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Interest Group in Coaching Psychology

The British Psychological Society

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Continued on inside back cover.

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Highlighting the Psychology in Coaching

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Editorial: To be or not to be Registered? Is that now the question for coaching psychologists?

Stephen Palmer & Michael Cavanagh

IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (UK), from the 1 July 2009, the Health Professions Council (HPC) started to regulate practitioner psychologists and protected the following specific titles:

- Clinical psychologist;
- Counselling psychologist;
- Educational psychologist;
- Forensic psychologist;
- Health psychologist;
- Occupational psychologist;
- Sport and exercise psychologist.

In addition it regulates and protects two generic titles:

- Practitioner psychologist;
- Registered psychologist.

This was history in the making for psychology practice and its statutory regulation in the UK. Effectively from now on the HPC has become responsible for protecting the public by keeping a Register of practitioner psychologists who have to meet its standards for training, professional skills and behaviour (see HPC, 2009a). A survey[1] undertaken on behalf of the HPC found that, *'95 per cent of the UK public would feel more reassured knowing that practitioner psychologists will be statutorily regulated'* (HPC, 2009b). So at least the 'UK public' or to be more precise, 95 per cent of the 1137 survey participants, can now be reassured as the profession is now regulated. However, if the register is to protect the public, especially the vulnerable, why is the title 'child psychologist' not included? It's a question many have asked. Or another alternative is just to protect the title, 'Psychologist'.

The progress of this statutory regulation of psychologists has not been straight forward. Many psychologists approved of the idea of going on a statutory psychological register but have been less keen to be registered on what is seen as a health professions register. Is this register applicable to occupational psychologists? At a cursory glance through the booklets that registered psychologists have been sent since R-day (Registration Day) it becomes clear to see how the documents relate to the health professions such as chiropodists, physiotherapists, paramedics and so on. For example, the public will be pleased to hear that psychologists including occupational psychologists (HPC, 2008, p.13) 'must not refuse to treat someone just because they have an infection … you should protect your service users from infecting one another.' Currently in the UK if a coachee informs me (SP) that they have Swine Flu, I'm not prepared to see them although happy to use telephone coaching if they feel up to it. Of course, psychologists will be flexible and interpret the generic 14 standards of conduct, performance and ethics (HPC, 2008) to the best of their ability and apply them to their field of practice. Fortunately it is recognised that some of the standards might not directly apply to all the registrants (see HPC, 2008, p.4).

The first registration fees are due on 1 September 2009 so psychologists may reflect upon what action to take. If an occupational psychologist decides to voluntarily deregister then what would be the impact upon their practice:

[1] The consumer research for the HPC was carried out online by Tickbox.net/Opinion Matters between 9 June and 11 June 2009 amongst a nationally representative sample of 1137 adults aged 16+.

- Can still use the title 'Psychologist'? Yes.
- Can still use the title 'Business psychologist'? Yes.
- Can still practice as a psychologist in private practice? Yes.
- Can still practice as a 'Coaching Psychologist'? Yes.
- Can still use the term 'Chartered Psychologist'? Yes.

Therefore, as long as occupational psychologists do not use the protected title then the impact seems relatively low unless their employer or service purchaser expects registration. However, many psychological service purchasers such as banks or insurance companies may not see any benefit of occupational psychologists being on a health register. This is in contrast to a clinical, health or counselling psychologist working within the National Health Service or for a private health provider as employers will expect psychologists to use the protected titles. For this group of psychologists, registration is almost essential where as being Chartered maybe less relevant. The coaching psychologist title is not protected and currently anybody can use it, whether they are a psychologist or not.

Going back in time, there was some resistance within parts of the British Psychological Society to allow the Special Group in Coaching Psychology to become a Division. If this had happened it would probably have led to chartership of coaching psychologists and automatic transfer to the HPC Register.

What next? If the UK coaching psychology movement really wanted to become an HPC Registered profession then theoretically it could still happen. Coaching psychologists would need to consider the pros and cons of a statutory health registration system and whether or not it is the best fit for coaching psychology. Perhaps a separate non-statutory register would be better, similar to the Society's Register of Psychologists Specialising in Psychotherapy as long as graduate psychologists could work towards being placed on the register. Fortunately the Society's Special Group in Coaching Psychology has not closed the door on the various options and we can look forward to hearing more about their deliberations later this year.

One hypothetical concern – within a couple of years it is proposed that the professional titles 'counsellor' and 'psychotherapist' will become regulated by the HPC. If the title 'coaching psychologist' is also regulated in the future, it could have unintended consequences. For example, why not regulate the title of 'coach' too? It could seem a logical progression from one viewpoint. It tidies up the talking-helping professions. It is not necessarily a logical development from the practitioner's perspective to have all the talking-helping professions from psychotherapy and psychology to counselling and coaching regulated under one health professions register umbrella. While this may sound unlikely, one can never be sure of the long-term impact of decisions taken and their subsequent outcomes. One supportive argument in favour of such registration could be that according to the research, coaches do work with populations that have mental health issues even if the work is not focused on these issues or disorders (see Cavanagh, 2005).

It will be very interesting over the next decade to see how the accreditation and regulation of coaching psychologists and coaches develops in Australia, UK and beyond[2]. We hope that ICPR will keep us up-to-date with any of these developments around the world in coaching psychology. And so, from professional issues to this issue of the journal …

This edition has a diverse range of articles for your reading pleasure. We begin with two empirical studies. In the first of these, John Franklin and Justin Doran present the findings of a double-blind randomised con-

[2] The section on the regulation of psychologists in the UK has been a personal reflection of SP and does not necessarily represent the views of any professional body.

trolled study into the impacts of co-coaching on objective performance in tertiary studies. Franklin and Doran looked at the efficacy of two different coaching conditions aimed at improving performance on a range of self-reported variables and objective performance as rated by blind raters. This is the first double-blind study in the coaching literature and such studies are sorely needed. We hope to receive many more double-blind studies in the years ahead!

Jonathan Passmore and Susan McGoldrick present the results of a qualitative study into supervision using the grounded theory approach. They examined transcripts from one supervision session and interviews with three supervisors and three coaches in monthly or quarterly supervision. While their sample size is small they do point to some important considerations in supervision – not least of which is the importance of supervisor training.

Barbara Moyes carries on the discussion about supervision in a very interesting and stimulating paper. She examines the way in which supervision is constructed in the coaching literature and beyond. In particular she considers the impact of therapeutic models of supervision on coaching supervision. Like Passmore and McGoldrick, Moyes' article highlights the importance of articulated models of supervision. Clearly there is much work for the burgeoning coaching profession to do in this area.

Andrew Armatas opens up an area of practice in coaching that may be seen as somewhat controversial – the use of hypnosis in coaching. Hypnosis is a topic that tends to arouse debate in psychology generally. This may well be the case in coaching too. Is the use of altered states of consciousness incompatible with the coaching process as it is commonly understood? Is hypnosis a valid intervention in its own right, or merely an adjunct to other interventions? Armatas' consideration of the State/Non-state debate in hypnosis provides a valuable contribution in the overall debate about hypnosis in coaching and is well worth a read.

Alanna O'Broin and Stephen Palmer have offered an interesting article looking at the coaching relationship from the Cognitive Behavioural perspective. They note that the empathy and the role of the coach-coachee alliance is an under-researched topic in cognitive behavioural approaches. The bulk of work on the client-helper alliance has been conducted in the therapeutic literature and O'Broin and Palmer call for more work on this within coaching. As they outline, this is an important topic that holds promise for a more sophisticated understanding of what makes coaching effective and how we may move practice forward in the future.

David Lane and Sarah Corrie have written an article that highlights an important area of practice in coaching – formulation. This has been a neglected topic in the formation of the coaching industry, and even today most coaches have little understanding of formulation or case conceptualisation. Despite this, formulation is at the heart of professional practice. Lane and Corrie present a model for the development of formulations that can be used within a wide range of theoretical approaches. This has the potential to be a valuable contribution to coaching practice.

This issue of the *ICPR* finishes with theoretical and philosophical examination of coaching and coaching psychology by Reinhard Stelter. Reinhard places the coaching in a philosophical historical and social context. He suggests that coaching fits the needs of our highly diverse and restless post-traditional societies with their emphasis on personal development in both the private and social spheres. Stelter argues that values, meaning making and dialogue should be considered as forming foundational elements in coaching. In this we see an example of how coaching is extending its understanding beyond simple goal attainment or performance enhancement to a more sophisticated and holistic model of change.

We commend the articles in this issue for your consideration and look forward to

seeing you in December at the 2nd European Coaching Psychology Conference which is being held at The Royal Holloway, University of London.

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Does all coaching enhance objective performance independently evaluated by blind assessors? The importance of the coaching model and content

John Franklin & Justin Doran

Objectives: *Despite increasing evidence supportive of the effectiveness of coaching there are no studies which demonstrate that the benefits flow on to improvements in objective performance as assessed by evaluators blind to participation in the coaching. This study examined the efficacy of two coaching programmes on independently assessed performance.*

Design: *A double-blind random control trial in which participants were randomly allocated to either a Preparation, Action, Adaptive Learning (PAAL), or a self-regulation co-coaching programme with blind assessment of subsequent academic performance. A third no-treatment condition was used for additional comparison and control of expectancy effects.*

Methods: *Two structurally identical seven-week co-coaching programmes were run. The Self-regulation condition focused on the development of study and coping skills, whilst the PAAL condition additionally focused on preparation for change and adaptive learning. Fifty-two volunteer first-year university students were randomly assigned to either a PAAL (N=27) or Self-regulation (N=25) co-coaching programme. Participants completed self-report pre- and post-measures of academic self-efficacy, decisional balance, resilience, hope, self-compassion and belief in the incremental theory of change. Academic results for the two coaching conditions were compared with 2103 first-year students who did not participate in the programme.*

Results: *Participants in both coaching conditions reported significant improvements in self-efficacy and resilience, but only those in the PAAL condition experienced significant increases in decisional balance, hope, self-compassion and belief in the incremental theory of change. Participants in the PAAL condition experienced significantly greater increases in six of the seven dependent variables than participants in the Self-regulation condition. Relative to the no treatment control group, PAAL participants performed 10 per cent better in independently assessed academic performance (71.45 per cent vs. 61.59 per cent) (p=.0003, d=.61), however, those in the Self-regulation coaching condition only performed two per cent better (63.32 per cent vs. 61.59 per cent) (p=.604, d=.11). Across all the dependent variables the average effect size for the PAAL condition was d=.93, while the Self-regulation condition averaged d=.43.*

Conclusion: *Both co-coaching conditions produced significant increases in self-efficacy and resilience, however, only those in the PAAL condition performed significantly better on decisional balance, hope, self-compassion, the incremental theory of change, and independently assessed academic performance. To ensure generalisation, future evaluation studies of coaching should seek to also evaluate variables which are theoretically related to the change process as well as independently assessed objective changes in performance.*

THE CONTINUING POPULARITY of coaching is more a tribute to its face validity than its evidential base. The last decade has witnessed an explosion of interest in coaching and many valuable contributions to its theoretical base (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2007; Stober & Grant, 2006). The evaluative literature has moved from the anecdotal to the scientific, with uncontrolled case studies slowly giving way to more controlled studies. Despite this trend towards the use of stronger designs, the number of studies which meet the normal standards expected of other areas of psychology and science is still relatively small (Passmore & Gibbes, 2007). A recent review of the literature identified only eight experimental studies, of which five involved random assignment to either a coaching or a control condition (Grief, 2007). None of these studies involved objective outcome measures assessed by people blind to the participants being involved in a coaching study. This study seeks to address this deficiency by utilising a double-blind design in which the participants were blind to the precise coaching condition to which they were assigned, and the assessors were blind to the participants' involvement in any trial.

In the space of little more than a decade coaching has expanded from executive and life coaching to embrace such diverse application areas as leadership (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2009), pharmacy (Brook et al., 2005), literacy (Bean et al., 2006; Toll, 2007), education (Poglinco et al., 2003) and health (Butterworth et al., 2006). Over this period a great deal of effort has gone into developing the theory base of coaching (Stober & Grant, 2006). Much of this theorising has involved the application of orientations and approaches derived from therapy, positive psychology, counseling and education. Examples of such developments include Cognitive Behavioural Coaching (Ducharme, 2004), Lazarus's Multimodal Therapy (Richard, 1999), positive psychology (Kauffman & Linley, 2007), problem solving (Richard, 2003), emotional intelligence (Blattner & Bacigalupo, 2007), motivational interviewing (Butterworth et al., 2006), feedback (Gregory, Levy & Jeffers, 2008) and mentor coaching (Onchwari & Keengwe, 2008). Other approaches have drawn on organisational psychology such as team coaching (Hackman & Wageman, 2005) or attempted to develop integrated models of developmental coaching (Laske, 1999) or executive coaching (Passmore, 2007). Despite this very considerable effort, coaching has still not evolved either a unique theory of its practice or a unified theory which links it to other change modalities whilst differentiating its uniqueness.

Early research into coaching was characterised by either anecdotal observations or case studies, usually with little control. Whilst these studies represent the normal beginnings of any new area of practice, confidence in the generalisability of the claimed results requires the use of designs allowing greater control and the exclusion of alternative explanations for any changes which may be detected. The need for such research has been prominent in a number of recent reviews of coaching practice (Bennett, 2006; Kilburg, 2004). Despite the very considerable difficulties inherent in conducting controlled evaluation studies (Stober, 2005), a number of impressive studies have been published and recently reviewed by Greif (2007). These stronger studies combined with an increasingly number of uncontrolled but still valuable studies are generally consistent in finding coaching to be effective in a variety of ways (Kombarakaran et al., 2008). Despite this apparent consistency, a number of studies have yielded minimal or negative results, at least for some forms of coaching, suggesting that we should not uncritically assume all forms of coaching are beneficial, let alone produce acceptable returns on investment (Bowles & Picano, 2006; Green, Oades & Grant, 2005; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005; Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004).

To date only five studies have been published which involve random assignment to one or more coaching conditions (Greif, 2007), however, only the studies by Willms

(2004), Green, Oades and Grant (2005), Spence and Grant (2005) and Finn, Mason and Griffin (2006) incorporated non-treatment control conditions. One design limitation of all of these studies is that they depend very heavily on self-report measures, which by their very nature lack the objectivity of assessments conducted by independent observers. For coaching to be really valuable it needs to make a significant difference to some aspect of observable performance which is clearly apparent to independent observers. The only study utilising such an external assessment was that of Sue-Chan and Latham (2004), which although lacking a no treatment condition involved assessment of the participants' academic performance by a member of staff who 'was blind to the coaching condition to which the managers had been randomly assigned' (p.272). This study revealed that participants who were either coached externally or self-coached achieved higher marks in the subject in which the coaching was nested than those who were coached by a peer. Valuable as this is, it is important to determine if the effects of coaching generalise to other areas of performance outside the specific area on which coaching was focused. The present study is the first to incorporate not only random assignment but also independent assessment of other areas of performance assessed by people completely blind to participation in any coaching programme.

Understanding the process by which coaching works is as important as determining if the effects generalise to external areas of observable behavioural change. Most coaching programmes focus on goal setting, problem solving and the development of self-regulation skills. Franklin (2009) has recently proposed a unified model of change motivation and self-development which has implications for the coaching process. This Preparation, Action and Adaptive Learning (PAAL) Model proposes that a person must first be motivated to engage in self-directed actions from which they may learn to develop adaptive ways of meeting their needs. The motivation for such action is held to arise from the person answering the questions why, what and how they need to change in order to better meet their objectives and needs in an adaptive manner. The PAAL model of self-directed personal growth proposes that a number of underlying processes may facilitate this motivation to develop adaptive responses to the changing demands of life. This study focuses on six processes which are identified by the model to facilitate the effectiveness of coaching: self-efficacy, decisional balance, hope, implicit theories of change, self-compassion and resilience.

Generalised *self-efficacy* is one of the most researched topics in psychology and strong evidence links it to work place performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) and a wide variety of positive life outcomes (Bandura, 1997; Bandura & Locke, 2003; Schunck & Pajares, 2001; Schwarzer & Scholz, 2000). Together with self-worth, self-efficacy is generally seen as one of the two core components of self esteem (Locke, McClear & Knight, 1996), and this latter concept has repeatedly been associated with many positive personal and social outcomes (Mruk, 2006). In a recent meta-analysis of 109 studies of the predictors of academic performance, academic self efficacy was found to be the strongest predictor, followed by academic skills and achievement goals (Robbins et al., 2004).

The Transtheoretical Model of Change was proposed by Prochaska and DiClemente in an attempt to explain the pattern of change, lapse, relapse and recovery often observed in attempting to overcome addictive behaviours (Prochaska, Johnson & Lee, 1998). Its appeal has seen it extended to a wide variety of behaviour change and has been promoted by Grant as a core concept in coaching (Grant, 2006). Central to the model is the assertion that in order for clients to progress from the precontemplation, contemplation or preparation stage to the action stage, they must resolve their ambivalence regarding the costs and benefits

of change. The role that this *decisional balance* plays in motivating students to learn study skills has been confirmed by Grant and Franklin (2007), and is thus a good indicator of the resolution of any ambivalence and academic engagement and commitment resulting from participation in an academic coaching programme.

Hope has been defined by Snyder, Irvine and Anderson (1991, p.287) as 'a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful: (1) agency (goal directed energy); and (2) pathways (planning to meet goals)'. Extensive research over nearly two decades has demonstrated that hope is positively related to job performance and problem solving (Peterson & Byron, 2008), self-efficacy, optimism and well-being (Magaletta & Oliver, 1999), academic grades (Ciarrochi, Heaven & Davies, 2007), sporting achievement (Curry et al., 1997), leadership (Peterson & Luthans, 2003), and health (Snyder, 2000). Hope has also been found to be positively related to the emotional state of joy, and negatively related to the emotional states of hostility and sadness (Ciarrochi, Heaven & Davies, 2007). Given the mediating effect that positive emotions play in creativity, problem solving and the generation of supportive social networks (Fredrickson, 2009), it is not surprising that hope is strongly related to a variety of positive outcomes. The agency component of hope is also conceptually very closely linked to goal self-efficacy, which as indicated above, is very powerfully related to positive life outcomes.

The concept of a *growth mindset* (termed an incremental implicit person theory) was first proposed by Dweck (2006) and refers to the belief which is often implicitly rather than explicitly held, that people are able to change such key aspects of themselves as their personal functioning and intelligence. Studies have shown that those who hold an implicit growth rather than a fixed mindset of their employees are more accurate in their performance appraisals (Heslin, Latham & VandeWalle, 2005) and are more likely to initiate employee coaching (Heslin, VandeWalle & Latham, 2006). An incremental growth mindset has also been linked to more sustained motivation, academic success and a wide range of other adaptive responses (Dweck, 2000, 2006). The PAAL model proposes that the presence of a growth mindset is critical to change motivation and subsequent adaptive learning.

Self-esteem has been linked to many positive personal and social outcomes (Mruk, 2006). Because the self-worth component of self-esteem is frequently linked to volatile social comparisons, expectations and performance, self-esteem has recently been criticised as a problematic concept (Baumeister et al., 2003; Crocker & Park, 2004; Twenge, 2006). One response to self-esteem being based on frequently negative social comparisons and internalised self-judgments has been the development of the concept of *self-compassion*, which has been promoted as a fundamentally more compassionate and powerful predictor of effective coping with adversity and good mental health. Originally proposed by Neff (2003), self-compassion is conceptualised to entail self-kindness, common humanity (perceiving one's experience as part of the larger human experience) and mindfulness. Research has subsequently linked Self-compassion with mastery goals, reduced fear of failure, enhanced perceived competence and emotional focused coping strategies (Neff, Hsieh & Dejitterat, 2005). In a study of reactions to unpleasant events Leary et al. (2007) found self-compassion buffered people against negative events in everyday life, moderated negative emotions to ambivalent feedback, and led people to acknowledge their role in negative events without feeling overwhelmed with negative emotions. Although research into the relationship between self-compassion and work performance is in its infancy (Lilius et al., 2008), it has stimulated considerable research and represents a promising concept for coaching.

Resilience and the closely related concept of hardiness reflects the capacity of individ-

uals to respond adaptively to change and the capacity to bounce back from hardship, loss, illness and adversity (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Resilience has been linked to many indicators of positive functioning (Beasley, Thompson & Davidson, 2003; Carver, 1998; King et al., 1998) and thus may be expected to both facilitate adaptive functioning and hopefully itself be a by product of effective coaching. The concepts of resilience, hope, an implicit growth mindset, and self-compassion were assessed in the present study to determine the effect of coaching on these internal processes, and to determine their relationship to the externally assessed objective gold standard of academic performance.

The current study

The transition to university has long been recognised as stressful with research confirming negative effects on health, interpersonal relations, academic performance and retention (Burns, 1991; Robbins et al., 2004). Numerous theories have been proposed to account for these difficulties and a variety of interventions have been developed to assist with the transition, the most common of which focus on the teaching of study skills (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002) and coping skills (Steinhardt & Dolbier, 2008). Two meta-analyses of the effects of psychosocial and study skills on student learning and academic performance have recently been conducted which both review the theory and research over the last three decades (Hattie, Biggs & Purdie, 1996; Robbins et al., 2004). Drawing on these results, a comprehensive study and coping skills co-coaching programme was constructed which was set within either a conventional self-regulation framework, or the PAAL motivational and adaptive learning framework outlined above, and delivered to a cohort of first-year university students. The advantage of evaluating coaching in this context is that universities have a very well developed and finely graduated method of independently assessing performance. Such objective fine grained independent evaluation is very difficult to achieve in other settings. The hypotheses evaluated were that: 1. Both the Self-regulation and the PAAL coaching programmes would produce significant improvements in academic self-efficacy, decisional balance, hope and resilience, but that the PAAL programme would produce significantly greater changes. 2. Only the PAAL programme would produce significant changes in a growth mindset and in self-compassion. 3. That both coaching conditions would produce significant increases in the externally assessed academic performance, but the PAAL condition would produce significantly greater changes in academic performance.

Method

Participants

Participants were 52 first-year university students (21 male and 31 female) from a metropolitan university in Sydney, Australia. Participants were recruited on a voluntarily basis though lecture announcements and pamphlets to participate in a free co-coaching programme titled 'Successology 101'. The participants were aged between 17 and 56 years (M=24.44, SD=8.90). Seventy-one per cent of the participants reported English as their first language.

Measures

Academic performance

The average mark was chosen as the measure of academic performance as it offered results on a 0 to 100 scale as opposed to reliance on less sensitive grade point averages (GPA). Each participant's academic performance was measured by calculating the sum of their total grades for each subject, and then dividing this total by the number of subjects they completed, to produce an average mark.

Self-Efficacy Scale (SES)

The four-item SES was developed as a measure of self-efficacy in relation to academic tasks. The four items referred to improving grade point average, passing exams, completing homework assignments

and understanding the key concepts in the course. The development of the scale and its acceptable psychometric properties has been described in Grant and Franklin (2007). In this application, the 10-point scale ranged from 0='No confidence at all' to 100='completely confident'. The SES is scored by summing the items and dividing the total by four to produce an average self-efficacy score in the range 0 to 100.

Decision Rating Scale (DRS).

The 16-item DRS was developed by Grant and Franklin (2007) as a measure of commitment to overcome ambivalence and learn to improve study skills. The DRS consisting of eight positively phrased items (e.g. 'If I could improve they way I study I would feel less stressed and anxious') and eight negatively phrased items (e.g. 'I have too many other things to do than to try to spend time trying to change and improve the way I study'). Participants responded to the DRS on a seven-point scale ranging from 1='strongly disagree' to 7='strongly agree'. The negatively phrased items were reverse coded and the sum of all the items is calculated to present a total decision balance score with a range of 16 to 112. High scores indicate a decision to resolve ambivalence and take action, whilst low scores indicate a disinclination to take action to improve study skills. The scale demonstrates adequate psychometric properties and has been reported in Grant and Franklin (2007).

State Hope Scale (SHS)

The six-item SHS (Snyder et al., 1996) was used as a measure of state hope. The SHS consists of two subscales: the three-item Pathway subscale (e.g. 'If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it'), and the three-item Agency subscale (e.g. 'At the present time I am energetically pursuing my goals'). Participants respond to the SHS on an eight-point scale ranging from 1='Definitely False' to 8='Definitely True'. The SHS is scored by summing the items of each subscale to produce a total pathways score, and a total agency score. All of the items are summed to produce a total SHS score.

The SHS has been demonstrated to have adequate reliability, with Snyder et al. (1996) reporting Cronbach alphas ranging from .82 to .95 for the SHS, from .83 to .95 for the agency items, and from .74 to .93 for the pathways items. Snyder et al., report that the SHS has strong convergent validity with the Dispositional Hope Scale (r=.79, p<.001). With respect to discriminate validity, when controlling for the shared variance between state and dispositional thinking, the SHS has been found to reliably predict daily appraisals of thoughts and events (Snyder et al., 1996).

Implicit Self-Theory Scale (Growth vs. Fixed mind-set)

A seven-item version of the Implicit Theories of Intelligence and Personality Scale-Self Form for Adults (TIS-SFFA; Dweck, 1999) was used to measure participants self-theory of intelligence and change. The TIS-SFFA consists of two subscales: the four-item intelligence subscale (e.g. 'You have a certain amount of intelligence, and you can't really do much to change it'), and the three-item personality subscale (e.g. 'Your personality is part of you and you can't change it very much'). Participants responded to the TIS-SFFA on a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1='Strongly Agree' to 6='Strongly Disagree'. The TIS-SFFA is scored by summing the totals of each subscale to produce a total implicit intelligence subscale score and a total personality subscale score. High scores indicate a malleable or incremental attitude (Growth Mind-set), and low scores indicate a fixed attitude (Fixed Mind-set). In this study the total of both subscales was use for analysis.

The validity and reliability of the TIS-SFFA has not been reported. However, using a three-item version of the TIS-SFFA, Dweck, Chiu and Hong (1995) reported high internal reliability (α ranged from .94 to .98) and high test-retest reliability (r=.80) over a

two-week period. In relation to validity, Dweck et al. (1995) reported that on the same three-item measure, disagreement with an entity-theory statement represented agreement with the incremental theory. In relation to discriminate theory, Dweck et al. (1995) reported that the three-item measure was unrelated to measures of self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1967; β=0.39, *ns*), and cognitive ability (SAT scores, β=–11.03, *ns*). It has also been found that entity theorists perceive academic success to be as of equal importance as do incremental theorists (Hong et al., 1999). This suggests that any relation between implicit theory of intelligence and academic success is unlikely to be due to differential value placed on academic success. In sum, although the reliability and validity of the personality subscale has not been reported, it is likely that the implicit intelligence items of the TIS-SFFA are a reliable and valid measure.

Self-Compassion

The 26-item Self-Compassion Scale (SCS; Neff, 2003) was used to measure self-compassion. The SCS consists of six subscales: the five-item self-kindness subscale (e.g. 'I try to be understanding and patient towards those aspects of my personality I don't like'), the five-item self-judgment subscale (e.g. 'When I see aspects of myself that I don't like, I get myself down'), the four-item common humanity subscale (e.g. 'When I feel inadequate in some way, I try to remember that feelings of inadequacy are shared by most people'), the four-item isolation subscale (e.g. 'When I fail at something that's important to me I tend to feel alone in my failure'), the four-item mindfulness subscale (e.g. 'When something upsets me I try to keep my emotions in balance'), and the four-item over-identification subscale (e.g. 'When I fail at something I get carried away with my feelings'). Participants responded to the SCS on a five-point scale ranging from 1='Almost Never' to 5='Almost Always'. The SCS is scored by reverse coding the negative subscale's (self-judgment, isolation, and over-identification), summing the mean totals for each of the subscales, and finally summing the mean of this total, to produce a total SCS score. To enable comparisons between the subscales the total scores were each divided by the number of items in each subscale to produce an average in the range 1 to 5.

The SCS has been found to have high internal consistency in a sample of college students, with Neff (2003) reporting Cronbach alphas ranging from .77 to .89 for each of the subscales, and .92 for the overall SCS. Neff has reported a test-retest reliability of .93 over a three-week interval. The SCS has been demonstrated to have strong discriminate validity. Neff reports that whilst self-esteem scales, such as the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, have a significant positive correlation with the Narcissistic Personality Inventory, the SCS has been found to have a non-significant negative correlation with narcissism (r=–.08, p=.23), when controlling for the variance due to self-esteem.

Resilience

The 33-item Resilience Scale for Adults (RSA; Friborg et al., 2005) was used to measure resilience. The RSA consists of six subscales: the six-item perception of self subscale (e.g. 'When something unforeseen happens'), the four-item perception of future subscale (e.g. 'My plans for the future are'), the four-item structured style subscale (e.g. 'I am at my best when'), the six-item social competence subscale (e.g. 'I enjoy being'), the six-item family cohesion subscale (e.g. 'My family's understanding of what is important in life'), and the seven-item social resources scale (e.g. 'I can discuss personal issues with'). Participants responded on a five-point semantic differential scale, in which each item had a positive and a negative attribute at the end of each continuum. The RSA is scored by summing the means of the six subscales to produce a total resilience score.

The RSA has been demonstrated to have high internal consistency with Friborg et al.

(2005) reporting Cronbach alphas ranging from .76 to .87 for all factors. The RSA has been demonstrated to have strong convergent validity with all of the resilience factors being intercorrelated (ranging from r=0.31 to 0.57), except for structured style which was uncorrelated with social competence (r=0.08; Friborg et al., 2005). Using the Five-Factor Model (McCrae & Costa, 1997) to discriminate between well adjusted and more vulnerable personality types, all of the RSA factors have been found to be positively correlated with the well-adjusted personality profile (Friborg et al., 2005).

Materials

All participants were provided with a co-coaching study and coping skills workbook. This workbook set the coaching within a self-regulation framework and covered the following areas: Making the transition to university, goal setting, time management, study skills, note taking, reading and comprehension, exam preparation and managing stress and anxiety. The workbook included a wide range of quizzes and assessment devices to identify strengths and weaknesses, together with planning and self-monitoring forms. The content of the programme drew heavily on the work of Cottrell (2003) and Paulk, and Owens (2005). Participants were asked to form into pairs and meet together at least once each week for the seven weeks leading up to the exam period. They were encouraged to each set three goals and focus on coaching each other to develop, implement and monitor the plans necessary to achieve these mastery goals within a self-regulatory coaching framework.

Participants in the PAAL condition were provided with additional material derived from the PAAL model of change motivation and adaptive learning. This assisted participants to clarify their current skill set, identify their ultimate objective, undertake a cost-benefit analysis concerning the achievement of this objective, identify and remove any barriers to change (including establishing a growth mindset and developing self-compassion), identify the skills necessary for success, and finally understand how these skills translated into goals which could be progressively developed via adaptive learning within a co-coaching self-regulatory framework. Identical training was provided on the process of co-coaching within a self-regulatory framework to participants in both coaching conditions.

Design and procedure

Participants (N=52) were randomly assigned to either the Self-regulation condition (N=25) or the PAAL condition (N=27) (the slightly unequal numbers arose from participants not necessarily being able to attend on the day in which the other condition was run). A no treatment control condition was formed from students attending university for the first time who did not participate in either of the coaching programmes (N=2103). Analysis of academic marks was conducted on the full sample of 52, however, with respect to the six process variables, analysis was restricted to those who attended all sessions and completed all pre and post measures. Due to the very large numbers involved in the no treatment control group, collection of pre post data on the six process variables listed above was only possible from participants in the two coaching conditions.

Participants were advised that there were two coaching conditions, but were blind to the condition to which they were assigned, and the differences between conditions. A questionnaire seeking demographic information and the above scales was emailed to all participants to be completed before attending the first session. The first two sessions were conducted as workshops (total contact time equalled nine hours) and commenced in week seven of the 13 week first semester. During weeks nine to 13 of the semester participants were requested to meet weekly in pairs to coach each other in the development of the skills necessary to achieve the three goals they had identified for themselves. At the conclusion of the programme, participants completed the same

battery of measures completed at the commencement of the programme. The programme was approved by the university Human Ethics Committee.

Results

Preliminary Analysis

In view of the exploratory nature of the study and the small number of participants, an alpha level of .05 was set for significance, and .1 to signify a trend for all main effects, unless otherwise stated. Analysis of the demographic characteristics revealed no significant differences between participants in the conditions, thus confirming the effectiveness of the randomisation.

Preliminary inspections of the data revealed three statistical outliers arising from students failing due to non-attendance or late withdraw from their units. Due to the small sample size involved in the study, it was decided that the inclusion of these outliers in any analysis involving average mark would lead to misleading results. Accordingly, they were excluded from the analysis involving average mark, but were retained for all other analysis. Additionally, marks for any second year subjects or higher were excluded. One participant in the PAAL condition only sat subjects higher than first year and was thus excluded from any analysis involving average mark. The same policy was adopted with respect to those students in the no treatment control condition who failed due to non-attendance or late withdraw, or who had completed subjects higher than first year.

The results for each of the seven dependent measures under the two coaching conditions are shown in Table 1.

Hypothesis 1

H1 stated that both the Self-regulation and the PAAL coaching programmes would produce significant improvements in self-efficacy, decisional balance, hope and resilience, but that the PAAL programme would produce significantly greater changes.

To test H1 a two-way ANOVA with repeated measures was conducted for each of the dependent variables, with time as the within subjects variable and condition as the between subjects variable. Pairwise t-tests were run on the changes over time for each of the two conditions.

Analysis of the main effect of condition revealed that participants in the PAAL condition did not differ in their *self-efficacy* from participants in the self-regulation condition, $F(1,33)=1.47$, $p=.235$, averaged across time. The main effect of time revealed that participants self-efficacy at T2 was greater than participants self-efficacy at T1, $F(1,33)=66.61$, $p<.0005$. The interaction between time and condition was non-significant, $F(1,33)=1.54$, $p=.224$.

Pairwise comparisons revealed that participants in the PAAL condition reported significantly higher self-efficacy at T2 than at T1 ($t[33]=6.22$, $p<.0003$, $d=1.21$). The effect of time was also significant in the self-regulation condition with participants at T2 recording higher self-efficacy than at T1 ($t[33]=5.29$, $p<.0003$ $d=1.08$). These results indicate that as hypothesised, both conditions led to significant increases in self-efficacy, but contrary to predictions there was no difference in self-efficacy between the two coaching conditions at the completion of the programme.

Analysis of the main effect of condition revealed that participants in the PAAL condition did not differ in their *decisional balance* from participants in the self-regulation condition, $F(1,34)=.02$, $p=.896$, averaged across time. The main effect of time revealed that participants readiness for change at T2 was greater than participants decisional balance at T1, $F(1,34)=17.54$, $p<.0005$. This main effect was qualified by a significant time by condition interaction, $F(1,34)=4.65$, $p=.038$.

Pairwise comparisons revealed that participants in the PAAL condition reported significantly higher decisional balance at T2 than at T1 ($t[34]=4.26$, $p<.0003$, d=1.24). In the self-regulation condition the effect of time was non-significant ($t[34]=1.52$, $p=.062$, $d=.48$). The results do not support the hypothesis that both conditions would lead to

Table 1: Changes in dependent variables over time by coaching condition.

	Pre-coaching		*Post-coaching*		*Significance*	*Effect Size (d)*
	Mean	*S.D.*	*Mean*	*S.D.*		
SELF-EFFICACY						
Self-regulation	62.55	12.55	76.10	9.23	<.0003	1.08
Preparation, Action & Adaptive Learning	64.20	15.23	82.60	7.22	<.0003	1.21
DECISIONAL BALANCE						
Self-regulation	97.65	5.38	100.25	8.66	NS	.48
Preparation, Action & Adaptive Learning	95.13	6.57	103.25	4.61	<.0003	1.24
RESILIENCE						
Self-regulation	120.89	11.85	128.00	12.37	<.018	.60
Preparation, Action & Adaptive Learning	116.31	17.70	128.31	18.18	<.001	.68
HOPE						
Self-regulation	33.10	5.45	34.80	6.79	NS	.31
Preparation, Action & Adaptive Learning	31.38	8.15	36.38	6.77	<.0005	.61
SELF-COMPASSION						
Self-regulation	2.94	0.43	3.03	0.44	NS	.21
Preparation, Action & Adaptive Learning	2.57	0.58	2.99	0.82	<.004	.72
GROWTH MIND-SET						
Self-regulation	16.75	4.64	17.65	3.90	NS	.19
Preparation, Action & Adaptive Learning	15.58	3.83	21.31	2.94	<.0003	1.42
ACADEMIC MARK						
Self-regulation	–	–	63.32	10.23	NS	.11[1]
Preparation, Action & Adaptive Learning	–	–	71.45	11.35	<.004	.77[2] .61[3]
No Treatment control	–	–	61.59	16.24		

N.B. Effect Sizes: Small=.2, Medium=.5, Large=.8

[1] Self-regulation vs. No treatment control

[2] PAAL vs. Self-regulation

[3] PAAL vs. No treatment control

an increase in decisional balance as this only occurred in the PAAL coaching condition.

Analysis of the main effect of condition on the *total hope scores* revealed that participants in the two conditions did not differ significantly, averaged across time (F[1,34]=.00, p=.971). The effect of time reveals that participants total hope at T2 was significantly greater than their hope at T1, averaged across condition (F[1, 34]=12.26, p=.001).

A trend was found for the interaction between time and condition (F[1,34]=2.98, p=.094). Pairwise comparisons revealed that participants in the PAAL condition reported significantly higher levels of hope at T2 compared with T1 (t[34]=3.51, p=.0005, d=.61). The effect of time was not significant for the Self-regulation condition (t[34]=1.33, p=.095, d=.31).

The results thus suggested that contrary to predictions, only participants in the PAAL condition increased their total hope scores at the completion of the programme.

Analysis of the main effect of condition on the *total resilience scores* revealed that participants in the PAAL condition (M=122.31, SD=16.11) and the self-regulation condition (M=124.48, SD=10.33) did not significantly differ (F[1,33]=.23, p=.639), averaged across time. The main effect of time revealed that participants total resilience at T2 (M=128.16) was greater than their total resilience at T1 (M=118.60) (F[1,33]=15.81, p<.0005), averaged over condition. The interaction between time and condition was non-significant (F[1,33]=1.04, p=.316). Pairwise comparisons revealed that participants in both conditions significantly increased in resilience. Participants in the PAAL condition reported significantly higher levels of resilience at T2 compared with T1 (t[33]=3.39, p=.001, d=.68). The effect of time was also significant for the Self-regulation condition (t[33]=2.19, p=.018, d=.60).

The results indicate that both conditions produced significant increases in resilience, but that there was no difference between the conditions in the size of the effect.

Hypothesis 2

H2 stated that only the PAAL programme would produce significant changes in growth mindset and in self-compassion. As in H1, a two-way ANOVA with repeated measures was conducted for each of the dependent variables, with time as the within subjects variable and condition as the between subjects variable. Pairwise t-tests were run on the changes over time for each of the two conditions.

The main effect of condition revealed that participants in the PAAL condition did not differ significantly in their belief in the *incremental theory of change* (i.e. a growth mindset) from participants in the Self-regulation condition (F[1,34]=1.45, p=.237), averaged over time. The main effect of time revealed that participants belief in the incremental theory of change at T2 was greater than at T1, averaged across condition, F(1,34)=25.52, p<.0005. This main effect was qualified by a significant time by condition interaction (F[1,34]=13.08, p=.001). Pairwise comparisons revealed that participants in the PAAL condition reported significantly greater belief in the incremental theory of change at T2 than at T1 (t[34]=5.81, p<.0003, d=1.42). In the Self-regulation condition there was no significant effect of time (t[34]=1.08, p=.145, d=.19).

As hypothesised, participants in the PAAL condition increased their belief in the *incremental theory of change* (growth mind-set) from T1 to T2, whilst no significant change occurred amongst participants in the Self-regulation condition.

The main effect of condition revealed that participants in the two conditions did not differ significantly in their *total self-compassion* scores, (F[1,32]=.1.46, p=.235), averaged across time. The main effect of time indicated that the total self-compassion scores at T2 was significantly greater than the total self-compassion scores at T1, (F[1,32])=6.46, p=.016), averaged across condition.

A trend was found for the interaction between time and condition (F[1,32]=2.74,

p=.108). Pairwise comparisons revealed that participants in the PAAL condition reported significantly higher levels of self-compassion at T2 than at T1 (t[32]=2.88, p=.004, d=.72). The effect of time was not significant for the Self-regulation condition (t[32]=.64, p=.263, d=.21). The Self-regulation condition was however significantly higher on self-compassion than the PAAL condition at T1 (t[(32]=2.17, p=.019). Analysis indicated that the null result for the Self-regulation condition was unlikely to be due to a ceiling effect limiting the upper end of participants' scores.

Analysis of the results supported the hypothesis that only participants in the PAAL condition increased their levels of self-compassion after coaching.

Hypothesis 3

H3 stated that at the end of first semester participants in the PAAL condition would achieve significantly higher academic performance than participants in the Self-regulation condition, who in turn would achieve significantly higher academic performance than participants in the no treatment baseline condition.

Before analysing the academic results it was first necessary to examine whether any demographic characteristics were significantly related to average mark. Partial correlations were conducted comparing demographic factors with average mark, and controlling any effect of condition. The results revealed a significant positive relationship between average mark and gender, r=.35, p=.05. with females achieving higher academic marks. Since there was no difference in the proportion of females in the various treatment conditions no correction was necessary to allow for this correlation.

To test H3, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted, with condition as the between subjects variable and average mark as the dependent variable. As expected, a significant main effect for condition was found (F[2,2148]=4.360, p=.012). Subsequent pairwise analysis revealed that H3 was partially confirmed. Consistent with expectation, the PAAL condition achieved a significantly higher average mark (M=71.45, SD=11.35) than the average mark of the no treatment control group (M=61.59, SD=16.24), (t[2125]=2.91, p=0.002, d=.61). Participants in the PAAL condition achieved a higher average mark than participants in the Self-regulation condition (M=63.32, SD=10.23), t(47)=1.74, p=.041, d=.77. Contrary to expectations, participants in the Self-regulation condition did not achieve a higher average mark than that achieved by the no treatment control group (t[2127]=.53, p=.298, d=.11).

Analysis of variables related to academic performance

Partial correlations were conducted between the six dependent variables and average mark, controlling for the effect of condition. With respect to resilience, total resilience was positively correlated with average mark, r=.33, p=.04. The following resilience subscales were found to be either significantly or at the level of a trend related to academic performance: social resources, r=.40, p=.02; structured style, r=.26, p=.09, and family cohesion, r=.26, p=.09.

With respect to self-compassion, the common humanity subscale was significantly correlated with average mark, r=.34, p=.04, as was the mindfulness subscale, r=.30, p=.06, however, only a trend was found between total self-compassion and average mark, r=.26, p=.08. An increase in decisional balance was significantly positively correlated with average mark, r=.31, p=.04

No other factors were found to be significantly correlated with average mark. To test whether any of these factors predicted average mark, two multiple linear regression analyses were conducted on all factors significant at the .05 and .1 level, respectively. No variables were found to have made a significant contribution beyond that of the coaching condition.

Discussion

This study was undertaken to evaluate the extent to which the effects of participating in a co-coaching programme generalised beyond self-report measures to independently assessed objective performance, in this case performance in university exams and assessments. Although both conditions were structurally identical in terms of the number and duration of sessions, they had somewhat different content and very different outcomes. The Self-regulation condition which focused on study and coping skills only had a significant effect on increasing academic self-efficacy and resilience, with a small overall effect size across the seven dependent measures of .43. In contrast, the PAAL condition was associated with significant increases in all the dependent variables, including academic performance, and produced a large overall effect size of .93. These somewhat surprising results are worthy of examination.

Both conditions were labouring under a number of disadvantages with respect to achieving significant differences or large effects. The small numbers in each condition militated against significance and made it difficult to detect effects. Similarly, since both co-coaching programmes only began in week seven of a 13-week semester, they could only influence academic work submitted in the second half of the semester. In view of this, it is surprising that those in the PAAL condition achieved an academic mark almost 10 per cent higher than those in the no treatment control group. Under these constraints, an effect size of .61 is impressive. The Self-regulation condition clearly also worked as it produced an effect size with respect to resilience and self-efficacy which was not significantly less than that of the PAAL condition. The surprise was that it did not produce a significant effect with respect to hope, even though this scale directly measures the very skills which are at the heart of the self-regulation condition. This result may in part be explained by the greater sensitivity of the resilience scale, which contains 33 items, where as the Hope scale only contains six items.

With respect to self-compassion and belief in the incremental theory of change, the PAAL condition was at a very considerable advantage as these concepts were expressly targeted in this coaching condition. Accordingly, it comes as no surprise that the PAAL coaching programme produced highly significant increases in both self-compassion and endorsement of the incremental theory of change. The effect size with respect to the later was 1.42, which represents an extremely large effect. All the other effect sizes were in the range .61 to 1.24, and were moderate or large in size. The possible effects of these changes on academic performance and their origin within the PAAL model of coaching warrant some attention.

The PAAL model of change and self-development differs from the traditional model of coaching in strategically focusing attention on the readiness of the client to undertake those actions which will lead to the achievement of their goals and ultimate objective. Particular attention is directed to identifying and resolving barriers to change, chief amongst them being the belief that one can grow their intelligence (the analogy is often made to exercise developing a muscle) and change their behaviour through strategically targeted effort. In a series of studies, Dweck and colleagues has found that belief in a growth mindset is associated with heightened motivation, sustained effort and a greater capacity to recover from failure and discouragement (Blackwell, Trzesniewski & Dweck, 2007; Dweck, 2006). The PAAL model also directly targets barriers relating to categorical thinking, self-acceptance, self-criticism, self-worth and perfectionism, and seeks to identify and resolve any additional idiosyncratic factors which may represent an impediment to change, personal growth and academic achievement. This focus on issues beyond the study and coping skills covered in the Self-regulation condition may account for the greater efficacy of the PAAL coaching condition.

The results of this study have many implications for future research and practice. The results clearly demonstrate that a relatively simple low cost coaching intervention can have very significant effects on both the functioning of students and their eventual academic performance. This is consistent with earlier well controlled coaching research by Green, Oades and Grant (2005), Spence and Grant (2005), Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) and Willms (2004), and is further evidence of the very considerable return on investment which may be derived from coaching. It is also worth noting that the effect on externally assessed academic performance achieved in the present study is greater than the average effect size of interventions designed to promote student learning evaluated by Hattie (2009) in his meta-analysis of over 500 outcome studies. It is prudent to remember however that whilst both co-coaching methods examined had a significant effect on self-efficacy and resilience, only in the PAAL condition did the effect generalise to an improvement in externally evaluated performance. The present result needs to be replicated and extended with larger numbers and evaluated over a longer time period to determine if the benefits are enduring. It also needs to evaluate a much broader range of other process variables in an attempt to better understand the processes underlying change. Variables which may be useful in this regard include procrastination, self-regulation, pro-activity, change readiness, core self-evaluation (Judge & Hurst, 2008) and deep, achieving and surface learning strategies (Grant & Franklin, 2007). Measures of compliance would strengthen the design, as would controlling for prior academic performance. Finally, it is important for the results of future research to be reported not just in terms of significance, but in terms of the now universally preferred measure of effect sizes. Not only will this overcome many of the acknowledged limitations of significance testing (Thalheimer & Cook, 2002), but as the evidence base of coaching grows it will facilitate comparisons and eventual meta-analyses.

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Super-vision, extra-vision or blind faith? A grounded theory study of the efficacy of coaching supervision

Jonathan Passmore & Susan McGoldrick

Objectives: *Coaching supervision has become the dominant model of reflective practice in the UK. This study sought to explore coach and supervisor perceptions of supervision, and critically observe supervision practice.*

Design: *The study utilised an observational design and semi-structured interviews.*

Methods: *The study involved an observation of a coaching session, which was filmed, followed by interviews with the participants. This data was transcribed. In the second part of the study a series of semi-structured interviews were undertaken with coaches and supervisors. The data was transcribed and analysed using Grounded Theory methodology until saturation was achieved. The transcribed data was combined in the development of a theoretical framework for coaching supervision.*

Results: *The study outlines a number of perceived benefits of the coaching supervision process. These outcomes include: raised awareness, coaching confidence, perseverance, sense of belonging, increased professionalism and the development of an 'internal supervisor'. The research also highlighted the need for a greater understanding of what coaching supervision involves for coaches.*

Conclusions: *The paper questions the dominant mindset that supervision is the only intervention for reflective practice and argues for multiple models of continuous professional development, alongside calling for further research to identify the benefits from alternative model of CPD within coaching.*

Keywords: *coaching, coaching supervision, reflective practice, grounded theory study, efficacy of supervision.*

COACHING is fast gaining popularity and credibility and the coaching sector as a whole continues to experience significant growth. A recent estimate put this at $2 billion worldwide (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006). Given this figure the UK coaching market may be estimated to be worth approximately £150 million per annum, although such estimates are extremely difficult to substantiate given the diversity of coaching practice, and with the growth of in-house coaching. The reality is that coaching has moved from a niche to a core personal development activity within the UK and US. This growth has been supported by a growth in the number of coaching professional bodies such as the British Psychological Society's SGCP, which have acted as catalysts, stimulating research and bringing together professionals to share knowledge. This has been matched by a growth in coach training provision, from short courses over a few days or a week to the more recent development of longer accredited courses, and full-time Masters programmes. Alongside this growth in coaching practice, there has been a growth in the advocacy for coaching supervision (Hawkins & Smith, 2006; Hawkins & Schwenk, 2006). This has been largely supported by the emerging professional bodies, such as Association for Coaching (AC), European Coaching & Mentoring Council (EMCC) and Association for Professional Executive Coaches & Supervisors (APECS). It has been argued that supervision is an important part of maintaining professional standards. Such calls have, however, been made largely without reference to any clear evidence that supervision contributes to enhanced coaching practice.

Coaching has turned to counselling practice for ideas. The models which have been discussed (Hawkins & Smith, 2006; Hawkins, 2006; Carroll; 2006) have their roots in the counselling and social work professional practice (Hawkins, P. & Shohet, 1989; Inskipp & Proctor, 1995). Are these models appropriate to the work of business coaches? More importantly is supervision the most effective model to manage the challenges and continuous professional development of the coaching practitioner? In light of this, there is a need to review the efficacy of coaching supervision.

What is supervision?

The word 'supervision' has many meanings. In common terms it means 'to oversee and direct' (*Oxford Dictionary*, 2008). However, there is more to supervision than merely overseeing another's work. Some writers talk about 'Super-vision' (Houston, 1995), while others refer to the term 'Extra-vision' (Inskipp & Proctor, 1995) in the context of nursing, social work and therapy, implying that such support and guidance is outside of the line management relationship. Carroll notes that while the term 'super' in the word 'supervision' can imply that supervisors monitor supervisees from a superior position, in practice this should not be the case (Carroll, 1996).

Supervision in coaching

In therapy and the helping professions, supervision is the dominant model for reflective practice. This contrasts with much of management practice where a hierarchical model of management has been dominant, supplemented, more recently, with 360 degree appraisal and competency frameworks.

Practitioners, while arguing in favour of supervision, have also tried to define the concept within coaching. Bluckert (2005) argues:

> *'Supervision sessions are a place for the coach to reflect on the work they are undertaking, with another more experienced coach. It has the dual purpose of supporting the continued learning and development of the coach, as well as giving a degree of protection to the person being coached.'*

Other writers, such as Backkirova et al., suggest:

> *'Coaching Supervision is a formal process of professional support, which ensures continuing development of the coach and effectiveness of his/her coaching practice through interactive reflection, interpretative evaluation and the sharing of expertise.'* (Bachkirova, Stevens & Willis, 2005)

The growth of coaching supervision in practice

The volume of coaching practice, and by implication the number of coaching practitioners, has grown rapidly over the past decade. Following this there has been a growth in the advocacy for coaching supervision within the UK.

Downey noted in 2003 that very few coaches had any supervision but it is a 'vital ingredient' in effective coaching (Downey, 2003). More recently Hawkins and Schwenk (2006) noted, from their research of UK practice, that 88 per cent of organisers of coaching and 86 per cent of coaches believe that coaches should have continuous and regular supervision. However, in comparison only 44 per cent of coaches receive continuous and regular supervision. Drawing on our own personal experience, we would question the representative nature of the sample used in the study. Our own experience in the UK coaching sector, based on coach training, coaching networks in the SGCP and Association for Coaching, we suggest the figure may actually be below 25 per cent. Such figures however are difficult to establish and vary depending on the sample. What is clear is that a wide range exists with lower participation found among sole practitioners and those undertaking coaching work as a supplementary activity and higher participation among coaches within organisations and those seeing coaching as a professional activity in their work portfolio.

Coaches' reasons for not seeking supervision include that it is not required by organisations, it is too expensive (17 per cent), or they can't find a supervisor (17 per cent) (Hawkins & Smith, 2006). For organisations, the reasons for not providing supervision include that it is too expensive (19 per cent) and they can't find supervisors (13 per cent). While not acknowledged we believe one explanation for this gap between expressed desire and actual practice is the lack of evidence as to whether supervision is an effective tool for enhancing coaching practice. A second reason may be the lack of understanding of how supervision can enhance practice. However, further research, with a wider sample, is needed to explore these issues, possibly through collaboration with one or more of the coaching membership bodies.

In the absence of a body of good coaching supervision research or theories, a limited amount of coaching specific training available and inadequate numbers of trained coaching supervisors, many coaches have turned to counsellors, psychologists and psychotherapists for supervision (Hawkins & Smith, 2006). Given the differences between coaching and therapy which have been widely discussed elsewhere (Palmer & Whybrow, 2007; Passmore, 2006), are these individuals the most appropriate to deliver coaching supervision? These differences include the more future focused nature of coaching, the management of different boundaries when working in organisational settings and in organisational setting understanding the dynamics and complexity of organisational life.

Given the lack of research on coaching supervision, this paper explores the perceived benefits of the supervision process and build a conceptual framework for coaching supervision which could be subjected to further testing. In this respect a Grounded Theory methodology was selected (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Method

Participants

This study involved a total of six participants in a two-part process. The first stage involved an observational study of a coaching supervision session. The second stage involved recorded interviews with six participants including the two participants from the observed session.

In the observed supervision session the two participants were white British, aged 40 to 55, one was female, the other male. The first participant (S1) (supervisor) had more than 20 years' experience of working in supervision, initially in therapy and more recently in coaching. The second participant (C1) (coach) was a trained coach, with approximately 18 months' post-qualification experience. She also worked as a senior HR manager, and had more than 20 years' experience in HR and people management.

The second part of the study involved semi-structured interviews with six participants. Five of the participants were white British and one was black British/Caribbean. The ages of the participants ranged from 30 to 65. The two coaches (C2 and C3) were both female and were full-time self-employed coaches who had been coaching for more than three years and were receiving formal coaching supervision. One coach did most of her coaching in the corporate environment (mainly private sector), while the other coach was mostly involved with coaching leaders and managers in the Further Education Sector. The supervisors (S2 and S3) were both male, experienced executive coaches and trained coaching supervisors who offered regular coaching supervision. Both supervisors had been practicing for more than 10 years.

Data collection

The study was designed as a two phase data collection process. The first phase involved the observation and aimed to offer an an understanding of the supervision process. This was then used to develop and refine the interview questions. The second phase,

involving semi-structured interviewers with six participants was the data collection phase.

The observation session of a coaching supervision meeting was recorded. This took place in a private interview room equipped with two-way mirrors, audio and video recording equipment.

In the second phase of data collection, semi-structured interviews were undertaken with the six coaches and coaching supervisors. The interview were focused around participants' experiences of the coaching supervision process. The interviews were recorded and transcribed using a revised version of the Jefferson framework (O'Connell & Knowal, 1996; Jefferson, 1985). Both phases were conducted prior to detailed engagement in the literature, as consistent with the grounded theory method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) as adapted by Strauss and Corbin (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Each participant provided informed consent for their session to be recorded. As part of the process, the opportunity was offered at the end for the data to be destroyed. In all cases participants agreed that the data could be used for the research study.

Data analysis

Following the transcription of the first two interviews, margin memos and noting was used to identify themes. An initial set of themes was identified. This was used to further explore issues during the second set of four interviews. An iterative process was employed during the analsysis as the researchers sought saturation of the data in the development of the descriptive codes. Following this process the material was set to one side and after a period further work was undertaken to develop the conceptual categories which were used for the framework. The conceptual codes were critically reviewed by the researchers in the production of the final version.

Results

The results of the analysis are reported using the main descriptive categories as headings and the sub-categories that make them up as sub headings. For ease of reference, the main categories and sub-categories are listed in Table 1. In this paper we have selected quotes which illustrate a theme or topic, but other statements were also made in relations to these codes.

Influencing factors

The data suggested a number of factors which influenced the supervision process. These include expectations, attitudes (of the coach) and the preceding 'need' for supervision.

The first influencing factor was the expectations of the coach. These played an important role in the personal experience of supervision, and its ultimate success or failure. It is interesting to note that none of the coaches had any understanding or expectations of coaching supervision before they started it.

> *'… when I started supervision I didn't really understand what it was all about … I s'pose I just thought it was just like having a different level of coaching experience, but of course I discovered it is a whole lot more than that.'* (C2: 7–10)

Once the coaches were receiving regular supervision, their expectations were varied, and included expectations of the supervisor and of the environment/relationship.

Having engaged in supervision for a period of time the coaches' expectations of the process increased. They expected their supervisor to be trained and have a specific set of skills and experience.

> *'I guess, having somebody who's been trained in supervision and is following a process and model…not just a coach who's decided to call it supervision and raise their game sort of thing, but a different skill set or set of processes.'* (C2:136–138)

The coaches indicated a desire for supervisors to stimulate their thinking and offer them a different perspective on their

Table 1: Table of categories, sub-categories and themes.

Main categories	Sub-categories	Themes
1. Influencing Factors	Expectations (coach/supervisor)	Of supervisor Of relationship/environment Of coach
	Coach attitudes to supervision	Proactive and positive Seeking out issues Opportunity to reflect Faith in supervision
	Need for supervision	Coach aware of issue The hidden need
2. Process of Supervision	Coach's role	Active and primary role Open and present Critical appreciation
	Supervisor's role	Facilitator Support and challenge Quality feedback Knowledge over time Awareness of coach body language
	Properties of supervision	Frequency Type Consistency of supervisor
	Relationship and environment	Safe Role clarity and equality Develops over time Working together Coach-supervisor 'fit'
	Group supervision	Learning from others Experimentation Objectivity
3. Necessary Conditions	Supervisor	Trained coaching supervisors
	Knowledge, skills and experience	Contextual knowledge Supervision informs practice
	Ethical practice	Ethical function of supervision Ethics training for supervisors
4. Limiting Factors	Limited understanding of supervision	
	Bringing issues to supervision	
	Coach supervisor relationship	
	Supervisor behaviour	Too directive
	Coach behaviour	Reliant on supervisor's opinion Impression Management
5. Supervision Potential	Individual	Enhanced capacity to challenge Qualitative function of supervision CPD
	Organisational	Opportunity for organisational learning and change
6. Outcomes	Individual	Difficult to quantify Raised awareness Confidence in coaching Perseverance in coaching Sense of belonging Professionalism 'Internal Supervisor'

practice. Coaches expected to feel safe and comfortable in their supervision environment, and able to discuss their issues freely and openly without being judged. Particularly important was the guarantee of confidentiality in supervision and a freedom to discuss important issues.

Supervisors also held expectations of their coaches. There was an expectation that coaches should be open to constructive challenge and open to supervision in general and be 'present' in the supervisory relationship. One supervisor said that the coach plays an active and primary role in supervision and that *'it is the coach that makes it work'* (S2: 13). The coach has a responsibility in the supervisors' eyes to be willing to stand back and reflect on their practice, reflect on themselves in the context of the coaching conversation. In essence the coach needed to be able to *'sit in a different seat in the room … and look at their work from a different angle'* (S2: 16–17).

A second theme was the coach's attitude towards supervision. Having a positive attitude towards supervision was viewed as important if the coach was to engage in an open and constructive way. The coaches reported adopting a proactive attitude towards their supervision by actively looking for issues in their coaching.

> *'I don't always bring something- sometimes there's nothing that's cropped up in the month, but I'm looking for things to bring if you see what I'm saying.'* (C2: 39–41)

In addition, the coaches saw supervision as an opportunity to reflect on their practice, and as a resource with potential benefit for their practice.

> *'… if I've got a new client, I'll be thinking about using it as an opportunity, so where do I feel least comfortable with this client, what can I ask. So I think of supervision as a resource that I can kind of latch onto and get what I can out of it.'* (C2: 24–26)

A third influencing factor was the need for supervision. The coaches in the study highlighted how the need for supervision at specific instances contributed to their practice. Such incidents were often about difficult or challenging themes within their coaching work which they were unsure of how to manage.

> *'I went to the person that ran the programme I was on and asked for a one to one supervision session, because I just felt that this was really important and I needed to do something now.'* (C3: 41–42)

The supervisors also highlighted the need for supervision, but held the view supervision should be regular rather than only at times of need. They highlighted that on occasions there was value in discussing issues which were outside of the immediate awareness of the coach. Two of the supervisors expressed concern for coaches who only sought supervision when they had a particular issue to discuss. One supervisor made the interesting point that coaches can learn from their good practice (to find out what they are doing well) and not only from the issues/problems they seek help with. Both supervisors recommended that supervision be attended on a regular, consistent basis, and that coaches should be able to request further supervision at times when there is a particular issue they wish to address.

The process of coaching supervision

Coaching supervision is a dynamic process between two people or more (for group supervision), which takes place in a wider coaching and organisational context. The themes that emerged through the data regarding the process of coaching supervision were: the coach's role, the supervisor's role, properties of coaching supervision, the supervisory relationship and environment and finally, a rather separate theme: the process of group supervision.

As previously indicated, coaches tended to take a proactive role in their supervision. It became clear from the participants that the coach's role was not limited to the actual supervision session. It involves a considerable amount of preparation in the form of active and ongoing reflection on their coaching practice. In the actual supervision

session, the coaches also described taking a lead role. They described how they took responsibility for providing the supervisor with accurate and sufficient information regarding the coaching relationship. They noted that the quality of the supervision relied on the quality of information the coach brought to the supervision session, as well as their ability to reflect on their practice openly in the session with help from the supervisor.

In order that the coach is able to bring enough information to supervision, it emerged from both coach and supervisor participants that the coach should be able to be open and fully present during the session. This commitment to supervision and the ability to be open are also some of the behaviours supervisors expected from the coach. Without openness or commitment the real work of supervision could not be successfully undertaken.

Further, coaches highlighted the importance of adopting a critical stance for new insights to emerge. However, such insights were for reflection, not wholesale adoption. In this sense the coach was operating as a separate autonomous individual, influenced but not directed by the supervisor.

> *'… to be a good supervisee I think is to take on board any insights, comments and suggestions but to still have the confidence not to throw your own ideas out the window, because somebody else has suggested something different.'* (C2: 161–164)

It was noted by participants that the supervisor also had an important role to play in coaching supervision. It emerged that the supervisor took a facilitative role in the process of coaching supervision by opening up the 'critical reflective space' (S2: 92) for the coach. It was suggested that the supervisor should encourage the coach to step back and reflect on his/her practice and hold this reflective space without supplying solutions. To achieve this the supervisor drew on multiple methods; employing open questioning, stimulating the coach's thinking and exploring together the issue, including the emotions of the coach and coachee in the coaching relationship.

> *'So having a supervisor who's shining a light on the part of the process you haven't been aware of.'* (C2: 126–128)

Data from the first part of the study, (the video-taped supervision session), illustrated this. In the session the supervisor used a wide range of interventions to help the coach explore the issue from an alternative perspective. Examples of interventions from this observed coaching supervision session are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Sample questions used in the observed coaching supervision session.

Supervisor questions
● How do you see that?
● And where would you sense that?
● … the statement behind those questions would be?
● What do you think he might say?
● Who would be saying this?
● And what's happening between you and your coachee?
● So how did you get that feedback then?
● What were you wanting to say to your boss?
● So what would be your challenge to him?
● How do you think he would describe you differently when you get into the six-month review than how he described you at the beginning?
● So, what would the confident, assertive you be saying to me?
● How does that feel?

The supervisor, in this facilitative role, was supportive of the coach, yet maintained a strong element of challenge in order to assist the coach in their reflective process. Feedback was a further aspect identified by both coaches and supervisors as an important role of the supervisor.

Coaches also highlighted the value of an on-going relationship with their supervisor. This allowed the supervisor to become more knowledgeable of the coach's approach, tendencies and behavioural patterns. This knowledge informed the practice of supervision in a way that helped the coach to raise his/her awareness of behaviours that may be affecting his/her coaching practice. As a result, it was perceived that the quality of supervision deepened over time:

> *'… having the same supervisor every month, so they get to know your patterns means that you'll get more insightful feedback from them.'* (C2: 131–133)

Supervisors noted the importance of being aware of non-verbal cues, alongside the spoken words of the coach. It was assumed that this awareness also developed over time, and what was important was not the behaviour itself but how the behaviour contrasted with the 'typical' behaviour of the coach while engaging in supervisor. One of the supervisors noted:

> *'…peoples' verbal version of it isn't that accurate … because how we remember … but what we do know is what a person shows you physically, in the room, what they replicate is much more accurate. If you film a coaching session and then film the supervision on it, you'd be able to pick out elements that are transferred, in terms of uh, paralleling from that one into this one.'* (S1: 40–44)

This reference to a parallel process was also found within the first part of the study. In the filmed supervision session the supervisor picked up on the coach's closed body language. This provided a clue as to the underlying feelings of the coach and by pointing it out the supervisor opened up an avenue for exploration in the observed supervision session.

Supervisor: *'So, how are you doing with <u>your</u> assertiveness and confidence in here? (…) I'm just noticing that the times when we go into here, um it's like (demonstrates closed body language), is that OK, or …? If you were being confident and assertive with me, here, what would you be saying, right now?* (Extract from the observed supervision session)

A third theme was the properties of the session which were judged to be important. The data suggests a few common elements in terms of the frequency, type of supervision and consistency of supervisor.

The strongest message related to the frequency of coaching supervision with both supervisors and coaches recommending regular scheduled supervision sessions. It is interesting to note that from the interviews, one of the coaches received monthly supervision, while the two other coaches received quarterly supervision. All considered their supervision to be 'regular', so there is a certain relativity regarding the regularity of supervision in the eyes of the coach.

> *'Very regular, yeah, so it's quarterly, but I will ask for supervision of I need something.'* (C3: 39)

One of the supervisors pointed out that the regularity of supervision was dependent on the amount of coaching done. Perhaps the most important point raised about the frequency or regularity of supervision is that it should be formal and scheduled, rather than voluntary and ad hoc arrangement for the coach. However, coaches valued the flexibility of being able to seek extra coaching supervision in addition to their scheduled sessions if there was an issue they needed to address urgently. This could be through phone contact with their supervisor or through arranging an extra session

> *'Because, you know, the thing with supervision is that you've got an issue now, you can't wait three months to sort it out!'* (C3: 42–43)

In terms of the type of supervision, there was strong support by both coaches and supervisors for a mixed approach, rather than purely one-to-one sessions. Both coaches and supervisors valued the dynamics and

learning opportunities provided by group supervision which will be discussed below.

> *'I have found it valuable to not just have one to one's.'* (C2:138–139)

There was also support, from both sides, for having the same supervisor over time. The reason provided for this was to build up a supervisory relationship and benefit from the development of enhanced knowledge and rapport of one another over time.

> *'… having the same supervisor every month, so they get to know your patterns means that you'll get more insightful feedback from them.'* (C2: 131–133)

Both coaches and supervisors drew attention to the relationship as a dynamic process, with roles and responsibilities on both sides and a reported sense of equality in terms of power, while retaining clarity of roles in the relationship. The issue of contracting was also noted and comparisons made to the equal importance to this within the coach –coachee relationship.

The last sub-theme mentioned in this cluster was the fit between the coach and the supervisor. It was seen as favourable by the coach to have a supervisor who stimulated his/her thinking and whose approach to supervision complemented his/her approach to coaching.

While much of the debate was about the benefits of one-to-one supervision, coaches pointed out that they enjoyed and benefited from attending group supervision in addition to their regular one-to-one sessions. One of the main reasons provided by both coaches and supervisors was the opportunity for coaches to gain a wider perspective and to learn from other coaches. One of the supervisors said that while he had *'immense time for one-to-ones'* (S3: 68), he believed that the dynamics of group supervision added value to coaching supervision, Coaches shared this view of the dual benefits from both one-to-one and from group supervision:

> *'I actually like having a small group environment as well…you've got more dynamics going … it's quite interesting to hear other people's case studies … the process on somebody else, being able to relate it to yourself.'* (C2: 142–144)

It was noted that in a group the coach was able to learn from the experiences of other coaches and able to relate to these common issues. The result of this was a sense of belonging to the 'coaching community' and a feeling that the coach was not alone in the issues he/she was facing in his/her coaching practice.

Group supervision provided the coach with an opportunity to receive insights and opinions from other group members in an environment where experimentation was encouraged.

> *'I thought it was quite experimental. I could say 'Well, I tried this and, or this happened … and I didn't feel like there was going to be any comeback really.'* (C3: 23–24)

Necessary conditions for coaching supervision

Participants suggested there were a number of necessary conditions that had to be in place for coaching supervision to be deemed most effective. Some of these have already been brought to light in this study, such as the creation of an open, safe, confidential and non-judgemental environment within which coaching supervision can take place. Other important factors included the supervisors training, experience and ethical maturity.

Both coaches and supervisors expected coaching supervisors to have specialist training and to use a specific model which added value to the process. The supervisors pointed out the need for coaching supervisors to have knowledge of the context in which they were supervising. For executive coaches this would be knowledge and/or experience of the dynamics present in the top tier of organisations and the pressures senior executives experience in their roles. Simply drawing on counselling experiences and transferring these to the coaching space was seen as inadequate.

> *'… there are many counselling supervisors who have never worked in organisations … they don't have the contextual frame or*

professional frame I think to do good coaching supervision.' (S2: 236–239)

Another feature raised was that supervision should inform one's practice. The supervision session should translate into a concrete course of action to which the coach commits. The environment of coaching supervision should thus be one of constant learning and change.

A further point that came over very strongly from all participants was the focus on the ethical function of coaching supervision. Although the issues that face coaches may be of a lower 'grade' than those faced in other helping professions, the ethical element in coaching supervision is one which should not be ignored. Supervisors' highlighted the ethical responsibility they held to challenge the coach when ethical issues arose. If the coach was not behaving in an ethical manner, the supervisor would intervene, challenging where appropriate. In all cases the supervisor should act to protect the best interests of the coachee.

It was noted that this competency of ethical maturity required training and personal development on behalf of the supervisor and that the supervision process provided continuous development and learning for the supervisor as well as the coach.

Limiting factors

The participants of the study raised a number of factors that proved limiting to the effectiveness of coaching supervision, both in terms of the supervisory relationship and the process or issues related to one or both of the involved parties. These included: the limited understanding of supervision; the issues or lack of them brought to supervision; the coach-supervisor relationship, the supervisor's behaviour; and the behaviour of the coach.

As noted above, expectations can play an important part in the process and can both enhance and derail the supervision relationship. It was noted by coaches that they were aware of individuals who attended supervision with counselling supervisors due to the wider availability of such individual and the lower cost. According to one supervisor in particular, this was not advisable, as they argued that the context in which coaching takes place is fundamentally different from counselling and the failure to understand these differences can be dangerous for both the coachee and their employing organisation.

'… I think a lot of coaches have gone to counselling and psychotherapy supervisors … I think on the whole counselling and psychotherapy practice differs 'cause they are there to serve the client in front of them, while the coach has always got at least the client and the organisation and the performance.' (S1: 156–158)

There was also a sense that the term 'supervision' has been used too loosely when applied in the coaching community to a wide range of activities including peer support and peer coaching.

Coaches highlighted that the sometimes rigid nature of supervision meetings could make it difficult to bring a particular issue to the scheduled supervision sessions. As a result the coach may need to have a supervisor available to deal with crisis situation rather than wait for two months to the next formal supervision meeting. Supervision contracts should provide for this flexibility to call upon the supervisor between formal meetings. Coaches must be prepared to seek out additional supervision if and when required. It was noted that such a flexible arrangement should be in addition to, rather than a replacement for, formal and regular supervision meetings.

There are dangers in the supervisory relationship that if the necessary conditions and expectations discussed above are not fulfilled, coaching supervision will not be effective. The coach needs to be comfortable to discuss his/her issues freely and openly. The features of challenge and support come into play to keep the relationship on its 'learning edge' to use the words of one of the supervisors.

Supervisor behaviour was also highlighted as an important aspect and a potential limiting factor, if the supervisor behaved

in ways which undermined the relation such as being over directive. Both supervisors warned against the potential of being too directive which they considered detracted from the learning potential of supervision. It was indicated that the supervisor should not be offering direct advice or solutions, but should allow the coach to reach these on their own, without being judged by the supervisor.

Coach behaviours also could have a negative effect. Coaches suggested that to gain the most from the process they needed to be open to the alternative perspectives in supervision, while also retaining their individuality and confidence in their ideas. It was acknowledged that the supervisor's assessment of an issue was based on the information the coach discloses, and as a result, the coach should not be too drawn to the supervisor's perspective if he/she does not feel it is accurate.

> *'Um, if you're too drawn to their assessment of the situation – because … the supervisor's assessment is still going to be based on the limited information that you've brought to the table.'* (C3: 156–159)

A further danger was the failure by coaches to be truly open and the danger of seeking to present a particular perspective of events. This danger, it was felt increased in a group supervision session, where impression management, due to peer pressure was more present.

The potential of coaching supervision

Participants suggested that supervision offered a number of potential gains. The perceived potential benefits of coaching supervision range from enhancing the coach's capacity to challenge to enhancing the quality of coaching practice. A third theme in this cluster was the contribution that coaching supervision could make in continuing professional development (CPD). The process of coaching supervision within a group as an Action Learning Set, encourages the linkage between theory and practice. One of the supervisors stated that supervision should inform a coach's practice, another mentioned that ones' mental models should grow and change over time and this should inform practice. A fourth theme was the potential organisational benefits. For coaches based within organisations or working with a number of coachees from the same organisation, it was suggested that by increasing the coach's capacity, the coach could be more effective with individual coachees and thus contribute to wider organisational change.

Another potential organisational benefit from supervision, based on the participant responses, is the potential ability to assess systemic patterns, through the outcomes of the multiple supervisory conversations (within clear confidentiality boundaries). By drawing on such information, and sharing the high level themes with the organisation, the supervisor can contribute towards wider organisational cultural change.

> *'… what are the systemic patterns, what does that tell us about the current state of the culture, and how that matches the vision and strategy, and work out what the organisation can do to shift these patterns.'* (S3: 78–80)

Outcomes of coaching supervision

While coaches and supervisors highlighted the potential benefits, participants in both groups found it more difficult to identify explicit benefits from coaching supervision. Coaches remarked that it was difficult to quantify how their coaching practice had changed or benefited as a direct result of coaching supervision, especially at the time, but looking back they believed they were more effective coaches as a result of supervision.

> *'I'm sure it does, um, it's very difficult to quantify, but I'm sure it makes me more effective …'* (C3: 92–93)

Coaches valued receiving a wider perspective on their coaching issues and practice. Participants claimed this reflection resulted in a raised awareness and new insights for the coach that had the potential to enhance their coaching practice. The element of surprise at the discovery of a 'blind spot' (below) indi-

cates the transformational power of supervision which is alluded to by both Hawkins (2006) and Carroll (2006).

> *'… what I find really useful about supervision is noticing my blind spots. I like to think I've looked at every possible angle, and then somebody from the outside spots something and you think 'Oh my goodness! How could I have missed that! (laughs)'' (C3*: 82–87)

However, the coaches in the study were unable to identify specific instances of changes in the practice resulting from insights gained in supervision. Instead, the largest gains were less tangible. Coaches stated having increased confidence in their coaching practice. Along with the confidence to pursue issues came a reported increased ability for coaches to persevere when things become difficult in the coaching relationship.

Both coaches and supervisors indicated support for group supervision. One of the reasons for this, from the coach's point of view, was that group supervision provided coaches with a sense of belonging to the coaching community. In a group supervision, coaches were able to listen to the issues of other coaches, relate them to themselves, and receive input on their own issues. One coach noted:

> *'… coaching is quite a lonely profession in a way, you know, going out, meeting someone, getting back, reflecting on your own. So it brings that sort of community together.'* (C3: 112–113)

Group supervisions helped in the formation of what coaches described as a community. Related to the sense of community, was a raised sense of professionalism and ethical awareness in their coaching practice. The in-depth exploration and reflection on their practice raised questions of how they might conduct themselves in a professional manner. Supervision reminded coaches of their ethical duty and held their focus on professional practice.

> *'I think it helps me be professional, it keeps my professionalism up and reminds me of the ethos behind what I'm trying to do.'* (C3: 111)

A further theme was what may be termed the 'internal supervisor'. This related to a coach's growing ability to self-supervise as a result of coaching supervision, as the coach reflected on what the supervisor might say. The supervision process thus offered a form of holding to account, not in any hierarchical sense but in the sense the coach sought to maintain the standards of practice expected of them by their supervisor.

Discussion

Reflecting on the data

The series of interviews, six in all, and the video session, provided a wealth of data on coaching supervision.

There was an indication, from the data, that coaches looked to supervision as a means of dealing with the challenges they experienced in their coaching and that both one-to-one and group supervision models offered potential benefits. However, the actual benefits were harder to quantify. Coaches held a belief that their practice was enhanced, but they were unsure about the specific benefits. There may be an echo of the process identified in coaching (De Meuse & Dai, 2009). De Meuse and Dai demonstrated through a meta-analysis that rating of coaching's positive impact given by the coachee are significantly higher than ratings given by peers of coaching's impact. This aside, it is of interest in this study that despite being unable to measure the impact of supervision on coaching practice, coaches displayed a faith in its value of supervision in terms of confidence and being able to listen and share their experiences with others.

Both coaches and supervisors shared a common view about what factors contributed and limited the supervision relationship and the value of maintaining an ongoing relationship with the same supervisor, who was both trained and had relevant experience.

Reflecting on the literature

The results from this study provide a detailed picture of how coaches and supervisors expe-

rience coaching supervision as this field is developing within the UK. The body of literature on coaching supervision is at this stage limited and has been out paced by the development of coaching supervision practice and the race to claim that supervision is the most effective model for continuous professional development.

Carroll (2006) has identified a series of central principles which underpin coaching supervision. Carroll suggests:

- Coaching supervision is for the learning of the supervisees;
- Supervisors facilitate supervisee learning
- Learning in supervision is transformational (not just transmissional);
- Supervision moves from 'I-learning' to 'we-learning'.

The results of this study echo Carroll's first point that coaching supervision is about the learning of the coach. Coaching supervision, as described by the participants, centres around the coach's individual practice with the aim of learning from this experience. The supervisor was expected to be committed to helping the coach with his/her issue, create an environment in which the coach was able to be open and honest and learn through a process of critical reflection.

The results of the study strongly supported the view that a coaching supervisor takes the role of a facilitator. Supervisors in this study cautioned against over-involvement and coaches indicated that supervision was not as effective as it might be when supervisors offered too much advice or directive solutions. Coaches noted that in order for the supervisor to be able to effectively facilitate the session, the coach had a responsibility to be open and honest, and to provide sufficient information in the session to explore the issue being presented. Coaches also noted that it was important that they retain their confidence, trust their judgement and were not too influenced by an overly directive supervisor. For them supervision was a joint and equal process rather than a hierarchical one of being held to account.

Transformational learning as a theme came across clearly in the study, from both coaches and supervisors. For the supervisors, transformational learning was an aim, while for coaches the learning was experienced, and this experience sometimes resulted in surprise and an openness to change in their coaching approach as a result.

In both the one-to-one, and group supervision, participants raised the point that supervision created a two-way learning process. This occurred through the dialogue and feedback between supervisor and coach. In a group supervision coaches were able to learn from the experiences of other coaches. As raised by one of the participants, group coaching supervision should be seen as an Action Learning Set, where learning is necessarily experiential, and reflection informs ones practice. Supervisions also highlighted that learning occurred for them in the process.

This learning, however, only took place when a good relationship existed and this depended on the supervisor being able to adapt their style to suit the needs of the coach. One participant coach, who had had a number of different supervisors over time, indicated the perceived value of coach-supervisor 'fit'. It was indicated that her learning experience was enhanced by having a supervisor whose approach suited hers, and a mismatch in approaches was a 'turn off'. Carroll (2006) also discusses this, saying that supervisors should have an understanding that one size does not fit all in learning terms. He indicates that supervisors should know the learning style and intelligence of their coach/supervisees in order to facilitate their learning. The overriding theme here is that the supervision should be a self-directed learning experience and supervisors should be able to accommodate the style and learning needs of any supervisee.

The results also appear to support Hawkins and Smith's (2006) three functions of coaching supervision: developmental, resourcing and qualitative. In terms of the

developmental function, the participants indicated that supervision provided them with a regular opportunity for reflecting on their practice, to gain alternative perspective and receive feedback. In terms of the resourcing function, the participants noted that the opinions and feedback of others were valuable resources in gaining a wider perspective. While the support and challenge offered by the supervisor helped the coach address the issues openly, without fear. The qualitative function was experienced by the participants as an increased ethical capacity and confidence to persist and persevere and deliver coaching of a superior quality.

The results of the study provide support for Hawkins and Schwenk's (2006) guidelines for best practice. These guidelines include:

- Takes place regularly;
- Balance of individual, group and peer supervision;
- Manages ethical and confidentiality boundaries;
- Generates organisational learning;
- Provides support for the coach;
- Quality assures coaching provision;
- Provides continuing professional development of the coach;
- Focuses on the client, organisation and coach needs.

This rosy glow of support for the work of writers in the field should not, however, mask some interesting challenges which the research has brought to light. A significant theme that emerged from the study was that the coaches had no prior understanding or expectations of supervision. Although they both reported positive experiences of supervision and there was an underlying sense that they valued supervision, they might not have sought it out on their own. This echoes our view that coaching is more spoken of than practiced within the wider coaching community in the UK. This may also explain the higher profile of coaching supervision as the model of choice for CPD in the UK and its relative obscurity in other English speaking countries such as US and Australia. Hawkins and Smith (2006) ask the question why coaching supervision is well promoted but not so well practiced.

Another dimension to the lack of clarity of benefits, was a lack of understanding of the different forms of CPD ranging from one-to-one supervision, group supervision, a reflective log or journal, or formal and informal peer mentoring. The research appears to offer some insight into the different benefits from one-to-one and group supervision. However, as was anticipated, there was little understanding by standing among coaches of the potential benefits of other forms of CPD. It may be that different forms may suit different coaches and may be of particular value at different stages of a coach's development. For example we would argue that new coaches benefit greatly from group supervision, developing a sense of community and shared ethical standards and learning from each other. However, later in their coaching careers, a learning log and peer mentoring may offer a more appropriate model. Further, it may be argued that most benefit can be obtained from using more than one reflective practice approach; combining for example group supervision with a reflective log.

A further issue was the assumption that supervision was a problem-solving forum. However, we would argue supervision is part of a learning forum for new coaches and part of continuous professional development for experienced coaches.

A final theme which is worthy of mention is that of supervision training. While in Australia and US coaching supervision training is either non-existent or virtually non-existent, there has been a slow growth in the UK. The study highlighted the value of having a trained supervisor, who holds to a model of practice and is also experienced in the domain of practice of the coach. The coaches in the study indicated that this was important to them. They wanted to know that the supervisor had a specific set of skills and was following a process, rather than just another coach who wanted to 'raise their

game'. There is currently a shortage of trained coaching supervisors. We would argue that the development of additional coaching supervision training will help to address this issue, as will the recognition of accredited supervisor status by coaching bodies.

Practical implications

The study suggests a need for formal coach supervision training within the UK if the supervision model is to be more widely adopted. Such training needs to reflect coaching rather than therapy needs.

Secondly, in selecting supervisors, we would advocate that the coach considers the match between themselves and the supervisor, as well as the supervisors experience and qualifications. Once a selection is made clear contracting to set expectations will help in making sessions more productive for both parties.

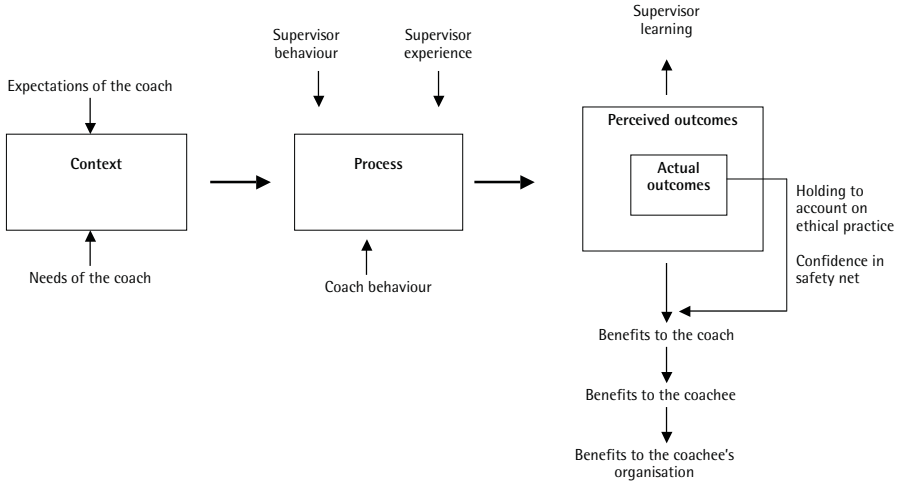
Thirdly, we would argue that a more flexible approach should be considered before the coaching profession adopts supervision as the Gold Standard for coaching CPD. There is a danger that supervision is made compulsory in ethical or professional codes. Such a move will reduce the flexibility to meet CPD needs through a variety of routes. Other CPD models are available and we would argue that these may be more appropriate at different stages of a coach's development. These may include peer mentoring, reflective logs or diaries.

Finally, this research, while one of the few supervised based studies published todate, is limited in its scope. The study drew on a limited pool of participants as a qualitative study, and a deeper understanding of the processes and efficacy of coaching supervision is required. This could be achieved by further research in this area of coaching practice.

Developing a conceptual framework

As a grounded theory study, the ultimate aim of the study was to reflect on the factors which emerged from the research and construct a framework, which both reflects the state of coaching supervision as a process in the UK, but also offers a framework which can be the subject of further testing through more focused research into supervision and supervision practices. Such a model is summarised in Diagram 1. The diagram summarises the supervision process into three core stages; context, such as which aspirations, expectations and needs inform the process. The second cluster is the supervi-

Diagram 1: Conceptual framework: Coaching Supervision.



sion process. This consists of the behaviours of the coach and supervisor, along with the experience of the supervisor and the fit between the two participants in the relationship. The third stage is the outcomes stage. The complexity and intangible nature is represented by the focus on perceived benefits. However, within these may be buried specific and tangible outcomes, which may include enhanced confidence and a holding to account. These may also include aspects such as growth in ethical maturity. It is these factors which when adopted and used by the coach may in turn shape their practice and thus the wider efficacy of coaching, offering gains to the coachee and to the coachee's organisation.

Conclusions

This study set out to develop a theoretical model of the process of coaching supervision based on the experiences of coaches and supervisors. A Grounded Theory methodology was employed. The results of the study gave rise to a theoretical framework of coaching supervision, covering aspects such as influencing factors, the process of supervision, necessary conditions, limiting factors, supervision potential and experienced outcomes. The results echoed the existing literature on coaching supervision, with coachees expressing a belief that supervision offered benefits to them in their coaching practice, including raising awareness about their practice, increasing confidence, encouraging perseverance and providing a sense of belonging. The study also highlighted the challenges that face coaching supervision as a result of the growing coaching industry and coaches in this study expressed desire for trained supervisors with relevant contextual knowledge. This places a demand for trained coaching supervisors. Further the study highlighted the importance of clearly setting expectations in the supervision process.

The study, while unique in exploring a new area of practice through a grounded theory approach, should be viewed as a starting point for wider research into the efficacy of coaching supervision. In this study participants were quick to describe perceived benefits, however they were less able to substantiate the benefits in tangible terms. As a result further research needs to explore this aspects comparing supervision with other forms of continuous professional development such as peer coaching and reflective logs, as well as comparing the benefits of one-to-one supervision with group supervision.

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Literature review of coaching supervision

Barbara Moyes

Purpose and Methods: *It is an interesting paradox that although coaches are expected to have supervision, little is known about coaching supervision. Coaching supervision has its roots in supervision in the therapeutic disciplines. The aim of this paper is to explore some of the key themes in the literature on supervision in those disciplines, and to discuss the limited research that has been conducted into coaching supervision within this context. Particular attention is paid to social work supervision, as two major proponents of coaching supervision, Peter Hawkins and Peter Bluckert, were originally social workers.*

Results: *The paper shows the influence of therapeutic concepts and process on coaching supervision, and identifies some of the benefits and limitations of using a therapeutic model in coaching supervision. Coaches and purchasing organisations want different things from supervision. Themes in the therapeutic literature concerning the transition from practitioner to supervisor are highlighted, suggesting that coaches making this transition need to learn to think like a supervisor, and find ways to manage the power inherent in the role.*

Conclusion: *More research into coaching supervision is needed to find out what is happening in practice.*

Keywords: *coaching, coaching supervision, therapeutic model, power.*

COACHING SUPERVISION is an under-researched – and sometimes contentious – subject. Coaches are expected to have supervision, but despite considerable research into supervision in the therapeutic disciplines of social work, psychology, counselling and psychotherapy, (e.g. Kaduishin, 1992; Holloway, 1995; Page & Wosekt, 1994; Hawkins and Shohet, 2006), there is virtually no research into what happens in practice during coaching supervision, and therefore, what coaches are getting for their money (Schwenk, 2007).

Coaching is at an important juncture. If it is to become a profession, implementing supervision is a critical step it must take (Hawkins, 2006c). As Schwenk (2007, p.2) puts it, 'Supervision is a symptom of a profession that is emerging and is part of assuring good practice. It is a natural evolution of where we are in the coaching business.'

But the current situation is confused. The proliferation of models and standards in coaching means there is a lack of coherence in the profession which makes it harder to develop a common approach to supervision (Arney, 2006). As yet there is no specific theoretical base or model for effective coaching supervision (Bluckert, 2004; Butwell, 2006; Lane, 2006). Instead, coaching supervision borrows from elsewhere, drawing particularly on its roots in the therapeutic professions. Leading writers in the field, Hawkins and Bluckert, have contributed to this. Both are former social workers whose approach draws on the earlier work of writers on social work supervision such as Kadushin (1968, 1976, 1992).

Definitions

There is not even an agreed definition of coaching supervision. Hawkins and Smith (2006) say that supervision provides 'a protected and disciplined space in which the coach can reflect on particular client situations and relationships, the reactivity and patterns they invoke for them and by transforming these live in supervision, can profoundly benefit the client' (2006, p.142).

Their belief is that coaching supervision is systemic and transformational. The client will benefit because during supervision, the supervisee will have found a different, more enabling, way to 'be' with the client. This is a sophisticated argument which has its roots in therapeutic supervision. However, Bluckert does not emphasise this:

> 'Supervision sessions are a place for the coach to reflect on the work they are undertaking with another more experienced coach. It has the dual purpose of supporting the continued learning and development of the coach, as well as giving a degree of protection to the person being coached.' (Bluckert, quoted in Hawkins, 2006, p.147)

Bluckert emphasises the developmental and monitoring aspects of supervision. Monitoring is necessary to ensure that the supervisee is behaving ethically and acting competently.

More recently, coaching psychologists have turned their attention to supervision. Carrol (2006), for example, states that coaching psychology is doing so 'because supervision makes good sense from both learning and quality perspectives' (p.4). The Special Group in Coaching Psychology within the British Psychological Society has produced guidelines for coaching psychology supervision (2007). Their definition of the primary purpose of supervision is broad – ensuring the needs of the client(s) are met in the most effective and appropriate manner. They describe coaching supervision as a formal process of professional support which addresses the coach's development and the effectiveness of his or her practice. This is done through interactive reflection, interpretative evaluation and sharing expertise. The key difference between coaching supervision and coaching psychology supervision is that the latter explicitly addresses the psychological nature of the coaching process, as well as the application of psychological theory and methods within the coaching process.

The differences in these definitions illustrate the differing aspects of what supervision is trying to achieve. This has been a major debate in the literature on both therapeutic and coaching supervision (e.g. Kadushin, 1985; Hawkins & Shohet, 1998; Hawkins & Smith, 2007; Bluckert, 2003). As Bluckert (ibid, p.1) says, 'There is an urgent need to clarify just what supervision is about and how it can play a part in improving coaching standards.'

Models

Just as there is no agreed definition, nor is there an agreed model of coaching supervision. A key debate is how far the therapeutic model is appropriate for coaching supervision. Several supervisors have a therapeutic background and use a therapeutic model (Schwenk, 2007). The model most often cited, the seven-eyed model, was adapted by Hawkins and Smith (2007) from the model Hawkins and Shohet developed for social work and psychotherapy supervision (Hawkins & Shohet, 1998). But Butwell (2006, p.7) argues that coaching is not psychotherapy or counselling, and that 'we should not assume that we can blithely transpose one set of standards across to another arena.' This is an important statement. If coaching is to develop as a distinct profession in its own right, it needs to develop its own models which fit its own ethos and purpose. These models are most likely to develop in practice, which is why research into practice is so important.

Coaching supervision

Despite this confusion, coaches are being actively encouraged to have supervision by leading thinkers, employing organisations, and the main bodies in the field such as the CIPD (Arney, 2006), the Association for Coaching (2005), the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (2006), and the Special Group in Coaching Psychology (2007). Indeed, Arney, quoting Hawkins' research, says:

> 'Our research shows that supervision has benefits for coaches, their clients and the organisation they work for, and that effective supervision is weakened if it neglects any of these. Most importantly, it highlights that good supervision is fundamental to making sure that coaches are able to work effectively.' (Arney, 2007, p.36)

However, despite Hawkins' (2006a) research, we do not know enough about

what happens during coaching supervision, or how effective it is. How can we then assume, (as many increasingly do) that coaching supervision is a good thing?

Hawkins' and Smith's (2006) study is the most comprehensive information we have about the state of coaching supervision in the UK. It was based on web-based questionnaire responses from 525 coaches and 128 organisers of coaching services, plus more in-depth information from 31 practitioners in focus groups, and interviews with six 'best practice' organisations using supervision. The study was commissioned by the CIPD, one of the leading professional bodies in the field, with a vested interest in implementing supervision. The data pool was self-selecting, so the respondents were more likely to be those who had thought about supervision. As Schwnek (2007) admits, this could introduce some bias.

Hawkins' (2006a) research gives us a snap shot in time and identifies broad trends. He argues that organisations need to understand more about the nature and benefits of supervision. They need to learn how to establish effective supervision processes and assess their external coaches' supervision arrangements. He concludes, 'The challenge now is to develop and embed models and practices in coaching supervision so that it can provide the maximum support and benefit for coaches and coaching services' (p.19).

The purpose of supervision

The main themes in the literature concern firstly, the function of supervision (Kadushin, 1976; Hawkins & Shohet, 1998; Hawkins & Smith, 2006); secondly, how far the therapeutic model is applicable to coaching supervision (Butwell, 2006; Hawkins 2006a; Lane, 2006); and thirdly, how supervisors take on their role (Borders, 1992; Page & Wosket, 2001; Holloway, 1995; Hawkins & Smith, 2006). Most of this literature relates to supervision in therapeutic disciplines rather than coaching.

A key debate concerns the purpose of supervision. There are at least four different views. Hawkins' research (2006a, p.19) revealed an interesting split of opinion between coaches and organisations. Firstly, coaches emphasised the developmental and quality assurance functions of supervision. Eighty-eight per cent of them used supervision to develop their coaching capability (interestingly, not their understanding), and 86 per cent of them wanted supervision to assure the quality of their coaching. This implies that for coaches, quality assurance was about their skills rather than client protection (although there might be an indirect link between the two). Coaches regarded supervision as an essential part of their continuing professional development, 'the pivotal link between theory and practice.' Butwell's (2006) research supports this. She also found that all members in her small scale study enjoyed the skills acquisition aspect in group supervision.

Secondly, what coaches most wanted from their supervisors was to facilitate change, or 'create a shift' when they were stuck (Hawkins 2006a). Hawkins sees the shift as transformational, resulting in the coach behaving in a different way towards the client, which in turn enables the client (and ideally the organisation) to change. Coaches' strong emphasis on change is understandable, as coaches are being paid by organisations or individuals to help them achieve demonstrable change.

However, those purchasing coaching services put more emphasis on the managerial aspect of supervision. This is the third view. They wanted supervision to protect the client, and minimise the organisational risk of unethical or unprofessional practice. For them, supervision ensured that coaching focuses on work objectives, and is within the coach's capability. They wanted it to increase the coach's understanding of the client and their organisational issues. Seventy per cent of organisations purchasing coaching supervision wanted it to monitor the quality of coaching, whereas only 50 per cent wanted it to improve the quality and effectiveness of the coaching (Hawkins, 2006b). What we

don't know is where supervisors are putting the emphasis, and whether they make their focus clear to supervisees. Do purchasers have a clear picture of what they are buying?

Fourthly, Arney (2007) focuses on the supportive element of one-to-one supervision, describing supervision as developing coaches' confidence, and helping rid them of some of the emotional burden they can pick up in coaching. She also sees one-to-one supervision as developmental, closely examining the coach's practice. Supervision provides a parallel process for the coach where the supervisor/coach relationship can mirror the coach/client relationship, allowing the supervisor to give the coach helpful feedback. Arney's interpretation of developmental, therefore, focuses more on understanding what is going on between the supervisee and client, than on skills development.

There is little research to show how well supervision is practised. Hawkins' straw poll at the 2005 European Mentoring and Coaching Council conference found that only half the delegates receiving supervision said that it constantly transformed their work with clients (Hawkins & Smith, 2006), which is what coaches say they want from supervision. However, it is worth considering how realistic an expectation it is to expect constant transformation. Indeed, de Haan and Blass (2207) found that coaches used supervision mainly for reassurance, confidence-building and benchmarking executive coaching practice. Butwell (2006) concluded that group supervision was valuable for discussing difficult cases and subtle boundary issues, but that coaches needed to learn how to use supervision if it is to be truly effective. None of the group supervisees she observed had done so, and all were nervous at opening up in front of each other. She concluded that: 'What cannot be achieved in any other way than supervision is the opportunity to discuss a difficult case, to explore one's feelings about a client, or to bounce ideas around on how to take a 'stuck' client forward, or to have advice from someone with more experience or a different point of view on subtle boundary issues' (p.10). She suggests that this should be a major focus for the coaching profession, and the subject of further research. Threaded through this debate is the notion that the form of supervision (one-to-one, group or peer) impacts on its function (Hawkins, 2006; Hawkins & Smith, 2006).

The function of supervision

Kadushin (1976) has been an influential voice in the debate about supervision's function. He identified three functions of social work supervision: educational, supportive, and managerial. This model worked for social work. Social work supervision was conducted within a hierarchical, managerial setting and legal framework. Supervisees were doing stressful and often in-depth work which required emotional support, and both supervisor and supervisee acknowledged that the supervisor's role was to give guidance, based on his or her greater knowledge and experience.

Table 1, Functions of Supervision, shows how much Kadushin's thinking has influenced Hawkins (2006) and Bluckert (2006). Indeed, Hawkins' model only slightly adapts Kadushin's. Hawkins' 'developmental' function is essentially the same as Kadushin's 'educational' function, whilst his 'resourcing' function equates to Kadushin's 'supportive' function. Kadushin's 'managerial' function does not map neatly across to coaching supervision because coaching supervision tends not to take place within a managerial context. Hawkins has therefore translated the managerial function into a group of issues spanning quality of practice, ethics and the organisational agenda. In summary, the table shows how far the roots of coaching supervision, in Hawkins' interpretation, lie in social work supervision.

But is an essentially social work model of supervision right for coaching? Coaches are not typically working with the deprived or disturbed clients social workers encounter, and so the level of support coaches need is arguably qualitatively different. Coaching

Table 1: Functions of Supervision.

Kadushin	Hawkins	Hawkin's Definition
Educational	Developmental	Skills development through reflection on work with client.
Supportive	Resourcing	Understanding how the emotions stemming from the client contact affect the coach.
Managerial	Qualitative	Quality control, spotting coach's blind spots, ensuring standards and ethics are maintained and that the organisation's agenda is not lost.

shares some of the same psychological basis as social work, but it draws on other theories, concepts and methods, such as those from sport (Gallwey, 1979), leadership (Lee, 2003) and business (Whitmore, 2003). Unlike social work, coaching does not operate within a legal framework. Most coaching supervision tends not, as yet, to occur within a managerial context. The managerial aspect largely translates into quality control in coaching supervision, considering such issues as ethical dilemmas and boundary issues, and ensuring that supervisees are not out of their depth.

In summary, Kadushin's (1976) influential tri-part model still provides a broad framework for understanding the functions of coaching supervision, but within it, different groups emphasise different functions. Hawkins (2006a) identified an important split between two key groups – coaches, who want skills development (educational); and purchasers of coaching supervision, who want client protection (managerial). Finally, coaches identified a specific developmental need for help in achieving 'shifts' (or change) with their clients.

The therapeutic model

Although we lack research into what happens in coaching supervision, there is extensive literature into the process of social work supervision (for example, Kadushin, 1968; Mattison, 1975; Irvine, 1984; Hayles, 1988; Williams, 1997; Ganzer, 1999). This is particularly relevant, given Hawkins' and Bluckert's influence on shaping coaching supervision. Irvine's (1984) personal account of supervising inexperienced social workers illustrates how far Hawkins' approach is influenced by social work supervision.

Irvine summarises the traditional social work view of effective supervisory practice. Application of theory to practice is fundamental; Hawkins (2006a) also sees supervision as the 'glue that links theory to practice.' There is a similar emphasis on reflection as essential for improving practice. Jackson (2004) defines reflection as any approach that generates individual self-awareness of behaviour and performance. Hawkins argues that supervision helps the coach learn from experience and become a better reflective practitioner.

Social work supervisors use the way the client makes them feel as a diagnostic tool. Of particular note is the transference. Transference is the process by which the supervisee transfers feelings from his/her own past to the present relationship either with the client or with the supervisor (Kahn, 1979). Sensitising the supervisee to the transference, and the recognition of transferential elements in the supervisee's feelings, is a key focus in therapeutic supervision. It is used to help the supervisee enable the client to change. This accords with the way Arney (2007) interpreted the developmental aspect of one-to-one supervision. Hawkins' analysis of what supervision is trying to achieve, with its focus on theory, transference and projections, demonstrates the same therapeutic orientation.

The more recent 'big idea' regarding social work supervision is parallel process

(Williams, 1997; Ganzer, 1999). Parallel process originated in psychotherapy supervision in the 1950s (Ganzer, 1999). It is the unconscious replication in supervision of therapeutic difficulties that a supervisee has with a client. Patterns tend to repeat at all levels of the system (Kadushin, 1985); emotions generated in the supervisee/client relationship are acted out in the supervisee/supervisor relationship (Kahn, 1979). This idea has also found its way into coaching supervision, particularly in the seven-eyed model advocated by Hawkins.

Why has the therapeutic model of supervision gained such ascendancy? Bluckert (2005) is surely correct that one of the reasons why practices common to therapy have moved into coaching is that an increasing number of therapists are now coaching. Hawkins (2006b) also found that many coaches were going to supervisors who were trained as therapeutic supervisors, and who were likely to use a therapeutic model.

Some coaching supervision courses use text books from therapeutic supervision. These include Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987) on supervising counsellors and therapists; Page and Wosket (1994) on supervising counsellors; Holloway's (1995) research into supervising clinical psychologists, and Hawkins and Shohet (1998) on supervision in the helping professions. Hawkins' and Smith's Coaching, Mentoring and Organisational Consultancy: Supervision and Development (2006) describes the seven-eyed model for coaching supervision. It is now a key text on several courses. It is essentially a therapeutic model which, by the addition of the seventh eye, has introduced an organisational perspective to better fit coaching supervision.

Butwell (2006, pp.7–8) questions this borrowing from therapy: 'Coaching is not counselling or psychotherapy and one could argue that we should not assume that we can blithely transpose one set of standards across to another arena. It is, surely, important to recognise that there is a difference between coaching and the more clinically-based disciplines, and it cannot be right to decide that one discipline can adopt the practices of the other, merely because there are similarities, without providing a rigorous justification for the decision.'

This is an important statement in a key debate. Lane (2006) also asks whether theoretical ideas from therapy can inform coaching. He sees coaching as 'borrowing' ideas from a range of disciplines such as sports coaching, business, learning theory and therapy, which coaches adapt to suit the needs of their clients. He argues that not only must coaches do this with care, but that they need to use a range of models to meet the wide needs that arise in coaching. There seems no reason why this argument should not be extended to supervision.

Butwell and Lane might well be right to question the use of these 'borrowed clothes.' Their impact on coaching supervision has been the creation of three 'rather limited' approaches to supervision (Hawkins, 2006b, p.3). The first is 'psychological case work' – focussing on understanding the coaching client and how to work with him or her. This is limiting in that it is not possible to change the client, as the client is not present during supervision. Adopting this approach can be construed as the supervisor vicariously coaching the client, and thereby disempowering the supervisee. The second approach is 'coaching the coach', where the focus is on the coach rather than on what is going on between coach and client. The third is managerial supervision, where the supervisor focuses on fixing problems.

Until coaching develops its own models and theories of supervision, 'the practice will be constrained and coaching supervision will continue to be dressed in borrowed clothes' (Hawkins, 2006b, p.3). If Hawkins is correct, and supervisors are discharging their role in this limited way, it will hardly equip them to achieve the level of change coaches say they want.

A major limitation of the therapeutic model is that its predominant focus is on the client. This is appropriate for disciplines like

counselling and psychotherapy which tend to be individually based. But coaching supervision has a much broader set of 'masters' – the coach, the coaching client and the client's organisation: 'One of the key outcomes of supervision is to develop 'super vision', which enables a coach to have a broader understanding of the coach-client system and the client-organisation system' (Hawkins, 2006a p.10). In other words, in order to achieve change, the coaching supervisor has to attend to coach, client and organisation. A systemic model is more relevant in this context than a therapeutic one.

On the other hand, it is important to recognise that the transference, a key therapeutic phenomenon, can emerge in any significant relationship. De Haan (2007), for example, found in his study of critical moments that experienced coaches reported a wide variety of transference phenomenon. This is evidence that a sharp distinction between supervision in therapy and coaching is difficult to make. It would seem foolhardy to throw out models and methods that work in therapeutic disciplines just because they did not originate in coaching, as long as their inclusion can be justified.

Skill sets

How the different interest groups define the function of supervision determines the skill set they want supervisors to have. If the aim of coaching is to achieve change for the client's organisation, as purchasers of coaching supervisions want, then coaching supervisors need a broader knowledge base than social work or psychotherapy supervisors. The coaches in Hawkins' research (2006a) wanted their supervisors to have business knowledge, understand organisational dynamics, and be able to think in a systemic way. (Intra-personal knowledge or a psychological background came much further down their list, which suggests that coaches were not looking primarily for therapeutic knowledge.)

But, with the possible exception of family therapists, these are precisely the areas of expertise supervisors with a therapeutic background tend to lack. This is not just a gap; it can be positively detrimental. Taking a solely psychotherapeutic approach to coaching supervision results in complex organisational systems being reduced to individual pathology (Hawkins, 2007, private communication). At its worst this can result in the coach rescuing the victim client from the 'bad' organisation, not what organisations, which are paying for coaching, want. This is a significant example of where the 'borrowed clothes' from therapy are found lacking.

As we have seen, in an attempt to address change at the organisational level, Hawkins and Smith (2006) added a seventh eye to their model. The seven-eyed model is certainly thorough, but it is complex and demanding. Significantly, Hilpern (2007) quotes BBC supervisors as finding that the seven-eyed model does not leave time for the session to be developmental or supportive. (This reveals an interesting use of the word 'developmental', which seemingly implies that skills are more important than understanding.) The seven-eyed model assumes that the transference and counter-transference will typically be present in coaching relationships, which may not be the case. Hilpern (2007, p.38) also states, 'Hawkins believes supervisors should tackle all seven areas, whereas most supervisors are strong in only one, two or three.' This could suggest a diminution of the model even where it is being used.

Achieving an 'Aha' moment

We saw earlier that the specific function coaches want supervision to provide is 'the shift,' or change in their way of thinking about, or behaving towards, their client (Hawkins, 2006a). Coaches call this 'an Aha moment'. Hawkins (2007) described an 'Aha' as a change in the way the supervisee is talking, thinking, feeling about, and relating to, the issue. The coach's breathing and metaphors might change. The shift is in the coach's consciousness, not just in how he or

she is reflecting on the issue, and it affects the relationship the coach has with the client. An understanding of adult learning and development might provide supervisors with change models they could use to achieve 'Ahas.' However, fewer than 40 per cent of coaches saw this knowledge as an important pre-requisite for supervisors (Hawkins, 2006c).

There is a lack of empirical data on 'Aha' moments; as a phenomenon they are poorly understood (Longhurst, 2006). Similarly there is a lack of research into how coaching supervisors achieve 'Aha' moments. 'Aha' moments have been found to be associated with transformational change in the co-active model of life coaching (Longhurst, 2006). Two types of 'Aha' moments were identified, which differ in intensity. Very intense 'Aha' moments are felt in the body. Longhurst (2006, p.69) quotes a coach as saying that 'Aha' moments are the moments 'when the doing and being come together.' This describes well the shift Hawkins mentions, which aims to help the supervisee 'be' in a different way with the client. Secondly, less intense 'Aha' moments are mind experiences, where the person just knows something new. These mental 'aha' moments have to do with changes in perspectives, beliefs, self-talk, thinking patterns, or clarity of ideas.

Research into 'critical moments' (De Haan, 2007) in coaching – exciting, tense or significant moments, or times when the coach did not know what to do – whilst not identical to 'Aha' moments, could shed light on some of the factors that need to be in place for 'Ahas' to occur in supervision. To achieve positive change in coaching, the relationship between the coach and client had to be sufficiently trusting to allow the coach to use intuition. Then fresh observations could occur. The relationship had to act as a container; it had to be well defined, but also allow both parties to move so that change could occur. Finally, if the coach had the courage to reflect observations back, a critical moment could well result.

Moyes (2008) describes the different ways a small group of supervisors achieved 'Aha' moments. She concludes that the ability to step outside themselves, necessary to achieve a transformational 'Aha' moment, might come more easily to coaching supervisors than therapists. In contrast to therapists who are trained to keep a professional distance, the coaching supervisors in her research all said they 'brought themselves' into supervision. This suggests that this helped them take advantage of 'hot' moments by making just the sort of personal and genuine response that enables an 'Aha' moment to occur.

Becoming an effective supervisor

So if there are differing interpretations about supervision's function, concern about importing the 'borrowed clothes' of therapy, and limited knowledge about how to achieve an 'Aha' moment, how do coaches become effective supervisors? And do good coaches automatically become good supervisors?

A hypothesis might be that if supervisors with a background in therapeutic supervision just map that across to coaching supervision, they will not experience any great difficulty in assuming the role - but the way they discharge the role could be limited, especially if they lack business and systemic knowledge. On the other hand, coaching supervisors who do not already have a background in supervision might not assume the role as easily, but might be the very coaches who are taking coaching supervision into new realms. As yet, there is no research into this, but the therapeutic literature on the role transition from practitioner to supervisor sheds some potentially interesting light.

The skill set remains the same in supervision (Borders, 1992; Page & Wosket, 1994). Despite this, there are fundamental differences between being a practitioner and being a supervisor – so much so, that the assumption that an experienced and competent counsellor will prove to be equally effective as a supervisor is dubious (Page & Wosket, 1994; Borders, 1992; Bartlett 1983). It is the role

that changes. There are differences in terms of aims, presentation, timing, relationship, expectations and responsibilities.

Thinking like a supervisor

In an interesting piece of American research, Borders (1992) reached the important conclusion that 'a pivotal skill in this role transition is the cognitive shift from thinking like a counsellor to thinking like a supervisor.' This means the supervisor shifting focus from the client to the supervisee. The first step is for supervisors to identify aims and behaviours that are unique to supervision. They then need to have a model (Page & Wosket, 2006) or framework (Hawkins & Shohet, 1998) of supervision. Without this, as Bernard and Goodyear (1992) say, they are operating the 'no model' approach, and have failed to address the role of supervisor as different from that of practitioner. Borders (1992) found that training in supervision was needed to help counsellors make the transition, but as yet, not all coaching supervisors have to be trained.

A second resource which helps the new supervisor take on the role is the experience of having been a supervisee. Most therapeutic supervisors will have had this experience, but for coaching supervisors from other spheres this is less likely, so they potentially have less of a normative framework from which to work.

Finally, Hawkins and Shohet (1998) point out that it is not just one role the supervisor in the helping professions takes on, it is several. Mirroring the functions of supervision, they say the supervisor has to combine the roles of educator, supporter and, at times, manager. They further subdivide these roles into teacher, monitor evaluator, counsellor, colleague, boss and expert technician. This suggests something of the complexity of supervision, and underlines the supervisor's need to be very clear when each role is appropriate.

Power

Some of these roles are quite powerful. The managerial function of supervision in social work exacerbated the power imbalance in the relationship between supervisors and supervisees, which could be problematic for supervisors. Kadushin (1968) analysed how social work supervisees and supervisors could play games to avoid managerial oversight and censure on the one hand, and assert credibility on the other. These 'games' ring true in a social work context, where the supervisor is usually the supervisee's line manager. But as coaching supervision is not usually conducted in a hierarchical, managerial context – indeed, the supervisee is often paying for supervision – one would expect the power dynamic to manifest itself in different ways.

The power imbalance will obtain in some form. Firstly, coaching supervisors still discharge elements of a managerial function through monitoring and quality assuring supervisees' work. And secondly, the very fact that supervisees want supervision to increase their capability means that they expect their supervisors to have more professional expertise (and, therefore, power) than they have. But how do coaching supervisors conceptualise the power imbalance, what problems does it cause them, and how do they manage it?

A simple and well-known model which illuminates the power dynamic is Berne's (1964) transactional analysis model of child, adult and parent. This links in part to the transference element in supervision, as the dependency issues, or competition, which can surface in such relationships, are highlighted:

> 'As with any close relationship, the intense nature of the supervision presents a powerful pull towards such dependency. Supervisors and supervisees need to look out for any such tendencies if they are to stay in the here-and-now together, using their full sets of ego state systems' (Hay, 2007, p.51).

The way power manifests itself in the counselling supervisory relationship can be paradoxical. It can be both more equal than the counselling relationship (adult/adult in transactional analysis terms), but simultaneously more authoritarian in that in supervision there is a critical parent/child component (Page & Wosket, 2006). Conceptualising the relationship as 'critical parent/child' sounds foreign to the egalitarian ethos of coaching, which suggests that one might not expect power to manifest itself in this way in coaching supervision.

The very supervisory technique of reflection, as practised in disciplines such as coaching, coaching psychology, counselling and social work, can impact the power relationship. At the heart of Page and Wosket's (2006) cyclical model of counselling supervision, for example, is 'reflective space, where supervisors can relax and allow ourselves not to know what is taking place, not know where the dialogue is taking us, to follow our instincts, intuitions, interests and to encourage the supervisee to do the same' (Carroll & Tholstrup, 2001, p.23). The challenge for supervisors is that this means relinquishing the powerful 'expert' role. But the paradox is that it is through reflection in this 'space' that new insights and change (such as 'Aha' moments) can occur – as long as both supervisor and supervisee feel safe enough to let this happen.

The developmental stage of the supervisor and supervisee could be a factor in the power imbalance (Hawkins & Smith, 2006; Heron, 1989; Meads, 1990). Hawkins and Smith (2006) suggest supervisors move from anxious to do 'the right thing' and trying to play the expert role, to ultimately being able to modify their style to fit supervisees at any stage of development. Paying attention to their supervisee's stage of development is also important. Inexperienced supervisees tend to be dependent on their supervisor. During the 'adolescent' stage they test their supervisor's authority out. When experienced and confident, they reach a mutual relationship characterised by sharing. However, although there is some empirical support for a developmental process, there is a complex set of factors influencing that process which do not fit neatly into a simple model (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1994; Leach et al., 1997), which suggests that such models should be used with discretion.

Much of the conflict around the role of supervisor in the helping professions comes from the difficulty many supervisors have in finding an appropriate way of taking authority and handling the power in the role (Hawkins & Shohet, 1998). This might suggest that power is likely to be an issue for coaching supervisors, especially as the non-directive approach, as promulgated in particular by the School of Coaching (Downey, 2003), has, at least until recently, held such sway in coaching. The coaching literature suggests that one way power manifests itself is in managing diversity in all its different aspects (Hawkins & Smith, 2006). There may be other ways it manifests itself in practice.

Minimising the power imbalance

We do not know how coaching supervisors negotiate the power imbalance, but the therapeutic literature suggests ways the power can be minimised. The relationship can be made more mutual by contracting for honest, positive and constructive feedback for and from both supervisee and supervisor, and by clarifying roles and criteria at the outset (Holloway, 1998). Alternatively, a collaborative learning approach can be adopted, explicitly acknowledging that both supervisor and supervisee learn during supervision. As in Page and Woskets' (2006) 'reflective space', supervisors take risks in 'moving out from behind a potentially more comfortable professional façade, towards a 'reflection-in-action' mode of being, where responsibility and accountability are more equally shared' (Orlan & Edwards 2001, p.47).

Summary

In summary, coaching supervision is operating in a context which is often confused, with differing definitions of its function, and with a borrowed therapeutic model. Interested parties want different things from it, but what coaches most want is the ability to achieve 'Aha' moments (Hawkins, 2006a). It is probable that coaching supervisors find the power inherent in the role problematic, but there is a lack of research into how they conceptualise this. There is a lot riding on coaching supervision, but many questions still to be answered.

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Coaching Hypnosis: Integrating hypnotic strategies and principles in coaching

Andrew Armatas

Coaching psychology has not given much thought to hypnosis, despite its long history of applications in enhancing human abilities and potentials. Since a range of psychotherapeutic strategies have been successfully transitioned to coaching and are commonly practiced by coaches and coaching psychologists, it is suggested that hypnotic techniques and principles can also be successfully employed to meet coaching objectives. This paper mainly discusses: (a) the use of self-hypnosis for the coachee; (b) adapting age-progression and age-regression to fit coaching needs; and (c) the use of indirect suggestions in the coaching dialogue to enhance coachee receptivity. The term 'coaching hypnosis' is proposed when referring to the use of hypnosis in coaching as it will help to separate links with hypnotherapy and encourage it to build an identity of its own.

THE SURGE OF INTEREST in coaching psychology and its continued growth these last years is demonstrated by an increasing number of university-level courses, annual conferences and the publication of peer-reviewed coaching journals. A good range of psychological therapeutic techniques have been adapted to meet coaching objectives and have become part of coaches' repertoire (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). However, the potential use of hypnosis in coaching – even though a valid subject for scientific study and a proven therapeutic medium – has not been given much thought (BPS, 2001).

This paper suggests integrating the theoretical concepts and strategies applied in hypnotherapy and adapting them to the needs of coaching. It also proposes coining the term 'coaching hypnosis' when referring to hypnosis within the coaching arena to distinguish it from therapy – as has already been done with other psychology practices within coaching.

What is hypnosis?

Interest in hypnosis is not contemporary. Although many believe that treatment by suggestions can be traced all the way back to antiquity, modern hypnosis begins in the 18th century with the work of Mesmer. Since then hypnosis has come a long way: from Mesmer's animal magnetism and Charcot's belief that hypnosis is a neuropathological state found in the mentally ill, to Braid's proposition of the term 'hypnotism' and his development of a new induction involving eye fixation, leading to Berheim's conclusion that hypnosis is a form of heightened suggestion and Clark Hull's large-scale hypnosis study in the 1930s.

There are quite a few hypnosis theories and mentioning them all is beyond the scope of this paper. However, they can be fitted in two categories. The state and the non-state theories. There has been an age-old debate on whether hypnosis is a special state or whether hypnotic responding can be explained in terms of psychosocial and cognitive factors. This debate has yet to be resolved (Fellows, 1990; Lynn & O'Hagen, 2009)

State theorists claim that hypnosis denotes a special state and thus the changes observed are unique to hypnosis and hypnotic induction. Modern research highlighting reliable psychological and physiological changes following hypnosis is said to reinforce the special state theory. However, not everyone is convinced that these changes are unique to hypnosis.

Non-state theorists, who reject this model, claim that hypnotic experience does not require the presence of a unique state

(or altered state of consciousness – a term professionals do not use as often any more) and that the changes observed are not unique to hypnosis. They report that it can be explained by the social and cognitive variables that determine everyday complex social behaviours such as role-enactment, attitudes and beliefs about hypnosis, fantasy involvements and motivated engagement with imaginative suggestions, response-sets and expectancies. It is important to note that there is no debate about the phenomena observed, only about why they occur. Which takes us to the question of *what is hypnosis?*

Because there is no consensus on hypnosis – only a consensus on the phenomena observed during hypnosis – a description rather than a definition is usually provided. Hypnosis denotes an interaction between one person, designated as the 'hypnotist' and another person or group of people, designated as the subject or subjects. In this interaction, the hypnotist attempts to influence the subject's perceptions, feelings, thinking and behaviour by asking them to concentrate on ideas and images that may evoke the intended effects. The verbal communications that the hypnotist uses to achieve these effects are termed 'suggestions' and differ from instructions as the subjects experience them as having a quality of involuntariness or effortlessness (BPS, 2001).

Why hypnosis?

Research is increasingly showing that hypnosis adds to the efficiency of cognitive-behavioural and psychodynamic therapy (Alladin & Alibhai, 2007; Bryant et al., 2005; Kirsch, 1996; Kirsch et al., 1995; Schoebenger, 2000). Enough studies have now accumulated to suggest the benefit of including hypnosis in the management and treatment of a wide range of problems encountered in the practice of medicine and psychotherapy (Elkins et al., 2007; Flammer & Alladin, 2007; Flory et al., 2007; BPS, 2001).

In an article summarising the search for efficacious hypnotic treatment, Wark (2008) reviewed 18 major meta-analyses and evaluated the results using the criteria of Chambless and Holton (1998). The analysis identified 32 disorders for which hypnosis can be considered a possible treatment (e.g. bulimia, depression, irritable bowel syndrome), five for which it seems effective (cancer pain, distress during surgery, surgery pain in adults, surgery pain in children and weight reduction) and two for which it appears a specific treatment of choice (anxiety about asthma, headaches and migraines). However, the movement toward the empirical validation of clinical hypnosis is still in its infancy and further empirical research is needed for a wider acceptance of hypnotic interventions.

Hypnosis is not relaxation

Although hypnosis can be used as a relaxation procedure, hypnosis is not relaxation. Hypnosis has been often called a relaxation therapy which is not the case. Although relaxation can be a part of hypnosis – usually a very welcoming result of the process – it is not a necessary part. Hypnosis can be carried out with the individual being physically active, open-eyed, focusing on the external environment and with no suggestions of relaxation (Banyai et al., 1997; Capafons, 2004; Wark, 2006).

The most important difference is in the focus of the two techniques. Relaxation focuses more on the physical components of the individual's experience of anxiety. Hypnosis, on the other hand, focuses more on the cognitive components of the individual's experience, including the use of imagery, suggestion and cognitive mastery. The goal of hypnosis is to exert influence on feelings, thoughts and behaviours (O'Neill et al., 1999).

When both hypnosis and relaxation are used to reduce anxiety, those using hypnosis report a greater sense of treatment efficiency and expectation and with a greater sense of cognitive and physical change – even when there is no difference in the outcome data (O'Neill et al., 1999). Furthermore, the neurophysiology of hypnosis differs from that of

relaxation and brain activity appears to vary according to the suggestions given. Finally, relaxation in hypnosis has been shown to be different from relaxation in other contexts (Gruzelier, 1998; Wagstaff, 2000).

Hypnosis and coaching

Hypnosis has a long history of applications in enhancing human abilities and potentials: whether it is promoting personal, team and leadership development, enhancing creativity or assisting athletes and students with managing their anxiety, improving learning and enhancing performance (Barber et al., 1974; Burger, 2002; Council et al., 2007; Liggett, 2000; Palmer, 2008; Unestahl, 2004; Yu, 2006). Hypnosis facilitates access to information of which one might not be fully aware along with an increased sense of safety when dealing with personal issues (Gruzelier, 2000) – a potential benefit to developmental coaching.

Hypnosis has been used for decades in a variety of settings to facilitate therapeutic results or to enhance performance. Since other psychotherapeutic strategies have been successfully transitioned to coaching and are commonly practiced by coaches and coaching psychologists, hypnotic techniques and principles may also be successfully transitioned to meet coaching objectives and equally adopted by coaching professionals.

Hypnotic techniques in coaching

Although a wide range of hypnotic techniques have the potential to be incorporated within a coaching framework, this article focuses on three: self-hypnosis, age progression, and age regression. As research of hypnotic techniques in coaching psychology is lacking, much is based on author's experience (Armatas, 2008a).

Self-hypnosis:

Self-hypnosis (hypnosis initiated and carried out by the coachee) is widely encouraged as it reinforces the work already conducted in the office or the workplace and promotes active participation. It may be used to facilitate self-mastery and an increased sense of self-control. It can also be added to coaching to facilitate learning and enhance performance, not far from what many athletes do as part of their preparation regime. At the discretion of the coach, a recorded tape of the hypnotic session in the office can be given to the client for frequent use.

In summary, self-hypnosis can be utilised as a means of practicing/rehearsing skills, facilitating learning, encouraging independence and empowerment, participating actively and enhancing motivation. A coachee may use self-hypnosis to reinforce a coach's suggestions, to build confidence, to master new skills, change behavioural patterns and promote changes in cognition (Fromm & Kahn, 1990; Sanders, 1997).

Age progression:

Age progression involves working in the future – a concept those practicing solution-focused coaching will find familiar. Rather than using it in the end of a session, one may initiate it in the beginning. Coachees are encouraged to progress to the future where they can: (a) rehearse recently taught coping strategies; (b) rehearse the benefits of changing and thus enhance motivation; (c) identify any problems that seem to arise with changing and manage them beforehand; and (d) augment post-hypnotic suggestions at the end of the session (Heap & Aravind, 2002). Age progression may also be included in a coachee's self-hypnosis practice.

Age-progression can be utilised to establish clear goals and the necessary resources, skills and coping mechanisms needed to get there. When this is done, an individualised plan can be prepared that will aid the coachee in achieving his or her goal (see Table 1).

Age regression:

Age regression refers to the reliving in imagination of memories from an earlier period in one's life. It does not re-instate childhood (or other age-appropriate) physiological and psychological processes and structures (Nash, 1987). Nor do clinical practitioners

Table 1: Age Progression.

Age Progression: EXPLORE & DEVELOP
Explore desired future image:
● What do they want to do/feel?
● What is success like?
● Any problems arising with success?
● What is needed to get there?
● Anticipated difficulties?
Develop:
● Clear goals.
● Resources/Skills.
● Coping mechanisms.

tend to use age-regression as a memory enhancement tool. Memories retrieved through age-regression may be unreliable and the more remote the regression, the greater the risk of inaccuracy. This seems to be mostly related to expectancies and situational demands rather than with hypnosis *per se*. For example, if you believe that you can remember what is forgotten during hypnosis, any information retrieved will be viewed and 'felt' as accurate (even if it is not). Hypnosis practitioners advise focusing on the emotional experience rather than the details of the event. (Wagstaff, 2008; Wagstaff et al., 2007). One needs to be adept at dealing with possible abreactions, knowing when to use age-regression and when restrictions apply. Inappropriate handling may retraumatise a client. Obviously, thorough training and supervision is mandatory.

It is the author's experience that when working in coaching settings, a necessity for remote regression (e.g. childhood) is highly unlikely. Still, as hypnosis can be a powerful emotional experience, one cannot stress the importance of training and supervised experience. As clinical work and hazards differ from coaching objectives, the following guidelines are recommended that will minimise risks that are mostly associated with therapy: (a) do not haste with assessment and rule out need for therapy; (b) have a concrete goal and purpose in mind for using age-regression; (c) avoid using age-regression as a memory enhancement tool or for exploratory work; (d) identify memories to be utilised before hypnosis. For example, if your goal is to enhance one's performance, you may identify past performances that the coachee is proud of (if any) and inform the coachee beforehand which ones you will work on and for what purpose; and (e) do not focus on unnecessary details during hypnosis. Instead, direct attention to emotions, cognitions and behaviours that are needed to repeat similar performances or to coping mechanisms that were lacking and need development.

Although some practitioners may feel reluctant to use age regression, it can be fruitful under certain circumstances, as long as it adopts a coaching philosophy, e.g. to improve performance, skills and learnings. Specifically, age regression can be used to:

(a) access resources that 'once were' and build on them.

It is not uncommon for coachees to have exhibited in the past the skills and resources they are currently striving to acquire. Some have already experienced the very same skills and behaviours they are now trying to achieve with the help of a coaching professional. The pianist who has performed numerous times before large audiences yet now finds himself having a difficult time harnessing the accompanying stress. Or the salesperson who fears he has 'lost his talent' after a period of exhibiting exemplary sales skills with documented success. Age regression can be applied in these cases in order to foster belief and confidence in the attainment of goals; if they have done it once, they can do it again. It can help the coachee re-experience, remember and access the desired skills and resources and build on them. Finally, one can 'bring' those skills and resources back to the present and future.

(b) access and utilise desired resources and skills that already exist in another area.

An example would be the coachee who wants to deal with her performance anxiety. She is a postgraduate student and is required to present before fellow students and

instructors. Although she has not engaged in any avoidance behaviour, she knows that her anxiety is getting in the way of her performance. It so happens that the coachee has been part of the University's acting club since she was an undergraduate student and is still actively engaged in it, even though rehearsals are time consuming. In this case, age regression serves the purpose of utilising her rewarding theatrical performances, accessing her existing performing skills and harnessing them before an academic audience.

(c) review and learn from previous performance, build on positives and develop what is missing.
Video recording coachees' performances may not always be possible. When recording is not an option, one may consider reviewing previous performances using age regression. It provides an opportunity to focus on what needs developing and to take a positive psychology outlook, by building on the positives and utilising those exceptions during their performance that felt good and yielded results. Imagine a workshop instructor that appears to be struggling to maintain her own energy levels during her workshop, let alone sustain a high interest level among the participants. While replaying her performance during age-regression, one can focus on the times she was energetic and the participants were more involved and interested. In this case, age regression is chosen to review previous performances, to build on the positives and to develop what is missing. Skills coaching can be added depending on what is determined to be missing.

Hypnotic communication: Suggestions

A suggestion can be defined as an interpersonal priming process whereby one person by means of verbal communication, nonverbal behaviours and other contextual factors aims to influence the beliefs, intentions, desires or feelings without the other being aware of this (Lundh, 2000). Although hypnotic inductions tend to increase the level of responsiveness to suggestions, similar responses to suggestions can be obtained without formal hypnosis. This paper's focus is on the use of indirect suggestions (Heap & Aravind, 2002) during coaching conversations in order to enhance responsiveness.

Indirect suggestions in coaching

Following are some suggestions that a coach can strategically add to the coaching dialogue or to existing coaching techniques without the use of hypnosis. As with all strategies, suggestions need to be used having a specific purpose in mind.

'Yes Set':
The 'yes set' involves asking questions which the coachee is certain to respond with a yes in order to increase receptiveness to our intended suggestions. Following is an example of a dialogue with a successful entrepreneur – who would often boast about how good he is at building successful businesses – just before introducing relaxation. His goal was the control of unnecessary irritability when he did not get his way and/or when others did not follow through his advice. This behaviour was directed to his family, friends and employees but almost never to likeminded businessmen. The purpose of using the 'yes set' in this session was to enhance receptivity to the use of relaxation and to increase positive expectations and responses.

Example:

- So it appears that you have done quite well in business?
- *Yes, I was always good at that.*
- And you feel confident when it comes to business.
- *Yes.*
- And in control when dealing with business plans and finding investors.
- *Yes, in control.*
- And I am sure you will feel even better when you will be able to control your tension.
- *Yes, that would be great.*
- And feeling in control suits you doesn't it (laughter).

- *Yep, it certainly does.*
- So, rather than beating around the bush, why not start a simple yet effective way to relax.
- Great.

Embedded suggestions:
Embedded suggestions are suggestions contained within a statement and keywords are spoken in different tone. Following is an example that can be carried out during relaxation or imagery. The content is basically the same as the 'Yes Set' dialogue described above but used in a different manner. The keywords in italics are the messages the coachee wants to convey and are spoken in a slightly different tone. The goal is to help the coachee tap into his ability to feel confident and in control (referring to his business side) and link it with relaxation.

'So, let me just remind you, as you are practicing your relaxation exercise, that we have talked about how *you are doing quite well* in business … and how *you feel confident* when in it comes to business … and *you feel in control* when dealing with business plans and finding investors … and *you will feel even better* you know … when *being able to control* your tension … and *feeling in control* … which suits you doesn't it … *it feels right* … and you are *already more in control* … of your breathing … just by (continue guiding through relaxation).

It is highly recommended that training be sought in the use of these suggestions when added to experiential techniques such as imagery and relaxation as they can inadvertently lead to the experience of hypnosis.

Binds/Double binds:
Binds and Double binds aim at creating illusion of choice. Where the response alternatives are deemed to be conscious, the suggestion is referred to as a 'bind' and when unconscious a 'double bind'. The purpose of using binds is to presuppose that the desired goal will occur and increases positive expectations.
Bind: *'When do you prefer to learn to relax, now or towards the end of the session?'*
Double bind: *'I wonder where you will find yourself being more assertive first, will it be in a professional situation or a more social one?'*

Open-ended suggestions:
These suggestions involve asking coachees to notice what experiences are present at the time (implying their existence) rather than simply describing the experience for them. Once again, the purpose is to imply that there are noticeable changes and at the same time the coach can use any kind of feedback to reinforce further suggestions.
Examples:
'I wonder what you are experiencing right now' (message: there is something to experience, take your time and let me know, because something is happening or is about to happen)
'Notice how it feels to breathe (think, act, etc.) in this way' (goal: reinforcing the intended changes in breathing, thinking, acting).

Indirect implication using the negative:
This suggestion implies that something will not happen now but will happen later. Let's assume that a coachee seems a bit anxious about being able to learn new skills, such as being able to relax. Before (s)he rushes into it with an increased chance of giving up, one may want to consider saying:
'As you are learning to focus on exhaling, *I don't want you to become deeply relaxed until you* have understood the whole process. *Give yourself some more time before relaxing further* and just focus on the learnings …'

Another example would be with a coachee who has identified the changes that need to be made for his business to grow. However, you feel concerned he might pressure himself to do too much too soon. Using this suggestion may take the pressure off the coachee and it often leads to an initiative to do more than agreed upon but without the pressure. An example in this case would be:
'Please *don't apply any changes before you* feel comfortable with them. So which one do you feel most comfortable with?'

Paradox:
A paradox appears to suggest the opposite response to what is really required. The purpose is the same as the 'indirect implication using the negative', it is just stated slightly differently. The implication is that the intended changes will happen but at a later time.
'I'd prefer you don't relax too quickly…'
'Let's not make any changes just yet …'

Reference to coachee's experience from everyday life:
One can introduce a suggestion by first referring to a relevant life experience, thus making it more valid, more believable and more natural to the coachee.

A coachee has presented with presentation anxiety associated with conference presentations. The initial interview shows that he is an avid football player. Further probing indicates that he feels very comfortable on the field, and even when he plays in the presence of passionate spectators, he goes on with his game and feels exhilarated in the end. This experience was used in our conversation and later the same suggestions were embedded in his imagery.
'Just like when you are playing football … *you're focused on winning and so concentrated that even though there may be hundreds of people watching, it is as if they are not there … somehow you are more focused on doing your best … on being your best …'*
Another way to start would be:
'*You know how you …* (add coachee's experience according to the message you want to convey).'

Reference to other people's experience:
This suggestion was used just before starting a coaching technique with a coachee that had a preconceived notion that changes take ages to happen:
'I did this with a client last week and when it was over she said that *she thought it would have taken ages before she felt empowered … so when you're ready …'*
'I remember a client asked the same question and when I told her that *(add suggestions according to the message you want conveyed …).'*

Metaphors and stories
Metaphors and stories are another way of conveying messages. Coaching psychologists can choose to construct their own original metaphors and stories, extract them from other sources or work with a metaphor found in the coachee's narration. As long as they are used at a stage where the coachee can make use of the information, there are several advantages to using metaphors and stories: they stimulate imagination and creativity, they are safe and easy to remember and help bypass possible resistance to change and development. Moreover, coachees actively construct for themselves new ways of understanding and tackling their problems. Finally, metaphors may be utilised to build rapport, prepare for future responses and to link change to subsequent behaviour (Brown, 1997; Queralto, 2006).

Coaching hypnosis:

The term 'coaching hypnosis' is suggested when using hypnosis within the coaching arena (Armatas, 2008b). Coaching hypnosis may be defined as *the deliberate use of hypnotic strategies and principles as an adjunct to accepted coaching processes.* Just as with other therapy practices adapted to coaching, a distinct term will help to separate links with therapy (specifically with hypnotherapy) and give it an identity of its own. Coaching hypnosis is results-oriented and solution-focused. It is present and future focused (even when dealing with past). As with hypnosis in therapy, it is not an approach but an adjunct to accepted coaching processes. One might have behavioural or cognitive-behavioural coaching hypnosis, solution-focused coaching hypnosis, gestalt coaching hypnosis and so on. There are some common questions that need to be taken into account. Is rapport established? Does the coachee have unrealistic expectations? Is hypnosis viewed as a magical procedure that will do all the work for the coachee? Any past negative experiences of hypnotic or hypnotic-like strategies? Is hypnosis the first choice or is there a better way of dealing with coachee's issues?

Culture and context

Cultural differences need to be taken into account when using formal hypnosis. The author is bilingual (Australian – Greek) and caters to both English-speaking and Greek-speaking communities: not all English-speaking coachees are English and not all Greek-speaking coachees are Greek. Different cultures bring different perceptions about hypnosis and these need to be addressed. Additionally, hypnosis needs to be explained and presented according to the context in which it is to be provided. Differences in describing and applying coaching hypnosis will depend on the type of coaching (business or personal) and the 'type' of coachee (leader, executive, an employee lower down the hierarchy, a freelancer or unemployed). Finally, hypnosis should always be a choice: one of many choices available for the coachee.

Training and supervision

Because hypnosis is not a distinct approach, it is to be used alongside accepted coaching approaches. The International Society of Hypnosis (ISH) which is the recognised society in the hypnosis field with constituent societies from 20 countries stresses the importance of training and using hypnosis only for those purposes for which one is professionally qualified and with the strict limitations of one's professional work. This implies that for coaching psychologists, hypnosis be used for coaching purposes. Training courses are available at some universities, through hypnosis sections of psychological societies and through constituent societies of ISH. It is advised that professionals offering such training are either ISH members or members of its constituent societies (in some cases membership alone may not indicate adequate training and accreditation is required). However, even if training in hypnosis is taken, as very few are coaching psychologists, one will need to adapt what is learned to meet coaching objectives, not an easy feat for a novice.

Conclusion

Hypnotic strategies and principles can be successfully applied to meet coaching objectives and can become part of a coaching psychologist's repertoire following training and supervision- as has been done with other psychological techniques currently used in coaching. Indirect suggestions may be strategically employed in a coaching dialogue in order to enhance coachee receptivity. The term 'coaching hypnosis' is proposed to help separate links from hypnotherapy and help it have an identity of its own. Coaching hypnosis is referred to as being *the deliberate use of hypnotic strategies and principles as an adjunct to accepted coaching processes.* Much work needs to be done in this area as research is definitely lacking: an interesting and promising area nonetheless.

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Co-creating an optimal coaching alliance: A Cognitive Behavioural Coaching perspective

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A version of this paper was presented at the SGCP 1st European Coaching Psychology Conference in December 2008, as part of a symposium on Cognitive Behaviour Coaching: Research, Theory and Practice.

This paper reviews the coaching relationship from a Cognitive Behavioural Coaching (CBC) perspective. Using empathy as one example of a key relationship component it identifies how building, establishing and maintaining an optimal coaching alliance for the specific coachee, through an explicit process of negotiation and renegotiation epitomises 'the collaborative relationship' a central tenet of the Cognitive Behavioural framework. It also highlights how extending to the relationship itself an emphasis on the cognitive-behavioural dynamics of the coachee and the coach, individually and in interaction can potentially assist in fostering, maintaining, and where necessary managing disruptions in, the coaching alliance. Power dynamics and time constraints are highlighted as themes possibly differentiating the coaching alliance from the therapeutic alliance. The broader-based explicit stance of the coach resulting in a reciprocal requirement for greater adaptability to the coachee's needs are tentatively proposed as further differentiators of the coaching alliance from a CBC perspective.

Keywords: *Cognitive Behavioural Coaching (CBC), coaching relationship, coaching alliance, collaborative relationship, empathy, coach stance.*

COGNITIVE BEHAVIOURAL COACHING (CBC) (Palmer & Szymanska, 2007) is a goal-directed, dual-system (psychological and practical) integrated approach. It aims to increase coachee self-awareness, improve coachee problem-solving skills and support coachees in modifying their performance inhibiting, stress inducing and goal blocking beliefs. CBC has adapted cognitive and cognitive behavioural therapy to coaching (Neenan & Dryden, 2002; Ducharme, 2004; Sherin & Caiger, 2004; Neenan, 2008; Palmer & Gyllensten, 2008). The ultimate aim of CBC is for the coachee to become their own self-coach (Neenan, 2006).

CBC and the integrative heritage of CBT

The adaptation of cognitive and cognitive behavioural therapies to CBC discussed in this article refer largely to 'second wave' therapies, primarily due to their strong evidence-based research support. These 'second wave' therapies have built upon 'first wave' classical behavioural therapies and take the position that cognitive variables act as important mediators between contextual stimuli and responses (Beck et al., 1979; Ellis, 1962). These cognitive variables include form and content of cognitions, as well as cognitive processes, such as storage, and retrieval (through biases, heuristics and errors). However, 'third wave' cognitive behavioural therapies, focusing on 'changing the individual's relationship to thoughts and feelings through acceptance and mindfulness' (Singh et al., 2008) are continuing to build their theory and evidence-base (for instance through broadening existing theory on the topic of mindfulness, (Langer, 1989). It appears that these approaches are likely to continue to gain prominence within the 'family of allied therapies' (Mansell, 2008) that is CBT and in

turn be increasingly incorporated into CBT and CBC practice. Indeed, we have already begun to see mindfulness-based techniques and skills adapted into Cognitive Behavioural coaching approaches (Collard & Walsh, 2008; Spence et al., 2008). As the themes identified later in this article occur at a level of abstraction subsuming the differences (such as form and content versus function) of cognitions in the respective second and third wave therapies, 'third wave' cognitive behavioural therapies are considered equally compatible with the perspective taken below on the coaching relationship from a CBC viewpoint. Indeed, the functional-contextual emphasis of 'third-wave' cognitive behavioural therapies can be considered particularly synergistic with evidence-informed coaching models (Stober & Grant, 2006).

The coaching relationship literature

Little has been written in the CBC literature to date specifically on the coaching relationship although references to relationship aspects in the CBC coaching process exist (e.g. Neenan, 2008). In the broader coaching literature the coaching relationship has repeatedly been cited as an important change agent (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Jones & Spooner, 2006; Bachkirova, 2007; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007; De Haan, 2008). At present embryonic, the dedicated coaching relationship literature is growing as interest increases in the area (O'Broin & Palmer, 2006, 2007; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007; De Haan et al., 2008; Kemp, 2009). In particular, the use of the self (Cox & Bachkirova, 2007; Day et al., 2008) and presence, of the coach (Bluckert, 2006; Spinelli, 2008) have been highlighted.

Establishing and developing a collaborative relationship

Akin to Cognitive Behavioural Therapy, (CBT) where a collaborative relationship is a tenet of the approach (Beck et al., 1979; Beck, 1991; Wills & Sanders, 1997; Gilbert & Leahy, 2007), CBC equally emphasises working collaboratively with the coachee (Palmer & Szymanska, 2007). The dictionary definition (Collins, 2001) of the term 'collaborate' denotes *'to work with another or others on a joint project'* and could feasibly define a full range of attitudes of the dyad in the process of working towards the coachee's coaching goals. These range from being fully co-operative to highly unco-operative (e.g. in the latter case, ranging from being neutral through withholding, paying lip-service, being hostile to de-railing). O'Broin and Palmer (2007) address this topic in their discussion of co-operative or competitive stances within a game theory analogy in coaching. The original writings of Beck and cohorts (Beck et al., 1979; Beck & Emery, 1985; Beck, 1991) delineated several aspects of 'a collaborative relationship.' Translated into the coaching context these are as follows:

- neither participant taking a superior role;
- a 'team' approach;
- joint efforts;
- both being open and explicit;
- the coach's collaborative stance and demeanour;
- the coach providing rationales;
- the coach offering techniques which the coachee can choose whether or not to use;
- the coach admitting mistakes.

In essence, by adopting these attitudes, stance and behaviours the coach and (it is suggested) the coachee together seek to achieve what Beck and Emery, (1985: 177) describe as '… a collaborative spirit.' The importance of the spirit rather than just the letter of collaboration is emphasised here. It is noteworthy too that collaboration is a superordinate principle encompassing numerous sub-components, including empathy and the stance of the coach.

Building an optimal coaching alliance

Relationship science demonstrates the relevance of mutual influence in relationships (Reis, 2007). So too does the counselling and psychotherapy outcome literature when

discussing mutual involvement in establishing and developing a collaborative framework and in gaining positive outcome (Tryon & Winograd, 2002). The Working Alliance (Bordin, 1979), a relationship factor repeatedly linked to positive outcome, is characterised by three inter-related features, *goals*, *tasks* and *bonds* associated with purposive, collaborative work. Bordin's contribution was to assert that all therapies shared the pantheoretic alliance concept, and that the alliance was applicable in any change situation.

Dryden (2008) adds a fourth feature to those of goals, tasks and bonds in an expanded model of the therapeutic working alliance, that of 'views'. Views, translated into the coaching context consist of the views of the coachee and coach on the practicalities of the coaching process (such as venue, cost, frequency, length, cancellation, contact and access policy); the nature of the coachee's block, and how the block will be addressed. In forming the coaching alliance, these views require explicit discussion, negotiation and agreement, along with the goals, tasks and bonds.

The coaching alliance is a mutual process in which the self of the coach and coachee impact on the other in the interpersonal dynamics of the coaching relationship (Kemp, 2008a). Stober and Grant (2006, p.361) for instance note:

> '… it is important that the coach and client spend some time discussing the nature of their relationship, and that they jointly design the dynamics of the working alliance.'

The theme of co-creating the coaching alliance is also addressed by O'Broin and Palmer, (in press a). These authors suggest that the explicit discussion, agreement and renegotiation over time, of the goals, tasks and bonds of the coaching alliance can help create the clarity and transparency vital for trust and respect in the coaching relationship. Similarly, Kemp (2009, p.109) in a leadership coaching context asserts that by demonstrating empathy, congruence and unconditional positive regard, the alliance exhibits:

> '… a deep sense of shared trust commitment and purpose.'

Kemp (2009) further suggests that establishing a relationship between coachee and coach of shared meaning and contextual clarity, acts as a catalyst for transformational results through the alliance.

By explicitly negotiating and renegotiating the goals, tasks, bonds, and views of coaching, coaches can use different kinds of activities in different conceptual approaches to build an optimal coaching alliance for the specific coachee in their specific context.

Making the coaching alliance explicit in CBC

An emphasis on collaboratively negotiating with the coachee on the features of the coaching alliance may also assist in creating a more equal balance of power in the coaching relationship (Spinelli, 2008). This may be particularly salient to the coaching relationship which is perceived as less authoritarian and more egalitarian and collaborative in comparison with the therapeutic relationship (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004). The coach explicitly discussing the CBC coaching model, and the formulation, is a fundamental tenet of the conceptual approach of the Cognitive Behavioural Coaching framework (Szymanska, 2009). It is proposed that this explicit discussion, in conjunction with being explicit in discussion of goals, tasks, bonds and views of the coaching endeavour is likely to benefit the establishment, development and maintenance of an effective coaching alliance in CBC.

Research and literature on the psychological contract provides additional input in this examination of the benefits of being explicit as part of a collaborative and negotiated coaching alliance. As Bluckert, (2006) notes, most coaching assignments involve a written contract, signed by coachee, coach, and if applicable, also by an organisational sponsor. Regardless of whether a written contract exists or not, a psychological 'con-

tract' exists between coachee and coach (Spinelli, 2008; O'Broin & Palmer, in press b). The psychological contract concerns mutual reciprocal obligations, in this instance of the coach and coachee, with three primary concepts in the formation of psychological contracts being Schemas, Promises and Mutuality (Rousseau, 2001). Depending on whether information sources are trusted, explicit, clear and consistent, schema are anticipated to emerge and develop differently. Promises are meaningful in their specific context, and may be verbal or interpretations of actions. For Mutuality to occur, several conditions are necessary. These are:

- shared information between the coach and coachee;
- objective accuracy in individual perceptions;
- the right to ask for terms to be in one's own interest;
- the right to either consent or reject the terms of the mutual agreement.

If these conditions are fulfilled, then both coach and coachee may hold the same beliefs regarding reciprocal obligations and thus achieve mutuality. Research is in the process of investigating how effective psychological contracts can be created and revised (e.g. Shalk & Roe, 2007). Malhotra and Murnigham (2002) for instance, assert that non-binding contracts (such as the psychological contract) may help build an optimal basis for building trust. Hence negotiation of the psychological contract in coaching may form another key component of an explicit stance in the pantheoretic coaching relationship, and in particular to the broad-based explicit stance of the CBC coach in the coaching alliance.

This broad-based explicit and collaborative stance of the coach, in addition to encouraging the coachee to be equally explicit about the coaching process may be one aspect of the coaching alliance that is more specific to the CBC approach.

Bonds in the coaching alliance

The bond has received most attention in the counselling and psychotherapy literature when conceptualised within the core conditions of empathy, genuineness and unconditional acceptance. This is particularly the case in the person-centred tradition (e.g. Mearns & Thorne, 2007) where these attitudes are considered the basic work of the counsellor and are viewed as necessary and often sufficient for client development. Such counsellor attitudes have a broader relevance beyond the person-centred tradition (Dryden, 2008a) and have been considered by some in the cognitive behavioural framework (e.g. Trower et al., 2007) to provide the backdrop for the technical work to take place.

Likewise in coaching, we are witnessing an increasing interest and emphasis on interpersonal processes in coaching (Luebbe, 2005; Bachkirova, 2007; Spinelli, 2008; De Haan, 2008) including the coaching relationship (Bluckert, 2006; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2007; Kemp, 2008a) and the coaching alliance, (Kemp, 2009).

The work-supporting bond

As has been increasingly recognised in the counselling and psychotherapy research literature, participant, relationship and technical factors work individually and in interaction, in a context, to contribute to positive outcome (Beutler & Castonguay, 2006). Addressing the coaching alliance from this more complex perspective suggests that within the bond between coach and coachee, coach attitudes of empathy, genuineness and unconditional acceptance of the coachee may be of particular importance for some but not necessarily all coachees.

A second narrower bond concept in the alliance identified by (Bordin, 1979) and labelled as the *work-supporting bond* by Hatcher and Barends, (2006) may be more instructive here. Supportive to the goals and tasks, this work-supporting bond is conceptualised as linking goals tasks and bonds to the core alliance issue of collaborative, purposive work.

An optimal level of bond for a specific coachee, within a specific context introduces the principle of adapting the alliance to the individual coachee. Tailoring the practitioner's approach to the individual client's needs and characteristics has been demonstrated to enhance psychotherapy outcome (Norcross, 2002). Different conceptual models view the impact of interpersonal attitudes of the counselor differently. In coaching too, the benefits of tailoring the relationship to the needs of the specific coachee are frequently advocated (Stober, 2006; De Haan, 2008; Kauffman & Bachkirova, 2008). However, an explicit matching of coach and coachee on the basis of the right 'chemistry' and surface diversity factors may be less relevant than coach adaptability and experience (Wycherley & Cox, 2008).

Cognitive-behavioural dynamics of coachee (and coach) in the relationship

Cavanagh and Grant (2004) emphasise the importance of working with the cognitive-behavioural dynamics of coachee and coach in the coaching process. The personal development, self-regulation and self-management of the coach are increasingly becoming a focus (Bachkirova, 2007; Kemp, 2008a; 2008b), as is the self-management of the coachee (Kemp, 2009; O'Broin & Palmer, in press a).

Working with the cognitive-behavioural dynamics of coach and coachee is synergistic with a more complex alliance perspective in relation to bonds between coach and coachee, where focus on the interpersonal styles of coach and coachee in interaction becomes key. The implication here is that the coaching bond is likely to be enhanced when a good match exists between the interpersonal styles of coach and coachee, particularly in the early stages of establishing an optimal coaching alliance. Also that the interpersonal style of the coach is modified as and when necessary during the coaching endeavour, as the coachee's attitude towards the coach may change (Bluckert, 2006). Liking a coach/coachee too much may not be conducive to purposive work if this blocks coaching progress in any way. This requirement for adapting one's interpersonal style to the coachee in order to rapidly establish an optimal coaching alliance is illustrated in a study by Jones and Spooner, (2006) who found that High Achievers required a relationship of ultimate trust and mutual respect, as well as rapid results and the need for coaches to add value quickly. The ability of the coach to rapidly establish, as well as develop and maintain an optimal coaching alliance is particularly accentuated perhaps when coaching high achievers. However, possible time constraints and the limited frequency of coaching sessions highlights the possible greater need for quickly establishing an effective coaching alliance than may be the case in other helping relationships.

Issues detracting from the coaching alliance and placing a focus on the cognitive-behavioural dynamics of the coachee may arise from:

- the coachee's negative perception of the style, presence, attitudes, behaviours of the coach;
- the perception that they are not being listened to by the coach;
- a lack of accurate empathy on the coach's part;
- a lack of appropriate focus for the coaching from the coachee's viewpoint;
- other interpersonal aspects of the coaching relationship.

These perceptions may result in coaching-interfering feelings and behaviours, such as hostility, and withdrawal of the coachee. Issues placing a focus on the cognitive-behavioural dynamics of the coach include unhelpful coaching-interfering and unhelpful thoughts, feelings and behaviours that in turn may impact on their interpersonal perceptual and relational skills. Amongst others, these could include:

- unhelpful coach schema;
- feelings of incompetence;
- avoidance behaviour of 'difficult' situations with the coachee.

Alternatively the interaction of coaching-interfering thinking, feeling and or behaviours may represent a schematic mismatch or 'over match' (Leahy, 2008), i.e. that the schema of the coachee and coach are similar or conflict. For a more detailed discussion of the implications of the coaching-interfering thinking, feelings and behaviour of the coach, the coachee, and of possible interactive rule-based thinking see (O'Broin & Palmer, in press b).

Empathy in a collaborative relationship

The research-focused approach of the Cognitive Behavioural tradition has historically focused more extensively on the technical aspects of the approach (Leahy, 2008) and their effect on outcome. However, there has been growing interest in exploring the relationship and its impact on outcome (Gilbert & Leahy, 2007; Leahy, 2008). There has also been increasing recognition in the CBT literature base of the value of exploring particular relationship factors, for instance, one aspect of the bond, that of empathy (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007).

Beck et al., (1979) identified empathy as a central ingredient in promoting therapeutic change). Empathy appears to be a key factor in establishing an effective therapeutic relationship in any therapeutic framework (Castonguay & Beutler, 2006) including CBT (Hardy et al., 2007). A meta-analysis by Bohart et al., (2002) found that empathy accounted for seven to 10 per cent of the variance in therapy outcome, and that effect sizes were higher in CBT studies than in those from other theoretical orientations. Bohart et al. (2002) speculated that empathy could be considered more necessary in intervention-based therapy than in those therapies placing particular emphasis on the relationship as a mechanism of change. If the place for empathy is found to be as central to the coaching process in CBC as is the case in CBT (Beck et al., 1979), empathy is likely to be a key aspect of the coaching alliance in coaching worthy of further study.

The Therapeutic Model of Empathy (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007) was developed to conceptualise the nature and function of therapeutic empathy. This largely resulted from four factors:

- as a response to the absence of CBT empirical research literature on the topic;
- there is no universal definition of empathy and different conceptual traditions and writers emphasise different elements.

Linked to this second factor:

- the absence of a specific understanding of empathy within the CBT context, where there is overlap with other related concepts, such as validation and compassion (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007; Gilbert, 2007);
- to assist training and supervision of therapists.

The model presents a conceptualisation of empathy part of which applies generically across conceptual approaches and part of which is specific to the conceptual approach.

The Model contains four components:

- empathic attitude/stance (a sense of curiosity, good will and interest);
- empathic attunement (perceptual skill of 'tuning-in to the coachee);
- empathic communication (active and skilful communication of empathy to the coachee);
- empathy knowledge (what coaches learn from reading or training during the personal development and training process).

The functions of empathy described in the Model include:

- its role in helping establish the relationship;
- assisting assessment and formulation;
- enabling traditional CBT techniques;
- helping maintain the relationship (particularly in the case of an impasse);
- an active agent for change in its own right.

In addition to the position that empathy enables the techniques and process of CBT

to take place, others consider that through validation, empathy and compassion, the *relationship* with the therapist is a means for helping clients change how they relate to themselves and their own experiences (Gilbert, 2005; Gilbert & Leahy, 2007)

Whilst a detailed review of the model itself is outside the scope of this article, key aspects relevant to a discussion of empathy in CBC will be reviewed. First, the model highlights the importance of the person of the practitioner and self-reflection in the development of empathy. This empathic 'mode' of processing is contrasted with the rational mode of processing adopted by the practitioner when working more formally with the coachee.

One differentiating feature of 'therapeutic' empathy from natural empathy which we might experience in everyday life, is the addition of the cognitive perspective-taking component to the emotional one (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007). In this way the practitioner is able to conceptualise the coachee's situation in cognitive as well as emotional terms and this may be one factor of empathy emphasised within a Cognitive Behavioural orientation.

Turning now to the components of the Therapeutic Model of Empathy specific to the Cognitive Behavioural framework, and argued to apply to CBC, it is proposed that the particular emphasis on the collaborative relationship via the *empathic stance* of the practitioner may enhance empathy as an enabler for the sometimes challenging changes expected of clients in this approach (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007).

In terms of *empathic attunement* there may be differences of focus and context compared to other conceptual approaches. In keeping with the CBC approach, attunement is more likely to focus on problem description, formulation and intervention strategies, unless the coaching alliance itself epitomises aspects of the formulation, or there has been a disruption in the alliance. Coaching attunement may also be present in contexts whereby the coach attunes to the coachee's in-the-moment experience whilst undertaking a CBC intervention and technique (for example, in-session role-playing in a between-session assignment that the coachee will be conducting after the session). The technical strategies and skills of CBC themselves may also prove beneficial in promoting *empathic communication*, for example, judicious and responsive Socratic questioning (Neenan, in press) and regular coachee feedback may both be helpful here.

Discussion of the themes

Within the broader themes of a coaching alliance approach, this CBC perspective has identified several themes. Firstly, as is the case in CBT, collaboration was identified as a primary overarching theme permeating the CBC approach. In particular the 'spirit of collaboration' was deemed an important contributor to the whole CBC coaching process and exemplified through the remaining themes.

The second theme, was the requirement of the coach to skillfully and flexibly adapt to the specific coachee, by tailoring the coaching alliance, including the degree, level and kind of goals, tasks, bond and views accordingly. This necessitates the coach being able to vary their interpersonal style and to be able to recognise and respond to the coachee's changing needs throughout the coaching process. Concurrently, the coach's stance needs to be an explicit and negotiating one – about the coaching model, formulation, the goals, tasks, bonds and views of the coaching, whilst encouraging the coachee to be equally explicit. It could be argued that this explicit process of negotiation (including discussion and negotiation of the psychological and perhaps written, contract) may in itself create a more equal power dynamic and less dependency in the coaching alliance (Hart et al., 2001) than is the case in the therapeutic alliance. Furthermore, in demonstrating a broader-based explicit stance and adaptability of the coach, spanning as has been described, the CBC coaching model, formulation, session

agenda, as well as goals, tasks, bonds, views of the Coaching Alliance, it is speculated that the Coaching Alliance may be further enhanced in CBC.

Third, the theme of working with the cognitive behavioural dynamics of the coachee and of the coach has been highlighted. In the case of tailoring as mentioned above, as the features of the coaching alliance are discussed, agreed, and any differences negotiated, a more effective coaching alliance is likely to ensue. Initial rapport and communication will likely develop into a level of trust that enables the work (and potential challenges) of coaching to take place. However, either as part of the formulation of the coaching, or as a result of a disruption in the coaching process, the cognitive behavioural dynamics of either coach or coachee, or of both in interaction, may become a focus for the work of coaching. This may be either temporarily or throughout the coaching programme. It is consistent with the CBC model, as with that of CBT, that empathic communication of the coach includes relating thoughts, feelings and behaviours of the dyad whenever the appropriate opportunity presents itself.

The fourth theme examined empathy as a relationship component discussed in the counselling and psychotherapy literature, and more specifically in the CBT context. This discussion revealed a general and a CBT-specific conceptualisation of empathy. Translated to the CBC context, these specific aspects of empathy and the process of this conceptualisation of empathy provide a compelling demonstration of the critical relevance of the practitioner's interpersonal attitudes, skills and competencies to the delivery of the strategic and technical interventions of the Cognitive Behavioural approach.

Additionally, distinctions between aspects of empathy have been made. The role of the self of the practitioner and for self-reflection have been emphasised, and the possibility of more refined measurement of empathy have been indicated. As the authors of the Therapeutic Model of Empathy state, each of the key elements of the model and the relationship between these elements require further examination, and so do they in terms of whether they translate and if so, how, into the coaching context.

And what of empathy in the coaching relationship, particularly from a CBC perspective? The theoretical and methodological approach adopted by (Thwaites & Bennett-Levy, 2007) in seeking to frame the conceptualisation of therapeutic empathy may be informative to this discussion in two ways.

1. Offering a framework that could form the basis of what we could research in seeking to understand the role of empathy in the coaching relationship.
2. The approach could help provide a method for creating a framework for examining and researching further coaching relationship factors.

This approach resonates with a proposal by Kauffman and Bachkirova, (2009) for organising our thinking on what to examine in coaching research. In the case of the coach-coachee relationship, they propose this may involve asking ourselves questions, such as how can we reliably assess an optimal relationship, and suggest breaking it down into parts, and then seeking to establish whether we can potentially teach and develop coach skills, for instance of relationship building ability.

Conclusion

This paper has reviewed the coaching relationship through the lens of a Cognitive Behavioural Coaching perspective. Much of its discussion on establishing, developing and maintaining a coaching alliance at a broader level is pantheoretic. For instance in the importance of the collaboration of coach and coachee; of empathy as a relationship factor; the need for adaptability of the coach to the coachee's needs; and the requirement for negotiation and renegotiation of the coaching alliance. Additionally, factors have been speculated that may differentiate the

coaching alliance from the therapeutic alliance. These are the potential establishment and development of an alliance of more equal power dynamics than that of a therapeutic alliance; the requirement for a more rapid fostering of trust and connection in the often time-constrained context, particularly of executive coaching; and the posited positive contribution of the explicit negotiation of the psychological contract.

Furthermore four aspects are presented to postulate a differentiated viewpoint on the coaching alliance from a CBC perspective. This viewpoint highlights the broader-based explicit stance of the coach and the potentially greater necessity for adapting to the coachee's needs resulting from this coach stance. It also asserts a particular emphasis on the cognitive-behavioural dynamics of the dyad and possible Cognitive Behavioural-specific aspects of empathy, including the speculated greater need for empathy in CBC as an intervention-based framework. Of necessity, given the limited discussion and research literature on the coaching relationship and particularly the coaching relationship in CBC to date, its conclusions must be considered speculative.

Will the coaching alliance prove to be a key determinant of effective coaching outcome as it has in other helping relationships, such as the therapeutic alliance? Will process studies demonstrate that this is the case in combination with effective techniques, applied judiciously and appropriately in response to the coachee's needs and responses? To further investigate the why' and 'how' of the coaching relationship in the coaching process we require '… multiple studies on the nature and role of the coaching relationship.' (Kauffman & Bachkirova, 2009). It is hoped that this discussion has served to generate interest and sources for taking such theory, research and practice further.

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Does coaching psychology need the concept of formulation?

David A. Lane & Sarah Corrie

The aim of this paper is to raise awareness of some of the debates and controversies surrounding formulation, and to highlight ways of navigating these debates more successfully for the benefits of ourselves, our clients and the future development of our profession. The concept of formulation, that is an explanatory account of the issues affecting a client, is widely used in sister disciplines such as clinical, counselling, forensic psychology and psychotherapy. Its purpose is to provide a descriptive and explanatory narrative that the client and practitioner can use to plan interventions. While coaching psychology has used many ideas from its sister disciplines this concept has not appeared as a feature of much in the coaching psychology literature (with a few exceptions). The reasons why this might be so are explored. The paper provides an overview of the role of formulation in psychology and some of the arguments for and against its use. The position of formulation in coaching psychology is discussed with reference to the purposes of coaching and some boundary issues between this and related fields. A framework for using formulation in coaching psychology is outlined through consideration of purpose, perspective and process. Such a framework it is argued provides a format to enable coaching psychologists whatever their theoretical orientation to use the concept of formulation to assist client change.

Keywords: *formulation, coaching, psychology, client partnership, narrative, boundaries.*

SINCE ITS INTRODUCTION to clinical psychology regulation in 1969, formulation has become a defining skill of applied psychology. Different forms of professional psychology define the term in different ways, and the extent to which formulation has a scientific basis and is drawn directly from psychological theory varies between disciplines (see Lane & Corrie, 2006). Nonetheless, there is fairly broad agreement that the ability to construct formulations is central to applied psychology practice (British Psychological Society, 2005; Corrie & Lane, 2006; Johnstone & Dallos, 2006) and much time, during initial training and subsequent professional development, will be spent in the service of acquiring and refining this complex skill.

However, the role that formulation should play in the emerging discipline and profession of coaching psychology is yet to be adequately considered. In this paper, we argue for the centrality of formulation in coaching psychology and propose that the quality of coaching practice can be significantly enhanced by elevating formulation to the heart of the coach-client partnership.

In order to contextualise our argument, we begin with an overview of the way in which formulation has been conceptualised in the literature more broadly, and consider some of the debates concerning its role in practice. We then examine some of the factors that may have led this to being a relatively neglected topic in coaching psychology and consider ways in which elevating formulation to the heart of coaching psychology might contribute to the development of high quality practice. Finally, we propose an approach to formulation that can help coaches achieve a more rigorous and systematic approach regardless of their theoretical preferences. This approach is, we believe, relevant regardless of whether the coaching journey is undertaken with an individual seeking personal guidance, a team seeking higher levels of performance, or an organisation seeking a strategic change of direction. Coaching is very broadly based and the formulation process happens at different

scales (dyad, triad, group, organisation, etc.). Consequently there are multiple stakeholders. We argue that formulation must encompass or reflect these nested contexts. Hence formulation is not a single moment in time but an iterative process. Formulations are co-created sometimes in the coaching dyad but at other times may represent in an organisational context both coach and coachee's evolving apprehension of the stakeholder situation.

Formulation and its role in psychological practice: A brief review of the literature

When the coaching psychologist sits alongside a client what is their first duty, as a professional? Arguably, it is one of ensuring that the client feels heard, and that their story is understood and accepted. However, the client is also seeking assistance from the psychologist to identify a way forward. The client is, therefore, assuming that a psychological perspective is potentially relevant and helpful. The coach becomes a partner in the client's story, contributing ideas derived from theory, research and prior professional experience to help formulate a coherent explanation of the puzzle, problem or concern that the client is facing.

In general terms, formulation can be understood as an explanatory account of the issues with which a client is presenting (including predisposing, precipitating and maintaining factors) that can form the basis of a shared framework of understanding and which has implications for change. It is reasonable to assume that this explanatory account will draw upon a wide range of data including psychological theory, general scientific principles, research from the wider literature and professional experience, in addition to being informed by the nuances of the client's self-told story. The stories that clients tell in coaching are often the way in to a rich narrative (Drake, 2009).

Formulation is believed to serve a variety of functions. These include (although are by no means limited to) facilitating an informed understanding of the client's needs; prioritising client concerns for the purposes of goal setting; identifying hypotheses worthy of further investigation, selecting intervention strategies and guiding systematic thinking about lack of progress (see Bieling & Kuyken, 2003; Butler, 1998; Corrie & Lane, 2010). Formulation has also been described as an aid to engagement, particularly in those instances where a client's actions may challenge the practitioner's empathic ability (as, for example, in the case of sexual offending; see Haarbosch & Newey, 2006; Sheath, 2010).

However, the empirical literature on formulation would appear to challenge its status as a cornerstone of effective practice. Most notably, there is a lack of consensual definition (Corrie & Lane, 2010); poor inter-rater reliability, particularly in relation to the explanatory components of cases where greater inference is required (Bieling & Kuyken, 2003) and an equivocal relationship to outcome (Shulte et al., 1992). Moreover, a number of clients appear to find formulations of their needs unhelpful (Chadwick, Williams & Mackenzie, 2003; Evans & Parry, 1996).

One question arising from these ambiguous findings is that of who should 'own' the formulation and thus, who is entitled to devise, change or discard it. Crellin (1998) for example, has noted how formulation tends to take the form of translating clients' experiences into testable hypotheses. However, she argues that whilst this may render complex client experiences more manageable for practitioners, such reductionism prevents us from grasping the very experiences we seek to understand. A similar concern has been expressed by Duncan and Miller (2000), as well as Worrell (2010), who warn that our theoretically- and empirically-derived formulations all too easily become professional expositions imposed on clients, rather than useful ideas that might form the basis of new possibilities.

The evidence-base for formulation raises a question about whether our faith in for-

mulation as the route to effective practice is misplaced. Moreover, we must consider the implications of these debates for coaching psychology itself. In light of this literature, to what extent should coaching psychology adhere to the established view that formulation is a central component of effective practice? Is a formulation always essential for effective, ethical coaching or are there times when it is unnecessary? What questions might an understanding of the role of formulation generate that assists coaching psychology in its task of helping clients re-author their stories? These questions are considered next.

Does coaching psychology need the concept of formulation?

In recent texts reviewing the field (for example, Palmer & Whybrow, 2007) it is apparent that the concept of formulation is largely absent (see Palmer & Szymanska, 2007; Szymanska, 2009, for an exception). This is despite the fact that many coaching models 'borrow' constructs and approaches from clinical psychology, counselling psychology and psychotherapy.

There are a number of reasons why formulation may be a neglected topic. First, it may relate to the purpose of coaching. Formulation may not be necessary for all forms of coaching, particularly where there is a clear goal and action plan and where a new understanding of causal or maintenance factors does not appear to be required. Grant and Cavanagh (2004) identify three generic levels of engagement within the coaching agenda that range from skills coaching (typically of short duration where the focus is on specific behaviours) and performance coaching (where the focus is on the process by which the coachee can set goals, manage obstacles and monitor their performance) to developmental coaching (which takes a more holistic view and addresses personal and professional questions in the context of a 'reflective space'). Formulation is unlikely to be required to the same degree across all three levels. Thus, where horizontal change is involved (for example, where the client aims to extend what they already know and can do and where the focus is essentially one of skills coaching), formulation may be less relevant. However, where vertical change is involved (for example, where the client will need to fundamentally alter the way they perceive a situation and acquire new ways of thinking and doing) the need to challenge how they see and apply new learning becomes more critical. As Olson (2008) points out although we arrive at our perspectives on our worlds in different ways, if we want to understand we have to make our assumptions explicit. Formulation, we would contend, is a useful part of such a process of explication.

A second reason for the relative absence of formulation in the coaching literature may lie in the roles played in coaching by client and coach and the existence of three-, four- (or more) cornered contracts which imply that multiple stories have to be addressed or integrated. For example, in a study of transfer of gains Stewart et al. (2008) found that the multiple interactions typical of coaching contracts in organisations required an understanding of a complex interplay of factors beyond the idea of the coach-coachee relationship. They suggested that organisations must adopt a holistic guardianship of their coaching provision.

A third reason for the relative neglect of formulation in the coaching psychology literature may relate to the domain in which client concerns have traditionally been located. In her review of the literature, Butler (1998) highlights how approaches to formulation have tended to focus on predisposing, precipitating and maintaining factors that are concerned primarily with individual, internal or intrapyschic factors. At the same time, social, cultural and historical factors have suffered relative neglect. A similar argument has been made by Lazarus (1973) whose multimodal model has come to be known through the acronym 'BASIC ID' where each letter stands for a particular sensory modality (biology, affect,

sensation, imagery, cognition, interpersonal factors and the need for drugs or pharmacological intervention). Palmer (2008) has explored these arguments in coaching.

Although the neglect of the social, cultural, economic and political domains is a criticism that has been levied against applied psychology (see Smail, 1993, 1996; Masson, 1990), there may have been compelling reasons for practitioners' pursuit of internal factors. In their analysis of what they term 'the zeitgeist of internal causation', Martell, Addis and Jacobson (2001) highlight how Western culture tends to blame individuals for difficulties that society attributes to 'deviant behaviour'. (They illustrate this culture of blame through reference to the social discourse surrounding HIV and AIDS where those affected have been labelled either as 'innocent victims' or 'those who got what they deserved'.) In contrast, by attributing difficulties to internal factors over which the individual has no direct control (e.g. an imbalance in brain chemistry or genetic features) the difficulty is redefined as one of illness, with the burden of stigma concurrently reduced. The focus on internal factors has, therefore, served the function of legitimising distress in a culture that is highly judgemental of human dilemmas.

However, as a direct consequence, coaching psychologists may now find themselves faced with an array of theories and models that are inadequate for the contexts in which they work. In coaching psychology practice, multiple stories are involved. The traditional over-reliance on internal factors while engaged in a process which is essentially, because of the multiple relationships involved, inter-relational has been raised by Spinelli (2008). He argues the need for a broader exploration and quality of relationship. We are in what Spinelli (quoting Jopling, 2007) calls 'fuzzy space' where multiple relationships and perspectives need to be addressed.

This may also generate the fourth possible reason. Many coaches have become concerned about boundary issues between coaching and therapy. As it is often associated with *clinical* case conceptualisation, it may be that formulation seems too close to the boundary of therapy to feel safe. Thus, while some concepts from therapy are embraced others are not and there are issues over the uses of such theory (Lane, 2006) and the range to which it is applied. The issue of boundaries has greatly exercised many in the field. (See, for example, debates in Bachkirova, 2007; Spinelli, 2008; Lane, Stelter & Stout-Rostron, 2009.)

A fifth potential reason for the relative neglect of formulation in the coaching psychology literature is its equivocal relationship to outcome. The empirical status of the construct of formulation, as well as some of the well-documented biases in decision-making that underpin it, has led some (e.g. Wilson, 1996, 1997; Meehl, 1954, 1986) to argue that individual formulations should be by-passed in favour of manual-based, empirically-validated interventions wherever possible. There is certainly a pressure towards manual-based coaching interventions where a simple process can be taught in a short training programme and will supposedly deliver consistent results (Lane, 2009).

However, despite some of the challenges, abandoning formulation in coaching psychology may be premature. As noted previously, formulation has continued to be regarded as a central skill of applied psychologists despite a growth in manualised interventions (British Psychological Society, 2005). Moreover, the many functions that formulation serve relate to the content, process, planning and evaluation of psychological interventions: this implies a highly sophisticated skill which relies on a range of higher order skills in both problem solving and design – some of which may be more amenable to empirical examination than others. For example, practitioners bring to their enquiries theoretical knowledge and prior professional experience that shape how they listen, respond to and understand their clients' concerns from the earliest stages of engaging with a client. Hence, they

operate using covert formulations that direct the process of the enquiry from the outset (Butler, 1998).

Additionally, as noted by Dowie and Elstein (1988), professional judgements are not isolated cognitive events and can be understood only in relation to a particular task in a specific context. They are judgements about situations and experiences that are constantly evolving, rather than static events that lend themselves well to statistical analyses of accuracy (Hogarth, 1981). Is coaching psychology fundamentally different in this respect? We believe not. As Butler (1998) proposes, the aim of a formulation is not to provide answers but rather to generate a rich source of questions and ideas that add value to the work. Interpreted in this light, investigating the effectiveness of formulation should perhaps focus on the properties of powerful questions and how those questions can be used to create leverage for change (Adams, 2004).

Kuyken et al. (2009) have also proposed that the reason formulations are not always positively received by clients is that they tend to focus on unilaterally derived, practitioner-determined accounts presented to clients rather than constructed in partnership. This emphasis on partnership is critical to devising explanations that are both acceptable to all those involved and useful in their implications. The issue of partnership and the forms it takes has featured centrally in much of the coaching literature (Bachkirova, 2007; Spinelli, 2008). Hence if formulation is to take its place within coaching psychology, building appropriate relationships in which the multiple purposes served and stories heard, constructed, deconstructed and re-constructed will be necessary.

In consequence, we argue that:

1. Formulation has a potentially crucial role to play in the development of coaching psychology, despite the ambiguities in the literature. It may not be necessary for all levels of engagement (particularly where the focus is on skills coaching) but will be crucial in working with clients at the levels of performance and developmental coaching, as well as work involving any degree of complexity.
2. Formulation can serve many functions ranging from the identification of relevant issues and goals, to enhancing coach empathy and collaboration.
3. There is currently insufficient knowledge of the factors that make our formulations optimally useful for coaches and their clients.

We might also conclude that if formulation is to prove 'fit for purpose' for coaching psychologists and their clients, it will be necessary to:

1. Develop a model or framework that is consistent with a client partnership framework in which it is possible to incorporate a variety of stakeholder positions.
2. Develop a model or framework that can take account of a broader range of factors than the individual and internal (that is, an approach that is not restricted by the 'zeitgeist of internal causation').
3. Develop a model or framework of formulation that has relevance to all contexts, regardless of the goals chosen, theoretical position adopted or techniques for change used (that is, the framework or approach to formulation must be replicable across time, place and contract).

In the next section we consider how, in the light of the criteria identified, it might be possible to develop a systematic approach to formulation, regardless of the theoretical perspective taken.

Towards a model of formulation for Coaching Psychology: Introducing the Purpose, Perspective, Process model as a framework for formulation

In previous (Corrie & Lane, 2006; Lane & Corrie, 2006) as well as current (Corrie & Lane, 2010) work and drawing on empirical findings establishing the effectiveness of this approach (Lane, 1990), we have defined for-

mulation as the co-construction of a narrative which provides a specific focus for a learning journey. This learning journey takes the client from where they are now to where they want to be, based on a process of negotiating appropriate goals. The task of formulating centres on the creation of a shared framework of understanding that has implications for change. This shared framework centres on the three core themes of Purpose, Perspective and Process as follows:

1. What *Purpose* is the formulation designed to serve? For example, is the Purpose to help the client construct a meaningful narrative that enables them to make sense of their situation? Or is it to ease communication with professional colleagues? Unless we understand that Purpose, it is difficult to make any decision to apply a psychological approach to its resolution. Making a decision with the client about whether coaching is appropriate is part of our responsibility in the initial encounter. It may, for example, be the case that a management consultancy, or organisational design approach has more to offer.
2. What *Perspective* informs the development of the formulation? The Purpose of any enquiry will influence its direction. The intentions of the different stakeholders, their beliefs and views on human experience and the nature of the evidence that needs to underpin any psychological intervention will all inform the journey taken. In working psychologically there are many Perspectives upon which we might draw. Some of these are the client's, some our own, some belong to other authors and some are prescribed or proscribed by the context in which the work takes place. Those Perspectives help us to make sense of the Purpose we have agreed as the 'shared concern'.
3. Given the Purpose and Perspective, what *Process* is needed? Based on your understanding and the context in which you have defined your Purpose and identified your Perspective, what intervention strategies, approaches, methods or tools do you select? In undertaking that work, we follow a Process determined partly by how we have defined the Purpose of the enquiry and partly by the Perspectives that underpin our approach.

We argue that as a generic framework, the Purpose, Perspective, Process model meets the criteria outlined in the previous section and can usefully guide practitioners in understanding the issues relevant to each stage of a client enquiry. We now consider each of the components of the Purpose, Perspective, Process model in turn.

1. Purpose (Where we are going and why?)

In undertaking any enquiry within coaching psychology, it is vital to be clear about its fundamental purpose. The shape that your enquiry takes and the stories you tell about that enquiry will follow logically from there. Thus, the shared journey begins as you define the Purpose of your work together. Critical questions in this regard include: What is the Purpose in working with the client? Where are you going with this client? What do they want to achieve? Where do they want to go in their overall journey with you as their guide? Who are the stakeholders and what do they want? This is more than defining a contract for work it is defining the purpose of the enterprise.

Defining the Purpose of the work comprises four essential elements:

1. Understanding the question you wish to explore.
2. Understanding the expectations of key stakeholders.
3. Clarifying the role that each party wishes to play.
4. Appreciating the wider context that gives meaning to the Purpose and the way in which it has come to be defined.

1. Understanding the question to which you seek an answer or wish to explore

Establishing the core question that you and the client will explore provides the basis for deciding where the work is headed. This may start with the client's sense of dissatisfaction with the current situation and a desire to move to a new preferred state, but it must also include an agreement that the journey itself is worthwhile. Questioning why it is important to undertake the work is critical in this regard, the reasons for which may include arriving at a new understanding of something that has hitherto seemed incomprehensible, anticipated improvements in current circumstances or the pursuit of a new vision (Lane, 1973). In developing this understanding we recommend considering the following questions:

- Is a generic intent to explore an area sufficient to justify the journey – that is, an open enquiry which may lead to an unknown destination?
- Does the question need a fixed point resolution – is there a problem to be solved, an issue to be unravelled or a solution to be achieved that is recognised as appropriate by key stakeholders?
- Is it possible in advance to know what an appropriate resolution will look like – that is, might performance criteria be devised?
- Is it impossible (or at least unlikely) to know in advance what an appropriate resolution might look like? For example, something entirely unexpected might emerge as a resolution. Are the principal stakeholders prepared to allow for such a disruptive learning experience?
- Is the question to be explored agreed between stakeholders? Alternatively, do you need to work to obtain such an agreement, or at least partial agreement, sufficient to begin the journey?

2. Understanding the expectations of key stakeholders

This entails achieving a sense of clarity about what you, the client and others involved expect to achieve from having undertaken the journey. The objectives of relatives, other professionals, managers, or sponsors who have an investment in the outcome must be considered, as must the extent to which those objectives are congruent with what the client wishes to achieve. Anticipated outputs or results in terms of what the client will experience as different and any behavioural change the client and others will recognise (e.g. an increased sales turnover following the more effective use of delegation) are critical to establish as are the anticipated learnings from engaging in the process of change. Thus, in understanding the expectations of key stakeholders, we would recommend the need to identify the following:

- The intention behind this enquiry (i.e. what the practitioner, client and others involved intend as the aim of the engagement).
- The key stakeholders and the objectives of each party.
- The anticipated outputs or results and how these relate to the objectives of each party.
- What will be different as a consequence of achieving these outputs or results.
- The new learning that it is hoped will occur as a result of undertaking the journey.
- The areas in which the stakeholders share the concern or take divergent positions.

3. Clarifying the role that each party wishes to play

Given the main objectives and anticipated results, it is important to establish the role that each invested party will play. Will the Purpose be defined in such a way that the journey occurs solely between practitioner and client? Or will multiple stakeholders contribute to the way in which the journey unfolds? In some examples of psychological practice, it will be sufficient to focus the enquiry around the practitioner-client dyad (as is often the case in executive coaching). In other forms of practice, several parties will

wish or be required to contribute (e.g. when working with a team). In clarifying the role of each stakeholder, it is important to identify:

- Those who should play a role in identifying key hypotheses and data gathering.
- The role that each party will play.
- The investment that each party will be expected to make in terms of time, energy and resources, and their willingness and ability to do so.
- The way in which each party will be initiated into the enquiry to ensure that a sense of ownership is achieved.

4. Appreciating the wider context that gives meaning to the Purpose and the way in which it has come to be defined

Once the practitioner has clarified the question to be explored, the expectations of key stakeholders and the role that each party wishes to play, they are able to make an initial decision to engage on the journey with the client. However, deciding if they are the right person to undertake that journey raises a further set of considerations. In essence, these focus on the context in which the journey will happen and the practitioner's competencies to facilitate that journey. Critical questions here include:

- What does the client need to make it possible for them to tell their story and feel heard? Can you meet that need?
- What type of client Purpose is best served by your service context? Do you have a match or mismatch in this particular case?
- What boundaries do you place on the Purpose of the work that would require you to refer the client elsewhere? Should the client be referred?
- With whom would you not work and where is the margin of that boundary?
- Have you been able to define a shared concern that fits within the identified boundaries and is best served by working with you rather than another professional or profession?
- Have you identified and understood the position of other key stakeholders who might be beneficiaries (or victims, Checkland, 1989) of the intervention?

Once you have defined the Purpose of your service you are in a position to explore the Perspective which will inform the journey.

2. Perspective (What will inform our journey?)

As part of an agreed Purpose it is important to be able to define what you bring to the encounter. The Perspective component of the Purpose, Perspective, Process model is concerned with trying to understand those factors that influence the expectations of, and inform the journey for, both practitioner and client. This includes the range of explanations with which your professional knowledge equips you (e.g. explanations grounded within diagnostic and theoretical Perspectives) as well as your beliefs about that knowledge, your sense of what you do well in relation to that knowledge and the limits of your competence. However, clients bring Perspectives of their own which will inform the work and which must, therefore, be given equal consideration in the enquiry that follows. Engaging with these Perspectives gives rise to questions such as:

- What Perspectives are informing your approach to the enquiry?
- What Perspectives are informing the client's approach to the enquiry?
- What are the beliefs (and prejudices) that you each bring to the encounter?
- Some journeys prescribe and proscribe certain routes of investigation and intervention. How do you ensure coherence between your journey and the journey of the client?
- What do you do to ensure that the client is able to explore their beliefs, knowledge and competencies within the encounter?

Clarity about the Perspectives that underpin our work and the ways in which we attempt to engage our clients is vital. It enables us to scrutinise those ideologies, assumptions about human nature and beliefs relating to the nature of evidence that are dominant in the current climate and which also infiltrate our work (with or without our knowledge).

From our reading of the literature, contemporary approaches to formulation within the psychological professions are typically informed by at least one of five key Perspectives. These are as follows:

1. Formulation derived from diagnostic classification

Formulation derived from, and built around, a particular diagnosis is an approach that has a long history in psychology. The most obvious current influence lies with DSM and ICD from which particular formulations of distinct diagnostic profiles can then be constructed. The challenge facing those who use these 'medical models' to classify disorders and formulate intervention is to identify how the client's idiosyncratic story can be incorporated. However, in coaching psychology we are frequently faced with diagnosis of client issues based on psychometrics not of their choosing in which managers or sponsors determine what is wrong or needs to be fixed (what Jarvis, Lane & Fillery-Travis, 2006, call fixed agenda coaching).

2. The formulation of the scientist-practitioner

The formulation is viewed as an essentially 'scientific' or empirical enterprise and works from the assumption that we can identify, define and test hypotheses to arrive at an accurate and useful explanation of the factors which are influencing the client's behaviour. The practitioner using this approach must consider how it is possible to use data from multiple sources to co-construct formulations, and avoid the temptation to determine in advance what frame will fit the client (see Cavanagh & Grant, 2006).

3. Formulation as a theoretically-driven story

Practitioners approaching formulation from a distinct theoretical perspective, whichever theory they prefer, need to identify how their prior assumptions inform the task of formulation. A significant challenge concerns how our professionally sanctioned theories determine where the focus of change is located. The issue of how our theories cause us to notice and overlook particular aspects of the client's story has to be addressed. We can see the benefits that the coherent use of a particular theory may bring (see, for example, *ICPR Special Issue on Positive Psychology,* 2007) but need to be aware of the narrowing impact of any one stance (e.g. House & Loewenthal, 2008).

4. Strategic formulation

A number of psychologists have adopted 'forward looking' approaches such as design, systemic and solution-focused models which challenge traditional models oriented towards problems and analysing the influencing process. While this is often seen as a departure point between coaching and therapy the distinction is far from clear (Spinelli, 2008). The strategic approach looks at the future and the strengths people bring to achieve desired states. Here, questions arise about the justifications for, and implications of, using this framework for formulation. What, for example, is left out of the client's account, and what knowledge of potential value held by the client and practitioner is unavailable to use?

5. Formulation and its role as a means of social control

Critiques of psychological approaches have pointed to their role as a means of social control in educational, clinical, forensic and occupational settings. This debate which ranges from the control of ethnic minorities to the control of dangerous people presents a critical challenge to the impact of our work on the individual and society. To what extent are we taking into account how our approach to formulation reflects more subtle belief systems and prejudices that penetrate the professions in which we operate and to what extent as coaches do we operate for the benefit of the powerful (see for example, Guilfoyle, 2008)?

Each of the five Perspectives listed above favours an approach which provides a rationale for choosing between interventions

and through which practitioners are able (at least in principle) to demonstrate that strategies based upon their formulations bring about change. To give just one example, the diagnostic Perspective assumes that diagnosis (or some forms of psychometrics or 360 evaluations) is a representation of some 'real' quality that can be measured.

We believe it is reasonable to assert that regardless of the approach taken, it is important to avoid squeezing the client into the Perspective you prefer. The risk is that you lose the essence of the person or context within which your work together is happening. All practitioners, even where specialising in a single model (Perspective) applied to a specific goal must have a means for deciding whether their offer of service makes sense for a particular client. Of course there can, on occasion, be good reason for specialising in offering a service from the Perspective of one particular theory. As research evidence highlights the contribution of specific ways of working to particular kinds of difficulties, it makes sense that certain models will be used in preference to others and that the process of exploration may be shortened for very good reasons. However, the critical issue is do we know when and why we are foreshortening exploration? Are we aware of what we are not attending to as a result of framing an enquiry in one way rather than another and the implications of this for our clients?

3. Process (How will we get there?)

Once you have been able to define the Purpose of your work and the Perspectives that underpin it, then it is possible to structure a process for the work that you and your client intend to undertake. Without the Purpose and Perspective defined, the Process becomes a technical application uninformed by psychology. Manualised interventions can be effective and have provided substantial benefit to many clients. However, we would argue that they are based less on the client's own story, told in their own words, than they are on one view of evidence and one view of science which may lack the means to grasp the innovative. Indeed, the context in which practitioners work is often one which favours improvement over innovation. For example, many current initiatives in public health, education and social service sectors quite specifically seek to reduce complexity in pursuit of conformance with a protocol in the belief that this is an indication of quality. Is the same pressure appearing in coaching? Quality systems in industry appeal to those who want a reliable product or service rather than an outstanding one (Lane, 2002).

Recent years have witnessed a considerable increase in this type of intervention in both clinical and occupational work where a product, skills training or 360 degree feedback is offered without understanding the features of the learning journey of the client (Lane, 1993). In such cases, a given procedure is applied to a client based on a minimal definition of some aspect of their behaviour (e.g. the linking of a 360 feedback result to a specific intervention). Arguably, the client as a person is absent, as is the psychological investigation necessary to determine what is happening in the client's life that leads them to the point of change. In this context, the key question becomes: What Process (including any method or tool) is necessary to ensure that the Purpose is met within the constraints of the Perspectives available to us?

Process is what happens as you work. It refers to what an outsider, the client or the sponsor could observe. Process is not of itself a model, although often wrongly described as such and thus a Process for working is confused with the Perspectives which underpin it.

There are many step-based frameworks available in the literature which provide a structure to work with clients and a series of questions to take clients through the steps. In the clinical arena, these have appeared in numerous treatment protocols as well as the notion of 'stepped care' (see Bower & Gilbody, 2005, for a review). In the coaching arena Stout Rostron (2009) has identified a series of generic question frameworks

ranging from two to 10 steps. The same abundance can be found in step frameworks for medical, clinical, forensic and occupational arenas, amongst others. Stout Rostron, whose own research distinguishes frameworks (architecture for the process) and models (analogies about the world), has identified a range of what she terms 'stage frameworks' which can be useful for considering the architectural design of our own approach to Process.

These frameworks represent a mere portion of the stage and question frameworks available in one small area of practice. However, although each framework (including those based on protocols) has the potential to add value, significant limitations to thinking and action occur when they are used as a short cut to formulation without reference to the Perspective that sits behind it and the Purpose for which it has been developed. If we substitute the idea of coaching as a stepwise process for one involving individual formulation we gain a great deal.

The Purpose, Perspective, Process model: Implications for the future

It has been noted elsewhere that coaching research, although increasing, does not yet match the growth in coaching practice (Linley, 2006). There remains a lack of well-defined theory on which coaches base their work (Global Convention on Coaching, 2008) and also a lack of consensus on the distinct skill-set of coaching psychologists (Bennett, 2006). Although its role in coaching psychology is yet to be fully determined, we would argue that greater attention to formulation will be a vital contributor to developing systematic approaches to practice in a field that is highly diverse.

In the absence of a full discussion of the benefits and limitations of a formulation-driven approach, the aims of this paper have been to raise awareness of some of the debates and controversies surrounding formulation, and to highlight ways of navigating these debates more successfully for the benefits of ourselves, our clients and the future development of our profession. It is our view that however we approach the task of making sense of psychological puzzles, we should be able to articulate the choices we are making and to recognise the advantages and disadvantages of choosing one approach over another. Equally, the processes we use at each stage of a psychological enquiry need to be defined, or at least be capable of definition. Formulation helps us achieve this particular brand of rigour and should, therefore, feature more clearly in the teaching and practice of coaching psychology, as part of our professional duty of care. We argue that it is important to understand the Perspective and Purpose that underpin a powerful change Process if you are offering yourself as a facilitator of change.

However, in order to add something of substantive value, formulation can and must be consistent with a client partnership framework into which it is possible to incorporate a variety of theoretical positions and the different scales within which the coaching relationship happens. The Purpose (where are we going and why?), Perspective (what will inform our journey?) Process (how will we get there?) model (Corrie & Lane, 2010) is presented as one of a number of possible approaches that might enable us to co-construct more elegant, thought-provoking and empowering psychological explanations that can accommodate both the available evidence-base and the client's personal story.

However, it is only one of a number of possible approaches so this leaves us with a number of questions:

- If formulation is to feature more widely in the teaching and practice of coaching psychology (which we suggest it should), what other frameworks can be used to enhance the distinct role that coaching psychology might bring.
- In the coaching context what questions that remain unanswered from the broader literate (such as utility as opposed to accuracy) are important for

coaching psychology – are they the same questions or will quire different issues emerge.

- Where might we look for alternative frameworks especially as coaching psychologists often grow their practice from other disciplines, should those disciplines provide starting points for the debate? For example, occupational psychologists often use the consultancy cycle (identification of clients' needs, analysis, and formulation of solution, implementation and evaluation) and educational psychologists an assessment cycle (see Lane & Corrie, 2006).

We invite readers to contribute to the debate any other outstanding questions that the wider use of the concept of formulation in coaching psychology might generate.

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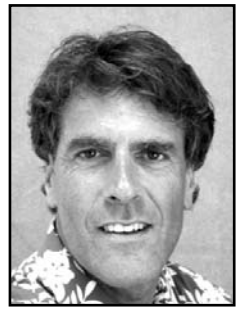
Keynote Paper

Coaching as a reflective space in a society of growing diversity – towards a narrative, postmodern paradigm



Reinhard Stelter

We live in a hypercomplex society where the individual faces growing diversity in all areas of life. The idea of a stable identity has become an illusion, and self-reflexivity has become the central basis when dealing with the post-traditional order of our society. We feel obliged to constantly develop – at work and in our private and social lives.

A brief analysis of societal changes will be presented as the basis for justifying the use of coaching and coaching psychology in general. The main question is: How can we best help clients to navigate in a social world characterised by growing restlessness, diverse lifestyles, social disorientation, multitudes of 'local truths' and, therefore, a loss of commonly accepted values and meanings?

The purpose of this article is to formulate some key societal pre-requisites for coaching psychology, pre-requisites that can also serve as an argument for: (1) the growing importance of values as a central dimension in a reflective coaching process; (2) focusing on meaning-making as a central dimension in the coaching dialogue; and (3) a relational and narrative foundation of coaching psychology.

A practical consequence can be concluded: It is not always beneficial to define a goal at the beginning of the coaching session, but to allow narratives to unfold and to reflect on our values and those of others as the basis for our thinking and conduct.

ABOUT 15 TO 20 YEARS AGO, few people used the terms 'coaching' or 'coaching psychology' in the way we use them today, as, for example, in this article. Generally, coaching was associated with and connected to the world of sport. Only in small niches of business life was coaching beginning to be introduced as a tool for the professional development of leaders and selected employees.

The history of coaching and coaching psychology can be traced back to two roots: One root is anchored in sport psychology. Already in the 1970s in the US, and probably a decade later in Europe, terms from the world of sport such as 'competition', 'motivation' or 'top performance' became attractive to business leaders, who adapted intervention strategies and tools from sport psychology to develop their employees (Rauen, 1999; Bönning, 2000). The focus was exclusively task-oriented, and concentrated on performance enhancement – a typical approach in sport psychology. The second root of coaching and coaching psychology was highlighted by Grant (2007) in his discussion of the Human Potential Movement (HPM) of the 1960s and 1970s, with its strong focus on humanistic and existential psychology.

With its eclectic orientation and a wide range of self-development strategies, i.e. encounter groups, personal growth workshops, and community living experiments and various therapeutic methods, the HPM had a stimulating influence on the growing interest in psychology and personal develop-

ment. HPM provided invigorating impulses for the further development of coaching and coaching psychology into today's quite different and more sophisticated forms. But what has happened since? What are the issues and challenges for coaching psychology today? What role can coaching psychology play in our society today? This line of inquiry inspires further investigations, and the following questions will form the structure and the content of this article:

- Why is coaching as a dialogical tool such a wide-spread phenomenon today?
- What are the fundamental individual and social challenges in our world that are paving the way for coaching psychology?
- What agendas for coaching and coaching psychology are emerging in light of these societal challenges?
- What forms of coaching can be recommended as a means of helping individuals and groups to deal successfully with individual and social challenges?

Societal anchoring of coaching

A strong argument for the importance of coaching and coaching psychology is societal change: During the last 20 to 30 years, our society has transformed fundamentally and radically and in a way that has had great impact on *all* its members. These changes have had a radical influence on people's professional and private lives in general, and more specifically, on the way we generate knowledge, construct self and identity and make sense of our lives.

In the following section I will refer to a number of social scientists – diverse in their approaches – who have done major research work in the area of social change and its impact on human living conditions. My presentation – tracking from global to more local aspects – can offer only a brief outline. But the essence of my message is that the various dimensions of societal change testify to their impact on coaching and coaching psychology – a facet not sufficiently explored in coaching literature.

A world of globality

The first aspect that has an influence on the current forms and future development of coaching and coaching psychology is related to the changes in our world caused by growing globality. Ulrich Beck (2000), the famous German sociologist, stated:

> Globality means that we have been living for a long time in a world society, in that sense that the notion of closed spaces has become illusory. No country or group can shut itself off from others (p.10).

The recent financial crisis presents clear evidence of the impact of globality on the life of almost every person. Climate change, migration, media coverage are further examples of how globality invades every workplace and household. Beck (2000) discussed some consequences:

> Globality means that from now on nothing which happens on our planet is only a limited local event; all inventions, victories and catastrophes affect the whole world, and we must reorient and reorganise our lives and actions, our organisations and institutions, along a 'local-global' axis (p.11).

Local and global are interconnected. Some of the challenges we are faced with and that should be dealt with in a coaching dialogue must be seen in the light of globality. We may have to adapt to a reality where progressively fewer elements of our lives can be controlled locally. Even the idea of control might be devalued by the influence of globality on individual lives. On the basis of these brief reflections, the consequence seems to be: We must learn to be more open-minded and try to live together, despite social, economic, ethnic and other differences!

Hypercomplex society

In our late or postmodern society, the individual is faced with a growing diversity of social spheres, each with its own autonomous 'developmental logic'. Different social settings shape their specific form of organisation and culture, and their members develop their own ways of commu-

nicating, as befitting the local culture. But society in general loses an inner coherence. The German sociologist Luhmann (1998) put it like this: 'The system tends towards 'hypercomplexity', towards a multitude of opinions and interpretations about its own complexity' (p.876; own translation). Following this line of thought it seems to be utterly impossible to achieve a uniform and consistent sense of specific social contexts. We face a growing challenge with regard to handling social diversity and the interaction between different social spheres, where everyone speaks their own language and has different interpretations at the same time.

To become a member of a specific and often dynamically changing culture (e.g. in an organisation), the individual must have the competence to assimilate and adapt. Furthermore, employees will have varying understandings of a working situation; husband and wife will each have different views of their marriage – as long as they are not in conflict with one another, these differences will not matter much, but as soon as they want to convince the other of their viewpoint, their disagreement will grow.

As a consequence – also for coaching psychology – the following can be stated: What counts as 'truth' depends on the context and on social agreements in the local culture, so truth becomes a matter of either power or social negotiation. Coaches, organisational consultants or coaching psychologists need to support and enlarge the cultural understanding of their coachees, both in organisational and personal contexts which are often interrelated (e.g. work-life balance). The coaching literature discusses intervention strategies which consciously include this systemic perspective in their approach (e.g. Cavanagh, 2006).

A society of reflectivity

In this section I will highlight some aspects of the work of the English sociologist Anthony Giddens. One important question he asked was about how people's everyday lives were affected by the massive social changes of late modernity. Giddens (1991) stated:

> Each of us not only 'has', but *lives* a biography reflexively organised in terms of flows of social and psychological information about possible ways of life. Modernity is a post-traditional order, in which the question, 'How shall I live?' has to be answered in day-to-day decisions about how to behave, what to wear and what to eat – and many other things – as well as interpreted within the temporal unfolding of self-identity (p.14; italic in the original).

Giddens regarded self-identity as a kind of permanently running individual project where coaching can contribute in a positive manner, as a tool for self-reflection. Giddens (1991) declared:

> The reflexivity of modernity extends into the core of the self. Put in another way, in the context of a post-traditional order, the self becomes a reflexive project. … Modernity, it might be said, breaks down the protective framework of the small community and of tradition, replacing these with much larger, impersonal organisations. The individual feels bereft and alone in a world in which she or he lacks the psychological supports and the sense of security provided by more traditional settings' (pp.32–33)

How might this social analysis influence our work as coaches and coaching psychologists? The prevalent trend in the coaching industry is to offer solutions or to be goal-oriented (e.g. Jackson & McKergow, 2007; King & Eaton, 1999; Pemberton, 2006). But following Giddens' analysis, coaching should not (only) strive towards solution. Coaching cannot function as the *quick fix*. Our social world has become so complex that there might be greater value in offering a reflective space where coach and coachee have time for self-reflection; such a thoughtful pause might, in the end, allow for new ways of acting in specific and sometimes challenging situations.

Self and identity

Self and identity have become central psychological issues in our late or postmodern societies. Kenneth Gergen, a social constructionist and a leading figure in social psychology, has set the stage for a new understanding of the individual in contemporary life. Coaching psychologists can greatly enrich their work by taking a closer look at the socio-psychology underlying the understanding of the central challenges that confront individuals in today's world.

Gergen (1991) made the following significant statement: 'The postmodern being is a restless nomad' (p.173). In his view, the postmodern self is overwhelmed by innumerable possibilities and ways of acting on the one hand, and disoriented about what to do and how to behave on the other hand.

The Norwegian psychiatrist Skårderud (1998), who has had extensive experience in treating patients with anorexia nervosa, and who wrote about the psychological challenges faced by individuals in our time, spoke about 'unrest' – a state of mind which has led to forms of experimentation in search of purity, control, and meaning. He described how one group of individuals finds expression through socially accepted behaviour such as marathon running and extreme sports; others end up with psychological or psychiatric 'dysfunctions' like eating disorders, cutting, stress and depression.

The societal change forces psychologists to find other interpretations and approaches that may serve them better in their work with clients. A move from an egocentric to a socio-centric model of self and identity can lead to new perspectives. Sampson (1985) was one of the researchers who sketched this path nearly a quarter of a century ago. Approaching the self from an intrapsychic standpoint does not seem to help us 'handle' societal challenges was his assumption. Instead he proposed a socio-centred perspective as a means of allowing new possibilities to emerge.

This line of thought has been further developed by the German social psychologist Keupp (1999) who spoke about identity as a construction of discourse. He introduced the term *patchwork identity* to describe the dynamics of self and identity: There are the single patches which describe the diversity of behavioural possibilities depending on the social context the person momentarily is part of, but by viewing the whole, the individual's identity might show greater coherence. Keeping the contextual influences of identity development in mind, Gergen (1991) spoke about the self as relational, meaning that self and identity are shaped in the specific social context and relationships of which the individual is part.

Consequences and perspectives for coaching psychology: Broadening the coachee's reflective space

On the basis of the societal influences described in the last sections the following central question arises: How can we best help clients navigate in a social world that leads to growing restlessness, diversity of life styles, social disorientation, multitudes of 'local truths' and, therefore, also a loss of commonly accepted values and meanings?

I suggest that a key objective of the coaching dialogue is to strengthen the coachee's *ability to reflect*. In a globalised world we must learn to accept, or even better *appreciate multiversality*, which means the ability to regard different worldviews and perspectives of others as an invitation to enrich one's own attitudes towards life and work. Ultimately, the coachee will learn to absorb the hypercomplexity. Furthermore, a *focus on personal and social meaning- making* – a process that includes the coachee's different life contexts – will widen the individual's horizon. And finally, a narrative perspective may offer a helpful approach for the facilitation of the coaching dialogue with the objectives: (1) of strengthening a sense of coherence in the coachee's self-identity; and (2) of coupling various events and integrating past, present and future into a whole.

On the basis of this societal analysis, the main focus and the guiding question is:

How can coaches help to develop a reflective space in coaching dialogues? In the following I will discuss three aspects of the coaching dialogue whose application can lead to a broadening of the coachee's reflective space:

1. Focusing on values.
2. Giving opportunities for meaning-making.
3. Making space for the unfolding of narratives.

Focusing on values

In our society, which is characterised by a growing diversity in social and organisational values, we must encourage coachees to reflect on values as guiding markers to help them organise their private and professional lives. These values are no longer timeless and universal, but are rather grounded in the practices and events of the local communities. The ultimate aim is to facilitate and improve leadership, communication and co-operation, not by focusing on specific goals, but by reflecting on key values as a feature of the human condition.

A coaching process that focuses on values is called a *protreptic dialogue* or *protreptics*. Based on the ideas of the Danish philosopher and leadership theorist Ole Fogh Kirkeby (2008; in press), the following summary can serve to define and elaborate on these terms. Protreptics, or meta-coaching, is a Greek idiom for the art of turning oneself and others towards the heart of one's life. Protreptics is a method of self-reflection and dialogic guidance of others and has been applied in the Greek executive academies for 'top managers' and commanders since 500 B.C. Protreptics is a form of 'non-psychological' but philosophical coaching which focuses exclusively on the reflection on values and not on current and future action patterns. The dialogue between coach and coachee is *symmetrical*, meaning that both are equally engaged. Both participate in the dialogue and reflect on terms or general issues such as 'responsibility', 'freedom', 'cooperation', etc. Unlike the usual (asymmetrical) coaching dialogue, this symmetry is important: both coach and coachee are involved and interested in the investigation of specific values, especially because they can be of general interest for all human beings.

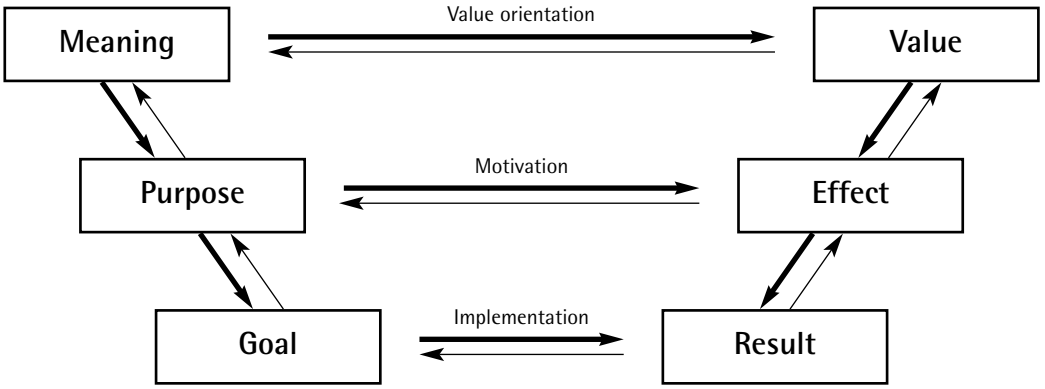
The objective of a protreptic dialogue is to help the individual step back from him- or herself and particular situations and actions. The idea is to establish conditions for a reflective space and create moments of understanding by forming the dialogue into a number of events where the focus is on a different level of self-consciousness. In these moments, coach and coachee do not try to understand themselves as 'empirical' persons, but strive to get in touch with what is 'universal' in their nature. In that sense it might be easier for a leader to function as protreptic rather than as a 'normal' coach, because the focus on values is of general human interest and does not put the coachee into a subordinate position where he/she is obliged to share specific challenges with 'the boss'.

In the normal (asymmetrical) coaching dialogue, *coachees* are recognised as the experts with regard to the challenges they face. The *conditio sine qua non* of a fruitful coaching dialogue is when it is the coachees who choose the topic and articulate their interest in further reflecting on it, perhaps with the aim of gaining a deeper understanding of the situation or of working towards a solution of a specific problem or challenge. A central pre-requisite for an asymmetrical coaching dialogue is mutual *trust*.

The prospect of coaching exclusively in the protreptic manner might be beyond the readiness of many coachees; they often present specific needs and want to handle concrete challenges. But keeping in mind the social analysis presented earlier, a change of perspective may help broaden the coachee's horizon and 'world view'.

Figure 1 (overleaf) illustrates the importance of values with regard to the individual's orientation toward specific situations and actions.

Figure 1: Levels of intentional orientation: Meanings and values as central in the concept of intentionality (see also Nitsch, 1986, and Stelter, 1999).



The figure shows that the development of values and preferences in connection with behaviour is central for an individual's conscious and intentional orientation in situations and for the process of meaning-making in general. If people have a clear understanding of meaning and values, they are able to clarify the purposes and goals that govern their actions. The interrelatedness between these three levels underlines the importance of meaning-making.

Giving opportunities for meaning-making

Meaning-making is considered one of the main approaches to facilitating the coaching dialogue (Stelter, 2007). Meaning is fundamental, because we ascribe specific values to our experiences, actions, our interplay with others and our life and work. Things become *meaningful*, when we understand our own way of sensing, thinking and acting, e.g. by telling certain stories about ourselves and the world in which we live. Meaning is far from being the same as 'information' – as used in the concept of data processing. Meaning-making is based on past experiences and expectations about the future, and holistically integrates past and present experiences as well as ideas about what the future holds. Meaning evolves in the interplay between action, sensing, reflecting and speaking.

Meaning-making is an integration of individual and socio-cultural processes. In the following I will (analytically) distinguish the two lines of meaning-making:

1. Meaning is formed through the *actual experiences and (implicit) knowledge* that the individual acquires in various contexts in life. From this predominantly phenomenological point of view, 'meaning is formed in the interaction of experiencing and something that functions as a symbol' (Gendlin, 1997, p.8). This symbolisation often takes a verbal form, but could also be expressed by other means, such as painting, drama, dance or writing.
2. Meaning is shaped through *social negotiation and narratives* that describe the life practice of the person in focus. From this social constructionist standpoint, meaning is negotiated between the participants in specific social settings. Gergen (1994) writes:

   There is an alternative way of approaching the problem of social meaning: removing the individual as the starting point opens a range of promising possibilities. Rather than commence with individual subjectivity and work deductively towards an account of human understanding through language, we

may begin our analysis at the level of the *human relationship* as it generates both language and understanding (p.263; italic in the original).

Ideally, coachees realise that their position and opinion is only one of many possibilities, only one world-view. Hence, open-mindedness and curiosity about whether others see the world in different ways or how they regard a specific task, is extremely helpful in the negotiation process or social discourse. The views of others may inspire an individual's personal or professional growth. If this perspective is accepted by all members of an organisation, it would enable all to grow and mature in their perception of the world and ideally come to a form of agreement or acknowledgement of differences.

Meaning-making in two integrated streams in the coaching dialogue

With the theoretical background in mind, I would suggest seeing meaning-making as comprising two streams in the coaching dialogue. In this process of meaning-making the two streams – one from phenomenology and the other from social constructionism – are considered integrated. (The distinction is made only for analytical reasons!). These two streams of meaning-making are presented in the following two sections.

A. Individual experiences and meaning-making

In the first stream, the focus of coaching intervention is on *individual experience and personal meaning-making*. Together with the coach, coachees strive to understand their subjective reality or a subjective experience of their culture. Their focus is on the implicit and embodied dimensions of their being. As the starting point of the conversation, the coachees study detailed descriptions of certain activities and recount how they felt (Gendlin, 1997; Stelter, 2000) at the time, in order to better understand their thoughts, feelings and behaviour. Gendlin (1997) a leading practitioner-researcher in this field, defined the felt sense as a form of inner aura or physical feeling about a specific situation, event or person. But this felt sense is often pre-reflective, namely pre-conscious and not verbalised. The coach's sensitive questioning helps the coachees get in touch with these implicit, embodied and pre-reflective dimensions of their being. But this form of inquiry remains a challenge, because it is difficult to find words for experiences that are personal and embodied. Stevens (2000) mentioned that it depends on 'how articulate, how skilled and expressive' people are in speaking about their experiences. Another challenge for Steven is 'that the words used relate to a diffuse network of semantic assemblies both for the speaker and the listener' (p.115), meaning that both speaker and listener have to create their universe of meaning together. One of the best ways to articulate experience is through metaphors (Parkin, 2001; Stelter, 2007)

From a narrative perspective, White (2000, 2007) spoke about revisiting the absent but implicit, thus emphasising the importance of personal meaning-making. His idea was to relate forgotten experiences and episodes and join them with a storyline which is more uplifting than the initial story the coachee may have presented in the beginning of the session. By revisiting the absent but implicit reality, for example by remembering the importance of a teacher in one's first school years, the coachees have a chance to re-tell and enrich their stories on the basis of their cultural background and their life history. This opportunity may lead them to modify story plots and couple events in a new way, thus leading to the creation of a more uplifting storyline and a positive, encouraging reality.

B. Co-creation of meaning – developing alternative stories

In the second dimension of meaning-making – which is integrated with the first in the actual coaching conversation – the focus is on the *socially* co-constructed reality. This constructive process takes place in the dia-

logue between coach and coachee, but more significantly in dialogues among a group of coachees. The dialogues are initiated by the coach through a form of intervention called outsider witnessing (White, 2007). In a group coaching session, outsider witnesses are participants who reflect a conversation by expressing what has been important and valuable from their perspectives. Their positions may help the coachees to see certain challenges or events from a new perspective.

Social constructionists and narrative psychologists suggest that reality is shaped in a process of co-action and social and linguistic discourse. This form of discourse is comprised of collections of statements and other verbal constructs which, in a given context form the basis for development of meaningful linguistic systems. In these discourses, knowledge, understanding and concepts are shaped in a way that meets acceptance in the social context and verifies the very same context. One of the central aspects of the discourse between coach and coachee or among various coachees is the co-creation of values and meaning: Which values do we find central and meaningful? Why do we do the things we do? Could we do things differently so that our activities would be more fun, more efficient or beneficial to our performance? The coach's questions or the contribution of others – if we are in a group context – can enrich the current reality of every participant in the dialogue and thus make space for new meanings and the unfolding of new and alternative narratives. It is through relating to one another in words and actions that we create meaning and our ever changing social reality.

Gergen (1994) spoke about the communal origins of meaning. In a team context, this would mean that all participants co-construct the culture which they are part of at the same time. In this communal process, co-creating narratives and storytelling play a central role.

Making space for the unfolding narratives: Integrating the experiential and relational in narratives

In the following I will take a closer look at the narrative perspective and its importance in stimulating the reflective space of the coaching dialogue. The concept of narrativity and narrative psychology can be understood as a further development of the social constructionist perspective – a new approach which integrates the experiential and subjective with the relational and discursive dimension. This is an objective I am also striving for in this article, where I present the two streams integrated in the coaching dialogue. Crossley (2003) wrote:

> I felt there was a need for a different kind of psychology – one which retained the ability of appreciating the linguistic and discursive structuring of 'self' and 'experience', but one which also maintained a sense of the essentially personal, coherent and 'real' nature of individual subjectivity (p.289).

Crossley (2003) took Carr's ideas a step farther:

> The whole point of Carr's argument is that the necessity of achieving a sense of structure and order in the course of our everyday activities stems not from an intentional act, but from our practical (obviously embodied and affective) orientation within the world. … The whole process of narration and the implicit orientation towards narrative structure operates to transform a person's physical, emotional and social world (pp.296–297).

Other researchers who share the position of integrating the embodied-experiential with the relational-discursive concept are Shotter and Lannaman (2002), Stam (1990) and Sampson (1996). They all see the possibility of linking phenomenological with social-constructionist thinking by establishing a third – a narrative – position. They are far from taking a naturalistic standpoint, e.g. by regarding personality as anchored in more or less stable traits. Instead, they strive

towards a culturally oriented psychology, where experience and emotions are the basis for forming narratives whose personal and communal values shape self and others. As Bruner (1990) stated '[values] become incorporated in one's self-identity and, at the same time, they locate one in a culture' (p.29). Telling stories to one another and developing and sharing narratives and accounts, either in a coach-coachee relationship or in a group setting, is fundamental to the process of social meaning-making; the grounding of an individual in a cultural context is always based on specific values and meanings. Bruner (2006) highlighted the significance of storytelling as follows:

> *The* principal way in which our minds, our 'realities', get shaped to the patterns of daily cultural life is through the stories we tell, listen to, and read – true or fictional. We 'become' active participants in our culture mainly through the narratives we share in order to 'make sense' of what is happening around us, what has happened, and what may happen (p.14).

Narratives serve to structure events and to join them together in a timeline. They make stories – the source of meaning-making – coherent and as a result, life makes sense. Narratives establish temporal coherence and shape how events, actions, other persons and ourselves can be experienced and perceived as sensible and meaningful. The plot of every story is the basis for the development of an inner structure and drama (Sarbin, 1986, an early psychologist with a narrative orientation). By telling stories and listening to them, our lives become meaningful. Carr (1986) put it like this: 'Lives are told in being lived and lived in being told' (p.61).

One of the central objectives of coaching can be to help the coachees further develop their stories and perhaps also develop alternative ones. The following strategies might support the process of co-creation of alternative stories, a process upon which the alliance between coach and coachee is founded:

Focusing on positive exceptions. Although we tend to focus on things that do not work, cause trouble or create conflict, there are always elements in situations which can be defined as positive. An example: If two colleagues come to you, the coach, complaining that they cannot work together because they are always fighting, your question to them could be: 'Can you remember a situation where you actually worked together in a good and constructive way?'

Focusing on elements of success. This strategy is similar to the one described above. Here the focus is on elements of success. So even though you and a colleague are finding it difficult to co-operate, there might be elements of success upon which to focus and cultivate in greater depth.

Connecting stories with an experiential and embodied implicit. Events and situations hide implicit dimensions which need to be unfolded. These hidden elements are by their very nature difficult to discuss, but if we learn to identify and describe them, we might find a way to enrich our stories and eventually our lives. By talking about a specific current situation, the coachee might remember an uplifting moment from the past which can be connected to the current situation, and in that way enhance the story about a current event or situation.

Giving the story a name. By asking 'what would you call this story?' the coach invites the coachee into the 'landscapes of consciousness' (White, 2007) – a reflective space where the coachees try to establish the meaning of the story in their own world.

Enriching stories by relating them to values and questions of identity. The art of storytelling is to make stories richer, to develop a detailed plot which is clear and explicit. It is useful to ask questions about values that are based on concrete and embodied experiences and that evoke memories of events, as well as questions dealing with identity and personal and social meaning.

Linking events to one another. Stories always unfold by linking events. Stories unfold in a new way if we link certain events in a way not

done earlier. And suddenly the storytellers are caught by surprise, because their actions can now be seen and understood in a new and different light.

Building bridges between stories and imagined future actions. By further developing their stories, or creating 'alternative' or 'new' ones, the participants become better equipped to take action on matters they have reflected upon and talked about. Furthermore, the values and meanings that emerge from the storytelling by the participants and coachees grow vivid and provide motivation. The focus turns to purposes and goals anchored in values based on personal and social meaning-making.

Epilogue

The central objective of this article has been to widen the awareness of the coach psychologist towards societal challenges, challenges we all face and must manage and cope with. In our hypercomplex society and work it may be illusionary and even inappropriate to strive for full *control of* the situation. Surely there are challenges that the coachee can learn to handle with specific approaches (e.g. solution-focused, cognitive behavioural), but from a postmodern perspective it is worthwhile to keep in mind that our society is too complex to be controlled. Here I wish to promote my term 'reflective space': it always makes sense to reflect upon how life in general or specific situations and tasks may be meaningful for me and my neighbour. And through this focus on meaning and values we may open a new territory where the coachee can experience freedom of mind and the possibility to grow.

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SGCP & IGCP News Update

Special Group in Coaching Psychology News

Vicky Ellam-Dyson

HELLO and welcome to the second edition of the *International Coaching Psychology Review* for 2009.

The SGCP aims for 2009 are progressing well. The development of the new website is in progress and expected to launch in September. This will give a fresh new interface for accessing information about the SGCP and the coaching psychology profession.

Registration for our 2nd European Coaching Psychology conference is now open. The early bird reduced rate is available until 14 September. The themes of the conference include: Hope and Wisdom, Engagement, Transition, Performance, Health and Well-being, Developing Practice and Community. Keynote speakers include: Professor Michel Moral, Professor Remco Pollman, Dr Dusan Stojnov, Hugh Donovan, Dr Ilona Bonniwell, and Peter Zarris.

The conference is taking place at Royal Holloway, University of London, in Egham on 15 and 16 December. For more details and to book your place go to: www.sgcp.org.uk/conference/conference_home.cfm

Our first evening networking event, hosted by Max Blumberg discussing research and evaluation for coaching practice, created a great deal of interest. (At the time of writing this event has not yet taken place.) A further networking event is planned for November to be hosted by Travis Kemp.

The planned introduction of coaching psychology practice groups has been well received with a good response from members interested in both hosting and attending the groups. This initiative is planned to launch in September with the first groups being advertised via the SGCP announcement list. To receive details about these groups you can subscribe to the announcement list by contacting our Honorary Secretary, Elouise Leonard, at sgcpsecretary@bps.org.uk

Discussions are continuing with the British Psychological Society regarding a route for recognition for coaching psychologists. Simon Bowen, Director of Member Services for the Society will be attending the conference in December to discuss developments in this area.

Finally, I am pleased to announce that Dr Siobhain O'Riordan has taken up the post of Editor for *The Coaching Psychologist.* Siobhain's previous experience with the SGCP and her position in the field of coaching psychology is highly valuable in ensuring the continuing development and distribution of *The Coaching Psychologist.*

As always, we welcome your ideas and feedback, please do get in touch.

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SGCP & IGCP News Update

Interest Group in Coaching Psychology News

Peter Zarris

Dear IGCP members.

It seems like just yesterday when I last wrote our broad update, but much has happened since then.

The IGCP and its various national and state committees continue to graciously and generously give up their time and develop both key projects to the future of coaching psychology and world-class events for our members to attend.

I hope to outline some of the upcoming events in this summary, as well as highlighting some of the key projects that we are currently working on.

The National Committee recently met in Queensland to map out the next 12 months. The issues that we looked at break down into four broad categories.

1. **Future Events.** A calendar of events that will continue to provide our members with world-class events to attend, including bringing along international speakers of note in their areas of expertise.
2. **Accreditation/Standards.** The IGCP continues to work in two important areas in terms of accreditation and in determining standards for coaching psychology. Firstly we maintain close ties with our counterparts at the British Psychological Society and The Society for Coaching Psychology and we continue to work closely in developing accreditation standards for coaching psychologists. Secondly the IGCP is involved in a project with Standards Australia to establish standards for coaching more broadly, and again we will continue to work closely with Standards Australia to assist in identifying the capabilities required for coaching and coaching psychologists.
3. **Alliances.** As I outlined in my last update the IGCP continues to build and maintain close alliances with external bodies. A relationship with SIOPSA (The Society for Industrial & Organisational Psychology of South Africa) was recently cemented where our National Secretary Aaron McEwan attended the recent conference and made one of the keynote addresses to the conference. We are currently working with SIOPSA with a hope of building an MOU with them. We will work closely with the APS to this end.

4. **Symposium.** The biennial symposium has been the flagship of the IGCP. Next year's symposium will be in Melbourne and we have in place a Melbourne organising committee which will be strongly supported by the National Committee. Our 4th biennial symposium promises to be the biggest and best yet.

So let me outline these in greater detail.

1. Future Events

We have three half-day skill-based workshops scheduled in various States over the next few months. These will feature leading local and international experts sharing their skills and knowledge. Make sure you put aside these days in your diary now!

1. Marketing your Coaching Practice workshop
We have already sent out the invitation to this one. Initial response has been strong and in these tough times we think a lot of people will be interested in learning how to promote themselves and keep the dollars coming in.

2. Emotions in Coaching by Susan David
Dr Susan David is a prominent researcher, teacher and practitioner in emotions, positive psychology and coaching. She has worked with Jack Mayer and Peter Salovey (the real authors of emotional intelligence) and teaches at Yale, Harvard and Harvard Medical School. We are very privileged to have her present these workshops and they should not be missed.

3. Stress Management and Coaching by Stephen Palmer – 24 October
Prof. Stephen Palmer is one of the global thought leaders in coaching psychology. The co-editor of the *ICPR*, founding Chair of the British Psychological Society's SGCP and instigator of seemingly half the coaching organisations in the UK, Stephen is a profligate researcher, teacher and practicing coach. He is founder Director of the Centre for Stress Management which was established in 1987. More recently he launched City University's Coaching Psychology Unit in London. He will be teaching advanced techniques such as rapid case conceptualisation and inference chaining to aid assessment and help manage stress in coaching clients.

Please check with your local committee to confirm.

2. Accreditation/Standards
Proposed framework for the Accreditation of coaching psychologists
We hope to provide a quality indicator for clients of coaches, PD guide for coaching psychologists, marketplace credibility for those accredited and to attract more members to IGCP.

We want to codify what differentiates coaching psychologists and to make this explicit.

Actions
1. IGCP to continue to consult with other bodies to determine:
   a. the standards required of coaches and coaching psychologists;
   b. how a coach can attain these standards;
   c. the process to recognise those who have attained these standards.
2. These bodies include:
   a. British Psychological Society's Special Group in Coaching Psychology;
   b. Standards Australia;
   c. Society for Coaching Psychologists.
3. This proposal paper should be disseminated and discussed by National Committee of IGCP with the aim of deciding on an accreditation framework as outlined above.

This should include a strategy for the roll-out of accreditation of coaching psychologist in Australian and internationally.

I will keep you all posted on progress with Standards Australia.

3. Alliances
The key alliance that we continue to maintain and develop is that with the British Psychological Society's Special Group for Coaching Psychology.

Those of you who have had the opportunity to read the *International Coaching Psychology Review* journal understand that this alliance is crucial in developing a peer review journal for the development of research into coaching psychology. We continue to work closely with the SGCP and in fact I will be attending the National Conference in December in London to further promote relationships between the two groups, as well as present a paper on coaching psychology.

We also continued to develop an alliance and relationship with SCIOPSA. To this end Aaron McEwan presented a paper at SCIOPSA in June. Aaron has described the

experience as one of the greatest personal experiences of his life, but also a great professional experience. Aaron was able to marry developing closer alliances with SCIOPSA with an opportunity to immerse himself in South African culture, including a once in a lifetime opportunity to go on safari. We hope to by the end of this year to gain the APS's blessing to sign an MOU with SCIOPSA.

We also continue to develop alliances with Standards Australia and will be involved in and a signatory to coaching standards, as outlined above. We also hope to build relationships with both the New Zealand Coaching Psychology Group and a special group in coaching psychology within the Swedish Psychological Society. We have been in discussion with committee members from both these groups and hope to continue building these alliances in the future.

4. Symposium

Our biennial symposium will be conducted in Melbourne next year, and whilst final dates are yet to confirmed, we intend at this stage to run the conference later in the year.

The Chair of the Victorian Branch Subcommittee Nic Eddy is the Head of the Symposium Subcommittee, as well as being a member of the National Committee. Nic's team will develop a communication strategy with local members, and given the outstanding success of last year's Sydney symposium we look forward to an outstanding event in Melbourne next year.

The future

The future of the group is very promising. We are currently the second largest interest group of the APS and arguably the most active. Our Sydney membership alone has increased to over 300 members and Adelaide continues to be active despite some changes to their State Executive due to ill health and personal reasons.

Please continue to support the group and its various activities, as our members are volunteers and do much of this work in their own spare time.

Finally I remind you all that there will be our annual general meeting in September of this year. We will send specific details of this event, as the next National Committee will be selected at that juncture.

Thank you all and please continue to support the IGCP.

Peter Zarris
National Convenor, IGCP.
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Announcement

In the paper version of the *International Coaching Psychology Review*, Vol. 4, Issue 1, 2009, the paper, 'Linking MBS learning and leadership coaching', by Barbara Wood and Sandy Gordon, was incorrectly titled. It should have read 'Linking MBA learning and leadership coaching'.

International Coaching Psychology Review – Volume index 2009

Volume 4, No. 1, March 2009

Volume 4, No. 2, September 2009

Stress Management and Coaching: From rapid case conceptualisation to intervention

Facilitator: Professor Stephen Palmer PhD CPsychol FAC MSCP Accred

Half-day APS IGCP workshops held in October 2009: 24th Sydney; 27th Adelaide; 29th Brisbane; 31st Melbourne.

Case conceptualisation in coaching and coaching psychology practice has gone out of fashion in Europe and probably elsewhere too. Few papers or book chapters even discuss this topic. Yet most coachees provide us with all the information we need if only we listen to them carefully. Case conceptualisation does not need to be an extended process but it is still important. This workshop will cover a collaborative dual systems framework for a rapid case conceptualisation taking approximately seven minutes. It will also include a longer in-depth cognitive-visual process of stress mapping which can be used to assess both coachees and their organisations. Understandably, stressed coachees may be hard to motivate or stay focused on their goals. Motivation imagery and goal focused imagery can be used to assist coachees with these two problems and these will covered too.

In the workplace managers and executives are often perceived by employees as being stress carriers. When working with managers, coaches and coaching psychologists can use a free downloadable tool to focus on helping the manager to develop stress management competencies that benefit them and their staff. Most practitioners know how to complete 5 column ABCDE stress management and/or performance coaching worksheets used in cognitive behavioural coaching. However, often they do not focus on the real issue from the coachee's perspective that needs addressing in coaching. At a crucial stage inference chaining often needs to be used to clarify the most important aspect of the activating event. Correct assessment at this stage helps the coach and coachee to focus on what needs to be addressed later in coaching session.

This workshop will provides skills practice for practitioners who want to integrate a range of assessment and intervention coaching skills within their coaching psychology and coaching practice. Pre-workshop reading will be provided.

The objectives of this workshop are to:

- Practise undertaking a dual systems, rapid case conceptualisation
- Gain knowledge of stress mapping
- Become knowledgeable about two models of stress
- Practise using motivation imagery and goal focused imagery
- Consider using the Stress Management Competency Indicator Tool for Managers within coaching and coaching psychology practice
- Use a 5 column ABCDE stress management and/or performance coaching worksheet including inference chaining to enhance assessment

Professor Stephen Palmer PhD is a Chartered Psychologist, an APECS Accredited Executive Coach and Supervisor, a Society for Coaching Psychology Accredited Coaching Psychologist, and Founder Fellow of the Association for Coaching. He has written or edited 35 books including the *Handbook of Coaching Psychology: A Guide for Practitioners* (with Whybrow, 2007) and *Stress Counselling: A Rational Emotive Behaviour Approach* (with Ellis et al., 1997). He is UK Co-ordinating Editor of the *International Coaching Psychology Review*, and Executive Editor of *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*. He is Honorary Professor of Psychology and Director of the Coaching Psychology Unit at City University and Director of the Centre for Coaching, London. He was the UK's first Visiting Professor of Work Based Learning & Stress Management, first Chair of the British Psychological Society's Special Group in Coaching Psychology and Hon Vice President of the Society for Coaching Psychology. In his BBC 1 TV series, *The Stress Test*, he demonstrated cognitive coaching and cognitive therapy. In 2008 the British Psychological Society's Special Group in Coaching Psychology gave him the 'Lifetime Achievement Award in Recognition of Distinguished contribution to Coaching Psychology', awarded at the 1st European Coaching Psychology Conference. His interests include jazz, astronomy, walking, writing, travel and art.

For booking information and further details, please contact: david@insightmc.com.au

Notes

4. Online submission process

(1) All manuscripts must be submitted to a Co-ordinating Editor by e-mail to:
Stephen Palmer (UK): dr.palmer@btinternet.com
Michael Cavanagh (Australia): michaelc@psych.usyd.edu.au

(2) The submission must include the following as separate files:

- Title page consisting of manuscript title, authors' full names and affiliations, name and address for corresponding author.
- Abstract.
- Full manuscript omitting authors' names and affiliations. Figures and tables can be attached separately if necessary.

5. Manuscript requirements

- Contributions must be typed in double spacing with wide margins. All sheets must be numbered.
- Tables should be typed in double spacing, each on a separate page with a self-explanatory title. Tables should be comprehensible without reference to the text. They should be placed at the end of the manuscript with their approximate locations indicated in the text.
- Figures can be included at the end of the document or attached as separate files, carefully labelled in initial capital/lower case lettering with symbols in a form consistent with text use. Unnecessary background patterns, lines and shading should be avoided. Captions should be listed on a separate page. The resolution of digital images must be at least 300 dpi.
- For articles containing original scientific research, a structured abstract of up to 250 words should be included with the headings: Objectives, Design, Methods, Results, Conclusions. Review articles should use these headings: Purpose, Methods, Results, Conclusions.
- Overall, the presentation of papers should conform to the British Psychological Society's Style Guide (available at www.bps.org.uk/publications/publications_home.cfm in PDF format). Non-discriminatory language should be used throughout. Spelling should be Anglicised when appropriate. Text should be concise and written for an international readership of applied psychologists. Sensationalist and unsubstantiated views are discouraged. Abbreviations, acronyms and unfamiliar specialist terms should be explained in the text on first use.
- Particular care should be taken to ensure that references are accurate and complete. Give all journal titles in full. Referencing should follow BPS formats. For example:
  Billington, T. (2000). *Separating, losing and excluding children: Narratives of difference*. London: Routledge/Falmer.
  Elliott, J.G. (2000). Dynamic assessment in educational contexts: Purpose and promise. In C. Lidz & J.G. Elliott (Eds.), *Dynamic assessment: Prevailing models and applications* (pp.713–740). New York: J.A.I. Press.
  Palmer, S. & Whybrow, A. (2006). The coaching psychology movement and its development within the British Psychological Society. *International Coaching Psychology Review 1*(1), 5–11.
- SI units must be used for all measurements, rounded off to practical values if appropriate, with the Imperial equivalent in parentheses.
- In normal circumstances, effect size should be incorporated.
- Authors are requested to avoid the use of sexist language.
- Authors are responsible for acquiring written permission to publish lengthy quotations, illustrations, etc. for which they do not own copyright.

6. Brief reports

These should be limited to 1000 words and may include research studies and theoretical, critical or review comments whose essential contribution can be made briefly. A summary of not more than 50 words should be provided.

7. Publication ethics

BPS Code of Conduct – Code of Conduct, Ethical Principles and Guidelines.
Principles of Publishing – Principle of Publishing.

8. Supplementary data

Supplementary data too extensive for publication may be deposited with the British Library Document Supply Centre. Such material includes numerical data, computer programs, fuller details of case studies and experimental techniques. The material should be submitted to the Editor together with the article, for simultaneous refereeing.

9. Post acceptance

PDF page proofs are sent to authors via e-mail for correction of print but not for rewriting or the introduction of new material.

10. Copyright

To protect authors and publications against unauthorised reproduction of articles, The British Psychological Society requires copyright to be assigned to itself as publisher, on the express condition that authors may use their own material at any time without permission. On acceptance of a paper, authors will be requested to sign an appropriate assignment of copyright form.

11. Checklist of requirements

- Abstract (100–200 words).
- Title page (include title, authors' names, affiliations, full contact details).
- Full article text (double-spaced with numbered pages and anonymised).
- References (see above). Authors are responsible for bibliographic accuracy and must check every reference in the manuscript and proofread again in the page proofs.
- Tables, figures, captions placed at the end of the article or attached as separate files.

Contents

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