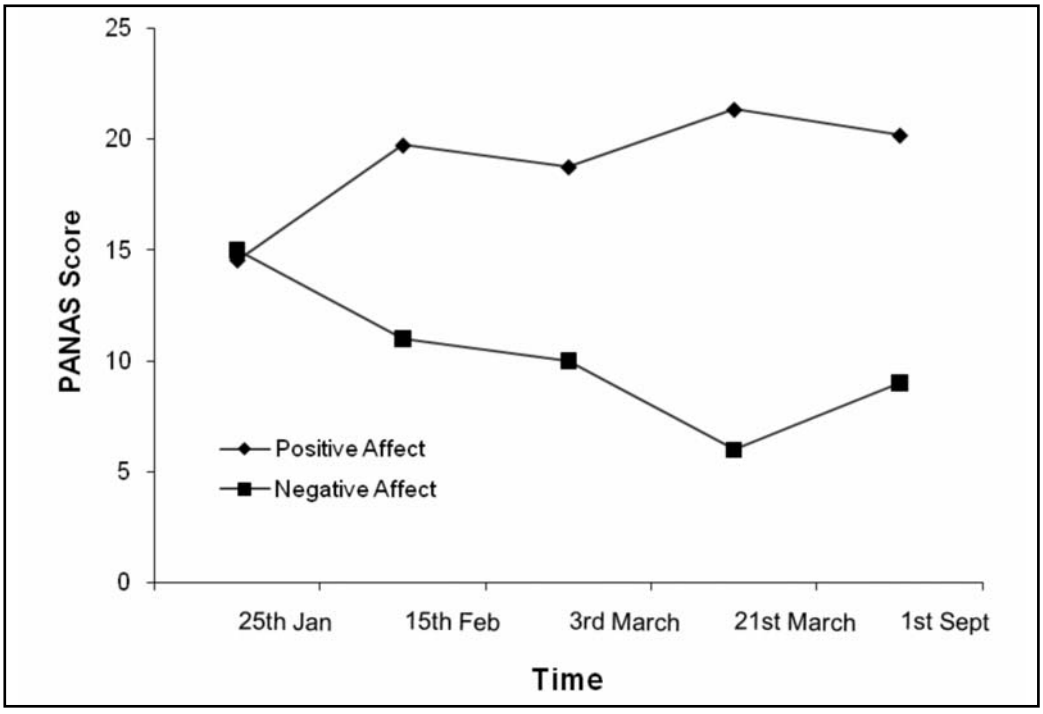


Figure 2: Group Average Satisfaction With Life Scores over Time.

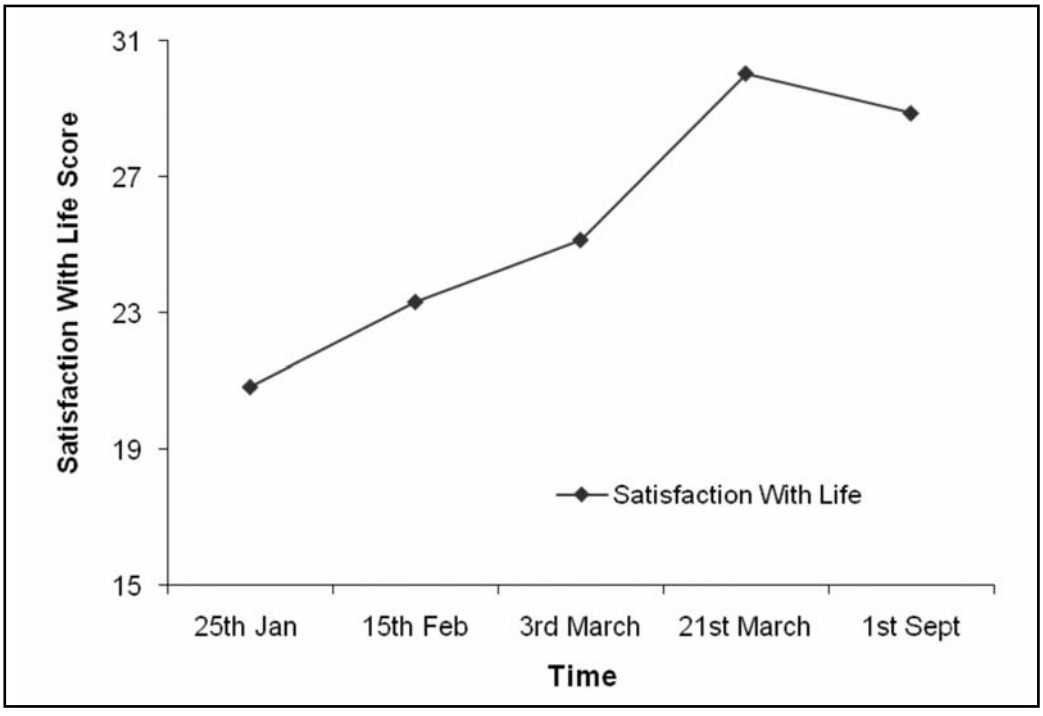


Figure 3: Group Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale Scores over Time.

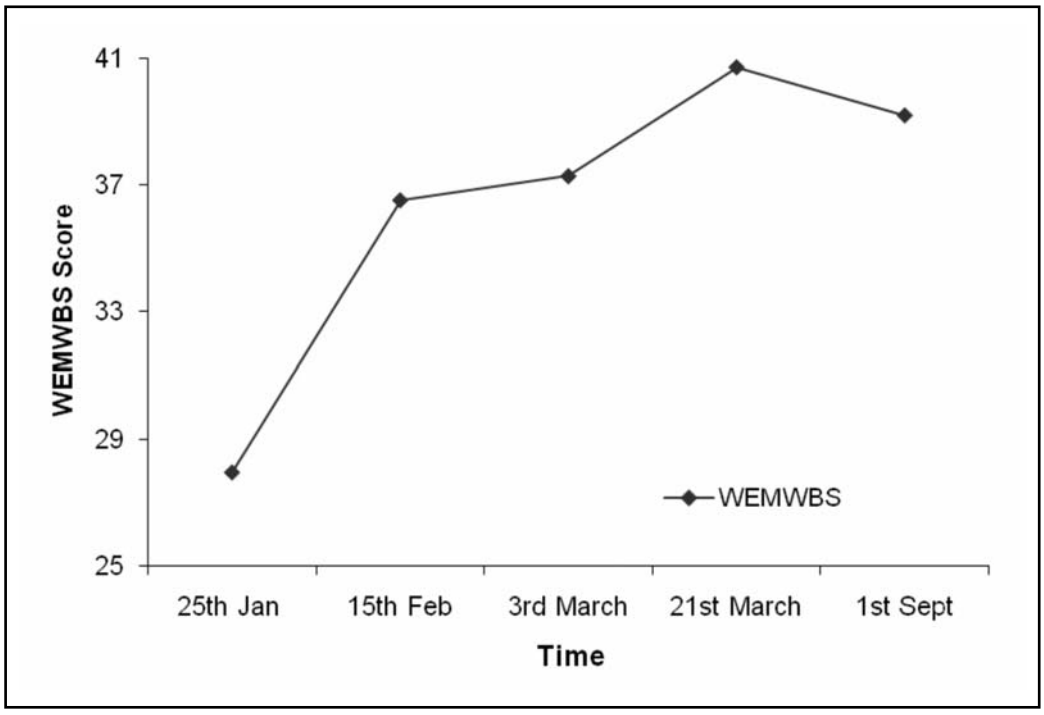
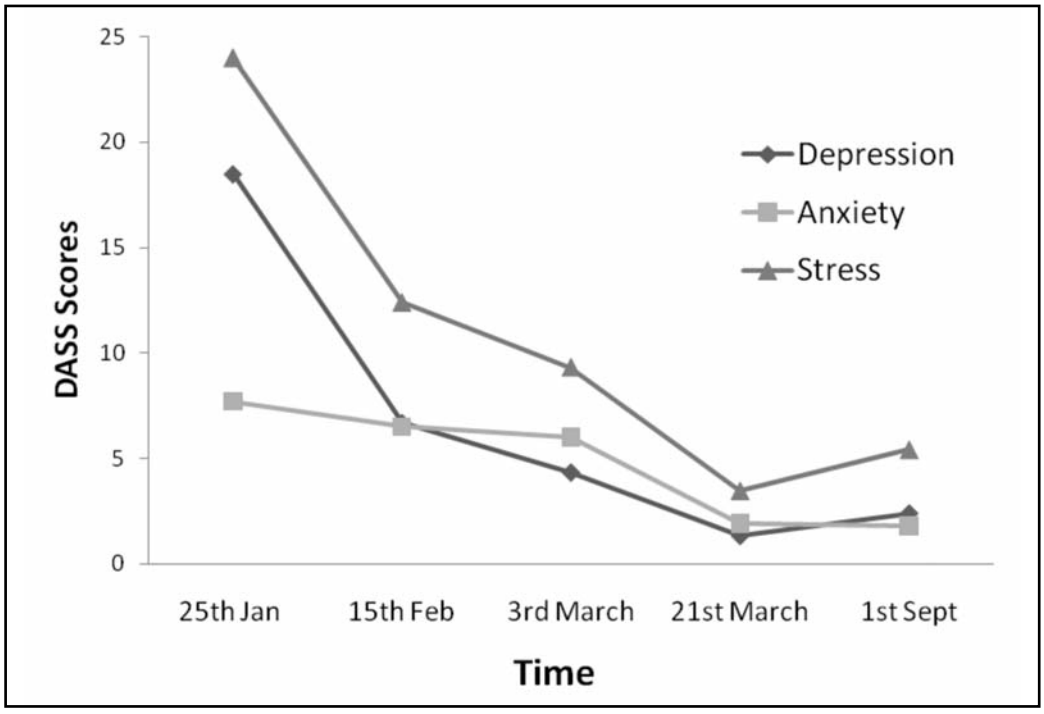


Figure 4: Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale Scores over Time.



seconds post-programme. This result echoed past research which found that being people who were coached to focus on mental images of hope where able to hold their arms in the iced water twice as long as a comparison control group who did not receive the hope coaching (Berg, Snyder & Hamilton, 2008).

MEG brain scans

Interestingly, pre/post MEG brain scans conducted at Macquarie University showed significant positive changes in brain functioning; there was a substantial pre-post reduction in neural activity in the parietal and temporal lobes during tests in which participants were shown stimuli consisting of faces expressing happy, sad and neutral emotions. Such changes are very positive; as Dr Craig Hassed, the programme's consultant physician said in an interview, *'a quite brain is a happy and efficient brain'*. In another interview about the results Associate Professor Mark Williams from the Macquarie University Centre for Cognitive Science commented that *'it's really exciting to see that we could get such a big change. It's showing that at some level plasticity, or an ability to adapt to experience is occurring'*. He also mentioned that these findings were similar to studies that demonstrated a similar decreases in the brain activity of experienced mediators compared with novices (Orme-Johnson et al., 2006).

Of course, it must be emphasised that this was not a controlled psychological experiment, and the sample size was very small, with many potentially confounding variables. But nonetheless these results were remarkable.

Follow-up findings: 24 weeks later

Over the course of the programme, the group average Happy 100 Index went from 48 in week one to 84 in week eight of the show – a remarkable improvement. But I wanted to know if these positive psychological changes would maintain over time, once the cameras and crew left. I considered this to be an important point of reckoning. I reasoned that the positive changes observed over the course of filming might have been simply due to the fact that the participants were receiving high levels of attention and positive reinforcement – the so-called Hawthorn Effect.

However, a follow-up psychological assessment 24 weeks after filming finished indicated that the psychological gains were indeed maintained: the group average score on the Happy 100 Index remained high at 80 and the positive changes in depression, anxiety, stress, positive and negative affect, psychological well-being and satisfaction in life observed during the course of filming were all maintained over the 24-week follow-up period (see Table 1 and Figures 1 to 4). The data presented in Table 1 and in Figures 1 to 4 indicate that between Time 4 and the 24-week follow-up at Time 5 there was a very slight reduction in Satisfaction with Life, Psychological Well-being and Positive Affect. These reductions were only in the order of one or two points. For example, the psychological well-being scores on the WEMWBS fell from 41 to 39, and the scores on the SWL measure fell from 30 to 29. Conversely there was a very slight increase in depression and stress over that 24-week period, although anxiety levels stayed exactly the same. However, overall it is obvious that the gains made during the filming were indeed still clearly evident at the 24-week follow-up

Discussion

Although, as a note of caution, it must be borne in mind that this was not a controlled scientific experiment, overall these results indicate that the positive psychology coaching programme was indeed effective, and not just during the period that the programme was being filmed. Of course, it would hardly be a viable television programme if there had not been some kind of positive outcome, but nevertheless the results were clearly impressive. As a coaching psychologist who works daily in the area of goal attainment and applied positive psychology, I am very used to clients reporting

increased well-being as a result of coaching. So, from my psychological perspective, the positive changes in the biological markers of well-being were a powerful reconfirmation of the potential of coaching and positive psychology to create real positive change: after all, it is hard to fake reductions in blood pressure, hormones and changes in brain functioning! Indeed, my positive experiences in the programme in many ways reaffirmed my faith in the practical utility of coaching and positive psychology.

Which was the 'most effective' intervention?

One key learning about the practical utility of coaching and positive psychology that has great relevance for practitioners was that there was no single 'most effective' positive psychology intervention. Coaching and applied positive psychology are not a one-size-fits-all approach. The programme emphasised that it is important to ensure that any specific intervention is a good fit for the client and their particular concerns or issues (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998).

Although all participants took part in certain group activities, for example, we held a group bowling evening which demonstrated the famous 'Bowling Study' experiment comparing positive with negative feedback (Kirschenbaum et al., 1982) (as in the original study positive feedback and monitoring 'success' improved performance compared to negative feedback and monitoring 'errors'), and all participants wrote a personal eulogy designed to highlight their own personal goal and values, we purposefully encouraged participants to undertake those interventions best suited to them and their life circumstances. For example, Liz O, found mindfulness was an invaluable well-being enchantment tool in her harried and frantic life, while Tony found that expressing gratitude to his employees increased his team's sense of belonging and workplace engagement.

It also become clear to the participants that physiological issues such as lack of sleep, poor diet, and lack of exercise played a significant role in their well-being. Positive psychology has not placed great emphasise on the role of biology and physiology, but as Cade, Tony and Ben found, it is hard to feel energised or happy on a minimal sleep or a diet of cola and pizza! These were important reminders for positive psychologists and coaches to work holistically with clients – cognitive or emotional interventions alone are not enough – real behavioural or physiological change requires more than just feeling positive. Time and time again on the programme we saw that positive shifts in well-being and happiness came after participants had enacted difficult and challenging actions – we found that waiting to feel happy before moving into behavioural action was unlikely to create real change.

Our understanding of 'Happiness'

Importantly, the production team did not just focus on the so-called 'positive emotions'. Our underpinning philosophy was that positive psychology is not just about so-called pleasant emotions or experiences. We wanted to take a broader, more sophisticated approach to well-being, rather than the all-too-common commercialised yellow smiley-face interpretation.

To our way of thinking, positive psychology is about the full range of human experience – we took the perspective that positive psychology is the scientific study of optimal human functioning which aims to discover and promote the factors that allow individuals and communities to thrive. It is important to note that nowhere does this approach say or imply that positive psychology should ignore or dismiss the very real problems and difficulties that people experience in their day to day lives (for extended discussion on this point see Peterson, 2006a). The programme was not about encouraging participants to 'grin and bear it', 'put on a happy face' or 'smile or die!' (for a counter example see Ehrenreich, 2009).

We were very clear in that we encouraged our participants to embrace their life experiences to the full – 'warts and all' – and not to shy away from sadness, resentment and

anger, but rather to explore those more 'uncomfortable' aspects of their lives, change the things that they could and accept that which they could not change, and in doing so build a full, meaningful and engaged way of living. And that approach seemed to resonate deeply both with the participants and the viewers. It certainly was effective.

Final reflections and comments

My participation required me to take on multiple roles: coach, counsellor, television presenter, and consultant – one minute I was presenting, then next acting as coach or counsellor, the next giving consultancy advice! Not surprisingly I found holding so many conflicting boundaries and role expectations extremely challenging. Fortunately, I had access to very good external supervision which was essential in helping me manage the unexpected role stress.

There is no doubt that making these kinds of programmes, although highly rewarding, is hard work and stressful. For professional psychologists working at the intersection of science and commercialism, there is the added tension of trying to ensure that the programme content meets professional psychological guidelines as outlined by the Australian Psychological Society whilst presenting easy-to-understand messages to the general public. Such professional considerations can weigh heavily, and contrary to common belief the presenter cannot exert complete control over the final product. I was fortunate in having producers and directors who were fully committed to creating an ethical, accurate and well-balanced programme, who were open to discussions and highly sensitive to the needs and vulnerabilities of the participants and there were many discussions and consultations about what footage to show.

Conclusion: Reality TV can get positive

In closing, it is worth reflecting that, although Reality TV and documentaries of that ilk have a poor reputation, I know from the considerable amount of positive feedback generated by the programme that well-balanced, evidenced-based television shows on positive psychology coaching and well-being are remarkable vehicles for making the science of psychology accessible and relevant to the public.

In an era where doom, despair and disaster dominate the media, and the public is increasingly presented with representations of a world that is scary, threatening or facile, positive psychology television programmes have the very real potential to positively educate and inform the general public, and in doing so to shift the media discourse towards a more meaningful and authentic representation of the life well lived.

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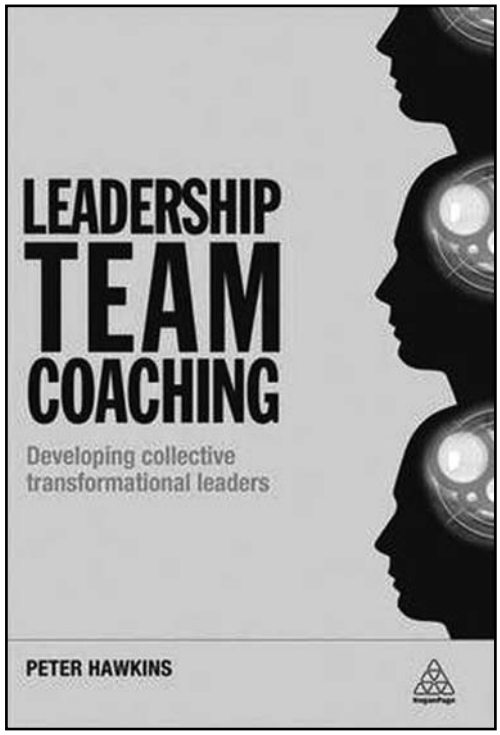
Book Review

Leadership Team Coaching:
Developing collective transformational leaders
Peter Hawkins
London: KoganPage (2011)
ISBN: 978-0-74945-883-6
232 pp; Hardback; £24.99.
Reviewed by David A. Lane



PETER HAWKINS has provided an excellent service in producing a book in a growing field of practice that suffers from a lack of useful texts. It is well written, insightful and provides a series of practical approaches of value to the coach and teams seeking to transform their experience. It is highly recommended.

That said there are a number of areas where perhaps it could have benefited from a more detailed exposition. A greater attention to the expanding work in complexity theory as it applies to organisations, research into decision making under conditions of uncertainly (highly relevant to transformational leadership) and the field of decision sciences which has looked at group or team decision making could all add value to the book had they been more fully explored.

Setting that aside and looking at the book as it stands there is a very coherent structure which takes the reader though an understanding of the importance of teams and what it takes to be successful. The five disciplines of effective teams follows and this is elaborated alongside a consideration of the nature of team process and coaching and the various types of team including at the board level. This exposition provides a valuable grounding to the book and helps address much of the confusion about teams, facilitation, group work and other variants upon the theme. The practical issues involved in finding and managing a team coach are explored together with developing and supervising team coaching and useful tools for working in team coaching.

In concluding he argues that we have to place very close attention to the question of what or who does team coaching serve. This is central to his stance and really deserves careful attention from the reader.

This format makes it easy to follow what could otherwise be a difficult area.

The central model used is based on the idea of the five disciplines of successful team practice. This is a very simple yet comprehensive model. It provides a core to thinking about teams, coaching teams and fits easily into the later sections on supervision of team coaching. Any one working with team coaching would find this a valuable framework either to use or as a tool to critique their own practice.

The five disciplines cover commissioning and recomissioning, clarifying, co-creation, connecting and core learning. The matrix he uses is based on the dimension outside to

inside and task to process. Thus commissioning sits as a task outside, whereas clarifying sits as a task inside. Connecting sits outside as a process, and co-creating inside as a process. Core learning sits atop the other processes. What he is able to do with this framework is to bring a number of important areas together to facilitate a generative relationship. So we can see how a team needs a clear commission from those who brought it into being, the right person to run it and then team members who can work well together. Once that commission from outside is established, the team from the inside has to clarify its purpose, strategy, value, protocol, roles and vision for success. However, once this is established the team to be successful must constantly attend to how they creatively and generatively work to have a beneficial impact on performance. Clarifying provides the inside process to accomplish this. These three elements he argues are necessary but not sufficient; the team makes a difference through how they individually and collectively connect to critical stakeholders. This is the process of connecting outside. Finally and sitting above the rest is the place where the team stand back and reflect on their performance and the multiple processes in play to consolidate their learning and engagement.

In taking teams through the five disciplines the team coach can enable transformational leadership. This is the argument and it is well made and practical in its application to team coaching.

To conclude, Peter Hawkins has as the blurb for the book suggests produced a practical roadmap with numerous examples that bring together the limited research to help readers to develop people in teams to perform more effectively. Coaching Psychologists may, like me, wish he had drawn his net wider in searching for theoretical or research led understandings that could have enhanced the concept of team coaching. What is there is useful but there is much as suggested above that is missing. That proviso apart anyone buying this book who is seeking a practical guide to a newly emerging area will not be disappointed.

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Congress report

1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology: Southern Hemisphere Event

Pretoria, South Africa, 26–27 May, 2011.

THIS international congress event hosted by Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology of South Africa (SIOPSA) and their Interest Group in Coaching and Consulting Psychology, provided evidence of the depth and diversity of coaching psychology at the moment. One of the strengths of coaching psychology, and of coaching in general, is the diversity of the sources it draws upon.

Professor Reinhard Stelter drew upon sociology and systems theory as the basis of his thought-provoking invited paper on adapting coaching to the hypercomplexity we are surrounded by. Dr Linda Page gave a fascinating summary of the implications of recent advances in neuroscience to coaching. Other speakers, such as Professors Frans Cilliers and Pieter Koortzen, drew upon the psychodynamic tradition, Drs Anna-Rosa Le Roux and Grant Freedman applied a Gestalt perspective to coaching, and Vicki Ellam-Dyson continued coaching's tradition of applying cognitive behavioural and rational emotive behavioural theory outside clinical settings. Professor Stephen Palmer's opening keynote covered the development of coaching psychology and its future direction. The whole programme contained many other excellent examples of coaching psychologists drawing upon their influences to improve our collective competence.

These various contributions exemplified one of coaching psychology's great strengths; our connections to the vast body of knowledge generated in the wider psychology field.

One aspiration we may propose for our profession and future congress events, is to see more fundamental research and theory development taking place within coaching psychology. It is perhaps a reflection of our youth as a discipline that we continue to borrow (successfully) from the older branches of our profession – clinical, neurological, sports, health and counselling. Perhaps as a sign of our maturation we now need to look within ourselves to generate our own work that others will borrow from us.

We in the Australian Psychological Society Interest Group in Coaching Psychology would like to set the challenge for the next International Congress of Coaching Psychology Southern Hemisphere Event in Australia in 2012 to produce the next GROW; the big new idea that will mark coaching psychology's emergence from adolescence to adulthood.

We look forward to seeing you all there.

David Heap, *National Convenor APS IGCP;*
Peter Zarris, *ICCP Liaison for APS IGCP;*
Aaron McEwan, *Deputy Convenor APS IGCP.*

Congress report

1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology: Ireland Event

Dublin, 18 June, 2011.

THE Psychological Society of Ireland's, Division of Work and Organisational Psychology (DWOP), Coaching Psychology Group (CPG) held the third event (Symposium) of the International Congress of Coaching Psychology (ICCP) in Dublin on Saturday, 18 June, 2011. As somebody commented, 'it was a most enjoyable and engaging day – the product of great teamwork.'

The title of the symposium was 'Navigating complexity and change through Coaching Psychology'. The symposium set out to explore the issues of complexity and change as we are currently experiencing them in Ireland and also the role of coaching psychology within these contexts. The event was chaired by Hugh O'Donovan, current chair of the Coaching Psychology Group (CPG) with Dr Joan Tiernan acting as convenor.

Professor Stephen Palmer opened proceedings with his keynote which was a comprehensive exploration of coaching psychology and its' evidence-based underpinnings. The presentation was delivered against the background of how to deal with complexity and also some clear examples of identified questionable and unethical behaviour by those who allegedly lead and

From left to right:
Eric Brady; Joan Tiernan; Karen Lopez; Stephen Palmer; Carmel O'Neil; Hugh O'Donovan.

give direction to the general population in financial and other areas. The importance of ethical values of governance (Van Vuuren, 2011) was introduced early in the presentation with specific mention made of the values of transparency, fairness, accountability and responsibility. The question was then posed as to what can coaching pychology do in this context and indeed how can coaching psychologists work with bankers? The point was made, that, in the area of ethical behaviour, coaching psychology can provide many and illuminating insights into positive and negative performance but that we must create a greater and wider understanding of the potential of coaching psychology to have maximum impact and benefit.

Stephen, drawing on the work of Stelter and Law (2010), outlined the progression from earlier problem/goal perspectives in coaching through more solution focused, future perspectives, to the third wave of reflective perspectives, practice and values. This is the area where perhaps coaching psychology can have most impact in that space of ethical practice and value based leadership. This arises from the fact that as a profession, coaching psychology has ingrained ethical practice built into its process, around a fundamental professionalism, where rigor in practice and application is adhered to, and where the core micro skills necessary to understand and facilitate human learning, performance and development are at the centre of coaching psychology practice. In that respect Stephen referred to the fact that you can take coaching out of psychology but you cannot take the psychology out of coaching. He concluded by situating the challenges faced by coaching psychologists and coaching psychology in general, in the real world by quoting Llewellyn and Blucker (1982), 'Mastery of various aspects of coaching psychology is not an easy task' but as one who listened closely to the message of the Irish congress event, it is a pressing and necessary task not just locally but also globally, to be taken on by all coaching psychologists who care about the societies and communities in which they live.

The next speaker, Ms Karen Lopez, an experienced Work and Organisational Psychologist who was formally the Products and Training Manager with SHL, Ireland, guided those attending through a comprehensive review in her presentation entitled, 'Navigating Complexity and Change across the Lifespan'. Karen opened with a consideration of the commonly held perception that older workers are less able to deal with and adapt to change in challenging times. She then went on to explore the evidence around performance and attitudes to older people before examining Langer's (2009) concept of mindfulness, in terms of critical thinking which enables us to reject rigid beliefs and labels and to be more open and attentive to possibilities. She concluded her presentation by integrating a cognitive behavioural approach into a coaching process which can explore and challenge negative mindsets as they apply to age and ageing.

The final speaker was Mr Eric Brady, who is currently working as HR Director with the Irish Prison Service having previously held a similar position with An Garda Siochana. Prior to that Eric worked in Leadership Development in the Irish Financial Services. The title of his presentation was 'A Developing Coaching Intervention within the Irish Prison Service'. Eric opened his presentation with a clear description of the 'real' world that he occupies. His description of an appreciative enquiry coaching approach to delivering transformational change within the complex world of the prison service was fascinating. It was all the more interesting when considered against the wider constraints of a contracting public service, given the current state of the Irish economy.

All of the speakers in turn brought their unique perspective to the symposium. We don't live in a linear world. It is complex, uncertain and sometimes chaotic. Coming from their particular domains of competence and expertise, all speakers identified their own understanding and experience of 'Navigating complexity and change through Coaching Psychology'.

To round off the symposium, Stephen chaired a Round Table discussion on the proceedings of the day and the role of coaching psychology in the ever changing and complex world of our work and day to day experiences. All attendees enthusiastically engaged in a discussion on the psychological issues surrounding complexity and change as interpreted by the three speakers. As tends to be the case the discussion could have gone on indefinitely. However, in the time available, the common thread running through all presentations on the day was that of enabling in the coaching process and conversation. The question of sustainability was discussed and the notion of thinking local and acting global was emphasised. The psychology of performance and group cohesion in challenging environments, along with the challenges of different cultural contexts was explored also from a coaching psychology perspective. The reality of an ageing population and the necessity to retain the knowledge and wisdom of this population beyond so called retirement raised issues as to how we view the concept of work and payment for same.

Proceedings were brought to a conclusion by the Chair, Hugh O'Donovan. He especially thanked Stephen for his continuing commitment, energy and support to coaching psychology in Ireland and globally. We are pleased and honoured to take our place and play our part in the continuing conversation around coaching psychology worldwide. Our event would not have been possible without the considerable input of all the CPG team and especially Carmel O'Neill who heads up a tremendous CPD Event Team. Dr Joan Tiernan who was convenor of this symposium was also thanked. Finally, in consideration of the not insignificant challenges we as a country face and also the wider global challenges we all face, the necessity to develop the skills to have difficult conversations cannot be understated. However, once those conversations are conducted on the evidence based insights of psychology in general, coaching psychology in particular and also ethical based reflective practice and competence, we perhaps give ourselves the best chance of 'Navigating complexity and change through Coaching Psychology' and indeed adding the value we all believe and increasingly based on the evidence, a coaching psychology approach can deliver.

Correspondence

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SGCP & IGCP News Updates

Special Group in Coaching Psychology News

Angela Hetherington

COACHING PSYCHOLOGY as a profession continues to gain prominence in a challenging economic climate. This is in part due to the work of the SGCP in promoting coaching psychology both within the member network of the British Psychological Society (the Society) and in the wider market place. In particular, the SGCP has raised its presence in the international sphere through such events as the 1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology and its collaborations with global coaching psychology bodies in: UK, Australia, Denmark, Ireland, Israel, New Zealand, South Africa, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. The SGCP will also present at the planned conferences of 2011 and 2012: 2011 Switzerland – March; Sweden – April; South Africa/Southern Hemisphere event – May; Ireland – June; Spain – October. 2012 Netherlands – January 2012; Australia & New Zealand – February 2012; Italy – May 2012. Further events are planned by Israel and the Nordic countries with dates to be confirmed.

The recognition and the visibility of coaching psychology in the market place is important, both in order to attract members and to promote the profession. This continues to be achieved through the concerted efforts of the sub-committees.

The Conference Committee, chaired by Haley Lancaster and Judit Varkonyi-Sepp, has worked tirelessly since the beginning of the year on the 2011 SGCP conference, 'Innovation in Coaching Psychology'. The date of the conference has now been announced as the 13 and 14 of December 2011. It will again be hosted by City University, London. It is promising to be an exciting conference, with Adrian Furnham, Siegfried Greif, Stephen Palmer and Siobhain

O'Riordan, and Rebeca Viney from the London Deanary and David Heap from IGCP, Australia as guest and keynote speakers. A broad spectrum of invited speakers from Europe will also be speaking. Registration at the conference will be open from late summer and further details can be found at: http://sgcp-conference.bps.org.uk

The Events Committee, chaired by Sue Watsham and Zorica Patel, has again delivered a year of compelling professional development. The June event 'Strengths-Based Coaching' presented by Lucy Ryan, provided an excellent workshop, combining theory and practice. This is to be followed by a Professional Practice Day on 7 October, 2011. This special event, which draws on ethical practice and ethical dilemmas in psychological coaching practice, is tailored to SGCP members as part of the SGCP commitment to members' Continual Professional Development. Further information can be found

on the Events section of the SGCP website: www.sgcp.org.uk. The Events Committee welcomes proposals for workshops/presentations on subjects of interest to coaching psychologists. Proposal forms can be downloaded from the Events section of the SGCP website.

The Accreditation Working Party, chaired by myself, completed the most recent draft of the Register of Coaching Psychologists and continue to work towards meeting Society requirements for the accreditation of coaching psychologists. The Peer Practice Group, led by Derek Ross, continues to provide a welcome resource to members whilst promoting and promulgating good practice and assuring professional development.

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 editors, Stephen Palmer and Siobhain O'Riordan, invite papers on subjects of interest to coaching psychologists.

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.

The SGCP Committee, like all member networks within the Society, is comprised of a 'transient workforce' and a core requirement of the group is to maintain the transfer of knowledge within its committee membership whilst accommodating change. Achieving consensus, whilst facilitating innovation remains a key and challenging issue for the SGCP.

This has been evident over the last quarter during which the SGCP Committee has continued to adapt to the loss of members and the change of roles of other members, creating a mix of continuity and change. Nadia Nagamootoo, Secretary of the SGCP Committee, has been a very welcome member of the Executive Committee and has made a significant and welcome contribution to the SGCP. We wish her well in her new work. Jeremy Ridge is acting as an informal coach to the Executive Committee in an effort to model and promote the value of peer coaching within the SGCP and to promote openness and challenge within the exec. His experience in Chair and executive roles working at a strategic level in similar professional bodies is very welcome in particular to the Executive Committee.

Claire Townsend and Judit Varkonyi-Sepp have assumed the roles of Publications and Communications Co-Chairs, introducing additional energy and innovation to the team. Jennifer Liston-Smith has assured a smooth transition in the leadership and remains on the Publications and Communications Committee, assuring transfer of knowledge on both the subject and on Society and SGCP practice and policies. Publications and communications remain a flagship of the SGCP through its website and publications.

Preserving the foundations of the Group, whilst allowing for changes from within the Society and equally within the Executive Committee and the sub-committees remains a challenge. The last quarter has seen continued debate about the use of external and internal support services. The relationship between the SGCP and the Society continues to be an important factor in achieving SGCP goals and objectives.

The position of the Chair Elect and the Secretary remain open. Meetings continue to take place with interested parties but individuals continue to have reservations about the time commitment and the workload. Attracting those individuals who are familiar with the SGCP and experienced in similar roles such that they can contribute to the SGCP's continuing development remains a challenge. Strategies such as offering remuneration to Chairs are being considered by

the group. Members interested in executive roles and in particular sub-committees should please express their interest to the Executive Committee.

I would like to end by thanking Courtney Rawle for his work on the committee and to welcome Annjanette Wells to the SGCP in her role as the Society's representative. Annjanette is familiar with the SGCP and has been providing a support role to the Group for some time. Her knowledge of Society processes and policies will be instrumental in enabling Society support services to meet the needs of the SGCP.

The SGCP welcomes new members to the committees. Interested applicants please contact the Committee through the SGCP website.

Dr Angela Hetherington
Chair, British Psychological Society
Special Group in Coaching Psychology.
Email: sgcpchair@bps.org.uk
www.sgcp.org.uk

SGCP & IGCP News Updates

Interest Group in Coaching Psychology News

David Heap

There has been a lot of activity within the IGCP over the past few months. The National Committee has recently reviewed our strategic plan and the structure of the Committee.

After some debate we decided that the key priorities of the group over the next two years will be:

- ensuring the ongoing success of the IGCP as the representative body for coaching psychologists in Australia and as a valued leader in the wider field of coaching;
- evolving coaching psychology into a recognised specialist area of psychology;
- marketing our members as coaching psychology professionals to the wider industry; and
- positively influencing the quality/professionalism of coaching broadly.

This will be done by:

1. Academic Journals – publishing in association with the British Psychological Society's Special Group in Coaching Psychology, the *International Coaching Psychology Review*. Our specific short-term goal is to move the *ICPR*'s rating from a C to a B.
2. Relationships with Universities – continue and enhance our close relationships with Coaching Psychology Units and Coaching Research.
3. Global and Local Networks – maintain and develop our links with International Council of Coaching Psychology, International Coaching Federation, Society of Coaching Psychology, and the proposed Australian Coaching Industry Peak Body.

4. Standards Australia Guidelines on Coaching in Organisations – to continue our participation with Standards Australia in the promotion and development of these Guidelines. The Guidelines were launched on 6 June and are now in use. The IGCP will contribute to its ongoing development as a Standard.
5. Mechanisms of Delivery – we will explore alternative methods of delivery of CPD.
6. Continuing Professional Development Events – including our ongoing high level of State-based events, national events and our bi-annual Symposium, next due in 2012 in Sydney.
7. Membership – our numbers have stabilised at around 700 over the past few years and we aim to increase this.

We also took the opportunity to restructure the National Committee to reflect these priorities. There has also been a change in responsibilities amongst the members.

The new structure of the National Committee of the APS Interest Group in Coaching Psychology and the individuals occupying the roles are:

Convenor: David Heap;
Deputy Convenor: Aaron McEwan;
Secretary: Vicki de Prazer;
Treasurer: Henry McNicol;
Event Co-ordinator: Nic Eddy;
External Liaison: Peter Zarris;
Membership Co-ordinator:
Aaron McEwan;
Research and ICPR: Michael Cavanagh and Travis Kemp;
Committee Events: Peter Zarris;
College of Organisational Psychology Liaison: Peter Zarris and David Heap.

We have also committed to hosting the 2012 Southern Hemisphere Event for the International Congress of Coaching Psychology in Sydney. We will release further details when available but we are very excited about our plans so far.

The 1st International Congress of Coaching Psychology, Southern Hemisphere Event was held in Pretoria, South Africa, from 26 to 27 May 2011, and Peter Zarris, David Heap and Aaron McEwan from IGCP attended. It was a truly impressive event and set a very high standard which we will have to work very hard to emulate let alone exceed. Our aim is to combine our 2012 IGCP Symposium with the ICCP event and we look forward to welcoming coaching psychologists and those interested in coaching psychology from around the world here in Australia next year.

I would also like to express on behalf of the National Committee our thanks and appreciation to Peter Zarris for his energetic and entrepreneurial contribution to the IGCP during his time as Convenor. We have gone from strength to strength at a national and international level during this time and much can be attributed to Peter's leadership.

Peter will continue as a member of the National Committee and he has just been elected as Chair of the APS College of Organisational Psychologists. We give him our best wishes for continued success in this new role.

It is going to be a busy and exciting period for coaching psychology and we look forward to sharing the ride with you.

David Heap
Convenor
APS – Interest Group on
Coaching Psychology.

International Coaching Psychology Review – Volume index 2011

Volume 6, No. 1, March 2011

Volume 6, No. 2, September 2011

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

Notes

Notes

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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