The Australian Psychological Society Ltd

Interest Group in Coaching Psychology

The British Psychological Society

Special Group in Coaching Psychology

International Coaching Psychology Review

Volume 7 No. 2 September 2012

ISSN: 1750-2764

International Coaching Psychology Review

Subscriptions
International Coaching Psychology Review (ICPR) is published in March and September. It is distributed free of charge to members of the British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology and the Australian Psychological Society Interest Group in Coaching Psychology members. It is available to non-members (Individuals £50 per volume; Institutions £60 per volume; single copies £25) from: The British Psychological Society, SGCP, St. Andrews House, 48 Princess Road East, Leicester LE1 7DR. UK.

Abstracting and indexing: The *ICPR* is abstracted in psycINFO, Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts and Google Scholar. The *ICPR* is included Cabell's *Directory of Publishing Opportunities in Educational Psychology and Administration* and Cabell's *Directory of Publishing Opportunities in Educational Curriculum and Methods.*

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

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Continued on inside back cover.

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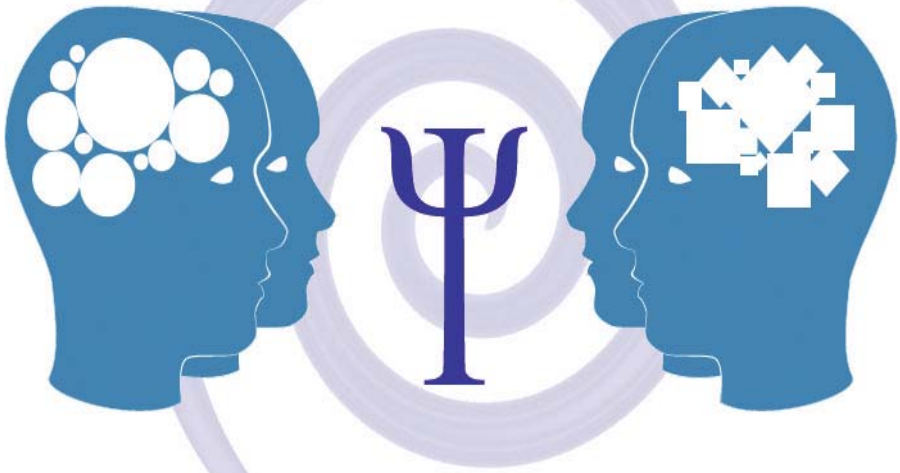

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Contents

Editorial: The development of coaching psychology internationally goes from strength to strength

Stephen Palmer & Michael Cavanagh

A HIGHLIGHT of the coaching psychology calendar so far this year has been the 2nd International Congress of Coaching Psychology held in Manly Beach, Sydney Australia. It was an exciting event, with well-known speakers and 100s of delegates from all over the world. We were promised by David Heap, the APS IGCP Convenor that the international congress team would choose a good location. In fact, Manly was a great location with record breaking good weather for the time of the year too. Our congratulations go to the team for organising a professional event. The 3rd International Congress of Coaching Psychology will be held in Israel on 6 September 2012. Both the APS Interest Group in Coaching Psychology and BPS Special Group in Coaching Psychology work collaboratively, with the other professional psychology bodies, to hold and to promote these congress events (see website for further details).

This is our second bumper issue of the *International Coaching Psychology Review* for 2012 with six papers and keynotes on a range of topics plus a new section, 'Cross-disciplinary perspectives in coaching psychology', which includes two articles. Our first paper is 'An integrated model of goal-focused coaching: An evidence-based framework for teaching and practice' by Anthony M. Grant. In this paper Grant discusses a range of approaches to understanding the goal construct, presents a definition of goals relevant to coaching, and details a new and comprehensive model of goal-focused coaching that can be helpful both in teaching and in applied coaching practice. He also gives permission for a diagram of the model to be used in these contexts which will no doubt trigger much discussion with students.

In our second paper, Jonathan Passmore and Hannah Rehman describe a mixed methods study in driver development using a randomised controlled trial and thematic analysis. The study sought to explore the impact of coaching as a learning methodology and to compare this with the traditional instruction-based approach. The quantitative study revealed that coaching was a more effective and efficient method for learning in this context. The coaching group also had fewer attempts to pass the assessment than the instruction group. For those of us interested in the coaching relationship, the qualitative study from this group indicated that both learners and 'instructors' observed positive aspects to the coaching style of learning. This was strongest for instructors who suggested coaching facilitated an improved relationship and helped the learner to learn more quickly.

In the following paper Lesley Martin, Lindsay Oades and Peter Caputi ask 'What is personality change coaching and why is it important?' The aim was to evaluate the feasibility and desirability of personality change, clarify how this fits with coaching, identify a suitable personality model and measure, and propose directions for future research. With reference to the literature they asked the following questions: Is personality change possible and desirable? Is coaching a suitable medium to achieve this? How does this fit with and expand upon the current coaching literature? What personality model and inventory would suit this process? What coaching resources and future research are needed? They concluded

that personality change coaching appears both desirable and possible in a coaching setting although further research is required in a number of related areas.

In our fourth paper, Erik de Haan examines the phenomenon of reflective-self function in terms of its historical understanding. He asserts that reflective-self function is not only demonstrably linked to secure attachment, it is increasingly held to be at the core of the process and outcome of helping conversations. He suggests that mentalising can be used to co-create meaning, insight and understanding with clients.

The first keynote in this issue is by Sandy Gordon. It is entitled 'Strengths-based approaches to developing mental toughness: Team and individual'. It was based on an Invited Keynote Presentation at the British Psychological Society's Division of Sport and Exercise Psychology Annual Conference which was part of the British Psychological Society's Annual Conference, 17–21 April 2012, in London. Gordon provides a brief summary of mental toughness research and a short history of strengths approaches to the development of human potential. He finishes his keynote paper by describing how he has used strengths-based approaches in professional sport, both with teams and individuals.

Patrick Williams looks back to the future in his keynote paper and highlights the influence of humanistic and transpersonal psychology on coaching psychology today. The paper is based on his Keynote Presentation at the 2nd International Congress of Coaching Psychology, 10–12 May 2012, in Sydney, Australia. It was an enjoyable and stimulating paper to listen to at the Congress in which Williams highlighted the sometimes zigzag journey coaching and coaching psychology has taken to get where they are today. His conclusion is worth noting: Coaching Psychology plays an increasing important role in developing the profession of personal and business coaching. Coaching will survive because it is effective, it will thrive because it can be socially transformational, for us humans and the planet we inhabit.

The next two articles in the publication are in the new section, 'Cross-disciplinary perspectives in coaching psychology'. There is an editorial which introduces the new section and the papers by Noreen Tehrani, Diana Osborne and David Lane, and Maria Gardiner and Hugh Kearns. Our thanks go to David Lane for putting forward the idea of a new section.

The publication concludes with a book review, congress and news updates from the BPS Special Group in Coaching Psychology and APS Interest Group in Coaching Psychology.

The richness and range of the papers in this issue, and the diversity of authors involved, are testament to the ongoing development of the field. It is great to see the growing sophistication and expanding dialogue in coaching psychology these papers represent. We thank our contributors to this issue of the publication and look forward to receiving papers on any aspect of coaching psychology for the March 2013 issue.

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International Congress of Coaching Psychology website
http://www.coachingpsychologycongress.org

Paper

An integrated model of goal-focused coaching: An evidence-based framework for teaching and practice

Anthony M. Grant

There is a considerable body of literature on goals and goal setting in the psychological literature, but little of this has found its way into the scholarly coaching literature. This article draws on the goal-setting literature from the behavioural sciences. It discusses a range of approaches to understanding the goal construct, presents a definition of goals relevant to coaching, and details a new and comprehensive model of goal-focused coaching that can be helpful both in teaching and in applied coaching practice. It also outlines new empirical research that highlights the vital role that coaches' goal-focused coaching skills play in determining successful coaching outcomes. This preliminary research suggests that the use of a goal-focused coaching style is more effective than a 'common factors' or person-centred coaching style in facilitating goal attainment in coaching. It is argued that, by understanding the different types of goals and their relationship to the process of change, professional coaches can work more efficiently with their clients, helping them to achieve insight and behavioural change that enhances their workplace performance, their professional working lives and, most importantly, their personal well-being and sense of self.
Keywords: *Goals; goal theory; evidence-based coaching; executive coaching.*

ALTHOUGH COACHING is typically thought of as being a goal-focused activity, the use of goals in coaching is somewhat controversial. Common arguments against the use of goal setting in coaching include the propositions that goal setting is an overly-linear process that constricts the coaching conversation and acts as a barrier to working with emergent issues within the complex dynamic system that is the coaching conversation; or that goal setting is associated with coaches cajoling coachees in the blind pursuit of a previously-set but inappropriate goal, leading to 'lazy' join-the-dots mechanistic coaching; or even that goals typically focus on issues that may be easy to measure but are of little real importance (see Clutterbuck, 2008, 2010).

Some coaches say that they never use goals in coaching, rather they assert that as coaches their role is to help clients explore their values, clarify their intentions, and then to help them achieve their personal aspirations. Yet others seem to steadfastly avoid using the word 'goal', but talk about helping clients chart a course, navigate the waters of life, foster transformational change, or re-author personal narratives. Goal setting has even gained a bad reputation in some sections of the academic psychology press, with some authors asking if goal setting has gone wild, and decrying the supposed over-prescription of goal setting (Ordóñez et al., 2009).

Whilst, some of these points have merit, goal theory *per se* has much to offer coaching research and practice. There is a considerable body of literature on goals and goal setting (Locke & Latham, 2002). A search of the database PsycINFO in May 2012 accessing the broader psychological literature base and using the keyword 'goals' found over 59,530 citations. Yet the academic literature on the use of goals within the area of executive coaching is far smaller, with the keywords

'goals' and 'executive coaching' producing only 30 citations. Most of these report on the various uses of goal setting in executive coaching practice (e.g. Bono et al., 2009; Lewis-Duarte, 2010; McKenna & Davis, 2009b; Stern, 2009; Sue-Chan, Wood & Latham, 2012), with a few empirical studies examining how executive coaching facilitates goal attainment (e.g. Benavides, 2009; Burke & Linley, 2007; Freedman & Perry, 2010; Grant, Curtayne & Burton, 2009; Milare & Yoshida, 2009; Schnell, 2005; Smither et al., 2003; Turner, 2004).

To date there have been surprisingly few articles detailing theoretical frameworks that explicitly link goal theory to executive or organisational coaching. Three key examples are Sue-Chan, Wood and Latham's (2012) work which explored the differneces between promotion and prevention goals as a foci for coaching, and the role of implicit fixed beliefs about ability and implicit incremental beliefs on coaching outcomes; Gregory, Beck and Car's (2011) work which argues that control theory (in which goals and feedback are two crucial elements) can provide an important framework for coaching; and Grant's (2006) initial work on developing an integrative goal-focused approach to executive coaching.

This paper draws on and extends previous work (e.g. Grant, 2002, 2006, 2012; Gregory et al., 2011; Locke & Latham, 2002) and utilising the goal-setting literature from the behavioural sciences, discusses the concept of goal, presents a definition of goals that can be helpful in coaching practice and describes a new model of goal-focused coaching and new preliminary research that highlights the vital role that coaches' goal-focused skills play in determining successful coaching outcomes.

SMART goals can dumb-down coaching

Goals and goal constructs have been extensively researched within academic psychology (Moskowitz & Grant, 2009), and sophisticated understandings of goals are evident within the broader psychological literature. This is not the case within the coaching-related literature. From an overview of the coaching literature it is appears that many coaches' understanding of goals is limited to acronyms such as SMART (originally delineated by Raia, 1965) and that typically goals are equated with being specific, measureable, attainable, relevant and timeframed action plans (note: the exact delineation of the SMART acronym varies between commentators).

Whilst the ideas represented by the acronym SMART are indeed broadly supported by goal theory (e.g. Locke, 1996), and the acronym SMART may well be useful in some instances in coaching practice, I think that the widespread belief that goals are synonymous with SMART action plans has done much to stifle the development of a more sophisticated understanding and use of goal theory within in the coaching community, and this point has important implications for coaching research, teaching and practice.

It is worth reflecting that acronyms such as SMART may provide useful mnemonics – mnemonics being memorable surface markers of deeper knowledge structures. However, the use of such mnemonics without a clear understanding of the deeper underpinning knowledge may well result in ill-informed decision making, and the cultivation of inaccurate practice doctrines and mythologies about goals and goal theory. Unfortunately, such misconceptions may make it even more difficult for practitioners to engage with the broader knowledge-base. Clearly, there is a case here for coach educators and trainers to draw more extensively on the broader goal theory literature. My hope is that this paper will make a contribution in encouraging this course of action.

What are goals?

If this article is to make a meaningful contribution in terms of the more sophisticated use of goals and goal theory in coaching, it is important to develop a clear understanding of the goal construct. The term 'goal' is

generally understood as being 'the purpose toward which an endeavour is directed; an objective or outcome' (see, for example, www.thefreedictionary.com). Although such understandings are adequate for everyday use, a far more nuanced understanding of the goal construct is needed in coaching.

In attempting to develop more sophisticated understandings of the goal construct, a wide range of other terms have been used over the years including the terms 'reference values' (Carver & Scheier, 1998), 'self-guides' (Higgins, 1987), 'personal strivings' (Emmons, 1992), or 'personal projects' (Little, 1993). However, although such broad linguistic repertoires can be useful, the lack of precision in such definitions make it hard to distinguish between various aspects of the goal construct such as 'aims', 'objectives', 'desires' or 'outcomes', and they also fail to capture the true essence of the goal construct.

Goals are defined as playing a key role in transitions from an existing state to a desired state or outcome (e.g. Klinger, 1975; Spence, 2007). As such the goal construct has been variously defined in terms of cognitions (Locke, 2000), behaviour (Bargh et al., 2001; Warshaw & Davis, 1985) and affect (Pervin, 1982) (for further discussion on these points see Street, 2002). These three domains are of great relevance for coaching, and an understanding of goals for use in coaching should encompass all three domains.

Cochran and Tesser (1996) present a comprehensive description of a goal as 'a cognitive image of an ideal stored in memory for comparison to an actual state; a representation of the future that influences the present; a desire (pleasure and satisfaction are expected from goal success); a source of motivation, an incentive to action' (as cited in Street, 2002, p.100). This understanding of goals is particularly useful for coaching because, as Street (2002) points out, it emphasises the role of cognition (in terms of cognitive imagery), as well as affect and behaviour, in addition to the notion that the purpose of a goal as 'a source of motivation and an incentive'. However, whilst this definition is more sophisticated than notions that situate goals as being synonymous with SMART action plans, it is still somewhat unwieldy as a working definition.

One definition that is succinct, captures the essence of the above issues and is clearly applicable to coaching is Austin and Vancouver's (1996) notion of goals as being 'internal representations of desired states or outcomes' (p.388).

Goals as 'internal representations of desired states or outcomes' are central to coaching

Although there are many definitions of coaching, all capture common themes. The Association for Coaching defines coaching as 'A collaborative solution-focused, results-orientated and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of work performance, life experience, self-directed learning and personal growth of the coachee' (AC, 2012). The International Coach Federation defines coaching as 'partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximise their personal and professional potential' (ICF, 2012). The World Association of Business Coaches defines business coaching as a structured conversation designed to 'enhance the client's awareness and behaviour so as to achieve business objectives for both the client and their organisation' (WABC, 2012). The European Mentoring and Coaching Council defines coaching (and mentoring) as 'activities within the area of professional and personal development…to help clients…see and test alternative ways for improvement of competence, decision making and enhancement of quality of life…with the purpose of serving the clients to improve their performance or enhance their personal development or both…' (EMCC, 2011).

It is clear that there is considerable agreement within professional coaching bodies about the nature of coaching. All of these definitions indicate that the process of

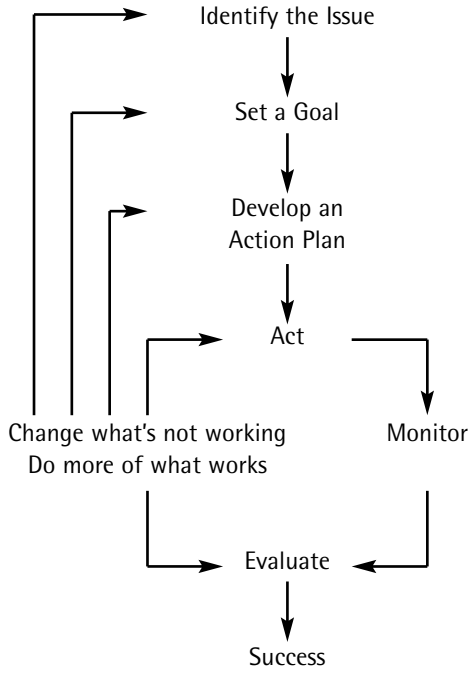
coaching is essentially about helping individuals regulate and direct their interpersonal and intrapersonal resources in order to create purposeful and positive change in their personal or business lives. In short then, all coaching conversations are either explicitly or implicitly goal-focused, and are about helping clients enhance their self-regulationary skills so as to better create purposeful positive change.

Goal-focused self-regulation sits at the core of the coaching process

The core constructs of self-regulation are a series of processes in which the individual sets a goal, develops a plan of action, begins action, monitors their performance, evaluates their performance by comparison to a standard, and based on this evaluation change their actions to further enhance their performance and better reach their goals (Carver & Scheier, 1998).The coach's role is to facilitate the coachee's movement through the self-regulatory cycle, and onwards towards goal attainment. Figure 1 depicts a generic model of self-regulation (Grant, 2003).

In practice the steps in the self-regulatory cycle are not clearly separate stages. In practice, each stage overlaps with the next, and the coaching in each stage should aim to facilitate the process of the next. For example, goal setting should be done in such a way as to facilitate the development and implementation of an action plan. The action plan should be designed to motivate the individual into action, and should also incorporate means of monitoring and evaluating performance thus providing information on which to base follow-up coaching sessions (Grant, 2006). This self-regulatory cycle sits at the core of the coaching process.

Figure 1: Generic model of goal-directed self-regulation.



Knowing how and when to set goals in coaching, knowing how to gauge the client's readiness to engage in a robust and explicitly goal-focused conversation or when to work with more vaguely defined or more abstract goals, are skill sets that distinguishes the novice or beginner coach from more advanced or expert practitioners (Grant, 2011; Peterson, 2011). Having a solid understanding of the multi-faceted nature of goals is thus important in making the novice-expert shift, and are thus of relevance for both the teaching and practice of coaching. It is to this issue that we now turn.

Goals are not monolithic entities

If we are to understand coaching through the lens of goal theory, it is important to distinguish between different types of goals. Goals are not monolithic. Indeed, there are over twenty types of goals that can be used in coaching. These include outcome goals, distal and proximal goals, approach and avoidance goals, performance and learning goals, and higher and lower order goals, as well as the actual results which the coachee aims to achieve. These distinctions are important because different types of goals impact differently on coachees' performance and their experience of the goal striving process.

Time framing: Distal and proximal goals

The time framing of goals is an important part of the goal setting process, and time frames can influence the coachee's perception of the attainability of the goal (Karniol & Ross, 1996). *Distal* goals are longer term goals, and are similar to the vision statements often referred to in business or management literature or the 'broad fuzzy vision' referred to in the life-coaching literature (Grant & Green, 2004). *Proximal* goals are shorter term, and tend to stimulate more detailed planning than distal goals (Manderlink & Harackiewicz, 1984), and hence are important goals when used in action planning. In essence, the action steps typically derived in coaching sessions are a series of short-term proximal goals. Combining both distal with proximal goals in the coaching and action planning process can lead to enhanced strategy development and better long-term performance (Weldon & Yun, 2000).

Outcome goals

Many coaching programmes focus entirely on setting *outcome* goals. Such goals tend to be a straightforward statement of some desired outcome (Hudson, 1999); for example, 'to increase sales of widgets by 15 per cent in the next three months'. This is a useful approach to goal setting, because for individuals who are committed and have the necessary ability and knowledge, outcome goals that are difficult and are specifically and explicitly defined, allow performance to be precisely regulated, and thus often lead to high performance (Locke, 1996). Indeed, many coaching programmes focus purely on the setting of specific 'SMART' goals and this approach is indeed supported by some of the goal-setting literature (Locke & Latham, 2002).

However, there are times when overly-specific outcome goals will alienate the coachee, and may actually result in a decline in performance (Winters & Latham, 1996). For individuals who are in a highly deliberative mindset, it may be more useful to purposefully set more *abstract* or quite vague goals and focus on developing a broad 'fuzzy vision' (Grant & Greene, 2004), rather than drilling down into specific details and setting more *concrete* goals. For individuals at this point in the change process, vague or abstract goals are often perceived as being less threatening and less demanding (Dewck, 1986).

Avoidance and approach goals

Avoidance goals are expressed as a movement away from an undesirable state, for example, 'to be less stressed about work'. Although this presents a desired outcome, as an avoidance goal it does not provide a specific outcome target or provide enough details

from which to define those behaviours which might be most useful during the goal striving process; there are almost an infinite number of ways one could become 'less stressed'. In contrast an *approach* goal is expressed as a movement towards a specific state or outcome, for example, 'to enjoy a fulfilling balance between work demands and personal relaxation', and these can indeed help define appropriate goal-striving behaviours.

Not surprisingly, there are differential effects associated with avoidance or approach goals. Coats, Janoff-Bulman, and Alpert (1996) found that people who tended to set avoidance goals had higher levels of depression and lower levels of well-being. Other studies have found that the long-term pursuit of avoidance goals is associated with decreases in well-being (Elliot, Sheldon & Church, 1997), and that approach goals are associated with both higher levels of academic performance and increased well-being (Elliot & McGregor, 2001).

Performance and learning goals

Performance goals focus on task execution and are typically expressed as being competitive in terms of performing very well on a specific task, receiving positive evaluations from others about one's performance, or outperforming others. Performance goals tend to focus the coachee's attention on issues of personal ability and competence (Gresham, Evans & Elliott, 1988). An example of a performance goal in executive or workplace coaching might be 'to be the very best lawyer in my area of practice'. Performance goals can be very powerful motivators, especially where the individual experiences success early in the goal-attainment process.

However, it is not so well known that performance goals can in fact impede performance. This particularly the case when the task is highly complex or the goal is perceived as very challenging, and where the individual is not skilled or is low in self-efficacy, or where resources are scarce. Furthermore, in highly competitive situations or when there are very high stakes, performance goals can foster cheating and a reluctance to co-operate with peers, and the corporate and business world is replete with such examples (Midgley, Kaplan,& Middleton, 2001).

In many cases *learning* goals may better facilitate task performance (Seijts & Latham, 2001). Learning goals (sometimes referred to as mastery goals) focus the coachee's attention on the learning associated with task mastery, rather than on the performance of the task itself. An example of a learning goal in executive or workplace coaching might be 'learn how to be the best lawyer in my area of practice'. Learning goals tend to be associated with a range of positive cognitive and emotional processes including perception of a complex task as a positive challenge rather than a threat, greater absorption in the actual task performance (Deci & Ryan, 2002), and enhanced memory and well-being (Linnenbrink, Ryan & Pintrich, 1999). Furthermore, individual performance can be enhanced in highly complex or challenging situations when team goals are primarily framed as being learning goals, and the use of team-level learning goals can foster enhanced co-operation between team members (Kristof-Brown & Stevens, 2001). One benefit of setting learning goals is that they tend to be associated with higher levels of intrinsic motivation which in turn is associated with performance (Sarrazin et al., 2002).

The differences in the articulation of these different types of goals is more than a matter of mere semantics, because the way a goal is expressed has important implications for coachee engagement (Rawsthorne & Elliott, 1999), and coaches need to be attuned to such nuances if they are to work effectively within a goal-focused coaching paradigm.

Complementary and competing goals

Coaches also need to be attuned to the existence of *competing or conflicting* goals. These occur when the pursuit of one goal inter-

feres with the pursuit of another goal. Some goal conflict is easy to identify, for example in the case of the two goals 'to spend more time with my family' and 'to put more time into work in order to get a promotion'. However, goal conflict may not always be immediately evident. For example, the goal 'to get my sales force to sell more products' may be in perceived conflict with the goal 'to have a more hands-off leadership style' if the coachee (a sale manager) finds delegation difficult and is used to a more controlling management style in dealing with his/her sale force (Grant, 2006).

The skill of the coach here is to help the coachee find ways to align seemingly conflicting goals and develop *complementary* goals, and Sheldon and Kasser (1995) have argued that such congruence is important in facilitating goal attainment and well-being.

Unconscious goals?

Human beings are goal-orientated organisms. Without goals we could not exist as conscious sentient beings. Indeed, Carver and Scheier (1998) argue that all human behaviour is a continual process of moving towards or away from mental goal representations. This is not to say that all goals are consciously held. Under many conditions, we enact complex outcome-directed behaviours even though we may not have consciously set specific goals.

For example, I might be sitting at home writing an article on coaching, and decide to walk to the corner store to buy some biscuits so I can enjoy afternoon tea and biscuits at home. I am aware that I have been sitting at the desk writing for some hours, and that taking a walk will help maintain flexibility in my back, and I am keen to try to prevent the development of back problems as I get older. However, my overarching and consciously set goals are to get biscuits and then make and enjoy some afternoon tea. With this goal in mind, I put on my shoes, take my keys from the shelf, check my wallet, open the door, close and lock the door (to maintain home security and avoid lose of personal property). I then walk to the store, taking care to look both ways as I cross the road (so as to avoid being knocked over by a car or other vehicles), find my way to the biscuit shelf, select my biscuits from a wide range of different biscuit products (some of which I don't like), chat with the store keeper about Saturday's football match, purchase my biscuits, return home safely (opening and then closing the front door behind me) and put the kettle on.

All of these individual actions themselves involve a goal of some kind and all influenced my behaviour at any point in time, yet hardly any of these goals were consciously set.

Because goal-states influence our behaviour even though we may not have consciously set specific goals, goal theory is particularly helpful in coaching contexts and as a means of understanding human behaviour. Goal theory can provide a framework from which to help clients explore, identify and then change unhelpful implicit goals in order to better facilitate purposeful positive change (for an informed discussion on how actions are initiated even though we are unconscious of the goals to be attained or their motivating effect on our behaviour see Custers & Aarts, 2010).

Self-concordant goals

Self-concordance is important in goal setting because goals that are self-concordant and in alignment with the coachee's core personal values or developing interests are more likely to be engaging and elicit greater effort. Self-concordance theory (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998) is a useful framework from which to understand and work with the reasons and motivations associated with goal selection and goal strivings.

Self-concordance refers to the degree to which a goal is aligned with an individual's intrinsic interests, motivations and values. Derived from self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1980) this can be a simple and powerful framework for understanding the link between values and goals. The self-

concordance model emphasises the extent to which individual perceives their goals as being determined by their authentic self, rather than compelled by external forces.

The self-concordance approach delineates the perceived locus of causality as varying on a continuum from controlled (external) factors to internal (autonomous) facets. A key point here is that it is the individual's *perception* of the locus of causality that is the key in determining the extent to which the goals are deemed to be self-integrated and where they sit on the external-internal continuum. To maximise the probability of genuinely engaged and motivated action, and to increase the chances of goal satisfaction upon goal attainment, it is important that coachee's goals are as self-congruent as possible, and coaches may need to play quite an active role in helping their coaches align goals in order to make them personal and congruent. There are at least four factors from this perspective which may influence successful goal alignment (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999).

First, the coachee needs to be able to identify the enduring and authentic from transitory or superficial whims or desires. Secondly, the coachee needs the personal insight and self-awareness to be able to distinguish between goals that represent their own interests and goals that represent the interests of others (Sheldon, 2002). Given that there are significant individual variations in levels of self-awareness (Church, 1997), some coachees may find this quite challenging. Thirdly, the goal content needs be expressed in a way that aligns the goals with the coachee's internal needs and values. Fourthly, the coach needs to have the ability to recognise when a goal is not self-concordant, and then be able to re-language and reframe the goal so that it does align with the coachee's needs and values.

Goal hierarchies: Linking values, goals and actions steps

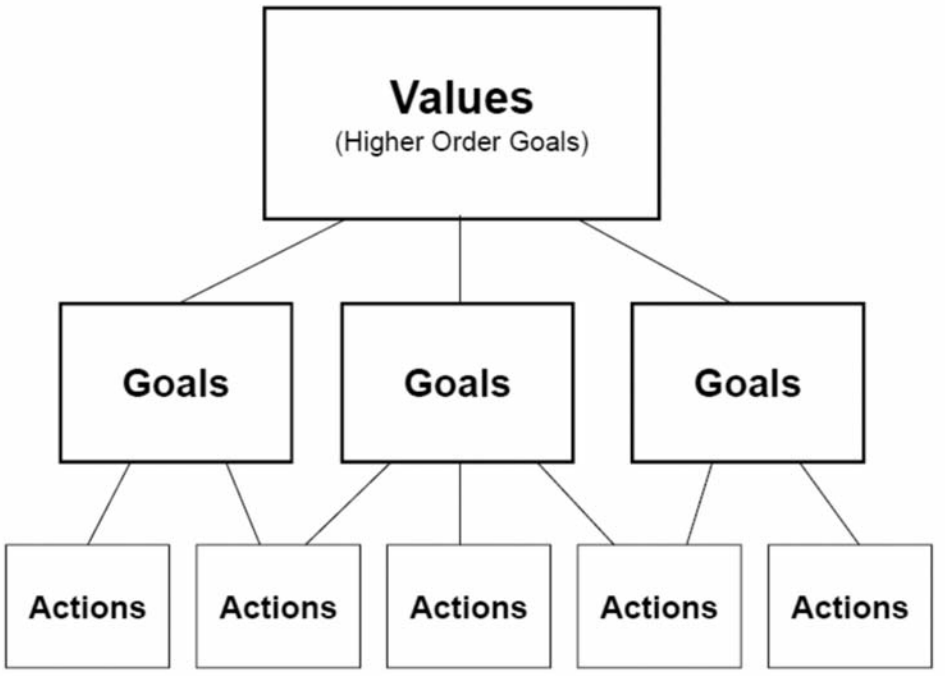
The relationships between values, goals and action steps are generally not well understood in coaching, yet these are central to coaching practice. Goal hierarchy frameworks are one way of making explicit the links between values, goals and specific action steps, and are also a useful way of operationalising the notion of goal self-concordance (see Figure 2).

Goals can be considered as being ordered hierarchically with concrete specific goals being subsumed under *higher order* and broader, more abstract goals (Chulef, Read & Walsh, 2001) in a fashion similar to the 'Big Five' personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Hence, higher order abstract goals such as 'to be a great business leader' can be understood as being situated vertically higher than the *lower order* and more specific goal 'to increase business profits by 25 per cent in the next quarter' and there is some empirical support for this notion (Chulef et al., 2001; Oishi et al., 1998).

Higher order goals from this perspective equate to values. A valuable model for using goal theory in coaching involves thinking of values as *higher order abstract* goals that are superordinate to lower order, more specific goals, which in turn are superordinate to specific action steps. Indeed, visualising values, goals and actions as being part of a hierarchy in this way provides coaches with an extremely useful case conceptualisation framework for coaching practice, teaching and supervision, and also makes the notion of values more tangible to many coaching clients.

In using this model in coaching practice, it is important to try to ensure both vertical and horizontal congruency. That is, to ensure that goals are aligned with the client's higher order values, and that any actions designed to operationalise the goals are themselves similarly aligned (vertical alignment). It is also important that to try to ensure horizontal alignment so that goals compliment, support and energise each other rather than being, as previously mentioned, being *competing or conflicting* goals resulting in the pursuit of one goal interfering with the pursuit of another.

Figure 2: The Goal hierarchy framework.



Of course, such alignment may not always be possible. Nevertheless, simply drawing the coachee's attention to the existence of any competing or conflicting goals, and highlighting any disconnect between goals and values can provide the coachee with important insights and alterative perspectives which may in turn facilitate more useful ways of facilitating change.

In addition, in terms of teaching coaching and coaching psychology, this model can be used as a practical template to help student coaches develop more sophisticated understandings of the goal alignment process.

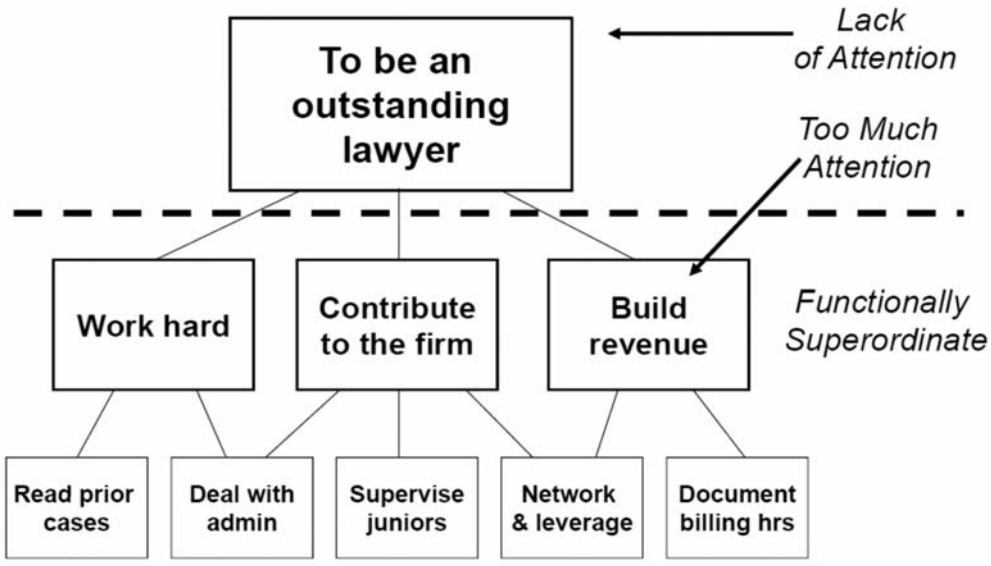
Goal neglect

The hierarchical model is also very useful to coaches as it can be used to illustrate the effect of goal neglect. The notion of goal neglect is not well-known in the coaching literature, but has very useful implications for coaching practice.

The term *goal neglect* refers to the disregard of a goal or a task requirement despite the fact that it has been understood or is recognised as being important (Duncan et al., 1996). In essence goal neglect occurs when we fail to pay attention to a specific goal of importance, but instead focus our attention on some other goal or task, resulting in a mismatch between the actions required to attain the original goal, and the actions that are actually performed.

Human beings are essentially goal-directed organisms. All our behaviour (behaviour here is broadly defined to include thoughts, feelings and physical actions) is shaped and given direction, purpose and meaning by the goals that we hold, and of course much of our behaviour is shaped and directed by goals and values which are outside of our immediate conscious awareness. In relation to the goal hierarchy model, it is the higher order (or superordinate) values that give direction,

Figure 3: The Goal hierarchy framework illustrating the outcomes of goal neglect.



meaning and purpose to the lower order goals and actions.

When self-regulation at upper levels of a goal hierarchy has been suspended (for example, by not enough attention being paid to those values), the goals at a lower level become functionally superordinate in guiding overt behaviour and actions (Carver & Scheier, 1998). That is to say that the guidance of the human system defaults (regresses) to lower levels (see Figure 3).

This seemingly technical psychological point has important implications for coaching practice. This is because, typically, lower order goals in the hierarchy are not in themselves relatively meaningful in comparison to the higher order values. In fact in many cases the lower order goals and actions may not be pleasant activities at all. They are often on made palatable by the notion that reaching those lower order goals activates the higher order value.

When we fail to consistently pay attention to the higher order values in the goal hierarchy system, and overly focus on attaining lower order goals, the lower order goals become the superordinate or dominant values in the cognitive system, and these lower order goals are often inherently dissatisfying in themselves.

In the example above, the higher order value is 'to be an outstanding lawyer', and many individuals may enter the law profession with the intention of becoming an outstanding lawyer and ensuring that their clients receive justice. In order to become an outstanding lawyer they would need to work hard, make explicit contributions to their firm or practice and build a revenue stream. The attainment of these mid-level goals are in turn made possible by the enactment of lower order goals and actions such as dealing with administration, documenting billing hours and the like. However, frequently individuals place their attention on the lower order goals (e.g. revenue building or documenting billing hours) over time neglecting their higher order values, and this can easily result in goal dissatisfaction and disengagement.

The hierarchical framework can give coaches and their coachees very useful insights into to the psychological mechanics underlying goal dissatisfaction, and can be

used to develop practical tools and techniques to help clients in the coaching processes. For example, by helping clients purposefully re-focus their attention on their higher order values we help them reconnect with the meaning inherent in their higher order values, redefining their goals if needed, with the result that they may well feel revitalised and re-engaged in the enactment of purposeful positive change.

Putting all this together: An integrated model for teaching and coaching practice

As can be seen from this brief overview goal theory has much to offer coaching practice. The question is, how can we organise this information in a way that makes this useful in coaching practice? It may be that goal theory has not been widely taught in coaching programmes because there is a vast amount of material on goal and the goal attainment process, and making explicit links between these bodies of knowledge and then relating this material to coaching practice is not easy.

One way of integrating this diverse body of knowledge is to develop a visual representation or model of the various factors related to goal-focused coaching, and such a model is presented in Figure 4. This model may be useful for teaching coaching and the psychology of coaching because it attempts to capture the key aspects involved in the goal-focused approach to coaching and highlights some of the factors that a coach may consider during the coaching engagement.

A word of caution: as with all models this is only a broad representation of some of the possible ways that these factors relate in the coaching process. This model represents my own personal experience and understanding, and I would encourage readers to explore the limitations of this model by reference to their own understanding and coaching experience, and then adapt and extend this model in order to create their own frameworks. Indeed the development of such personalised models can be useful teaching aids.

Examining this model, it can be seen that the coaching process is driven by needs (represented on the left hand side of the model). Both individual and contextual/organisational factors play important roles in determining the perceive need for coaching, which gives rise to the individual's intentions to participate in the goal selection process. Individual factors at play here include perceived deficits and opportunities, psychological needs, personality characteristics and available resources (or lack thereof). Contextual or organisational factors include system complexity, the social and psychological contracts, rewards and punishments and available resources (or lack thereof).

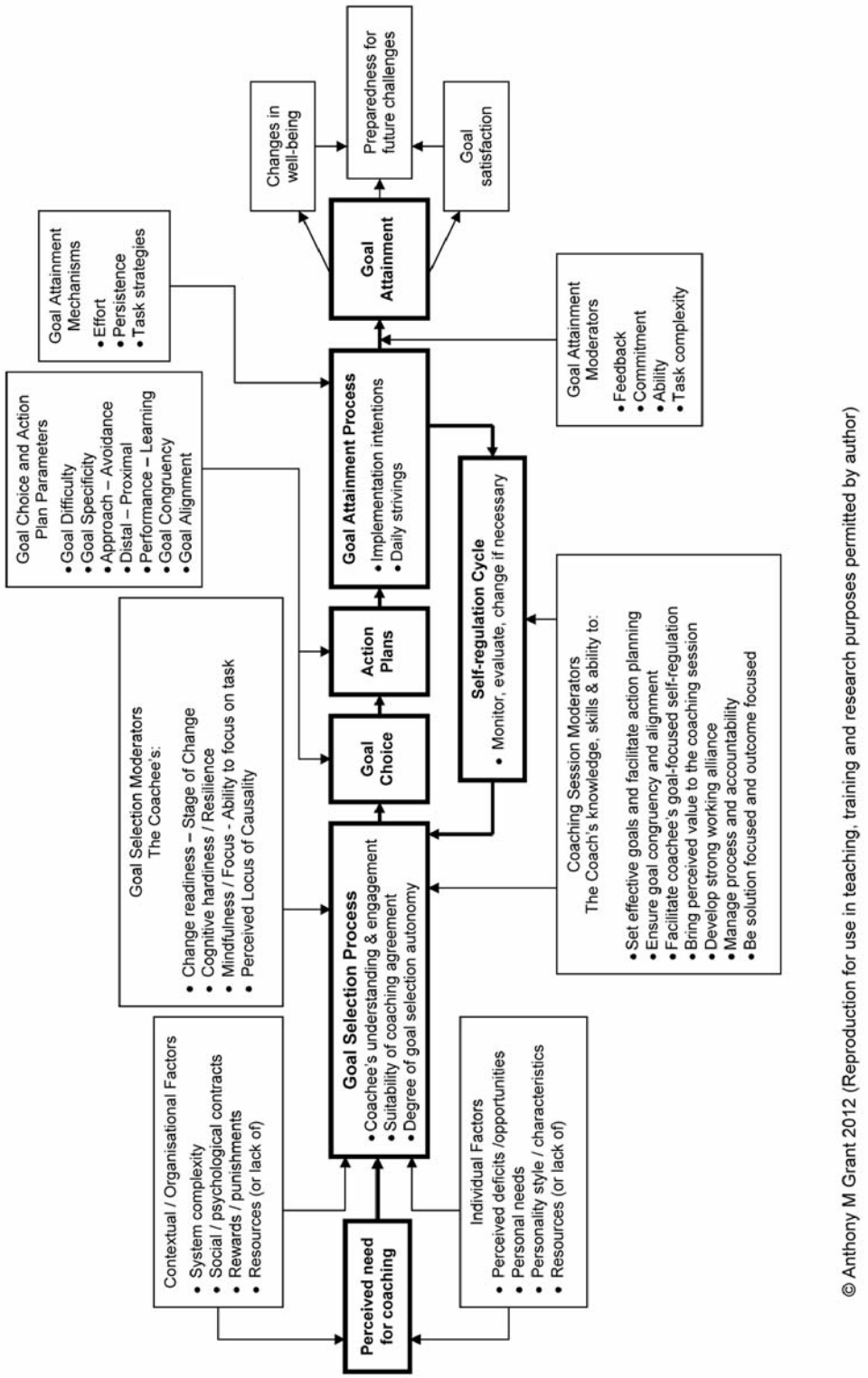
The goal selection process is often not straightforward. Even where coaching has been mandated by an organisation with specific outcomes in mind, the goal setting process can be convoluted and complex. The rush to seize and set a specific goal too early in the coaching process is a key derailer – a common trap for the novice. Certainly key issues and broad initial goals should be discussed quite early in the coaching process in order to give the conversation direction and purpose, but the coach should also be paying attention to a number of factors during the goal selection process. These include the coachee's understanding of, and engagement with, the coaching process.

Some coachees arrive for their first coaching session with little idea of the nature of coaching. The suitability and clarity of the coaching agreement (be that formal or informal) will pay an important role in engaging the coachee in the goal selection process, as will the degree of autonomy the coachee has in goal selection.

Goal selection moderators: The coachee's characteristics

There are a number of moderator variables that influence the strength of a relationship between coaching goals and the eventual outcomes of coaching. These include the

Figure 4: Integrative model of coach-facilitated goal attainment.



coachee's ability to focus on the tasks at hand, their ability to adapt in the fact of adversity, and the perceived purpose of the goal and the extent to which they feel that they have agency and autonomy in the goal selection process.

Readiness to change

The coachee's readiness to change is another factor that will impact on the goal selection process. Coaches need to consider if the coachee is in the pre-contemplation, preparation or action stage of change (for a useful reference on applying the Transtheoretical Model of Change to a wide range of goals, see Prochaska, Norcross & DiClemente, 1994). The Transtheoretical Model of Change posits that change involves transition through a series of identifiable, although somewhat overlapping stages. Five of these stages have direct relevance for goal setting in coaching. These stages are:

1. *Pre-contemplation:* No intention to change in the foreseeable future.
2. *Contemplation:* Considering making stages, but have not yet made any changes.
3. *Preparation:* Increased commitment to change, intend to make changes in the near future and often have started to make small changes.
4. *Action:* Engaging in the new behaviours, but have made such changes for only a short period of time (usually less than six months).
5. *Maintenance:* Consistently engaging in the new behaviour over a period of time (usually six months).

Stage-specific coaching strategies

For individuals in the *Pre-contemplation* stage the general principle is to raise awareness, increasing the amount of information available to the coachee so that they can move forward into action. There are many ways of raising awareness including multi-rater feedback sales, qualitative feedback, sales or performance data, or other relevant information.

The key characteristic of the *Contemplation* stage is ambivalence; the conjoint holding of two or more conflicting desires, emotions, beliefs or opinions. The general principle for individuals in the *Contemplation* stage is to help the coachee explore their ambivalence, rather than pushing them into setting a specific goal before they are ready. Setting specific or stretching goals too soon in this stage often results in the coachee disengaging from the goal selection process.

In the *Preparation* stage the coachee is getting ready to make change. Here the aim is to build commitment to change. In terms of goals, the coach should be helping the coachee focus on developing a clear vision of the future (abstract goals) and using goals that involve small, easily attainable but consistent action steps. Progress throughout this stage should be monitored closely and new desired behaviours positively reinforced by acknowledging and celebrating the attainment of small sub-goals. Clearly, there is a considerable art to the effective use of goals in coaching.

In the *Action* and *Maintenance* stages the key is to build on past successes and maximise self-directed change, working on using more stretching goals and developing strategies to sustain the change overtime.

Coaching session moderators: The coach's skill set

There are a number of other factors related to the coaching session itself that impact on the goal selection process and act as moderator variables. This include the coach's ability to set effective goals and facilitate action planning, and the coach's ability to maximise goal congruency and goal alignment whilst also facilitating the coachee's goal-focused self-regulation.

The success of the above is also dependant on the coach's ability to bring perceived value to the coaching session and develop a strong working alliance with the coachee (Gray, 2007). All the theoretical knowledge in the world about goal theory is of no importance, unless the coach can put this

theory into practice, managing the goal striving process, whilst holding the coachee accountable and being solution focused and outcome focused.

Goal choice and action planning

Goal choice and action planning are outcomes of the goal selection process. It is important to note that although the model represents these as linear processes, in reality these are iterative, with an amount of back and forth movement between stages. The goal choice and action planning parameters include goal difficulty and goal specificity, whether the goals are approach or avoidance goals, time framing (distal or proximal) or a performance or learning orientation.

Goal choice is a necessary, but not sufficient part of the coaching process – action plans must be developed and enacted. Action planning is the process of developing a systemic means of attaining goals and is particularly important for individuals who have low self-regulatory skills (Kirschenbaum, Humphrey & Malett, 1981). The coach's role here is to develop the coachee's ability to create a realistic and workable plan of action and to help them define task strategies that will facilitate the goal striving process, whilst promoting persistence in the face of adversity – in this way clients can enhance their self-regulation abilities and build resilience (Grant et al., 2009)

One key outcome of successful action planning is the coachee's transition from a *deliberative* mindset to an *implementational* mindset (Gollwitzer, 1996; Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987). The deliberative mindset is characterised by a weighing of the pros and cons of action and examination of competing goals or courses of action (Carver & Scheier, 1998). The implementational mindset is engaged once the decision to act has been made. This mindset has a determined, focused quality, and is biased in favour of thinking about success rather than failure – factors that are typically associated with higher levels of self-efficacy, self-regulation and goal attainment (Bandura, 1982).

The self-regulation cycle, feedback and goal satisfaction

The monitoring and evaluation of actions and the generation of feedback as the coachee moves through the self-regulation cycle is a vital part of the coaching process. However, self-reflection does not come naturally to many people (Jordan & Troth, 2002), and so the coach may need to find ways to develop action plans that focus on observable, easily monitored behaviours.

What is monitored will, of course, vary according to the coachee's goals and context. Some behaviours will be easier to monitor than others. Exercise or physical activity-based actions can be relatively straightforward to monitor. Intrapersonal issues, interpersonal skills or communication patterns in the workplace may be more difficult to monitor, and the coach and coachee may have to be quite creative in devising means of monitoring and evaluating these.

Care should be taken to set the kinds of goals that will generate useful feedback, because the right feedback is vital in providing information about how (or if) subsequent goals and associated actions should be modified, and this process, if done well, will eventuate in successful goal attainment (Locke & Latham, 2002). Goals that have been aligned with the coachee's intrinsic interests or personal values are more likely to be personally satisfying when achieved, and the positive emotions associated with such goal satisfaction may well play an important past in priming the coachee for engagement in future challenges (Sheldon, 2002).

So what? Does goal theory matter in practice?

Although it is clear from the above discussion that goal theory can inform what happens within coaching sessions and also has great relevance for the broader coaching process, the question arises: does goal theory really matter in actual practice? Is the coach's ability to be goal-focused related to coaching outcomes? This is a key question

for the further development of evidence-based coaching practice.

A significant body of research within the psychotherapeutic literature holds that the most important factors in determining therapeutic outcomes are the so-called 'common factors' – the ability of the therapist to develop a working alliance with the client that embodies trust, warmth and respect for the client's autonomy (Lampropoulos, 2000). Not surprisingly it is often assumed in the coaching literature that this is also the case for coaching (McKenna & Davis, 2009a). However, coaching is not therapy. The aims and process of coaching and therapy are different.

To date there have been few studies that have sought to explore the importance of goals in the coaching relationship, so I was interested to see which aspect of the coaching relationship was more positively related to coaching outcomes – a goal-focused approach to coaching, or the so-called 'common-factors' associated with the person-centred approach (Grant, 2012). To explore this issue I designed a within-subjects (pre-post) coaching study, in which 49 mature age coachees (males=12; females=37; mean age 37.5 years) set personal goals and completed a 10- to 12-week, five-session, solution-focused cognitive-behavioural personal coaching programme using the GROW model* (Whitmore, 1992).

Participants were asked to identify their desired outcome for the coaching relationship (i.e. their goal) and then rated the extent to which they had achieved this outcome on a scale from 0 per cent (no attainment) to 100 per cent (complete attainment). Psychological health was also assessed using the Depression Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS-21: Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995) and an 18-item version of Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scales (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). In addition, self-insight was assessed using the Insight subscale of the Self-reflection and Insight Scale (SRIS; Grant, Franklin & Langford, 2002).

In order to see which aspect of the coaching relationship was the better predictor of coaching success, two key measures of the coaching relationship were used. The goal-focused aspect of the coaching relationship was measured using an adaptation of the Goal-focused Coaching Skills Questionnaire (GCSQ; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007). Items on this scale include: 'The coach was very good at helping me develop clear, simple and achievable action plans'; 'We discussed any failures on my part to complete agreed actions steps'; 'The goals we set during coaching were very important to me'; 'My coach asked me about progress towards my goals'; 'The goals we set were stretching but attainable'.

The 'common factors' aspect was assessed using an adaption of Deci and Ryan's (2005) Perceived Autonomy Support Scale (PASS). Items on this scale included: 'My coach listened to how I would like to do things'; 'I feel that my coach cares about me as a person'; 'My coach encouraged me to ask questions'; 'I feel that my coach accepts me'; 'I felt understood by my coach'; 'I feel a lot of trust in my coach'.

The coaching programme appeared to be effective and successful in helping the clients reach their desired outcomes for the coaching relationship: there was a significant increase in goal attainment following the coaching programme ($t_{1,48}$ (11.43); $p<.001$), as well as insight ($t_{1,48}$ (2.61); $p<.05$), and significant decreases in anxiety ($t_{1,48}$ (2.89); $p<.01$) and stress ($t_{1,48}$ (2.13); $p<.05$). No changes in levels of depression or psychological well-being were observed.

* The GROW model is a commonly-used way of structuring the coaching conversation by setting a goal for the coaching session, then discussing the reality of the situation, exploring options and finally wrapping up the session by delineating some action steps. Although this may appear to be a simplistic linear process, in fact the GROW model can be used in a sophisticated and iterative fashion, with the conversation cycling back and forth between steps. For an extended discussion on the use of the GROW model see Grant (2011).

The main area of interest was the relationship between coaching success and the various aspects of the coaching styles used by the coaches. There was a significant correlation between coaching success as defined by the extent to which the client had achieved their desired outcome (i.e. goal attainment) and the GCSQ (r=.43; p<.01), and there was also a significant correlation between coaching success (as defined by the extent to which the client had achieved their desired outcome) and the PASS (r=.29; p<.05). Not surprisingly there was also a significant correlation between the GCSQ and the PASS (r=.61; p<.001). This suggests that both a goal-focused coaching style and a 'common factors' person-centred coaching style contribute to coaching success.

However, and this is a key point, the correlation between coaching success (goal attainment) and the goal-focused coaching style measured by the GCSQ remained significant even when statistically controlling for a 'common factors' person-centred coaching style as measured by the PASS (r=.31; p<.05). It should also be noted that, when controlling for the goal-focused coaching style as measured by the GCSQ, the relationship between the PASS and coaching success (goal attainment) was not significant (r=.03; p=.81).

These findings strongly suggest that the use of goals in coaching is indeed of practical importance in that the use of a goal-focused coaching style is more effective than a 'common factors' person-centred coaching style in the coaching context. This is not to say that a person-centred relationship is not important. Rather, this reminds us that the coaching relationship differs from the counselling or therapeutic relationship, and that coaches need to be mindful of the fact that they are employed by their clients to help make purposeful and positive change in their personal and professional lives.

Conclusion

Coaches may use metaphors such as helping clients chart a course, navigate the waters of life or re-author their lived narratives, and such metaphors may well be powerful vehicles for facilitating change. Some coaches may prefer to talk about their role in terms of helping clients explore their values, clarify their intentions, or working to help them to achieve their personal aspirations, rather than using the perceived jargon of goal theory. Clearly coaches should feel entirely free to express themselves and describe their work as they choose. However, at its core coaching is necessarily a goal-directed activity, regardless of linguistic gymnastics or variations in meaning-making perspectives, and goal theory can indeed provide a useful lens through which to understand coaching.

The integrative goal-focused model presented here is a multifaceted evidence-based methodology for helping individuals and organisations create and sustain purposeful positive change. Because the coaching conversation is inherently iterative, and frequently unpredictable and non-linear, the key issue for coaches is one of informed flexibility in using goal theory: Goal use in coaching is far more than the simplistic SMART acronym implies.

By understanding the different types of goals and their relationship to the process of change, and through facilitating the goal alignment and goal-pursuit processes, skilful professional coaches can work more efficiently with their clients, helping them to achieve insight and behavioural change that enhances their workplace performance, their professional working lives and, most importantly, their personal well-being and sense of self. After all, that is surely the overarching goal of the coaching enterprise itself.

Acknowledgements

This article draws on and extends presentations given by the author at the 2012 International Congress of Coaching Psychology held at Sydney, Australia in May 2012, and a chapter by the author in Clutterbuck, D., Megginson, D. & David, S. (Eds.) (2012), *Beyond Goals: Effective Strategies for Coaching and Mentoring*. Gower Publishing, London

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Paper

Coaching as a learning methodology – a mixed methods study in driver development using a randomised controlled trial and thematic analysis

Jonathan Passmore & Hannah Rehman

Objectives: *This mixed methods study reviewed the role of coaching in the driver development environment. The study sought to explore the impact of coaching as a learning methodology and to compare this with an instruction-based approach.*

Design: *The study involved a mixed methods sequential design. The first part of the study was a randomised controlled trial (RCT) and the second part of the study used semi-structured interviews and thematic analysis.*

Methods: *The RCT element of the study involved participants being randomly allocated to one of two learning groups. In the first group participants were trained by driving instructors trained in coaching skills using a blended method of coaching and instruction. In the second group participants were trained by driving instructors using solely an instruction approach. In total 208 participants took part with 24 driving instructors delivering the coaching or instruction across the two groups. In the qualitative part of the research, four driving instructors and seven learners were interviewed using semi-structured interviews and the data analysed using thematic analysis.*

Results: *The quantitative study revealed that coaching was a more effective and efficient method for learning in this context. The independent samples t-tests indicated significant differences with learners in the coaching group spending less time in training ($p<0.01$) and being more likely to pass their test on the first attempt ($p<0.01$). The coaching group also had fewer attempts to pass the assessment ($p<0.01$) than the instruction group. The qualitative study suggested that from this group that both learners and 'instructors' observed positive aspects to the coaching style of learning. This was strongest for instructors who suggested coaching facilitated an improved relationship and helped the learner to learn more quickly.*

Keywords: *Coaching psychology; RCT; Mixed methods; coaching and learning; coaching impact; pedagogy; adult learning; coaching and driver development.*

THE UK GOVERNMENT and other governments in the developed world are faced with a challenge of how to improve road safety. Despite persistent attempts at reducing accidents through campaigns, road design and changes to car design, road traffic accidents remain one of the largest causes of death in the developed world. In 2008, it was reported that around seven fatal incidents occur per day in the UK. Death through a driving-related incident is the single largest cause of death for young people between 17 to 25. Further, around 20 per cent of new drivers are involved in an incident within the first six months of acquiring their licence (DSA, *Learning to Drive* consultation paper, 2008).

While drivers are often blamed individually for incidents, behind this are issues of national culture, personal attitude and driver learning. Leading coaching practitioners such as Whitmore (2010) have questioned the current methods for learning to drive and have suggested that coaching may be a more effective method for driver learning, compared with the current instructor-led approach.

The Driving Standards Agency (DSA) in a consultation paper *Learning to Drive* discussed ways of revising the current approach by changing the system's focus on merely teaching the skills required to pass the test, with a view towards developing greater use of higher order skills. As part of this process the DSA is engaged in a five-year project to assess which methods are more effective in enhancing road safety. Serious questions have, however, been raised about the methodology of the study even before initial results have been published (Passmore, 2010a; University of East London, 2011). These include questions about cross-contamination between the coaching and control group, where it is reported that members of the control group have previously received training in coaching skills.

In the UK, the key requirements for acquiring an LGV (large goods vehicle) licence is that the individual must have a full category B licence (car), meet the eyesight criteria and be a minimum of 21 years of age. An LGV licence is required for all vehicles that weigh over 3.5 tonnes. Similar to driving a car, the LGV learner must complete a theory, hazard perception and practical test.

The British Army have a large need for LGV drivers which is supplied by the Defence Driving School of Transport (DST) who train British Army learners for cars (category B), lorries (Large Goods Vehicle (LGV) (category C and C+E) and Passenger Carrying Vehicles (category D and D+E), in addition to special vehicle such as tanks and specialist off-road vehicles.

The methods for teaching a learner how to drive a lorry and car in the British Army are the same as a commercial driving school with instructors using instruction-led techniques (*Defence Instructional Techniques Manual*, 2009). This typically involves the instructor in providing explicit instruction on the mechanics and operation of the vehicle, instruction on risks, as well as commands during the drive on what to do (i.e. 'use your mirror before you signal') and where to go (i.e. 'turn right at the next junction').

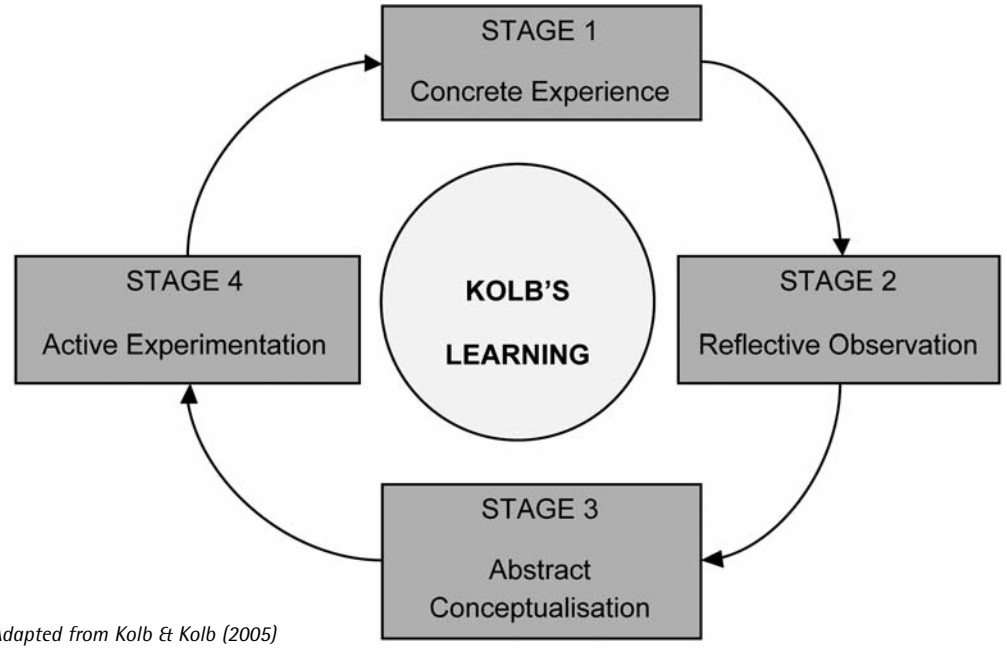
Training standards are considered high, the DST 'Road Traffic Accident Statistics' in 2008 reveal there was a decrease of 11 per cent of road accidents. However, the total number of 'vehicle driver' deaths increased compared to 2007. While instruction has produced positive outcomes, a pressure for change was internal financial challenges and the increasing demand for trained drivers, a direct result of operations in Iraq and Afghanistan.

Coaching was identified as a possible solution to improve driver outcomes and DST was interested in exploring these ideas. In parallel other work was underway in other areas of driver training which has provided evidence of coaching's potential contribution to driver development (Passmore & Mortimer, 2010; Passmore & Townsend, in press). These previous studies in the learner driver and police advanced driver environments have revealed the perceived value by driving instructors of coaching in supporting driving pupil's learning, improving the learning relationship between 'instructor' and learner and the perception that learning was more effective when the instructor used coaching in comparison to instruction. However, not all studies have seen positive results (Passmore & Velez, 2012).

At this stage the contribution of coaching to adult learning remains theoretical. There are many theories that attempt to explain how adults learn. The most widely used theory is Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory (ELT). Kolb defines learning as *'the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience…'* (Kolb, 1984, p.41). Kolb emphasises experience as an important aspect of how adults learn (Kolb & Kolb, 2005), within a four-stage cycle of learning (Figure 1). Whilst Kolb notes that learning can occur at any point of the cycle, it generally begins with the process of 'concrete experience' (Rakoczy & Money, 1995).

According to the ELT, learning involves developing a theory, forming hypotheses

Figure 1: Kolb's (1984) Stages of Learning Cycle.



Adapted from Kolb & Kolb (2005)

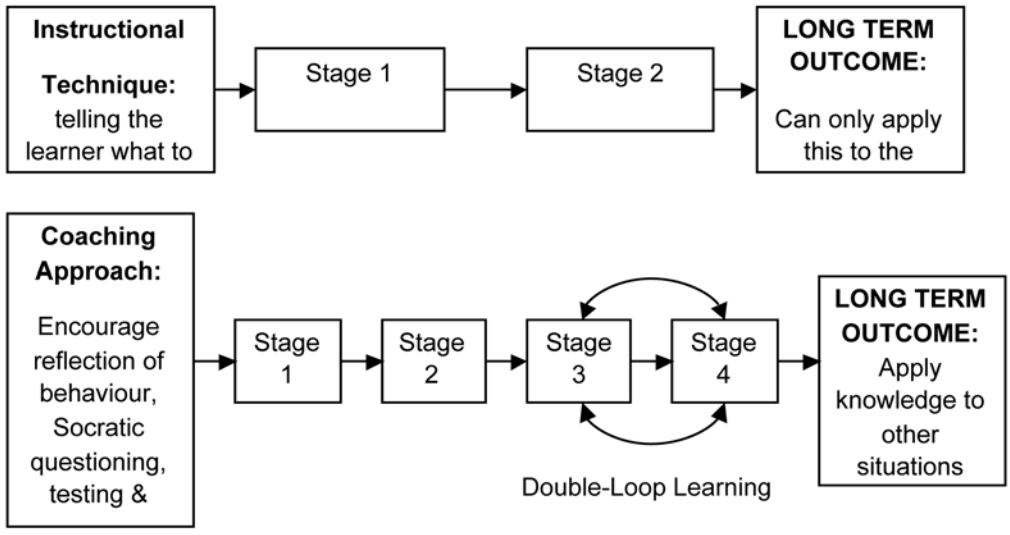
and then testing those hypotheses. On the whole, the four stages of the cycle involve the learner in self-reflect, observation and testing (Rakoczy & Money, 1995). Kolb highlights that for learning to be a success, the learner needs to actively complete all four stages of the cycle. Argyris (1991) has further developed learning theory through his 'double-loop' analogy. Argyris argues that 'double-loop learning' consists of asking yourself questions and then testing them. 'Double-loop learning' occurs at the third stage of Kolb's cycle, whereby adults learn to apply their hypotheses and theories to new conditions.

It can be hypothesised that coaching further aids the learning process described by Kolb (1984), as coaching creates a sense of personal responsibility of the learning and stimulates the double loop learning described by Argyris, as the coachee is encouraged to reflect on their situation and its implications through questions from the coach. These models of learning suggest that an individualised coaching approach might help enhance the efficacy of LGV driver training beyond the traditional directive, instructor lead approach.

A number of previous studies of coaching have indicated the effectiveness of using coaching and training simultaneously to help the learner personalise learning and thus enhance application to workplace activities (e.g. Olivero et al., 1997). However, to date no direct comparisons have been made comparing instructional and coaching approaches as learning methodologies. Further, the randomised trials which have been undertake have tended to focus on the development of psychological characteristics, for example, resilience or behavioural skills (see Grant et al., 2010, for a fuller discussion) rather than a comparison of coaching with other developmental interventions.

Research, however, is still limited even in the area of the development of behavioural skills and even rarer in using coaching with people who may have poor literacy skills. Allison and Ayllon (1980) used a behavioural coaching strategy with 23 participants to aid the learning of specific skills in sports. They

Figure 2: A model comparing the outcomes of the coaching and instructional approaches.



Adapted from Kolb's (1984) Stages of Learning Cycle.

found that the behavioural coaching approach enhanced performance and appropriate use of the skills by an average of 50 per cent. The findings of this study suggest that a behavioural coaching approach might be successful in driver training with a diverse population, as driving involves learning a motor skill, which needs to be executed correctly to ensure driver safety beyond the training. However, in addition it involves higher order cognitive skills, such as decision making, which themselves are affected by emotional state, personality and attitudes. As a results a cognitive behavioural approach, combining both basic behavioural coaching with an exploration of cognition may enhance driver development outcomes.

A review of the driver development literature reveals there are currently no empirical research looking at the effects of coaching on driver training, with the exception of the papers noted above conducted as part of this wider review of coaching and driving (Passmore & Mortimer, 2011; Passmore & Velez, 2012; Passmore & Townsend, in press)

In terms of the wider driver training arena, some work has been conducted. Work by Senserrick and Haworth, (2005) has noted the central role of attitudes. Stanton et al. (2007) have suggested hazard perception programmes to help improve the effects of training. Senserrick and Swinburne (2001) noted the value of advanced 'insight' training courses which made drivers more aware of the risks involved in driving. Hutton et al. (2002) have highlighted the role of feedback on driver safety behaviours and have found a positive effect of using feedback to change negative behaviours. Boorman (1999) found that an advanced driver training programme conducted with the Post Office lorry drivers significantly improved fleet performance and also resulted in a reduction in accidents after the programme. These studies lend preliminary support to the notion that driver training can be enhanced with the addition of supplementary approaches.

Given this context, leading driving researchers (Dorn, 2005) have suggested that coaching may be an appropriate

methodology for driver training. Rismark and Solvberg (2007) proposed a dialogue similar to feedback and coaching to improve the effects of driver training in Norway. The study looked at how to improve driver training in terms of its content through enhancing the communication between the instructor and learner. This approach helped enhance self-awareness and reflection in the driver, which led to better driving behaviour beyond training. Similarly, Stanton et al. (2007, p.1213) evaluated the effectiveness of an advanced coaching driving intervention, training drivers' in the 'Information', 'Position', 'Speed', 'Gear' and 'Accelerate' system (IPSGA). They conducted the study with 75 participants, who were either put in the coaching group, an observation group with no coaching or a control group with no observation or coaching being given. The participants were adults between the ages of 23 to 65 with several years of driving experience. The researchers found that the experimental coaching group significantly improved their attitudes, situational awareness and skills related to driving. They proposed that their findings suggested that a formal one-to-one coaching course will help produce safer drivers, emphasising that the content and methods of an advanced training programme is the key to its success. These findings indicate that coaching will be useful for improving driver development for all vehicles and in particular for lorry driver training to help facilitate the acquisition of the specific skills and to enhance road safety beyond the test. Nevertheless, a major weakness identified with their study was the nature of participation in the study. Their sample for the coaching group was self-selected and this group were *'motivated to improve their driving'* (Stanton et al., 2007, p.1231). Stanton et al. (2007) and Rismark and Solvberg's study (2007) provide evidence and support for the use of coaching as an independent and formal programme.

These studies were identified by the EU HERMES Project (2007), which has explored the role of coaching as a learning approach for novice drivers. Its report (2010) has suggested ways that driving instructors can incorporate coaching into driver training (see, for example, HERMES, 2011). HERMES also highlighted *'Goals for Driver Education'* (Table 1). The matrix defines the goals and competencies required for teaching individuals how to drive, using a 'hierarchical approach'. Level 1 'vehicle control' is gaining skills in the basic manual handling of the vehicle, such as manoeuvring and general car maintenance. Level 2 'driving in traffic' consists of gaining control in traffic situations and different road and weather conditions, it is the mastery of driving in varied conditions. Level 3 'goals and context of driving' and Level 4 'goals for life and skills for living' are the higher-order skills required for driving, such as understanding driver motives and intentions for driving, factors related to driver personality and values, 'self-awareness', 'emotions' and being able to understand driver personal strengths and weaknesses. They can be seen as the 'what, where, when and how' of a journey and understanding the rationale for making decisions. The matrix can be used to understand what the current traditional approaches to driver training need to revise and reconsider.

While the instructor-led approach focuses on Levels 1 and 2 of the matrix, which are formally assessed on the driving test, it is suggested that the coaching approach helps develop Levels 3 and 4 of the matrix, as coaching helps challenge one's beliefs (HERMES, 2010). The evidence suggests that these factors are important and have a large impact on driving behaviour, (Dorn & Brown, 2003; Dorn, 2005). The HERMES Report argues that for driver training to be successful it needs to incorporate all levels on the matrix.

It can be questioned whether a more enhanced coaching approach to driver training will enhance its effectiveness.

Table 1: Goals for Driver Education (GDE) Matrix.

Hierarchical levels of driver behaviour	Competency 1: Knowledge and skill	Competency 2: Risk increasing aspects	Competency 3: Self-assessment
Level 4: Goals for life and skills	● Lifestyle, age, group, culture, social position, etc. vs. driving behaviour	● Sensation seeking ● Risk acceptance ● Group norms ● Peer pressure	● Introspective competence ● Own preconditions ● Impulse control
Level 3: Goals and context of driving	● Modal choice ● Choice of time ● Role of motives ● Route planning	● Alcohol, fatigue ● Low friction ● Rush hours ● Young passengers	● Own motives influencing choices ● Self-critical thinking
Level 2: Driving in traffic	● Traffic rules ● Co-operation ● Hazard perception ● Automisation	● Disobeying rules ● Close-following ● Low friction ● Vulnerability	● Calibration of driving skills ● Own driving style
Level 1: Vehicle control	● Car functioning ● Protection systems ● Vehicle control ● Physical laws	● No seatbelts ● Breakdown of vehicle systems ● Worn-out tyres	● Calibration of car control skills

Adapted from Hatakka, Keskinen, Glad, Gregerson & Hernetkoski, 2002, pp.209–210) and Gregerson (2005, p.9).

Driving involves both cognitive skills, such as calculating other road user speed, intended direction and associated risks of manoeuvres and behavioural skills, such as vehicle control. For coaching to be successful in driver training, it needs to adopt approaches which enable these aspects of skills development to be addressed. Grant (2001) found that a combined approach of cognitive and behavioural methods was more effective in enhancing learning for adult learners, finding that it led to 'deeper' understanding, as well as reducing anxiety and these effects were also maintained at follow-up.

The current study aimed to explore whether coaching could improve the efficiency and effectiveness of driver training. Unlike the small number of driving studies that focus on young novice drivers, the current study focuses on adult learners who already know how to drive and has passed their test for category B (motor car).

Method

This study investigated the impact of coaching on Large Goods Vehicle (LGV) driver training with the Defence School of Transport (DST) in the UK. The first part of the study used a randomised controlled trial methodology (RCT), where participants were randomly allocated to the coaching experimental group or the instruction control group. In this study, the independent variable identified was the coaching style of teaching learners how to drive a LGV. The dependent variables were the total number of hours spent in training; the total number of kilometres (kms) spent driving in training prior to passing the test, the number of tests taken to pass the driving test and passing the driving test on the first attempt. The design of the study was a between subjects design, as there were different participants in each group. The experimental group ('Group 1') received the coaching style of teaching and 'Group 2'

was the control who received the standard instruction style of teaching. Participants in each group were matched according to their LGV driving test category; whether they were training to acquire their category C licence, which is for *'vehicles over 3500 kg, with a trailer up to 750 kg'*; or training for their C+E licence, which is the same as category C with the exception of a trailer weighing *'over 750 kg'* (Direct Gov, 2010). The data was collected by members of the DST and subjected to analysis by the researchers. The second part of the study involved a series of short semi-structured interviews, transcription and thematic analysis to identify common themes.

Participants

The RCT part of the study involved 208 participants, with 104 participants in each group. Participants were serving members of the British Armed forces who were learning to drive a lorry with the DST. The sample included both English as a second language, (mainly from Nepal and Kenya), and native English speakers. Participation in the study was voluntary. Participation of learners in each group was randomly assigned, through an ABAB process, following posting to DSA. The driving instructors were all members of unit D, one of seven units involved in driver training. The selection of this group was random. The driving instructors attended five days of coach training. The training covered basic skills in coaching and included a basic coverage of behavioural and cognitive behavioural coaching models. Participants also completed coaching practice during which they were observed and received feedback, along with a subsequent assessment

The qualitative study involved 11 participants, four instructors and seven learners, who were interviewed by independent researchers. These were selected at random from each of the groups. Participation was again voluntary.

Materials

1. *Participants:* For each participant (learner driver) a record of the hours spent in training, kilometres driven, number of tests taken and the date and time of all lessons and tests were recorded using individual learner record sheets. The summary data for each individual was transferred to an Excel spreadsheet for analysis.

   Each participant (learner driver) was given a work book, work sheets and an instructor resource to refer to post training (PLD, 2008a, 2008b).
2. *Trainers:* Twelve DST staff were trained in the coaching approach. The training was designed to develop the driving instructors' knowledge, skills and attitude to learners and to be able to undertake coaching with confidence and competence. The aim of the training programme was to ensure that the trainers (driving instructors) were skilled in the approach so that they could then train other instructors within their organisation. The training contents is summarised in Table 2.
3. *Data collection:* Trainers (driving instructors) were asked to monitor the hours spent in training, kilometres driven and test details on a record sheet for each student at the end of each session. The collection of such information was part of the instructors' normal role. Data was collected during January to July 2009. During this period, each instructor trained approximately 10 students.

   Trainers (driving instructors) trained participants (learner drivers) in the experimental group how to drive a lorry, using techniques from both coaching and instruction. Instructors who had not received the additional coaching training taught participants (learner drivers) in the control using the DST's instructional style.

   Participants (learner drivers) were randomly allocated to a trainer (driving instructor). Each participant was

Table 2: Training objectives.

Day	Objectives
1	● Introduce the coaching process – define coaching and how it compares with other forms of learning ● Core coaching skills – listening, questioning, summary and reflection
2	● Core coaching models, for example, the GROW model, goal setting (SMART goals). ● Coaching practice
3	● Models of adult learning – Learning cycle, social learning and double loop learning ● Learning styles ● Supplementary models – Cognitive behavioural approach and techniques ● Coaching practice
4	● Building learning relationships with learners ● Driving lesson planning – combining instruction and coaching ● Coaching Practice
5	● Integrating the skills ● Coaching practice ● Personal review and action planning

informed that their details would be monitored during their lessons. In addition each received an explanation that the Army was reviewing its driver learning methods; although precise details were not disclosed as to the types of training methodology or whether the participant was in the experimental or control group.

Eleven semi-structured interviews were also conducted with both trainers and learners to gain further insight into their experiences of the coaching approach. Each interview lasted between 10 and 20 minutes. Interviews were conducted with four instructors who had been trained to use coaching to teach learners how to drive. The interviews explored the effects of the coaching course on their role as an instructor, in particular, looking at ways in which it might have changed the way they teach and the effects that this teaching style had on their learners.

Seven learners were interviewed. All the learners interviewed were either doing their C or their C+E LGV category licence training with the British Army through the Defence School of Transport. All learners had already acquired their category B (car driving) licence. The learners were asked if they had noticed any differences in the way they had been taught between their previous instructor and the new coaching instructor and about the learning experience.

Results

Quantitative data

In this section the findings from the statistical analysis are reviewed for each of the four hypotheses. The level of statistical significance adopted for this study was $p<0.01$. An initial review of the data using a One-Sample Kolmogorov test revealed that the data was more or less normally distributed, therefore the Independent Samples *t*-test was a robust enough test for the data obtained. The *t*-test also copes better with outliers and is the test of significance for comparing the difference between two groups.

The comparisons made between the experimental group (coaching) and control group (instruction) included:

- The total number of hours in training to pass the test.
- The total number of kilometres driven in training to pass the test.
- Average number of tests taken to pass the driving test.
- Whether the learners passed their test on the first attempt.

Hypothesis 1: Learners in the coaching group will spend fewer hours in training compared to the instruction control group.

Table 3 shows the average number of hours spent driving in training in order to pass the test for the coaching and instruction groups. It can be seen that there is a difference in the number of hours driving between the two groups (control M=30.12, coaching M=21.43).

The coaching group spend fewer hours in training in order to pass their test, indicating a mean difference in hours spent in training of 8.69 (hours). An Independent Samples t-test was conducted to determine whether this difference in total hours spent driving was significant. Levene's test for equality of variances was $p<0.05$ (p=0.026). The analysis revealed that the difference between these two groups was significant (t=4.014, $p<0.01$, p=0.0005, one-tailed), indicating that the coaching group on average take less time in training to pass their test. The null hypothesis can therefore be rejected.

Hypothesis 2: Learners in the coaching group will drive fewer kilometres to pass the test compared to the instruction control group.

Table 4 demonstrates the mean for the total number of kilometres driven in training to pass the driving test for both groups. There appears to be a difference between the mean for the instruction control group (M=449.99) and the coaching group (M=394.44).

The mean difference between the two groups was 55.55 kilometres. The Levene's test for equality of variances was $p>0.05$ (p=0.621), using the top row of values for t, the equal variances assumed row. However,

Table 3: Descriptive statistics – total number of hours driving to pass the test for the coaching and instruction control group.

Type of training	No. of learners *(N)*	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Instruction Group (Control)	104	10.15	106.75	30.12	17.78
Coaching Group	104	7.00	81.00	21.43	13.06

Table 4: Descriptive statistics – total number of kilometres driven in training to pass the test for the coaching and instruction control group.

Type of training	No. of learners *(N)*	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Instruction Group (Control)	104	90	1934	449.99	310.76
Coaching Group	93	100	2350	394.44	327.44

an Independent Samples *t*-test revealed that this difference in kilometres spent driving in training was not significant (t=1.221, p>0.01, p=0.112, one-tailed), thus the null hypothesis failed to be rejected, as coaching showed no improvement in the kilometres driven in training to pass the test.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a decrease in the number of tests taken to pass the test for learners in the coaching group.

Table 5 shows the average number of tests taken for the learners to pass their test in both groups. It can be seen that on average the coaching group take less driving tests to pass (M=1.38).

The difference between the two groups in the number of tests taken to pass their driving test was small (0.33). An Independent Samples *t*-test analysis revealed that the difference between the number of tests taken for both groups was significant (t=2.659, p<0.01, p=0.005 one-tailed). Levene's test for equality of variances was p<0.05 (p=0.004) and so the bottom row of values for t were used. As predicted, there was a decrease in the number of tests taken to pass the test for the coaching group and the null hypothesis can therefore be rejected.

Hypothesis 4: Learners in the coaching group are more likely to pass their test on the first attempt.

The data for hypothesis 4 was categorical and thus the Chi-Square non-parametric test was used for analysis. Table 6 shows the average number for whether the learners passed their test on their first attempt for the coaching and control group. It can be seen that there is a difference between the coaching group (M=1.00) and instruction control group (M=1.45) for whether they pass their test first time.

Table 7 indicates that all learners in the coaching group (N=77) passed their test on the first attempt, indicating that on average a coaching style of teaching will help learners pass their test first time. A Chi-Square analysis revealed that there is a significant association between the two groups (χ^2=45.294, df=1, p<0.01, p=0.0005, one-

Table 5: Descriptive statistics – total number of tests taken to pass the driving test.

Type of training	No. of learners *(N)*	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Instruction Group (Control)	104	1	6	1.71	1.01
Coaching Group	104	1	4	1.38	0.74

Table 6: Descriptive statistics for passing the driving test on first attempt.

Type of training	No. of learners *(N)*	Mean	SD
Instruction Group (Control)	77	1.45	0.501
Coaching Group	77	1.00	0.000

Table 7: A table to show the cross-tabulation for whether both groups pass the driving test on the first attempt.

			Coaching or Control Group		
			Coaching	Control	Total
Whether they passed their test first time	Yes	Count	77	42	119
		Expected Count	59.5	59.5	119.0
	No	Count	0	35	35
		Expected Count	17.5	17.5	35.0
Total		Count	77	77	154
		Expected Count	77.0	77.0	154.0

tailed). The analysis supports the hypothesis that learners who receive a coaching style of teaching are more likely to pass their test on the first attempt and the null hypothesis can, therefore, be rejected.

Qualitative data

Data from the semi-structured interviews was transcribed and analysed using a thematic analysis approach. This approach can help understand emerging ideas from ones research (Aronson, 1994). *'Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data'* (Braun et al., 2006, p.6). An advantage of using this approach is that it allows for flexibility (Braun et al., 2006).

The process of analysing the data firstly entailed becoming familiar with the interview data. The second stage involved identifying the themes and patterns from all the interviews by moving back and forth between the interview data. During this stage, all patterns and trends found in the data were coded. The third stage involved a review of the patterns and trends to form and define the specific themes. The fourth stage combined the common or similar themes together in order to create sub-themes. The final stage of analysis was to identify the data that was related to these themes (see Braun et al., 2006).

Trainers

Table 8 summarises the key themes that arose from the interviews with the trainers. The trainers felt that their teaching style had improved from using the new coaching method and could see marked improvements in their learners who had received this style of teaching. Trainers felt that they 'reflected back' more when using the coaching style, they gave more feedback, worked in a more collaborative style with their student, set clear goals, helped their students to actively learn through practice rather than instructing and that they asked their students more questions in order to explore whether their student understood the task. The trainers also mentioned that coaching was a useful tool for teaching their learners, commenting that this technique definitely worked with their students and would recommend the wider use of the technique in other areas of training. Comments from trainers included:

> *'I think it's certainly made me a little bit more enthusiastic in getting out there and doing it. No doubt…well, job satisfaction'.* (T5-278-282)
>
> *'I've got that little bit that's really helping me and I can see the big difference in my students.'* (T3-140-142)
>
> *'You're getting the answer out of them rather than you telling them you're asking the questions they're giving you the answer then you're waiting for the response of that student.'* (T3-26-29)

Table 8: Key themes from the interviews with the Trainers.

Themes	Trainers' thoughts/comments
Driving instructor–learner relationship	Trainers felt that coaching helped to build good relationships with their students, creating a good atmosphere to teach in.
Coaching as a complementary methodology	Coaching helped to enhance the skills they were already using.
Enhanced opportunity for learner self-reflection	The approach encouraged more self-reflection and helped learners to become more tolerant of situations that they are faced with. Using reflection also helped to find out if the learner understood the issue and provided the opportunity to then cover again material if the concept was not fully understood.
Flexibility with using the coaching style to teach	Trainers felt that they were able to use a variety of methods to teach, which is tailored to the each individual learner's needs.
Feedback and preparation	These were regarded as an important process in their teaching methods.
Involvement	Coaching has made them more aware of ensuring that both learners' needs are met and that they keep them interested through more involvement, for example, by having more conversations with them.
Exploring through questions for deeper understanding	Trainers felt that they now explain more to their learner's through asking more questions. They explained that it helps the learner understand and also give an insight into how much help the learner needed.
Working collaboratively with the learner	They work in partnership with the learners and that working together towards the same goal helped make the experience more enjoyable for everyone.
Setting goals and objectives	They now set more clear goals with their learners, and reassure them that they can do it through using positive reinforcement.
Responsibility of the learner	Trainers now let their learners take control of their learning, so that they're not constantly telling them what to do. They found that by giving the learner responsibility of their learning helped them to focus and learn.
Active learning	Actively learning through practice helps the learner to hold onto those skills, making them more able to use those skills outside of training.

'It's totally different now because now all I'm doing is I'm bringing the best out of the students I'm praising them, everything they do…the Q & A technique, it's worked so well for me because, now it's making my job easier they're now thinking for themselves a lot earlier.' (T3-128-136)

'It's definitely got a place in driver training.' (T2-227)

Learners

From interviews with the learners, four of the seven learners interviewed noted no difference in the teaching of the coaching style and felt that their experience was similar to other instructors. Two out of the seven learners interviewed noticed that there was a difference in the teaching style compared to when they did their category B (car driving) course. They commented that the instructors were more careful with them as individuals.

These two learners also noticed the difference in the teaching style compared to their previous instructors and commented that the coaching style of teaching helped them to retain the skills learnt after the course and that this would help them when they are out in the field. Learners felt that their new instructors were very good, gave them more one-to-one attention, helped them to increase their confidence in driving, had more conversations with them and explained what to do more. They commented that they had learnt the importance of safety and checking whilst on the roads. Overall, the learners expressed satisfaction with the course and their trainers and had no negative comments. On average, all the learners interviewed were ready for their test within five to eight days of training from a coached instructor. Comments from learners included:

'It's more one-to-one as opposed to in a classroom with 20 other students – I think it's a lot better.' (L4-42-43)

'I've got the confidence now…so it's good.' (L5-50-51)

'It's helped me to observe more.' (L5-85)

'He kinda knows where he needs to explain things to you and he…overemphasises on a lot things so he'll help you understand things a lot more.' (L4-68-71)

Discussion

The study investigated whether a coaching style of teaching learners to drive a heavy goods lorry would improve driver training outcomes. In particular, the study aimed to directly compare the differences between a coaching style of learning with the traditional instructional approach used to teach learner drivers.

British Army driver training was selected as there are clearly defined measures of success; namely a driving test undertaken by an independent examiner. Further, rather than compare coaching with a control group on a waiting list or a group which receives no intervention, driver training offers a commonly used method of learning (Instruction), which coaching could be directly compared with. A third benefit was that both instruction and coaching took place one-to-two, so there was a direct comparison of the learning time. Finally, by using a sample drawn from an organisation, such as the British Army, meant that a relatively large sample could be collected, ensuring a reliable and that record keeping was highly accurate and was completed in full by all trainers.

The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the coaching and instruction (control) group in the number of hours they spent in training to pass their test ($p<0.01$). As such, it was found that the coaching group spent fewer hours in training. This finding suggests that the coaching approach of teaching helps learners to grasp the techniques required for lorry driving quicker than the instructional method. A possible explanation for this finding could be that the use of Socratic questions and the self-reflection methods used in coaching aid the learner to make more meaningful links between their

Table 9: Key themes from the interviews with the Learners.

Themes	Learners' thoughts/comments
Course quality and Instructor competence	Learners felt that their instructors and the course were very good and that they helped them to be ready for their test early.
One-to-one learning	Some felt that their instructors had more one-to-one time for them, making their experience more personal.
Flexible learning	Flexible learning Some felt that there was more flexibility in the coaching approach to teaching and were given a choice of techniques.
Increased confidence	All learners commented that their instructors helped them to increase their confidence in their ability to use the skills learnt. Their increased confidence helped to deal with difficult situations.
Conversational	Some learners felt that their instructors were very approachable, friendly, informal and easy to talk to. They talked to them more, explained things and asked more questions to help enhance their understanding.
Deeper understanding	All the learners highlighted that their instructors helped them to understand why they were undertaking activities.
New skills	Some felt they learnt many skills through the style of teaching, specifically to think about safety on the road and interaction with other road users.

existing knowledge and new knowledge, and personalise the learning so the focus of learning is on the learners' needs, rather than a fixed course time and content.

The expectation that learners in the coaching group would drive less kilometres to pass the test compared to the instruction control group, failed to reach significance ($p>0.01$). It was assumed that coaches would spend more time at the side of the road discussing the drive, while instruction would take place during driving. This hypothesis reflected earlier research with learner drivers which suggested that it may be difficult on occasions to use coaching while the learner was driving, due to the cognitive demands which both learning to drive and reflective questions place on the drivers mental workload (Passmore & Mortimer, 2011). Whilst the coaching group were found to drive less kilometres in training in order to pass their driving test, the analysis revealed that the difference between the two groups was in fact small (55.55 kms). One of the reasons for such a finding could be that the coaches were in practice coaching while their learner was driving. This view is consistent with the Experiential Learning Theory (ELT), which highlights that in order for adults to learn effectively, they need to engage in the four stages of learning involving observation, reflection and testing (Kolb, 1984). However, the finding that the learners in the coaching group spent fewer hours in training supports the fact that coaching was in fact a more time efficient method, as these learners significantly spent less time to procure the necessary skills for lorry driving.

It was hypothesised that the learners in the coaching group would take fewer tests in order to pass their driving test compared to the instruction control group. A significant difference was found between the two groups in the number of tests taken to pass their test ($p<0.01$). On average, the coaching

group were found to take less driving tests to pass compared to the instruction control group. The analysis also revealed that the prediction that those in the coaching group were more likely to pass their test on the first attempt was significant ($p<0.01$). As highlighted in the Goals for Driver Education Matrix (GDE), safe driving behaviour involves not only the manual control of the vehicle, but also requires interpersonal and situational awareness for making safe decisions (Hatakka et al., 2002). This study suggests that a coaching style of teaching can be used to optimise driver training outcomes by addressing the higher level goals for driving as outlined in the GDE.

Although coaching improved the process of the training and was found to be a more time efficient method as opposed to the instruction approach; the difference between both groups was actually small (0.33), thus these significant findings could have been due to a type 1 error, whereby other confounding variables influenced the results. One of the variables identified is that individual characteristics, such as attributions about the driving lessons and cultural experiences of the learner could have influenced the way that they responded to the coaching and thus the findings of this study. Other possible explanations were individual differences. Gregory et al. (2008) discuss the influence of individual differences, such as gender and age, on the coach's questioning skills. In a future study it might be beneficial to match the coach and coachee to try and control for this variable. Weather conditions have also been reported as another confounding variable that can impact on driver performance (Gregerson, 1996; 2005). However, it could be argued that these confounding variables were inevitable and difficult to control in this study. Overall, in light of these difficulties, coaching was consistently found to help learners pass their driving test with fewer attempts.

As noted above there is limited research that evaluates the efficacy of a coaching intervention in learning and specifically within driver development. Nevertheless, the results of the study are consistent with the view that coaching can help to enhance the effectiveness of current driver training approaches by teaching learners the higher-order skills associated with driving (Hermes Project, 2007; Senserrick & Haworth, 2005; Dorn, 2005). The wealth of research on coaching suggests that it helps with knowledge and skill acquisition and enhances performance of individuals in organisational settings (e.g. Olivero et al., 1997; Feggetter, 2007; Tee et al., 2009), suggesting that coaching is a highly effective methodology for adult learning. The results of this study further support the fact that coaching can be used successfully to improve outcomes in driver training with a diverse population.

Clark et al. (2005) and the National Road Safety Statistics (2008) reveal that lorry drivers are more likely to display unsafe driving behaviour. Although driver safety was not directly measured in this study, nor was data collected on subsequent accident rates from both groups (the subject of current research), it can be hypothesised that the results of the current study suggest that a coaching methodology may help learners to become more aware of the risks associated with unsafe behaviours. Parallels can be drawn between the results from this study and similar findings of research which has evaluated the impact of advanced driver training programmes and shown that these additional courses help increase self-awareness, thereby leading to a reduction in accidents (e.g. Lund & Williams, 1985; Gregerson, 1996; Gregerson & Bjurulf, 1996; Senserrick & Haworth, 2005; Rosenbloom et al., 2009). For instance, Molina et al. (2007) found that a one-day advanced course helped promote a 'safer driving style' up to nine-months post-training. However, in contrast to other driving studies, this study we believe is the first to look at the impact of a formal coaching programme directly on drivers, whereas the majority of the driver training literature assesses the impact of a short advanced course, such as 'insight

training' or 'hazard awareness' training. Evidence for such advanced courses is also mixed, as some studies have revealed that whilst they are helpful in targeting unsafe behaviour, their overall effect is 'weak' (Ker et al., 2005; Lonero, 2008). Thus, whether coaching does indeed help learners become safer drivers requires further investigation.

The weaknesses with the traditional instructional approaches of teaching learners to drive have been well documented (e.g. HERMES Project, 2007). As such, the literature documents that the current approach to driver training does not equip learners with the skills required to be safer drivers. This study challenges the current driver training teaching methods by providing an alternative approach that can help overcome the issue of safety and retention of skills beyond the test. It has been highlighted that coaching can help address the higher- cognitive skills required for driving safely (HERMES Project, 2007). Similarly, Stanton et al. (2007) has suggested that an advanced coaching programme can help improve driver knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Grant et al. (2010) have highlighted that many coaching studies lack the use of a control group, making it difficult to firmly assert that the changes produced were due to the coaching itself or some other variable. It is reported that out of the 16 between-subjects studies, there have only been 11 RCT coaching studies to date (e.g. Green et al., 2007; Spence & Grant, 2007). However, a number of these have been with relatively small sample sizes. This study was thus untypical in using an RCT method with an equal and comparable control, which allows the placebo effect to be removed, and with a relatively large sample.

There has been growing UK and EU government interest in the use of coaching in driver training as highlighted in the HERMES Project (2007) and the DSA consultation paper (2008). This research contributes to this wider agenda and begins to provide support for coaching as a useful learning methodology.

As recommended by Dorn (2005) and Rismark and Solvberg (2007), the current study has attempted to answer the questions raised about the effectiveness of driver training. The results in this study demonstrate that coaching improved learning outcomes, and in this context was more efficient and effective than instructional learning. The results suggest that the coaching approach of teaching learners to drive has the potential to offer significant benefits in the driver training domain.

More generally the findings from the study provide useful evidence about the value of coaching as a learning methodology, when compared to traditional instruction. The paper extends the work of Olivero et al. (1996) through its use of a larger and consistent sample and through using comparable interventions producing statistically significant results on both learning outcomes (percentage of those reaching the required standard/passing the test) and in the time taken to reach the standard (learning hours).

Limitations of the study

Despite these strengths, a number of limitations are acknowledged with the design of the current study. No demographic information about the participants was collected and therefore the sample could not be matched according to their background. This was due to constraints placed on the study by the British Army regarding publishing data on forces personnel. This barrier leads to a question over whether it is reasonable to generalise the results of this study to other groups and to learning environments. Questions could also be raised whether these findings apply to other drivers, for example non-forces personnel, and driving test categories, such as motor cars. A further limitation of the study was that learner attitudes, driving behaviour and safety outcomes were not assessed. The driving literature indicates that one of the problems with the current approaches to driver training is that they do not produce safer drivers, as accident rates

are still on the rise (National Road Safety Statistics, 2008; Clark et al., 2005; Senserrick & Haworth, 2005). In order to assess whether coaching helped produce safer drivers it was, therefore, important to have a measure of safety. For example, Boorman (1999) found that an advanced training programme improved fleet performance and led to a reduction in accident rates post-training. Similarly, Stanton et al. (2007) measured driving attitudes in the coaching and non-coached group using the 'Montag Driving Internality Externality (MDIE) LOC Questionnaire' developed by Montag and Comrey (1987, cited in Stanton et al., 2007, p.1214). Future coaching and driving studies should, therefore, assess knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour administering a similar questionnaire pre- and post-training or through assessing driver behaviour or instructor, as well as assessing accident rates as a measure of safety. Further research is underway on driver accident rates and also of instructor behaviour following coaching training using the GDE matrix within a police driving context, and data is currently being analysed on a fourth study involving 'professional drivers' and accident rates (initiated by the same research team).

Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the effectiveness and efficiency of coaching as an adult method of learning with a driver learning context. The study provides evidence that coaching is a more effective learning methodology than instruction for driver training. Further research is needed to explore whether coaching may be a more effective methodology than instruction for other aspects of learning, such as leadership development or presentation skills. We believe this study provides is a useful contribution to the debate on both driver development and the wider use of coaching in adult learning.

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Paper

What is personality change coaching and why is it important?

Lesley S. Martin, Lindsay G. Oades & Peter Caputi

Purpose: *This article explores the concept of coaching for personality change. The aim is to evaluate the feasibility and desirability of personality change, clarify how this fits with coaching, identify a suitable personality model and measure, and propose directions for future research.*

Method: *The above aim is achieved through reference to the literature around the following questions: Is personality change possible and desirable? Is coaching a suitable medium to achieve this? How does this fit with and expand upon the current coaching literature? What personality model and inventory would suit this process? What coaching resources and future research are needed?*

Results: *A growing body of research suggests that personality can change in the short-term in response to life events, in different social environments and via medical, therapeutic and coaching interventions. Although intentional and targeted personality change research is limited, these findings suggest it is indeed possible. As even small positive changes in personality have been associated with widespread benefits, personality change coaching appears worthwhile. One-to-one coaching provides an environment conducive to exploring this, in populations without major psychopathology.*

Conclusions: *Personality change coaching appears both desirable and possible in a one-to-one coaching setting. However, further research is needed to develop practitioner resources, test the hypothesis that coaching can achieve such change, understand and manage factors that influence change, and explore the experience from a client and coach perspective.*

Keywords: *Personality; change; coaching; trait; well-being; Five-Factor model; Big-Five.*

A DOMINANT PARADIGM within psychology is that personality traits are resistant to change, without long-term intensive interventions (McCrae & Costa, 2003). This article challenges this assumption, and suggests that individual personality change appears both possible and desirable within a one-to-one coaching context, where client motivation exists. This argument is developed through discussing the following questions: (a) Is personality amenable to change via shorter-term interventions? (b) If change appears possible, is it desirable? (c) If it appears both possible and desirable, how does this fit with coaching? (d) What personality model and inventory would suit this process? and (e) What future research is needed to develop this concept?

1.1 Is personality change possible?

As intentional and targeted personality change through coaching (i.e. where the client selects and endeavours to change specific traits or facets) has not been systematically studied, some indication of its likely success can be ascertained by reviewing the literature around personality change versus stability: (a) in response to life events; (b) in different social contexts; and (c) in response to medical, therapy and coaching interventions. The hotly debated question of whether personality changes significantly over the life span is not discussed, as this article is evaluating change over a shorter time frame. It is also beyond the scope of this article to explore causal factors of personality. However, Funder (2007) provides a review of this personality literature and proposes that biology, behaviour and social environments

all interact, and that in order to understand one we need to explore each. The following discussion focuses on the question of whether personality can change.

A recent study by Robinson (2009) found that personality changes occurred on each of the five Big-Five traits as people moved between different social contexts (e.g. parents, friends and work colleagues). Roberts and Mroczek (2008) found individual differences in patterns of trait change in response to a range of life experiences (e.g. significant career and relationship events). These findings led the authors to conclude, 'that personality is not set like plaster at any point in the life course' (p.33). Further support for the plasticity of personality is provided by the growing evidence that biological factors influence personality, and that neurochemical and neurobiologial changes achieved through (e.g. psychiatric interventions) are associated with changes in personality (Bloch & Singh, 2007; Funder, 2007). The limited literature on targeted trait change to date has focused on the impact of psychological interventions on problematic traits in individuals with personality disorders. Although this is a different population to coaching, focusing on limited types of traits, it nevertheless provides evidence in support of the plasticity of personality.

A review of the literature on stability versus change in personality disorders (Clark, 2009) concluded that maladaptive personality traits are more flexible and amenable to change than is suggested by the 'standard view' (p.27) (i.e. that maladaptive personality traits are relatively stable and unchanging). A 12-week study of 681 depressed individuals found that therapy for depression benefitted individuals with three separate diagnosed personality disorders as much as it benefited those without these dispositions (contrary to the study's hypothesis) and that it ameliorated the dysfunctional personality traits in the process (Maddux et al., 2009). These findings suggest that even more extreme dysfunctional personality traits respond to psychological interventions, and that meaningful changes in problematic traits (e.g. depression) can be achieved in as little of 12 weeks.

A number of studies suggest that shorter-term psychological and drug interventions result in personality change, even when personality change is not the focus of the interventions. For example, trait changes were evident during a six-week outpatient drug rehabilitation programme study (Piedmont & Ciarrocchi, 1999), and in both an eight-week cognitive therapy group and an eight-week anti-depressant treatment group for depression (Tang et al., 2009). A coaching study (Spence & Grant, 2005) found that the openness-to-experience trait increased during 10 weekly coaching sessions (for both peer and professional coaching group participants), while it reduced for control group participants.

Finally, a longitudinal study of 8625 Australians using data collected in 2005 and 2009 explored whether individuals' personalities changed significantly during this period, and whether such change was meaningful, in terms of life satisfaction (Boyce, Wood & Powdthavee, in press). The authors concluded that although personality was traditionally considered as stable and non-changing, it did in fact change over time, and that such change was at least as great as changes in external influences on life satisfaction (e.g. getting married, being employed, and earning more money).

In combination these studies provide support for the concept that personality can change in response to a range of variables, over relatively short periods of time. Although only one study of personality change in a coaching context was identified (Spence & Grant, 2005), the evidence points to intentional targeted change via coaching being achievable. As these findings suggest that personality is likely to be amenable to targeted change, it is useful to consider whether such change is important enough to warrant research exploration. In other words, is changing personality likely to lead to significant benefits?

1.2 Is personality change desirable?

A meta-analysis conducted by Ozer and Benet-Martinez (2006) suggested the answer to this question is likely to be affirmative. The authors found that even small changes on any of the Big-Five personality traits were associated with widespread impacts across life domains. For example, higher levels of the trait extraversion were associated with positive changes in subjective well-being, existential well-being, gratitude, inspiration, longevity, coping, resilience, depression (–), personality disorder (–), and majority cultural identity at an individual level; peer acceptance and friendship, dating variety, attractiveness, and satisfaction with romantic relationships at an interpersonal level; social and enterprising interests, satisfaction, commitment and involvement at an occupational/performance level; and volunteerism and leadership at a community level. This suggests that if coaching interventions could increase this trait in motivated to change individuals with low scores on extraversion, then benefits are likely to accrue across a range of life domains.

Possibly the trait with the largest potential impact, not only for individuals, but for wider society, is emotionality (neuroticism). An analysis of the economic costs of high emotionality was published in the *Archives of General Psychiatry* (Cuijpers et al., 2010), based on data from over 7000 participants in a Netherlands Mental Health Survey and Incidence Study. The study found that those individuals with high scores on emotionality were more vulnerable to a host of mental disorders (e.g. depression, anxiety disorders, schizophrenia, eating disorders and personality disorders) and physical disorders (e.g. medically unfounded physical complaints, cardiovascular disease, asthma, and irritable bowel syndrome) resulting in an enormous impact on (and economic costs to) the health system. Their analysis found that the incremental costs (per one million people) of the highest 25 per cent of scorers on emotionality resulted in US$1.393 billion in health care costs. This was two-and-a-half-times the incremental cost of diagnosed mental health disorders (US$585 million). The study concluded:

> 'The economic costs of neuroticism are enormous and exceed those of common mental disorders. We should start thinking about interventions that focus not on each of the specific negative outcomes of neuroticism, but rather on the starting point itself.' (p.1086)

Research findings on each of the other broad traits, especially conscientiousness, similarly suggest that huge benefits would accrue from identifying processes and interventions that can positively change certain personality traits (Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006).

A number of studies have explored personality in terms of life-satisfaction, a topic of interest to many coaches. Diener and Lucas (1999) found that personality had a major influence on subjective well-being. Consistent with this theme, Wood, Joseph and Maltby (2008) found that changes in personality accounts for 35 per cent of between-person variance in life satisfaction. More recently, a longitudinal study by Boyce et al. (in press) found that 'personality can change and that such change is important and meaningful', and that 'personality is the strongest and most consistent predictor of high subjective well-being' (p.2). Boyce further proposes that identifying ways of changing personality traits is likely to be more productive in terms of improving life satisfaction and well-being than endeavouring to change individuals demographic characteristics (e.g. earning more money, getting a job or getting married).

In combination these studies provide strong support for the benefits of exploring personality change interventions. They suggest that if problematic traits (as perceived by the client) can be identified and changed, then widespread benefits can be achieved. More specifically, individuals are likely to be more satisfied with life, have better relationships, contribute more to their community more, have better employ-

ment outcomes, and have better mental and physical health (Boyce, et al., in press; Diener & Lucas, 1999; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006; Wood, et al., 2008). The proposition that personality change is both possible and desirable raises the question of how this fits with coaching.

1.3 How does personality change 'fit' with coaching?

This section explores, firstly, what personality change coaching involves, and how this extends the current personality coaching literature and practice. Secondly, it explores the relative fit of coaching versus counselling/therapy for personality change interventions, and the merits of one-to-one versus group processes?

1.3.1 What is personality change coaching?

The concept of personality change coaching would logically involve taking a measure of the client's personality traits and discussing the profile with the client, with a view to identifying problematic facets/traits that the client wishes to change. For example, a client may wish to reduce facet Anger or increase facet Assertiveness, in order to improve relationships and work prospects.

The literature suggests that consideration of personality in coaching to date has focused primarily around understanding and ameliorating problematic behaviours, rather than changing facets/traits themselves. For example, McCormick and Burch (2008) proposed that personality is a predictor of behaviour, and that profiling of personality provides, 'a useful framework for behavioural change in executive coaching' (p.267). However, he suggested the aim is not to change personality. Hicks and McCracken (2009) similarly discuss problematic behaviours that can flow from dysfunctional personality traits, and suggested a range of strategies to coach the 'abrasive personality'.

Sperry (1997) explored the relationship between temperament, character and personality in a leadership context, and the practical application of such measures to assist executive coaching of individuals with difficult temperaments (based on a psychobiological model of temperament and character developed by Cloninger, Svrakic and Pryzbeck, (1993)). Judge, Piccolo and Kosalka (2009) reviewed the literature on personality traits and leadership, and proposed extending the consideration of personality to include the positive and negative aspects of both 'bright side' and 'dark side' traits. Hughes (2002) discussed strategies used by 14 psychologists to coach clients with narcissistic personality features. In this study she concluded that shorter-term coaching of such clients would rely on behavioural strategies, and would realistically aim for more 'superficial' change, rather than enduring trait change.

Often, the assumption underlying these approaches is that personality predicts behaviour and that through understanding personality we can more effectively understand and target changes in behaviour (though changes in cognitions and feeling are also considered). No literature was identified that explored in a systematic way whether personality change is possible and/or desirable in a coaching context. Furthermore, the vast majority of personality coaching literature is based on case studies, leaving a gap in the empirical literature around targeted and measured personality change in a coaching context.

Given that the psychological and economic literature suggests that personality can change, and that positive movements in personality are associated with wide ranging benefits, this article proposes taking coaching one step further by exploring trait change, and measuring such change in the process. Trait change goals can provide a unifying framework for coaching interventions designed to modify (e.g. behaviours, cognitions and feelings). Key benefits of targeting trait change would be provision of this over-arching framework for coaching interventions, increased focus on more enduring changes in behaviours, cognitions

and feelings, and inclusion of objective measurement of such changes. As significant changes in traits have been demonstrated in clients with extreme personality dysfunction in 12 weeks (Maddux et al., 2009), it does not seem unrealistic to explore trait change in coaching populations without major psychopathology in similar time frames.

1.3.2 Coaching versus counselling/therapy for change processes?

If personality change appears to be a worthwhile endeavour, then the most appropriate approach for facilitating this goal needs evaluation. The following section proposes that: (a) both coaching and counselling/therapy have a strong evidence base as effective change mechanisms; (b) the boundaries between coaching and counselling/therapy are not clear cut; (c) that personality change could arguably fit with either; and (d) whether coaching or counselling/therapy is utilised will be influenced by the nature of the client/research participant, and the intervention style adopted. It suggests that for clients without major psychopathology, personality change interventions may be more consistent with coaching, and a 'coaching' approach may offer certain advantages. These arguments are presented in turn.

Evidence base for coaching and counselling/therapy. In evaluating the merits of coaching versus counselling/therapy, the literature supporting their effectiveness as change processes needs consideration. Findings of coaching outcome studies suggest that coaching is an effective change mechanism in a range of different formats and contexts (Grant et al., 2010; Greif, 2007; Spence & Grant, 2005). However, counselling/therapy also has an impressive body of research validating its efficacy in change processes (Lambert & Ogles, 2004; Newnham & Page, 2010). These findings suggest that both coaching and counselling/therapy could potentially be effective professions for facilitating personality change.

Boundaries between coaching and counselling/therapy. The literature proposes that the boundaries between coaching and counselling/therapy are currently unclear, and that there is a high level of overlap between coaching and counselling/therapy approaches used (Grant, et al., 2010; Griffiths & Campbell, 2008; Maxwell, 2009). Nevertheless it is widely recognised that coaching is not the treatment of choice for major psychopathology, and disorders requiring longer-term treatment (e.g. Axis II disorders, significant current alcohol and drug abuse, active psychosis or bipolar disorder). This indicates that this group would not be suitable candidates for shorter-term personality change interventions. However, a number of studies propose that lesser levels of psychological dysfunction or distress are commonly dealt with in coaching, and that this practice enhances the coaching process (Cavanagh & Grant, 2004; Griffiths & Campbell, 2008; Maxwell, 2009). This suggests that personality change could be facilitated in either a coaching or counselling/therapy setting, even if goals focus on emotionality facets, provided longer-term major psycho-pathology is excluded.

Factors suggesting a coaching relationship. Determining where to locate personality change interventions is, therefore, not clear cut, and is likely to depend on the clients/research participants, and the focus of change interventions employed. Nevertheless, Williams (2003) suggested that the following factors help differential coaching from counselling/therapy: (a) goal achievement focus versus psychopathology focus; (b) 'learning/development model' focus versus 'diagnostic medical model' focus; and (c) the degree of collaboration in the process. These considerations are discussed in turn.

According to Williams (2003), coaching is generally viewed as being more goal-oriented than counselling/therapy. As the primary focus of personality change interventions would be on goal oriented trait change,

rather than identification of psychopathology, this suggests a coaching relationship. Psychological problems would be considered only as they relate to personality change goals. Williams further proposed that coaching more often employs a 'development/learning' model approach, while counselling/therapy more often employs a diagnostically focused 'medical model'. Personality change interventions are likely to focus more on growth and development, rather than diagnosing psychological problems, as most personality facets (24 of the 30) are not related to emotionality. Furthermore, diagnosis of psychopathology may not be helpful, even where reduction of emotionality facets is a goal. For example, efforts to reduce self-consciousness or impulsiveness are unlikely to benefit from a 'diagnosis'. Therefore, from this perspective, personality change interventions are more likely to align with coaching than counselling/therapy. Finally, Williams (2003) proposed that coaching is more collaborative. As personality change goals would logically be a highly collaborative process, with the client choosing personality change goals and collaboratively mapping their path forward, a coaching relationship is suggested.

Whereas the coaching versus counselling/therapy question remains somewhat murky, differentiating factors, noted by Williams (2003), suggest a coaching relationship may be preferable for clients without major psychopathology.

1.3.3 One-to-one versus group change progresses

The personal nature of personality profiles (e.g. revealing levels of depression and anxiety) suggests that group processes (e.g. peer-coaching) could be ethically problematic, as individuals may not wish to share sensitive aspects of their profile with other relatively untrained group members. Furthermore, it would be difficult to focus on the unique profile and goals of individuals in group settings. The complexity of personality profiles, and the training required in their interpretation, suggests that it would not be well suited to self-coaching or peer-coaching. However one-to-one coaching with a trained professional enables the tailoring of personality change interventions to the unique profile and goals of the individual, and provides a safer and more private environment. This suggests that one-to-one coaching would be preferable. The processes that personality change coaching involve are described below.

1.4 Which personality model and inventory?

A pre-requisite to investigating personality change is determining what approach or theory of personality (and related measures) is to be adopted. The literature includes a host of different ways of looking at personality (e.g. the trait approach based on individual differences, the biological approach based on physical mechanisms, learning and cognitive approaches underpinning behavioural acquisition and change, the humanistic approach based on conscious free will, and the psychodynamic approach based on unconscious processes) (Funder, 2007). It is beyond the scope of this article to explore and evaluate these alternatives. However, a comprehensive overview of this literature is provided in Funder. Suffice to say coaches use a range of different personality approaches and tools to assess and work with personality, and many of these could potentially be used for exploring personality change. However, the Big-Five/Five-Factor* model of personality, based on the trait approach, is considered by most authors to be the most investigated and validated model of personality currently available (Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006; Piedmont, 1998).

The origins of the Big-Five model of personality date back to the 1930s, when

* The terms Big-Five and Five-Factor model are used interchangeable. Different authors use different terms. For example, Costa and McCrae use the term Five-Factor in their literature, and in respect to findings based on their inventory, the NEO PI-R.

Allport and Odbert (1936) identified some 18,000 words in an English language dictionary that described individual characteristics. With this as a foundation, a series of research studies attempted to distil this list to a manageable number of meaningful clusters that most effectively differentiated one individual from another. In the 1980s, a consensus began to emerge on a Five-Factor model (Costa & McCrae, 1997). Support for the Five-Factor model has been further strengthened by a series of meta-analyses confirming the Big-Five's predictive validity in terms of behaviours and life outcomes across a wide range of contexts (e.g. Barrick et al., 2001; Ones et al., 2007; Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006). Recently, Smewing and McDowell (2010) proposed that the Five-Factor model is now the 'most widely accepted general model of personality used today' (p.86). Its wide acceptance and sound predictive validity suggest client personality profiles generated from this model provide sound material to reflect on, in terms of life outcomes to date, and how the client's traits might help or hinder future goal attainment.

The Five-Factor model of personality suggests that personality can best be organised under five broad traits: Emotional Stability (or Neuroticism), Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness (or similar equivalents) (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Several inventories are currently available for measuring Big Five/Five-Factor traits and facets. Piedmont (1998) proposed that the NEO PI-R (Costa et al., 2000) is 'rapidly becoming one of the most popular measures of normal personality in the research literature' (p.31). He further proposed that the psychometric properties (including predictive validity) of this inventory are 'uniformly favourable' (p.31), as evidenced by empirical reviews (Botwin, 1995; Juni, 1995; Piedmont, 1997). These factors suggest that the NEO PI-R (or a sound proxy) provides a reputable measure for exploring personality change.

The NEO PI-R further divides the five broad traits into 30 sub-traits (facets). For example, the broad trait Conscientiousness is divided into six facets (i.e. Competence, Order, Dutifulness, Achievement striving, Self-discipline and Deliberation). Measurement at the more detailed facet level provides the opportunity for building up a more detailed picture of the individual's personality patterns, and allows for more accurate targeting of personality change interventions. For example, the trait Emotionality consists of the following facets; Anxiety, Anger, Depression, Self-conscientiousness, Impulsiveness and Vulnerability. Whereas it is useful to know the overall emotionality of an individual, it is also important to understand how the different individual facets of emotionality contribute to this, as facilitating change on individual facets is likely to require different kinds of coaching interventions. It is, therefore, suggested that both a trait and facets level profile be used for assessing personality, and that personality change goals focus primarily on the facet level.

1.5 Conclusions and future research directions

Although shorter-term targeted personality change has not been systematically studied in a coaching context, the related literature suggests it is both possible and desirable, in a one-to-one coaching context. This article proposed that such coaching provides the opportunity to extend existing coaching practice in positive ways, through providing a unifying framework, and focusing on (and objectively measuring) more enduring trait/facet change. The absence of studies directly exploring this issue support the need for research to: (a) develop evidence based coaching resources designed to facilitate personality change; (b) establish whether coaching can facilitate personality change in client chosen facets; and (c) clarify what factors affect personality change, and how these can best be managed in a coaching context. Furthermore, it would be useful to explore if change does in fact occur, the timing of such change over a series of coaching sessions, and whether it endures beyond the coaching period.

Further development of the literature in these areas offers the opportunity for coaching to provide benefits to the individual across life domains, and to the wider society via (e.g. reduced health costs). From a coaching perspective, such research would expand this literature into a new arena (i.e. targeted personality change). For the discipline of psychology, it offers the potential for its practitioners to contribute a unique skills set, based on their training in personality, psychometrics and skills in dealing with psychological issues relating to emotionality facets.

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Paper

Back to basics II: How the research on attachment and reflective-self function is relevant for coaches and consultants today

Erik de Haan

Purpose: *In this study the phenomenon of reflective-self function is explored in terms of its historical understanding – just as the phenomenon of transference was explored in terms of its historical understanding in an earlier instalment (De Haan, 2011). As will be shown, reflective-self function is not only demonstrably linked to secure attachment, it is increasingly held to be at the core of the process and outcome of helping conversations.*

Design/Methodology: *This contribution offers a historical summary of the main breakthroughs in attachment research, showing how (in-)secure attachment can be measured reliably and how it can be linked to reflective-self function – the capacity to mentalise. This capacity is further elucidated with the help of three examples from executive coaching and team coaching.*

Results: *It is shown how reflective-self function is related to secure attachment, and how mentalising can be used to co-create meaning, insight and understanding with clients.*

Conclusions: *Mentalising, as understood by reflective-self function, is a helpful way into awareness, insight and empathetic understanding. Coaches would do well to foster this function within themselves and their clients.*

Keywords: *Reflective-self function; mentalisation; insight; empathy; coaching outcome; consulting; history of psychoanalysis and attachment.*

Mentalisation as both active ingredient and outcome

EXECUTIVE COACHING appears established as an effective intervention (Grant et al., 2010; De Haan et al., 2012). Studies of coaching outcome are now less focused on demonstrating general effectiveness, as this is deemed to have been sufficiently demonstrated within the limitations of not being able to conduct large-scale randomised controlled trials. Instead, coaching effectiveness studies are now more focused on 'active ingredients', that is, on the aspects of the coaching contract which are most conducive to effectiveness (Stewart et al., 2008; Boyce, Jackson & Neal, 2010; De Haan, Curd & Culpin, 2011).

In order to understand the value of coaching interventions it is important not just to have indications of positive overall outcome, but also to know more about: (1) what coaching delivers; and (2) whom coaching delivers to:

1. Assuming the significance of coaching outcome, what is the nature of that outcome? It is often suggested that coaching helps with focus and with the right action (e.g. Whitmore, 1992). Similar to sports coaching, executive coaching would then enhance performance itself, or the quality of the effort, without affecting issues like preparation or motivation. Others, who place executive-coaching interventions more in the tradition of 'helping conversations', see coaching as a way to bring out hidden potential (e.g. O'Neill, 2000).

2. Which clients, with what challenges, roles and personalities, would benefit most from coaching? And perhaps more importantly: how can we help diverse clients with a broad range of objectives, personalities and motivation, to maximise the benefit they take from coaching conversations? This is the question of 'coachability' (De Meuse, Dai & Hallenbeck, 2010).

So what is it that we as coaches 'deliver' to our clients? What outcome do coaching clients particularly value about the coaching intervention? There is some evidence that coaching outcomes that clients most mention are around new insight and understanding, or in their own words, around new 'realisations' (De Haan et al., 2010). Different outcomes of coaching that have been proposed are (see Laske, 2004):

1. Support for reflection, producing new motivation and coping;
2. Support for sense making, producing new realisations, insight and understanding;
3. Support for new behaviour, producing new focus, energy and action orientation.

These three possible outcomes may very well overlap, may all be present at the same time and may all lead to enhanced performance in the leadership role.

The second one of these, new realisation and insight, has a very long tradition in helping conversations. At the very beginning of the tradition of helping conversations, Breuer and Freud (1885) emphasised understanding and insight. The founder of non-directive therapy, Carl Rogers (1961) did not fundamentally challenge Freud's hypothesis about the mutative power of understanding and insight. Rogers insisted that such new understanding should come from within, and can be fostered by empathic understanding. Cognitive and behavioural psychologists also recognise the importance of insight, albeit that they aim to correct distortions of reality based on erroneous premises by supplanting them with more realistic cognitions and insight (Beck, 1975). All three main schools of psychotherapy (psychoanalytic, person-centred and cognitive-behavioural) therefore agree on the importance of (mutative, realistic, actionable) *insight*. In newer approaches, such as mindfulness in coaching (Passmore & Marianetti, 2007), we see the same interest in awareness and insight as a potentially crucial ingredient.

This article gives an overview of the research into the 'reflective-self', an idea that has the power to integrate and refocus schools of thinking about insight and which holds the promise of:

1. Offering a hypothesis regarding 'coachability';
2. Providing the first empirical backing for the age-old hypothesis that understanding and insight might be helpful; and
3. Anchoring these empirical results in well-researched attachment behaviour.

The idea of the reflective-self has immediate appeal for coaches and psychotherapists alike (see Grant, 2001; Van der Loo, 2007; Wallin, 2007; Drake, 2009). This might be because it not only gives a hypothesis regarding an important 'active ingredient' in helping conversations, but at the same time proposes a new formulation of 'good' outcome of helping conversations. The hypothesis of reflective-self function brings together attachment theory and psychoanalysis; neuroscience and cognitive psychology[1]; and also psychotherapist and patient,

[1] It is worthwhile to compare the cognitive-psychology research on 'theory of mind' with the neuroscientific findings of so-called 'mirror neurons'. The former, theory of mind, has been defined by cognitive ethologists and psychologists as the ability to attribute mental states – beliefs, intents, desires, pretending, knowledge, etc. – to oneself and others and to understand that others have beliefs, desires and intentions that are different from one's own (Premack & Woodruff, 1978). The latter, mirror neurons, have provided support for the neural basis of theory of mind. Research by Gallese and Goldman (1998) has shown that some sensorimotor neurons, which are referred to as mirror neurons, first discovered in the premotor cortex of rhesus monkeys, can fire when a monkey performs an action but also when the monkey views another agent carrying out the same task.

or coach and client – suggesting a single, quantifiable ingredient that is wholesome for both. Wholesome in the sense that the client develops his or her security in relationships or attachment styles, whilst at the same time the executive coach develops his or her 'reflective-self' as a helpful way of holding the client in mind. On top of this, there is the appeal of quantitative research: the fact that this notion has come out of quantitative empirical research which can be and has been replicated. The rare appeal of this function of the mind is rarely touched on in coaching literature. Nevertheless, it is important to understand both the genesis of the concept and the claims that can be made regarding its role in the effectiveness of coaching.

Background: Empirical investigations in psychology

Psychology as the science of mind and behaviour is the study of the single most complex 'system' that we know – the human central nervous system – and how it interacts with its environment. We have very few definitive and demonstrated facts about the psyche. Clearly this science is still in its infancy and it is no surprise that most psychological texts occupy themselves with competing theories, models and perspectives on mind and behaviour. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the field of psychotherapy, which deals with the treatment of mental disorder by psychological means and therefore mostly with higher-order functions of the mind such as personality, mood, communication, meaning-making, adaptation and lifestyle. This state of affairs makes it all too easy to forget that there have indeed been many valuable and universally recognised contributions to making psychology a 'proper' empirical science.

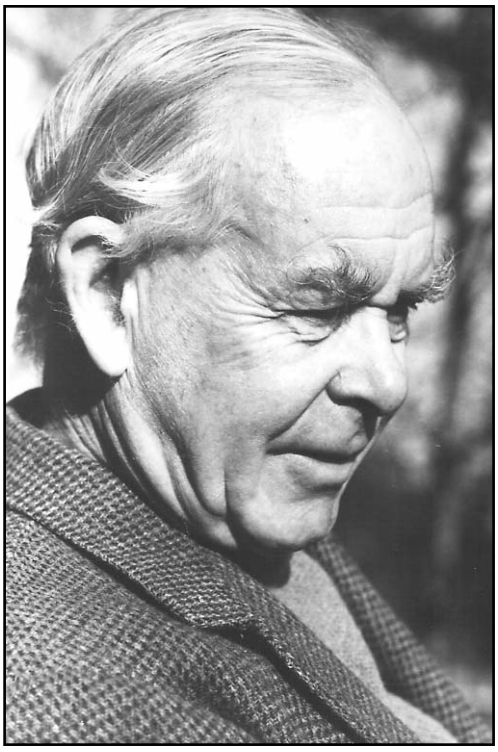
Freud, as a neurologist, thought that ultimately psychology as an empirical science would base itself on our understanding of the inner workings of the central nervous system, that is, on neuroscience or 'brain science' (Freud, 1915). He was less interested in another 19th century development, pioneered by Fechner (1860), Wundt (1862) and Von Helmholtz (1867), which focused on the study of 'psychophysical' evidence, evidence from the interaction between the mind and its environment(s). These internal and external, intra-psychic and interactional perspectives are still very much alive today, and both inform the field of executive coaching (see Rock & Page, 2009, for links between brain science and coaching, and Stober & Grant, 2006, or De Haan, 2008, for links between psychophysical experiments and coaching).

It should be noted that this distinction between the interpersonal and the intra-psychic is nowadays, to an extent, a difference in emphasis. Some modern psychophysical studies measure brain activity concurrently and modern brain research looks at the central nervous system *in vivo*, that is, whilst it interacts with its environment in the shape of 'controlled stimuli'. As in any living system, internal phenomena and external interaction patterns are intimately related and mutually dependent. Findings from both fields should eventually complement and support one another.

Empirical tools in attachment research

According to Bretherton (1985, p.14), John Bowlby made two distinct and important contributions to psychology. The first contribution is the hypothesis of *attachment* as a core, biologically based instinct, which informs behavioural and motivational drives. The second is that he theorised that individual differences in the functioning of this 'attachment system' are linked to individual *working models* of self and others (See also Bowlby, 1969, 1973). Both these ideas received much more support when they were operationalised in reliable psychophysical tests which led to further quantitative study. Here is a brief summary of these tests.

The first hypothesis was operationalised by Mary Ainsworth in 1978 with her design of the 'Strange Situation' experiment,



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a 20-minute experience for caregiver and child where the caregiver and a stranger enter and leave the room recreating the flow of familiar and unfamiliar presences in the child's life. The Strange Situation experiment has reliably demonstrated three different attachment behaviours (Ainsworth et al., 1978):

1. *Secure attachment.* The behaviour of the child during separation and upon reunion is characterised by confidence that the caregiver will be comforting.
2. *Avoidant attachment.* The behaviour of the child during separation and upon reunion is characterised by lack of confidence in the caregiver's availability, and thus by attempts to control or downplay emotional arousal and to show limited distress and disinterest.
3. *Ambivalent attachment.* The behaviour of the child during separation and upon reunion is characterised by attempts to exaggerate or up-regulate affect in order to secure the caregiver's attention.

Later, Main and Solomon (1990), upon reviewing hundreds of hours of videotape of Strange Situations, were able to add a fourth attachment style, which may accompany any of the other three attachment behaviours, that is, an attachment behaviour which can be demonstrated in parallel to the other attachment behaviours:

4. *Disorganised attachment.* The behaviour of the child during separation and upon reunion is characterised by seeking proximity in strange and disoriented ways, such as backwards approach, freezing, staring and moving sideways.

Bowlby's second hypothesis above was supported in the work of Mary Main and collaborators, when they created the 'Adult Attachment Interview' (AAI; George, Kaplan & Main, 1984), which provided a reliable way to assess an adult's internal representation of attachment. The interview consists of a prompted narrative about childhood including sensitive issues such as separation and loss. The protocols are transcribed and classified according to a coding system that privileges narrative style over content. The dimension of *coherence* (comprising: substantiation of evidence, succinctness yet completeness, relevance to the topic at hand, clarity and orderliness) can be associated with

1. Attachment security (the *'Autonomous'* classification): high coherence about attachment.

Protocols with low coherence can be ordered in three patterns:

2. *'Dismissing'*: idealising or derogatory about attachment
3. *'Preoccupied'*: angry or passive about attachment
4. *'Unresolved'*: unresolved in relation to loss and abuse.

These four classifications map both conceptually and intuitively onto the four attachment categories arising from the Strange

Situation. Moreover, AAI classifications are stable over several months and independent of various IQ ratings, autobiographical memory, social desirability, interviewer effects and general discourse styles. In fact, both instruments have high validity and high (short-term) reliability, so experiments soon began to test empirically how well they predict each other. By 1995 it was established through an 18-sample meta-analysis that the caregiver's AAI narrative coding predicts the infant's Strange Situation response to a considerable extent (Van IJzendoorn, 1995). Moreover, Van IJzendoorn, Juffer and Duyvesteyn (1995) have shown that support interventions aimed at changing the mother's sensitivity or attachment representation have a significant positive effect on infant security as measured by the Strange Situation.

As Drake (2009) has pointed out, clients' narratives in coaching can also be appreciated in terms of their internal coherence, particularly as that will give a coach a 'window' into the wider narrative patterns in their work and life. Drake continues to suggest that 'the level of coherence in clients' stories – about the past, present and future – often reflects leaders' own attachment experience and the way in which they lead and interact with others at work'. It seems plausible that secure and autonomous leaders have more coherent life stories, and that insecure leaders are more at a loss for coherence in their storytelling. Part of a coach's job is to study coherence, to look out for gaps in storytelling and to inquire thoughtfully into the relationships between aspects of clients' narratives.

Both Ainsworth's Strange Situation and Main's Adult Attachment Interview made reliable empirical research possible in the field of attachment which will be discussed next, including Fonagy's discovery of the importance of reflective-self function.

Empirical findings of attachment research

Here is a short summary of findings from attachment research, limited to conclusions which are well-demonstrated and replicated through various studies.

The most impressive empirical contribution from attachment theory has to be confirmation that psychopathology is correlated from one generation to the next, or, in other words, that we have convincing evidence now that some psychopathology gets passed on between generations. There are clear, demonstrable correlations between the attachment patterns described by the mother during the AAI and the attachment patterns that can be found in the infant with the help of the Strange Situation experiment. The correlation can be demonstrated when the AAI is taken contemporaneously with the toddler's Strange Situation experiment (Van IJzendoorn, 1995; this has a combined effect size of d=1.06, a strong effect); when the AAI of each parent is collected and coded before the birth of the child and the infant's Strange-Situation classification is done at 12 and 18 months (Steele, Steele & Fonagy, 1996); and also when a parent's AAI coding is correlated with the child's security of attachment measured five years previously (Main, Kaplan & Cassidy, 1985). Hence, the strong concordance that is found (between 75 per cent and 80 per cent on each pair of attachment categories), persists in both directions and over at least a six-year time gap. These findings lend support to Freud's hypothesis (Freud, 1940) of the intergenerational spread of psychopathology.

Another notion of Freud that has been supported by attachment research is that of the 'repetition compulsion' (Freud, 1920), that is, the suggestion that those who do not actively remember and come to terms with their past are destined (or more likely) to repeat it. Fonagy et al. (1994) demonstrate with a group of relatively deprived mothers that they have a much higher chance of securely attached infants if their capacity to

reflect on mental states (mentalisation), operationalised by reflective-self function, is higher.

Interestingly, these findings can also be linked to other psychophysical findings, namely those coming from meta-analyses of psychotherapy outcome studies. These meta-analyses have demonstrated a surprisingly small contribution coming from the specific model or psychotherapeutic approach, and are much more supportive of so-called 'common factors' (factors common to all approaches, as suggested by Rosenzweig, 1936; see Wampold, 2001) as the 'active ingredients' in psychotherapeutic work. One of these common factors is the opportunity that all psychotherapy offers to reflect on and think through challenges, symptoms and complaints. Investigators have distinguished six broad 'areas of commonality' amongst the various approaches to psychotherapy: Relationship-related factors; Client-related factors; Therapist-related factors; Change-related factors; Structure-related factors; and External factors outside therapy (Grencavage & Norcross, 1990). Obviously, secure attachment, coherence and reflectivity are common factors in the empirical sense understood by general outcome research. Fonagy and Bateman (2006) even claim that this may be *the* core active ingredient of all psychotherapy: 'It is possible that psychotherapy in general is effective because it arouses the attachment system at the same time it applies interpersonal demands which require the patient to mentalise'.

'Secure attachment' is often linked with 'successful containment' (Bion, 1963) and is then taken by many as a measure of 'psychological health'. It is important to point out, as Fonagy (2001) does, that the evidence linking early secure attachment with a healthy or balanced life is not strong. One needs to be reminded that the demonstration of predictive power of any psychological context or relationship over the course of decades is extremely tenuous and rarely achieved.

Notions of 'the reflective-self' in attachment research

Joyce McDougal (1978) has said that in early childhood the 'mother functions as the baby's thinking system'. This notion of mothering as a containing, mirroring and reflective activity is prevalent throughout the psychoanalytical literature[2] and lies at the root of the idea of the *reflective-self*.

The reflective-self function is an operationalisation of the capacity to 'mentalise' (Brown, 1977) or the capacity for 'metacognition' (Main & Goldwyn, 1990) or 'psychological mindedness' (Appelbaum, 1973; Grant, 2001). The reflective-self function measures an *individual's quality of understanding of another's intentionality*, and is measured on a nine-point Likert scale (Fonagy et al., 1998). The measure confounds understanding of self and other, so it applies in equal measure to reflections on one's own and someone else's intentionality. The measure also confounds 'true' understanding and 'plausible' understanding, or in other words 'accurate' and 'habitual' modes of understanding, as no measure for 'objective' or 'shared' understanding is introduced (Fonagy et al., 1991).

Reflective-self function is not the same as empathy, although empathetic understanding will have to be based on this capacity. Reflective-self function is more fundamental and refers to the capacity to understand what goes on within oneself or

[2] Fonagy (2001) points to the following precursors of the notion of the reflective-self: *Bindung*, the psychological capacity of linking (Freud, 1911); the *depressive position* as the recognition of hurt and suffering in another (Klein, 1945); the caregiver's *psychological understanding* of the infant in the emergence of the true self (Winnicott, 1962); *containment* as the capacity to transform internal events into tolerable and thinkable experiences (Bion, 1963); *mirroring* or mirror transference (Winnicott, 1967; Kohut, 1977); *psychological mindedness* (Appelbaum, 1973; Grant, 2001); and the idea of *mentalisation* as the function that links drive excitations with internal representations (Brown, 1977).

within another, whereas empathy refers to the understanding from within, the capacity to feel what another person feels, that is, to become sympathetic or 'in tune' with those feelings oneself.

Reflective-self function is also not the same as mindfulness, although mindfulness can be seen as a capacity that reflective-self function is based on or draws from. Mindfulness is a spiritual faculty in Buddhism which amounts to an attentive awareness of the reality of things and is therefore very close to being psychologically awake ('Buddha' literally means 'he that is awoken'). Mindfulness, therefore, extends from understanding psychological facts to natural phenomena and even spiritual experience. Nevertheless, mindfulness frequently refers to one's own bodily functions, sensations, feelings, thoughts, perceptions, and consciousness itself – in which case it would appear very akin to reflective-self function.

To summarise:

1. *Mindfulness* can be seen as attentive awareness of what is going on in the present moment;
2. *Reflective-self function*, within mindfulness, can be seen as being aware of what is going on in the minds of self and others, in the present moment;
3. *Empathy*, building on reflective-self function, can be seen as being aware of and sharing in states of mind as they occur to another person, in the present moment.

Peter Fonagy went on to explore cases of apparently diminished reflective-self function and described the slow and arduous growth of reflective-self function in psychotherapy, see, for example, Fonagy and Target, 1996 and 2000 (the first is a case-study with a 4-year-old girl described as resistant to the development of reflective-self function and the second with a severe borderline-personality-disorder patient in her mid-30s).

This work led to the development of 'mentalisation-based treatment' (MBT) as a treatment for borderline personality disorder. In MBT the aim of the psychotherapy becomes the development of reflective-self function (see, for example, Fonagy & Bateman, 2006). The therapist is encouraged to focus on the patient's current mental state with the aim of building up reflective-self function. The therapist is asked to avoid situations in which the patient talks of mental states that he or she cannot link to subjectively felt reality; and the inevitable enactments over the course of the treatment are not interpreted in terms of their unconscious meaning but in terms of the situation and affects immediately before the enactment (Fonagy & Bateman, 2006). In other words, the therapist uses mentalisation to further the patient's mentalisation, and the aim is not so much deep understanding as it is the recovery of mentalisation.

Another later development is the hypothesis that the biological need for secure attachment is precisely the development of reflective-self function as a 'representational system that has evolved, we may presume, to aid human survival' (Fonagy et al., 2004), which, therefore, claims that the prediction might be both ways: reflective-self function predicts secure attachment *and* secure attachment begets mentalisation.

These ideas around reflective-self function and mentalisation have been taken up in adult psychotherapy, where attachment styles are taken up as a metaphor for working-alliance patterns and therapy is conceptualised as a 'corrective emotional experience' that may help to develop and establish attachment security and reflective-self function (Wallin, 2007).

Applications in coaching practice

Attachment research seems to be particularly useful in coaching practice, as it helps us to model core relationships which are bound to enter into the coaching relationship. Firstly, through the phenomenon of transference (Freud, 1905; and see the companion article, De Haan, 2011), core formative relationships may enter the coaching setting. Secondly, the working

alliance as perceived by the client has long been shown to be an important ingredient for effectiveness (Horvath & Symonds, 1991). In other words, the coaching relationship has important precursors as well, which will enter the room through the phenomenon of positive transference, 'which is the true motive force of the patient's collaboration' (Freud, 1940). Thirdly, since the 1950s comparisons have been made between the presence of the helper in helping conversations and the presence of the first caregiver. In the concepts of a 'holding environment' (Winnicott, 1965) and of a 'container' with 'reverie' (Bion, 1963), we have very similar ideas that link the maternal environment (or relationship) to the coaching environment (or relationship). In other words, the helping relationship from a 'real' (non-transferential) perspective has also been intimately linked with the earliest core caring relationship. Fourthly, and not least of all, attachment relationships will invariably be the topic of coaching sessions, as clients will bring accounts, thoughts and concerns about both past and present intimate relationships. In summary, 'attachment' seems to figure at a multitude of levels in coaching, namely within: (1) transference patterns; (2) positive transference or working alliance; (3) the 'real' relationship; and (4) the content of the sessions.

One obvious area of application of attachment research is around what happens between client and coach as a result of beginnings, endings, breaks or alterations in the setting such as rescheduling, room changes, time changes or sponsor changes. In my experience some of the most emotionally charged moments have occurred around breaks and interruptions. Approaching termination, the definitive 'break' in coaching, raw emotions may recur. Many examples of what happens around breaks and ruptures in coaching have already been documented (Day et al., 2008), and it is clear from analysis that mentalising in the form of shared reflection about what is going on makes a crucial difference to the outcome of those ruptures *(ibidem)*.

Drake (2009) has proposed five 'narrative strategies' for building a strong attachment relationship in coaching conversations:

1. Provide clients with a sense that the coaching sessions are like a safe haven and a secure base from which they can explore issues which affect them.
2. Use the rapport that is gained to help clients take a good look at how they currently relate to others and reflect on these relationships, and where they might be biased.
3. Use the coaching sessions as a laboratory for the study of clients' attachment-related behaviour and for the experimentation with new, more secure, relational patterns.
4. Help clients to reflect on how their working models and their subsequent interpersonal patterns are rooted in childhood experiences with primary attachment figures.
5. Position yourself as a coach as a 'good enough' and available caregiver to help clients experience new attachment orientations and behaviours.

Here are some examples from my own practice which show attachment styles and the reflective-self function at work. Identifying details have been disguised.

1st Case Example

An investment manager in a global retail and investment bank comes to coaching following a number of performance conversations where it was suggested to him that his readiness for promotion to the next level would be contingent on improving his work relationships and that executive coaching might help to prepare him further. At the first phone call a meeting was arranged and another four-way meeting with his boss and the HR Director followed. In the first weeks of this coaching contract the senior banker sent performance-related and multi-party-feedback documentation to his executive coach, and he rang his coach several times on his mobile phone. His motivation seemed high. Objectives were established around growing

his self-confidence and his clarity as to what type of behaviour his senior team was expecting from him. Session 5, however, was postponed and then cancelled. Despite time spent together and veritable openness in sharing sensitive material, the sessions still felt aloof and as if lacking in rapport. The formal contract of six sessions was not completed. A certain distance and formality was present in all the sessions. When the coach raised this (perceived) aspect of the relationship, the client appeared puzzled. In the notes from the fourth session the coach concludes that she only appeared to be 'telling' the client about their relationship and about other relationships, without there being much real dialogue between them.

Reflection: It was one of those assignments with a client who was 'sent' by others, doesn't really know what to expect of coaching, and finds it quickly irrelevant as he fails to see a clear link between the 'off-line' conversations and his personal objectives. Coachability proves low and this is partly due to a limited capacity to mentalise oneself and one's (working) relationships. Or perhaps there was a withdrawal from the reflective-self function for fear of something painful emerging. The only strategy remaining for the coach appears to be to focus on the client's reflective-self directly, however hard it may be to make a change at that level. In other words, and in retrospect, the coach could have confronted the client more in terms of his limited representations of his working relationships, including the one with his coach. In my experience, this state of affairs occurs regularly in coaching relationships: intentions are on the whole positive, pressure and willingness to change are high, but shared moments of psychological understanding are so few and far between that outcome remains poor.

2nd Case Example

Eamonn was a Dean in a university. He was very agitated during the first session. About a year ago he started working with Fiona as his faculty director. They shared the responsibility for managing the faculty between them. Their collaboration has been, in his words, non-existent. He thought he might be intimidating her, as an academic and sharp intellectual, but perhaps even more by being a conscientious planner, who turns up for meetings early and is very results-oriented. Fiona appeared to him tense most of the time. She cancelled most of their meetings or appearances together, and avoided anything that had a semblance of a 'one-to-one' with him. She had other 'dotted line' responsibilities that appeared more important to her than her collaboration with Eamonn.

Now Eamonn was extremely dissatisfied with all of this, especially in view of great changes that needed to be implemented. He talked about going back to Ireland, taking up a role in Dublin, where he thought there would be 'more respect' and a better salary. He seemed visibly agitated and eventually spoke about his profound doubts that anything could be done. 'Nobody can change the way Fiona works', 'nobody in our organisation seems to take real responsibility for the changes that need to happen', etc. The coach jotted down the objectives for the work and suggested a higher frequency than he would normally do: once every three weeks.

The second session had Eamonn much more relaxed. He related successes in convincing some lead researchers and services that they would have to change their reporting structures. He reflected on his tendency to 'see the grass greener' on the other side of the road – and in grassy green Ireland – but he avoided the topic of 'Fiona' altogether. When the coach raised the topic in the second hour he just said that nothing had changed and that Fiona had managed to completely avoid him these three weeks, and that he perhaps had been guilty of avoiding too. He then expressed surprise that the next session would be already in three weeks' time: unlikely that he would have anything to talk about…

During the third session Eamonn talked at length about how as a dean he tried to 'lead from the front' and how he was very good at taking on precisely those battles that he could win. Again, in the last half-hour, the coach asked him about Fiona. Eamonn said Fiona and he were 'probably' working well together. They headed the faculty 'like two ships that pass each other in the night'. They turned up at different places, barely had a meeting

together and if they had, Fiona was always happy that he took the lead and explained 'what had to be done'. He was better at that anyway. Then he mentioned he had always been good at this 'co-management' and that he could usually empower others, but somehow Fiona could not be reached. He felt intimidated by her behaviour: she always determined where she would be, and in what capacity. He did his best to work around that, and they never spoke about their relationship. He was very clear that she would not say anything sincere if he'd ask her about how they worked together, and that she would try to avoid the topic together.

The coach then asked if Eamonn had encountered any other 'Fiona's' in his career – who she reminded him of? Initially he said 'nobody' and there were long silences. Suddenly, he related how recently at a party he had met an old fiancée, Cleona, Irish like himself. He was there with his wife and children. Cleona beamed into their room, looking like the successful business woman she was, full of 'executive polish'. She still had this powerful influence on him, this mixture of intimidation and attraction. She had always seemed aggrieved about something, 'hurt' by social gestures, as if someone had invaded her space – when in fact it was usually the other way round. She controls conversations he said, just like Fiona, who had been described to the coach in quite different terms up until now. For a good ten minutes Eamonn continued associating around his partner choices and similarities between Fiona and Cleona.

Here was a source of Eamonn's confusion, an intimidation and attraction that he couldn't escape. Eamonn started to understand the real 'infatuation' the two co-managers were having with each other, despite their coldness and distance. Another element that he discovered for the first time was the 'controlling' nature of their relationship, how he wanted Fiona to be at places where she wasn't, and how Fiona controlled him by citing stresses and other obligations.

Reflection: Here is a client with a well-developed reflective-self function and with high 'coachability'. In fact he started the contract by naming two other positive experiences with a coach. He also felt quickly secure in the sessions. Nevertheless, it does take coach and client some three sessions to get to the nub (or 'a' nub) of an issue and to arrive at reflections that matter to the client. At that point the coach enhances reflective-self function by inquiring more deeply into intimate relationships, and asking for a parallel experience in the client's life. There appears to be a breakthrough when the client can begin to see this relationship in terms of others in his life, and in terms of other important relationships in his life. It then takes several sessions more to think about the consequences of this new insight and about how to improve or reflect differently on the particular working relationship.

3rd Case Example

This consulting assignment started off with the request for facilitation of a consulting firm's away day, which would include the eight partners and the head of the secretariat, to mark the transition to a new managing partner. As so often with such events, both the wish to be entertained, to have fun, to chill out, and great anxieties about the unspoken concerns in the firm and whether they will be addressed or even voiced, were palpable from the outset. The team of partners established the main formal goal of the away day to be to achieve that frankness and fearlessness that they prided themselves on with their clients, internally.

The facilitator asked the members of the group to bring something, an object, which speaks to their relationship to the company. They took their turns freely – however, in terms of group dynamics, the order turned out to be 'reverse seniority'. When finally, one before last, the old managing partner spoke, she read a poem, something like 'should I stay or should I go?' and said that she wasn't clear about her next steps. At that point the head of the secretariat burst into tears, almost wails, which prompted embarrassed looks and eyes fixed to the ground from the consultants. The outgoing managing partner seemed to be emboldened and she consoled her.

Their query had been 'how to be more frank with each other internally?' In the afternoon the facilitator felt moved to challenge the assumptions in that statement: 'Yes, frankness and fearlessness may be what clients really need from you, that is,

they want to trust you will speak out and tell them what you see, preferably in a way that they can hear it. However, internally, you are a 'polis', a citizenship, a political society, however small, and it is perhaps more important to be diplomatic than to be direct.' Then he showed concern, 'Directness may become the privilege of the more powerful in the group, the 'prima donnas' who can both get all the attention and give all the direct feedback, but are themselves exempt'. At that precise point, when the word prima donna was mentioned, a shiver seemed to go through the group. There was something electrical in the air and the facilitator knew he had said something profoundly 'wrong' – or perhaps profoundly 'right', which amounts to the same thing. There was a long silence and then people started to debate an earlier point, but just weakly and without much interest. Soon someone called tea break and nobody came back to what the facilitator thought had been a major incident. In fact, he still felt utterly rejected and excluded by the group.

During the tea break the facilitator felt tense, guilty, awkward, and disconnected from the group. This in spite of the fact that one of the partners approached him briefly to say that it was good that he had 'outed' the prima donnas. Coming back into the afternoon session he realised it was difficult for him to think and to reflect, and that he must try to hold the space as this might be true for others as well. He waited and asked how people were and after a while gathered his wits back together sufficiently to say 'I have the impression you do not want to talk about this so this is not easy to say. I noticed what happened when I mentioned the word 'prima donna'. There was possibly some significance in what I said and this was perhaps itself one of those frank things that you find hard to say to each other. I think this somehow links with your anxieties around the new leadership of the firm and the dilemmas of your old managing partner about where to go next.' Gradually and without exploring the concept of prima donna much further, the group now returned to thinking about the challenges ahead and people felt freer to speak about their hopes for the future and for each other.

Reflection: Here is an example of how mentalising can come under pressure in coaching and consulting assignments. We can identify such moments almost on a daily basis, for example, when we are anxious about arriving late, about meeting a new client, or about what is going on in the conversations at hand; when we don't know what the issues are or how to respond, when we feel we have said something wrong or too challenging, etc. To paraphrase Allen[3] (2003, p.105), 'Of course, we coaches must mentalise to foster mentalising in our clients. It is through our own mentalising that we engage our clients in the process of mentalising (and, conversely, through their mentalising that they engage us in the process). We are in the same boat with our clients. We, too, must rely on an intact social brain, a secure attachment history, and an optimal level of arousal. We bring to the session our development competence and our current state of mind (based on our feeling of security and level of arousal at the moment) which may or may not be conducive to mentalising performance. We, too, know the 'biology of being frazzled' as our prefrontal cortical functioning goes off-line, giving way to our limbic propensities to fight, flight or freeze responses.' Often competent consulting can be regained just by re-acquiring the space to think, by stepping back for a moment, and allowing our healthier and calmer reflections to touch on the issues at hand. Paradoxically, important new reflections can arise precisely from those moments where the reflective-self is incapacitated, because there would have to be something new and important for it to have the power to bring us off balance.

Reflective-self function in coaching

What these examples have in common is a sense of 'plasticity', a sense that attachment and mentalisation are gradually formed during coaching, and that it is possible to build up a secure sense in coaching even if

[3] Changing only the words clinician, therapist and patient into coaching equivalents.

security and understanding were hard to come by in earlier attachment relationships. This must be encouraging as it shows that 'history' does not equal 'destiny'; in other words that clients can achieve new outcomes and can learn to build up both a more secure sense of relationship and the reflective-self function that goes along with secure attachment. In this regard it is perhaps encouraging that the intra-subject reliability or stability over longer time periods of the AAI is rather small (see Fonagy, 2001, Chapter 2).

We have to be wary, though, of attaching too much importance to the notion of reflective-self function, and that is because of its enormous appeal. As we have seen attachment relationships can be relevant on at least four basic levels in coaching (transference, working alliance, 'real' relationship and content of sessions). Secure attachment can in principle be linked with the reflective-self on any of these levels. This makes the reflective-self a highly relevant notion for the client on all levels and even for the coach in his or her approach to the client. Moreover, as has been argued by various authors cited above, the reflective-self is not just seen as a measure of good therapy, as in mentalisation-based psychotherapy, it can also be regarded as a measure of good outcome of helping conversations, as in the recovery or strengthening of mentalisation. This makes the reflective-self into a panacea and could lead to the false impression of 'snake oil', or perhaps in modern industrial terms, of 'lactic acid' (which is increasingly used to make food ingredients, conservatives, cleaning products and plastics that do no harm to the human body), a flexible agent of questionable curative value that is natural to the mind/body and sold as a cure for many ills, to be applied in the most generous of doses. Instead, I believe the main lesson to draw from the empirical results at this stage is the importance of investigating further the properties of reflective-self function or psychological mindedness and establishing empirically what contribution they have in coaching.

Conclusion

Mentalisation, or the idea that infants become independent subjects only if they are recognised as such, as beings with minds, intentions and feelings of their own, by their caregivers, an idea which has been operationalised by reflective-self function (Fonagy et al., 1991), is a very powerful notion precisely because it goes back to the root of helping conversations. It is first and foremost a new and empirically quantifiable way of expressing that a client might get better when listened to and understood by a thoughtful other who can help him or her make sense of memories, experiences and challenges, a phenomenon which is as old as psychotherapy itself (Breuer & Freud, 1885). This new operationalisation of a classic phenomenon is also distinct in that it emphasises the understanding of another's intentionality, which by definition includes self-understanding, the understanding of one's own intentions. There is a shift in emphasis and an increase in empirically reliable data concerning the understanding of self and others. It is fair to say that this development has afforded new importance to the idea of insight (or interpretation, or realisation) in psychotherapy and coaching.

The history of helping conversations started with recognition of the importance of self-understanding for healthy functioning, be it through recollection (*Erinnerung;* Breuer & Freud, 1885), interpretation (*Deutung;* Breuer & Freud, 1885) or insight (*Aufklärung;* Breuer & Freud, 1885). Now with the empirical research on reflective-self function providing some evidence for a link with a particular self- and other-understanding – a possible connection between mentalisation and psychological health, through a demonstrated correlation with secure attachment – this journey has come full circle.

We can see reflective-self function as the first operationalisation of the Freudian notion of 'insight', just like 'working alliance' (Greenson, 1965) was the first operationalisation of the Freudian notion of

'positive transference'. Both operationalisations led in the next decades to corroboration of the efficacy of the original idea: working alliance correlates with psychotherapy outcome (Horvath & Symonds, 1991), whilst reflective-self function correlates with secure attachment (Fonagy et al., 1991). However, as we have seen in this brief overview, the evidence for reflective-self function as an active ingredient of helping conversations is still limited. It is not at the same level as that for working alliance. Nevertheless, the psychophysical evidence-base of these and other original hunches of Freud has now grown to an encouraging degree.

In this way executive coaches are beginning to get an idea of the ingredients that are potentially effective in coaching conversations. Working alliance (De Haan, 2011), as the best predictor of coaching outcome, will come first. And reflective-self function, as a function that correlates with secure attachment, could come second. If nothing else, this evidence can help coaches to be more confident in attending as fully as they can to reflection within the coaching relationship.

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Keynote

Strengths-based approaches to developing mental toughness: Team and individual

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Based on an Invited Keynote Presentation at the British Psychological Society's Division of Sport and Exercise Psychology Annual Conference which was part of the British Psychological Society's Annual Conference, 17–21 April 2012, in London.

In sport settings developing mental toughness has become a major focus for athletes, coaches, teams and organisations. The focus of this paper is on the principal 'climate engineers' of sport environments, namely coaches, and on a strengths-based approach to mental toughness development that was facilitated by a sport psychologist. A brief summary of mental toughness research and a short history of strengths approaches to the development of human potential is presented. In the final section the author describes how he has used strengths-based approaches in professional sport, both with teams and individuals.
Keywords: *Applied positive psychology; strengths-based coaching; psychological skills training.*

THE PURPOSE of this paper is to introduce the reader to a strengths-based approach to developing mental toughness in sport, which draws on principles from applied positive psychology (Biswas-Diener, 2010), appreciative inquiry (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005), appreciative inquiry coaching (Orem, Binkert & Clancy, 2007) and strengths-based coaching (Linley & Harrington, 2006; Linley, Woolston & Biswas-Diener, 2009). Following a brief overview of mental toughness research and history of strengths approaches, the contrasting assumptions of strengths-based coaching methods and traditional psychological skills training are presented. The paper concludes with examples of how a strengths-based approach to developing mental toughness was conducted by the author among professional cricketers.

Mental toughness: A brief summary

For almost a decade, sport researchers have recognised the need to empirically examine the question: 'What is mental toughness?' Increased attention within the academic community has resulted in efforts focused on identifying the key components of mental toughness, understanding how they are developed, and developing and validating measurement instruments (for a full review, see Gucciardi & Gordon, 2011a).

Recently, Gucciardi and colleagues (2009a) developed a 'process model' grounded in Personal Construct Psychology (PCP: Kelly, 1991), which encapsulates the experiential processes of acquiring mental toughness. Within this model, the key components of mental toughness are said to influence the way in which an individual covertly and overtly approaches, appraises, and responds to events demanding varying degrees of challenge, adversity, and pressure. Subsequently, self-reflection and feedback from others provides information that an

individual may use to evaluate their investment in their experiences and outcomes. In integrating research with their process model, Gucciardi and colleagues proposed a definition of mental toughness:

> Mental toughness is the presence of some or the entire collection of experientially developed and inherent values, attitudes, emotions, cognitions, and behaviours that influence the way in which an individual approaches, responds to, and appraises both negatively and positively construed pressures, challenges, and adversities to consistently achieve his or her goals (Coulter et al., 2010, p.715).

The evidence specifically on the development of mental toughness so far suggests that while some mental toughness is simply inherited, an inestimable amount can be *caught* (socialised) and *taught* (coached) (see Clough & Strycharczk, 2012; Gucciardi & Gordon, 2011a). Further research in sport and other performance environments is needed to pinpoint exactly 'what' needs to be taught 'by whom' and 'how,' and also what experiences young people should be exposed to and when. In addition, investigations need to determine if these experiences need to be activity-specific or even activity-related and/or if there is a role for mentoring, story-telling and account-making in promoting mental toughness?

Recently Gucciardi and Gordon (2011b) suggested that *changing mindsets* and *strengths-based approaches* have considerable potential in developing mental toughness, and encouraged experimental evaluations of interventions using each procedure separately or in combination, with athletes of all age and ability levels. Importantly, Gucciardi and Gordon proposed that both methodologies are consistent with the basic tenets of personal construct psychology (PCP: Kelly, 1991), which are described elsewhere (e.g. Gucciardi & Gordon, 2009a, 2009b). Specifically, guided questioning and reflection associated with changing mindsets and strengths-based processes elicit learning and understanding of an individual's personal construct system.

Strengths-based approaches: A brief history

Peterson (2006) has described positive psychology as having 'a short history but very long past'. Readers are directed elsewhere (e.g. Linley & Joseph, 2004; Lopez & Snyder, 2009; Peterson, 2006) to full histories and philosophical perspectives of strengths approaches, positive psychology, coaching psychology and their applications. For the purposes of this paper, the following people and their activities represent a brief chronology of some important events and activities.

Bernard Haldane (1947) has been credited as the first to refer to 'human aptitudes'. He believed that the core reason for lack of efficiency in the workplace was that senior management was not sufficiently equipped to identify strengths and talent among their staff. *Abraham Maslow* (1954, p.354) commented on the historical focus of psychology, which 'has revealed to us much of man's shortcomings, his illness, his sins, but little about his potentialities, his virtues, his achievable aspirations, or his full psychological height'. Also in the mid-1950s *Donald O. Clifton*, cited by the American Psychological Association (APA) as the 'Father of Strengths Psychology', began five decades studying what is right about people. He bought *The Gallup Organisation* (founded in 1958) and later, with *Marcus Buckingham* (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001) and *Tom Rath* (Rath & Clifton, 2004), co-authored several bestselling books on strengths approaches. *Peter Drucker* (1967), regarded as the 'Father of Management Theory', claimed that 'the effective executive' builds on strengths – their own strengths, the strengths of superiors, colleagues, subordinates, and on the strengths of the situation. *Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi* (1975) described 'flow' and elements of optimal experiences and enjoyment that are present in those activities that consume us and become intrinsically rewarding but don't take energy away – in fact they give energy to us. *David Cooperrider* (Cooperrider & Srivasta, 1987) launched a new organisa-

tional development discipline called Appreciative Inquiry (AI) and its basic premise is to build organisations around what works rather than fix what doesn't. In 1998, prior to becoming the APA President, *Martin Seligman* (Seligman, 1999) gave the field of Positive Psychology its name, generally referred to at the time as 'the scientific study of optimal human functioning'. A vast array of research directions quickly developed including measuring well-being and mapping human strengths spawning several strengths identification assessment tools such as the *VIA Inventory of Strengths* (Petersen & Seligman, 2004), *StrengthsFinder* (Rath, 2007), and *Realise2 Strengths* (Linley, Willars & Biswas-Diener, 2010). *Mike Pegg* (2008) and *Sir Ken Robinson* (2009) claim we are in our 'element' when our natural aptitude and personal passions meet, similar to characteristics of 'flow' experiences. Recently, *Alex Linley* (2008) and his colleagues at the *Centre of Applied Positive Psychology* (CAPP) distinguished both unrealised and realised strengths from learned behaviours and weaknesses, which will be discussed in more detail later.

Strengths-based coaching and psychological skills training

Historically human endeavours have been characterised as 'fixing weaknesses' (Maslow, 1954; Seligman, 1999, 2011) and the coaching process in sport is no exception (Park-Perin, 2010). Current sport psychology practice and traditional psychological skills training typically focuses on identifying a team's or athlete's weaknesses and fixing them. Strengths-based coaching, on the other hand, is about spotting and exploiting teams' and athletes' strengths. A brief summary of the contrasting assumptions of strengths-based coaching and traditional psychological skills training approaches is presented in Table 1.

According to Linley, Willars and Biswas-Diener (2010) the two key characteristics of strengths are 'delivering a high level of performance and experiencing a sense of energy when you are doing it' (p.67), so a strength is something athletes are good at and they are also passionate about doing it. During strengths coaching the focus is on what is already working because our areas of greatest potential are in the areas of our

Table 1: Comparison of strengths-based coaching and traditional psychological skills training.

ASSUMPTIONS	*Strengths-Based Coaching*	*Psychological (Mental) Skills Training*
Coach philosophy	Strengths spotting	Problem identification
Areas of development and learning focus for coaching	Strengths Learn from successes	Weaknesses Learn from mistakes
Athletes	...are resourceful and have experienced success	...require expert assistance in dealing with failures
Type of coaching required	Proactive	Remedial
	Exploit existing strengths	Fix existing weaknesses
Learning process	Coaching 'asking', self-directed (athlete)	Training 'telling'; other-directed (practitioner)
Source of expertise and Coach/Athlete relationship	Athlete Collaboration	Practitioner Coach-led
Behavioural goal type	Self-concordant	External/Introjected

greatest strengths. Linley and his colleagues acknowledge that while you *can* develop from working on weaknesses, change and improvement is only possible when you are *also* working on your strengths.

Strengths-based consulting in sport can be regarded as being both an approach to consulting (i.e. strengths are used more effectively in the attainment of goals) and as a value-adding outcome of consulting (i.e. strengths-based consulting is used to enable the realisation and development of an individual's strengths) (Linley & Harrington, 2006; Linley, Woolston & Biswas-Diener, 2009). Research in non-sport settings has shown that, in addition to being more confident, having higher levels of energy and vitality (Govindji & Linley, 2007), and being more likely to achieve their goals (Linley, Nielson et al., 2010), people who use their strengths are more effective at developing themselves and growing as individuals than people who do not (Sheldon et al., 2002). Research also demonstrates that those individuals who use their strengths more often are happier, have higher self-esteem, experience less stress, are more resilient, perform better at work, and are more engaged at work (Linley, Nielson et al., 2010). The case *for* using a strengths-based coaching approach in sport, therefore, is quite compelling.

Strengths-based coaching of mental toughness in cricket

As a sport psychologist I have consulted in professional cricket in Perth, Western Australia, since 1987, however, only recently have I introduced strengths-based approaches to facilitate performance enhancement in both teams and individuals. The processes and activities I am about to describe were made possible by one coach who believed in the transformative capacity of strengths-based approaches to individual and team performance consulting. I fully acknowledge that without his support for strengths-based approaches and his encouragement to others (e.g. senior management, team captains and senior players) to apply them, my initiatives may not have been as effective, or even possible. The examples come from the work I conducted with the same coach with two teams: Western Warriors (WW: Perth, Australia) and the Sri Lankan National Cricket team (SLC).

Appreciative Inquiry: The purpose of this activity with SLC in January 2006, held in Australia (Melbourne), was to introduce an Appreciative Inquiry (AI) approach to understanding the concept of high performing teams. AI is regarded as a positive, strengths-based operational approach to change, learning, and development, which begins by obliging athletes and management to choose 'the positive' as the focus of inquiry, and as the launching point for all that follows. I recently reported an AI case study that featured a cricket operations strategic planning event at the Western Australian Cricket Association (Gordon, 2011). According to Sloan and Canine (2007):

> The AI philosophy and practice is in and of itself the ideal process for both enabling people in organisations to become more aware of their own strengths and abilities in ways that increase their effectiveness in all parts of their life and to create robust support for change in the client's social system (p.1).

The following assumptions about life, people and the change process itself, form the basis of an AI approach (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005):

- In every society, organisation, group or individual, something works;
- What people focus on becomes their reality;
- Reality is created in the moment, and there are multiple realities;
- The act of asking questions of an organisation, group, or individual, influences the group or individual in some way;
- People are more confident and comfortable in their journey to the future (the unknown) when they carry forward parts of the past (the known);

- If people carry parts of the past forward, those parts should be what is best about the past;
- It is important to value differences;
- The language people use creates their reality.

Prior to the squad leaving Sri Lanka for this Australian tour (January 2006), the coach and I asked both management and players to partner up and collect data on high performing teams using the interview guide illustrated in full in Table 2. Upon their arrival in Australia, I facilitated a two-hour meeting focusing on the data collected during interviews that were universally enjoyed by interviewees as well as by both management staff and players. This meeting was concluded with a discussion on goal setting specifically for touring Australia.

Two months later (April, 2006), prior to the first warm-up game of the Sri Lankan tour of England, during which Sri Lanka drew the three Test series 1–1 and white-washed England 5–0 in the One-Day International (ODI) series, I conducted a squad session that I have described in greater detail as a case study in a special issue on performance psychology in the Australian Psychological Society's *InPsych* magazine (Gordon, 2008). The focus of the meeting was 'Discovering What Gives Life To SLC When It Is At Its Best', which featured a combination of facilitation techniques, including Naming Elephants (Hammond & Mayfield, 2004) and Open Space Technology (Owen, 1997), as well as Appreciative Inquiry (AI). Naming Elephants is a metaphor for bringing undiscussable issues into the open and making implicit 'difficult' conversations explicit. The main 'elephant' identified by all players was intimidation, negative and pessimistic communication to junior players by senior players, which had a negative behavioural impact on the team such as lowered morale among junior players, who switched off emotionally during both team meetings and games and suppressed ideas and thoughts of voicing contributions. Open Space Technology is a group facilitation method comprised of four principles and one 'law' that allows small (or large) teams of players to say and do what they want in the time available and have self-organised discussions on anything that is important to them in a short time.

During this session coaches and players created a meeting agenda around the theme 'What Gives Life To Sri Lankan Batting, Bowling and Fielding When It Is At Its Best?' During a five-hour session (three hours over schedule) they had mapped out their England tour preferences for both training priorities and match tactics. The session witnessed players and staff speaking to each other freely and in a solution-focused manner. One additional important outcome was a record of on-field, off-field and dressing room habits associated with best performances. This list, entitled *Habits SLC Has When At Its Best*, was finalised at the conclusion of the England tour and became an agenda item to re-visit during each of the subsequent three meetings that I facilitated. Core habits and attitudes associated with managing tournaments included 'leadership from within the team', 'team goals always trump individual goals', 'no excuses to lose (e.g. weather, travel, food)', 'respect weaker opposition (e.g. English County sides)', and 'focus on *fundamentals*.'

A few months later (December, 2006) I arrived in Wellington, New Zealand, in time to see the last wicket fall on Day 4 of the 2nd Test, won by Sri Lanka. Later that day I met with the coach and staff to discuss the agenda for a strengths-based strategic planning team session that would characterise the team's focus and efforts for the next six months leading up to the Cricket World Cup in June 2007. Next day, to facilitate this three-hour session, I began by reminding everyone of the strengths-based AI process used in England that resulted in *Habits SLC Has When At Its Best*. However, since strategic planning specifically for the forthcoming six months was required, I introduced the SOAR technique, which stands for Strengths, Opportunities, Aspirations, and Results

Table 2: Interview guide for an inquiry into high performing cricket teams.

You are going to pair up with another player and ask each other the questions that follow. As an interviewer, your job is to read the introduction to the topic, then ask the first question. Listen to what your partner tells you and make notes so you can share the information with the larger group.
Question 1: High Performing Teams ● Tell me about a time when you observed or were part of a high performing team. What did it look like, feel like? ● What stands out in your mind about how the team worked with each other? *Question 2: Trust* ● Think of a time when there was high trust in a team or partnership. What factors were present to make trust possible? ● Think of a leader you trusted. Why did you trust him or her? What did they do that made trust possible? ● When have you worked in a team or organisation that operates under the assumption that people can be trusted? What did they do differently from a team or organisation that operates under the assumption that people can't be trusted? *Question 3: Relationships* ● When you have been a part of, or observed this type of team, how did the team manage relationships? ● How did this team handle conflict - how did they manage it? *Question 4: Expect and Respect Differences* ● How did the team show respect and appreciation for the diversity within the team? ● When the team had differences, how did they deal with those differences? *Question 5: Results* ● What was the process the team used to set their goals and divide the roles and responsibilities necessary to achieve those results? ● Who or what was the team? What was the situation? What did the team do to gain clarity? How did this clarity help the team achieve top performance? *Question 6: Leadership* ● Describe the qualities, characteristics, behaviours, activities, and/or practices of the team that foster a 'leaderful' environment. ● Think of a leader who demonstrates leadership that supports a leaderful environment. Specifically, what does he/she do? *Question 7: Learning/Mistakes/Celebration* ● Tell me about a time you were a part of a team that demonstrated they could learn together. Specifically how did they do it? ● If there was an 'after-action' review or an apology, who initiated it? How did the team react? ● How did the team put the lessons to use? ● How did this team celebrate success?

(Stavros & Hinrichs, 2009). SOAR incorporates AI principles and players were simply asked to pair up and discuss responses to each of the questions illustrated in Table 3. A final document prepared by the players, entitled *Api Wenuwen Api (God Bless Sri Lanka)*, was sent to the coach, who prepared a formal template for everyone to refer to and apply immediately.

Developing mental toughness. In an attempt to develop mental toughness among Western Warriors (male professional cricketers) a colleague and I first collected mental toughness data from 22 contracted players using the 15-item Cricket Mental Toughness Inventory (CMTI: Gucciardi & Gordon, 2009c), which is comprised of five key facets as illustrated in Table 4. How we and the coach addressed results from these data is dealt with later in this paper. To facilitate performance enhancement generally, we applied the CAPP Realise2 Model (Linley, 2008; (Linley, Nielson et al., 2010).

Briefly, the Realise2 model (Linley et al., 2010) considers strengths as things that we do that we are good at *and* that energise us, such as *Realised Strengths* that we get to do regularly, or *Unrealised Strengths* that we don't get as much opportunity to use so much and yet are our greatest areas for development. *Learned Behaviours*, on the other hand, are activities we are good at but drain us of energy, which is particularly relevant for elite/professional athletes because if activities are not energising doing them repeatedly can lead to an increasing sense of feeling disengaged, disenfranchised and even burned out. Finally, our *Weaknesses* are things we are not good at and also drain us. Subsequently, from the model, the best advice is to *marshal realised strengths*, by using them differently to best effect; *maximise unrealised strengths*, by finding opportunities to use them more; *moderate learned behaviours*, by not using them too much; and *minimise weaknesses*, by finding ways to stop having to focus on them at all. Unlike other aforementioned strengths finding approaches, however, if weaknesses matter for performance and cannot be ignored, the Realise2 Model provides five ideas on how to minimise their relevance and impact on performance, as illustrated in Figure 1.

Table 3: The SOAR Process.

Element	*Questions*
Strengths	What can we build on – what are our strengths in fielding, bowling and batting? What is already happening that works? What do we already do that is world class?
Opportunities	From our existing strengths, what other opportunities are provided that we should focus our efforts on? What new skills do we need to move forwards?
Aspirations	Reflecting on our strengths and opportunities, who are we, who should we become? What innovations or initiatives (i.e. tactics) would support our aspirations?
Results	How will we know we are succeeding? Considering our strengths, opportunities, and aspirations, what meaningful measures would indicate that we are on track to achieving our goals? What indicators would create a score card that addresses our process goals? What are the best rewards to support those who achieve our process goals?

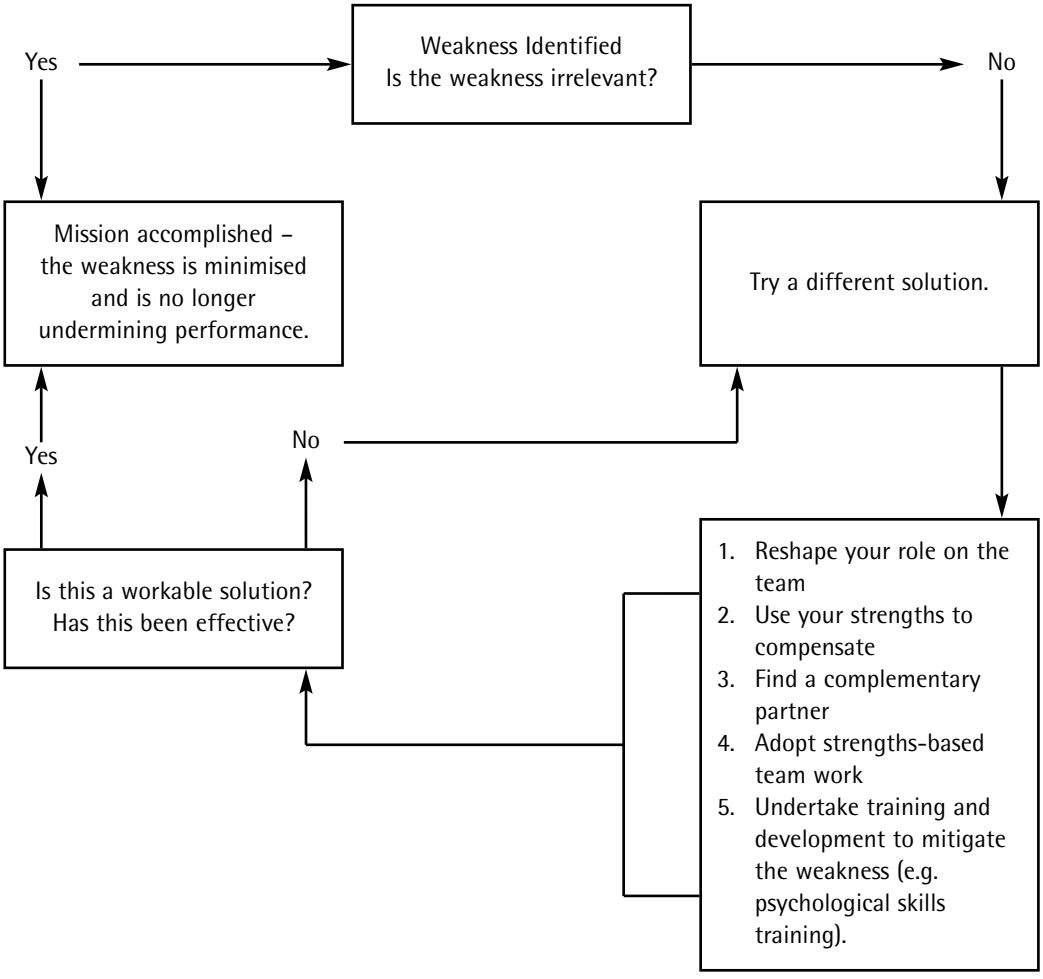
Table 4: Cricket Mental Toughness Inventory (CMTI): Factors and example item (Gucciardi & Gordon, 2009c).

CMTI Factors	Description	Item example 'I...
Affective Intelligence	The ability to regulate one's emotions and moods in any circumstance to facilitate performance.	*Am able to deal with anxiety.*
Desire to Achieve	An internalised, insatiable desire and commitment to consistently improve one's performance levels and achieve success.	*In general, display a hard work ethic.*
Resilience	The ability to withstand and bounce back from situations in which negative outcomes are experienced (i.e. pressure, adversity, challenge).	*Am able to deal with setbacks associated with cricket.*
Attentional Control	The ability to manage one's attention and focus over extended periods of play involving various distractions.	*Remain focused despite cricket-related distractions.*
Self-Belief	An unshakeable self-belief in your physical ability to perform in any circumstance.	*Never experience doubts.*

To apply this model, prior to an indoor cricket net practice, we asked the coaches to determine individual perceptions of strengths related to general cricket ability (technical, physical, tactical as well as mental skills) by having players respond to strengths-based questions about their batting, bowling and fielding. The questions, and responses from a top-order batsman who is also a spin bowler, are illustrated in Table 5, which also includes his response to a question asking how he could use his strengths more at practice. Subsequently, with the head coach we facilitated an open discussion on what the implications from this exercise were for each player's self-regulated performance enhancement and training priorities.

Several players expressed embarrassment and discomfort when asked to read out their responses and every player agreed that they had never been asked to consider these questions previously. Additionally, discussion inevitably led to concerns about ignoring weaknesses and the importance of working to improve them. Subsequently, based on the model, players were asked to consider if they could *reshape their role* on the team so that they could play in their 'element' more often, rather than have to bat, bowl or field at times and in positions in which they felt vulnerable; *second*, they considered using their *strengths to compensate* for their weaknesses, such as being more decisive about shot selection with both short and full-length quick deliveries (fast bowling); *third*, players were asked to consider finding a *complementary partner*, someone who was strong in areas they were weak so they could buddy-up at training and during games and learn vicariously from watching strengths in action; *fourth*, players and the coaches were asked to consider grouping certain players accord-ing to their strengths and weaknesses, thereby

Figure 1: Minimising weaknesses to make them irrelevant (adapted from Linley, Willars & Biswas-Diener, 2010).



chunking up a level from 'complementary partner', and *adopt strengths-based team work* off-field as well as during training and games; and *finally*, when none of the above strategies was possible players were invited to consider *undertaking specific training and development sessions* with coaches, with the aim of becoming as good as they needed to be or good enough, but not excellent.

While all participants reported great benefits from making their weaknesses less relevant using all five ideas, they were particularly impressed with the overall value of a strengths-based approach to specifically technical development. One senior National Team cricketer remarked, 'This was very different to what I'm used to. I much prefer the idea of spending the majority of my time realising my strengths rather than trying to fix weaker areas.'

To further facilitate the development of mental toughness all players were invited to either discuss their CMTI (Gucciardi & Gordon, 2009c) data with each other and/or their coaches, or individually in person with me. During individual consultations I used

Table 5: Identification of strengths of a top-order batsman.

BATTING	Responses	BOWLING	Responses	FIELDING	Responses
My strengths are... I feel strong when I am...(doing this).	'I feel strong when I am coming into bat when the innings needs rescuing or a game is to be won.'	*My strengths are... I feel strong when I am...(doing this).*	'Bowling to a game plan.'	*My strengths are... I feel strong when I am...(doing this).*	'My strengths are my hands, slip catching or catching in general.'
What is your best shot? How do you get most of your runs?	'Straight drive.'	*What is your best delivery? How do you get most of your wickets?*	'By building pressure on batsman and executing my bowling plan. Reading batsmen and their game plans. Breaking partnerships.'	*What is your best position? Where and when do you feel most effective?*	'2nd slip and mid-wicket.'
I deliver my best and feel in my element doing these activities...	'Rebuilding an innings when the team is in trouble. Guiding the team to victory using a calm and clever mind set. Involving myself in the contest.'	*I deliver my best and feel in my element doing these activities...*	'By being patient and involving myself in the contest.'	*I deliver my best and feel in my element doing these activities...*	'Fielding at 2nd slip.'
My favourite role(s) that I find most stimulating is (are)...	'Being the player that stands up during the tough times and most difficult periods of play.'	*My favourite role(s) that I find most stimulating is (are)...*	'Tying a team down, sliding under their radar, being underestimated.'	*My favourite role(s) that I find most stimulating is (are)...*	'Being a captain.'
Things I can do to build on my batting strengths, put myself into situations where I am in my element are...	'To train mostly by simulating game situations under greater pressure,'	*Things I can do to build on my batting strengths, put myself into situations where I am in my element are...*	'Ritualise my pre- and post-delivery routines through simulated pressure practice at the nets.'	*Things I can do to build on my batting strengths, put myself into situations where I am in my element are...*	'To improve my catching under greater pressure at training.'

an appreciative coaching approach, which is illustrated in Table 6 and uses an example of a player's perceived weakness in self-belief. The AIC approach to developing mental toughness represents a significant departure from traditional approaches to psychological skills training typically used by performance psychologists. The first step in this approach is crucial and involves identifying and exploring what mental toughness terms (e.g. self-belief) mean to each coachee. This exploration is a necessary first step because coaches need to help coachees understand what mental toughness is and is not, when it is required and when it is not required, and how, in general, coachees personally construe their realities. Consistent with our previous research using a Personal Construct Psychology (PCP) framework and interview protocol to understand mental toughness (for a review, see Gucciardi & Gordon, 2009a) this approach can be embedded in the AI 4-D cycle to guide athletes in their explorations of mental toughness. In addition to sport psychologists, coaches can also ask these questions from the 4-D Model in turn – allowing plenty time for reflection (Connaughton, Hanton & Jones, 2010; Connaughton et al., 2008) – and summarise the mutual understanding in each part of the cycle prior to proceeding to the next one.

Conclusion

I am excited about the activities and strategies described in this paper that proved to be both popular and effective in developing mental toughness in my practice with elite adult performers, however, I acknowledge that a single approach is unlikely to be appropriate for all age and competitive levels. Sport psychologists and coaches will need to consider the developmental stage of

Table 6: Appreciative coaching questions (adapted from Orem et al., 2007).

AI 4-D cycle	Strengths-based coaching questions
Discovery	*Describe what you consider self-belief to be – and not be.* *When recently did you display self-belief?* *What attitude(s) did you adopt at that time?* *Describe your emotions. How did you react? What did you do?* *What would others have noticed?*
Dream	*Overnight a miracle occurred, and when you woke up your self-belief was just as you've described. How would you know? What would be different?* *What has changed in your habits?* *Who would be the first to notice these changes?* *What will they say or do, and how will you respond?*
Design	*So, how will you act differently to make the dream reality?* *How best can you develop and sustain your self-belief?* *Are there 'significant others' whom you feel play a crucial role in the development of your self-belief?* *What do you think these individuals could do to help? What should they not do?*
Destiny/Delivery	*Reflecting on what you really want and where you are right now regarding self-belief, what do you see as the most significant behavioural changes you could make that would help you get what you want?* *What one small behavioural change could you make right now, no matter how small, that would improve your self-belief? Can you just try it?*

their athletes when promoting the development of mental toughness (Connaughton et al., 2008, 2010). For example, early in an athlete's career, and based on previous research (Gucciardi, Gordon, & Dimmock, 2009; Gucciardi et al., 2009), I would anticipate that a strategy designed to combine traditional psychological skills training with strengths-based approaches to be optimal. Nonetheless, I encourage all practitioners and coaches to consider using strengths-based approaches to developing mental toughness at any age and at any competitive level because I believe 'realising our strengths is the smallest thing we can do to make the biggest difference' (Linley, 2008, p.47).

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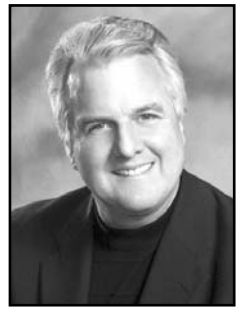
Keynote

Looking back to see the future: The influence of humanistic and transpersonal psychology on coaching psychology today



Patrick Williams

Based on an Keynote Presentation at the 2nd International Congress on Coaching Psychology, 10–12 May, 2012, in Sydney, Australia.

Keywords: *Coaching; coaching psychology; humanistic psychology; transpersonal psychology.*

IN 1968, the first class I took at the University of Kansas was Psychology of Satisfaction. (Psych 101 was full as I was late to enroll). That was a turning point in my view of the field of psychology. This course, about what made people become happy and satisfied in their life, was an early precursor or what Positive Psychology would focus on 30 years later! I began to choose other courses in the years to come that eschewed Freudian psychology and instead learned of Maslow, Rogers, Jung, Assagioli and other theorists and researchers in human potential. I moved from my undergraduate degree to get a masters in Humanistic Psychology and a doctorate in Transpersonal Psychology and Counseling…*all of which I point to today as more applicable to coaching that to psychotherapy.*

In the 1960s, when psychology was strongly rooted in a battle between psychodynamic theory and behaviourism, Humanistic psychology arose as the Third Force, followed shortly by Transpersonal Psychology, the Fourth force. The influence of Maslow, Rogers, Esalen Institute, Tavistock, Findhorn, and Omega greatly influence the Human potential movement as an antidote to the mechanistic, analytic, and reductionist theories of the first half of the 20th century. That humanistic movement, while somewhat chaotic and experimental paved the way for Coaching Psychology today and the rise of positive psychology, appreciative inquiry, and human systems theory as underpinnings for 21st century personal and business coaching.

The history and evolution of Life Coaching: The influence of the Human Potential Movement of the 1960s and beyond.

Historical information provides current and prospective coaching psychologists with both a framework for understanding their profession and insights into future opportunities. This framework also helps life coaches to place themselves squarely within the larger context of a profession that is still developing, changing, and evolving. As we cast our eyes across the diverse threads of the past, perhaps we will come to understand the present more accurately and will be better prepared as life coaching (and coaching psychology) expands in the 21st century. I believe an examination of the evolution of life coaching also helps those trained as therapists or counsellors to make the transition to life coaching by further clarifying the similarities and differences between life coaching and other helping professions.

Life Coaching as an operating system

Personal and professional coaching has emerged as a recognised career in the last decade and it has created new options for people who seek help with life transitions in finding a *guide* to partner with them in designing their desired future. While coaching has grown to incorporate a variety of specialised applications, the case can be made that life coaching as a whole-person, client-centred approach is the foundational operating system. As an operating system, the whole life approach is a system always in the background of the conversation, just like an OS in a computer system. Invariably, any specific focus of a coaching relationship will be interconnected to other areas of a person's life. If you have a client who wants to be a better manager, or make a career transition, you will find that conversations about their significant relationships, or their personal wellness, or their stress level could and should come up in the conversation. They are all intertwined in a whole person approach. For your coaching practice, this means that you need to be willing to open up conversations through asking questions about other areas of the client's life. What is working well? What is less than satisfying? How do *energy drainers* in one area of the client's life bleed over into effecting their stated goals

This presentation documents the rise of life coaching within the broader movement of personal and professional coaching and its roots in psychology. *And let's not forget to honour the fact that the University of Sydney's Masters in Coaching Psychology (led by Anthony Grant and colleagues) was the first recognised degree in professional coaching!*

The psychological roots of Life Coaching aka Coaching Psychology

Psychological theorists in the early part of the 20th century set the framework for life coaching's 'whole and healthy person' view. The shift from seeing clients as ill or pathological toward viewing them as 'capable and whole' and seeking a richer life is paramount to understanding the evolution of life coaching. Life coaches view clients as whole and uniquely capable persons and focus not on pathology, but on optimal living and a purpose- focused life.

Most people would agree that Sigmund Freud had a dramatic influence on society's view of mental illness and a deeper understanding of behaviour. While much of Freud's theory has little applicability to life coaching, he did profess that driving influences in people's lives were not conscious (ego-driven) but unconscious forces – the id (libido) and the superego (social conscience), which he believed were symbols for analysis and dream interpretation. It is this emphasis on symbolic thinking that is beneficial for life coaching. Life coaches help clients discover their greatness or brilliance, which often lies masked or buried in their unconsciousness and can be experienced when they begin to design their lives consciously and purposely. (NB: brilliance as a diamond whose facets are cut and ebullient.)

But colleagues from Freud's inner circle, such as Carl Jung and Alfred Adler and Roberto Assagioli, broke away from his theories of neuroses and psychosis and posited theories that were more teleological and optimistic about human potential. Although there remains a significant distinction between therapy approaches and coaching, many of Adler and Jung's theories are antecedents to modern-day coaching psychology.

Adler, for example, saw himself as more of a personal educator, believing that every person develops a unique life approach, which shapes their goals, values, habits, and personal drives (Adler, 1956) He believed that happiness arises from a sense of significance and social connectedness (belonging), not merely individual objectives and desires. Adler saw each person as the creator and artist of his or her life and frequently involved his clients in goal setting, life planning, and inventing their future – all tenets and approaches in life coaching today.

Similarly, Carl Jung (Jung, 1953) believed in the power of connectedness and relationships, as well as a 'future orientation' or tele-

ological belief that we create our futures through visioning and purposeful living. Jung's writings really focused on life after the age of 40 and he concentrated on many of the life issues of our later years. This is particularly appropriate for life coaches because we work primarily with adult learners. Jung often coached adults through a 'life review' and encouraged his clients to consciously live their lives by expressing their natural gifts and talents and moving toward self-individuation by living life 'on purpose.'

Jung's theories and approaches also emphasised spirituality and values expressed as one goes though the process he called individuation – the progression and development of the spiritual self (Jung, 1976). This is particularly prevalent in the second half of life, a time when life coaches are most likely to experience this themselves and with their clients. Jung also described the importance of myths and rituals, which are increasingly becoming important components of our life coaching clients' lives. I believe psychologically-trained coaches are particularly qualified to assist clients in these important stages of adult development

And Roberto Assagioli with his Personal and Spiritual Psychosynthesis maintained that Freud had not given sufficient weight to the *higher* aspects of the human personality, and recognised a need for a more inclusive concept of humanity and human potential. (Assagioli, 1965)

The Boulder Conference: Psychology comes of age

Clinical psychology, as a profession separate from research and academia, was catapulted into the latter half of the 20th century because of the historical Boulder Conference in 1949 – the first national meeting ever held in the US to discuss standards of graduate training in psychology, despite the fact that doctoral programmes in America had been around more than 60 years (Albee, 2000). Up to that point, the emphasis was on theory and human behaviour, not so much on clinical or psychotherapeutic applications in a systemised, integrated approach. The demand for psychologists and counsellors grew after World War II for treating post-traumatic stress, the psychological impact of war injuries, and the military's need to prepare soldiers with improved emphasis on mental health and the hope for a kind of 'stress inoculation'. Looking back now at the Boulder Conference, it is easy to see that the teaching of clinical psychology included much of what today is found in counselling psychology and even the offshoots of counselling and marriage and family therapy.

Influences of Humanistic Psychology and the Human Potential Movement

During this time period, counselling and psychotherapy actually were starting to be viewed by many as arts more than sciences. The influence of the theories of Maslow and the emergence of humanistic, client-centred approaches saw the client as full of potential and possibility rather than as one with neuroses or pathology.

In 1951, Carl Roger's book, *Client Centred Therapy*, really defined counselling and therapy as relationships in which the client was assumed to have the ability to change and grow by the clinician creating a therapeutic alliance (Rogers, 1951). This alliance evolved from a safe, confidential space granting the client or patient what Rogers called *unconditional positive regard*. I believe this shift in perspective was a significant precursor to what is called life coaching today.

In the years after World War II, American psychologists began to be influenced by European schools of thought, namely phenomenology and existentialism. These points of view laid much of the philosophical foundation for what was to become the Third Force* in psychological thought,

* There are Four Forces: The First Force was Freudian Psychology; the Second Force was Behavioural Psychology; the Third Force was Humanistic Psychology; and the Fourth Force was Transpersonal Psychology.

humanistic psychology. (The early work of Carl Rogers, Kurt Lewin, Prescott Lecky, and, eventually, Abraham Maslow, also served as great influences.) Emphasis is now on studying the whole person, not fragmented parts. Although the philosophies and values of humanistic psychology unified the whole field of psychology, it also polarised the profession. Humanistic psychology arose largely as a reaction against behaviourism's mechanistic view of humanity and was once again concerned with human experience and intrapsychic motivations as it had been in psychology's earliest years, but these concerns were viewed as nonobservable, nonmeasurable, intervening variables according to behavioural psychology's precepts.

Abraham Maslow, considered by many the father of humanistic psychology, was largely responsible for injecting much credibility and energy into the human potential movement of the 1960s with the publication of his seminal treatise, *Toward a Psychology of Being* (1968). In this work, Maslow summarised his research of 'self-actualising people' (a term first coined by Kurt Goldstein) and coined terms such as 'full-humanness' and wrote about 'being' and 'becoming.' Maslow studied the 'healthy personality' of people who he termed *self-actualisers*; he researched, questioned, and observed people who were living with a sense of vitality and purpose and who were constantly seeking to grow psychologically and achieve more of their human potential. It is this key point in history that I believe set the framework for the field of life coaching (and now Coaching Psychology) to emerge in the 1990s. Persons seeking personal evolution and ways to live their life more fully do not need psychological counselling; life coaching is a more accurate paradigm for the improved outcomes or creative achievements the client seeks.

Maslow was instrumental in giving great value and importance to the idea of personal growth and its necessity for the healthy personality. However, Maslow was not the first with these ideas. Many early psychiatrists and psychologists revolted against the orthodox approaches to mental problems and their emphasis on the person's pathological or pathogenic components. I assume you in this audience have already been introduced to the influential work of Adler and Jung, and Assagioli as contemporaries of Freud, but Gordon Allport, James Bugenthal, Kurt Goldstein, Karen Horney, Sidney Jourard, Fritz Perls, Virginia Satir, Rollo May, and Carl Rogers also influenced psychology's move toward a wellness perspective that laid much of the groundwork for modern coaching theory, perspective, and techniques.

Third Force Psychology has found its place in mainstream psychology and is represented by an international organisation. Abraham Maslow's ideas were central to the beginnings of both the journal and the association, but the AHP was not organised simply to promote his philosophy. The AHP represents a broad viewpoint, but it emerged as the third major force in psychology because of its unitary revolt against mechanistic, deterministic psychology. I believe this philosophical shift took root in a generation that now rejects the idea of sickness and seeks wellness, wholeness and optimal living instead. Hence the emergence of life coaching!

Another unique influence

Influences of Milton Erickson and Solution-Focused Approaches also evolved in the 1970s and beyond.

The work of Milton Erickson (the father of American hypnosis) is a key precursor to the methods in coaching today. Milton Erickson, a creative and unique psychiatrist, believed in the inherent ability of individuals to achieve wellness if the reason for an illness could be thwarted. Erickson often achieved seemingly 'miraculous results' from just a few sessions with a patient. Jay Haley (1986) coined the term 'uncommon therapy' to describe Erickson's approach.

More recent psychological approaches that have evolved from Ericksonian and other wellness approaches are the solution-focused therapies. These approaches are not *insight* – or *depth psychology* – *dependent* and are also powerful influences on modern coaching practices and theory. Most notably, Glasser's reality therapy, Ellis's rational emotive therapy, systemic family therapies (Haley, Madanes, Satir), neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) (Bandler & Grindler), modern psychosynthesis (Assagioli), and many other hybrids of these lend themselves to coaching strategies. In all of these, the main focus is not pathology but behaviour change through increased awareness and choices to allow for desired future results and solutions to current 'problems in living.' Personal coaching has really developed from three streams: (1) helping professions such as psychotherapy and counselling and related theoretical perspectives as noted above; (2) consulting and organisational development and industrial psychology; and (3) personal development training such as EST, Lifespring, Landmark Forum, and Anthony Robbins.

The personal development courses listed above all focus on taking personal action and responsibility for one's life choices. They often include one-to-one coaching as part of their service or recommend it to those who desire sustainable results from the weekend training experience.

Life coaching is a 20th century phenomenon with roots in early psychological theories. It is a profession still experiencing dynamic growth and change. Life coaching and coaching psychology will no doubt continue to interact developmentally with social, economic, and political processes, draw on the knowledge base of diverse disciplines, enhance its intellectual and professional maturity, and continue to establish itself internationally. Co-operative efforts among diverse professional groups will enable life coaching to develop in more unified and collaborative ways in order to strengthen its influence.

The Life Coach operating system: Foundations in psychology

It is important to chart the course of some of the psychological theorists of the 20th century who laid the groundwork for the emergence and evolution of personal and professional coaching and coaching psychology as well. Relevant evidence-based research and theories will be noted along with their application and significance in coaching today. It is important for professional coaches to know that quality coach training and education is based in a multi-dimensional model of human development and communication that has drawn from the best of humanistic psychology, positive psychology, integral psychology and others in this field. Coaching also draws from other fields such as organisational development, adult learning theory, and systems theory, but they are not the focus of this presentation.

It is important to cite the theories and research from the established field of psychology and note how specific techniques and/or skill sets that can be applied in coaching conversations so that coaches can develop a greater variety of tools in communicating with clients. Many of the same techniques that originated in clinical psychology are useful in assisting clients to reframe their experience and to discover their strengths. These techniques include powerful questions, guided imagery (Psychosynthesis), empty chair technique (Gestalt therapy), time lines and future pacing (NLP), and even techniques and theory from Transactional Analysis (Eric Berne), client-centred counselling (Carl Rogers) and life stage awareness (Carl Jung, Frederic Hudson, Carol Gilligan, and Robert Kegan among others). This discussion focuses particularly on the philosophy and practice of life coaching as it relates to high-quality human communication that empowers the client. Some nuances require adaptations for various cultures, but since coaching is a co-created conversation to empower the receiver of the coaching, an *expert/client paradigm* is intentionally absent.

Many of the theories and techniques cited in this discussion are unique to Western cultures but can be adapted for use in most other cultures as well.

Coaching has a unique paradigm, but much of the foundation of coaching goes back many decades and even centuries. The draw to pursue life improvement, personal development, and the exploration of meaning began with early Greek society. This is reflected in Socrates' famous quote, 'The unexamined life is not worth living'. Since then, people have developed many ways of examining their lives, some useful and some not; some grounded in theory and evidence-based, while others are made up and inconsistent in their helpfulness. What persists, however, is that people who no longer need focus on the pursuit of basic human needs – such as food and shelter – are beginning to pay attention to higher needs such as self-actualisation, fulfilment, and spiritual connection. This is also why much of the world that lives in poverty and on the edge of survival does not always concern themselves with future possibilities and big goals for their lives. Those often have to be put on the back burner.

I have spent much time in Third World/developing countries and see that the coach approach can be helpful in empowering local villagers to be more resourceful, but they still need the resources to become available. The NGOs and non-profit groups that supply food, water, housing, etc., could benefit from a holistic coaching approach in order to create and empower sustainable changes that the *resource poor* villagers can continue with assistance from *resource rich* countries and foundations Taking this global and integrative perspective for the power of coaching, we could do much for the view that coaching is mostly elitist and serves the rich and powerful primarily. As such, more and more people have an intense desire to explore and find personal meaning, when the blocks to survival are eliminated and the ability to thrive supplants survive. More about this later.

Coaching today is seen as a new phenomenon, but as a field it borrows from and builds on theories and research from related fields such as psychology and philosophy. As such, coaching is a ***multi-disciplinary***, ***multi-theory*** synthesis and application of applied behavioural change. As coaching evolved in the public arena it began to incorporate accepted theories of behavioural change as the evidence base for this new helping relationship.

Contributions from psychology

What has the field of psychology brought to coaching and what and who are the major influences?

We have already cited the historical influence of four major forces in psychological theory since the emergence of psychology in 1879 as a social science. These four forces are Freudian, Behavioural, Humanistic, and Transpersonal. Both the Freudian and behavioural models grew out of biology and philosophy and were focused on pathology and how to 'cure' it. The humanistic approaches of Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow were a response to the pathological model; they attempted to make space in psychology for those elements of being human that create health and happiness. Finally, the transpersonal movement arose in the late 1960s in a further attempt to include more of what allows human beings to function at their best. Its focus was on mind, body, and spirit and included studies and experiences of states of consciousness, transcendence, and what Eastern traditions and practices had to teach Western theorists and practitioners. A more recent approach, the integral model of Ken Wilber and others, is emerging and may become a fifth force, integrating all that has come before and offering a holistic and even multilevel view of the various modalities for understanding human development and our desire to evolve mentally, physically, spiritually, and socially.

In recent years, several other approaches have arisen as adaptations of one or more of the original four and have been taken up

by many coaches. Cognitive-behavioural psychology grew from a mix of the behavioural and humanistic schools. I say this because much of cognitive psychology embodied wisdom and leanings from behaviourism and even operant conditioning. But when the humanistic aspect was included, it became a way to use those techniques and theories of change to increase choice for the individual. In coaching, then, you can utilise what we know about shifting mindset and behaviours by using a process of inquiry and powerful questions that guide the client to understanding their ability to respond rather than react to their personal situations. Responding comes from viewing the multiple choices available in cognition and behaviour rather than just reacting habitually. Positive Psychology builds on two key principles from humanistic psychology: a non-mechanistic perspective and a view of possibility as opposed to pathology as the essential approach to the client. Humanistic psychology arose as a counterpoint to the view of Freudian psychology and Behaviourism that people could be viewed as controlled by unconscious and conditioned responses. Humanistic psychology arose to promote the emphasis on personal growth and the importance of beingness and the phenomenology of the human experience. Along with each revolution in psychology, a changing image of human nature has evolved along with greater insights into how to effectively work with people. As noted above, Wilber's Integral theory is adding to the holistic knowledge base upon which professional coaches can draw.

The birth of psychology

The field of psychology began as the investigation of consciousness and mental functions such as sensation and perception. *Webster's New World College Dictionary* (Indexed 4th edition) defines psychology as: (a) the science dealing with the mind and with mental and emotional processes; and (b) the science of human and animal behaviour'. Much of the early influence on psychology came from the philosophical tradition and early psychologists adopted the practice of introspection used by philosophers. The practice of introspection into one's desires, as well as noticing and observing behaviours, thoughts, and emotions are core practices for increasing client awareness and, as such, are cornerstones of a solid approach to coaching.

The growing body of coaching-related research greatly assists the profession in meeting this need to have evidence that what coaches do with their clients actually works. Coaches today have a rich resource of studies and published research that can inform their practice and help articulate the efficacy of what they offer to clients. As a context for this research, let's take a quick tour of the growth of psychology and how its major thinkers set the stage for the coaching revolution.

William James was the father of American psychology. James preferred ideas to laboratory results and is best known for his writings on consciousness and his view that humans can experience higher states of consciousness. He wrote on such diverse topics as functions of the brain, perception of space, psychic and paranormal faculties, religious ecstasy, will, attention, and habit.

The First Wave: Freudian Psychology

Sigmund Freud influenced the first force in psychology. While psychology in the US was struggling for an identity and striving for recognition by the scientific community, European psychology was being reshaped by the theories of Sigmund Freud. Freud created quite a stir in the medical community with his ideas and theories, but he finally gained acceptance in psychiatry with the 'talking cure' breakthrough – psychoanalysis. Some of Freud's followers went on to become well-known theorists as well – most notably **Carl Jung** (e.g. archetypes, psychological types, individuation, active imagination and the shadow), **Alfred Adler** (e.g. the social self, compensation, and infe-

riority/superiority), and **Karen Horney** (e.g. a neo-Freudian view of neuroses, isolation and helplessness as the root of anxiety). Over the years, as more people worked with Freudian ideas, the practice of psychoanalysis became more refined and more effective.

Many American psychologists began to combat Freudian theories as another non-verifiable, subjective pseudo-science of the mind. What was happening in almost parallel times were two major attempts to explain what 'a piece of work is man' and to understand what would explain pathological behaviour and what would prevent or create change in aberrant behaviours – the focus though was primarily still on the negative, the pathology, and the problems of human life, not the positive drives that would come to be emphasised later in the 20th century, especially with the rise of the Humanistic theories and now in the 21st century the popularity of positive psychology (Seligman, 2002).

The Second Wave: Behaviourists

As Freudian thought was taking shape in Europe and the US, other theorists began to focus on measurable behaviour. Thus, the time was ripe for the emergence of Behaviourism as the second major force in psychology, a movement led by **B.F. Skinner** and **John Watson**. Hundreds of years previously, Shakespeare had commented, 'What a piece of work is man?' The Behaviourists took this literally and looked upon humans in the early 20th century as *Homo mechanicus*, an object to be studied as any machine. *Homo mechanicus* was a machine whose mind was ignored and instead the focus was on behaviours that arose via automatic processes, leaving the humanity out of the equation.

The Third Wave: Humanistic Psychology

In the 1950s, **Abraham Maslow** and **Carl Rogers** initiated the third force in psychology, Humanistic Psychology, which focused on the personal, ontological, and phenomenological aspects of human experience as opposed to the mechanistic and reductionist theories of Freudianism and Behaviourism. Rogers was more concerned with the 'fully functioning person' than he was with pathology. He believed that people needed love and acceptance from others in order to be fully functioning, and his work resulted in what came to be known as client-centred therapy. Likewise, Maslow was interested in how people find value and meaning in their lives, which resulted in his 'hierarchy of needs' model, and his use of the term self actualisation.

The Fourth Wave: Transpersonal Psychology

Transpersonal Psychology was originally a major theme in the writings of Roberto Assagioli, who spoke of transpersonal consciousness. There are many who believe that psychosynthesis actually represents a fifth force, but for the purposes of this presentation, it is included in transpersonal psychology. **Abraham Maslow** eventually posited the fourth force, Transpersonal Psychology, which included mind, body, *and* spirit. It delved into altered states of consciousness that were both naturally induced by esoteric spiritual practices such as meditation, chanting, dancing and chemically induced by LSD and other hallucinogens (as experienced and researched by Stanislov Grof, Timothy Leary, and Richard Alpert (*aka* Baba Ram Dass) as a way to explore the transpersonal realm. This research opened up our knowledge of the human mind and expanded our windows of perception and possibility.

Maslow suggested this new model when he designated the Humanistic approach as a third force. As he emphasised that humanistic psychology was a major development distinct from psychoanalysis and behaviourism, he also anticipated fourth and fifth forces, which he labelled 'Transpersonal' and 'Transhuman' (Goble, 1970). In recent years, Transpersonal Psychology has joined forces with Humanistic Psychology in

studying states of consciousness, spirituality and positive aspects of human life. In fact when Positive Psychology emerged in the 1990s, it seemed that many had forgotten the early influences of these two schools of thought and their positive approaches to human understanding and change.

Major figures

So who were the major figures from these four forces in psychology and what do they bring to modern day coaching? What follows is a historical review of the influence of psychology and the theories that relate to coaching. Through works such as *The Psychopathology of Everyday Life* (1901), **Sigmund Freud** brought us the unconscious, transference, counter-transference, defense mechanisms, and resistance. His theories, although strongly pathology based, did allow the pursuit of our unconscious desires and unconscious mechanisms that influenced behaviour. Coaches, of course, today speak of the unconscious frequently, and probably often ask their clients to *look inside or at least to be more aware of thoughts desires and motives just out of conscious awareness.*

Carl Jung made many important contributions to the development and terminology of psychology, including the spiritual realm, symbolism, the relevance of ancient wisdom, archetypes, life reviews, synchronicity, transpersonal consciousness, stages of life, individuation, the shadow, and spiritual quests. Jung broke away from Freud in pursuing a more holistic, spiritual understanding of human motivation. He is quoted as saying 'who looks outside dreams…who looks inside awakens.' That is a powerful quote for coaching today. Jung's views were often called teleological and future driven. He became very much involved with what could clients learn from their life journey as they continued to create their desired future. A major theory that tracks well with coaching is his concept of *individuation*…the process of becoming whole and realising one's unique purpose and path.

Alfred Adler worked on social connections, humans as social beings, the importance of relationships, family of origin themes, significance and belonging, and lifestyle assessment. His exploration of the big question ('What if…?'), and the possibilities of 'acting as if' are techniques commonly used in coaching today. For coaches who work on issues related to social, corporate or family cultures with their clients, his theories of human nature are enlightening. He identified five key areas of influence on our everyday existence: social, love, self, work, and spiritual; and three *life* tasks as he called them: (1) love and sexual relationship; (2) relationship to work and occupation; and (3) relationship to others and the culture. Both he and Jung believed humans had a teleological pull, a pull to create a desired future – a view at the heart of what professional coaches work toward with their clients! **Roberto Assagioli**, the father of *Psychosynthesis*, wrote about our ability to synthesise our various aspects in order to function at higher levels of consciousness. He introduced such terms as *subpersonalities*, *wisdom of the inner self*, *higher self*, and the *observing self*. He would be considered in the Humanistic and Transpersonal camps.

Karen Horney was an early, influential feminist psychiatrist. Her key theories involved irrational beliefs, the need for security, early influences on rational-emotive theory, and modelling the goal of 'self-help.' She was a contemporary of Adler and an early influence on Carl Rogers. She was considered a theorist that supported humanistic psychology.

Fritz Perls, founder of Gestalt therapy, worked with personality problems involving the inner conflict between values and behaviour (desires), introducing terms such as *top dog and underdog*, and practices such as *polarity* (black-and-white thinking), *the empty chair technique*, and *awareness in the moment*. Gestalt theory also valued the whole-person experience of the client, including mind, emotions, physicality, and spirituality. Perls

was influenced by Kurt Lewin's change theory and his work in figure-ground perspectives. He was a major influence in humanistic psychology and the holistic view of a person as an interaction of body, brain, and being and that unconscious thoughts and feelings manifested themselves in many ways that could be understood with present focused inquiry.

Carl Rogers developed a client-centred approach that suggested clients have the answers within them. He brought us the terms *unconditional positive regard* and *humanistic psychology* He championed the practice of listening, reflecting, and paraphrasing, and the value of silence and sacred space: and this influence carries over to coaching and its value for deep listening, co creating the coaching space, client-driven processes, and viewing coaching as a partner to clients in their exploration of desired change.

Abraham Maslow introduced his hierarchy of needs and values. He reflected on *being needs* versus *deficiency needs*, the higher self, and our transpersonal potential. He is considered the father of Humanistic Psychology and did much research into the process of self-actualisation. His theories apply well to positive psychology and coaching today leading toward an emphasis on *thriving* more than *surviving* or even just *striving*.

Virginia Satir can be seen as the mother of family therapy, as was experienced when I heard her say to those of us in attendance at Esalen Institute in 1970 that she could not explain the magic herself – she just did what she felt and intuited and let the family's issues surface in ways that she had fun with but also provoked deepening their awareness. She began to be called Columbus of family therapy because she did not arrive where she started to go and did not really know where she was when she got there. She believed that a healthy family affection, feelings, and love. She was well known for describing family roles, for example, *the rescuer*, *the victim*, or *the placator* that function to constrain relationships and interactions in families. Her work, an early systemic look at relationships, has had a strong influence on coaching in the business context because many of the consultants at that time began to realise that her system theories and techniques for families were just as effective with dysfunctional work teams and managers. I personally used much of her techniques in my early executive coaching with executives at major corporations in the later 1980s and early 1990s.

Viktor Frankl developed Logotherapy out of his personal experience during World War II. Influenced by existential philosophy and his own existential crisis, Frankl wrote *Man's Search for Meaning* (1959) while in a Nazi prison camp and later published it from the notes he had made on scraps of paper. He is quoted as saying that the one freedom that could not be taken from him while in prison was his freedom to think, dream, and mentally create. Frankl introduced paradoxical intent into psychology – 'what you resist persists' or 'what you give energy to is what you manifest'. Coaches today use these same principles to assist their clients to focus on what they want and on creating desired outcomes. Frankl is cited today by many coaches as an exemplar of the importance of intention and the necessity of finding meaning in work and life.

Milton Erickson investigated hypnotherapy as well as *languaging* and the *double-binding* of the client. From his work, coaches have learned to focus on possibility and look for the uncommon approach to change, including the use of evocative and powerful questions as well as creative requests that were made of clients. Erickson is the father of American hypnotherapy and, along with Gregory Bateson, an early influencer of Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) created by Bandler and Grindler. They studied and recorded the techniques that made Erickson and Satir as well so creatively successful and masterful in a way that they did not even know what it was they did that created the magic, a framework that is used by many coaches.

Jeffrey Zeig and **Bill O'Hanlon**, students of Milton Erickson, introduced pattern interruption, the confusion technique, forced choice, assumption of the positive path, non-trance hypnosis, and unconscious competence. *Reframing* is another important coaching tool based in their work, used to help clients shift their view of a situation.

In the 1970s, solution-focused approaches emerged; they put less focus on the problem and instead focused their energy into discovering and highlighting what works.

Fernando Flores is a philosopher who took Austin and Searle's work (Solomon, 2001) on *speech act theory* and applied it to human interaction through conversations. One aspect of his legacy is among one of the most useful coaching tools, making requests…and is a legacy of his exploration of how language brings action into being. Flores was an early influence on Werner Erhard, and the EST training, which later became Landmark Education, programmes which influenced Thomas Leonard and his early curriculum at Coach University and Laura Whitworth and the curriculum of the Coaches Training Institute. Both Leonard and Whitworth worked closely with Werner Erhard in his organisation in the 1980s. Julio Ollala and James Flaherty, both early creators in the ontological coaching theories and practices, are important figures here as well greatly influenced by Flores.

Martin Seligman promotes Positive Psychology as a strength-based approach to human fulfillment. In doing so, Seligman brought new emphasis to principles from Humanistic Psychology in looking at positive and generative aspects for human living. Its consistent focus is on building and utilising strengths rather than weaknesses, and it can be applied to therapy as well as coaching and education. Seligman's work is highly useful to coaches and it is based in decades of research to back up the theories. Life coaching can certainly be viewed as applied positive psychology.

Conclusion

The core of the coaching profession is grounded in sound academic and scholarly theories that preceded coaching, and it will be strengthened by the validation of theories and evidence-based research as the profession moves forward. All the amazing tools that have grown out of modern psychology offer support to coaches in assisting clients to change as desired. As the recent emergence of Positive Psychology demonstrates and now as Coaching Psychology takes its place of influence new developments become available all the time.

The hallmarks of coaching are its synthesis of tools from other fields and its proclivity for innovation. With all the research going on today, coaching is developing its own evidence-based theories. It has borrowed from what has gone before, much as psychologists borrowed from philosophers. As coaching grows as a profession, it will develop its own research base of effective strategies and tools within the unique relationship that is the coaching alliance.

Coaching has arisen as a profession, I believe, because of the shortage of real listening in our society today and for the lack of true connection that many people experience. All of these factors arise from the socioeconomic conditions of rapid change, technology advances, and the instant availability of information. Carl Rogers said that counselling was like buying a friend; hiring a coach is similar. But, of course, it is much more than that. A coach is a partner who is hired to assist the client in going for greatness in any and all domains of their life. People may not always *need* a coach, but I believe they do *deserve* a coach. And like all true professions, there are different levels of mastery and competence.

In the context of my presentation on the influence of Humanistic and Transpersonal luminaries on the field of Coaching Psychology, I posited the importance of a whole person perspective: Mind, Body, Spirit (or Body, Brain and Being) and yet we must not forget the Social aspect of a holistic view

of humanity and where coaching psychology can be effective.

In that vein, I founded a non-profit organisation in 2006 called Coaching the Global Village, and I end here with a personal perspective of where this fits in the landscape of what coaching can be in the world today!

Coaching Psychology plays an increasing important role in developing the profession of personal and business coaching. Coaching will survive because it is effective, it will thrive because it can be socially transformational, for us humans and the planet we inhabit.

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Cross-disciplinary perspectives in coaching psychology

Editorial

Michael Cavanagh & Stephen Palmer

RESEARCHERS in biology and natural systems tell us that one measure of the health of a system is the diversity it is able to sustain (Cardinale et al., 2012). Indeed, diversity is not just a 'nice to have', but a *sine qua non* of sustainability in any system. While diversity brings with it tension, it is also the vehicle by which new information, energy, and innovation is created. The field of coaching and coaching psychology is no exception to this rule. It was this understanding that inspired the successful 'Debate' section of this publication (started in 2011 and to be continued in future issues). It is also the thinking is behind a new section that is commencing in this issue – 'Cross-disciplinary perspectives in coaching psychology'.

In this section we are looking to publish work that is applicable to coaching, but which has its foundation in disciplines outside coaching and coaching psychology proper. This may include work that is grounded in the wider field of psychology, or indeed work that emanates from disciplines far removed from psychology.

We have two excellent articles to kick off the 'Cross-disciplinary perspectives' section. The first, by Noreen Tehrani, Diana Osborne and David Lane, looks at the issue of trauma in people's lives and its relation to coaching. It is often said that coaching deal with healthy populations – though for some time a range of research suggests this is not always the case (see Cavanagh, 2005; Spence & Grant, 2005; Green, Oades & Grant, 2007). Tehrani and her colleagues suggest that coaches need to be cogniscent of the signs and symptoms of trauma, so that they can deal effectively with clients for whom past or present trauma is an issue. In their very informative paper they provide tips and guidelines for supporting, and referring clients suffering from trauma, and for self care on the part of the coach.

In the second article launching this new section, Maria Gardiner and Hugh Kearns draw on their work in helping professionals kick start their writing for academic, professional and general audiences. Drawing from the therapeutic literature and their work on the psychology of writing, they suggest that cognitive behavioural coaching may be a useful intervention to help academics and other clients commence and sustain high quality, high quantity writing.

Both of these articles bring new understandings and knowledge from the wider field of applied psychology, and we welcome them as contributing to the knowledge base in coaching. We would also welcome future contributions, drawn from areas even further afield, that are able to inform the coaching process. After all, the capacity to engage with a wide range of perspectives in the service of valued outcomes is at the heart of the coaching project, and the heart of professional coaching psychology.

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Restoring meaning and wholeness – the role for coaching after a trauma

Noreen Tehrani, Diana Osborne & David Lane

Trauma affects most people at some time in their lives, even where a traumatic event occurred a long time in the past, it may be reactivated by another event in life. Coaches, need to be aware of the signs and symptoms of trauma so that, if they choose they can work with it to provide appropriate support and direction for their clients. This article gives an outline of trauma, helps coaches to see where their skills may be helpful, provides guidance on when to refer on to a trauma therapist and gives some hints on how to prevent secondary trauma and compassion fatigue. There are some ideas for finding out more about training which would be suitable for coaches in this important work.
Keywords: *Psychological trauma; coaching; competence; training.*

Trauma is everywhere!

EXAMINING the epidemiology of traumatic incidence it soon becomes clear that trauma is all around us all of the time. Even the most extreme forms of trauma which meet the criterion required as a prerequisite for a diagnosis of Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) are not uncommon. Breslau (1998) reported on the lifetime prevalence of traumatic exposures in a national survey and found that 61 per cent of men and 59 per cent of women had experienced a traumatic event ranging from rape, sexual assault, war, accidents, threatened with a weapon, physical attack, being shot or stabbed or dealing with an unexpected death. Despite the incidence of traumatic events, around a quarter of people exposed experience an acute or longer term response with most of these symptoms being resolved within two years. As you read this paper, you may be able to think back to events in your own life during which you felt that your life or well-being was in danger, you observed a horrific event or suffered a personal attack. Biomedical researchers are recognising that childhood events have long term impacts in terms of mental, physical and emotional health. Incidents of maltreatment of various types in childhood are also high with up to one in four children being affected. (Lanius et al., 2010; NSPCC, 2012).

The workplace can also be a dangerous place with some workers being affected by personal traumas such as industrial accidents, violence or bullying or they may be exposed to the trauma of others through their role of nurse, social worker, police officer, ambulance or fire & rescue personnel (Tehrani, 2004, 2012). The sudden death of a much loved colleague or the slow demise of a close friend from cancer can be traumatic due to the nature of the relationships which build up in the workplace.

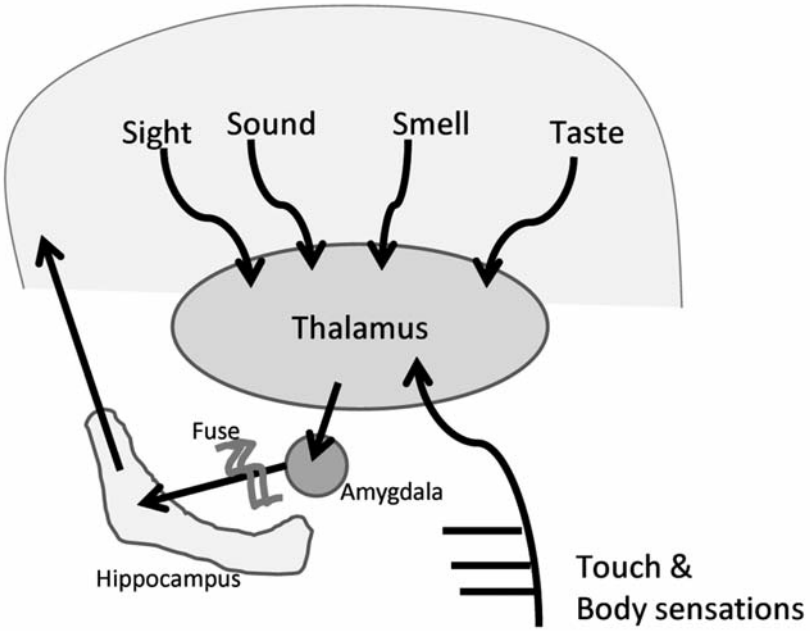
Coaches work with a wide range of clients, whilst it may be obvious that some have come to coaching as a result of a distressing event such as a redundancy, bullying, conflict or relationship breakdown. However, it is sometimes the case that the underpinning issue is trauma related and at these times it would be valuable for coaches to have some understanding of traumatic stress and how it is similar to and different from everyday stresses and strains of life.

What is psychological trauma?

Perhaps the easiest way to understand traumatic stress is to look at it from an evolutionary and biological perspective. This

approach is relatively easy to understand and largely eliminates the suggestion that people who become traumatised are somehow weak or inferior to those who can withstand a traumatic exposure (Figure 1 shows the main areas of the brain involved in the trauma response). During a traumatic exposure the person is faced by a situation which overwhelms their normal coping mechanisms alerting their amygdala (trauma centre) to the features of the traumatising event. The amygdala is a primitive part of the brain and is highly sensitive to danger. Unfortunately, the amygdala has no language and is unable to discriminate between things that are dangerous from those that are merely associated with a danger. For example, a bank clerk held up by a raider wearing a leather jacket may become upset of fearful of anyone wearing leather jackets. The role of the amygdala is to trigger the arousal system to respond to danger, a task which it can fulfil in a fraction of the time that would be required by higher centres in the brain, this clearly has an advantage in a traumatic situation where there is no time to think. The amygdala's holds a range of trauma templates created throughout life, some templates relate to real dangers and are helpful others involve random features of traumatic events which were not in themselves dangerous but cause anxiety, distress or fear. The activation of these templates often causes panic attacks or phobic responses. The brain has a mechanism to prevent the amygdala taking over at the time of a traumatic exposure; metaphorically this is like a fuse which blows between the amygdala and the hippocampus. The later has the role of creating new memories. When the 'fuse' blows there is a tendency to feel emotionally detached from the traumatic event. People often describe this as feeling as if they are watching a film or being on automatic pilot.

Figure 1: The brain's response to trauma.



Most people recover from a traumatic exposure providing they have an opportunity to reflect and make sense of their experience and are able to recognise that some of their symptoms may be related to the amygdala trying to 'communicate its anxiety' by creating flashbacks, dreams or illusions from the trauma templates or by setting off the arousal system when faced with any sensory feature of the trauma.

When are coaches competent to help people who have gone through a traumatic event?

In some ways coaches may be in a better position to assist someone who has gone through a traumatic event than some counsellors. Allowing time for the person to tell their story without the need to challenge or explore the emotional responses is an important skill for the trauma support worker. We need to recognise that coaching psychologists often have competence in other areas. They may be clinical or counselling psychologists as well as coaches. Here we are addressing the role that non-clinically qualified coaching psychologists might play. Table 1 shows the different skills and activities involved in dealing with a traumatised client.

The safe and effective process for dealing with a traumatised client is quite structured and involves going through what has happened in a safe and structured way, concentrating on factual and sensory information rather than the thoughts and emotional responses (Hawker et al., 2011). The aim is to act as a psychological first aider where there is an opportunity to acknowledge and gain closure to traumatic experiences rather than opening up other possibilities which can overwhelm. A trauma supporter will accept the story and impressions of their client rather than challenging their recollection and provide the client with opportunities to dictate the speed and content of what they wish to describe. Unlike counselling which generally will not include providing information or advice trauma support requires the supporter to provide information, education and exercises to help reduce the trauma symptoms. While some coaching psychologists reject an advice giving role for others it makes sense when appropriate to the client. This is one of those occasions.

It is important for the coach to recognise the limits to their knowledge and competence in dealing with some of the deeper issues which may be present in a client experiencing significant levels of trauma symptoms or where the traumatic events are complex or go back to early life abuse or losses. Coaches should also recognise that in order for them to work effectively with a client there has to be a reasonable level of self-awareness and willingness to work on those activities which will reduce their anxiety and levels of arousal. Social support is extremely important to someone experiencing trauma symptoms; research has shown that where a trauma victim has the support of their family, colleagues or friends they have a much better chance of recovery

Table 1: Difference between Trauma Support Coaching and Counselling.

Trauma Support Coaching	Counselling
● Structured	● Generally less structured
● Closing down	● Opening up
● Acceptance	● Challenging
● Limited focus	● Wide focus
● Client control	● Client risk taking
● Information provided	● Non-advisory

(Bryant & Harvey, 2000). Coaches dealing with a traumatised client would, therefore, need to be mindful of the need to encourage the building or re-establishment of social networks and support.

What help can coaches provide?

When working with a traumatic event it is important to concentrate on the issue that has been raised by the client. Whilst there may be parallel issues or other factors it is not helpful to try to deal with everything that has a resonance with the issue of concern. For example, if a client was involved in a car crash it is important to focus on the features of the crash and not explore other times when the client may have feared for his or her life or felt out of control. Whilst in therapy it may be appropriate to explore the significance of the date, people involved or meaning of the crash or early life experiences and attachments, this is not helpful to a traumatised person who need to deal with the trauma in a more straight forward way.

Processing trauma memories, particularly when these memories are difficult to access as they have become embedded in the amygdala in a sensory rather than verbal form can be a slow process. Teaching clients relaxation skills to help them remain calm during the retelling of their experience is helpful but may take time. The amygdala does not release the sensory memories to the conscious awareness on demand, sometimes waiting for opportunities to disclose the encrypted fear in flashbacks, nightmares, recurrent thoughts and behaviours. For a traumatised client these re-experiences of the traumatic event are regard as frightening symptoms of a trauma disorder rather than the key to help them regaining wellbeing. Coaching clients need to recognise accept these post trauma responses as natural outcomes of their experience. This takes away fear and allows the meaning of the traumatic event to be created.

A common feature of post-trauma behaviour is the avoidance of all reminders of the traumatic event. This avoidance behaviour is a natural outcome of the anxiety or panic created by exposure to the reminder. For many victims of traumatic exposure this can develop into phobias which can become generalised to restrict many areas of life. Although this trauma initiated phobic process begins with a pre-conscious recognition of a danger which creates the avoidance behaviour, there is often an accompanying self-deprecating trauma thought or belief (Foa et al., 1999). By understanding the trauma response and the role of the post-trauma cognitions the coach can begin to help their client to challenge this irrational thinking and address the anxiety, panic and phobic responses.

Although much of the emphasis in trauma psychology has been on the negative impact, there is an increasing body of evidence to demonstrate that trauma can lead to personal growth (Joseph, 2009). Within many coaches toolkits are the skills to undertake skills assessments (Linley & Minhas, 2011), these skills enable their clients to become aware of their inherent abilities and strengths which may be tapped. This can help to create new learning and empowerment which can result in the post-trauma self growing as a result of their sense-making of their distressing experience.

How can their 'coaching skills' help provide support?

Coaching can be a process for supporting clients to achieve a valued goal or objective. Coaches, therefore, employ a range of skills all of which are useful when dealing with a traumatised client. Table 2 highlights some of the skills and shows how they can be used in dealing with a traumatic memory.

When do coaches need to pass cases to a trauma therapist/GP?

Some victims of trauma may not be suitable for coaching as they require a much more in-depth psychotherapeutic approach to help them deal with their traumatic experience. It is important to undertake an assessment prior to coaching to see if the traumatic

Table 2: Coaching skills and post-trauma support.

Coaching Skill	Description	Example
Goal setting	Coaches need to be able to identify clear and well defined goals.	Traumatised people find it hard to focus on the future, the use of SMART goals gives a direction and sense of a future which can be influenced.
Reframing	Taking perceived problems and presenting the problem in a different light/framework.	The reframing for a client who is nervous about meeting people 'That is really interesting – your reactions are helping you to think about how to deal with this meeting in a different way.'
Observing	Being aware of body language and having an intuitive sense.	Body language in people who have experienced trauma gives an insight to their inner experiences. Watch their posture, expression, skin tone and movements to help you understand.
Active listening	Active listening which includes, open and closed questions, paraphrase and summary help to get into the clients world.	A traumatised person can find the experience of being listened and responded to accurately and non-judgementally extremely helpful in the process of teasing out pre-conscious trauma memories from the Amygdala.
Empathy	The ability to get into the trauma victim's world and to respond accurately to their experiences.	Empathy helps clients to feel less isolated and alone. There are some dangers for the coach in becoming emotionally empathetic as this can lead to burnout or compassion fatigue.
Immediacy	Providing clear and specific feedback on the clients actions and responses in the session.	This skill is used to test out hunches and intuition as well as to provide positive feedback on achievement. The feedback should be observational and non-judgemental.
Respect	Checking out how the client is feeling and what they want shows respect and also gives the client some control over the session.	For many victims of trauma control has been taken away. Showing respect and consideration gives back control and enables them to decide on how they would like to work with their coach.
Supporting change	Making sure that targets are manageable, efforts are rewarded and support is available.	Change is not easy for anyone, even more so for a trauma victim. Building in rewards, acknowledgement of effort and believing in your client's ability to recover is essential.

Table 3: Trauma support available from a Coach, Trauma Psychologists and Psychiatrist.

Domain	Coaching Psychologist	Trauma Psychologist	Psychiatry
Intention	Increase potential to achieve post-trauma growth.	Identify and remove blocks to psychological well-being.	Diagnose and treat psycho-pathology.
Underpinning beliefs	People can learn skills to deal with issues/ situations through systematic engagement and reinforcement.	People are resourceful and given support will solve their problems and achieve their goals.	Some mental conditions are caused by underlying medical or psychiatric malfunctions and need treatment.
Benefits	Forward looking in Increasing the range of skills and abilities based on the needs of the individual.	Recognises and addresses patterns of behaviour which may get in way of achieving goals.	Can identify and treat psychiatric disorders which may contribute to unwanted symptoms or behaviours.
Disadvantages	Most coaching models do not deal with the complexity of trauma. Coaches may not recognise the psychological/ psychiatric problems.	Some trauma psychologists may not pay attention to organisational issues or be aware of the personal skills required to deal with trauma responses.	Psychiatrists may adopt a medical model approach, ignoring the impact of the traumatic event or other social issues.
When appropriate	When there is an openness to explore and self-awareness and an ability to accept some responsibility for actions.	Where there are some unresolved issues from the past which may be getting in the way of positive solutions and personal growth.	Where the underlying problem is relates to a psychiatric disorder which has caused or been caused by the trauma.

memories and responses require a more specialist approach. Recognising the features of acute stress, anxiety, depression, traumatic stress and dissociation and making an appropriate referral will help the client to get the most effective support. Coaches should also monitor their clients and identify where, despite their best intentions the trauma symptoms begin to increase or where there are other concerning features such as substance abuse, self harming or dissociation. For most people there should be an improvement within a month, coaches should consider referring a client to a trauma psychologist or their GP if there is no obvious improvement within a relatively short period. Table 3 provides an indication of the help that can be provided by coaches, trauma psychologists and psychiatrists.

Importance of supervision when coaching traumatised clients?

While it is recognised that supervision is important for coaches (Carroll, 2006) it is not fully understood or used by some coaches. (Lane,2011) Working with trauma, perhaps more than any other form of coaching requires the coach to be supervised by someone aware of the dangers in undertaking this kind of work. It is likely that this

will be a coaching supervisor with qualifications in clinical or counselling psychology (McNabb, 2011). As coaches listen to the accounts of their clients empathetic links are created to the trauma stories to such an extent that the coach may begin to have thoughts, dreams or experiences similar to those of their client (Figley, 2002; Morrissette, 2004). The development of secondary trauma, compassion fatigue and burnout are clear signs of the coach becoming vicariously affected by their work with trauma. (Taylor & Lane, 1990). Before engaging in this kind of work with coaches should find a coaching supervisor who is qualified in clinical or counselling psychology and has experience in dealing with trauma. However, the coach should also take personal responsibility for themselves and their need to build their emotional resilience and emotional resources. They need to be sure that they do not have any unresolved or ongoing traumas and that they have a well-balanced lifestyle with a wide range of social support. When selecting a supervisor coaches need to ensure that the supervisor is prepared to:

- Assess whether you have the personal characteristics and personal strengths to engage in the work.
- Identify and deal with signs of emotional distress and to explore these during supervision.
- Recognise and handle parallel process, transference and countertransference played out in the relational dynamics of the supervision.
- Help you to build a range of personal coping strategies and networks.
- Debrief particularly difficult or distressing stories.
- Reward successes and recognise good work.
- To tell you when they feel a case needs to be referred on for trauma therapy.

Is there any training available for coaches wanting to work with trauma?

In the medical field there are long established specialities in dealing with physical aspects of trauma. Ongoing training and Masters degrees exist. There is no coach specific training available. However, there are now a number of programmes which enable coaches and coaching psychologists to develop their skills in this area. Short-term courses in the UK include those in PTSD from a CBT perspective through the Centre for Coaching and one-day workshops through Noreen Tehrani Associates. There are also now Masters degrees on offer from the universities in Chester and Nottingham and a joint Masters between Noreen Tehranai Associates, Professional Development Foundation and Middlesex University. It is worth coaches searching for trauma-related courses as more are becoming available. In Australia there is widespread interest in the field including training in working with refugees, soldiers, fire-fighters on managing the psychological stress involved. Again these are emerging all the time and it is worth searching. Some university curricula in Australia also include courses on PTSD and Crisis Intervention. However, as for the UK those specific to coaching or coaching psychology are harder to find.

Coaching psychologists looking to develop their skills in this area will need to seek training alongside colleagues in sister disciplines.

In conclusion

There is a role for coaching psychologists to facilitate recovering a sense of wholeness and meaning following traumatic events. The role is not psychotherapeutic but one of providing a structured support process. This is an area in which the skills that are developed within a coaching process add value to a client seeking to come to terms with such events. It is important to recognise the boundary issues and the benefits and disadvantages of a coaching offer as outlined but we believe that this is an area to which coaching psychology can increasingly make a contribution.

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The ABCDE of Writing: Coaching high-quality high-quantity writing

Maria Gardiner[1] & Hugh Kearns[2]

Coaching has been used for many purposes, and the scholarly literature demonstrates its efficacy in improving performance and well-being. However, to date, there has been no specific literature about coaching as a tool to increase the quality and quantity of writing in adult writers. We argue that writing is a significant component on many professional people's working life (e.g. academics or PhD students), and as such, success in this area can have a major impact on career progression. The foundation of cognitive behavioural coaching, the ABCDE model, provides the basis for a discussion about how to coach high-quality, high-quantity writing. In this article we discuss what aspects of writing are most likely to give rise to unhelpful beliefs and consequences. Using evidence from the scholarly literature on writing, inaccurate beliefs are disputed and more effective behaviours are suggested. The authors conclude that there is much to be gained from coaches having a specific understanding of the psychology of writing, as successful writing may make the difference between people's careers flourishing or stagnating.

Keywords: *Cognitive behavioural coaching; Academics; PhD students; Coaching psychology; Writing productivity*

COACHES work with coachee's on many aspects of the latter's career, for example, the team, performance or effectiveness. One aspect not often specifically singled out in coaching is writing. Yet, for the vast majority of coachees (and often for the coaches) who work in professional roles, writing is a core element of their job (National Commission on Writing, 2004). If the coachee is a student, perhaps completing a research higher degree such as a PhD, or an academic, they will be unable to succeed in their jobs unless they are productive writers. Despite the importance of writing in education and careers, very little is known about the internal psychology of writing. Although there are many courses, books and so on about writing, it is generally assumed that people will somehow work out how to manage themselves to write productively and well. Most of these courses and books are about the mechanics of writing, such as how not to split one's infinitives. In the scholarly literature, the majority of research and comment focuses on a developmental or competency approach to writing (e.g. Camp, 2012; Grigorenko et al., 2012). There is also substantial scholarly literature on improving writing skills, of which the vast majority tends to take a very behavioural- and skills-based approach, which is largely driven by the developmental literature (e.g. Kellogg, 2009; Martinez et al., 2011; Porritt et al., 2006). While these approaches have been shown to be of some use to writers, we claim that without reference to the internal psychological world or belief systems of the writer, such behavioural approaches may be less effective (cf. Boice, 1985; Wellington, 2010).

As such, there has been little focus on how writers can use an understanding of themselves and their beliefs to improve their writing. A recent commentary on this topic published in the leading science journal *Nature* (Gardiner & Kearns, 2011) was the most-read piece in the journal during the

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week the journal was released. This indicates that, despite the deficiency in academic application to the internal world of the writer, there is clearly a great deal of interest in the topic. The interest from the writers themselves stems largely from the productivity to be gained from understanding the internal processes involved in high-quality high-quantity writing. As will be demonstrated, many of the beliefs and consequent behaviours in which people engage directly affect the quality and quantity of their writing. Using evidence-based principles to change beliefs and behaviours as a way to improve performance has mostly been the domain of coaching psychology. Coaching psychology has demonstrated reliable improvements in both performance and affect (e.g. see Grant, Cavanagh et al. [2010] for a discussion on the achievements of coaching research). As such, coaching psychology is an ideal methodology to apply to writing productivity and quality, for both our own jobs and those of our coachees.

Coaching psychology and writing

There has been a significant increase in the evidence base for coaching psychology, as demonstrated by the increase in the number of publications in recent years (see Grant [2011] for an annotated bibliography that shows this increase). More than half of the scholarly publications in coaching have appeared in the last 10 years. General conclusions are now being made about some of the psychological and behavioural impacts of coaching (Grant & Cavanagh, 2011; Spence & Grant, 2011). The majority of coaching practice involves coachees in executive or business roles, and research supports the efficacy of coaching in these settings (Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011). These research studies have focused on performance within business or commercial environments. Stern (2004) notes that executive coaching focuses on enhancing the executive's abilities and potential, particularly as regards leadership and organisational outcomes. However, many people work or study in highly demanding roles with limited traditional leadership or commercial responsibilities. Often, the centrepiece of such a role is writing of some description. For example, academics, PhD students and professionals who must write reports and other documents. To date, there has been little in the coaching literature to guide the coach working with such clients. Grant, Green et al. (2010) make this point in the first randomised controlled trial (RCT) examining coaching in an educational setting.

> *Many professional coaches and consultants now have considerable experience in conducting executive and leadership coaching engagements in commercial and organisational settings. Such experiences have much to offer the broader social enterprise, including the educational sector. We encourage executive coaches and consultants to extend their research and practice and look for new applications in such areas, and in doing so to continue to further contribute to society's development and well-being.* (p.165)

The aim of this paper is to attempt to highlight and contribute to redressing this situation.

Evidence-based coaching psychology

Despite some mixed findings, a number of quasi-experimental studies have shown a variety of positive outcomes for coaching. For example, Gyllensten and Palmer (2005) found that workplace coaching reduced some aspects of strain (anxiety and stress) in a coaching group compared with a control group. Kochanowski et al. (2010) found that the participants in a feedback and coaching group had higher levels of collaboration compared with a feedback-only control group. Evers et al. (2006) found that managers who received coaching increased their self-efficacy beliefs in relation to setting their own goals and expectations about acting in a balanced way. Similarly, Leonard-Cross (2010) found that participants who had received coaching had higher levels of self-efficacy compared with those who had not received coaching. In a within-subject single-

case study design, Libri and Kemp (2006) found that an executive was able to improve his sales performance, self-evaluation and global self-ratings of performance after participating in an executive coaching programme. Although these studies do not relate to writing *per se*, they demonstrate the efficacy of coaching as a change methodology.

While the quasi-experimental studies show some support for coaching psychology, RCTs provide a higher level of rigour and, therefore, allow for more robust conclusions about the efficacy of coaching. Of the 15 between-subject outcome studies that exist in the coaching literature, 11 utilised a randomised controlled design and largely support the efficacy of coaching psychology (see Grant & Cavanagh [2011] for a list these studies). For example, Taylor (1997) found that coaching was more effective than training for reducing stress in medical students preparing for exams. Miller et al. (2004) found that coaching, together with feedback, was more successful than training style interventions in improving the interviewing skills of mental-health workers. Gattellari et al. (2005) found that GPs made better clinical decisions about a screening test after they had been coached by peers, relative to a control group. Spence et al. (2008) found that coaching and mindfulness training led to better goal attainment than did health education alone. Grant (2002) found that combined cognitive and behavioural training was more effective at improving performance and mental health over a 12-month period than either cognitive or behavioural coaching alone. Green et al. (2006) found that solution-focused (as opposed to problem-focused) coaching increased goal attainment and well-being, with gains maintained at 30-week follow-up, and (Spence & Grant, 2007) found that solution-focused cognitive behavioural coaching) more effectively increased goal commitment and goal attainment than did peer coaching. More recently, in the first RCT involving executive coaching, Grant et al. (2009) found that solution-focused CBC improved goal attainment, resilience and well-being, and reduced depression and stress. Again, despite these studies having limited reference to writing specifically, they do provide a high level of support for the ability of coaching psychology to assist people to change.

In a high-school setting, a setting more similar to the non-commercial or non-leadership environment under discussion in this paper, Grant, Green et al. (2010) found that teachers who underwent cognitive behavioural solution-focused coaching had higher levels of goal attainment, workplace well-being and resilience, and lower levels of stress, when compared with the control group. Although this was the first RCT to focus on the impact of coaching on goal attainment and well-being in an education setting and outside the commercial organisational settings observed in executive-coaching studies, there was no focus on specific aspects of the non-commercial setting, such as writing.

In summary, all of the RCTs conducted to date that have utilised a goal-focused or solution-focused coaching approach support the efficacy of coaching across a wide variety of outcomes (ranging from goal attainment to well-being, mental health and hardiness) and over an extended period. It would be reasonable to conclude that these findings would extend to a job-related activity such as writing.

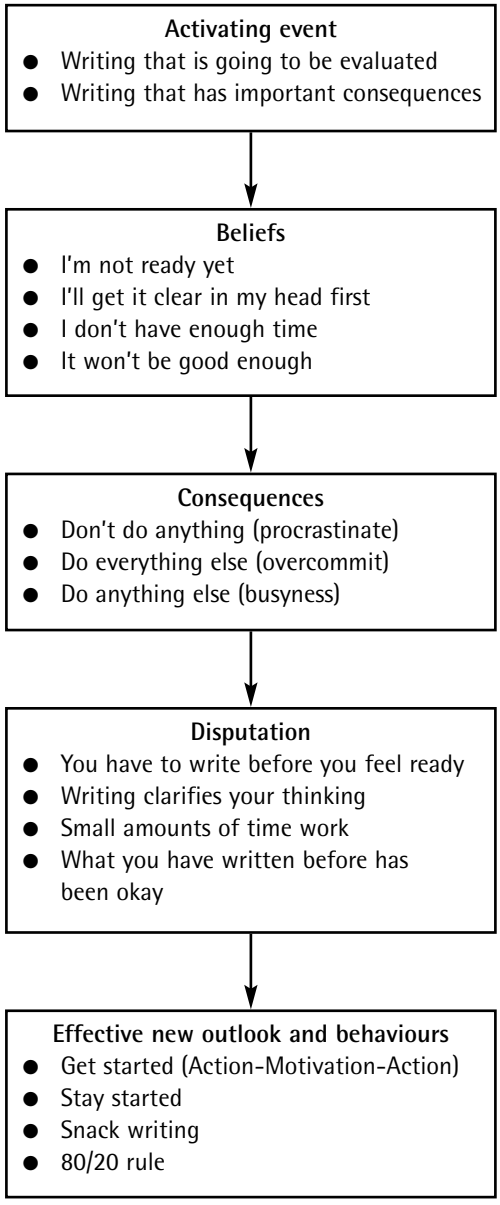
Although writing is not directly related to profitability or team management, writing is an integral part of many people's jobs that could benefit from coaching. Recently, Vitae, the body responsible for the support and development of researchers and doctoral students across the UK, released the report *Coaching for Research in UK Higher Education Institutions* (2012). The report concluded that coaching was a promising methodology for achieving sustainable research careers. Given that one of the biggest predictors of career success for these groups is the ability to produce high-quality high-quantity writing, focusing coaching specifically on

writing, is likely to provide much benefit. Therefore, this current paper attempts to apply existing knowledge about coaching to writing. For many people, the ability to improve their writing productivity and the effectiveness of their writing could make the difference between having a successful or just okay – or even failed – career.

Cognitive behavioural coaching

As evidenced by the studies just reviewed, cognitive behavioural coaching (CBC) is one of the most highly utilised approaches (at least by coaching psychologists) to coaching (Grant & Cavanagh, 2011; Spence & Oades, 2011; Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). CBC is based on the most well-validated and evidence-based intervention in clinical psychology: cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) (Hollon & Beck, 2004; NICE, 2008). Neenan (2008) (see also Neenan & Palmer [2001]) describes how CBT can be, and has been, adapted to the field of coaching. The basic underpinning of CBC is the ABCDE cognitive model, which proposes that Activating events elicit Beliefs that give rise to Consequences, such as unpleasant and unhelpful emotions and behaviours; to reduce these consequences, it is necessary to Dispute the inaccurate beliefs or thoughts, which in turn leads to an Effective new outlook (Dryden & Neenan, 2004; Neenan & Palmer, 2001). Many of the other frameworks used to guide coaching sessions, for example, PRACTICE (Palmer, 2007, 2011), can be incorporated into a cognitive behavioural framework. More sophisticated versions of the basic CBC model have been developed, such as the SPACE model, which takes a bio-psycho-social approach (Edgerton & Palmer, 2005). The basic premise of cognitive behavioural models is if you can change people's beliefs (in this case, about writing), you will change their behaviour, which will lead to more productive attitudes and behaviours. Coaches can utilise any of these models when coaching writers. However, we argue that coaching a writer without reference to the underlying

Figure 1: The ABCDE model of CBC as applied to writing.



beliefs held by the writer will lead to short-term or sporadic results. Figure 1 illustrates how the foundation of all CBC models, the ABCDE model, applies to writing. The next section explains this model in detail.

Activating event

Clearly, the activating event for writing is writing. However, not all writing is equal. Some types of writing are more likely than other types to give rise to unhelpful beliefs and behaviours. Writing that has an evaluative component is the most likely to induce inaccurate thoughts and production-slowing behaviours. The more significant the evaluation, the bigger the unhelpful reaction. Martin et al. (2003) discuss the ways in which competitive academic environments can lead to unproductive self-protection strategies. In education settings, all writing will be evaluated, that is, 'marked'. This is a central element of why so many students suffer from poor study behaviours, such as overcommitting (Koszegi, 2006), busyness (Silvera, 2000), perfectionism (Greenberg, 1985), procrastination (Martin et al., 2003; Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984), disorganisation (Norem, 2001), not putting in effort (Urdan & Midgley, 2001) and choosing performance-debilitating circumstances (Sanna & Mark, 1995). The educational pathway that involves the most rigorous and highest level of evaluation is the PhD. Submission rates across Western countries sit between 50 and 60 per cent (Jaschik, 2008; Jiranek, 2010); more recently in the UK at some institutions, submission rates have been higher (Economic and Social Research Council, 2010). The attrition rates in these research higher degrees are extremely high, as are the unhelpful behaviours. A number of researchers argue that it is the unhelpful behaviours, rather than the difficulty of the task, which is responsible for these low completion rates (Kearns, Forbes et al., 2008; Kearns, Gardiner et al, 2008; Manathunga, 2005).

The traditional study environment is not the only activating event for unhelpful beliefs and behaviours in relation to writing. Many professional careers involve a significant amount of writing and significant pressure to write. Academia is one such profession. In a major study of 15 Australian universities, Gillespie et al. (2001) found that academic staff perceived a sizeable increase in job demands over the preceding five years and that, among other things, task overload was a significant contributor (see Kinman & Jones [2008] for similar findings in the UK). Winefield (2003) (see also Court & Kinman [2008]) noted that this task overload consisted of increasing pressure to lift performance in the areas of publishing and acquiring external grants. Bakker et al. (2010), who presented further analyses from the Winefield (2003) cohort, showed that 'personality characteristics' contributed to the pressure and lack of success experienced by some academics and they suggested there was 'the need to tailor interventions at the individual, not just the workplace, level' (p.633). In essence, Bakker et al. recognised that the issues did not rest entirely with the workload; the ways in which individuals responded to the pressure to write made a substantial difference. Writing when under pressure to do so and when it is important for one's career is a significant activating event for unhelpful beliefs. Other professions also involve a high level of writing and the need to write under pressure; as such, people working in these professions are likely to suffer similar issues.

Beliefs

When writers are faced with a writing task that they know someone else will read and judge or when they have multiple competing demands or both, the dominant response of many writers is to not write at all, or to write very slowly. Writers have a plethora of very plausible and convincing beliefs to support this inaction. We have coached thousands of writers (individually, and in small and large groups), and the following beliefs are the most common and most strongly held beliefs that we have encountered.

I'm not ready yet

Commonly, writers will say that the reason they are not writing is they do not feel ready. They have a belief that they cannot write unless they feel ready. In fact, they tell themselves that they will lower the quality of their writing by 'forcing' their creative thoughts or ideas to flow. Writers often believe that if they just wait a bit longer they will feel ready.

I'll get it all clear in my head first

Another very commonly held belief among writers is a misconception about the writing process. There is a belief that writing is a recording process; therefore, they try to get it all clear in their heads first. They believe that when it is 'all clear', they will start to write. Of course, it is never all clear and consequently they delay writing.

I don't have enough time

This belief is that unless they have big blocks of time in which to write, it is a waste of time trying to write. Writers often believe that because writing is a complex and demanding task, to try to write in small blocks of time simply would not work. They, therefore, think it is better to write nothing at all. In an examination of why academic staff struggled with writing productivity, Boice and Jones (1984) found this type of belief to be a significant cause of poor writing output.

It won't be good enough

Finally, there is the nagging belief that dogs most writers at some point in the writing process: their writing is not very good, so there is not much point in continuing. Writers often believe it would be better to wait until it felt easier or until it was clearer, because it is a waste of time writing 'rubbish'.

Consequences

These beliefs lead to a variety of behavioural consequences among writers. Any difficult situation could lead to the type of avoidance behaviours described below; however, these are the most common consequences we have observed among writers. The consequences listed are mainly behavioural. This is because most of the discomfort associated with writing is avoided by engaging in the behaviours described below.

Don't do anything – Procrastination

A very common behavioural consequence of the above beliefs is to do nothing or, at least, not to do anything that would constitute writing. When people procrastinate, they are postponing until later an action they know they should be taking now. Persaud (2005) estimates that up to 20 per cent of the adult population suffer from chronic procrastination. It is estimated to be even higher among student populations, who generally have an abundance of writing tasks to complete. For example, Solomon and Rothblum (1984) found that 46 per cent of undergraduates reported high levels of procrastination in relation to writing. Further, they procrastinated about the task of writing more than any other task. Coaching psychology has been found to be an effective tool in helping to reduce procrastination (Dryden & Neenan, 2004; Karas & Spada, 2009; Neenan, 2008, 2012).

Do anything else – Displacement activities

Writers may not be writing, but this does not (usually) mean they are doing nothing. Generally, they engage in a range of behaviours that keep them busy: displacement activities. Displacement activities are behaviours that displace the guilt people feel for not doing what they should be doing – in this case, writing. Common displacement activities among writers include reading, sourcing more information, data and so on, referencing, formatting, editing and even housework (Ahern & Manathunga, 2004; Boice, 1990; Wellington, 2010).

Do everything else – Overcommitting

Finally, when all else fails, writers who have unhelpful beliefs, such as 'I'm not ready yet' or 'It won't be good enough', often become overcommitted. They volunteer to organise a conference, to help with the office move or

to re-write the curriculum. O'Donaghue and Rabin (2001) found that the more important or desirable the goal, the more likely it was that people would choose to work on other tasks. This is counter to common sense; most people would expect that when they have a choice they would choose to work on their important goals. In relation to writing, many writers become so overcommitted that it is essentially impossible for them to write.

Disputing

What is the truth about writing? Should people wait until they feel ready? Should they or try to get it all clear in their heads first, or only write when they have big blocks of time available? Perhaps as a writer yourself, you are wondering whether these beliefs are true. If you are a coach, you will certainly need to know whether they are true. As is the case with all good CBC, the answer lies in the evidence.

You have to write before you feel ready

Writers often do not feel ready to start writing, but they may never feel ready. In fact, a writer has to start writing before they feel ready. If this is not true, why is it that most writers miraculously become ready to write as soon as a deadline appears? As further evidence, a study of academics showed that those who were forced to be creative had twice as many creative ideas as those who were allowed to have them in their own time, and there was no discernible difference in quality (Boice, 1983). Table 1 provides examples of ways to dispute beliefs related to waiting until a writer feels ready.

Writing clarifies your thinking

Waiting until things are clear in one's head is a misunderstanding about how writing works. Writing is actually creative and interactive. As people write, they begin to see the flaws and holes in their arguments that they could not see when it was in their heads. The truth is that the process of writing clarifies the writer's thinking (Mandel, 1980; Perl, 1980). In fact, we would go even further and say that writing is a form of rigorous thinking. Table 2 provides an example of disputing these beliefs.

Small amounts of time are effective

Although writers often feel it is necessary to have big blocks of time in which to write, the research does not support this. In a landmark study by Robert Boice (1983), which was re-analysed by Krashen (2002), academics who wrote for 30 minutes a day produced more peer-reviewed publications across a year than did academics who wrote in big blocks of time. When coaching writers, it is important to address this issue; if not, it is likely to become a major block to writing (Boice, 1985, 1990, 2000). The easiest way to dispute this belief is to have writers conduct a behavioural experiment whereby they

Table 1: Disputing beliefs related to having to feel ready before writing (from Gardiner & Kearns, 2010).

Thoughts	What's Accurate
I can't write if I'm not feeling creative.	Apparently, once I start writing that will create more ideas than if I wait for inspiration to strike.
I don't feel in the mood for writing.	Sometimes you have to do things you don't like, to get what you want. Maybe once I start, I'll get in the mood.
I shouldn't have to force myself. It should come naturally.	That would be nice but most writers struggle at some point. There are very few lucky people where it all comes naturally.

Table 2: Disputing beliefs related to having to ensure it is all clear in one's head before one can write (from Gardiner & Kearns, 2010).

Thoughts	What's Accurate
I need to get my ideas clear in my head before I can write.	Writing things down will help me clarify my ideas.
There's no point in starting if I don't know what I'm going to say.	I won't know what I'm going to say if I don't get started!
I just need to think it through for a bit longer.	What if I write first and then I can think about it afterwards. At least I will have something to think about.

agree to write for 45 minutes every morning (our replication of Boice's research shows that 45 minutes in non-test conditions works better, but 30 minutes is still effective). If, at the end of one week of writing, the writer feels they are less productive, they are free to return to writing in big blocks of time. In 15 years of coaching writers, less than one per cent have made a conscious decision to return to writing in big blocks of time.

If it was okay before, it is likely to be okay this time

Underlying many of the beliefs is the core belief that the writing produced is not particularly good. Worse, when others see how 'bad' it is, the writer will be exposed as a fraud. This is commonly referred to as the *imposter syndrome* – the belief that you are one mistake away from being exposed as a complete and utter fraud. To create effective new beliefs and behaviours, it is important for the coach to challenge the inaccuracies in such thoughts. The most effective form of disputation for the coach to use is, along with the coachee, to look at past evidence of writing abilities. If people have written well in the past (most writers have), it is likely they will be able to write well in the future. Table 3 provides an example of disputing these beliefs.

Effective new outlook and behaviours

Once inaccurate beliefs have been disputed, it is possible for effective new beliefs and behaviours to be utilised. To effectively establish the new outlook, it is necessary for writers to start their writing and to practise it regularly. This achieves two things; first, it acts as a form of exposure and ensures that the inaccurate thoughts are fully disputed and, second, it allows writers to build a genuine sense of self-efficacy as their skills improve. Following are the new attitudes and behaviours that are most effective.

Get started

Writers usually don't start writing because they don't feel like it – they don't feel motivated. Most people fundamentally misunderstand how motivation works in practice. They believe that in order to start they have to feel like doing the action in question. In essence, they believe that motivation leads to action, but this is not how motivation works. Motivation is triggered by taking action. Therefore, action leads to motivation, which, in turn, leads to more action (Kearns & Gardiner, 2011; Schwarz & Bohner, 1996). This requires the writer to make a start before they feel like starting. In return for this small forced step, the writer soon feels motivated to continue (as demonstrated in Figure 2). The coach needs to explain to writers that despite not feeling motivated, after a small amount of action, (in our experience, approximately 10 to 15 minutes), it is likely they will begin to feel more motivated. The coach can use a behavioural experiment to demonstrate this to writers: ask them to write for 30 minutes, and if they are not motivated by the end of that time, they may stop. They then need to

Table 3: Disputing beliefs related to concern over the quality of writing (from Gardiner & Kearns, 2010).

Thoughts	What's Accurate
This is not written well enough.	How do I know? What about previous stuff I've written – that was okay.
There is no argument – it's just descriptive.	How do I know? Check it out. I can work on the argument once I get some feedback.
It's got mistakes.	Of course. All work does. What specifically am I worried about? What can I do about it?
It's not good enough to get published.	But this is still a draft.
It's not as good as what gets published.	It's not fair to compare my draft with a finished manuscript.
I've fooled people up until now, but this will prove how bad I am – that I am barely literate, never mind clever!	If I'm smart enough to fool them for this long, then I'm probably smart enough to be here.

Figure 2: The relationship between action and motivation (from Gardiner & Kearns, 2010).

come back to the writing the next day and write for another 30 minutes. The vast majority of writers will begin to feel more motivated by writing than they will by waiting.

Stay started

At this point, it is useful for coaches to explain to writers about the physiological properties of anxiety: if you avoid it (avoidance), it gets worse. If you stay with it (exposure), it gets better (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). Although many writers may not necessarily experience anxiety, an underlying physiological discomfort often drives writers to avoid writing. Many writers are not experiencing anxiety because they are engaging in displacement activities instead of writing. Therefore, the effective new behaviour that the coach needs to explain to the writer is 'staying put' for at least 45 minutes. This allows the anxiety or discomfort associated with writing to abate. We sometimes say that if writers keep writing they can even experience 'negative anxiety', more commonly referred to as fun!

Snack writing

For most people, their motivation to keep writing will not be sustained if the task is open-ended or too long. Given the evidence for higher productivity when people write in small blocks of time rather than large blocks of time, 'snack writing' is an ideal effective new behaviour. Snack writing increases both motivation and productivity (Kearns & Gardiner, 2011). The main feature of snack writing (as opposed to 'binge writing') is that snacks are regular. Coaching writers to write for 30 to 45 minutes every day is most likely to lead to increased productivity (Boice, 1989). This is different from the points made above about motivation and anxiety. The coach needs to share with writers the techniques for making a start (do not wait until you feel like it) and for continuing with their writing (the discomfort will go away). However, snack writing helps writers understand that it is not a waste of time to write in small blocks of time and that it is probably the most effective and productive way to write. The purpose of coaching is to help writers accept this proposition and then to coach the various pitfalls (and there will be many) that occur along the way.

Apply the 80/20 rule

Once a coach can get a writer to the desk and convince them to stay for at least 30 to 45 minutes, the 80/20 rule (or the Pareto Principle) is one of the easiest ways to increase writers' productivity. The 80/20 rule is based on the work of the Italian economist Vilfredo Pareto who noted that 80 per cent of the wealth in Italy was owned and produced by 20 per cent of the population. The essence of the rule is that 80 per cent of output is created by 20 per cent of the input – the rest is mostly window dressing. The 80/20 rule applies to many aspects of life: 20 per cent of people take 80 per cent of doctors' appointments, 20 per cent of students consume 80 per cent of teachers' time and 20 per cent of academics produce 80 per cent of the published research (Ito & Brotheridge, 2007). How does this knowledge help with the coaching of writers? When some of the beliefs described above have been disputed, writers can be encouraged to write – not to perfect as they write, but simply to write. Twenty per cent of a writer's effort will lead to 80 per cent of the finished product (particularly if the writer does not edit or read or format during the writing process). If the writer only writes, the argument and the structure will appear quickly. It will take time to edit, format, check facts, find references and so on (the remaining 80 per cent of the work); however, the most difficult work (and the most likely work to be avoided) is done.

Summary

We contend that coaching psychology, and CBC in particular, is an extremely effective methodology for assisting the many people who have to write as part of their profession or education. Although there is a growing and increasingly positive evidence base for the effectiveness of CBC, to date there has been

no study (or paper of any kind) on the application of coaching to writing. In fact, the vast majority of coaching focuses on leadership and commercial responsibilities. There is no reason to believe that the positive results demonstrated in these domains would not also apply in relation to writing. This paper is a first attempt to show how CBC might be applied to the specific task of writing. From our work with thousands of writers, we know that the application of CBC to their writing goals (and sometimes lack thereof) has fostered, and saved, many a person's career.

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Book Review

Creating a Coaching Culture
Peter Hawkins
Maidenhead: Open University Press (2012)
ISBN: 978-0-33523-895-8
216 pp; Paperback; £23.99.
Reviewed by David A. Lane

This is excellent and like all Peter Hawkins books combines practicality with appropriate engagement with the literature and original research.

Peter starts with a powerful question that at first seems shocking but quickly becomes central to any attempt to deliver value through coaching. He asks, 'What can coaching uniquely do that the world of tomorrow needs?'.

In attempting to explore this it rapidly becomes clear that coaching must move from a model of individual transactions to an integrated strategy aligned to a wider organisational change culture. This radically alters how we view the role of coaching. The change of perspective is profound.

In helping his readers to negotiate that shift he explores the key ingredients of a coaching culture and ways in which a coaching strategy may be aligned with the wider organisation. This provides a context for understanding what he sees as seven key steps in moving from individual issues such as selecting a panel of coaches to a final step in which coaching becomes how the organisation does business with all it's stakeholders. He provides many case examples of organisations at various stages in this process. He notes that none have completed all the steps but all are actively engaged in trying to reevaluate the place of coaching in their organisation.

The case examples are embedded in the framework he outlines which adds to the value they bring to the reader struggling with their own change processes. He outlines the issues but then provides clear guidance on ways forward. His seven steps are not a blueprint but rather a way to make sense of the emerging field. Organisations will not go through each step in turn but will be able to recognise where they stand and use this to consider where they might go next. The onward journey is assisted in the book through a consideration of ways to integrate and give depth to the ideas. He explores how to bring elements together to create a relational value chain. He expand on this in discussion on improving the quality of coaching activities though supervision and continuous development. He addresses the critical issue of evaluation and return on investment and finally talks to some of the challenges going forward.

Readers will find the debate enlightening and the framework a helpful friend for the process of change.

So the aim is to find out what coaching can uniquely do that the world of tomorrow needs. The book is centred on coaching cultures within a particular range of organisations. Briefly mentioned is attempts at collaboration between some UK-based professional bodies. Yet the global attempts to bring organisations, professional bodies and coaches together to in the words of the Global Coaching Convention in 2008 in the Dublin Declaration to 'step into the power of coaching to make a difference to the world' is ignored as are many efforts by a variety of bodies to learn from engagement with issues internationally. For example the detailed efforts to run parallel events in different countries under the International Coaching Psychology Conferences have created the sharing he seeks. This limits the potential scope of the book. Another limiting factor is any substantial debate on dealing with the complexity of rapid change. The approach feels linear at times when the need many organisations face is for radically new approaches to address complexity.

Those caveats apart this is a book that will provide essential guidance for those organisations seeking to enhance the impact of their coaching and move from individual transactions to a strategic collective approach.

He concludes with the hope that those successfully developing coaching cultures will network with others to learn and extend practice. He notes that this is increasingly happening and hopes this book will help. I am sure that it will.

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Email: David.Lane@pdf.net
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Report

2nd International Congress of Coaching Psychology – Australia

David Heap

2nd International Congress of Coaching Psychology:
10–12 May, 2012, Sydney, Australia.

OVER THREE DAYS IN EARLY MAY, the APS Coaching Psychology Interest Group (IGCP) hosted the 2nd International Congress on Coaching Psychology in Manly, Sydney.

The IGCP invited an array of international and Australian expert practitioners and authors to contribute their ideas and insights to the Congress theme,

'Exploring the Contribution of Psychology to Coaching'.

The keynote presentations and workshops generated an exceptional response from delegates. Their feedback was uniformly positive and the frequently recurring phrase was that it was the best conference they had been to in many years. Credit for this success should be given to everyone involved in the Congress; the presenters, those involved in planning and running the Congress as well as the positive and receptive tone of the audience. The Congress Organising Committee should be recognised for making it all happen the way it did under the leadership of David Heap, IGCP National Convenor, and Nic Eddy, IGCP National Events Co-ordinator.

The keynote speakers were each asked to present their individual perspectives on the contribution of psychology to coaching. Their presentations reflected the diversity and depth of coaching psychology.

Lew Stern challenged Congress delegates to expand their influence and contribute their skills on a greater scale, bringing social action to their practice. Stephen Palmer reinforced the invaluable contribution of competencies and knowledge base in psychology, to enrich the diverse world of coaching. Patrick Williams explored the influence of humanistic and transpersonal psychology on coaching. Donna Karlin discussed the benefits of 'shadow coaching' in the world of international political challenges.

Jim Bright provided an entertaining and provocative insight into the application of chaos theory to careers coaching and change. Tony Grant shared pre-publication results on his latest research on the relative contribution of solution and positive psychology approaches to coaching out-comes. Leon van Vuuren addressed the role of the coach and coaching psychology in ethical leadership competence from a social and political perspective. David Peterson provided the closing keynote on what differentiates great from good coaches and what we each can do to transform our own practice.

From the perspective of the IGCP, we believe the Congress aim of exploring the contribution of psychology to coaching was fully achieved. Delegates told us this had been an outstanding event leaving them with a clearer insight into the richness psychology brings to the practice of coaching together with abundant new information and ideas they keenly anticipated incorporating into their own practice.

We are very pleased to have re-invigorated the enthusiasm in the coaching psychology community and look forward to continue to stimulate and inform.

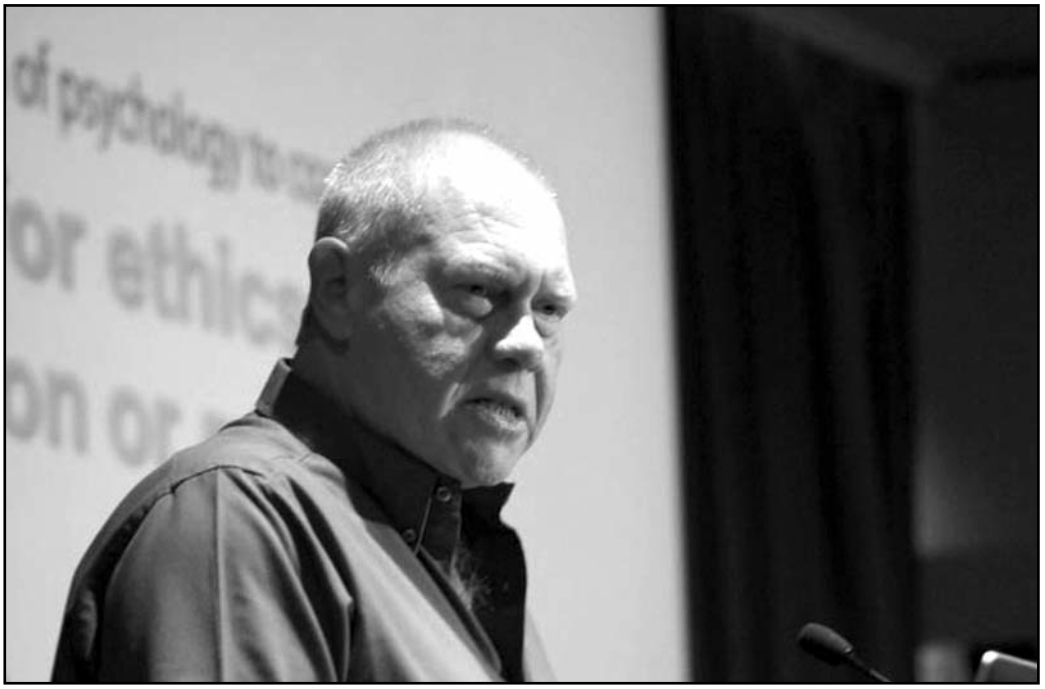
National Committee of the
Coaching Psychology Interest Group,
Australian Psychological Society

'Coaching Psychology: The science of achieving your goals.'

The following photographs were taken at the Congress by Aaron McEwan.

Dr Lew Stern

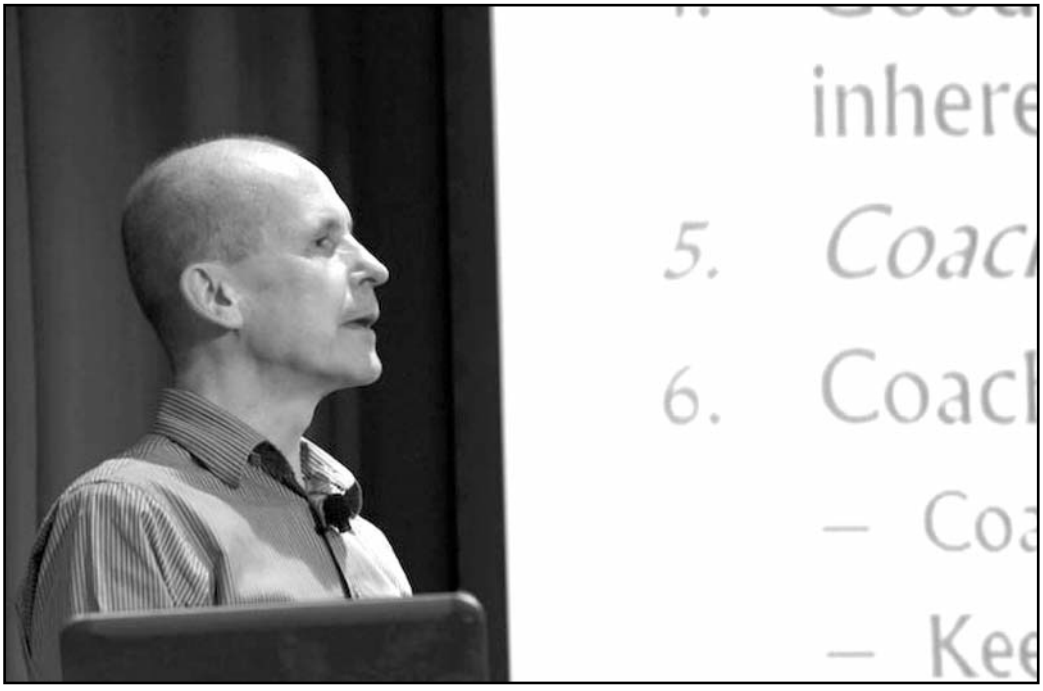
Dr Anthony M. Grant



Professor Leon van Vuuren

From L to R: Nic Eddy, Peter Zarris & David Heap (Members of the Congress Team).

From L to R: Dr Lew Stern, Donna Karlin & Dr David Drake.



Dr David Peterson

Report

Special Group in Coaching Psychology News

Mary Watts

RECENTLY I chaired my third meeting of the SGCP and came away feeling energised. The energy and enthusiasm of the group had been infectious! Two days ago I watched the final of the men's doubles at Wimbledon and had the same feeling. I was delighted that Yorkshire man Jonathan Marray, together with Freddie Nielson had won. This is in part because Marray is the first British player to win the Wimbledon men's doubles for 76 years but predominantly because of something I felt the pair exuded whilst on the court. They entered on a 'wild card' rather than ranking and then went on to prove their worth. What impressed me was the partnership spirit that they showed and I was intrigued by their obvious, but secretive strategising before serving and at other critical times during the match. Throughout the match their body language and facial expressions were upbeat and they were clearly enjoying themselves. As a pair they were dynamite exuding positivity. Watching it led me to reflect on my role as a coaching psychologist and I felt that if, through my coaching, albeit it in a very different context and setting, I can help facilitate something of what I saw in these two players, I will be very satisfied. I was powerfully reminded of the value of coaching – including self-coaching – positivity, also of the importance of good teamwork.

Returning now to the SGCP, we were reminding ourselves at the meeting last week that in December 2014 it will be the 10th Anniversary of our coming into being. I remember it well as I had the privilege of opening the inaugural conference which was held at City University, London. A lot has happened since then and we have grown considerably in stature, size and I hope in

knowledge and wisdom too. During the meeting we tossed around ideas of how to celebrate our 10th birthday and thought that at the very least the 2014 conference should be a special international one – to mark both our own 'coming of age' and also to recognize the very significant international developments in coaching psychology during the preceding 10 years.

During the next two years we have time to prepare and to engage widely with members. Stage one of this is in preparation and we have decided to embrace more fully the ever changing and developing approaches to social media communications. We will use these in the run up to the 2012 SGCP conference and beyond with the intention of linking the various activities of the SGCP more closely with the very wide and still growing membership. Many of us have a lot

to learn about how to use these, whilst others are busy learning about how to introduce and manage them on behalf of members.

Sticking for the moment with the relative simplicity of this newsletter for sharing information, please keep 6th–7th December free in your diary. The SGCP 8th Annual Coaching Psychology Conference will this year be held at the University of Aston, Birmingham, on Friday 7th December (please note the earlier date than usual). There will be an interesting selection of keynote speakers, papers and workshops and the day will also include the AGM. On Thursday 6th December there will be an excellent range of master classes followed by a networking event – important for updating on news and connections that make a real difference to our work and social life! We invite you to stay linked in with the SGCP both in real terms via attendance at the conference and other events held throughout the year – the last was a well subscribed to and very well received event on mindfulness facilitated by Michael Chaskalson – and also through the new (for us) approaches to social networking about to be launched. You can now join us on twitter@SGCP. We'll communicate further with members about our social media links as we progress further down this road.

Continuing with the theme of communication a *SGCP Newsletter* will be launched very soon. In fact by the time you read this letter it may already have reached you. The *Newsletter*, in electronic format, will be short but regular to help keep members informed about SGCP news and activities.

With a sense of enthusiasm and optimism for the coming pre-conference masterclasses and conference (6 and 7 December) and the build-up to our big birthday, I now need to go and prepare myself for the new wave of communication approaches.

Best wishes to you all.

Professor Mary Watts
Chair, British Psychological Society
Special Group in Coaching Psychology

www.sgcp.org.uk

Report

Interest Group in Coaching Psychology News

David Heap

THE MAJOR ACTIVITY for the Interest Group in Coaching Psychology the first half of 2012 was, of course, the 2nd International Congress on Coaching Psychology at Manly Beach.

The Congress was an outstanding success with consistent feedback that it was an inspiring experience and the best conference delegates had attended for many years. A detailed report is available elsewhere in this publication but on behalf of the National Committee I would like to thank several groups of people who made this achievement possible. First there are the presenters of the keynotes and workshops who exceeded everyone's expectations with the quality of insight, usefulness and humanity of what they shared with us. I'd also like to express my appreciation to the international presenters who made the considerable effort to interrupt their demanding schedules and come all the way to Australia: Lew Stern, Stephen Palmer, Patrick Williams, Donna Karlin, Leon van Vuuren, Pauline Wills, David Clutterbuck, David Lane, and David Peterson. Their contributions made the Congress live up to its international title and was much richer as a result.

I'd like to express our gratitude to the Congress Organising Committee; Peter Zarris, Aaron McEwan, Claire Nabke-Hatton and particularly, the Chair of the Committee Nic Eddy, who applied his experience and creativity along with a great deal of effort to make the Congress what it was.

Members of the National and State Committees also made a great contribution on the day helping to make sure everything ran smoothly. Students from the University of NSW and Australian College of Applied Psychology also provided sterling support.

Last of all, I'd like to thank everyone who attended; our own IGCP members but also all the members of the broader coaching community who came along in large numbers and whose enthusiastic response assured us that coaching psychologists can play a strong leadership role in advancing the quality of coaching in the broader coaching community.

With the Congress behind us, we are now arranging a series of National and State-based PD activities for the rest of 2012 and 2013.

We have been approached by many people to bring back Donna Karlin and we are very happy to announce that she will be coming out in February 2013 to present a series of two-day workshops on 'Shadow and Laser Coaching' in Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane and Adelaide.

We've closed a large gap in our national coverage and re-established IGCP Branches in West Australia and South Australia.

I'd like to welcome our two new State Co-ordinators and members of the National Committee; Vanessa Franzen in WA, and Nanette McComish in SA.

We're also undertaking major updates to our website including the distribution of the *International Coaching Psychology Review*. We'll keep you updated on all these developments.

Thank you to all our members for your continuing support for the IGCP with all our national and state activities. We can all be very proud of what we have achieved so far this year and we are looking forward to an even more successful year ahead.

David Heap
Convener, Interest Group in Coaching Psychology.

Manly Pacific Hotel, Manly Beach, host to the 2nd International Congress of Coaching Psychology.

Sydney Opera House

International Coaching Psychology Review – Volume index 2012

Volume 7, No. 1, March 2012

Volume 7, No. 2, September 2012

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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