The Australian Psychological Society Ltd

Interest Group in Coaching Psychology

The British Psychological Society

Special Group in Coaching Psychology

International Coaching Psychology Review

Volume 9 No. 2 September 2014

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.

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

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

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

Continued on inside back cover.

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4th International Congress of Coaching Psychology 2014

Changing Lives, Changing Worlds – Inspiring Collaborations

11-12 December 2014, Holiday Inn London Bloomsbury

The Congress is the culmination of a series of events to celebrate the 10th Anniversary of the British Psychological Society's Special Group in Coaching Psychology. There will be two days of impressive speakers, exciting and new topics and a broad range of masterclasses, skills workshops and scientific papers covering the following themes:

- **Coaching Psychology: An international perspective, sponsored by ISCP**
- **Leadership, Business and Executive Coaching Psychology, sponsored by Meyler Campbell**
- **Coaching Psychology and Mental Health: Promoting psychological well-being through coaching psychology interventions**
- **Coachee satisfaction and beyond: Working with coaching relationships that matter**
- **Emerging conversations**
- **Individual development and coaching psychology**
- **Positive and Coaching Psychology: Stress, resilience, health and well,being, sponsored by ISMA**
- **Psychometric tools and their application to coaching psychology**
- **Sport, performance and coaching psychology**

Our mission is to inspire individuals, organisations and communities to engage and collaborate with the wider world of people, practice, learning and research.

We have an impressive line-up of speakers who are delivering new and exciting topics to share ideas for transforming lives and worlds in the broadest sense to include: Dr Tatiana Bachkirova, Professor Sarah Corrie, Dr Vicky Ellam-Dyson, Professor Sandy Gordon, Dr Kristina Gyllensten, Dr Sophia Jowett, Dr Almuth McDowall, Dr Alanna O'Broin, Dr Siobhain O'Riordan, Professor Stephen Palmer, Dr Celine Rojon, Ole Michael Spaten, Professor Reinhard Stelter, Mr Dave Tee, Professor Mary Watts and Donna Willis.

Fees (inclusive of VAT)

2 Day – SGCP member	**£396**	1 Day – SGCP member	**£144**
2 Day – BPS member	**£420**	1 Day – BPS member	**£150**
2 Day – Non member	**£444**	1 Day – Non member	**£156**
2 Day – Student Rate	**£306**	1 Day – Student Rate	**£84**

(2 day fees include one nights accommodation at the Holiday Inn and the conference dinner)

This event is being administered by KC Jones conference&events Ltd, 01332 227775

For further information on the Congress please visit: **www.sgcp.eu**

Contents

Editorial:

Sandy Gordon & Stephen Palmer

IN OUR FIRST PAPER Yi-Ling Lai and Almuth McDowall undertake a systematic review (SR) of coaching psychology focusing on the attributes of effective coaching psychologists. Their SR found that the coaching relationship is a key focus of coaching research and practice, where professional psychological training is necessary to comprehend and manage coachee's emotional reactions. The review also highlighted that coaches' attributes influence the effectiveness of coaching process and results. The authors suggest that the attributes for a professional coach identified from their SR could be a basis for the further coaching psychology study to develop and examine a Coaching a Coaching Psychologist Competency Framework.

In our next paper Almuth McDowall, Katie Freeman and Suzanne Marshall undertook a comparison of the effects of Feedforward coaching and Feedback. The research objective was to investigate how the FeedForward Interview (FFI) affects individual outcomes compared to traditional feedback as part of a coaching session. They undertook a quasi-experimental longitudinal study allocating participants randomly to either a FFI or Feedback-based coaching intervention. They found that self-efficacy significantly increased following FFI compared to feedback. They concluded that that FFI could be valid intervention to facilitate positive psychological change as part of a coaching session.

Our third paper will be of particular interest to teachers and lecturers as Ceri Sims focuses on self-regulation coaching to alleviate student procrastination. A wide range of possible interventions are mentioned in this article including mindfulness, self-acceptance training, time limiting the opening of emails, the rational emotive behavioural ABC and cognitive-behavioural SPACE models. A 'likeability' model for self-regulation coaching in managing academic procrastination is discussed. It is based on four factors: Enjoyment, Consequence, Ability, and Competition. However, the author concludes that it would be useful to have further evidence that these factors account for all examples of ineffectual procrastination behaviour.

In our next paper, Carsten Schermuly considers the negative effects of coaching for coaches. So often research focuses on the benefits of coaching for the coachee so this explorative study takes an interesting perspective. One of the findings was that in more than 90 per cent of all recent coaching at least one negative effect was present and the number of negative effects a coach was confronted with in the last coaching are associated with less psychological empowerment and with more emotional exhaustion and stress. Clearly this is an area that needs more research and further exploration of strategies to reduce or prevent emotional exhaustion and stress of practitioners is important.

Two papers on *personality change coaching* follow and, in turn, are followed by a response and rejoinder on the topic. The University of Wollongong group in Australia, comprised of Lesley Martin, Lyndsay Oades and Peter Caputi, introduced this topic in an earlier issue of *ICPR* (Martin, Oades & Caputi, 2012, 7(2), 185–193). In the first paper in this issue they describe the development of a step-wise process of intentional personality change coaching. Qualitative data from interviews with a panel of coaching experts generated a menu of change interventions for each of the 30 NEO PI-R facets (Big Five model) and a 10-step coaching sequence. Encouraging results from this pilot begged empirical validation so in their second paper they report an assessment of the effectiveness of a struc-

tured step-wise personality change coaching process using a matched waitlist control group design. Results provide preliminary support for beneficial changes occurring in motivated individuals, which is consistent with other recent literature indicating that domain or trait personality factors are amenable to change. The authors have a third paper due to appear in a forthcoming issue that captures participants' experiences of the coaching process through inductive thematic analyses.

Hugh McCredie's *response* article targets claims made previously by Allan et al. (2014) and challenges specifically the evidence for the effectiveness of personality change coaching, the robustness of evidence demonstrating change via biological measures, and given only moderate associations between personality change coaching and both performance and behavioural competencies, asks 'why bother trying to change personality?' In their respectful and comprehensive *rejoinder* Jonathan Allan, Peter Leeson, Filip De Fruyt and Lesley Martin address each of these three concerns both by providing support for their own evidence (recently published) and by citing research conducted by others. Hopefully debates like this, related to choice of both independent and dependent measures in personality change coaching research, will continue. Exploring applications from neuroscience and the biological basis of personality is very exciting. In future, however, in addition to minimising the likelihood of incurring type I and II error we most certainly want to avoid type III error – measuring the wrong thing, precisely!

We finish with reports from the BPS SGCP Chair and APS IGCP Convenor.

We wish to remind readers of the next two important events for the IGCP and SGCP and refer you to the announcements in *ICPR* providing information about the 4th International Congress of Coaching Psychology 2014:

- **Coaching Excellence in Practice**
  Melbourne, 13–15 November 2014
- **Changing Lives, Changing Worlds – Inspiring Collaborations**
  London, 11–12 December 2014

The SGCP Congress forms part of its 10 year celebrations. Both events have well known invited speakers and workshop trainers and will help delegates to maintain their continuing professional development to a high standard.

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Reference

Allan, J.A., Leeson, P. & Martin, L.S. (2014). Who wants to change their personality and what do they want to change? *International Coaching Psychology Review, 9*(1), 8–21.

Website

The International Congress of Coaching Psychology events are listed on the group website. This site also includes information about the 2015 APA Division 13 congress being held in San Diego:
www.coachingpsychologycongress.org

Paper

A systematic review (SR) of coaching psychology: Focusing on the attributes of effective coaching psychologists

Yi-Ling Lai & Almuth McDowall

Objective: *Whilst a number of narrative reviews on coaching exist, there is no systematic review (SR) yet summarising the evidence base in a transparent way. To this extent, we undertook a SR of coaching psychology evidence. Following the initial scoping and consultation phase, this focused on coaching psychologists' attributes, such as the required knowledge, attitudes and behaviours, associated with a conducive coaching relationship and subsequent coaching results.*

Design: *The SR review process stipulates a priori protocol which specifies the review topic, questions/hypotheses, (refined through expert consultation and consultation of any existing reviews in the field, and replicable review methods including data extraction logs).*

Methods: *The initial search elicited 23,611 coaching papers using 58 search terms from eight electronic databases (e.g. PsyINFO). Following initial sifts, 140 studies were screened further using seven inclusion criteria. Study results from the included papers were integrated through Narrative Synthesis.*

Conclusion: *This SR highlighted that the coaching relationship is a key focus of coaching research and practice, where professional psychological training /background is necessary to understand and manage coachee's emotional reactions. The review also highlighted that coaches' attributes have a significant influence on the effectiveness of coaching process and results. The review concludes with a proposal for an initial Coaching Psychologist Competency Framework to underpin future studies, and notes the short comings of existing competency based frameworks for coaching practice.*

Keywords: *Coaching psychology; coaching relationship; coaching psychologist attributes; systematic review; competency framework.*

GOOD LITERATURE REVIEWS can inform us about current knowledge as well as gaps therein (Gough et al., 2012). However, we need systematic, explicit and accountable methods to produce reliable and replicable results for answering specific review hypotheses/questions, such as a systematic review (SR). SR has been used progressively in the Social Sciences (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006); however, SR is still rare in other fields such as in industrial/organisational psychology (Rojon et al., 2011). This paper presents a SR of evidence on coaching psychology, where particular focus evolved on effective coaching psychologist's attributes. We now outline the principles of SR methodology, before introducing the research questions, which we refined by means of a pilot study and expert consultation, and then present our findings in detail.

What is a SR?

SR is a specific methodology that locates existing studies, selects and evaluates contributions, analyses and synthesises data, and reports the evidence through a rigorous and transparent way that shows reasonably clear conclusions to be reached about what is and what is not known (Denyer & Tranfield, 2011). A SR usually starts with a prior specific protocol which includes the review topic, questions/hypotheses, inclusion criteria and review methods to test just a single hypothesis or a series of related hypotheses.

Although varied methods for synthesis have been applied to SRs (such as meta-analysis and narrative synthesis), they depend on the nature and quality of the primary studies (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). The overall review process thus comprises scoping and planning the review, searching and screening the references, and evaluating and synthesising the included studies.

The advantages of a SR method

The advantages of SRs have been widely discussed, some key points are summarised in the following paragraph to defend the rationale for conducting a SR in the context of coaching psychology. Traditional narrative literature reviews can represent excellent overviews of wider literature and concepts, not just reviews of outcomes (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). However, if any review is not conducted through a rigorous and transparent process, critical studies might be neglected, as inclusion criteria may be based on the reviewer's personal research interests or the reviewer is unaware of relevant studies (Gough et al., 2012). Compared to traditional literature reviews, SR method can quickly assimilate a large amount of information through the critical exploration, evaluation and synthesis. It separates insignificant and redundant studies, which lack solid evidence to answer the research question, from critical studies which do (Greenhalgh, 1998). In addition, the well-defined methodology of SR mitigates research bias by explicitly identifying and rejecting studies using clearly defined a prior criteria. Hence, a SR produces more reliable and accurate conclusions by synthesising included studies than traditional methods do (Kitchenham & Charters, 2007).

Why is a SR of coaching psychology needed?

Coaching has been fast advancing in the organisational and leadership development field. International Coach Federation (ICF) Global Coaching Study (2012) stated, there are approximately 47,500 coaches worldwide (Western Europe, 37.5 per cent and North America, 33.2 per cent) and coaching has become a $2 billion per-year global market. In the UK, the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) 2010 Annual Report indicated that coaching is used in 82 per cent of the UK organisations and it is rated as the most effective activities of the Talent Management programmes (2012 CIPD Learning and Talent Development Annual Survey Report).

Despite the growth in popularity, issues remain which need to be addressed. Firstly, there is an on-going debate between psychologists and non-psychologists about whether psychological principles and training area are core requirements for a professional coach. A global survey (Newnham-Kanas et al., 2012) indicated a large percentage of coaches were with business backgrounds rather than psychological or behavioural science backgrounds (consultants 49.1 per cent, formal educators, e.g. teachers and professors 20.8 per cent and helping professionals, e.g. psychologists and counsellors 15.6 per cent). Grant (2008) stated that contemporary professional coaching is a cross-disciplinary methodology, and not 'owned' by a particular professional group or association, which he considered both a strength and a liability. On the other hand, such diversity increases the difficulty to develop a standardised coaching definition, focus, result evaluation method and coaches' selection and development scheme (Sherman & Freas, 2004). Indeed, psychologists have increasingly and more publicly become involved in the coaching industry in 1990s, because the aim of executive or life coaching is to facilitate sustained cognitive, emotional and behavioural change (Douglas & MacCauley, 1999). In addition, a number of studies asserted that coaches without fundamental psychology knowledge may not be able to recognise coaching clients' mental health issues and may cause harm to coaching clients (Berglas, 2002; Cavanagh, 2005; Kauffman & Scoular, 2004; Naughton, 2002). Therefore, to what extent a back-

ground in psychology is an essential requirement for a professional coach is still a point of debate. We decided to conduct a research with rigorous process to determine if psychology plays a crucial role in coaching study and practice from existing relevant studies.

Secondly, the research focus in coaching has shifted to the coaching relationship. Traditionally, focus in the field of coaching has been on specific models, approaches and techniques, directed towards ultimate goals for people's overall learning and development (de Haan & Sills, 2012). However, a meta-analysis (de Haan, 2008) indicated there is no significant difference in effectiveness between different coaching techniques. Based on this 'outcome equivalence' (de Haan, 2008), the quality of the coaching relationship as well as the coach and the coachee's role in the process were identified as the most effective common active ingredients for a positive coaching result (de Haan, 2008). A number of quantitative studies have also indicated a positive correlation between the coaching relationship and results, such as coachees' self-efficacy (Baron & Morin, 2009; Boyce et al., 2010; de Haan & Duckworth, 2012). As the main purpose of coaching engagement is to facilitate coachee's change and improvement, the coachee's reaction and response are the most important and influential factor in the coaching process (de Haan, 2008). However, how the self of coach is used to establish and maintain the coaching relationship is crucial as coaching relationship is viewed as a professional helping relationship. Therefore, people and interpersonal interactions play a key role in the coaching process (O'Broin & Palmer, 2010a; Palmer & McDowall, 2010). A survey study (de Haan et al., 2011) examined and identified the 'helpful' coaches' qualities and behaviours that make the coaching journey effective to coachees and how coachees 'feel' their learning and change through executive coaching. The study results indicated coaches' behaviours have a significant influence on coachees' learning process, for example listening, understanding and encouragement from the coaches were viewed as the most helpful behaviours. Therefore, this study implied that any coach has the accountability to initiate and establish a constructive relationship in the coaching process. Given that the coach's role has a certain degree of influence on the establishment of coaching relationship; we decided to investigate to what extent a background in psychology facilitates a more effective coaching relationship.

In summary, the coach's role in the coaching process and effective attributes of a sound coaching relationship have been widely discussed (Boyatzis et al., 2006; de Haan, 2008; Jones & Spooner, 2006; Orenstein, 2006; Palmer & McDowall, 2010). However, the existing evidence is not adequate to determine whether and what are specific combinations of personality/attributes produce greater effects of coaching relationship (de Haan, 2008; Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011). Further, we also need more rigorous studies to investigate on if background in psychology for a professional coach benefits to establishing an effective coaching relationship. Prior to any primary research, it would be helpful however to review the evidence in coaching psychology systematically to determine how new research can fit to existing knowledge gap through a transparent and systematic process.

Although some reviews (Bachkirova, 2008; Grant, 2001; Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011; Whybrow, 2008) have highlighted a critical role for psychology in coaching study and practice; these narrative literature reviews did not spell out explicit reviews topics, hypotheses, study selection criteria or review methods on which conclusions were based. Hence, these reviews may not be sufficiently robust. Therefore, a SR to synthesise relevant studies in the field based on a well-defined protocol is needed to determine to what extent psychology plays a crucial role in coaching study and practice, based on specific

review questions with focus on coach's attributes and the coaching relationship.

Our overview process comprised three main phases, which we summarise in Table 1.

Table 1: A Systematic Review process.

Stages	Purposes	Methods
Stage One	Scoping the studies of the field and planning the review.	● The researcher searched through PsycINFO, Business Source Complete, Index to Theses in 2010 to ensure there was no SR of coaching studies yet. ● 10 coaching experts were invited (either academics or practitioners from international locations) to explore their perspectives on the review topic, review questions and methods proposed by the researcher. ● Semi-structured interviews were conducted either by telephone or face-to-face.
Stage Two	Undertaking the literature search and screening the references.	● 58 searching terms were identified and were searched through 8 electronic databases (e.g. Individual differenc* and coaching). ● Inclusion criteria for reference screening: (1) written in English. (2) published after 1995 (including 1995) (3) empirical research (both quantitative and quality studies) which set clear research methods, participants, measurements and outcomes. (4) focused on life, personal, work and executive coaching. (5) involved in any psychological interventions. (6) involved in any coach's attributes (competences, skills, attitudes and personality, etc.) (7) involved in any factors about coaching relationship.
Stage Three	Evaluating and synthesising the included studies.	● The included studies in this SR were rated by adding up the scores gained from three indicators, which are each paper's research method, coaching result evaluation method and coaching interventions. ● Narrative synthesis: (1) Organising the descriptions of each study into logical categories. (2) Analysing the findings within each of the categories. ● Synthesising the findings across all included studies.

(Kitchenham, 2004, and Denyer & Tranfield, 2011)

Step One: Scoping the studies of the field and planning the review

The first step ascertained if a SR was needed and developed a comprehensive review protocol including review topic, questions/hypotheses and methods.

Firstly, a pilot literature search was undertaken through PsycINFO, Business Complete, Index to Theses, Google Scholar and Cochrane Library in 2010 to verify there was no SR on coaching before commencement of this study. The searching terms used included 'coaching', 'review' and 'systematic'. Secondly, 10 coaching experts (both academics or practitioners) from international locations were identified from coaching-focused journals and handbooks and through consultation with UK coaching experts and invited to participate as a review panel. The review panel included nine psychologists and one management researcher to ensure a thorough and unbiased review protocol. They had on average ten years experience in coaching practice and all undertook research in some capacity (see Table 2).

One-on-one interviews were conducted with each review panel member to elicit their perspectives on the key elements of coaching psychology, the aspects of existing coaching results evaluation methods and the comments on the draft review protocol. The interview schedule comprised three broad topics which were: (i) definitions of coaching and coaching psychology respectively; (ii) perspectives on evaluation criteria and processes to determine coaching results and effectiveness; and (iii) comments on the proposed review topic and questions, and database to base eventual searches on.

Qualitative integration of the interview responses elicited that 'coaching is a *reflective* process between coaches and coachees which *helps* or *facilitates* coachees to experience *positive behavioural changes* through continuous *dialogue and negotiations* with coaches to meet coachees' personal or work goals.' On the other hand, 'coaching psychology aims to help or facilitate *the non-clinical populations* for sustained behavioural changes through *psychological evidence-based interventions and process*. These interventions will help the coach to get deeper and richer pictures of coachees' behaviours, motivations, values and beliefs during the coaching process and facilitate coachees to achieve their goals. In addition, coach, coachee and organisational stakeholders all play critical roles in the coaching process as the ultimate goals are to facilitate coachees' development in the *workplace* through *interactive communications with coach*. Moreover, the 'coaching process and relationship' was highlighted across the interviews as being important, and most panel members indicated coaches have the responsibility to create a comfortable environment for enhancing an effective coaching relationship.

In summary, the SR panel's expert views highlighted that applying psychological interventions in the coaching process does assist the coach to have a deeper understanding of coachee's behaviours and motivations for change. However, coaching

Table 2: The demographics of review panels.

Panel	Gender	Academic/ Practitioner	Educational Background	Location
Total: 10	Male: 7 Female: 3	Both: 9 Practitioner: 1	Psychology: 9 Management: 1	Austria: 1 Belgium: 1 Britain: 6 Denmark: 1 Germany: 1

content and evaluations are very diverse and there is not enough existing empirical research to examine any one specific coaching framework, especially given that many coaches and studies adopted an integrative approach, rendering it difficult to elicit active ingredients in any one coaching orientation. Thus, the SR panel highlighted the shift to a relational coaching study and practice as coaching process is based on people's communications and interactions. The coach has the accountability to initiate a comfortable environment for the effective coaching relationship. Following the pilot search and consultation with the SR panel, the focus of this SR topic was agreed to investigate key successful factors for an effective coaching relationship, and to identify the essential attributes needed by a coaching psychologist to enhance the coaching relationship.

The finalised review questions were:

1. *How many and what kind of studies have evaluated coaching psychologist's attributes in a robust and systematic way?*
2. *What are the effective coaching psychologist's attributes (required knowledge, attitudes and skills) in the coaching process to enhance the coaching relationship?*

Step Two: Undertaking the literature search and screening the references

The second step elicited relevant papers and screened the included studies for further review. The researcher used 58 search terms (e.g. cogniti* and coaching) identified from key coaching psychology books (e.g. Handbook of coachingpsychology) and the review panels. These terms were searched through eight electronic databases (e.g. PsycINFO) and 23,611 studied were retrieved. Consistent with SR methodology, seven prior inclusion criteria (see Table 3) were adopted to filter studies by reading abstracts and skimming the paper contents. A total of 140 studies remained for further synthesis.

Step Three: Evaluating and synthesising the included studies

This stage assessed study quality and integrated the evidence among the included studies to seek answers of the review questions. The specific paper evaluation method adopted in this review was to rate: (i) each paper's research method; (ii) coaching interventions; and (iii) coaching outcome evaluation scheme. Table 4 outlines the criteria for paper evaluation/rating including one example.

Firstly, the 'research methods', 'coaching interventions' and 'results evaluation schemes' of each included study were assessed to assure these studies are adequate for answering the research questions. Each paper was rated by adding up the scores gained from the three indicators mentioned above (see Table 4) ranging between 3 and 13. The results from higher scored/rated studies were given higher priority when synthesising the papers included in our review.

Subsequently, a narrative synthesis method (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006) was adopted given that many included studies were conducted using qualitative research methods. The study results of each paper were outlined on the Excel table. Cross-study synthesis was undertaken through comparing the study results and selecting the most rated/examined ones. The study appraisal rate was considered while cross synthesising the study results. For example, the study results from a quantitative study (e.g. an experiment) were given in the higher priority than the ones in a case report.

Table 3: Seven inclusion criteria.

Criterion	Rationale
(1) Written in English.	● The reviewer's language limitation.
(2) Published after 1995 (including 1995).	● According to Grant (2011), the first randomised controlled trial on coaching study was conducted in 1994 (Deviney) but the first RCT on coaching with significant results was conducted 1997 (Taylor). In order not to fail the significant studies, this review covers the papers published after 1995 (including 1995).
(3) Empirical research (quantitative and qualitative studies) which set clear research methods, participants, measurements and outcomes.	● The review questions are relevant to effectiveness of the interventions, experimental studies should be included. ● The review questions are about the process and meaning of interventions, such as coaching relationship, qualitative (such as IPA) or quantitative (such as survey) studies have to be covered (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006).
(4) Focused on life, personal, work and executive coaching.	● Referring to the definition from APS (2007), coaching psychology is the systematic application of behavioural science to the enhancement of ***life experience, work performance and well-being for individuals, groups and organisations who do not have clinically significant mental health issues or abnormal levels of distress.***
(5) Involved in any psychological interventions.	● Referring to review question three: What are the most applied psychological interventions impact on coachees' change as evident from current evaluation methods (including behaviours, performance, satisfaction, attitude and well-being)?
(6) Involved in any coach attributes (competencies, skills, attitudes and personalities, etc.).	● Referring to review question two: What are effective coaching psychologist's attributes (competence, skills, personality and attitudes) in the coaching process?
(7) Involved in any factors about coaching relationship.	● Referring to review question two: What are effective coaching psychologist's attributes (competence, skills, personality and attitudes) in the coaching process?

Table 4: The criteria and example of study appraisal/evaluation method.

Research method	**Scores**	**Evaluation methods**	**Scores**	**Coaching interventions**	**Scores**
Randomised Controlled Trials	7	Organisational goal or productivity (profit, ROI, sales, or quality, etc.)	4	Well-defined frameworks (including procedures)	2
Within-subject studies	6	Coaching clients' behavioural or performance changes	3		
...etc.	...etc.	...etc.	...etc.	...etc.	
Research method scores	**+**	**Evaluation method scores**	**+**	**Coaching intervention scores**	**Total scores**
Paper title	**Author**	**Journal**	**Research method**	**Evaluation method**	**Coaching intervention**
Cognitive-behavioural, solution-focused life coaching: Enhancing goal striving, well-being, and hope	Green et al. (2006)	Organisational goal or productivity (profit, ROI, sales, or quality, etc.)	Randomised Controlled Trial	(1) Personal goals questionnaire (2) Subjective well-being (3) Scales of psychological well-being = Attitude change	(1) Cognitive-behavioural (2) Solution-focused life coaching
Total scores	**13**		**7**		**2**

Findings

Paper distributions and classifications

The majority of the studies included in the final review (64 of 140 papers) based on the inclusion criteria had been published in Psychology focused journals (e.g. *International Coaching Psychology Review*) and 40 were from business and management journals. These studies were sorted into four categories according to their respective research purposes by reading through their abstracts. The table below summarises the overview of what are the main coaching study focus up to date and presents one example.

Key factors for a positive coaching relationship

Five key factors that enhance the coaching relationship were identified by synthesising 15 relevant included studies which examined the relations between the coaching process and results and analysed factors influencing an effective coaching relationship (see Table 5). The researcher listed all included study results in a data extraction form (an excel spreadsheet) and outlined the most pertinent effective factors for enhancing an effective coaching process. Subsequently, these effectiveness factors were ranked by consid-

Table 5: Distributions and classifications of the included studies.

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Examining effective psychological coaching interventions:	**88**	63%
Evaluation method		
(1) Coachees' feeling/satisfaction	5	
(2) Coachees' self-evaluation/reflection attitude change	35	
(3) Coachee's performance/behavioural change (e.g. 360 degree evaluation)	39	
(4) Organisational goals (sales performance and customer service improvement)	18	
Examining effective psychometrics applied in the coaching	**5**	3%
Examining effective factors that facilitate the coaching relationship	**15**	11%
Identifying effective attributes for a professional coach	**32**	23%
Total	**140**	**100%**

Table 6: The overview of five key factors for a positive coaching relationship.

Research methods	Frequency
Within-subject experiment	2
Case study	6
IPA/Semi-structured interview	3
Survey/Questionnaire	4
● Building trust, including rapport, engagement and credibility, etc.	
● Understanding and managing coachees' emotional reactions and difficulties and demonstrating empathy	
● Two-way communication, including listening, questioning, feedback, and verbal and body language used, etc.	
● Facilitating and helping coachees' learning and development to meet needs.	
● A clear contract and transparent process.	
Total	**15 studies**

ering both the frequency they were examined/referred and the method used in the study. For example, the effectiveness factors examined/rated from a quantitative study were placed in a higher order than the ones from a case study. Table 6 summarises the research methods and most frequently examined effectiveness factors:

Building trust: Establishing and maintaining a trusting relationship was identified as one of the critical elements to enhance the coaching process. Three qualitative studies (one case study and two semi-structured interviews studies) indicated mutual trust between the coach and the coachee plays a key role to facilitate the coaching process. A case study (Freedom & Perry, 2010) that collected perspectives from one coach-coachee pair disclosed that the coachee would not feel alone and with little support until the coach is trustworthy and reliable. Two qualitative studies (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007; O'Broin & Palmer, 2010b) that investigated effective factors for a positive coaching relationship by interviewing coaches and coachees also emphasised the importance of trust in the coaching process. Trust was most frequently discussed in the interviews (O'Broin & Palmer, 2010b), and nearly 92 per cent of participants (11 of 12 interviewees) considered 'trust' is one of the critical element to engage coachees. In addition, trust was rated as the second important variable influencing the employee coaching relationship in one survey study (Gregory & Levy, 2011). Therefore, establishing trust with coachees in the initial coaching process is a significant step for a constructive coaching relationship.

Understanding and managing coachees' emotional difficulties: Coping with coachees' emotional reaction was recognised as a key factor in the coaching process as most coachees experienced anxiety, sadness and frustration while seeking help from coaches (de Haan et al., 2008). Three included studies from this SR focused on the examination of the correlation between coachees' emotions and coaching relationship. A case study conducted by Freedman and Perry (2010) identified 'helping coachees to contain and take the edge off the intensity of their emotions' will enable an effective coaching relationship. Another case report (Day, 2010) which investigated how unconscious organisation dynamics affect the effectiveness of coaching relationship highlighted whether a coach possesses the emotional maturity and confidence to work with difficult emotional material is a critical element for enhancing a positive coaching relationship. Unconscious dynamics in organisations can be understood as arising in a wider psychosocial context (Lewin, 1952), which is made up of the interplay of psychological, social, economic, power and political processes (Holti, 1997). In this study, the subsequent exploration of the dynamics of the coaching relationship helped the coachee to understand at a deeper level his or her struggle in the organisation and to take up a different position in the organisation dynamics. In addition, de Haan et al. (2008) undertook a qualitative research (IPA) into 28 experienced coaches' critical moments in the coaching process. This study demonstrated that coaches' critical moments in the coaching process are highly influenced by coachees' emotions. These critical moments and emotional reactions can be opportunities for insight and change in the coaching relationship. From this study, coaches reported using supervision to help them to make sense of critical moments and respond appropriately. In summary, coaches and coachees both undergo some critical moments (emotional difficulties) in the coaching process because coachees' anxiety and frustration have a strong influence on coaches' emotions. Thus, managing these emotions and transferring them into positive insights for coachees to change is a crucial factor for an effective coaching relationship.

Two-way communication: Effective communication process was also considered as an essential ingredient for a harmonious coaching relationship from this SR. It includes active listening and questioning, mutual feedback, space for story sharing and appropriate verbal and body language. Listening and appropriate feedback were rated and examined as a main dimension for evaluating a positive employee coaching relationship in two survey studies (Gregory & Levy, 2010, 2011). A case study (Robinson, 2010) also investigated how to apply literary techniques, such as using story-telling, analogy, and metaphors, to analyse and interpret coaching conversations to enable sense-making and enhancement of insightful questioning, interpretation and reflective practice. This study indicated there is a positive relationship between the application of literary techniques and coaching relationship. From this SR, maintaining effective communication process through highly developed listening, questioning, feedback and language-using skills will enhance the understanding between the coach and the coachee and consequently their relationship.

Facilitation and help: Facilitating and helping coachees' learning and development to meet their needs was also highlighted as a key effectiveness factor for enhancing the coaching relationship in our SR. According to Baron and Morin's within-subject experimental study (2009) with 73 participants who attended a leadership development programme, coach's facilitating learning and results skills are positively associated with working alliance. Facilitating development was also examined and confirmed as a key dimension for evaluating the effectiveness of coaching relationship in a quantitative study by Gregory and Levy (2010). In addition, half of the participants (six of 12 interviewees) in a qualitative study (O'Broin & Palmer, 2010b) emphasised that a two-way relationship (e.g. collaboration and facilitation) in the coaching process could help the coach to have a better understanding of coachee's needs and to develop a shared goal. This process will also facilitate coach to engage the coachee and establish a better relationship.

Clear contract and transparent process: Having a clear contract and transparent coaching process was viewed as one key factor for establishing a positive relationship at the initial stage of the coaching engagement. A case study undertaken by Freedman and Perry (2010) indicated it was really helpful for establishing a trusting relationship after the coach explained the process, both parties' accountabilities, evaluation methods and confidential issues. In addition, an IPA study (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007) which investigated nine participants' experience of coaching demonstrated 'transparency' was considered very positively associated with a valuable coaching relationship. For instance, the coachees felt included and engaged when the coach explained the process and theories supporting the coaching interventions before any sessions commenced.

In summary, building trust, understanding and managing coachees' emotional difficulties, having a two-way communication process, facilitating coachees' learning and development and having a clear contract and transparent process were identified as the top five critical factors for enhancing the coaching process when we synthesised the evidence for the SR reported here. These factors were also considered and integrated into the next stage of our synthesis, which aimed to analyse key attributes for a professional coach to enhance the coaching relationship.

An initial Coaching Psychologist Competency Framework

A total of 32 included studies which investigated key coaches' attributes to enhance a constructive coaching relationship (see Table 5) were synthesised in this review. As discussed above, how the self of coach is used

to interact with coachee for an effective coaching relationship and positive results is crucial (de Haan, 2008; O'Broin & Palmer, 2010a). A study (de Haan et al., 2011) identified effective executive coaches' behaviours that benefit the coaching relationship from coachees' views through questionnaires. This study indicated certain coaches' knowledge/experience; behaviours and qualities are 'helpful' for enhancing an effective and constructive coaching process. The study results provided an overview of what coachees consider and expect of a 'helpful' coach; it also implied more research is needed to examine specific aspects of effective coaches' attributes. Prior to any primary research, it is essential to examine the existing evidence through a systematic process. The 32 included papers comprise 12 quantitative, 11 qualitative and nine mixed methods studies (see Table 7).

According to Bartram (2008), a comprehensive person specification for any job role includes knowledge, skills, ability and other characteristics, such as such as personality and attitudes. Therefore, findings from these included papers were recorded in three competency groups: (i) required knowledge and experiences; (ii) personality/attitudes; and (iii) skills and behaviours to highlight effective coach attributes. These were ranked by considering both the frequency with which they were examined/referred and the methods used in the study. Top ranked attributes were integrated and outlined as an Initial Coaching Psychologist Competency Framework (see Table 8 overleaf).

Required knowledge: This section outlines relevant knowledge/educational backgrounds required for a professional coach. Three key areas were identified after synthesising eight relevant included papers: (i) psychological relevant knowledge/educational backgrounds; (ii) psychological coaching framework/process; and (iii) leadership and organisational management knowledge. A quantitative study (Wasylyshyn, 2003) with 87 participants rated 'graduate level training in psychology' as the most important criterion (82 per cent) when they select a coach. Six included studies which focused on the examination of the relations between coachees' emotions and coaching process also disclosed coping with coachees' reactions effectively is a key requirement for a professional coach. These two studies indicated that having an appropriate psychological training/educational background

Table 7: The overview of coaches' effective attributes studies.

Research methods	Frequency
Quantitative study	**12**
● Between-subject study	1
● Within-subject study	2
● Questionnaire	9
Qualitative study	**11**
● Case study	2
● Observation	1
● Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA)	4
● Grounded theory	2
● Thematic analysis	2
Mixed method (e.g. focus group, questionnaire and interview, etc.)	**9**
Total	**32**

Table 8: An Initial Coaching Psychologist Competency Framework.

Required knowledge	Personality/Attitudes	Skills/Behaviours
1. How to identify, support and transfer emotional difficult clients 2. Key psychological coaching interventions 3. Individual and group behaviours 4. Diversity management 5. Psychometric assessment application 6. Organisational management 7. Leadership practices 8. Business acumens	1. openness/honesty/ authenticity 2. integrity/confidentiality 3. non-judgemental/objective 4. enthusiasm/passion 5. commitment/motivation to help	1. Communication skills 2. Building a relationship 3. Facilitation

will assist the coach to identify and manage emotional reactions and difficulties from coachees. This will also facilitate the coaching process. In addition, a qualitative study by Maritz et al. (2009) emphasised a professional coach should be acquainted with certain level concepts of organisational management, leadership/people development and business acumen because most of the coachees' issues were associated with their workplaces and colleagues. In summary, appropriate training in psychology and being acquainted with most frequently used psychological coaching interventions and certain degree of organisational/leadership management concepts will provide a professional coach to have a fundamental knowledge base to articulate an effective coaching process.

Personalities/Attitudes: This section summarises the effective attitudes/personalities a professional coach should possess to facilitate their relationships with coachees. The five most highlighted attitudes for a coach were outlined after integrating results from four included studies (Maritz et al., 2009; Passmore, 2010; Stevens, 2005; Wasylyshyn, 2003) which investigated both coaches' and coachees' perspectives by interviews and questionnaires. They are: (i) openness/honesty/authenticity; (ii) integrity/confidentiality; (iii) non-judgemental/objective; (iv) enthusiasm/passion; and (v) commitment/motivation to help.

Skills: Three key skills were identified after cross-analysing results from the 32 included papers that studied the critical competencies for a professional coach. First, communication skills were rated and emphasised most from coaches', coachees' and coaching purchasers' perspectives and expectations (Dagley, 2011; Longenecker & Neubert, 2005; Maritz et al., 2009; Passmore, 2010). They include listening and reflecting back actively, powerful questioning, providing and seeking feedback and using appropriate verbal and body language. Second, establishing a constructive relationship with coachees was highlighted from several included studies (Longenecker & Neubert, 2005; Maritz et al., 2009). From the study results, demonstrating empathy and supporting and engaging coachees were emphasised as the effective behaviours for a professional coach to build a positive coaching relationship. Third, facilitating coachees' learning and development was

also remarked by most participants in several included studies (Griffiths & Campbell, 2008; Longenecker & Neubert, 2005; Maritz et al., 2009). The key behaviours include helping to set the appropriate goals and actions and managing progress and accountability.

In conclusion, the attributes for a professional coach identified from this SR could be a basis for the further coaching psychology study to develop and examine a Coaching Psychologist Competency Framework.

Discussion

This is the first SR in the coaching domain which examined the role of coaching psychology in contemporary coaching study and practice through a rigid and transparent process. The review results ascertained that coaching psychologists' attributes (required knowledge, attitudes/personality and skills) have a significant influence on the effectiveness of coaching relationship and results. Five key points were summarised from the review findings which are also in response to the review questions/hypotheses in the protocol consulted with the review panels.

First, this SR confirmed that coaching processes and the coaching relationship are the key foci of coaching research and practice. One-third of the included studies (47 of 140 papers) highlighted the link between the coaching relationship and coaching results and investigated the effective coaches' attributes for facilitating a constructive coaching relationship. These studies were mainly conducted using qualitative research methods (12 semi-structured interviews, seven case studies and one longitudinal observation report). The rest of the papers comprise six experiments, 15 surveys and eight mix-methods studies.

Second, in the papers reviewed here, the professional psychological training/professional background was emphasised as an essential requirement for a professional coach. Coachees' emotional reactions/moments were recognised as the key turning points and opportunities to facilitate coachees' motivations for change. A coach who is able to apply psychological interventions appropriately to identify and manage coachees' emotional difficulties facilitates a better relationship in the coaching process (Day, 2010; de Haan et al., 2008; Freedman & Perry, 2010; Gregory & Levry, 2011). In addition, a quantitative study (Wasylyshyn, 2003) with 87 participants rated 'graduate level training in psychology' as the most important criterion (82 per cent) for a professional coach. As discussed above, coaching is still not a standardised and accredited profession due to the diversity of coaches' prior professional backgrounds. Although a few traditional literature reviews (Bachkirova, 2008; Grant, 2001, Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011; Whybrow, 2008) highlighted the importance of applying psychological interventions in the coaching field, this SR is the first review based on the explicit search terms and well-defined review process to confirm having a background in psychology will assist the coach to have a deeper understanding of coachees' issues and to facilitate their motivations to change. More precisely, psychological training is an essential requirement for a professional coach.

Third, this SR highlighted that coaches' attributes have a significant influence on the effectiveness of coaching process and results. Five effectiveness factors, which are: (i) building trust; (ii) understanding and managing coachees' emotional difficulties; (iii) having two-way communication process; (iv) facilitating coachees' learning and development; and (v) having a clear contract and transparent process for a constructive coaching relationship outlined from this SR are all associated with coaches' attitudes and competencies. The initial Coaching Psychologist Competency Framework summarised from this SR also provides an overview of what attributes a professional coach should acquire to facilitate an effective coaching process. These findings indicated that coaches' attitudes and behaviours demon-

strated in the coaching process have a significant impact on the coachees' emotions and reactions. Therefore, coaches have the accountability to initiate and maintain an effective relationship in the coaching process based on obsessing attitudes and skills outlined from the included studies.

Nevertheless, this SR concluded that more rigorous empirical studies are required as most of the existing coaching studies (approximately 70 per cent) were undertaken by qualitative methods such as case studies and interviews. In addition, 65 per cent of the included studies evaluated the coaching results solely based on coachees' personal satisfactions and attitude changes rather than tracking their behavioural or performance improvement. Therefore, future research should emphasise on the improvement of research methods and coaching result evaluation approaches to ensure producing more rigorous and replicable study results.

Finally, this SR identified the future research trends for the development of coaching psychology. The researcher summarised key attributes for a professional coach from the included studies, which will enhance the coaching relationship (including required knowledge, attributes/personalities and skills). These attributes and features were integrated into an initial Coaching Psychologist Competency Framework (see Table 8) which also indicated further research trends in coaching psychology field. As discussed above, coaches' diverse backgrounds increase the difficulty to develop a standardised coaching definition, focus, result evaluation method and coaches' selection and development scheme (Sherman & Freas, 2004). This initial draft for a framework which is based on the existing evidence could be a foundation for the future coaching studies which then develop and validate a full competency framework for professional coaches.

In conclusion, there is still considerable debate about whether having a background in psychology is an essential requirement for a professional coach. Previous narrative reviews also considered this issue, (Bachkirova 2008; Grant, 2001, Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011; Whybrow 2008;) but did not address explicitly how they considered any primary studies or evidence for inclusion, which we endeavoured to address in our review. This SR is the first review for which the protocol was based on consultation with coaching experts from both psychological and non-psychological backgrounds. All relevant coaching studies were synthesised through a standard and rigid process to investigate the subsequent development trends for coaching psychology. The review results highlighted three key points of the development of coaching psychology: (i) coaching relationship is the key factor for enhancing the effectiveness of coaching results; (ii) the coach has the accountability to initiate and manage an effective coaching process. Because five crucial ingredients (e.g. building trust and facilitating the development and learning) for a constructive coaching relationship outlined from the included studies are all associated with; (iii) having a psychological background to manage coachees' emotions and have a deeper understanding of their issues was emphasised as the essential criterion for a professional coach. However, most (70 per cent) of the included studies were still undertaken through qualitative research methods (e.g. case reports and interviews). Therefore this SR concluded that future coaching psychology research should continue investigating effective attributes for a professional coach and what sorts of psychological interventions/concepts should be included in a professional coaching training programme by drawing on rigorous research methods and processes.

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Paper

Is FeedForward the way forward? A comparison of the effects of FeedForward coaching and Feedback

Almuth McDowall, Katie Freeman & Suzanne Marshall

Objectives: *The FeedForward Interview (FFI) is a means of structuring conversations (Kluger & Nir, 2006), such as performance appraisals, or indeed coaching in organisations. Conceptually situated in a positive psychological paradigm, FFI techniques build on appreciative inquiry (Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987), positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002) and Feedback Intervention Theory (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). The objective of this research was to investigate how FFI affects individual outcomes compared to traditional feedback as part of a coaching session.*

Design: *We conducted a quasi-experimental longitudinal study allocating 54 participants randomly to either a FFI or Feedback-based coaching intervention.*

Methods: *We measured self-efficacy, mood and strengths-confidence as well goal attainment before and after each intervention.*

Results: *Self-efficacy significantly increased following FFI compared to feedback; participants were more likely to obtain their goals in the FFI condition. There were no significant differences for mood; and no main effects for strengths-knowledge but a significant interaction by treatment condition.*

Conclusions: *The results indicate that FFI appears a valid intervention to facilitate positive psychological change as part of a coaching session. We discuss the potential for further research including the evaluation of transfer of learning arising from FFI in experimental paradigms as well as behavioural observations.*

Keywords: *FeedForward; feedback; coaching; self-efficacy; mood; strengths-confidence.*

STRENGTH-BASED PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACHES are taking hold in diverse domains, including performance appraisals (Bouskila-Yam & Kluger, 2011), employee selection and also coaching (Linley, Woolston & Bieswas-Diener, 2009; Oades, Crowe & Nguyen, 2009). Such positive approaches underpin a shift from being '*problem-focused* [italics added] to potential-guided and solution-focused' (Linley & Harrington, 2006). Sharpe (2011) talks about the 'primacy of positivity', arguing that positivity in coaching should always precede other activities such as goal setting. We now turn to a specific technique which encompasses relevant principles. Situated in a positive psychological paradigm, the FeedForward Interview (FFI) (Kluger & Nir, 2006) is a structured conversation asking individuals to focus on their strengths by recounting a distinct positive experience and exploring the conditions necessary for this before turning to goal setting and action planning. The FFI thus encourages reflection on positive experiences and strengths, to induce positive emotions and provides a 'safe' context for information sharing and self-evaluation of *current* behaviours in relation to one's strengths. Whilst the individual FFI components have a comprehensive theoretical rationale and case studies provide some insight into potential FFI mechanisms, (Kluger & Nir, 2006, 2010), concrete evidence about any positive effects deriving from FFI for individuals warrants further investigation taking a rigorous quasi-experimental field approach is still sparse. This apparent need for more research is in contrast to the large body of research on feedback processes which focus on past

experience and information and learning and reflection based on these (McDowall & Millward, 2010). The limitations of feedback have long been noted, as have the complexities of feedback processes (McDowall, 2012). The psychological evidence is inconclusive about which feedback conditions facilities positive outcomes, and potentially detrimental effects (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). As there appears to be a need to apply and study strengths-based and positive activities, we now introduce FFI compared to Feedback in some detail, offering our rationale for studying its effectiveness as part of a coaching session.

What is FeedForward?

Kluger and Nir (2006) developed the FeedForward Interview (FFI) from: (a) Appreciative Inquiry, an organisational development technique to structure organisational conversations around strengths (Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987); and (b) Feedback Intervention Theory (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996) which spells out principles to explain feedback effects. Further theoretical considerations guiding the FFI approach are the utilisation of episodic memory for story elicitation, active listening and cognitive comparisons to facilitate motivation and change, as well as goal setting. In essence, the FFI is a semi-structured interview technique where the interviewer facilitates a loose script, where the interviewee is given space to share their story, through gentle questioning and prompting. In sequence, the FFI focuses on: (a) elicitation of a key event during which the interviewee felt at their best; (b) clarifying the conditions which allowed this event to happen; and (c) the 'high point' of this event and the emotional experience thereof and finally future plans or actions. These principles are set out in Table 1, and lend themselves to be used flexibly in interviews, appraisals and coaching.

Table 1: Key components of the FeedForward Interview (FFI).

Components	Key Content	Rationale
Eliciting a success story	Description of (self-selected) story when individual felt 'at their best'.	Focus on positive emotions and on episodic memory.
The peak moment	Focus on the 'high point' or peak moment and experiences at the time.	Fostering of positive self-evaluation and emotions.
Clarifying the conditions	Individuals describe the facilitating conditions, such as the environment, the self and others.	Clarification of optimal conditions.
Further conversation: FeedForward to the future	Individuals consider the degree to which immediate plans are in line with conditions elicited. Typically involves some type of gap analysis comparing the story to present conditions and action plan for the future.	Use gap analysis and self-reflection to direct attention to the future for self-motivated change, recognition of potential discrepancy between current plans and 'just-discovered optimal-performance' conditions (Kluger & Nir, 2006).

In essence then, FFI sets out to facilitate learning from the experience of past success through cognitive comparisons (Carver & Scheier, 1981) by asking interviewees to note the conditions and compare these to the present time, in order to initiate behavioural changes through the setting of goals (Kluger & Nir, 2006).

FeedForward compared to Feedback

FeedForward clearly then has a future focus, where the onus rests with the interviewee to open up and share their success story. Feedback in contrast is focused on information from the past, and discussion thereof, and can, although does not have to be, deficit and development need focused. So is FFI better utilised instead of, or indeed before providing any feedback to individuals? Kluger and Nir (2006, 2010) propose just this, stressing the positive effects of FFI compared to potentially harmful feedback. Whilst the use of information as feedback is part of self-regulation processes (Carver & Scheier, 1981), literature has yielded variable data about the consequences of feedback (see also McDowall & Millward, 2010). Kluger and DeNisi's (1996) meta-analysis of 607 effect sizes and 22,663 observations unravelled that Feedback improves performance moderately (d=.41), however, for one-third of observations there was a deterioration in performance, so individuals were in fact worse off having feedback than not having any feedback at all. Clearly, feedback processes are and remain complex despite the considerable research evidence (McDowall, 2012). One common observation appears to be that content matters, where positive feedback is recalled better and accepted more favourably by recipients than negative information (Snyder & Cowles, 1979) increases motivation to reach a desired goal, more so than negative feedback (Van-Dijk & Kluger, 2004). As individuals are overall motivated to see themselves in a positive light (Anseel & Lievens, 2006), there appears to be a case to generate evidence for positively focused and psychologically safe interventions. We now turn to the purported 'active ingredients' of FFI.

The 'active ingredients' of the FeedForward Interview

With regards to the emotional valence, recalling a 'full of life, at best' experience during FFI is purported to foster positive emotions (Kluger & Nir, 2006. Retcher (2009) compared FFI to other conditions or interventions using a between-subjects experimental design involving; FFI, a neutral interview and a no interview condition. The results indicated that those who experienced FFI reported the most positive emotions.

FFI also focuses on *internal* discrepancy between the standards identified from discovering the conditions for success, and other internal information such as current plans for the future in contrast to potential discrepancies between external information and *external* ideas and self-referent information derived from Feedback (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). This internal comparison is the essence of FFI, purportedly making it more difficult to give up the internal standards following recollection of success. Kluger and Nir (2006) suggest that the success story augments self-efficacy, induces positive emotions and hence increases the likelihood of behaviour change in light of the just-discovered conditions for success.

People's strengths appear difficult to define, as they areare potentially unconscious and not necessarily expressed in overt behaviours (Aspinwall & Staudinger, 2003). Thus, there is perhaps an overall need for further research as to how strengths can be made conscious and salient, and FFI integrated into coaching may be one way of doing so. Research to date indicates that strengths-use or knowledge can lead to a variety of positive outcomes including; heightened self-efficacy, self-esteem, well-being, goal-attainment, work-engagement and work performance (Govindji & Linley, 2007; Harter et al., 2002; Linley et al., 2010; Minhas, 2010; Proctor et al., 2009; Smedley, 2007).

As alluded to above, FFI's appreciative component, involving story-telling about a positive experience, has been suggested to evoke positive emotions and mood states, by bringing positive experiences to the forefront (Hermans et al., 1992). The experience of a positive mood state is linked to a number of positive outcomes, including increased creativity and willingness to cooperate (Fredrickson, 2001). Participants induced in a good mood are also more willing to accept negative feedback as shown in a laboratory experiment delivering either positive or negative feedback about achieving life goals (Trope & Pomerantz, 1998). In terms of potentially underlying mechanisms, Barsade (2002) suggested that positive emotions, which are also facilitated by FFI as discussed above, lead to an increased openness to new information, through introspective reflection on individuals' capabilities and their strengths.

Self-efficacy and goal attainment

Self-efficacy is the belief in one's own capabilities to execute an action in response to a prospective situation (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Social cognitive theory holds that levels of influences decisions to perform certain behaviours, effort and persistence during undesired situations, where a set of expectations, based on past experiences, are carried forward to future situations (Schwarzer, 1993; Sherer et al., 1982). Whilst the literature on FFI does not directly discuss self-efficacy overtly as a construct, FFI's positive, internal and self-enhancing focus may allow individuals to become more to likely to become aware of their strengths (Govindji & Linley, 2007) and thus strengthen self-belief in their capabilities. The effects of feedback appear to run counter positive effects. In particularly predominantly negative feedback may lower self-efficacy through the potential discrepancy between the self-view (which may be positive) and 'feedback givers' view (which may be negative) (Bandura, 1986; Dweck, 1986: McDowall & Kurz, 2008).

Goals and their attainment are another motivational aspect, in addition to augmented belief in capabilities. Goal setting theory is cognitive in nature, and holds that the setting of goals direct attention and provides motivational focus (Locke & Latham, 1990). Goals are a habitual element of many coaching and feedback processes, providing focus and a referent benchmark for coach and coachee alike (McDowall & Millward, 2010) to map out action plans and track what has and has not been achieved, and also where goals need to be revised. Goals and an associated cognitive comparison is also part of the FFI process, where individuals compare their current state and experience with any goals or future plans. Whilst there are many studies on goal *setting*, there remains a need to research under what conditions goals are best *achieved*.

Study rationale and hypotheses

In summary then, there appears some evidence for certain mechanisms of FFI, in that it appears to raise positive emotions. However, the other 'ingredients' merit further experimental investigation to test out a predominantly theory-driven tool which is purported to reside in a strengths-focused and positive paradigm, to enable participants to work towards their goals. To this extent, we set out to investigate to what extent such a positively focused activity raises strengths-confidence and also facilitates goal achievement. As it is also purported that the FFI works more effectively than a purely feedback based approach. However, the evidence base for feedback is in comparison much larger but also more disparate; whilst feedback remains a core activity in coaching (McDowall, 2012). To this extent, the current study investigated to what extent coaching sessions using feedback or FFI affect strengths-confidence, mood and self-efficacy at two time intervals as compared to any observed effects for a feedback condition. More specifically, our hypotheses were:

H_1 Participants will have higher self-efficacy following FFI than following feedback.
H_2 Positive mood will increase more following FFI than following feedback.
H_3 Strengths-confidence will increase more following FFI than following feedback.
H_4 There will be higher goal attainment following FFI than following feedback.

Method

Participants

We recruited 54 full-time employees across a range of job roles and organisations, (35 female [64.8 per cent] and 19 male [35 per cent]) with a mean age of 37.6 (*SD*=14.0, age range: 20 to 67), 92 per cent declared themselves as White British.

Design

Participants were randomly assigned to either FFI (*N*=32) or feedback coaching (*N*=22) in using a between participants design. We took measures before and after each coaching intervention, the dependent variables were generalised self-efficacy, positive mood, strengths-confidence measured one week after participation, and goal attainment measured one month after participation as outlined below.

Measures

Generalised Self-Efficacy. We used the Generalised Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES; Schwarzer & Jerusalem, in Schwarzer, 1992); which contains 10 items rated on a four-point scale (1=not at all true, 2=hardly true, 3=moderately true, 4=exactly true), a sample item was 'I am certain I can accomplish my goals'. Coefficient alpha was consistent with α=.83 before and after coaching.

Mood. We utilised the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., (1988); measuring positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA) respectively by participant rating of 10 adjectives each using a five-point scale (1=very slightly or not at all, 2=a little, 3=moderately, 4=quite a bit, 5=extremely). Alphas varied somewhat, for PA, the Cronbach alpha statistic was α=.53 before coaching, and α=.85 after coaching, and for NA α=.77 before coaching, and α=.76 after coaching.

Both GSES and Mood were measured before and after coaching.

Strengths-confidence. We asked participants to list their three key strengths to set a context for the subsequent discussion and facilitate ratings of the strengths confidence items. Participants listed a wide range of aspects such as organisation (10.6 per cent), commitment/determination (7.5 per cent), communication skills (5 per cent) and work ethic (4 per cent). We then asked participants to rate how confident they felt that the three strengths listed were indeed their key strengths; using an 11-point percentage scale (ranging from 0 per cent to 100 per cent both) before and after coaching. We also wrote items specifically for this study, asking participants to rate five items tapping into strengths-confidence using a five-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree), at time interval two in questionnaire 2 only (after coaching), an example item was 'The coaching session has helped me clarify what I think my strengths at work are'. Cronbach alpha was recorded as α=.63.

Goal attainment. We used Goal Attainment Scaling (GAS) which whilst initially developed in the mental health field has applicability in coaching ton determine goal change (Kiresuk & Sherman, 1968; Ottenbacher & Cusick, 1990). Participants first agreed a specific goal during the respective session and discussed what attainment of this goal would look like. At the time of the follow-up one month later, they then self-rated their attainment using a five-point scale (+2=Much more than expected learning outcome, +1=Somewhat more than expected learning outcome, 0=Expected level of learning outcome, –1=Somewhat less than expected learning outcome, –2=Much less than expected learning outcome.)

Finally, we included an open-ended item to allow participants to share their perceptions of the study experience.

The FFI and Feedback interventions

Following a favourable ethical opinion from the researchers' institutions and participants' informed consent to participate, we agreed mutually times and locations for each coaching session, usually at the participants' place of work. The second and third author (MSc students at the time) were trained in the respective coaching, feedback and FFI techniques and delivered the sessions. Each had undertaken a five-lecture module focused on coaching, and was trained specifically in the technique by the first author. All researchers had also trained in the certificates of competence for both ability and personality assessments in the workplace (as regulated by the British Psychological Society) to equip them to deliver the feedback sessions. Following consent and allocation to condition, we provided all participants with an information sheet about the respective condition. Each session took about 45 to 60 minutes, the FFI sessions slightly longer than the Feedback sessions on average; we counter balanced how many feedback and FFI sessions each researcher undertook. The Feedback condition consisted of a structured career focused discussion using the Career Indepth Pathfinder Inventory statements (SHL, ND), discussing the participants' career preferences and plans. The FFI followed the script as outlined above, including the discussion of a 'success story', the conditions, therefore, the high point, and the emotional experience and plans for the future. Participants recounted a range of differing experiences, all from a work context, including success around mastering a newly learned task or role or interactions with others.

Results

All variables were checked for normality and outliers, and missing data for one participant (who submitted a partially completed follow-up questionnaire) was substituted with means as appropriate.

Testing H_1, we conducted a mixed ANOVA to address the 2 x 2 (condition: FFI and Feedback, and time: pre- and post-coaching) mixed-research design. The mean scores for self-efficacy were higher after coaching (M=32.63, SD=3.7) compared to before coaching (M=31.5, SD=3.65), a statistically significant difference $F(1,52)=5.40$, $p=.02$, $\eta^2=.09$. There was a highly significant interaction between condition and time $F(1,52)=57.89$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.24$. Figure 1 shows that whilst self-efficacy increased for FFI, it decreased for feedback.

We compared self-efficacy post FFI compared to Feedback using an independent t-test, revealing that participants reported greater generalised self-efficacy after FFI coaching (M=33.81, SD=3.05) compared to feedback coaching (M=30.91, SD=3.95), with a significant difference $t(52)=3.04$, $p=.004$, $d=.73$.

Testing H_2, we conducted another mixed ANOVA. The results of the main effect of condition revealed no overall significant difference for mood $F(1,52)=0.28$, $p=.129$, $\eta^2= .001$; there was also no significant main effect for time $F(1,52)=.00$, $p=.98$, $\eta^2=.00$ and no significant interaction effect, $F(1,52)=.77$, $p=.77$, $\eta^2=.02$, we noted that positive affect increased following FFI, but decreased after Feedback.

Testing H_3, a third mixed ANOVA elicited no overall significant difference for strengths confidence between FFI and feedback conditions $F(1,52)=.00$, $p=.99$, $\eta^2=.00$, or for time, $F(1,52)=.621$, $p=.43$, $\eta^2=.012$. There was, however, a significant interaction $F(1,52)=5.16$, $p=.027$, $\eta^2=.09$. Figure 2 reveals that whilst strengths-confidence increased for FFI, it dropped in the feedback condition.

We then conducted an independent samples t-test showing that whilst participants reported somewhat greater strengths-

Figure 1: Self-efficacy before and after FFI and Feedback.

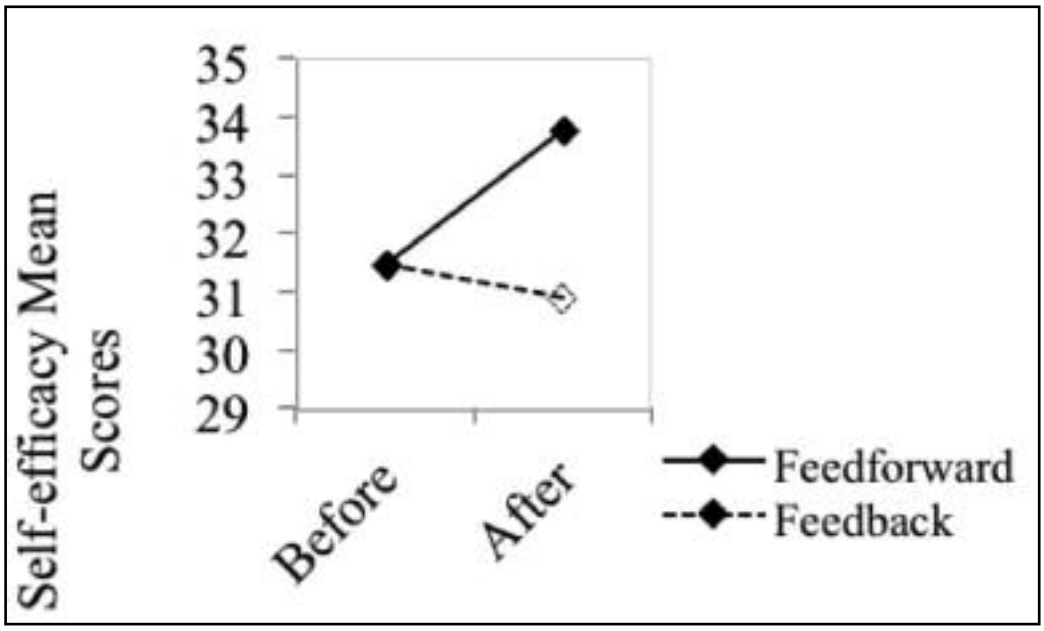
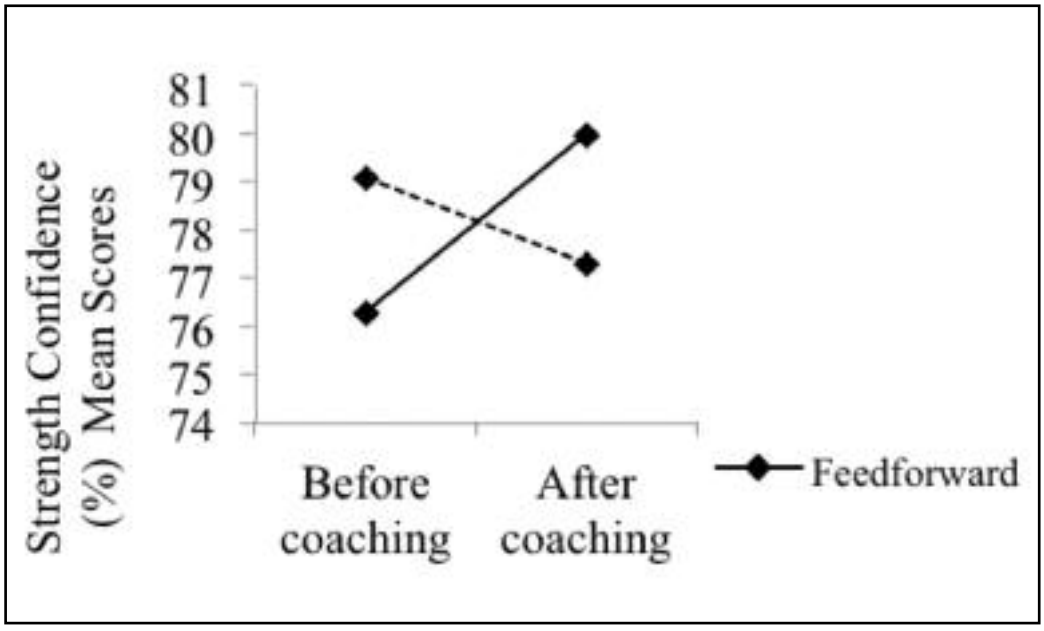


Figure 2: Strengths confidence following FFI and Feedback.



confidence following FFI (M=80 per cent, SD=13.68) compared to feedback coaching (M=77.27 per cent, SD=10.77), this was statistically not significant.

Testing H_4, we first explored the data. In the FFI condition, all 32 participants met or exceeded the goal they had set after one month, with five of them greatly exceeding the achievement of the goal, by scoring themselves as +2 in Goal Attainment; 21 participants scoring their goal attainment as a somewhat more than the expected learning outcome, and six participants scoring themselves as having met the expected level of learning outcome (0).

In the Feedback condition, 13 participants met or exceeded the goal they had set after one month, with three participants having a somewhat higher than expected learning outcome and 10 participants scoring themselves as having met the expected level of learning outcome (0). In contrast to the FFI group, nine participants had a somewhat less than expected learning outcome after their coaching session (–1.)

We used an Independent Samples t-test to measure the difference in goal attainment. The results indicated a statistically significant difference, with the FFI group significantly achieving more goals (M=0.97, SD=0.59) than the Feedback group (M=–0.27 SD=0.70), $T(52)=6.99$, $p=<0.005$.

Discussion

This research set out to investigate to what extent self-efficacy, positive mood, strengths confidence and goal attainment change following FFI as compared to feedback as part of a one off coaching session. To our knowledge, this is the first quasi-experimental study comparing FFI to feedback. We gathered support for H_1, as taking part in FFI increased self-efficacy more than for the feedback condition, with a significant main effect for time and significant interaction, where self-efficacy dropped in the feedback condition. Whilst there was an increase in positive mood in the FFI condition, this was not significant statistically in either the main or interaction effects; hence there was no direct support for H_2. With regards to H_3, whilst participation in FFI did increase strengths-confidence, the main effects for time and condition were not significant, there was however a significant interaction, showing that strengths confidence dropped in the feedback condition. Finally, participants in the FFI condition were far more likely to attain self-set goals than those who had participated in Feedback, lending supporting to H_4.

Taken together, our study provides quasi-experimental evidence that participation in FFI may indeed facilitate positive psychological change, and in particular affects individuals' belief in their respective capability as well as positive goal change (Kluger & Nir, 2006). In other words, the findings indicate that FFI might provide a valuable technique to facilitate goal attainment as well as increased belief in one's capability. It is likely that the self-directed and positive Focus of FFI accounts for these effects. Our findings extend the coaching literature. Whilst a previous study has shown that *using* one's strengths heighten levels of self-efficacy (Govindji & Linley, 2007), our findings show that the mere *discussion* and *reflection* on such strengths and good experiences during FFI also glean positive effects. Of course, it needs to be acknowledged that FFI may also play to general human preference, given that individuals are motivated to view themselves as in a positive light (Anseel & Lievens, 2006).

We observed no difference for positive mood following FFI or feedback. This is somewhat surprising given that the rationale for FFI includes the deliberate induction of positive emotions (Retcher, 2009). We content that a potential explanation for is observation is that there might be individual differences in the responses to FFI and in individual capacity to gain immediate benefits from a single interview (Kluger & Nir, 2006). Individuals may vary in their 'FFI curve', where any effects may take longer for some participants than for others. Given the explorative nature of the current study, we

confined the process to one coaching study in each condition, but future research should take a more longitudinal approach. Additionally, there is the possibility that extraneous factors may have influenced reported mood when measured one week after the coaching sessions, including physical, psychological, social, environmental, stress and demographic variables (Bolger et al., 1989; Taenzer et al., 1985; Teychenne, 2008), and we recognise the difficult in accounting for these. Indeed, we cannot discount that any effects of FFIs may have diminished after that week, particularly without further support to assist transfer of learning.

On average, participants did have greater strengths-e confidence after FFI; however, this was not statistically significant in the comparison to Feedback. Again, this finding is surprising given that FFI focuses on and positively reinforces the elicitation of strengths through active listening and facilitating reflection. In the qualitative comments, participants agreed that taking part in FFI indeed helped to *clarify* their respective strengths at work. Whilst uncovering and reflecting on such strengths is a core component of the technique, improved strengths-confidence may require deeper reflection, and also embedding through additional coaching sessions.

Participants attained significantly more goals following FFI compared to Feedback, and we endeavor here to offer an explanation for these effects. Kluger and DeNisi (1996) argue that individual motivation is facilitated when there is a discrepancy between any goals and their current state, but that different responses can occur, depending on the route of highest benefits and lowest cost. It is tenable, as feedback is more externally driven than FFI, that participants may be more likely to agree with self-referenced information, resulting in a lower motivational impetus. FFI directs attention to the participant, and internal standards and comparison processes (Kluger & Nir, 2006) and allowing increased control over the coaching process. Given that the process is focused on eliciting a story of success, FFI may create a discrepancy between how the individual currently feels about future plans, and their ideas of what conditions can enable success. Reflection on this discrepancy reduces the chances of the participant rejecting or 'escaping from' their goals, and, therefore, it is more likely that behavior will change as internal standards are renegotiated, as a result of the new internal knowledge.

We had not predicted the negative changes in self-efficacy or strengths- confidence in the feedback condition, or indeed the significant interactions. Previous literature has demonstrated lowered self-efficacy following negative feedback, whereby the process may have induced a discrepancy between the belief of the individual and the content of the feedback (Bandura, 1986; Dweck, 1986). Our research pointed to deleterious effects even for a positively framed feedback intervention, and deleterious effects for perceived strengths, too. Whilst not predicted as such, these results nevertheless call for further discussion and exploration in subsequent studies, given also that we observed a clear impact on behaviour – Feedback participants set fewer goals.

Research limitations

Controlled experimental research including thorough baseline measures in coaching is still rare. We had deliberately used a longitudinal design, however, to test our hypotheses. Whilst we offer our quasi-experimental approach as a contribution on a potentially interesting and relevant but still relatively sparsely researched technique, we also acknowledge some of the methodological limitations. These include potentially fluctuating effects which our design may not have captured at the follow-up interval. Whilst in an ideal world we may have wished to take measurements at additional intervals, our participants volunteered their participation, meaning that we did not want to impose unduly on their time, and hence

kept the intervention groups to one session each. We also recognise that that the feedback group was somewhat smaller than the FFI group, which, although outside our control, nevertheless impacted the power of our design. Finally, we cannot preclude experimenter effects as it was not possible to conduct a double-blind experiment when the researchers themselves are involved in delivering the interventions. To render follow-up research more robust, we would use an external practitioner to deliver the sessions to minimise such effects.

Proposed future research

Whilst we stress that researching one coaching session at a time can provide valuable insight, we recommend research into long-term effects and learning transfer of FFI in the workplace as a valuable next step, to investigate long term effects more fully over time. The goal setting element in itself also merits further follow up. Whilst we know that more goals were obtained in FFI, it would be helpful to ascertain how these may link to overarching plans and changes, for instance in relation to careers, well-being or other outcomes. In addition, further research adopting a formal measurement of the suggested 'positive spiral' (Kluger & Nir, 2006), perhaps even including observational techniques and subsequent coding of behaviour, would provide support for any positive emotions unconsciously displayed by the interviewee during FFI. Such an approach would allow additional insight into the immediate effects of FFI, for instance focused on emotion and mood experiences. Lastly, future research should also consider coach effects in more detail by obtaining data from coachees to determine which exact facilitation and questioning techniques (which FFI elements?) work best from their point of view.

Implications for practice

Our evidence shows that a positive and future focused approach, as in FFI, reaps benefits for individuals in a coaching session. Whilst initially construed in an appraisal context, FFI is a simple, flexible and accessible technique which can be adapted for other contexts. Research associates high self-efficacy with setting and achieving more challenging goals, optimism, increased effort, persistence and recovery (Schwarzer et al., 1996), our research showing that FFI has positive effects on self-efficacy, beliefs, and behaviour, as evident in goal attainment.

Conclusion

We report controlled quasi-experimental research showing that FFI affects self-efficacy and goal attainment, and an interaction for strengths-confidence. The findings thus indicate that taking part in the FFI prompts positive psychological change through a strengths-focused approach, whilst also indicating caution about the potentially deleterious effects of solely feedback-based interventions. Future research should focus on transfer of learning, consider coach effects and more detailed data from coachees. We hope that practitioners and researchers alike may adapt our approach and adopt FFI in their own contexts.

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Paper

Self-regulation coaching to alleviate student procrastination: Addressing the likeability of studying behaviours

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Students who habitually procrastinate may be at risk of underachieving academically as well as putting their health and well-being in jeopardy. The current review of research on procrastination leads to the identification of four broad task likeability factors as encapsulating a range of procrastination patterns. These are: (1) perceived low level of task enjoyment; (2) anticipation of aversive outcomes; (3) estimated inability to do the task; and (4) competing attractiveness of alternative tasks. Each of these low task likeability factors can lead to procrastination when accompanied by particular self-regulation shortcomings, identified respectively as intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, anxieties of performance evaluation, low self-efficacy of performance and weak attentional control of distracters.

A self-regulation coaching framework is proposed as a comprehensive way to address academic procrastination. After identifying the low task likeability areas that are involved when faced with an assignment, student coachees can be facilitated to raise self-awareness and develop necessary self-regulation strategies to alleviate their procrastination patterns. The practical implications of this coaching approach are potentially vast. Therefore, further research to evaluate its efficacy is recommended as the next step towards this endeavour.

THE CENTRAL TENET OF THIS PAPER is to promote the development of a coaching framework for student procrastination that is based on sound theoretical argument. There is a strong case for such an objective: Higher Education remains a vital capital resource for nations throughout the world and with rising costs of studying at university, students are facing increasing pressure to complete their degrees and achieve good grades (Paulsen & St. John, 2002). Nevertheless, procrastination continues to present itself as an obstacle in this regard. Procrastination in general is a ubiquitous and relentless phenomenon of human nature with examples dating as far back as 800 BC (cited by Steel, 2007). Yet, there is a particular form of 'academic procrastination' that is also internationally recognised (Ferrari, O'Callaghan & Newbegin, 2005) and can be defined as intentionally deferring or delaying work that must be completed (Schraw, Wadkins & Olafson, 2007). Its prevalence in the student population has been estimated as high as 95 per cent (Ellis & Knaus, 1997) and it is typically manifested as putting off studying when there are more 'lucrative' distractions available or as cramming in assignments at the last minute (Lay & Schouwenburg, 1993).

Procrastination is frequently reported to have adverse effects on academic work. Routine procrastinators experience a noticeable performance detriment as a result of delaying action (Day, Mensink & O'Sullivan, 2000; Haycock, 1993; Micek, 1982; Onwuegbuzie, 2000; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984). Moreover, susceptible students submit late assignments, obtain lower grades and are also more likely to withdraw from their courses (Beswick, Rothblum & Mann, 1988; Janssen & Carton, 1999; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984; Steel, 2007; Synn, Park & Seo, 2005; Tice & Baumeister, 1997).

Beyond academic output, being a chronic procrastinator can involve substantial risks to students' well-being. Although, some people are able to use delay tactics functionally (Corkin, Yu & Lindt, 2011) or as 'incubation' periods of creativity (Gevers, Mohammed & Baytalskaya, 2013), there is abundant evidence to indicate that dysfunctional procrastination generally involves the personal state of what Keyes (2002) would refer to as 'languishing' rather than 'flourishing'. Given that the appeal of postponing work is often due to the short-term benefits it can bring in repairing mood (Tice & Baumeister, 1997), this evidence first seems to be paradoxical. However, research shows that the longer-term outcome of postponing work commonly involves affective experiences that are negative rather than positive (e.g. Burka & Yuen, 2008; Milgram, Marshevsky & Sadeh, 1995). Perfectionist procrastinators may be particularly susceptible to troublesome emotional consequences as they judge and berate themselves harshly (Kearns et al., 2008). There are extensive examples of acute anxiety and/or depression being prevalent in chronic procrastinators (Ferrari, Johnson & McCown, 1995; Lay & Schouwenburg, 1993; Lay & Silverman, 1996; Martin et al., 1996; Rothblum, Solomon & Murakami, 1986; Saddler & Sacks, 1993; Senécal, Koestner & Vallerand, 1995; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984; Stöber & Joorman, 2001; Van Eerde, 2003). Furthermore, an increased proneness to physical illness has been found in regular procrastinators (Tice & Baumeister, 1997). There is also evidence that most procrastinators would really like to procrastinate less if they could (O'Brien, 2002) and it has been compared to other harmful forms of weak self-control, for example, obesity, gambling, and excessive debt (Ellis & Knaus, 1977; Kachgal, Hansen & Nutter, 2001; Steel, 2007; Van Eerde, 2003).

Recent studies have further examined the underlying processes involved in the reduced well-being of procrastinators. Poor emotional intelligence (the ability to understand and use emotions in a productive and healthy way) has been shown to relate to the problem (Chow, 2011; Pychyl, 2009), and a lack of 'mindfulness' (conscious engagement with the present moment) has been found to mediate the relationship between procrastination and poor mental and physical health (Sirois & Tosti, 2012).

With academic procrastination continuing to be a matter of ongoing concern, the purpose of this paper is to propose a coaching framework for managing it that gets to the crux of the problem. Beginning with the assumption that people procrastinate for activities that they dislike in their desire for short-term mood elevation (Ferrari & Emmons, 1995), the first step involves identifying the cognitive and motivational factors that influence task likeability judgements. The author has identified four comprehensive factors that lead to low likeability thoughts and these are discussed in the next section. Although, many researchers now agree that poor self-regulation is at the heart of the problem (e.g. Steel, 2007, Wolters, 2003), the second section of this paper identifies the particular self-regulatory processes associated with managing each of the four areas of low task likeability. The third section then uses this model to present a structured coaching approach for reducing procrastination. It discusses how the coach can use this model to help coachees identify their low task likeability pattern and set corresponding areas of self-regulatory development as coaching goals.

Student procrastination due to poor task likeability

Some researchers have used established personality profiles such as the Big 5 (McCrae & Costa, 1987) to ascertain the characteristics of those who are most likely to procrastinate as a stable pattern of behaviour. Conscientiousness has been frequently identified as having an inverse relationship to the predisposition to engage in procrastination (Johnson & Bloom, 1995; Lee, Kelly & Edwards, 2006; Milgram &

Tenne, 2000; Schouwenburg & Lay, 1995; Van Eerde, 2003). Facets of neuroticism have also been linked to self-reported dilatory behaviour (Johnson & Bloom, 1995; Schouwenburg & Lay, 1995) and extraversion has also been associated with procrastination scores (Schouwenburg & Lay, 1995). Whilst personality attributes are likely to go some way in accounting for why certain people are more susceptible than others, this paper adopts quite a different approach. It examines instead the momentary thoughts and emotions that convey messages about poor task likeability leading a person to postpone carrying out a task. Four factors have been identified as influencing the content of these hastily made low task likeability reactions. These are *Enjoyment*, *Consequence*, *Ability* and *Competition* and each of these factors is discussed below:

Enjoyment: Do I like doing it?

Some researchers have focused on procrastination as a function of Task Aversiveness: (Milgram et al., 1995; Senécal, Lavoie & Koestner, 1997) and others have regarded the problem as due to *Low frustration tolerance* (Ellis & Knaus, 1977; Harrington, 2005). Both of these descriptions refer to the perceived noxious nature of the task itself as accounting for one's desire to avoid it. So what is it about certain academic tasks that make them unattractive to students?

Students may find some academic tasks non-gratifying and so they either resent doing them or cannot be bothered to do them. Task aversion can be due to lack of interest in the topic, task difficulty (hard work) or boredom (non-stimulating) (Blunt & Pychyl, 2000; Lay, 1992).

Writing tasks have been reported to be the most common kinds of delayed assignments (Klassen, Krawchuk & Rajani, 2008), presumably as they usually carry a heavy cognitive load and require perseverance to complete. Also, students who have conflicting feelings about the courses they are undertaking are more likely to postpone doing the set assignments (Senécal et al., 1995).

Procrastination researchers often conflate task enjoyment with rewarding outcomes when they discuss the 'value' a person gives to a task (for example, Steel, 2007). However, an individual may find a particular activity to be enjoyable to do *per se*, but still consider it to be aversive because of anticipated risky consequences. A person may love singing but decide not to perform karaoke if the audience is considered to be judgmental. As task enjoyment and perception of rewarding outcomes are different features of likeability, the model of procrastination proposed here treats them as two separate factors.

Consequence cognitions: What will be the result?

Performance anxiety has been regarded as a key cause of procrastination by many researchers, who have focused either on *Fear of failure* (Alexander & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Haycock, McCarthy & Skay, 1998; Milgram et al., 1995; Onwuegbuzie & Jiao, 2000; Saddler & Buley, 1999; Solomon & Rothblum, 1984; Steel, 2007; Van Eerde, 2003); *Fear of success* (Rorer, 1983); and/or *Perfectionist thinking* (Burka & Yuen, 2008; Flett et al., 1992; Flett, Hewitt & Martin, 1995; Seo, 2008). What these perspectives actually share is a focus on procrastination involving people's anxieties about performance scrutiny. In academic environments, where there is high concentration on regular assessment and grading of work, concerns about being evaluated are particularly apparent. In fact, tasks that get evaluated and have the largest impact on students' final results have been shown to yield the highest levels of academic procrastination (Kachgal et al., 2001; Senécal et al., 1997).

Perfectionist procrastinators are also likely to be self-critical, set high standards for themselves and judge themselves harshly when failing to meet them (Stainton, Lay & Flett, 2000). They are also likely to feel guilty or ashamed when they procrastinate (Fee & Tangney, 2000). Reported self-discrepancies between 'actual-self' and 'ought-to-self' (Higgins, 1987) were the strongest predictor

of procrastination in one study involving college student participants (Orellana-Damacela, Tindale & Suárez-Balcázar, 2000).

Although procrastination has been documented as a characteristic of human behaviour throughout history and in all societies, prevalence indicates an increasing trend (Kachgal et al., 2001) as a reflection of cultural expectations within achievement oriented industrialised societies. Flett et al. (1992) found that academic procrastination stems partly from anticipation of disapproval from others though socially prescribed perfectionist standards. These are beliefs that significant others place excessively high standards on them and are putting pressure on them to be perfect.

One of the difficulties in breaking the habit is that chronic procrastinators will often go to great lengths to justify and rationalise their behaviours. Even those who seek help for their habit will say that they work best under pressure (Fernie & Spada, 2008; Tice & Baumeister, 1997). After a poor outcome, procrastinators tend to prefer downward-counterfactuals (It could have been worse) rather than upward ones (I could have done better) (Sirois, 2004). Some studies have focused on self-handicapping behaviour, such as staying up late to party the night before an exam so that there is a back-up excuse to use in the event of poor exam performance (Ferrari & Tice, 2000; Rhodewalt & Vohs, 2005). This excuse-making pattern is a strategic form of impression management that helps evaluation anxiety procrastinators 'save face.'

Another factor that influences the relationship of performance evaluation anxiety on procrastination probability is the duration of the delay. Performance 'delay' is at the core of Steel's (2007) definition of procrastination, expressed within a formula of task 'utility' that focuses on hyperbolic time discounting (Ainslie, 1975). This time model highlights the probability of procrastination being highest when the deadline is distant because it can be discounted, and its likelihood decreasing as the deadline approaches and the reward of completion overrides performance anxiety. However, some procrastinators may *never* make the decision that it is the right time to act even after a delay. Distress levels are shown to either increase (Tice & Baumeister, 1997) or remain as high across the term (Rice, Richardson & Clark, 2012). Therefore, with anxiety levels remaining so high, these students are at risk of dropping out through never being able to confront and complete their assignments even when their deadlines are pending.

Ability: Am I able to do it?

The third likeability factor for procrastination relates to the person's current judgment of their capabilities to organise and execute the actions required to successfully complete the academic assignment.

Students' comfort levels about doing assignments and taking exams depend on how competent they are feeling. Some students may feel that they are not prepared adequately when they come to do the work and this can be due to poor strategic study patterns. Spacing an assignment across several sessions over a period of time has been shown to be more effective than cramming in work at the last minute (Dempster & Farris, 1990). One study showed that, when students are given sequential sets of study materials with each new set being conditional upon completion of the one before it, they were less likely to cram at the end. They also did better on the final test. It is as if being shown how to make studying more evenly distributed made them feel prepared, such that they no longer felt the need for a period of high intensity studying close to the deadline (Perrin et al., 2011).

Students have reported low energy and 'tiredness' as a chief reason for putting off doing a task (Gropel & Steel, 2008; Strongman & Burt, 2000). With widening participation in Higher Education, students who are the first generation in their families to enter university may feel most compelled to supplement their education with an

income (Bui, 2002) and in one study, academic procrastination has been found to increase with lower socio-economic status (Chow, 2011). Juggling multiple demands on time may be a core reason why students feel unable to cope with assignments and why they procrastinate. Burnout occurs when students become exhausted in response to their study load. It is manifested in a detached attitude toward one's study, as well as feeling incompetent as a student (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Task competition: Is there something better to do?

Many procrastination writers focus on it being a form of *Impulsive behaviour*, with people's need for immediate gratification (Ferrari & Emmons, 1995) and succumbing easily to temptations (Dewitte & Schouwenburg, 2002) accounting for its pervasiveness.

The negative relationship shown between age and procrastination in meta-analytic reviews (Steel, 2007, Van Eerde, 2002) and in research with unusually large samples (Gropel & Steel, 2008), suggests that younger adults are more inclined to surrender to procrastination than older adults. The tendency of many students to procrastinate may partly reflect post-modern attitudes of a student life that involves a lot of socialising. Students value highly being able to spontaneously decide the activities they want to participate in (Dietz, Hofer & Fries, 2007).

Therefore, it is no wonder that academic activities lose out over more alluring and readily available pursuits, such as online gaming, social networking and mobile phone text messaging that can bring immediate satisfaction all day long (Hedin, 2012). One research study found that student *Facebook*® users were more prone to distraction and claimed that it prevented them from getting on with their work (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010).

Self-regulation: The antithesis of procrastination

There is good evidence that the common underlying factor accounting for procrastination behaviour is poor self-regulation (Ariely & Wertenbroch, 2002; Brownlow & Reasinger, 2000; Chu & Choi, 2005; Ferrari, 2001; Howell & Watson, 2007; Klassen et al., 2008a; Rabin, Fogel & Nutter-Upham, 2011; Senéchal et al., 1995; Van Eerde, 2000; Vohs & Baumeister, 2004; Wolters, 2003). Self-regulation refers to 'thoughts, feelings and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals' (Zimmerman, 2000, p.14). They are otherwise referred to as executive functioning processes that are associated with activities occurring in the Prefrontal cortex (Roth et al., 2006), that part of the brain that is the most recently evolved (Barkley, 2001). Damage to this area results in a loss of initiative, not unlike the task resistant behaviour we see in procrastinators.

Research has shown that poor self-regulation leads to procrastination behaviour. Some studies have found that lacking an awareness of how to plan and monitor a task, along with having poor organisation strategies are common self-regulatory problems experienced by procrastinators (Howell & Watson, 2007; Rabin et al., 2011; Wolters, 2003).

There is evidence that self-regulation becomes difficult when managing present-self emotional needs (Sirois & Pychyl, 2013). Also, distressed people give short-term affect regulation priority over other self-regulatory goals, in order to feel better (Tice, Bratslavsky & Baumeister, 2001).

What is required is further examination of the mechanisms linking self-regulation processes to procrastination behaviour. The next section does this by examining the role that different facets of self-regulation play in relation to each of the four task likeability factors of Enjoyment, Consequences, Ability and Competition (Table 1).

Enjoyment: Intrinsic/Extrinsic motivation

Research has found that intrinsic motivation accounts for the ability to perform assignments in a timely fashion (Senécal et al., 1995). Intrinsic motivators are driven by the enjoyment of the learning process itself and they approach activities with gusto and enthusiasm (Cameron & Pierce, 1994; Deci et al., 1991; Henderlong & Lepper, 2002). Students on an online programme who were less intrinsically motivated showed higher levels of procrastination (Rakes & Dunn, 2010). Intrinsic motivators are driven by task mastery rather than avoidance and such a mastery goal orientation has been found to inversely predict procrastination behaviour (Howell & Watson, 2007).

Furthermore, having personal choice increases people's intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Patall, Cooper & Robinson, 2008), a finding consistent with self-determination theory that emphasises the central role of autonomy in motivating people in their striving towards personal growth (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

People who use delays or incubation periods of inactivity for functional task management have been shown to be completely engaged when they get going, through a state of arousal and intense subjective interest, known as 'flow' (Csikszentzmihalyi, 1990; Kim & Seo, 2013). By contrast, dysfunctional procrastinators who lack this level of motivation are often pressured when working after a delay. Once, they finally get started on an assignment to a tight deadline, they are slower and less accurate, especially when trying to manage a cognitively demanding task (Ferrari, 2001).

Students who are extrinsically motivated are more likely to procrastinate than intrinsic motivators (Senécal et al., 1995). Extrinsic motivation involves doing something in order to obtain a reward for doing it and it is harder to persist with tasks where the rewards seem a long a way off. People who lack intrinsic enjoyment in a task need to *internalise* it (Deci & Ryan, 2000): They need to actively transform the extrinsic motive into a personally endorsed value in order to persist with it.

Consequence cognitions: Anxieties of performance evaluation

Extrinsic motivation can lead to performance-avoidance as a result of excessive performance evaluation anxiety (e.g. Wolters, 2003). This type of procrastination is aggravated through high pressure to get good grades and/or social approval, rather than through any desire to study as an end in itself. This avoidance orientation has been shown to predict maladaptive strategies and giving up in the face of tough challenges. (e.g. Pintrich, 2000).

Procrastination to reduce anxiety is an example of what Baumeister and Heatherton (1996) refer to as 'misregulation,' because it is a regulation of mood over self-regulation for pursuing long-term goals. It has been argued that emotion regulation takes precedence when people are distressed as they strive to act in order to feel better (Tice et al., 2001).

Moreover, deadlines seem to make matters worse for these students. Chronic procrastinators have shown lower speed and accuracy under time constraints as compared with their speed and accuracy when not under time constraints (Ferrari, 2001). Overall, it seems that the self-regulation difficulties faced by overly anxious procrastinators appear to reflect the challenges of being able to handle doing tasks when working under pressure.

Ability: Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in one's own ability to achieve in a particular area (Bandura, 1997). Learners who show competence in self-regulation strategies in an academic domain are also likely to believe that they are capable of achieving successfully in that domain (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Schunk, 1991). According to Bandura (1982), self-efficacy determines 'how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles or aversive

experiences' (p.123). Therefore, it is not surprising that several studies have found a relationship between low academic self-efficacy and procrastination (Burns et al., 2000; Ferrari, Parker & Ware, 1992; Haycock et al., 1998; Klassen et al., 2008a; Seo, 2008; Sirois, 2004; Steel, 2007; Van Eerde, 2003; Wolters, 2003).

More recently, research has extended this argument to show that self-regulation accounts for the predictive power of self-efficacy on procrastination and that it is students' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning that matters (Klassen et al., 2008a; Strunk & Steel, 2011; Tan, Ang, Klassen, Yeo, Wong, Huan & Chong, 2008; Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Students with learning disabilities have been shown to procrastinate more than students without such disabilities and this is related to their low self-efficacy for using self-regulation strategies (Klassen et al., 2008).

Many procrastinators have a 'planning fallacy': they underestimate task completion times (McCown, Petzel & Rupert, 1987; Pychyl, Morin & Salmon, 2001). One obstacle for the poor planner is a weakness in organisation skills, such that they need to develop a more systematic and structured approach to studying (Howell & Watson, 2007; Lay, 1986; Steel, 2007). They may be initiating action but in a haphazard way. Thus, not surprisingly, procrastination has been shown to relate negatively to self-reported learned resourcefulness, which means lacking skills needed to use time efficiently in producing a complete assignment (Milgram, Dangour & Ravi, 1992).

Failure to self-regulate can also occur 'because people have limited resources for self-regulation and these become depleted in a manner akin to a muscle's becoming fatigued' (Muraven, Baumeister & Tice, 1999, p.447). High stress arousal can undermine self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982) and feelings of efficacy or inefficacy have been considered as the 'third dimension' of burnout along with emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation (Bresó, Salanova & Schaufeli, 2007). However, regular and deliberate practice of self-regulation exercises results in improvements in self-regulation strength, such that people are less likely to become exhausted when using those strategies in future (Baumeister et al., 2006).

Competing tasks: Distractibility

Some students may be inclined towards an 'intention-action gap' when they postpone working (Lay & Schouwenberg, 1993). Here, the student may be estimating study time accurately, but is having trouble sticking to the plan. These students may be more susceptible to getting distracted when there are temptations to lure them away from the task. 'Effort Regulation' (Pintrich et al., 1991) is a self-regulation strategy where one is able to control one's attention in completing study goals even when faced with distracting situations. Students who cannot regulate the amount of effort they put into doing a task due to a hedonic persuasion towards seductive cues around them are at risk of procrastinating even if they feel they have the skills to undertake the assignment.

Developing a self-regulation coaching framework for managing student procrastination.

There are many reasons why coaching can be an effective intervention for handling academic procrastination. Firstly, attempts to alleviate procrastination have largely been driven through therapy (e.g. Ellis & Knaus, 1977). Whilst therapists have an important role to play in helping clinical populations, coaches can support people who do not have serious mental health problems (Bluckert, 2005; Grant, 2006). Coaching is a time-limited and solution-oriented process whereby the focus is on moving towards the coachee's goals (Grant, 2003). Thus, for addressing procrastination habits shown in otherwise healthy and resourceful adults, procrastination management could be a core coaching goal or one of the goals set by a student coachee who wants to focus on achieving academic success.

Moreover, the coaching relationship is a collaborative one where coachees are perceived to be autonomous learners who are ready to develop through self-directed learning (Stöber & Grant, 2006). Therefore, the role of the coach is ideally placed to support coachees in identifying and developing the self-regulation shortcomings that are responsible for their particular procrastination pattern.

Cognitive-behavioural coaching (CBC; Neenan & Dryden, 2002) has been recommended for working with procrastination (Karas & Spada, 2009). CBC uses cognitive-behavioural techniques based on rational-emotive therapy and cognitive-behavioural therapy (Ellis, 1997), but within the context of coaching. Essentially, the focus is on helping coachees to gain an awareness of how their thoughts and beliefs about events influence how they feel and act. Karas and Spada (2009) found that coaching intervention using CBC methods, led to a reduction in self-reported procrastination in a small group of chronic procrastinators. However, the researchers claimed that it would 'be valuable to identify the key active components of this coaching approach as they are still unclear at present' (p.50).

The framework presented here offers a theoretically informed approach to coaching procrastination that identifies four task likeability factors accounting for task delay. In pinpointing precisely just those factors accounting for a coachee's procrastination pattern, I also advocate using an approach that Neenan and Dryden (2002) refer to as a two-pronged attack: focusing on the emotional aspects of procrastination before dealing with the problem-solving or practical aspects. The emotional aspects are dealt with using CBC and the practical aspects involve developing self-regulation strategies that are matched to the particular low task likeability patterns of the coachee.

The emotional reactions of procrastinators when faced with an academic assignment can range from mild frustration to more serious anxieties. If task avoidance is driven by the need to restore immediate feelings of pleasure or comfort, then this act is simultaneously preventing the individual from confronting the internal processes that take place when those negative reactions occur. Therefore, CBC serves to bring the coachee directly to the moment when negative thoughts and feelings occur so as to deliberately explore this discomfort phase and bring awareness to it. The ABCDE approach (Ellis, 1997) is one method for dealing with relationships between beliefs, emotions and behaviour (Neenan, 2008). A different model that I often use is the SPACE model (Edgerton & Palmer, 2005). This is a bio-psycho-social interactive systems model dealing with interactions of Social Context, Physiology, Action, Cognition and Emotion. SPACE is a tool to enable coachees to imagine a typical or previous situation that leads them to procrastinate (for example, being given an assignment to do) and then encourages them to examine their thoughts, feelings, actions, bodily reactions and social context in response to this situation.

In Table 1, academic procrastination is divided into the four areas of low task likeability previously discussed. The coach can begin by presenting this task likeability model as a psycho-educative process of demonstrating to the coachee that people procrastinate to avoid unpleasant experiences, and that any combination of the four factors may be involved. Some students may be driven to procrastinate through a combination of these factors. However, the benefit of teasing them apart is that each can be identified and dealt with separately within a coaching context.

This rest of the paper addresses some of the ways that a coach could raise student coachees' self-awareness and facilitate them in developing self-regulation strategies for handling each of their low likeability areas. The particular tools chosen will depend on the perspective and experience of the coach and thus, they serve as guidelines for coaches to consider when targeting each of the areas in a structured way.

Table 1: A 'likeability' model for self-regulation coaching in managing academic procrastination.

Task likeability	Self-regulation shortcomings	Coaching using CBC and self-regulation strategies
Enjoyment	Intrinsic/Extrinsic motivation	● Increase tolerance of tasks ● Increasing intrinsic motivation for doing the tasks
Consequence	Performance evaluation anxieties	● Reduce performance anxieties (realistic and self-compassionate thinking) ● Raise awareness of discrepancies between current and future states
Ability	Low self-efficacy of performance	● Increase mastery through: Planning/organisation strategies; Energy cycle regulation strategies
Competition	Weak attentional control of distracters	● Time awareness and management ● Strategies for minimising processing of distracter cues

Enjoyment: Addressing Intrinsic motivation

If it is revealed that coachees are avoiding undertaking academic assignments because they are perceived as boring, uninteresting or too labour intensive, they can be helped to improve their tolerance of those academic tasks and to develop ways of making them more rewarding.

In improving tolerance, they can be encouraged to reframe their negative beliefs into more constructive ones in order to reduce or eliminate emotional reactions of frustration, irritability or anger. Automatic negative thoughts such as all-or-none thinking (I always hate these exercises so I will hate this one), low frustration tolerance (I cannot be bothered to do this now) or catastrophic thinking (I cannot bear to do this now) need to be realised and challenged. The coachee can then be assisted in brainstorming and practising more constructive thoughts such as 'I do not like doing this work but it is important and I will feel much better when I get it finished.'

The coach can assess a coachee's level of autonomy towards doing an academic task by asking, 'What are your reasons for doing this course/assignment?' The coach can use further questioning to reveal unhelpful extrinsic motivational thoughts that are perpetuating coachees' avoidance patterns, such as, 'I have to do this as part of the course'. Deci and Ryan (2000) have recognised different levels of extrinsic motivation and for tasks that simply are not enjoyable in their own right, one can aim for 'Identified motivation'. Thoughts such as 'I choose to study because it is important to me', are identified motivational thoughts.

Research has shown that providing rationales for doing a seemingly uninteresting activity, such as a statistics assignment, increases engagement and learning in students for those tasks (Jang, 2008). This could be encouraged in a coaching context by asking the coachee to write a list of potentially useful skills that a particular academic assignment can provide for them in their personal and future professional lives.

Another approach is to help coachees brainstorm ways of making assignments more interesting or enjoyable by focusing on their existing strengths and interests. For example, further questioning could reveal that aversion to writing an essay may be mostly due to a dislike of spending time

sitting in a library or office. Perhaps this individual could think about planning her study routine in ways that are more in tune with her natural preferences, for example, cycling to the park to read a journal article outdoors or audio-recording her ideas before writing them to reduce the overall period of writing. Visual-spatial thinkers could be helped to use non-verbal approaches to planning assignments such as mind mapping (Buzan and Buzan, 1996).

Consequence cognitions: Managing performance evaluation anxieties

For the performance-avoidant student who is overly concerned with being evaluated, they are likely to have an aversion to doing tasks that get graded. They will show performance anxiety that is tied to ruminating thoughts about the social consequences of failing (Everyone will think I am a failure), self-critical judgements for being less than perfect (If I do not get a first grade, I am useless) and/or beliefs about not being able to cope with the consequences (If I pass this test, I will be expected to pass the harder one). The initial aim here is to help coachees become aware of how their exaggerated negative appraisal is influencing their anxiety levels, health and overall performance. The self-regulatory goals will involve developing more realistic ways of thinking about their assignments.

The SPACE model (Edgerton & Palmer, 2005) is particularly useful with this kind of procrastinating student because it can be used to compare what a person is thinking, feeling and doing when they imagine a deadline that is a long way off compared with their reactions when the deadline becomes imminent. It can also be a good idea to conduct a few models with the coachee to identify the changes in his/her reactions over different points in time between an assignment being set and the deadline. Raising awareness of how patterns change over time can be very revealing. For example, they can see how deadline distant thoughts lead to procrastination behaviour, whereas deadline imminent catastrophic beliefs, such as 'I can't stand it, as this has to be finished today', elevate anxiety levels and the tendency to cram in poor quality work. Coachees can also become aware of how this pattern is affecting their health by noticing changes in their body. Perhaps deadline distant reactions lead to 'butterflies' in the stomach, whereas close to deadline reactions lead to more serious physical effects such as headaches, stomach cramps and poor sleeping patterns.

Socratic questions are recommended here to provoke insightful thinking to help the coachee move forward. They encourage coachees to question the rationality, evidence and utility of their negative beliefs. Examples are, 'How does failing this exam make you a complete failure?' 'Might you be exaggerating the importance of your concerns?' or 'Is your belief helping you achieve your goals?' The homework for this student would be to practise using more constructive thoughts in various contexts where they are prone to being performance-avoidant.

Recent research is pointing to the relationship between procrastination and self-compassion (Sirois, 2013). Therefore, this coachee could benefit from practising coaching tools for developing self-acceptance (Palmer, 1997) and learning to appreciate a more realistic view of pursuing excellence over perfection. Practising Mindfulness could also be a way that coachees may be shown to increase their levels of self-compassion (Birnie, Speca & Carlson, 2010). Mindfulness can also be important for lowering stress (Brown & Ryan, 2003) and permits non-judgmental awareness of discrepancies between current and desired future states that can increase persistence (Evans, Baer & Segerstrom, 2009).

Ability: Increasing self-efficacy

Student coachees may express various emotions if they lack confidence in their ability to complete assignments: They may be frustrated, angry and/or fearful. Again, exploring the cognitions, particularly those

relating to judgments they have about themselves, should clarify the reasons for low self-efficacy beliefs leading to procrastination tendencies. Coaching strategies can then be selected that focus on those areas that are providing obstacles to feeling competent about a task. The aim is to increase the coachee's sense of mastery (Bandura, 1997) through identifying efficacy concerns and guiding them to handle those particular obstacles as action plans. Setting 'implementation intentions': goals that specify when, where and how the task is to be performed, have been shown to reduce procrastination (Owens, Bowman & Dill, 2008); and low self-efficacy procrastinators are likely to make important mastery gains from using coaching tools that encourage this.

Lacking self-efficacy for this coachee could be related to poor planning and organisational abilities. People will procrastinate less if they are thinking about difficult tasks on a more specific and concrete level (McCrea et al., 2008). Breaking a large task down into manageable sub-goals is shown to increase mastery by providing incremental goals that can be achieved (Bandura & Schunk, 1981). Procrastination has been shown to reduce when an academic task is sub-divided into a number of specific proximal goals, such as the daily writing of goals or regular quizzes (Tuckman, 1998; Wesp, 1986).

If the student expresses study detachment thoughts along with signs of being overly stressed and exhausted, the coach can explore whether overwhelming feelings of an inability to cope with workload are potentiating his/her problems. It is useful in this situation to steer the coaching dialogue to raise awareness of how time is being spent, and to realistically estimate the most efficient ways of spending it. Questions to be asked here are 'What time of day are you more alert?' and 'Which tasks can you leave to times of the day when you are not at your best?' Some research has shown that procrastination relates to circadian rhythms, with late evening owls being more vulnerable than early rising larks (Hess, Sherman & Goodman, 2000). A useful homework tool is to track performance graphically from plus five to minus five every hour over the course of a day to identify one's energy cycle (Hindle, 1998). The aim here is to examine how the student's typical dietary, and possibly exercise routine fits with energy levels across a typical day? Any negative signs, such as energy dips after eating a heavy lunch, for example, could be action planned into experimenting with changes in diet and/or mealtimes. Does the student coachee prefer to work for long periods of uninterrupted concentration or does s/he prefer regular tea breaks and shorter bursts of study? The role of the coach here is to facilitate coachees in recognising which patterns are peculiar to them for planning work timetables to complement their own natural tendencies, whilst also recognising ways of changing certain unhelpful daily habits to optimise the resources they can give to their studies.

Ultimately, for students facing multiple demands on their time, the toughest challenge may be to select which activities really do have to change. Can the student expect to achieve a good degree whilst committing long hours to travelling and/or taking on a demanding job of work? What are the possibilities for converting to part-time or other more flexible modes of study? Can the student consider moving home, or transferring to a different university? These sorts of questions can be addressed for the procrastinator who believes that they are unable to cope with university life even after strategies have been implemented to make more efficient use of their energy cycle.

Competing tasks: Minimise distractibility

If getting distracted by more enticing activities is a key problem, the emotional reaction here is likely to be the relative pleasure gained from choosing the distracting pastime over doing the academic task. CBC can be used to enable coachees to see the difference between their reactions when

imagining carrying out their usual distraction activities (for example, talking to friends, online gaming) versus their reactions to imagining having to do the assignment instead. This can be useful for raising awareness, particularly for the impulsive procrastinator who is just doing things without giving much thought as to the reasons for those behaviours.

Neenan (2008) discusses the 'discomfort disturbance' beliefs of procrastinators who are 'dreamers'. Typical beliefs here are, 'I shouldn't have to work hard to fulfill my dreams'. Therefore, if the coachee expresses reactionary emotions to the thought of being made to undertake the task, they can be shown how angry thoughts are interfering with their ability to shun distractions.

In one study, procrastination was found to be negatively related to the use of time management strategies, conceptualised as the setting of goals and priorities (Lay & Schouwenburg, 1993). Therefore, distracted procrastinators may benefit greatly from completing a weekly (or longer) time-log as homework, in order to capture a detailed understanding of how their time is being spent. One might expect an impulsive procrastinator to be wasting time on things that are more accessible and pleasurable to do rather than getting on with the academic assignment.

To minimise distraction, coaching can support new strategies so that the individual either fails to encode competing cues or limits their processing so that they are not fully valued. Coaching dialogue can encourage coachees to identify the distracting cues diverting them and to brainstorm ways of minimising and/or replacing them. An easily distracted student can be helped to create a 'work space' that decreases the cues for distraction: to put the telephone onto voicemail and to limit opening emails to twice a day, for example. Burka and Yuen (2008) call this 'going on a low-information diet (p.226)' and they provide good advice for questioning whether a person really needs to check their 'e-clutter', such as emails and news reports several times daily.

It is likely that students who are susceptible to distraction will also need to commit themselves to a reasonable degree of discipline. However, coaching goals are best aimed at reshuffling and prioritising social engagements and events rather than cancelling them altogether. 'Relatedness' has been recognised as a basic psychological need (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In fact, daily fluctuations in emotional well-being are accounted for by levels of satisfaction with activities that involve feeling understood and appreciated, having meaningful conversations, hanging out with others and doing fun things with them (Reis et al., 2000). The coachee can search for ways of finding a balance between making time for academic study and time for doing those valuable social activities that allow the individual to enjoy a fulfilling and happy life.

Conclusion

One procrastination writer made the claim that 'Procrastination is the college student's eternal bedfellow' (Greenberg, 2010, p.79). The current paper discusses how the underlying processes that potentiate procrastination behaviour can be both recognised and alleviated through self-regulation coaching. A self-regulation coaching framework is an efficient way to address the four kinds of rash task likeability decisions that lead a person to habitually put things off. It allows a personal pattern to be both recognised and targeted in the goal of procrastination management.

Persisting with changes to a mood changing habit such as procrastination is likely to require considerable willpower. Therefore, it is important that coachees are helped to establish a long-term mindset before they walk away. Dryden (2000, cited in Neenan, 2008) provides examples of how a coach can support the coachee in developing an anti-procrastination outlook that enables lasting improvements once coaching goals have been achieved.

Whilst scientific literature on procrastination has informed the formulation of the four-factor task likeability model discussed in this paper (Enjoyment, Consequence, Ability, Competition), it would be useful to have further evidence that these factors, either alone or in various combinations, account for all examples of ineffectual procrastination behaviour. Moreover, evidence to support the efficacy of this self-regulation coaching approach for alleviating academic procrastination would help build a more solid foundation of its validity.

The self-regulation coaching model could be used to improve employee productivity or other kinds of important goals that people tend to postpone until it is too late, such as planning for retirement. However, this paper focuses on the widespread problem of academic procrastination. If it successfully helps a diversity of students to experience the benefits of proactive studying and persistence during those important years that are spent in education, such an intervention could prove to be invaluable.

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Paper

Negative effects of coaching for coaches: An explorative study

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Objectives: *There exists only scarce knowledge regarding what negative effects can occur to business coaches as a result of their work. Negative effects, defined as all harmful or unwanted results for coaches directly caused by coaching that occur parallel to or following coaching, are theoretically inferred in this study. Additionally, negative effects are quantitatively explored and validated.*

Design: *Negative effects of coaching for coaches were identified via structured expert interviews. Based on the results of the interviews a new questionnaire was developed. Coaches were then surveyed online using this questionnaire. A sample of supervisors was also surveyed and compared to the coaches regarding important work-related variables.*

Methods: *104 German coaches were quantitively surveyed using a new questionnaire regarding the frequency and intensity of negative effects in their most recent coaching and in their career. To validate the new questionnaire and the results, relevant cognitions towards their work (psychological empowerment) and the affective well-being of the coaches were also measured.*

Results: *In more than 90 per cent of all recent coaching at least one negative effect was present. On average 5.9 negative effects occurred per coaching. During their careers 99 per cent of the coaches were confronted at least once with a negative effect. Negative effects are associated with the psychological empowerment and affective well-being of coaches, which speaks for the validity of the new questionnaire and subsequent results.*

Conclusions: *Negative effects for coaches as a result of their work occur very often and in a heterogeneous way but these effects are of rather low intensity. The validity of these effects could be shown.*

A COACH coaches a bank director. The bank director suspects that his colleague, who is a close friend, is seriously cheating. Together with the coach the bank director wants to find a way how to confront his friend with this suspicion. Different options are discussed as the mobile telephone of the bank director is ringing. The friend has committed suicide with a gun some moments ago. The bank director breaks down and starts to cry. The coach describes his feelings in this situation as follows: 'For a long moment I feel stuck with my habitual role identity as an executive coach: to know better than my coachees how to effectively cope with difficult situations. We have a new situation. And a different question: How to effectively cope with this tragedy?' (de Haan, 2008, p.118). Surely, not only the coachee had to cope with this tragedy but also the coach. The situation with a crying coachee full of shame and despair may strain the coach and result in further problems (e.g. increased work stress, or emotional exhaustion). The coach thus has experienced negative effects as a result of his work as a coach.

Business coaching is a special consultation process between a coach and a coachee to deal with work-related issues (Feldman & Lankau; Greif, 2007). It 'is a cross-disciplinary methodology for fostering individual and organisational change' (Grant, 2006, p.13). The idea of self-directed learning and collaborative goal-setting are part of many definitions and coaching is an outcome-focused activity in the absence of serious psychological disorders of the client (Grant,

2006). Similar to the job of psychotherapists, coaches have intense interpersonal contact to their coachees. They have to connect personally and care for their coachees. They should be open, honest and good listeners (Passmore & Gibbes, 2007) and must control their emotions. In numerous studies (e.g. Baron & Morin, 2009, or O'Broin & Palmer, 2010), it was emphasised and shown that the relationship quality between coach and coachee is an important predictor for coaching success. Coaches are primarily responsible for the development of a favourable and professional working relationship and adequate non-verbal behaviour is required from coaches to establish it (Ianiro, Schermuly & Kauffeld, 2013). The job of a coach goes consequently along with high socio-emotional demands. Socio-emotional demands in a relationship between a professional and a client can result in negative effects like emotional exhaustion, cynicism and reduced accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

There are a lot of studies dealing with negative effects of psychotherapy for psychotherapists. Negative effects of coaching for coachees have also recently been systematically investigated (see Schermuly et al., 2014). Twenty-eight different negative effects for coachees such as the triggering of in-depth problems that could not be dealt with within the coaching, unwanted modification of coaching goals without coachee approval or experiencing a decreased sense of meaning towards work occurred in approximately 60 per cent of business coaching for coachees but the intensity and duration of these effects are rather small (Schermuly et al., 2014). Similar studies and results for coaches are not yet available, although such knowledge is needed in order to train coaches and support them during their work through supervision or formal and informal peer consulting.

This is why negative effects of coaching for business-coaches are explored in this study. Negative effects are defined and their potential existence theoretically inferred. The number and intensity of negative effects are then quantitatively investigated using a new online questionnaire in a German sample. This is done in an explorative way as to the knowledge of the author there exist no systematic empirical results regarding negative effects of coaching for coaches. The validity of the collected negative effects is then explored. Validity refers to the 'degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of interpretations and actions based on test scores or other modes of assessment '(Messick, 1990, p.1). The occurrence of negative effects should be compared with external variables (criterions) collected at the same time (concurrent validity): The relationships between the perceived negative effects and central cognitions towards work (psychological empowerment, Spreitzer, 1995) and the affective well-being (emotional exhaustion and perceived stress) of coaches are analysed. Finally, work-related cognitions and affective well-being of those business coaches surveyed are compared with a sample of supervisors to better understand whether coaches experience more positive or negative attitudes towards their work than their potential clients.

Definition of negative coaching effects for coaches

Schermuly et al. (2014, p.19) define negative coaching effects for coachees as 'all harmful or unwanted results for coachees directly caused by coaching that occur parallel to or after coaching'. The roots of this definition lie in the medical sciences namely in the definition of adverse drug reactions. Three elements are important in this definition and transferable to a definition for negative effects of coaching for coaches: The effects are unwanted, harmful, and there is a direct connection to a coaching process. Unwanted implies that a coach did not induce the effect voluntarily. For example, coaches can voluntarily pass on their fees (for example, the coachee is a long-term client with temporary financial problems). The voluntary

renouncement would not be a negative effect. But if the coachees refuse to pay the fees without consent of the coach this would be counted as a negative effect. Harmful means that damage has to occur for the coach. When coaches perceive a certain amount of stress in a coaching but experience this situation as positively stimulating this is not a negative effect. However, it would be a negative effect if the coach was negatively stressed because the coachee attempts to change the coaching topic several times in one session. Finally, there must be a direct connection between the work as a coach and the occurrence of the negative effect. A coach can feel emotionally exhausted parallel to or following a coaching but that must not necessarily be provoked by the conducted coaching. He/she may, for example, be in the middle of a challenging divorce causing the emotional exhaustion. Another such situation may present if stress is provoked by a difficult coaching process with an unmotivated coachee.

All three conditions have to be fulfilled to determine an effect to be negative. Therefore, negative effects of coaching for a coach are defined here as all harmful or unwanted results for coaches directly caused by coaching that occur parallel to or following coaching. This definition is clearly concentrated on the coach. Negative effects for the coachee due to coaching (e.g. a reduced work motivation), for the organisation (e.g. the layoff of an employee after the coaching process) or for the social system of the coach (e.g. the spouse but not the coach is sad because he/she works a lot) are not covered by this definition.

Arguments speaking for negative effects of coaching for coaches

The social exchange theory (SET) is one of the most influential theories to understand workplace behaviour (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). SET postulates that people in close relationships exchange resources such as services, goods, money, love/emotional support, information/advice, and status (see Foa & Foa, 1980, for the description of the six basic resource classes). The exchange of these resources is seen as a bidirectional transaction. The actions of one interaction partner are interdependent and contingent on the actions of the other (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Coaching is a dyadic exchange relationship and both interaction partners have different desired resources to give. Hence, not only coaches but also coachees are provided with resources and, therefore, with power. Coaches offer a service and sometimes important information/advice as well as emotional support for their coachees. In return, the coaches receive money but also status and sometimes love (appreciation and admiration) from their coachees. According to SET, high quality relationships do not occur automatically and regularly (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) and not every exchange relationship is fair, which exists only when profits (rewards minus costs) of the interaction partners are equal (Cook & Rice, 2006). SET does not pathologise negative effects in close interpersonal relationships but identifies them as both normal and integral parts of these relationships (Eby et al., 2004). Positive and negative consequences lie within one dimension and people aim to experience many positive and few negative effects in interactions with their social partners (Homans, 1961). In light of these categories of social exchange theory, various negative effects of coaching for coaches are imaginable.

As illustrated in the introduction, the coaching job goes along with high socio-emotional demands and services. A socio-emotional service pressures providers to use their short resources leading to a downward spiral of energy loss (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005). In a German sample, 30 per cent of psychotherapists with a psychological background and 50 per cent of psychotherapists with a medical background reported that their job had negative consequences on their health (Reimer et al., 2005). American psychological psychotherapists experience

significantly more emotional exhaustion, anxiety, and depression than psychological researchers (Radeke & Mahoney, 2000). In a meta-analysis (Lee et al., 2011), American professionals offering counseling and psychotherapy services were analysed regarding experienced burnout. Especially those counsellors and psychotherapists with a high job involvement were at risk of experiencing high emotional exhaustion. It is thus conceivable that coaches might also experience too much socio-emotional involvement in their service resulting in emotional exhaustion or stress as an unwanted and harmful effect directly caused by the coaching.

The category of money is also a concern. According to SET, repayment or reciprocity is one of the most important exchange rules and a universal principle (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Distributive injustice has severe consequences for both the performance and attitudes of employees (Whitman et al., 2012). Nonetheless, there are individual differences in the handling and subjective interpretation of this rule of exchange (Murstein et al., 1977). Coaches can deliver their services but the coachee or coachees' organisation does not repay the coach and the coachee thus refuses to pay the coaching fee. The coach is thus not compensated for his/her work.

Negative effects are also imaginable within the resource class of love. In close relationships between coach and coach the risk for stalking behaviour is higher. Psychotherapists, psychologist, and psychiatrists are over-represented in statistics regarding victims of stalking behaviour. In the study by Krammer et al. (2007) nearly 40 per cent of the 117 Austrian participants from these occupation groups had experienced stalking behaviour from clients. Not only the coachee but also the coach can develop too much affection towards a client, which can either over the short-term or long-term develop into an unwanted and harmful situation for the coach. A shift towards the opposite pole of the love dimension (hostility) can also be true. Eby and McMagnus (2004) show that 70 per cent of their surveyed mentors reported negative experience with their protégés. 15.1 per cent of these experiences fit within the category of 'dysfunctional relationship experience'. Examples were exploitative or ego-centric protégé behaviours on the part of the protégé as well as malevolent deception, sabotage, or harassment towards the mentor. There are also examples within the coaching domain. Freedman and Perry (2010) report in a case study of a coaching in which the coaching was non-voluntary and the coachee was very skeptical. Skepticism can lead to open hostility. For example, Kilburg (2002, pp.283–286) describes a case, in which a coachee provokes ('I want to know whether I should ever talk to you again') and threats ('You do that, but if I find out that you did talk to Nathan, you can forget the whole thing') the coach resulting in feelings of anxiety on the part of the coach.

The status resource category could also be concerned. Kilburg (2002) refers to this in a book chapter on failure and negative outcomes of coaching for coachees. He reports effects such as career derailment, financial losses and poor mental health and describes a meeting with very experienced coaches. One coach confessed that 'he always felt a certain sense of terror and fear of failure when he walked into a client organisation' (Kilburg, 2002, p.288). In a German sample (Schermuly et al., 2014), coaches perceived 28 different negative effects for coachees as a result of their work. Coaching failure can possibly jeopardise the status of coaches. As already described, coachees have access to different ressources and are not powerless. Coachees are 'often personally and organisationally powerful… failure may mean an end to consultation contracts, diminished professional reputations, and adverse emotional and physical reactions' (Kilburg, 2002, p.288). The reputation in the community of costumers (e.g. the coach is not recommended) but also the one of other coaches (e.g. the coach that

takes over the coachee) can be derogated as well as the status coaches attribute to themselves may decrease as a result of coaching failure. This internal status can be identified as the coach's self-efficacy, which is the belief of a person in their own capabilities to execute actions to reach a desired outcome (Bandura, 1997). Again for psychotherapists there is knowledge that the intense interpersonal contact to clients is especially demanding without the compensation of success (Lee et al., 2011).

Aims of the study

1. Identification and quantification of negative effects of business coaching for coaches

According to SET, negative effects are regular attributes of close interpersonal relationships. As described above, different negative effects in different resource classes are conceivable. The first aim of this study is to identify and quantify negative effects of business-coaching for coaches. It should be clarified how often they occur and how intense they may be on average in one coaching but also in the overall career of coaches in general.

2. Testing the validity of the explored negative effects

The second aim is to analyse the validity of the explored negative effects. The perception of negative effects in the work-context for jobholders should relate to central cognitions of the jobholders towards their work and well-being. Spreitzer (1995) has conceptualised the psychological empowerment construct with four work-related cognitions: Competence, meaning, self-determination, and impact. According to Spreitzer (1995), competence is defined as the self-efficacy to perform a job well. Meaning is the experience that the job position and its goals possess a personal value. Self-determination refers to the freedom or choice of an individual to initiate and execute job related tasks. Impact is the experienced influence on strategic, administrative or operative job outcomes (Spreitzer, 1995). In a meta-analysis, substantial relationships between psychological empowerment and important work-related variables could be inferred (Seibert, Wang & Courtright, 2011). If the explored negative effects do indeed matter then it would be expected that they result in less psychological empowerment.

Warr (1994) identifies affective well-being as one of the core elements of mental health. This is why emotional exhaustion and perceived stress are also measured in this study to validate the negative effects. Emotional exhaustion constitutes the burnout facet, which is most widely analysed and reported (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Emotional exhaustion is seen as a related but different variable to stress (Pakenham & Stafford-Brown, 2012). Perceived stress is the cognitive interpretation of 'objective' stressful events and thus a function of different factors such as the stressful event but also coping appraisals, coping strategies and coping resources (Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983; Pakenham & Stafford-Brown, 2012). If the negative effects do indeed matter then they should be related with emotional exhaustion and perceived stress. Coaches confronted with significant negative effects would be expected to experience greater emotional exhaustion as well as higher levels of stress.

3. Comparing business coaches with supervisors

The third aim is to compare the empowerment and the affective well-being of coaches with another group of jobholders. Supervisors were selected as the reference group because, like coaches, they generally have a higher age, a higher education level as well as a higher job level than 'typical' employees. Furthermore, it is important to compare both groups because supervisors are the primarily client group for business coaches. If coaches experience less psychological empowerment or well-being than their clients, this could be problematic for the coaching process. Coaches could loose their credibility if they feel less competent in their job than their clients (or if they expe-

rience their work as less meaningful). For example, there exists a relationship between how employees perceive their supervisors and their own empowerment (Schermuly, Kikull & Kauffeld, 2012). The less empowered a supervisor is perceived the less empowered the employee feels. The same model could be true for the relationship between coaches and clients. Furthermore, it may be difficult for coaches, who experience greater stress and emotional exhaustion, to help their clients feel differently. This difference should be tested non-directionally because individuals with high-level job positions possess greater protective resources (increased autonomy, greater schedule control, less routine tasks) but also a greater number of stressors (more interpersonal conflicts, increased interference between work and home) (Schieman & Reid, 2009).

Method

Identification of negative effects and development of the instrument

As a result of the limited current state of the research, structured expert interviews were conducted to identify negative effects of coaching for coaches. Seventy German experts were contacted and 20 coaches participated. On average, coaches were 51.5-years-old (*SD*=6.4) and had 13.4 years of job experience as a coach (*SD*=6.1). They spent 48.3 per cent (*SD*=23.2) of their working time on coaching. On average, the coaches had conducted more than 600 coaching in their career. A structured interview was conducted via telephone. Demographic information was initially collected. Then the definition of negative effects was presented and coaches were asked, which negative effects can result due to a coaching for the coach and what causes they see for the aforementioned negative effects. Seventeen different negative effects were specified by the experts and could be integrated in the questionnaire (Schermuly & Bohnardt, 2014).

In order to create a broad measure of negative effects, a review of the literature was also conducted. De Haan (2008) reports that a coach can feel 'unsettled by sexual advances from the coachee' (p.125) or bored by the coaching ('The situation is not exciting enough for me' p.126). Further mentioned negative effects are anxiety regarding the coach's own role as a coach, pressure because of too much responsibility or because of high expectations of the side of the coachee. As already described, psychotherapists, psychologist, and psychiatrists are overrepresented in the group of stalking victims. Therefore, stalking was also integrated in the questionnaire. Such negative events can, however, also manifest in the opposite direction. A coach can fall in love with, or feel sexually attracted to, a coachee. Furthermore, threats and insults as described in the case from Kilburg (2002) as well as the reaction (anger) towards a provoking coachee were included. All negative effects are listed in Table 1.

Main study

Coach sample. Six-hundred-and-fifty coaches were invited to participate in the study. They were contacted via two channels: We contacted professional business coaches who provided their contact details on a website for potential coachees (www.coach-datenbank.de) and coaches who offer explicit business coaching services in a social network for professionals in Germany (http://www.xing.de). Finally, 104 German coaches participated. On average the 104 coaches were 51.4-years-old (*SD*=7.9) and had 11.2 years work experience as a coach (*SD*=6.9). Fifty-six per cent were female. They spent 36.1 per cent (*SD*=24.6) of their working time on coaching. On average, the coaches had conducted more than 390 coaching over the course of their career. 12.5 per cent of the coaches had a PhD, 73.1 per cent held a university degree, 6.7 per cent had a university entrance diploma, and 7.7 per cent graduated from a school without qualifying for university. From the 104 coaches 87.5 per cent had completed an additional special coaching certification programme.

Table 1: Negative effects of coaching for coaches.

During the coaching...	Last coaching			Career		
	%	*M*	*SD*	%	*M*	*SD*
I was disappointed that I could not observe the long-term influences of the coaching	45.2	1.57	0.74	77.9	1.7	0.75
I was personally affected by the topics discussed during the coaching (those topics discussed had a direct relation to aspects of my own life that I find problematic or have found to be problematic in the past)	44.2	1.59	0.88	78.8	1.46	0.57
I was scared that I would not fulfil my role as coach	40.4	1.26	0.67	71.2	1.38	0.61
I felt insecure	38.5	1.18	0.45	80.8	1.54	0.59
I was frustrated that the problems the coachee was facing could not be resolved	36.5	1.34	0.63	70.2	1.29	0.49
I felt underpaid	36.5	1.53	0.80	69.3	1.63	0.76
I found it difficult to be an effective communicator (e.g. active listening)	35.6	1.43	0.73	62.5	1.42	0.61
I felt under pressure as a result of high expectations	29.8	1.42	0.67	68.3	1.41	0.60
I was scared to do something wrong	28.8	1.43	0.86	71.2	1.38	0.61
I felt emotionally exhausted	26,9	1,29	0,6	74	1,45	0,60
I was disappointed that the coaching was ineffective	23.1	1.33	0.64	68.3	1.25	0.47
I felt a sense of guilt that I had not done enough for the coachee	23.1	1.58	0.83	60.6	1.4	0.69
I experienced anger towards the coachee	20.2	1.43	0.75	73.1	1.22	0.51
I felt stressed	20.2	1.33	0.73	61.5	1.28	0.45
I felt too much responsibility towards the coachee	19.2	1.35	0.59	55.8	1.33	0.54
I found it difficult to maintain personal boundaries with the coachee	17.3	1.5	0.99	43.3	1.27	0.54
I felt burdened by the extraordinary topics discussed during the coaching	15.4	1.44	0.89	48.1	1.24	0.43
I found it difficult to refrain from thinking about those topics discussed during coaching in my private life	15.4	1.5	0.82	44.2	1.24	0.52
As a result of the coaching process I had too little time for myself or my family	14.4	1.47	0.52	44.2	1.39	0.65
I felt bored	12.5	1.54	0.78	59.6	1.27	0.49
Following the coaching sessions I found it difficult to open up to those important to me	10.6	1.91	1.22	23.1	1.38	0.65
I felt overchallenged	10.4	1.45	0.93	64.4	1.3	0.52
I felt lonely	7.7	1.63	0.74	21.2	1.45	0.60
Those services provided were inappropriately or not compensated	6.7	1.14	0.38	26	1.11	0.42
I felt sexually attracted to the coachee	6.7	1.71	1.25	19.2	1.15	0.49
I felt feelings of love towards the coachee	3.8	1	0	6.7	1.14	0.38
The coachee made sexual advances on me	1.9	1	0	14.4	1	0
The coachee insulted me	1	2	0	9.6	1.2	0.42
The coachee stalked me	1	2	0	2.9	2	1.73
The coachee threatened me	1	2	0	1.9	2	1.41

Coachees. The coaches evaluated their last coaching session lasting for more than three hours with respect to occurrence of negative effects. At the time of the coaching the 104 coachees were 41.8-years-old (*SD*=7.7) on average and 48.1 per cent were female.

Supervisor sample. The supervisor sample was part of a yearly conducted survey of German employees at the university of the author (total sample size: 592 employees). Ninety-two supervisors participated in the study from which 28.3 per cent were female. On average the supervisors were 43.7-years-old (*SD*=11.4) and had 14.7 years work experience (*SD*=10.7). 10.9 per cent of the participants had a PhD, 55.5 per cent had a university degree, 12 per cent had a university entrance diploma, and 21.7 per cent graduated from a school without qualifying for university. They came from different industry sectors such as consulting, banking and insurance, manufacturing, crafts and trade, retail, tourism, transport and logistics, the health sector, the public sector and other areas.

Procedure

The coaches completed an online questionnaire. First, they were asked to provide demographic information. Second, they had to respond to the following items: 'If I had the chance to choose my job again I would again choose a career in coaching' and 'When you are conducting a coaching how regularly do you use supervision'. On the following page, they were requested to answer questions in reference to their most recently terminated business coaching lasting for more than three hours. This procedure was advantageous because coaches could not freely select the coaching (e.g. an especially pleasant or unpleasant coaching) and they evaluated a coaching which they remembered well. Only coaching lasting for more than three hours were included because many effects need time (for example, feelings of boredom or exhaustion) to come into existence. Before the evaluation began, the definition of negative effects was presented so that coaches knew well what sorts of events they were to evaluate. Each negative effect was introduced using the same words ('During the coaching process…'), followed by the specific negative effect (e.g. 'I felt emotionally exhausted' or 'the client threatened me'). A five-point Likert scale was used with 0=strongly disagree; 1=somewhat agree; 2=moderately agree; 3=strongly agree; and 4=completely agree. On the next page, the coaches had to refer their answers to their entire career as a business coach. The same negative effects were now introduced with the following words: 'During the coaching during my career…' Again, a five-point Likert scale was used but with other wording: 0=never; 1=rarely; 2=occasionally; 3=frequently; and 4=very frequently. Finally, the items for psychological empowerment, emotional exhaustion, and perceived stress were presented. The coaches had to refer the items regarding emotional exhaustion and perceived stress to experiences within the past month.

Measures and psychometric properties

Number and intensity of negative effects. If coaches assigned a 1 (somewhat agree) or higher to an effect regarding their last coaching the answer was interpreted as evidence for an existing negative effect. The same was done when a coach evaluated a negative effect as at least rarely (1) emerging in their career. For each coach the number of negative effects in the last coaching and in the entire career was determined in summing up all effects which were evaluated ≥1. The intensity of an effect was calculated as the mean of the ratings ≥1 per effect. Cronbach's alpha for all 30 negative effects was .89 (last coaching) and .92 (career).

Psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment was measured with the 12-item scale developed by Spreitzer (1995). This questionnaire measures each facet with three items such as 'The work I do is mean-

ingful to me' (meaning), 'I am confident about my ability to do my job' (competence), 'I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work' (self-determination), or 'I have a great deal of control over what happens in my field of work' (impact). Items were presented with a seven-point Likert-scale from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree. The reliability for the total empowerment score was α=.90 in the coach sample and α=.95 in the supervisor sample.

Emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion was measured with three items from the Maslach Burnout inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981/German adaption from Barth, 1985): 'I feel I am working too hard on my job', 'I feel burned out from my work', and 'I feel emotionally drained from my work'. Agreement was indicated on a scale with five levels from 1=never to 5=very often. Participants had to relate their answers to the last month ('When you consider the past month to what extent are the following statements correct?'). Cronbach's alpha for the three items was .75 (coach sample) and .91 (supervisor sample).

Perceived stress. Perceived stress was measured with a short version of the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS-4; Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983). The PSS-4 has shown its criterion validity with relationships to variables like perceived health status in the last three months and actual anxiety or depression (Leung, Lam & Chan, 2010). The PSS-4 measures stress with four items (two positive and two negative) such as 'In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?', or 'In the last month, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?'. Accordingly, the questions had to be related on the past month and were rated on the same scale from 1=never to 5=very often in the same manner as emotional exhaustion. Cronbach's alpha for the four items was .66 (coach sample) and .73 (supervisor sample).

Results

The first aim was to quantify the occurrence of negative effects for coaches. In 94.2 per cent of all recent coaching at least one negative effect was present (evaluation ≥1).[1] On average, 5.9 (*SD*=4.7; Mdn=5.0) negative effects occurred per coaching. Over the course of their careers, 99 per cent of the coaches were at least confronted with one negative effect. On average 14.7 (*SD*=6.7; *Mdn*=15.0) different negative effects occurred. Details regarding the intensity of the effects are provided below. When a negative effect occurred in a coaching the mean of the intensity lies exactly between the first and second of the four (note again that all zeros are excluded) remaining scale levels (*M*=1.48; *SD*=.26; *Mdn*=1.45). The same is true for the value regarding their career. It lies between rarely (1) and occasionally (2) (*M*=1.38; *SD*=.23; *Mdn*=1.36).

In Table 1 all negative effects are displayed. In the first column, the frequencies of negative effects for the last coaching are displayed. In the second column, the means of the intensity are shown and in the third the standard deviations are provided. All 30 negative effects occurred in at least one coaching. The highest frequency existed for the disappointment of coaches that they could not observe the long-term influences of their work. In nearly 50 per cent of all coaching this effect was perceived by

[1] The last recently terminated coaching lasted 14.3 hours on average. The following topics were addressed during the coaching (multiple topics could be chosen): reflection on one's own work role (50 per cent), help during times of change (49 per cent), personality development (39.4 per cent), leadership style (36.5 per cent), career development (36.5 per cent), self-esteem issues (26.9 per cent), personal motivation (23.1 per cent), conflicts with supervisors (20.2 per cent), taking up a leadership position (20.2 per cent), conflicts within work team (19.2 per cent), conflicts with co-workers (18.3 per cent), personal problems (14.4 per cent), coping with stress (13.5 per cent), performance optimisation (11.5 per cent), conflicts between co-workers (same hierarchy level) (11.5 per cent), time management (11.5 per cent), burnout prevention (11.5 per cent) and others.

coaches. The two other effects within the top three negative effects were coaches being personally affected by the topics of the coaching and a fear that they would not fulfil their role as a coach during coaching. Four other effects, which occurred during a coaching, had a frequency of over 30 per cent. During their last coaching, business coaches felt insecure, underpaid, frustrated about coaching failure or found it difficult to be an effective communicator. Based on their experience regarding their whole career the numbers are higher. Insecurity, being personally affected, disappointment regarding missing knowledge regarding long-term consequences of coaching, anxiety to not adequately fulfil the coach role and frustration regarding coaching failure are again the most frequently perceived effects of coaching for coaches (>70 per cent). Compared with the occurrence of negative effects in the last coaching, emotional exhaustion and the anger towards the coachee were especially higher.

Negative effects with a low frequency per coaching (<5 per cent) were feelings of love towards the coachee, sexual advances from the coachee as well as insults, threats or stalking from the side of the coachee. The same five effects are the ones with the lowest frequency over the career duration. 14.4 per cent of the coaches were, however, confronted at least once with a coachee making sexual advances. 9.6 per cent were at least once insulted by a coachee. Regarding intensity, those negative effects which rely on less than 10 evaluations per recent coaching prove difficult to interpret. From the remaining topics, difficulties opening up to important members in the social context (1.91) had the highest intensity followed by being personally affected by a topic (1.59), guilt (1.58), disappointment because of missing information regarding long-term consequences (1.57), and feelings of boredom (1.54).

The second aim was to validate the occurrence of the negative effects. Table 2 displays the relationships between the number of negative effects in the last coaching, over the whole career and the three variables psychological empowerment, emotional exhaustion, and perceived stress. There were significant relationships identified between the perception of negative effects in the most recent coaching and all three variables. The more negative effects coaches perceived in the last coaching the less psychological empower-

Table 2: Correlations between negative effects, psychological empowerment, emotional exhaustion and perceived stress.

	M/ *Mdn*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
Number of negative effects (last coaching) (1)	5.94/ 5.0	4.74	–	.63**	–.50**	.57**	.42**
Number of negative effects (career) (2)	14.72/ 15.0	6.71		–	–.46**	.35**	.40**
Psychological empowerment (3)	6.49/ 6.67	0.59			–	–.35**	–.43**
Emotional exhaustion (4)	1.87/ 1.67	0.72				–	.43**
Perceived stress (5)	1.99/ 2.0	0.56					–

*p<.05, **p<.01, (two-tailed); all correlations were calculated with Spearman's Rho.

ment and the more emotional exhaustion and stress were experienced in the last four weeks. The highest correlation occurred between the number of negative effects and emotional exhaustion. A more detailed view of the four empowerment facets revealed that the highest correlation occurred with the competence facet (ρ=–.54; p<.01; impact: ρ=–.44; p<.01; self-determination: ρ=–.34; p<.01; meaning: ρ=–.25; p<.05). All correlations were tested two-tailed and calculated with the Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient as variables were not normally distributed. As shown in Table 2, the relationships with the number of perceived negative effects over the course of the whole career were also significant but somewhat lower than the relationships pertaining to the last coaching. Furthermore, there was a significant negative correlation between the wish to start their career again as a business coach and the number of negative effects in the last coaching (ρ=–.27; p<.01) and in the career (ρ=–.24; p<.05).

The third aim of our study was to compare the cognitions of the coaches towards their work as well as their affective well-being with a sample of supervisors. Table 3 displays means, standard deviations and the results of the t-test and the U-test as well as the effect sizes. An additional non-parametric testing of the difference was necessary because the Kolmorgorov-Smirnov-Test revealed that the values in the two groups were not constantly normally distributed. Coaches and supervisors experience high levels of psychological empowerment (note again that the scale ranged from 1 to 7), but the values for the coaches were significantly higher. Emotional exhaustion and stress in the last four weeks was rather low for both groups (note again that the scale ranged from 1 to 5). Again, there are significant differences between coaches and supervisors. Coaches experience less emotional exhaustion and stress than supervisors.

Table 3: Differences between coaches and supervisors regarding psychological empowerment, emotional exhaustion and perceived stress.

	Coaches		Supervisors				
	M/ *Mdn*	*SD*	*M*/ *Mdn*	*SD*	*t*-test	*U*-test	*d*
Psychological empowerment	6.49/ 6.67	.59	6.05	1.07	$t(138)=3.52^{**}$	$U=3379{,}0^{**}$	.51
Emotional exhaustion	1.87/ 1.67	.72	2.20	1.03	$t(160)=-2.59^{*}$	$U=4026{,}5^{\dagger}$	.37
Perceived stress	1.99/ 2.0	.56	2.27	.59	$t(194)=-3.35^{*}$	$U=3460{,}5^{**}$	.49

$^{\dagger}p$<.10, $^{*}p$<.05, $^{**}p$<.01, (two-tailed)

Discussion

Theoretical arguments and the example in the introduction have shown that it is possible that coaches are confronted with negative effects as a result of their work. A coachee is informed during a coaching that his/her suspected colleague and friend has committed suicide. The coach was burdened by this exceptional topic. This study has shown that being burdened by a topic during a coaching is not a single case. 15.4 per cent of the surveyed coaches were burdened by a topic during their last coaching (see Table 1). 48.1 per cent were acquainted with this negative effect in their career. On average, however, the intensity of this negative effect was rather low. Only two of the 16 coaches who were confronted with a burdening topic during the last coaching chose the highest or second highest intensity level. A very intense negative effect as described in the introduction appears to be a rare event.

The results for this single negative effect are at least partially characteristic for the complete study. The first aim of our study was to analyse the frequency and intensity of negative effects of coaching on business coaches. According to our results, negative effects of coaching for coaches seem to be a regular part of the work as a business coach in Germany. More than 90 per cent of the coaches were confronted with at least one negative effect in the last coaching. Only one participant declared that he/she had never experienced a negative effect in the career. This is in line with the SET, which expects that in every close relationship not only positive but also negative effects can occur. However, those very frequent negative effects were of considerably low intensity.

The second finding is that the effects are very manifold. All 30 different effects, which were identified through structured expert interviews or in the literature, were perceived at least once by the coaches in their last coaching as well as over the course of their careers. Different resource classes, postulated in SET, are considered. Some business coaches feel underpaid or inadequately compensated for their service by coachees (resource category money). Coaches are sometimes subjected to sexual advances by coachees and at least one coach was stalked by a coachee in the last coaching (resource category love). The opposite of 'love' did also occur. 20.2 per cent of the coaches felt anger towards their coachee in the last coaching. Over 70 per cent of the coaches experienced this at least once in their career. Note, that the intensity, for example, for the negative effect of anger was rather low (M=1.43; SD=0.75). Only three coaches chose the highest or second highest level of the rating scale. The status category is, however, also affected. The self-efficacy of a lot of coaches was negatively influenced by the last coaching. Coaches were disappointed that the coaching was ineffective or that they could not observe the long-term consequences of their work. Coaches suffer also under the consequences of delivering too much interpersonal service. They are personally affected by the topics of the coaching and thus experience stressed and exhausted (category service).

To summarise, negative effects of coaching for coaches occur very often and in a very heterogeneous way but they are of rather low intensity. Future studies should investigate what factors cause negative effects for coaches. Different classes of variables are possible. One class are coach-related variables. Coaches with special personality characteristics (for example high neuroticism or low agreeableness) could experience more negative effects than others. Also, the vocational education or the general conditions of coaching might influence negative effects. For example, in this sample there existed a small negative relationship between the amount of supervision in the job and the perception of negative coaching effects (ρ=–.16; p<.10). The more supervision a coach receives the less negative effects are experienced in the last coaching. But coachee-related variables could also cause negative effects. Coaches see, for

example, the following coachee-related variables as responsible for the emergence of negative effects for coachees: little problem awareness of the coachee, incorrect expectations, psychological disorders, or insufficient coaching motivation (Schermuly et al., 2014). These factors could also cause negative effects for coaches. For example, coaches can become angry towards coachees because the coachees are not motivated or the coaches are confronted with straining topics because the coachee is mentally ill. Finally, organisational variables could be important causal factors (for example, support from the organisation for the coach). Not only possible reasons for the emergence of negative effects should be explored in future studies but also their long-term consequences. As shown in the results section, there is a negative correlation between the number of experienced negative effects and the wish to select the coaching job again. The more negative effects are perceived the less the desire to choose the coaching job again. Other consequences might also result. Especially important is the question what consequences do negative effects have on coaches that arise as a result of the coaching process? Negative effects such as anger towards the coachee or the anxiety to do something wrong might put a strain on the relationship quality between coach and coachee and may jeopardise the coaching success. Furthermore, it is important to analyse whether negative effects for coaches are related to those negative effects experienced by coachees.

The second aim of this study was to analyse the validity of the explored negative effects. The explored negative effects are not independent from important external constructs, which speaks for the concurrent validity of the explored negative effects. Coaches perceiving a lot of negative effects in their last coaching or over the course of their career feel less empowered. Particularly the competence and impact facets of the empowerment construct show strong relationships with the number of negative effects. When coaches identify negative effects as a result of their work they feel both incompetent and powerless. The confidence in one's own competence and ability to control the work decreases. Furthermore, there are clear relationships between emotional exhaustion and the perceived stress of the coaches. Future research should examine the direction of the relationships in longitudinal studies. The experience of many negative effects can provoke emotional exhaustion but a reverse relationship is also possible. Emotional exhaustion might lead to the perception of a lot of negative effects.

The third reason for this study was to compare coaches and supervisors as potential coaching clients with regard to psychological empowerment and affective well-being. Many negative coaching effects may be a risk factor for decreased psychological empowerment and affective well-being, however, compared to supervisors, coaches experience higher psychological empowerment and less emotional exhaustion and stress. In this sample, business coaches possess more positive work-related cognitions and are mentally healthier than their potential clients in supervisory positions. This could be important for the coaching process, for example, for the credibility and effectiveness of a coach. Future studies should compare the psychological empowerment and the affective well-being of coaches with large, representative samples of other job holders to better classify these results.

Practical implications

As a result of their regular and heterogeneous occurrence, negative effects of coaching for coaches could be an important part of the vocational training of coaches. The presented results can potentially be helpful for supervisions and intervisions but also for the raising of awareness for this topic among coaches. This awareness can support coaches to identify negative effects early and help them to adequately prevent or handle them.

Particularly important for the coaching practice appears to be addressing the most frequent negative effects and ways in which to prevent them. That is why special attention should be given to those most frequent effects. Almost half of the coaches were frustrated in their last coaching because they could not observe the long-term consequences of their work. Hackman and Oldham (1975) emphasise in their job characteristic model the task identity which is the 'degree to which the job requires completion of a 'whole' and identifiable piece of work – that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome' (p.161). Coaches seem to lack this visible outcome. Evaluations at the end of the coaching but also follow up questionnaires or meetings with ex-coachees some month following coaching termination could help coaches experience greater work satisfaction. The second most frequent negative effect was that a coach was personally affected by a topic. The coach has had similar issues in his/her life and the coaching can be hindered by this personal involvement. To prevent this effect increased self-awareness might be helpful. If coaches know 'their difficult' topics they can refuse a coaching or prepare themselves better when the difficult topic presents itself. The following two negative effects appear to be interrelated. 40 per cent of coaches were afraid that they would not fulfil their role as a coach in their last coaching and/or felt insecure during a coaching (28.8 per cent were scared to do something wrong). Coaches seem to question quite regularly their role and competencies. This could lead to mental strain and result in a self-fulfilling prophecy. Doubts regarding one's own role and competence could eventually be dispelled by detailed vocational training. The fifth and the sixth effect have the same frequency (36.5 per cent): coaches are oftentimes frustrated that the problems of the coachees could not be resolved and coaches felt underpaid. Kilburg (2002) postulates numerous factors that contribute to coaching failures. On the side of the coach this could be insufficient empathy for the coachee, a lack of expertise, underestimation of the severity of the coachees problems, or poor techniques for example. Many of these factors could again be attenuated by vocational training for coaches. The feeling of being underpaid could be a direct result of the hard competition within the coaching market. As described above, the number of coaches increases every year because of lacking professional regulation to be designated as a coach (Smither, 2011).

Limitations

The first limitation of this study concerns the generalisability of results. All participants came from Germany and the results, therefore, are only valid for the German coaching market. However, the demographic variables between the given sample and the international coaching market seem to be quite similar. Liljenstrand and Nebeker (2008) surveyed 2231 coaches worldwide with a mean age of 48.1 (given study: 51.4) of whom 67.2 per cent (given study: 56 per cent) were female and 18.8 per cent (given study: 12.5 per cent) had a PhD. A main difference between this large international sample and the sample in this study is the work experience of the coaches. In this study the work experience of the coaches (11.2 years) were two times higher than in the study from Liljenstrand and Nebeker (5.3 years). The second limitation is that the study was conducted with one measurement point. Therefore, no information can be given about the duration of the negative effects. It cannot be said if, for example, the frustration about unresolved problems lasted longer than the coaching process. The third limitation is that only perceptions of the coaches and not objective data or data from different sources were collected. 23.1 per cent of the coaches were at least a little disappointed that their coaching was ineffective. No information is available if the coachees have experienced the coaching in the same way. The fourth limitation concerns the questionnaire measuring nega-

tive effects. While the measures for psychological empowerment, emotional exhaustion and stress are well-established scales this is not true for the negative effects questionnaire. The reliability and validity must be verified in future studies.

Despite these limitations, the present study demonstrated that negative effects for coaches occur very often and in a variety of ways, although they are of rather low intensity. Especially the number of negative effects a coach was confronted with in the last coaching are associated with less psychological empowerment and with more emotional exhaustion and stress. Coaches, however, perceive more empowerment and less emotional exhaustion and stress as their primary client group (supervisors).

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Paper

A step-wise process of intentional personality change coaching

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

Objectives: *This article discusses why personality change appears both possible and beneficial, and provides a step-wise process of intentional personality change coaching.*
Design: *A qualitative single sample exploratory design was employed.*
Method: *Semi-structured interviews were conducted with a panel of coaches/psychologists (experts), in order to develop coaching interventions to increase or decrease each of the 30 facets within the NEO PI-R. Further consultation with a sub-group of this panel led to the development of a step-wise process of intentional personality change coaching, designed to facilitate client chosen personality change goals.*
Results: *A step-wise process of intentional personality change coaching was developed, and related coach training material. The step-wise process proposed that personality change coaching of individuals without major psychopathology be conducted in a coaching context. Prerequisites included client awareness of their personality, and motivation to change one or more personality facets. The step-wise process incorporated a 10-step coaching sequence to facilitate change in this context, and utilised a menu of unique change interventions for each of the 30 NEO PI-R facets.*
Conclusion: *Personality change coaching appears both feasible and beneficial in a coaching context. The step-wise process discussed in this article informs coaching practice, and provides a foundation for empirical exploration of this potential.*

THE USE OF COACHING to support intentional personality change is a relatively unexplored endeavour. For many years, a dominant belief within coaching and psychology was that personality traits (domains) were relatively resistant to change without longer-term intensive interventions (Hughes, 2002; McCrae & Costa, 2003).

In contrast with this view, however, more recent literature suggests that individuals change in response to their day to day lives, and that personality may change over time in response to a range of interventions. In terms of day-to-day adjustment, current literature suggests that although individuals may exhibit relative consistency of thoughts, feelings and behaviours over the longer term, they nevertheless adjust their personality in response to their daily environments and circumstances (e.g. work events and social contexts) (see Fleeson, 2009; Judge, 2013; Robinson, 2009). While this suggests that both traits and situations influence us, it also suggests that, even in the short term, we have the capacity to think, feel and act in different ways.

Furthermore, a number of studies suggest that personality may change in a more enduring way in response to certain interventions. For example, in a study by Piedmont (2001), significant changes were found on each of the five personality domains assessed, over the course of a six-week intensive outpatient drug rehabilitation programme, with three of the five domains maintaining significant change 15 months later. The author concluded that 'durable personality change may be obtained from psychotherapy' (p.516). Furthermore, an 18-hour evidence-based emotional competence training programme with email follow-up (Nelis et al., 2011) improved emotional functioning, which in turn lead to a long-term significant decrease in the personality domain neuroticism (emotionality) and long-term increases

in both agreeableness and extraversion (i.e. six months after training). A 10-week life coaching pro-gramme (Spence & Grant, 2005), using both peer and professional coaches, found that while personality remained relatively stable over the coaching period, change was achieved on the openness to experience and extraversion domains, for the peer coaching group.

In these studies, change was reported on personality domains, even though intentional personality change was not directly targeted (i.e. research aims and interventions were not designed around changing client chosen individual personality domains or facets). Spence and Grant (2007) note that variables not specifically targeted with interventions are less likely to change than variables that are specifically targeted. Therefore, even stronger results may have been achieved on personality change in these studies if interventions were more directly geared towards this. These findings suggest that intentional targeted personality change may well be possible, and further clarification of this possibility would be useful.

Is personality change likely to lead to any significant benefits? A literature review conducted by Ozer and Benet-Martinez (2006) suggests that personality has significant consequences across an extensive range of individual, relationship and community/institutional outcomes. The review found that personality dispositions were associated with 'happiness, physical and psychological health, spirituality, and identity at an individual level; associated with the quality of relationships with peers, family, and romantic others at an interpersonal level; and associated with occupational choice, satisfaction, and performance, as well as community involvement, criminal activity, and political ideology at a social institutional level' (p.401). This suggests that if interventions could strengthen personality domains in individuals who were motivated to change, then benefits may accrue across a wide range of life domains.

Further support for the potential value of personality change is provided by the well-being literature, which suggests that personality is arguably the largest single contributor to well-being and life satisfaction (Boyce, Wood & Powdthavee, 2012; Diener & Lucas, 1999; Steel, Schmidt & Shultz, 2008). The meta-analysis by Steel et al. concluded that personality accounted for up to 39 per cent of variance in subjective well-being (or 63 per cent disattenuated). Furthermore, on the basis of a four-year study of over 8000 Australians, Boyce et al. found that personality was the strongest predictor of well-being, and that, 'personality can change and that such change is important and meaningful'. The authors proposed that efforts be directed to identifying ways to enhance personality, as personality change contributed more to individual and national well-being than, for example, earning more money, finding employment or getting married. These findings suggest that if intentional personality change can be facilitated, then it may well be beneficial. This in turn raises questions around what might be the most appropriate context to explore personality change.

Martin, Oades and Caputi (2012) linked the above findings and proposed that personality change appeared to be both possible and beneficial, and that coaching provided a logical context to explore this possibility in clients without major psychopathology. The logic of one-to-one professional coaching as the preferred context was discussed. The authors proposed that intentional personality change could arguably fit within a coaching or counselling/therapy context, and discussed factors that would influence the preferred context. However, they proposed that, 'for clients without major psychopathology, personality change interventions may be more consistent with coaching [than therapy/counselling], and a coaching approach may offer certain advantages' (p.189). The authors proposed that coaching is commonly associated with a

strong goal focus, a learning or personal development model, and a high degree of collaboration, all of which are likely to be important considerations in intentional personality change.

Martin et al. (2012) further proposed that a combination of factors (e.g. the complex, personal and sensitive nature of personality profiles, and the need to focus on individual profiles and goals) suggested that one to one coaching, using professionals trained in personality, and capable to working with emotionality facets (e.g. anxiety, anger, depression) provided a safer and more appropriate environment than group or peer coaching.

In change coaching processes, consideration needs to be given to the number of sessions required. As no literature exploring the duration of interventions to change personality in clients without major psychopathology was found, attention was directed to clarifying the number of coaching sessions required to facilitate other forms of change. Although limited relevant literature was identified, a number of studies based on 10 coaching sessions achieved good change outcomes (Green, Grant & Rynsaardt, 2007; Spence & Grant, 2005, 2007). As personality change is sufficiently like other change processes, then 10 coaching sessions was considered an appropriate 'dose' for exploring/facilitating personality change. Therefore, the step-wise process outlined in the current article suggests that 10 one-to-one coaching sessions, conducted by suitably trained professionals, would provide a suitable context for facilitating intentional personality change for clients without major psychopathology. It also incorporates measurement of personality at session five, so that change over time can be explored, and better understood.

Martin et al. (2012) suggested that intentional personality change, '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 traits that the client wishes to change' (p.188). They suggested that a reputable inventory, based on the Five-Factor Model of Personality would be a suitable assessment tool. They further proposed that assessing personality at the more detailed facet level would be more useful than assessing at the broader trait level, and would better inform decisions on what changes the client may wish to target during coaching.

Intentional change theory (Boyatzis, 2006) posits that sustainable change in a range of contexts can most effectively be achieved through a sequence of repeating discoveries or conditions as follows: (a) discovering the ideal self; (b) discovering the real (current) self and contemplating how the ideal self and real-self overlap and differ; (c) developing and implementing a plan to move towards the ideal self, through experimenting with new behaviours, thoughts or feelings; (d) developing neural pathways to support this change through practice and mastery; and (e) engaging in trusting relationships that help foster the ideal self. Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) proposes that the ideal self provides a driver for intrinsically motivated change, through positive affect and psychological arousal associated with hope for a better future and optimal self.

The principles incorporated in intentional change theory can enhance both the amount of change, and the sustainability of change, in a range of contexts (Boyatzis, 2006). Whereas a body of literature is developing around application of intentional change theory in the context of enhancing emotional intelligence (Boyatzis, 2001, 2006), no studies were identified that explored intentional change in a personality context.

The client's attitude toward change is a critical factor in change processes, and is likely to significantly impact on outcomes (e.g. Latham, 2007; Rollnick, Mason & Butler, 1999). For example, if the client is ambivalent about change, it is unlikely to

happen. Rollnick, Mason and Butler propose that change outcomes can be enhanced by recognising and appropriately managing motivational factors, and taking into account the client's confidence in ability to change and the importance of change. Intrinsic motivation, in particular, is viewed as a key consideration in change. In a personality change context, internal motivation is clearly an important pre-requisite. The interaction between internal and external motivation, however, requires careful consideration. If there is a consensus between the client and relevant outside parties that personality change would be desirable (e.g. both the client and their spouse agree that a reduction in the facet anger would be beneficial), then internal and external motivators can work hand in hand. Change goals derived from external motivation alone, however, should be viewed with caution. It could be problematic if individuals felt coerced to change their personality in a way they were not comfortable with because another party (e.g. an employer) preferred a different personality profile. Used in that way, resistance to change would be likely, and the credibility and ethical integrity of personality change processes could be bought into question.

As a corollary to their proposition that personality change may be both possible and beneficial, the authors of the current article worked with a panel of experts to develop personality change interventions for each of the 30 facets included in the NEO PI-R. An important objective in developing these resources was to enable the empirical exploration of intentional personality change coaching. The methods section that follows explains how the personality change interventions for each of the 30 facets and the overall step-wise process of intentional personality change were developed.

Method

The method used to develop the step-wise process involved two stages: (1) a qualitative single sample design, using an expert panel, to generate change interventions for each of the 30 facets; and (2) a consensual consultation with a sub-group of the expert panel to develop a step-wise process, incorporating the interventions developed in stage one. The methodology for each stage is discussed in turn. This multi-stage process was akin to a Delphi technique.

Stage One: Participants

Participants (experts)[1] were four practicing psychologists and one coach. There were three males and two females, with a mean age of 46.2 years, and an average of 13.4 years experience in coaching/psychology. All five participants were chosen based on their previous experience incorporating personality change interventions in either coaching, therapy or training, and experience working with the Five-Factor Model of Personality. To ensure that data had a strong psychological focus, three of the five participants were registered clinical psychologists (six years full time training in psychology), and a fourth participant was a provisionally registered clinical psychologists (five years full time training in psychology). The coach had trained and worked in counselling, mediation, and coaching for 10 years. All were currently practicing psychologists or coaches (in Australia), four of the five had worked as coaches, and two were currently working as both academics and practitioners. The authors of the current study were not participants.

Stage One: Sampling

Participants were chosen based on their ability to contribute to the development of personality change steps and interventions.

[1] Participants made up the expert panel.

Stage One: Procedure

Individual, audio-recorded, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants. According to Kruger (1998), semi-structured interviews balance the need to maintain some degree of focus, while allowing participants the flexibility to share relevant knowledge and experience. Participants were given a list of facets as outlined in the NEO PI-R, and definitions for each. They were then asked (and provided with the written question): What intervention/s would you suggest for increasing (or decreasing) (name and definition of facet)? The participant then outlined suggested interventions for changing each facet in turn.

Stage One: Data analysis and interpretation

Audio recordings of interviews were transcribed. Manual coding of the data involved grouping relevant chunks of interview data under the 30 NEO PI-R facet headings. At the end of this process each facet had a range of change options (verbatim), provided by the participants. Some facets had one-directional change interventions, and some had two direction change interventions. For example, participants considered that it was unlikely that clients would wish to increase facet depression, so the range of change interventions provided for facet depression were one-directional (i.e. all designed to reduce depression). Similarly, the change interventions provided for some other facets were all designed to increase them (e.g. facets positive emotions and competence). Other facets had two directional interventions (e.g. facets trust and excitement seeking).

The following steps developed these grouped chunks of data into a training resource. If chunks of data were deemed to be confusing or repetitive (e.g. the essence of the change approach had already been covered in another chunk of data) they were omitted. Decisions to omit data were made in collaboration between two participants and the lead author. Working with the remaining data, the first author then developed a more concise summary of the approach and outcome suggested by each remaining chunk of data in a column adjacent to the quote. This was done to improve the user-friendliness of the material. These paired columns of change interventions were then formatted to form part of a coach training resources, along with definitions for each facet, and circulated for comment to three participants. Selection for this role, from the original five participants from stage one, was based primarily on their time availability. An extract from the facet change intervention resources derived from this process (including the facet definition) follows (see Figure 1).

Stage Two: Participants

For the second stage of the study, participants were a sub-group of the above expert panel, made up of three clinical psychologists. There were two males and one female, with a mean age of 43.3 years, and an average of 18.3 years experience in coaching/psychology. These three participants were chosen from the five participants that developed the facet change interventions, based on their time availability.

Stage Two: Procedure

The development of the step-wise process began with the main author providing information to two of the participants (written and verbal) relating to literature that they may not be well versed in, and that could potentially inform the development of the step-wise process (e.g. intentional change theory, the number of coaching sessions associated with successful change, readiness to change literature). These two participants and the main researcher then consensually blended the following components into a step-wise process: (1) findings from relevant literature; (2) well-established steps used in change processes (e.g. goal setting and reviewing progress); and (3) facet change interventions developed in stage one.

The first author then developed these steps into a diagram, with supporting text,

Figure 1: Exemplar of facet change intervention for achievement striving.

Achievement striving: This is a facet within the domain of conscientiousness. In the interviews it was defined as 'the drive to get ahead, to hard work, being enterprising and persistent'. In the interview extracts below (Column 2), coaches and therapists indicated how they might assist a client to increase this facet.	
Column 1: Summary of approach and rationale	**Column 2: Quotes from expert panel**
Cognitive therapy to build self-esteem and overcome cognitive barriers to achievement.	*Looking at the thinking if there's thinking that's undermining that [achievement striving.] I'd do a fair bit of work with sort of self-esteem and... the cognitive barriers that people have, you know, from getting to those goals and getting those achievements.*
Goal setting, action plans and problem solving to help focus efforts and overcome barriers.	*Around goal setting, looking at what they're actually wanting to achieve, and then problem solving around that if there are difficulties. Regarding the goals, asking what that would look like, what's the steps?*
Link goals and achievement striving to client values in order to increase motivation.	*I think it might be again about why, so the values is 'why would I do this' because if the goal that they end up having is related to something that's intrinsically motivating, they're much more likely to achieve it anyway. Once again that could be a goal setting type of approach, knowing what you want, making sure you are living by your values, and that it is of value to you, that it is a value that you want to strive towards. Yeah, generally that effective action stuff, putting that effective action into their life. Interviewer: Could you give me an example of that? Ah, you know things that are improving your quality of life, so making sure that all of your behaviours and actions that you do towards your achievements are benefiting your quality of life. Again I would come back to that sort of ACT thing of getting people to align their life with their values and, you know – if they are achieving towards their values then they are going to be more achievement striving.*

and sought feedback from the two participants involved in developing these steps. Revisions were made based on feedback, and resubmitted for further feedback. This process was repeated until a consensus was reached on the step-wise process. The step-wise process that emerged was then submitted to the third participant (who had not participated in developing the step-wise process) in order to get a fresh, unbiased perspective, and minor revisions were made. The step-wise process was further refined based on feedback from research supervisors and reviewers. Figure 2, and the discussion that follows, represents the outcome of this process.

Figure 2: A step-wise process of intentional personality change.

Step 1: Assess personality and client values ● Complete personality inventory and develop report. ● Complete values inventory.
Step 2: Discover the current self ● Explore what is positive and problematic in the client's life. ● Review client values questionnaire findings. ● Review personality report.
Step 3: Explore gaps between the current and ideal self ● Clarify client's ideal self. ● Reflect on how current and ideal personality differ. ● Explore what facet changes could help narrow this gap.
Step 4: Choose personality facet change goals ● Shortlist facets targeted for change. ● Review consistency of proposed changes with values.
Step 5: Assess attitudes towards change ● Assess motivation, importance, confidence and timeliness. ● Manage ambivalent attitudes and/or review change goals. ● Finalise list of facets to target for change.
Step 6: Design and implement coaching plan ● Choose change intervention options for targeted facets. ● Develop and implement a coaching plan.
Step 7: Re-assess personality and review progress ● Re-administer personality inventory (session 5). ● Review progress and revise coaching plan (if necessary).
Step 8: Implement remaining coaching sessions ● Implement remaining coaching sessions, incorporating coaching plan revisions.
Step 9: Re-assess, review and maintain ● Re-administer personality inventory (session 10). ● Review progress towards personality change goals. ● Develop a maintenance plan for targeted sub-trait change.
Step 10: Follow-up, review and refinement ● Re-administer personality inventory (three months later). ● Refine maintenence strategies for targeted facet change.

Results

Description of a step-wise process of intentional personality change (Figure 2).

Step 1: Assess personality and client values

A key focus of step 1 involves administering a questionnaire to assess the client's personality. An important consideration in intentional personality change is deciding how to assess personality. Martin et al. (2012) proposed that a well validated questionnaire reflecting the Five-Factor Model of Personality, such as the NEO PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992), or a reputable proxy, would suit this purpose. Under the Five-Factor Model of Personality, the individual's personality is

assessed under five-well established broad domains; (i.e. emotionality, extraversion, agreeableness, openness-to-experience and conscientiousness), and 30 facets. Although the current step-wise process is based around use of a self-report inventory, in some contexts it may be useful to combine this with other methods (e.g. informant reports, behavioural assessments).

A number of Five-Factor Model of Personality inventories are available, each with their own reporting format, strengths and weaknesses. An exemplar of one reporting format developed around the NEO PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992) follows (Figure 3).

This exemplar, based on a report writer developed for an empirical study of intentional personality change coaching, discusses testing results for a hypothetical client, Joe Snell, on one of the five domains, (i.e. conscientiousness, and its six facets). A full report would include coverage of the four other domains and the 24 other facets.

Similar reports, utilising both short and long inventories, are currently available on public domain websites. Ideally personality profiles will describe each of the five broad domain and facets, and illustrate how the client's profile compares with other individuals, through provision of percentiles and/or ranges. In choosing an personality inventory it is useful to consider the suitability of the report format for personality coaching (e.g. style of feedback), whether item level responses can be viewed after the report is completed (useful, but difficult with most online assessments), timing consideration (e.g. time required to administer and generate a report) and cost factors.

A values assessment is also undertaken, so the coaching process can ensure that personality change decisions are consistent with the client's values. There is merit in choosing a values inventory that differentiates the relative importance of different life domains (e.g. family, health, work, etc.), and how consistently the client's actions reflect this level of important (e.g. Wilson, 2002). For example, if the client places a high value on physical self-care, yet recent actions are not consistent with this value, then this knowledge may help inform decisions on which facets the client may wish to consider changing.

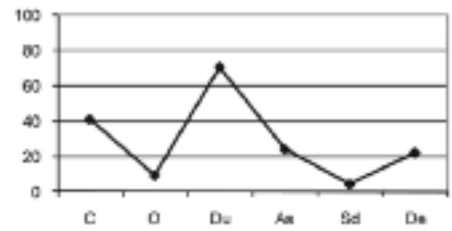
Step 2: Discover the current self

The concept of current self relates to how the client sees themselves now. Within the step-wise process of personality change, discovering the current self has three aspects to it: (a) reflection on positive and negative aspects of the client's current life; (b) considering what the client values in life, and how consistently their current way of living and being reflects these values; and (c) current personality profile. These are discussed in turn. The first aspect involves gathering information on what is working well in the client's life, and what aspects of their life are experienced as problematic. It includes exploring the duration of problematic patterns, to help differentiate 'states' from 'traits', and to inform subsequent discussion of more helpful and less helpful personality facets.

The second aspect of understanding the current self involves discussing the values questionnaire findings (completed in step 1), to help inform subsequent discussions around whether increasing or decreasing particular personality facets would likely help or hinder values consistent living. This information is also useful in informing subsequent steps, (e.g. clarifying the ideal self, personality goal setting, etc.).

The third aspect of understanding the current self involves reflecting upon each of the 30 facets contained within the personality profile, bearing in mind how helpful they are, and how consistent they are with the client's values. This requires the coach to provide the client with a personality profile (completed in step 1), showing the client's scores on each of five broad domains, and 30 facets, relative to test norms. The coach then raises personality self-awareness by exploring individual facet links with (a) satisfaction/dissatisfaction with current and past life patterns; (b) what they hope to achieve in the future; and (c) what they value.

Figure 3: Exemplar of personality report for facets within domain conscientiousness.

Conscientiousness measures the extent to which an individual is ambitious, hard working, organised and dependable. It refers to the sense that one is capable, sensible, prudent and effective. On this domain, overall Joe Snell scored in the very low range. Scores are represented on a five-point scale: very low, low, average, high, and very high.		
Facets contributing to this domain	**Score**	**Interpretation**
Competence (C) This facet assesses the sense that one is capable, sensible, prudent, and effective. This facet is most highly associated with self-esteem and internal locus of control.	Average	You have an intermediate level of competence and ability to deal with life and work issues. You are somewhat efficient and moderately capable.
Order (O) Order refers to tendencies to be neat, tidy, and methodical. Carried to an extreme, a high Order score might contribute to a Compulsive Personality Disorder.	Very low	You often feel disorganised, forgetful, untidy or careless. You find getting organised difficult, and describe yourself as unmethodical.
Dutifulness (Du) This is the facet of conscientiousness that most closely relates to 'being governed by conscience'. It is associated with being dutiful, reliable, dependable and ethical.	Above average	You are in the above average range in terms of reliability, dependability and moral principles. Others may describe you as dutiful, dependable and ethical.
Achievement Striving (As) This facet describes ambition and the drive to get ahead, accompanied by a commitment to hard work, enterprise and persistence.	Low	You are not highly motivated to succeed and get ahead in life. You are low in ambition and may seem to lack a clear direction in life. However, you may be perfectly content with this lower level of achievement striving.
Self-discipline (Sd) This facet refers to the ability to begin tasks and carry them through to completion despite boredom and other distractions. Very high scorers may invest too much in their work.	Very low	You have limited self-discipline in beginning and carrying through tasks to completion. You struggle with finding the motivation to get the job done, and may procrastinate.
Deliberation (De) This facet assesses the tendency to think carefully before acting or speaking.	Low	You may be hasty and may act or speak without considering the consequences. On the positive side, low scorers are spontaneous and able to make snap decisions when necessary. Others may perceive you at times as being hasty, or 'shooting from the hip'.

It is important to ascertain if the client agrees with their profile, and if not to understand what has contributed to any apparent discrepancies. For example, if the client indicates that a facet description provided by a report writer doesn't fit, then it is useful to go back to the individual items in the questionnaire, and the client's responses, and discuss with them why they scored within a particular range.

Providing feedback on personality is a sensitive role, and requires well developed skills. As a coach, it is particularly important to monitor the client's reaction to feedback, and to be aware of, and effectively manage discomfort, should it arise. Approaches to managing any such discomfort will vary from client to client, depending on what aspects of their personality causes discomfort, and why. For example, if a client appears embarrassed about aspects of their personality, it may be useful to discourage them from thinking about facet rankings as representing good or bad personalities. Instead it may be helpful to assure them that all facets have value, and that we are simply aiming to clarify whether having more or less of some facets might work better for them.

Let's explore how some of the key concepts in step 2 might play out in a coaching session, using the extract from Joe Snell's personality profile (see Figure 3) as a basis for discussion. The coach would ask Joe to share his views on what was working well, and what was problematic in his life. Let's assume that during this conversation, Joe indicates that disorganisation and poor self-discipline have created issues at work over many years, and have hindered him managing his diabetes. Joe shares that he would like to work on becoming more organised and efficient at work, and he would like to get better control over his health problems. He also notes that he has been in his current job for many years, and has some interest in looking at getting a better job. The coach and Joe would then collaboratively explore whether increasing or decreasing some facets could help with these issues. For example, they may consider whether increasing some of the facets within the domain conscientiousness might be useful. In particular, it could include evaluating whether increasing the facets order (organisation), self-discipline (capacity to initiate and complete tasks) and achievement striving (drive to get ahead) would be helpful, as these are in the lower ranges, and seem relevant to Joe's issues. Coaching would also explore whether such changes would be consistent with Joe's values. If Joe places a high value on both physical self-care and work/career (identified on the values inventory completed by Joe), then he may decide that he would like to increase facets order and self discipline (which would be consistent with both changes he wants to make, and his values). However he may choose not to pursue increasing achievement striving if he thinks that efforts directed to getting ahead (e.g. seeking a promotion) may interfere with his health/self-care values. For example, the extra time and effort required at work to get a promotion, and work at a more senior level, may conflict with making time to go to the gym, plan his diet, and walk each day.

Step 3: Explore gaps between current and ideal self

This step focuses on clarifying the client's ideal self, from a personality perspective. According to Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006), the ideal self 'is the core mechanism for self-regulation and intrinsic motivation. It is manifest as a personal vision, or an image of what kind of person one wishes to be, what the person hopes to accomplish in life and work' (p.625). Boyatzis and Akrivou propose that once the ideal self is activated, it guides our actions and decisions towards achieving a meaningful and values consistent way of living, and being the type of person we want to be. The conceptualisation of the ideal self within a personality change context provides a unifying framework for change, and harnesses the motivational potential of our desired self. It includes reflecting on who the

client wants to be (in terms of thinking styles, actions and emotions), and what that might look like from a personality profile perspective. It also involves clarifying how their current personality profile differs from their ideal personality profile. Hence, this step helps to identify a preliminary shortlist of facets the client may consider targeting for change (i.e. increasing or decreasing). As it may be unrealistic to change more than a few facets (typically around three out of the 30 possible facets) this step includes prioritising which facets the client most wishes to change, and in what direction. In the case of Joe Snell, this step may include clarifying that Joe's ideal self would be more organised, and more persistent in pursuing meaningful health and work goals. This would further confirm that his ideal self would be higher on facets order and self-discipline. Step 3 generates a shortlist of facets, which are then further evaluated and narrowed down into the final facet change goals in steps 4 and 5.

Step 4: Choose personality facet change goals

In step 4, the client narrows this shortlist down to a realistic number of facets that they may wish to increase or decrease, in order to move closer to the ideal self (typically two or three facets will remain). Consistency of the proposed changes with the client's values is considered at this point (by reviewing facet change goals against their values inventory).

Step 5: Assess attitudes towards change

Before settling on a final list of facets targeted for change, it is important to assess a number of attitudinal factors relating to changing the chosen facets (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to change, importance of change, confidence in ability to change, and timeliness of change). These attitudinal factors, and ways of managing them, were incorporated in the coach training processes and resources. Techniques drew heavily on motivational interviewing, and overcoming barriers to change (Rollnick, Mason & Butler (1999). As an example, if Joe Snell's internal motivation to increase order was low (e.g. 5 out of 10), then motivational interviewing, incorporating cost benefit analysis of not changing, could be conducted. If, on the other hand, confidence in ability to change facet self-discipline was low, then coaching would explore why. Joe might have tried to improve personal organisation in the past without success, eroding his confidence. If so, it would be important for the coach to understand what he had tried in the past, and why had it not worked (i.e. barriers to change). Identifying ways of overcoming such barriers might then be incorporated in the coaching sessions.

If (a) low scores on attitudinal factors suggest ambivalence about change (e.g. poor internal motivation), and (b) coaching strategies (e.g. motivational interviewing) do not sufficiently address this ambivalence, then removing such facets may be preferable. Increasing or decreasing the remaining list of facets then becomes the unifying framework for the 10 sessions of coaching.

Step 6: Design and implement a coaching plan

Step 6 involves implementing coaching strategies designed to achieve the desired personality change, using the facet change interventions developed (see Figure 1 exemplar).

The facet change interventions developed are eclectic, with cognitive, behavioural, positive psychology, solution focused and acceptance and commitment influences apparent. This eclectic approach was based on the participant's opinion that no one theoretical model would be optimal for changing each of these 30 facets, and that different practitioners and/or clients may prefer different theoretical frameworks. Consequently, the interventions include a unique and flexible set of change strategies for each of the 30 facets incorporated in the NEO PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Step 7: Re-assess personality and review progress

As session five, the client once again completes the personality inventory.

Progress towards the desired personality change goals are evaluated, and the coaching strategies are reviewed. If limited progress is being made on achieving the desired change on a particular facet, then possible reasons for this could be explored (e.g. barriers to change), and ways of managing barriers, or alternative change interventions options could be discussed. For example, if Joe Snell had made little progress towards increasing order, it would be useful to explore why. If a barrier to being more organised was an ineffective diary system, then coaching could explore options for addressing this. It is also useful to discuss the client's perception of the coaching process to date, and encourage them to express any ideas they may have to enhance outcomes of future coaching sessions.

Step 8: Implement the remaining sessions of coaching

The additional coaching sessions are then implemented, taking into account the review process at sessions five. For example, if the client has ideas for enhancing the coaching, or if alternative change interventions have been discussed, these could be incorporated in the remaining sessions.

Step 9: Review progress and develop maintenance plan

An end of coaching assessment of personality occurs at session 10, through re-administering the chosen inventory. The results of the assessment are used to review progress towards personality change goals, and assist with developing maintenance strategies that the client can use post-coaching to further support the desired personality change.

Step 10: Conduct three months follow-up

A final follow-up session is conducted three months after the 10 sessions of coaching are completed, to once again review progress on personality change goals, and refine maintenance strategies as required.

Discussion

Does the step-wise process work?

The importance of empirically validating coaching processes is widely acknowledged in the coaching literature (e.g. Grant et al., 2010). In recognition of this need, an pilot study of the step-wise process proposed in the current article, utilising the change interventions and step wise process developed, was undertaken. Data gathered during this study found that certain individuals were more likely to engage in personality change coaching (i.e. those higher in emotionality and openness), and facets chosen for change were most often within the domains of emotionality and conscientiousness (Allan, Leeson & Martin, 2014). The findings from this 54 participant study, incorporating both a waitlist control between subjects design, and a within subjects design, are encouraging. The study found that participation in the programme was associated with significant positive change in the targeted facets, and such gains were maintained three months later' (Martin, Oades & Caputi, 2014).

Furthermore, preliminary findings from a qualitative study of clients' perceptions of personality change coaching were also positive (Martin, Oades & Caputi, in press). The study found that personality coaching: (a) promoted reflection, leading to greater self-awareness; (b) fostered an authentic self and values consistent way of living, without loss of valued identity; (c) produced tangible and practical life benefits including enhanced confidence and competence, and strengthened ability to relate to others; and (d) most clients viewed the structured personality change coaching programme as enjoyable, positive and beneficial.

Limitations

Nevertheless, a number of limitations of the current article should be acknowledged. First, this field of research is in its infancy, and the resources developed are relatively untested. It is likely that further refinement and development, based on practitioners experience and future research, will be beneficial. Second,

the step-wise process rests on the assumption that personality change may be achievable with short term interventions. This assumption is controversial, and is likely to remain so for some time, as personality change is complex and challenging to objectively measure. In the current study personality change is being explored within one construct of personality (the Five-Factor Model of Personality), and using one measure of that construct (NEO PI-R self report inventory). It could be argued that change on this measure does not necessarily equate with change in personality, or that alternative measures and/or conceptualisations of personality would better suit personality change processes (e.g. conceptualising personality as a mix of person-situation contingencies, as proposed by Fleeson, 2004).

While acknowledging that no single measure of personality can fully capture the complexity of personality, the authors of the current article have nevertheless proposed a well respected and validated measure of what is arguably the most widely recognised model of normal personality currently available (i.e. the Five-Factor Model of Personality, assessed by the NEO PI-R). Nevertheless, it is acknowledged that the use of self report assessments can lead to validity problems (e.g. coachees answering in ways that put them in a good light, and/or are consistent with the aims of the research). Hence, the current step-wise process (and future studies of intentional personality change) could benefit from exploration of a wider range of assessment tools (e.g. independent observer ratings, behavioural assessments). It could also benefit from exploration of change using other conceptualisations of personality (e.g. incorporating integrative perspectives on personality that capture trait-situation contingencies), and measuring maintenance of change over longer periods of time.

Finally, intentional personality change sits outside the usual parameters of coaching. As such it may be argued that it should be explored within a counselling or therapy context, rather than a coaching context. The positioning of these interventions within a coaching contexts was explored in Martin et al. (2012), and will be explored further in additional papers currently being prepared by the authors of the current study. To avoid repetition, it is not death with in any detail in the current study. However it is acknowledged that personality change interventions could sit within either a coaching or counselling/therapy context, and some practitioners may well be opposed to it being conducted within a coaching context. Hence, further discussion of where intentional personality change coaching could or should sit would be beneficial.

In combination, these limitations suggest that the current paper should be viewed as relatively tentative findings. Nevertheless, it is hoped that the development of these resources will provide: (a) a foundation for future exploration in this area; and (b) a preliminary step towards understanding if intentional personality change is possible, how this can best be achieved.

Links with existing theories of change

Although development of the resources and steps discussed in the current article were not developed around any particular theoretical model, the step-wise process that emerged nevertheless mirrored several components inherent in intentional change theory (Boyatzis, 2006; Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). For example, reflecting on the questions of 'who am I now?' (the current self) and 'who do I want to be?'(the ideal self), and how to work towards the latter (learning agenda/change strategies) are important components in both. Hence the literature developed by Boyatzis and colleagues offers useful insights for the practitioner considering intentional personality change interventions.

Significance of the research

The development of a step-wise process of intentional personality change coaching

contributes to both practice and theory in the fields of coaching, personality and intentional change. From the perspective of coaching, it provides a framework to potentially expand practice and research into a new arena (i.e. intentional personality change). It extends the current intentional change literature into a new area (i.e. personality), and provides both practitioners and researchers with a step-by-step process of intentional personality change. For the discipline of psychology, this research offers practitioners an opportunity to engage in a potentially unique role in coaching, based on their training in personality, psychometrics and skills in dealing with psychological distress. Furthermore, it provides researchers with preliminary resources to explore this largely uncharted, yet important topic.

In conclusion, the current article provides a framework for exploring intentional personality change, and the step-by-step process outlined offers a foundation for future researchers and practitioners.

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Paper

Intentional personality change coaching: A randomised controlled trial of participant selected personality facet change using the Five-Factor Model of Personality

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

Objectives: *Recent literature suggests that personality may be more amenable to change than was previously thought, and that participant selected intentional personality change may be beneficial. The aim of this study was to examine the effects of a 10-week structured intentional personality change coaching programme on participant selected personality facets.*

Design: *Participants were assigned to the personality coaching group or a waitlist control group using a waitlist control, matched, randomised procedure (personality coaching group, N=27; waitlist control group, N=27).*

Method: *A structured coaching programme, designed to identify and modify a limited number of personality facets, chosen by the client, was employed.*

Results: *Participation in the personality change coaching programme was associated with significant positive change in participant selected facets, with gains maintained three months later. Neither age of participant nor number of facets targeted significantly affected change outcomes.*

Conclusions: *These findings suggest that a structured personality change coaching programme may facilitate beneficial personality change in motivated individuals.*

Keywords: *Intentional personality change coaching.*

THE ASSERTION that individuals may beneficially change their personality through coaching is both challenging and recent. Martin, Oades and Caputi (2012) proposed that exploration of this potential was warranted, based on an extensive body of literature suggesting that personality domains (traits) had wide ranging consequences. For example, a meta-analysis by Ozer and Benet-Martinez (2006) found predictive relationships between Big 5 (five-factor) personality domains and numerous important life outcomes, at the individual, relationship and organisational/community levels. Four of the five Big 5 domains were predominantly associated with positive outcomes (i.e. conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and openness), while emotionality was predominantly associated with negative outcomes. These findings suggests that increasing or decreasing domains in the direction associated with positive outcomes may be beneficial.

Some authors have proposed that as the literature has now demonstrated that personality domains are predictive of many life outcomes, it would be useful if future research explored how to change personality in ways that are beneficial to the individual. For example, a four-year study of 8625 Australians (Boyce, Wood & Powdthavee, 2012) found that personality can change over this period of time, and that these changes are both important and meaningful, as personality is the strongest and most consistent predictor of life-satisfaction.

He further proposed that there would be substantial advantages in gaining a better empirical understanding of how personality domains might be beneficially modified.

Cuijpers et al. (2010) suggested that the economic costs of high levels of domain emotionality were substantial in terms of both health care costs and unemployment. They found that individuals who had higher levels of trait emotionality were more vulnerable to a wide range of mental health 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). Their research suggested that in addition to the human costs, high emotionality impacted heavily on the health system. Their analysis suggested 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.

These findings led Cuijpers et al. (2010) to propose that 'we should start thinking about interventions that focus not on each of the specific negative outcomes of neuroticism [emotionality], but rather on the starting point itself' (p.1086). Similarly, in a review of the mechanisms by which personality domains predict consequential outcomes, Hampson (2012) proposed that 'As evidence has mounted for the important role played by personality domains in consequential life outcomes, there is increasing interest in the possibility of using this knowledge to bring about beneficial personality change' (p.333). The findings from these studies suggest that empirical exploration of personality change interventions is both warranted and timely.

It is, therefore, useful to explore the literature around whether personality change appears to be possible, and how that might be achieved. Martin et al. (2012) clarified that, whereas some literature had argued that personality was relatively resistant to change without long-term intensive interventions (e.g. McCrae & Costa, 1994, 2003), findings from more recent literature cast doubt on this assumption.

A number of intervention studies have suggested that personality is amenable to change. Tang et al. (2009) found that greater personality changes occurred in depressed participants in two treatment groups (i.e. anti-depressant medication and cognitive therapy over 16 weeks), compared to a placebo control group, even after recovery from depression was controlled for. This study measured personality using the NEO Five-Factor Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Participants taking anti-depressant medication reported over three times as much change on domain extraversion and over six times as much change on domain emotionality than the control group, even when matched for improvement in depression. Significantly greater change on domain extraversion was also recorded in the cognitive therapy group than the placebo group, after being matched for improvement in depression. These findings suggest that interventions used to treat depression can have an effect on personality (domain level change) separate from its effect on depression (state level change), and that interventions can achieve significant changes in personality domains in as little as 16 weeks.

Similarly, De Fruyt et al. (2006) found that treatment with medication and therapy was associated with a substantial reduction in neuroticism, and minor gains on extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Furthermore, a six-week broad based multimodal outpatient programme for substance abusers achieved significant shifts on all five personality domains , with changes on three domains being maintained 15 months later (i.e. reduced emotionality and increased agreeableness and conscientiousness) (Piedmont, 2001).

A number of studies have explored if interventions can change the personality of individuals not suffering from psychological problems. For example, Nelis et al. (2011)

found that 18 hours of emotional competence training resulted in longer term changes in three of the five Big 5 personality domains. Six months after the emotional competence interventions participants were less emotional and more extraverted and agreeable, with effect size suggesting that such change was meaningful.

A meta-analysis of 16 transcendental meditation studies (Orme-Johnson & Barnes, 2013) found that individuals whose scores on facet anxiety placed them between the 80th and the 100th percentile range achieved significant reductions in facet anxiety (down to between 53rd and 62nd percentile range) from 20 minutes of transcendental meditation twice daily. Furthermore, meaningful benefits were achieved within the initial few weeks, and effects were sustained at three year follow up. Similarly, a 16-week inductive reasoning training programme for older adults increased the domain openness to new experience over the 30-week assessment period (Jackson et al., 2012).

Spence and Grant (2005) assessed the impact of 10 life coaching sessions on Big 5 personality domains (using both peer and professional coaching groups). Personality change was not targeted by the coaching interventions in this study (i.e. it was an incidental measure). Nevertheless, significant change was achieved on two of five domains (i.e. increased extraversion and openness to experience) in the peer coaching group. This study provided some evidence that aspects of personality may be amenable to change through coaching, even when not targeted. Spence and Grant (2007) note, not surprisingly, that constructs that are targeted by coaching interventions are more likely to change than constructs that are not, implying that if personality change is being observed in the absence of targeted efforts, then even greater change is likely to occur if coaching specifically targets such change.

In the above intervention studies that evidenced personality change, participant selected personality change was not specifically targeted. This observation suggested that stronger personality change results may be achievable if: (1) participants consciously choose to change aspects of their personality; (2) they had professional support to do this; and (3) professionals had access to evidence-based resources specifically designed to facilitate participant selected personality change.

Nevertheless, some may argue that what we are seeing in many of these cited studies is state rather than domain based change. This state based explanation is unlikely, as, firstly, personality inventory items typically encapsulate more enduring views of self (e.g. 'I often feel inferior to others'. Secondly, the duration of the change noted in some of these studies was substantial, (e.g. Nelis et al. [2011] was six months, Piedmont [2001] was 30 months and Orme-Johnson and Barnes [2013] was three years). Finally, Tang et al. (2009) found significant domain level change from their interventions, even after controlling for state level change. Hence, in combination the above findings provide support for the concept of personality being amenable to change.

Consistent with this view, Magidson et al. (2012) proposed that personality domains, such as conscientiousness, may be amenable to change through bottom up behavioural interventions, and provided both theoretical discussion of this possibility, and a case study illustrating this approach. Dweck (2008) proposed that beliefs are a major determinant of personality, that beliefs can be changed, and when beliefs change, so too does personality.

Martin et al. (2012) proposed that client selected personality change could be both beneficial and achievable, using resources specifically designed for this purpose. They did, however, emphasise the importance of personality change goals being determined by the client, and internally motivated. Martin et al. (2012) further suggested that the Five-Factor Model of Personality provides a useful model for exploring

personality change, and that working at the more detailed facet level would be more beneficial than working at the broader domain level. They proposed that the NEO PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992), or a reputable proxy, could provide a suitable measure of personality. Whereas they acknowledged that personality change could be explored within either a one to one coaching or counselling/therapy context, they recommended that 'for clients without major psychopathology, personality change interventions may be more consistent with coaching, and a coaching approach may offer certain advantages' (p.189).

Ten coaching sessions were proposed as an appropriate duration over which to initially explore intentional personality change, based on positive outcomes achieved by a number of 10-session coaching studies (Green, Grant & Rynsaardt, 2007; Spence & Grant, 2005, 2007). One-to-one coaching with an appropriately trained professional was recommended, due to: (1) the sensitive personal nature of personality profile material; and (2) the importance of such professionals being well versed in psychometrics and personality, and competent working with emotional distress. Furthermore, Martin et al. (2012) encouraged empirical research to further explore these notions.

To this end, Martin, Oades and Caputi (2014) developed a step-wise process of intentional personality change, drawing on coach training material developed in an earlier phase of their research. The current study is designed to empirically explore whether these resources, applied over 10 sessions of coaching, can facilitate change on participant selected personality facets. It was considered important that the study reflected participant preferences of having the flexibility to choose which facets were targeted, and how many. Therefore, different participants choose different types and numbers of facets. As it was necessary to avoid participants who chose a high number of facets having a disproportionate influence on the results, an average of the targeted facets was calculated for each participant at each data collection time. Reverse scoring was used for facets that clients wished to decrease. This averaged score was then termed average targeted facet score (ATFS)[1], and this became the personality construct explored. For example, if a client chose to increase two facets (e.g. self-discipline and assertiveness), and decrease one facet (e.g. anxiety) then the scores for self-discipline and assertiveness would be added to a reversed score for anxiety, and the total would be divided by three. The result would then be the ATFS for that data collection point. Therefore, it was hypothesised that, firstly, the intervention group will have significantly higher ATFS when compared to the control group, and secondly, that there would be significant increases in ATFS over the coaching period.

Method

Participants

Total participants were 54 adults aged between 18 and 64 years (M=42.18, SD=12.44). Participants consisted of eight males and 46 females without major psychopathology (see procedures for exclusions). Three individuals were excluded prior to the study, due to Axis II disorders. The 54 participants were assigned to the personality coaching group or the waitlist control group using a waitlist control, matched, randomised procedure (personality coaching group, N=27; waitlist control group, N=27). Participants were firstly matched on sex (male/female) and then on age range (18 to 30, 31 to 50, 51+ years). The first author randomly assigned individuals within each group to either the coaching group or the waitlist control group. The participants that withdrew (six in the waitlist group and none in the coaching group) were replaced by individuals matched by age

[1] ATFS=average targeted facet score.

grouping and gender. All waitlist control participants that completed the 10 sessions of coaching completed a personality inventory three months later. One participant from the personality coaching group did not furnish a three month follow up personality inventory, but their data was included in analysis up to end of coaching. The composition of the 54 participants by age and gender is summarised in Table 1.

Experimental design

Table 2 illustrates the study design, including data collection timing for the NEO PI-R and key research stages for the two groups. (Other inventories were completed to assist coaching processes, but changes in these were not measured over time).

Table 1: Age and gender of participants.

Age	Female – Coaching Group	Female – Waitlist Group	Male – Coaching Group	Male – Waitlist Group	Total
18–29	4	4	1	1	10
30–49	10	11	2	2	25
50+	8	8	1	2	19
Total	22	23	4	5	54

Table 2: Experimental design of study and NEO PI-R data collection timing.

PCG data	A					B				C											F										
PCG stages		10 week coaching period									12 week follow-up period																				
WCG data	A									C				D				E												F	
WCG stages		Waitlist period									10 week coaching period										12 week follow-up period										
Week	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32

Note: PCG=personality coaching group. WCG=waitlist control group. A–F indicate data collecting points.

Measures

The 240 item NEO PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992), a well-established personality assessment tool, was used to assess participants personality domains and facets. It includes statements such as 'When I do things, I do them vigorously' (facet activity), 'I often feel tense and jittery' (facet anxiety) and 'I'm not know for my generosity' (facet altruism). Participants responded on a five-point scale (0=strongly disagree, 4=strongly agree). The NEO assesses five broad domains based on the Five-Factor Model of Personality, (i.e. emotionality, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness). These five domains provide a more general description of personality, whilst 30 facets allow for a more detailed analysis.

The NEO PI-R has been validated against a variety of other personality assessment tools, and has a acceptable level of alpha reliabilities (ranging from .56 to .81 for facets and .86 to .92 for domains), and test-retest reliability (between .70 and .80 for most facets and domains) (Piedmont, 1998).

Procedure

Participants were recruited by an article in a local newspaper, an invitation to participate posted on a university website, and word of mouth from existing participants. The only initial eligibility criteria was that respondents be 18 years or older. Subsequently, major psychopathology was excluded by asking those participants who had one or more emotionality facets on the personality inventory (i.e. anxiety, anger, depression, vulnerability, impulsivity or self-conscientiousness) in the very high range to also complete a Millon MCMI-III (Millon, Davis & Millon, 1997), an inventory which assesses for *DSM-IV* diagnoses. Those individuals with Axis II disorders, significant current alcohol and drug abuse, active psychosis or bipolar disorder were excluded from the study, and referred to other services. Participants were then randomly assigned to either the personality coaching group (and completed a 10-week personality coaching programme) or the waitlist control group (and completed a 10-week waiting period, followed by a 10-week personality coaching programme).

Coaching programme

The step-wise process of intentional personality change coaching that provided the coaching programme framework for the current study will be discussed in detail in a separate article (Martin et al., 2014). However, a brief overview of the step-wise process applied is illustrated in Figure 1 (overleaf).

Participants in the coaching programme completed a NEO PI-R directly before coaching commenced, and completed additional NEO PI-Rs at session five (week five), session 10 (week 10) and again three months later (week 22). Participants in the waitlist control group completed a NEO PI-R 10 weeks before coaching commenced, and completed additional NEO PI-Rs directly before session one (week 10), session five (week 15), session 10 (week 20) and again three months later (week 32).

During the first coaching session, participants were provided with their personality profile, which included a description and graphing of five broad domains and 30 facets against population norms, based on the NEO PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The coach facilitated discussion on whether the participant would like to increase or decrease a limited number of facets. This discussion took into account participant values, motivational factors, and consideration of how facets helped or hindered them in everyday life. If the participant chose to increase or decrease one or more facets, they continued in the programme, and changing those facets became the over-riding goal of the coaching. Changes on the NEO PI-R scores on the participant selected facets, in the direction chosen by the client, became the measure of change. A coaching manual provided a structured step-by-step coaching process, and incorporated a unique set of change intervention options for each of the 30 facets. The facet change interventions

Figure 1: A step-wise process of intentional personality change.

Step 1: Assess personality and client values ● Complete personality inventory and develop report. ● Complete values inventory.
Step 2: Discover the current self ● Explore what is positive and problematic in the client's life. ● Review client values questionnaire findings. ● Review personality report.
Step 3: Explore gaps between the current and ideal self ● Clarify client's ideal self. ● Reflect on how current and ideal personality differ. ● Explore what facet changes could help narrow this gap.
Step 4: Choose personality facet change goals ● Shortlist facets targeted for change. ● Review consistency of proposed changes with values.
Step 5: Assess attitudes towards change ● Assess motivation, importance, confidence and timeliness. ● Manage ambivalent attitudes and/or review change goals. ● Finalise list of facets to target for change.
Step 6: Design and implement coaching plan ● Choose change intervention options for targeted facets. ● Develop and implement a coaching plan.
Step 7: Re-assess personality and review progress ● Re-administer personality inventory (session 5). ● Review progress and revise coaching plan (if necessary).
Step 8: Implement remaining coaching sessions ● Implement remaining coaching sessions, incorporating coaching plan revisions.
Step 9: Re-assess, review and maintain ● Re-administer personality inventory (session 10). ● Review progress towards personality change goals. ● Develop a maintenance plan for targeted sub-trait change.
Step 10: Follow-up, review and refinement ● Re-administer personality inventory (three months later). ● Refine maintenence strategies for targeted facet change.

primarily reflected an eclectic mix the following approaches; solution focused coaching, positive psychology, acceptance and commitment principles and cognitive behavioural techniques. Further information on these steps and specific change interventions, how they were developed, a client example, and an extract from the coaching manual are provided in 'A step-wise process of intentional personality change coaching' (Martin et al., 2014).

Coaching was conducted by two registered and seven provisionally registered psychologists who received training in personality coaching by way of: (a) attendance at a one-day workshop; (b) provision of a coach training manual, developed in a previous phase of the research; (c) comple-

tion of a research fidelity checklist after each coaching session; and (d) weekly one-hour one-to-one supervision, which included review of videoed coaching sessions. Training and supervision was provided by: (1) The lead researcher in the study, who also facilitated the development of the stepwise process of personality change. She was a registered psychologist, coach and PhD candidate, with extensive prior experience in training. (2) The Director of the University Psychology Clinic where the coaching took place, who was a Clinical Psychologist, and a Psychology Board of Australia approved supervisor. The majority of the coaches (seven) were Master's level clinical students at a regional Australian university. Four coaches were also PhD candidates. The Master's level clinical students were in their fifth year of full-time training in psychology, and had a minimum of 60 hours of prior face-to-face client contact.

Results

Mixed design analysis comparing waitlist to coaching group on ATFS over 10 weeks

A mixed design analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Group (waitlist versus coaching) as the between subjects factor and Time (week 1 versus week 10) as the within subjects factor indicated a significant main effect for Time, $F(1,51)=13.90$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.21$. There was a significant interaction effect between Group and Time $F(1,51)=11.27$, $p=.001$, $\eta_p^2=.18$. Simple effects were used to analyse the interaction effect. At week 1, there was no significant difference in ATFS between the control group ($M=13.02$, $SD=3.58$) and the coaching group ($M=13.51$, $SD=3.58$), $F(1,51)=.23$, $p=.63$, $\eta_p^2=.005$. At week 10, the coaching group had significantly higher ATFS ($M=17.14$, $SD=4.67$) than the control group ($M=13.21$, $SD=3.34$), $F(1,51)=11.95$, $p=.001$, $\eta_p^2=.19$. There was no significant simple effect for Time for the control group, $F(1,51)=.07$, $p=.79$. There was a significant simple effect for Time for the coaching group, $F(1,51)=24.63$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.33$. A graphical representation of the means for the coaching group and waitlist group at week 1 and week 10 is presented in Figure 2 (overleaf).

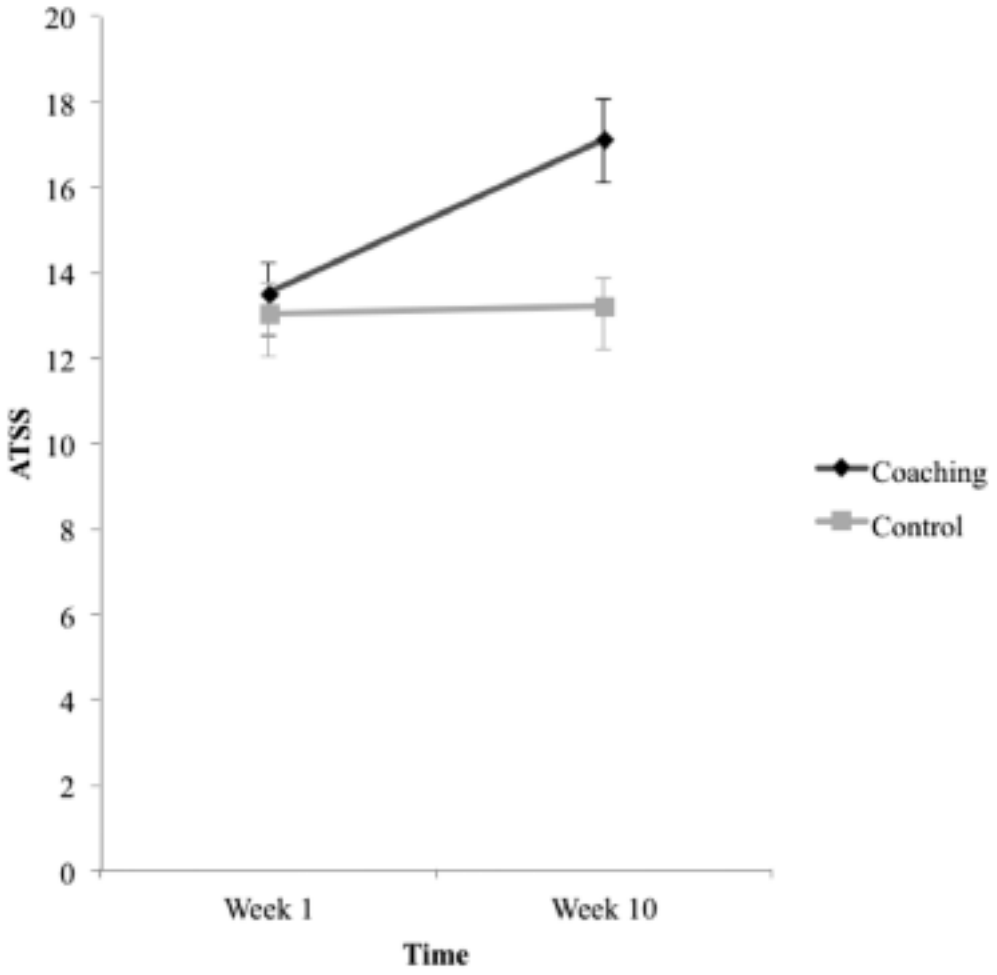
Repeated measures analysis of change in ATFS over time

As the logistics of having participants complete personality inventories part way through a waitlist period were considered impractical, week 5 measures were not taken for the waitlist group. However, measures were taken at week 5 during the coaching period. Consequently, a repeated measures ANOVA was performed in order to provide additional information regarding when change occurred during the coaching period.

Assumption tests revealed no violations of normality; however Mauchly's Test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated. Consequently a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied. The results of the analysis suggested that there was a significant difference in ATFS between time points over the coaching period, $F(1.72,86.2)=36.63$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.42$. Within subject contrasts indicated a significant linear effect for time, $F(1,50)=52.90$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.51$.

In order to determine whether there were significant differences in ATFS between each specific time point during the coaching period, a series of dependent sample t-tests were performed using a Bonferroni adjusted significance level of .016 which was calculated by dividing a significance level of .05 by the number of analyses (3). The results indicated that ATFS was significantly higher at week 5 ($M=15.40$, $SD=3.86$) as compared to week 1 ($M=13.45$, $SD=3.50$), $t(50)=-3.98$, $p<.001$, $r=.49$. It was also found that scores on ATFS were significantly higher at week 10 ($M=17.83$, $SD=4.28$) as compared to week 5 ($M=15.40$, $SD=3.86$), $t(50)=-5.70$, $p<.001$, r=.62. Similarly ATFS was significantly higher at week 10 ($M=17.83$, $SD=4.28$) as compared to week 1($M=13.45$, $SD=3.50$), $t(50)=-7.27$, $p<.001$, $r=.72$.

Figure 2: Average targeted facet score (ATFS) for coaching versus control group over a 10-week coaching period.



A dependent samples *t*-test was used to determine whether there were significant differences between participants' ATFS at the 12-week follow-up as compared to the end of the coaching period (week 10). The results of this analysis suggested that participants scores on targeted personality facets had not significantly declined between week 10 (M=17.72, SD=4.26) and the 12-week follow-up (M=17.79, SD=4.71), $t(49)$=–.25, p=.80. Furthermore, a second dependent samples *t*-test indicated that participants' ATFS scores were significantly higher at the 12-week follow-up when compared to pre-intervention scores, $t(49)$=6.70, p<.001, r=.67.

Influence of age, gender and number of facets targeted

A multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether age, gender and number of facets targeted significantly predicted change in ATFS over the intervention

period. The results suggested that these factors accounted for 3.7 per cent of the variance which was non-significant, R^2=.10, $F(1,49)$=1.65, p=.19. The results of the regression analysis are summarised in Table 3 below.

Discussion

The results support the hypothesis that personality change coaching can facilitate significant change in participant selected facets, in the direction desired by the participant. The significant changes achieved between sessions 1 and 5, and again between session 5 and 10 suggest that meaningful changes occur relatively early in the coaching process, and are further consolidated by additional sessions. The incremental pattern of these changes raises the question of whether further personality change would be achieved by additional sessions of coaching.

The findings of significant change in personality are in contrast with some literature that proposes that personality is relatively resistant to change without long-term intensive interventions (e.g. McCrae & Costa, 1994, 2003). However, the current study's finding are consistent with other literature (predominantly published in the last five years) that suggests that personality is more amenable to change than was previously thought (Boyce et al., 2012; De Fruyt et al., 2006; Dweck, 2008; Jackson et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2012; Nelis et al., 2011; Orme-Johnson & Barnes, 2013; Robinson, 2009; Tang et al., 2009). From a coaching perspective, it provides further support for Spence and Grant's (2005) tentative findings that personality changes may occur during 10 weeks of coaching (even when personality change is not the goal of coaching). The stronger findings in the current study on personality change (relative to Spence and Grant's findings) are likely attributable to personality change being targeted with interventions designed for this purpose (i.e. Spence and Grant only found changes on two of five domains, and with peer coaching only).

The current study's findings provide empirical support for the proposition that targeted personality change coaching can facilitate change on targeted facets, if the participant is motivated to change. It also provides empirical support for the step-wise process of intentional personality change proposes by Martin, Oades and Caputi (2014). In so doing, it affirms the value of a structured coaching process, using resources specifically designed for this purpose.

The finding that gender does not affect personality change outcomes may have been influenced by the small number of men (N=8) participating in the study, and further exploration of this question with larger male samples would be useful. No participants over 65 years enrolled in the study, leaving this age group unexplored. However, in the 18 to 64 years age range enrolled in the study, age did not significantly affect capacity to change. This is encouraging as it suggests that intentional personality change can be achieved by motivated individuals throughout most, if not all, of the adult lifespan.

Table 3: Influence of age, gender and number of facets targeted on change in Averaged Targeted Facet Score (ATFS).

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	*p*
Constant	7.06	3.75		
Number of facets targeted	.68	.39	.24	.09
Age	-.01	.05	–.02	.90
Gender	-2.43	1.63	–.21	.14

The number of facets targeted did not significantly predict change in ATFS. This is somewhat surprising as it might be expected that focusing on just one or two facets over 10 sessions would achieve greater average change on targeted facets than focusing on five or six facets, as each targeted facet would have a greater number of coaching hours available to work on it. For example, targeting just one facet would mean that 10 hours of coaching could be available to facilitate change on it, whereas if five facets were targeted each of these targeted facets would only have two hours, on average, applied to changing them. One possible explanation for this result is that participants who are experiencing greater dissatisfaction with their personality may well target more facets, but may also have more scope for movement on facets targeted. Similarly, individuals who are functioning well may only wish to make minor changes to one or two facets. Hence the beneficial effects of more hours of coaching per facet for participants with less problematic personalities may be offset by a floor/ceiling effect. This ties in with the findings of Orme-Johnson and Barnes (2013) that those individuals with higher levels of anxiety benefitted most from a meditation intervention.

An alternative possibility is that interventions that target one problematic facet may also trigger changes on other problematic facets. For example, if someone is low on self-discipline and high on anxiety, then increasing self-discipline (e.g. through enhancing planning and organisational skills) may in turn reduce anxiety (e.g. through reducing distress around the consequences of procrastination). Similarly, development of certain facet change skills (e.g. challenging unhelpful beliefs and assumptions, and learning to think in a more positive and realistic way) may beneficially affect many facets. For example, cognitive behavioural interventions designed to reduce facet depression may have a beneficial effect on other targeted facets (e.g. anxiety, gregariousness, assertiveness). This possibility is supported by a number of studies that suggests that a range of interventions (not specifically targeting personality change) nevertheless may have wide ranging beneficial impacts on personality (Nelis et al., 2011; Piedmont, 2001; Tang et al., 2009).

The findings of the current study are relevant to the literature in a number of areas. From a coaching perspective, it provides preliminary empirical validation of the step-wise process outlined in Martin, Oades and Caputi (2014) and suggests that structured coaching may be an effective mechanism for facilitating beneficial personality change in motivated individuals. The preliminary validation of coaching as an effective personality change process has significant implications for the coaching profession, as it extends coaching practice and research into a new and potentially exciting arena. It also raises questions about the skills needed to competently undertake this work. Training in personality, psychometrics, and coaching, plus the capacity to work competently with psychological distress, are likely to be important skills.

The findings of this study also raise questions around the circumstances in which personality change interventions are appropriate. It is the authors' opinion that if personality change coaching were to be conducted in the absence of participant motivation to change aspects of their personality, it would likely be ineffectual, and could be ethically problematic. Hence further exploration of, and debate around, how and if personality change coaching fits within an organisational coaching context would be beneficial (e.g. where an organisations may be concerned about problematic personality facets/domains in a staff member).

From the perspective of personality literature, the current study provides further support for the plasticity of personality, and preliminary empirical support for participant selected intentional personality change. The capacity to intentionally change personality has implications from a number of

perspectives. Firstly, the strong relationship between personality and well-being (Boyce et al., 2012) suggests that intentional personality change coaching may potentially also have a significant impact on well-being. Future research directly exploring whether intentional personality change coaching results in changes in well-being would usefully inform both the personality and well-being literature.

Furthermore, the capacity to change personality suggests a host of potential beneficial implications at the individual, interpersonal and organisational/community level. Based on the associations found between personality and consequential outcomes by Ozer and Benet-Martinez (2006), modifying personality could potentially have a beneficial impact on the following: spirituality, physical and mental health, longevity, self-concept and identity at the individual level; peer, family and romantic relationships at the interpersonal level; and a range of occupational and community outcomes. The current research responds to a need, expressed in the literature, to move beyond understanding what the consequential impacts of personality are, to exploring if and how beneficial personality change can be facilitated (e.g. Boyce et al., 2012; Cuijpers et al., 2010; Hampson, 2012).

A number of limitations of the current study should be considered when interpreting the findings. This study is a preliminary investigation, using a relatively small sample size. Strong claims cannot be made on the basis of a single study of this size, suggesting further empirical studies of this nature would be useful. Furthermore, this study is based on just one construct of personality (the Five-Factor Model of Personality), and one measure (i.e. the NEO PI-R self report).

Participants were self-selected, and may not be representative of the general population. Researchers, including the first author, are currently exploring the gender, age and personality of individuals who chose to change their personality, and possible implications for the findings of the current study. For example, participants in the current study were predominantly women, and the possible impact of this on outcomes deserves further attention. Future studies using a more gender balanced sample, or a male only sample, would be useful. Analysis of participant personalities at the commencement of coaching suggested that certain types of personalities chose to change their personality (e.g. those high on openness and emotionality) (Allan, Leeson & Martin, 2014). This may suggest that the findings of this study are relevant to certain groups of individuals, rather than the general population.

Furthermore, assessment of change was limited to self-report inventories with the inherent risks of (e.g. faking good and responses being influenced by the goals of the coaching). Whereas personality ratings by others are informative and desirable in many contexts, it was considered less relevant in the current study. The current study was focused on changing facets consistent with the participant's desire for change, rather than meeting others' perceptions of, or preference for, observable change. Furthermore, it is difficult for others to accurately assess change on some facets (e.g. fantasy, ideas). Nevertheless, this is a significant limitation, and one that would benefit from future studies incorporating additional measures (e.g. informant reports and behavioural assessments). It is further acknowledged that repeated administration of a questionnaire may impact responses.

The current study followed participants for three months after completion of the research; hence longer-term outcomes are not know. Future research of intentional personality change, with longer follow up periods, would further inform the literature. Finally, whereas it is useful to know if personality change was achieved based on inventory scores, the current study does not link these changes to consequential tangible life outcomes. Whereas *associations* between personality measures and a wide range of

consequential outcomes is well established (e.g. Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006), it is unclear whether intentionally changing personality will lead to changes in these outcomes (i.e. at this stage cause and effect is not clear). In combination, these limitations suggest that the current study's findings should be viewed as preliminary. Hence, future studies addressing these limitations would be useful. Researchers, including the first author, are currently exploring participants' experiences of personality coaching, including the tangible life impacts of intentional personality change coaching (Martin et al., in press).

In conclusion, the current study provides preliminary support for the proposition that intentional personality change, facilitated by a structured step-wise coaching process, is possible. As personality is predictive of a wide range of life outcomes, exciting possibilities are evident in the potential of intentionally changing personality. These findings provide a novel and important contribution to literature in the fields of personality, coaching and intentional change. They also inform coaching practitioners, and suggestion new opportunities for coaches with relevant skills. It is hoped that the current study will provide an important foundation for future exploration in this area, and a useful beginning in understanding if intentional personality change is possible, and how it can best be achieved.

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Response

Who wants to change their personality and what do they want to change? A response to Allan, Leeson & Martin

Hugh McCredie

This paper is a response to the assertion by Allan et al. (2014) that personality, as measured by the Big 5 factors, is amenable to change by coaching interventions. It challenges the evidence on which the assertion is made, the robustness of further evidence cited and argues that convincing evidence will only be found in changes to the biological structures underpinning the Big 5 factors and/or their functioning. It questions whether coaching interventions might be more suitably directed at the achievement of personal and/or behavioural objectives.

IN THEIR PAPER 'Who wants to change their personality…' Allan et al. (2014), assert:

> This paper will discuss personality change within a coaching context. Martin, Oades and Caputi (2012) proposed that client motivated intentional personality change interventions could be beneficial.

However, they omit to mention my subsequent challenge to Martin et al. (McCredie, 2013) that the evidence on which they based their proposed causal link between short coaching interventions and personality change was unconvincing. In fact, the authors of the sole source of coaching evidence (Spence & Grant, 2005) cited by Martin et al. commented: 'The current data set does not permit any strong claim to be made about the ability of coaching to influence personality *per se*.'

Allan et al. then proceed to cite as further 'evidence' Martin et al. (2013a and b), both of which are referenced as 'unpublished manuscripts', presumably unavailable for inspection and comment.

There is an established, and still accumulating, body of evidence which relates the Big 5 personality traits to deep-rooted biological mechanisms. In particular, Eysenck (1967) located differences in Neuroticism (aka Emotionality) in the arousability of the autonomic nervous system (ANS, aka visceral-nervous or involuntary-nervous system) which functions mainly unconsciously, and controls visceral functions such as heart rate, digestion and breathing rate. Gray (1971) postulated that such arousability was the result of early conditioning to threat, so that those higher on neuroticism were likely to be more threat-sensitive. If short series of coaching interventions really do change dimensions of personality, it needs to be demonstrated that they have an effect on the structure and/or functioning of the underpinning biological mechanisms. It will not suffice merely to show changed self-report psychometric scores following coaching interventions, as the latter may simply serve to increase a, formerly naïve, client's impression management (i.e. faking) responses. Such possibility is likely to be even greater when the coaching targets 'client-motivated personality change' such as is envisaged by Allan et al.

Until such time as robust peer-reviewed evidence to support the causal link between coaching and personality change has been made publicly available, I suggest that coaching psychologists and their clients would be better served by focussing on the achievement of more behavioural or personal objectives for which there is some

support (e.g. Spence & Grant, 2005). Aside from this, personality scores have only a moderate association with both overall performance and specific behavioural competencies, whilst the latter can be much more strongly predictive of overall effectiveness (McCredie, 2012). So why bother trying to change personality?

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Rejoinder

Who wants to change their personality and what do they want to change? A response to Allan, Leeson & Martin

Jonathan A. Allan, Peter Leeson, Filip De Fruyt & Lesley S. Martin

WE APPRECIATE McCredie's (2014) response to our article. It is very pleasing to see that the question of whether personality change can be achieved via coaching is continuing to generate discussion amongst coaching and personality researchers. Having said this, we would contend that the arguments raised by McCredie do not change the interpretation of our findings. Thus, the following rejoinder will address the three main points that McCredie raised in his response to our recent article. (1) That, considering the moderate findings of Spence and Grant (2005) and that Martin, Oades and Caputi (2014) has yet to be published, there is a lack of evidence for the effectiveness of coaching in producing personality change; (2) That, due to confounding factors associated with self-report measures, change at a biological level needs to be demonstrated in order to prove personality change has occurred; And (3) that personality is only moderately predictive of specific behavioral competencies and overall performance and thus 'why bother?' trying to change it.

Lack of evidence demonstrating efficacy of coaching in producing personality change

We agree that the Spence and Grant article (2005) does not provide strong evidence of the efficacy of coaching in producing personality change when considered in isolation. However, it is important to evaluate this study in the context of our overall argument. There have been multiple studies using different interventions (e.g. therapeutic, drug and training) that have produced significant changes on self-report measures of personality (De Fruyt et al., 2006; Nelis et al., 2011; Piedmont & Ciarrocchi, 1999; Spence & Grant, 2005; Tang et al., 2009). Furthermore, coaching has been found to be an effective intervention for producing targeted change and shares a number of common elements with therapeutic interventions (Cox, Bachkirova & Clutterbuck, 2010; Theeboom, Beersma & Van Vianen, 2014). Consequently, we feel that this evidence, combined with the finding of Spence and Grant, would justify the exploration of the question of whether personality can be changed via coaching. This was explored by Martin, Oades and Caputi (2014) and significant changes in personality were found. The Martin, Oades and Caputi paper has since been submitted to the *International Coaching Psychology Review*. Consequently, we are hopeful that this article will soon be available for review and comment.

Demonstrating change via biological measures

There is indeed a growing body of literature that indicates that personality domains are related to biological mechanisms. However, in order to use changes in biological mechanisms to prove changes in personality a clear understanding of the functional neuroanatomy of personality and how it can be

measured is required. We would argue that at present personality neuroscience has not yet reached this point.

De Young (2010a) posits, in his review of personality neuroscience, that until recently there have been a relatively small number of studies exploring personality's biological basis. He also indicates that there is significant inconsistency in the personality neuroscience literature. He suggests that this may be due to small sample sizes, which increase the possibility of type I and type II errors. Thus we would argue that neuroscience is still in the process of discovering how personality is instantiated in the brain and consequently demonstrating changes in biological mechanisms or structures would not necessarily prove changes in personality.

McCreedie (2014) refers to Eysenck's (1967) theory that neuroticism is related to the arousability of the autonomic nervous system. However, the evidence for this relationship is mixed. For example, Schwebel and Suls (1999) found no evidence for neuroticism influencing cardiovascular reactivity in response to emotional or psychological stressors. In contrast, Reynaud et al. (2012) found that fear induced skin conductance response explained 22.5 per cent of the variance in neuroticism. Reynaud's research, while interesting, still presents a problem if attempting to use fear induced SCR as a measure of personality, because the degree of unexplained variance leaves an unreasonably high chance that change could occur without being detected.

Other research has explored the biological structure of personality via neural imaging techniques. De Young et al. (2010b), using structural magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), found significant associations between the big five and the volume of certain brain regions. For example, Neuroticism was associated with reduced volume in the posterior hippocampus, a brain region that has been linked with the control of anxiety. However, while this research is both important and interesting the authors explicitly state 'our findings do not provide definitive evidence to allow generalisations about the relation of volume to function' (De Young et al., p.826). Thus considering the authors appear tentative about suggesting a definite relationship, it would seem that significantly more research is required before neuro-imaging methods are able to serve as accurate measures of personality.

However, while the evidence suggests that current biological measures are not able to accurately measure personality, McCredie's (2014) point that self-report measures may be subject to bias remains valid (although not unique to this study). Thus, we would like to make clear that this research is a first, and necessary, step in demonstrating the efficacy of coaching in producing personality change, and that we are currently in the process of developing a study which will incorporate observer reports to address limitations associated with self-report measures.

Personality is only moderately predictive of specific behavioural competencies and overall performance and thus 'why bother'?
This comment would be valid if the current article argued that the importance of personality change was that it was associated with specific behavioral competencies and overall performance. However, the argument made in the current article is that personality change would be beneficial as personality is associated with broader benefits. That is, personality is predictive of physical health, mental health, relationship satisfaction, happiness, life satisfaction, work satisfaction and work performance (Barrick & Mount 1991; Malouff, Thorsteinsson & Schutte, 2005; Malouff et al., 2010; Ploubidis & Grundy, 2009; Steel et al., 2008; Thoreson et al., 2003). We feel that if there is the possibility that an intervention can have a positive impact on these important and varied life domains, then it is certainly worth the bother.

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Report

Special Group in Coaching Psychology News

Sarah Corrie

THE PERIOD since last I wrote has been a busy one for the SGCP on many levels. At the forefront of my mind are the preparations for our annual conference in December. This event not only celebrates 10 years of the SGCP but is also the 4th International Congress of Coaching Psychology. Entitled 'Changing Lives, Changing Worlds – Inspiring Collaborations', it is an event that we hope really will inspire collaborations, between both individuals and professional communities, for the benefit of all concerned. To ensure that the content lives up to the challenge of this suitably ambitious Congress theme, the Scientific Board is organising a highly diverse range of streams that guarantee relevance and value, as well as the opportunity to connect with colleagues working in similar areas. A taste of what is planned includes:

- Positive and Coaching Psychology: Stress, Resilience, Health and Well-being.
- Leadership, Business and Executive Coaching Psychology.
- Individual Development and Coaching Psychology.
- Sport, Performance and Coaching Psychology.
- Coaching Psychology and Mental Health: Promoting Psychological Well-Being Through Coaching Psychology Interventions.
- Psychometric Tools and their Application to Coaching Psychology

The International Congress enables us to celebrate what has been achieved, and learn more about the difference that our exciting and innovative field can make to all areas of life and work. However, it is also important strategically. Whilst undoubtedly gaining

gravitas, coaching psychology is arguably yet to have achieved the recognition it deserves from all branches of applied psychology. The International Congress provides a vital vehicle through which we can demonstrate both the distinctive features of coaching psychology and its relevance to our colleagues across the member networks as well as more broadly. So please show your support by attending and promote it widely amongst your colleagues within and beyond the Society. For more information visit our conference website at http://sgcp.eu. There will also be frequent updates on Twitter (#SGCPconf14), LinkedIn and Facebook.

The title of our congress has led me to reflect upon what it actually means to 'inspire collaborations'. It would seem that this is a timely topic, at least based on my own experiences over the last few months. In April, I was invited to attend the Northern Ireland Branch's Annual Conference where there is a keen group of coaching psychologists hoping to discover how to gain the most from their SGCP membership. Work in this

area is being led by Alison Clarke, a NIBPS committee member and member of SGCP. There is a strong desire to build a coaching psychology community in Ireland and this growing interest was reflected in the decision to have a distinct coaching psychology stream as part of the full conference programme. I was invited to promote the SGCP as a guest speaker which gave me the opportunity to describe the benefits of SGCP membership, share our vision for the future of coaching psychology and learn more about the work of our colleagues.

A further invitation that 'inspired collaboration' came from the International Coach Federation where I delivered a workshop for their one day professional development event in May. This event, entitled 'Transformation: To Boldly Go…', was intended to celebrate International Coaching Week by creating a full-day international event focusing on ways in which coaching could be transformative, both for those receiving and those delivering coaching interventions. During the Vice President's opening address, the SGCP was mentioned by name as a very welcome guest, a reminder that the wider coaching community wishes to link with us and recognises the SGCP as distinct in its contribution.

These invitations are not only pleasing but also important. Strategically, whilst retaining a firm sense of identity as a branch of applied psychology, the spirit of inclusivity that underpins both the values and the activities of coaching psychology means that we will always see active engagement with a wide variety of organisations as part of our remit.

Certainly, our ability to create links has worked well in terms of recruitment to the SGCP committee. Our last call for nominations proved very successful. Within the Executive Committee, it is a pleasure to be working with so many new members who bring fresh energy and perspectives to the aims and objectives of the SGCP. Ensuring continuity is a challenge for a transient work force, and we always welcome expressions of interest. If you think you might be in a position to join the SGCP committee please do get in touch or come and talk to us at the International Congress in December.

There are, of course, many ways in which you can support your member network. One of these is to consider joining or establishing a Peer Practice Group. We currently have eight active groups throughout the UK and the SGCP committee remains extremely grateful to the work of our dedicated hosts, who take the time to run (typically) four to five quality events per year for their members. At this time, however, we would like to focus the spotlight on two of our newer groups who are looking for members. The first in Lewes, East Sussex, is hosted by Esmoreit Sleyster, and the second, in Worcester, has just been launched by Tony Fusco. Please visit the website to find out more about the groups and contact the respective hosts and if you are interested in taking part do get in touch via the website contact form.

A further way of supporting the SGCP, whilst accessing quality professional development, is to ensure that you attend our events programme. The event in April, Steve Killick's, 'What's the story? Using Metaphor and Stories in Therapy, Counselling and Coaching' was very well attended, as was July's event where David Somerville and Debra Winterson delivered an event entitled, 'Changing the Effects of Procrastination, Self-Sabotage and Disorganisation on Solo/Small Business Owners'. Gurcharn Dhillon, also Honorary Secretary of the SGCP, will be delivering a professional practice workshop on a Solution-Focused approach in October. Please also remember that we welcome proposals for fresh topics and if you would like to deliver an event for the SGCP, we would be delighted to hear from you. (You can find details of how to put forward a proposal by visiting http://www.sgcp.org.uk/sgcp/events/proposal-for-an-event.cfm). This is not only a means of sharing your work and engaging with like-minded colleagues but also a way in which we can capture the range of applica-

tions of coaching psychology to all areas of life and work.

At the AGM in December, I shall be passing the role of Chair to Dasha Grajfoner, who has been Chair Elect for the past two years. During this time, we have established a close working relationship and I am looking forward to continuing that relationship from the position of Past Chair. We shall be calling for nominations for a Chair Elect in due course. In the meantime, I hope that you will welcome her to the role as warmly as you have welcomed me. In a former professional life, I was a classical ballet dancer where it was well-recognised that one should never feel too confident about taking on a new role. Any role worth accepting challenges, stretches and develops the role-bearer and so, arguably, will always be approached with a degree of anxiety as well as feelings of excitement. In the performing arts this is understood as not only inevitable but also necessary if you are to do the role justice. So I know that Dasha will be experiencing a range of emotions as she steps into the role in December and will appreciate your support and a very warm welcome!

As this is my last Chair's report for *ICPR*, this is also my opportunity to express my sincere thanks to my colleagues on the committee and at the British Psychological Society who have supported me during my tenure. If asked to explain what 'inspiring collaborations' conjures up for me, it would have to be the commitment, diligence, creativity and vision of those talented individuals who, over the last two years, have joined me around the board room table, and participated in email dialogues and teleconferences too numerous to count. This has been a chapter of my life that has inspired me on many levels, allowed for some incredible learning, and opened up connections that I hope will endure for years to come. The role of Chair has been a privilege and has enriched my life and career in ways I could never have imagined. To all of you, I thank you.

There is still much to do to ensure that coaching psychology claims its place amongst the other, longer-established psychological disciplines. At the same time it is rightly attracting an increasing amount of public and professional interest. In December we come together to celebrate this and think about the next chapter of how we can unite to 'change lives and change worlds'. Join us.

With all good wishes.

Sarah Corrie
Chair, Special Group in Coaching Psychology.

Report

Interest Group in Coaching Psychology News

Nic Eddy

4th International Congress on Coaching Psychology
Melbourne, 13–15 November 2014

'Coaching excellence in practice'

THE UNDERLYING STRUCTURE to the Congress programme reflects the strategy of the National Committee of contributing to improving the standards of coaching practice in Australia by offering insight into and access to best practice coaching psychology research and practice.

Congress participants. Who do we hope will attend?

Those coaches, psychologists and non-psychologist alike, who have a professional approach to their coaching practice – who naturally aspire to 4th quartile performance on behalf of their clients – who intrinsically understand the importance of continuing professional development as a crucial discipline.

There is an important second group we need to reach if we are to be effective in contributing positively to coaching standards. These are the HR professionals and executives responsible for purchasing and evaluating coaching programmes in both the private and public sectors. Those seeking to identify factors that influence coaching programme effectiveness and hence how they assess coaching providers.

The Congress is an opportunity to influence the purchasing behaviour of clients so that the marketplace pushes coaches towards best practice coaching.

Congress programme design

Each keynote, workshop and panel will contribute to exploring the contribution of psychology through an underlying competency framework reflecting the four major stages of a coaching assignment:

- Determining client needs
- Design
- Implementation
- Evaluation of outcome.

And we will do this by exploring this contribution in different coaching applications or streams:

- Leadership
- Performance
- Well-being
- What constitutes coaching excellence in practice?
- Determining client needs and evaluating outcome – from the client's perspective.

I encourage you to explore the programme and register at:
www.groups.psychology.org.au/events/CPIGconference2014

I look forward to meeting you in Melbourne in November!

Additional professional development activities

In addition to State Committee-organised local PD events, we have also conducted two national road shows with attention to smaller (by membership) States with events hosted in Adelaide, Brisbane, Canberra and Perth. Thanks to the generous and engaging work by Donna Karlin and Dr Sunny Stout-Roston.

Pro bono

In 2013, the IGCP NSW Committee developed and delivered a pro bono coaching programme for the not-for-profit organisation, Relationships Australia.

Forty IGCP members offered to participate significantly exceeding the programme demand for 25 coaches. The coaching programme had pre- and post-measures as part of its design: results are currently being analysed.

Qualitative feedback from the management team at Relationships Australia has been positive to the extent that they are seeking a national rollout of the programme. A second not-for-profit organisation has also approached IGCP to discuss the possibilities of a similar programme.

I would like to acknowledge the work by our NSW Committee and in particularly by Michelle de Vries Robbé in undertaking this pilot programme. It has been an excellent example of the contribution of evidence-based psychology.

Once again, I look forward to seeing you in Melbourne in November.

Cheers.

Nic Eddy
National Convener
Interest Group on Coaching Psychology
Australian Psychological Society
Email: niced@bigpond.net.au

THE YARRA RIVER, MELBOURNE

Coaching Psychology Interest Group

APS Australian Psychological Society

4th International Congress on Coaching Psychology

Melbourne
13-15 November 2014

Coaching Excellence
in practice

This conference will explore the essential contribution of psychology to best practice coaching, in terms of the compounding benefits to the client through the four major stages of the coaching process: determining client needs, design, implementation and evaluating outcomes.

Our mix of keynote speakers, workshops and panels will provide delegates with stimulating ideas and practical techniques to improve their coaching practice.

Keynotes include Dr Sven Hansen on resilience; Prof David Lane on strengths; Prof Sharon Parker on pro-active behaviour 'helping people to make things happen'; Prof Alex Haslam on leadership.

Major subject streams

- Leadership
- Performance
- Wellbeing
- What constitutes coaching excellence in practice?
- Determining client needs and evaluating outcomes

16 workshops exploring our subject streams including - a panel on purchasers' view on the pros and cons of the contribution of coaching in leadership development; enablers and blockers to proactivity at work; neuro research and implications on leadership decision making; strengths based approach to skills and performance coaching; coaching 'alpha executives' – and many more.

Who should attend?

Coaches (psychologists and non-psychologists alike) aspiring to best practice; and **HR professionals**/purchasers of coaching.

For program details and to register, see

www.groups.psychology.org.au/events/CPIGconference2014

We look forward to meeting you in Melbourne in November!

International Coaching Psychology Review – Volume index 2014

Volume 9, No. 1, March 2014

Volume 9, No. 2, September 2014

The British
Psychological Society
Special Group in
Coaching Psychology

4th International Congress of Coaching Psychology 2014

Changing Lives, Changing Worlds – Inspiring Collaborations

11-12 December 2014, Holiday Inn London Bloomsbury

The Congress is the culmination of a series of events to celebrate the 10th Anniversary of the British Psychological Society's Special Group in Coaching Psychology. There will be two days of impressive speakers, exciting and new topics and a broad range of masterclasses, skills workshops and scientific papers covering the following themes:

- **Coaching Psychology: An international perspective, sponsored by ISCP**
- **Leadership, Business and Executive Coaching Psychology, sponsored by Meyler Campbell**
- **Coaching Psychology and Mental Health: Promoting psychological well-being through coaching psychology interventions**
- **Coachee satisfaction and beyond: Working with coaching relationships that matter**
- **Emerging conversations**
- **Individual development and coaching psychology**
- **Positive and Coaching Psychology: Stress, resilience, health and well,being, sponsored by ISMA**
- **Psychometric tools and their application to coaching psychology**
- **Sport, performance and coaching psychology**

Our mission is to inspire individuals, organisations and communities to engage and collaborate with the wider world of people, practice, learning and research.

We have an impressive line-up of speakers who are delivering new and exciting topics to share ideas for transforming lives and worlds in the broadest sense to include: Dr Tatiana Bachkirova, Professor Sarah Corrie, Dr Vicky Ellam-Dyson, Professor Sandy Gordon, Dr Kristina Gyllensten, Dr Sophia Jowett, Dr Almuth McDowall, Dr Alanna O'Broin, Dr Siobhain O'Riordan, Professor Stephen Palmer, Dr Celine Rojon, Ole Michael Spaten, Professor Reinhard Stelter, Mr Dave Tee, Professor Mary Watts and Donna Willis.

Fees (inclusive of VAT)

2 Day – SGCP member	**£396**	1 Day – SGCP member	**£144**
2 Day – BPS member	**£420**	1 Day – BPS member	**£150**
2 Day – Non member	**£444**	1 Day – Non member	**£156**
2 Day – Student Rate	**£306**	1 Day – Student Rate	**£84**

(2 day fees include one nights accommodation at the Holiday Inn and the conference dinner)

This event is being administered by KC Jones conference&events Ltd, 01332 227775

For further information on the Congress please visit: **www.sgcp.eu**

4. Online submission process

(1) All manuscripts must be submitted to a Co-ordinating Editor by email to:
Stephen Palmer (UK): s.palmer-1@city.ac.uk
Sandy Gordon (Australia): sandy.gordon@uwa.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 email for correction of typesetting but not for rewriting or the introduction of new material. Corrections at this stage in production due to errors made by an author may incur a fee payable by the author or their institution.

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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9 771750 276007 02
ISSN 1750-2764