

ABSTRACT

Personal and Professional Coaching: A Literature Review

by

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B.S., Keuka College 1972

Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
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Research on the efficacy of coaching has been slow to emerge since the inception of its use in the late 1930s. Existing theoretical and empirical evidence is scarce, yet the successful use of many proprietary methods and models of coaching have been reported. The purpose of this literature review was to summarize current methods and models of personal and professional coaching to identify a common theoretical foundation upon which empirical studies can be conducted. The findings of the literature review revealed that humanistic theory can provide the theoretical framework for coaching. All methods and models of coaching emphasized unconditional respect for each individual's capacity to make their own choices and achieve fulfillment through self-actualization. The coaching process was found to be holistic, client-centered and focused on human value and potential. Due to the lack of theoretical and empirical evidence supporting the efficacy of coaching, a randomized study is proposed that is designed to assess the efficacy of coaching based on humanistic theory. The within-subject study suggests using a quantitative Likert summated scale to assess client attitudes before and after coaching. It is designed to eliminate possible confounding variables that may have been present in previous research. The purpose of the proposed research study is to test the hypothesis that coaching increases client satisfaction as measured by quality of life indices in an effort to determine if this new helping intervention is impacting our society in a useful and positive way. Demonstrating the efficacy of coaching is not only socially significant for the protection of the consumer, but ethically imperative to substantiate claims being made by those who coach.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

For centuries artists and athletes have used coaches to enhance performance and reach new levels of achievement. Only recently has the term *coaching* become so popularized that an Internet search produced thousands of results for a variety of personal and professional coaching categories. The widespread use of this intervention for various aspects of living has spawned the development of an organization designed to represent and support excellence in business and personal coaching worldwide. The International Coach Federation (ICF), founded in 1992, lists corporate, small business, career, and personal coaching as categories for potential clients to choose from (ICF, 2004, Coach referral section, para. 4).

The ICF (2003) further delineates personal coaching into the following subcategories: life planning, life vision-enhancement, extreme self care, spirituality, relationships, health and fitness, creativity, financial freedom, organization, children, teens, college students and attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (AD/HD). The increased utilization of coaching to attain both personal and professional goals is reflected in the growth of the ICF from less than 1,000 members in 1997 to over 8,000 by the end of, 2004 (Mitten, December 10, 2004). As of November 2003, the ICF included members from more than 33 countries (Feld, 2004).

A review of the literature on non-athletic, non-academic coaching produced few peer-reviewed journal articles on the subject; however, books, magazines and newspaper articles were plentiful. A media review by Garman, Whiston, and Zlatoper (2000) reported that the majority of articles on executive coaching (44%) appeared in trade publications. Due to the ever increasing utilization of coaching as an intervention for

performance enhancement, it is not surprising that 8% of the articles written on executive coaching were newspaper pieces published for the general public (Garman et al., 2000).

The majority of peer-reviewed material focused on executive or managerial coaching (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Diedrich, 1996, 2001; Diedrich & Kilburg, 2001; Dunbar & Ehrlich, 1993; Dunning, 2001; Frisch, 2001; Garman et al., 2000; Graham, Wedman, & Garver-Kester, 1993; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck, 1999; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Katz & Miller, 1996; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996, 1997, 2001; Kralj, 2001; Levinson, 1996; Lukaszewski, 1988; MODOONO, 2002; Olivero, Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Richard, 1999; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1997; Tobias, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003; Witherspoon & White, 1996a, 1996b) and was derived from the fields of psychology, management, and organizational development (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001). Life coaching or coaching with an emphasis on personal as opposed to professional development was quite limited in peer-reviewed literature (Creane, 2003; Grant, 2002, 2003, 2004; Jonsson, 2003; Rogers, 2004; Wheeler, 2004), despite its current popularity in the media.

General interest in coaching is also reflected by the trend in self-help books published on the topic. Amazon.com lists over 400 books on personal coaching and greater than 2,000 books on business coaching, accentuating the discrepancy between the scarcity of peer-reviewed empirical research and the abundance of material written for the general public. Despite a lack of empirical research documenting the efficacy of coaching, the term coaching has become a hot new catch phrase used to lure individuals seeking to improve performance in all areas of life.

Statement of Problem

The problem facing the coaching industry today is the lack empirical research supporting the efficacy of coaching. The purported benefits of coaching remain mostly testimonial in nature and the majority of studies done to date are based on phenomenological research. Grant (2004) argued that coaching has outgrown its current proprietary knowledge-based status, and many coaches are advocating a shift toward more research that will provide theoretically grounded, evidence-based knowledge to support it. There is a need to unify what is currently known about coaching into a coherent, well-defined body of knowledge with shared terminology and theoretical base so that consumers, researchers, professional associations and any interested individual can have a concrete and verifiable source of information to turn to.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this literature review is to summarize current methods and models of personal and professional coaching to identify a common theoretical foundation upon which empirical studies can be conducted. Included in the literature review is a proposed research study which will not be performed that is designed to assess the efficacy of coaching. The purpose of the proposed research study is to test the hypothesis that coaching increases client satisfaction as measured by quality of life indices.

Theoretical Background

Review of the literature reveals that humanistic theory provides a theoretical base for which quantitative empirical research to support the efficacy of coaching can be designed. Thematic in coaching literature is an emphasis on individuality and self-

actualization, concepts central to humanism. Coaching has been described as holistic (Cociveria & Cronshaw, 2004; Kiel et al., 1996; Williams & Davis, 2002) and client-centered (Frisch, 2001; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Peterson & Millier, 2005; Tobias, 1996; Williams & Davis, 2002; Witherspoon & White, 1996) with emphasis placed on the client's capacity to make their own choices and create their own style of life to achieve personal fulfillment (Creane, 2003). Coaches facilitate this process by holding the client's agenda (Whitworth, Kimsey-House, & Sandahl, 1998; Williams & Davis, 2002) in a non-judgmental and respectful manner (Diedrich, 1996) in accordance with humanistic principles. Quantitative research to support the efficacy of coaching must therefore be respectful of personal choice if based on humanistic theory. The proposed research design included in chapter 3 places emphasis on self-assessment of quality of life indices and is holistic and client-centered, design aspects in alignment with humanistic theory.

Nature of the Study

The hypothesis of this proposed research design, which will not be conducted, is that coaching increases client satisfaction with quality of life indices. The goal of the study is to find out if a relationship exists between client satisfaction with quality of life indices and coaching. To measure client satisfaction before and after coaching, the Quality of Life Inventory (QOLI) assessment tool (Frisch, Cornell, Villanueva, & Retzlaff, 1992) will be used, as it contains a wide variety of indices that reflect both personal and professional aspects of an individual's life. The independent variable will be coaching and the dependent variables will be client satisfaction with quality of life indices. The study will be based on principles of humanistic theory which places

emphasis on individual choice, self actualization, and a holistic approach to development of maximum human potential.

Definition of Terms

Quality of life: For the purpose of this paper, the term "quality of life" will refer to "psychological well-being, social and emotional functioning, health status, functional performance, life satisfaction, social support, and standard of living" (Muldoon, Barger, Flory, & Manuck, 1998, p. 6).

Coaching: The term "coaching," unless otherwise specified as "executive coaching" or another sub-specialty of coaching, will refer to "life coaching," the broadest most inclusive use of the term, and will be defined as "a collaborative solution-focused, result-oriented and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of life experience and goal attainment in the personal and/or professional life of normal, non-clinical clients" (Grant, 2003, p.1).

Client: Throughout the literature review and research proposal the term "client" will refer to the individual being coached. Some models of coaching incorporate team coaching methods, where team goals or corporate goals are defined. During this process each individual on the team is coached to become responsible for their role in helping to accomplish group goals. The term client is not to be confused with the person(s) or company paying for the services rendered, as corporations often hire coaches for individual executives that either require or would benefit from coaching for professional or leadership development.

Assumptions, Scope, and Limitations

The process used to conduct the literature review revealed a wide consensus of opinions and ideas. The purpose of this research proposal, which will not be conducted, is to present a research design which will verify assumptions that are thematic in the literature. The majority of peer-reviewed articles equated, but did not quantitatively measure, increased satisfaction with personal and professional endeavors as the result of coaching. This research design is based upon assumptions in the literature that coaching is an effective and useful intervention resulting in increased satisfaction with life. Grant (2002) was the first and only researcher to demonstrate a correlation between coaching and satisfaction with quality of life measurements using a small number of graduate students that recently completed their degrees from the same university. By duplicating Grant's study (2002) using a large and diverse client population, it can be assumed that coaching is effective for the general population and not just graduate students. Using participants from all walks of life would rule out a possible confounding variable in Grant's study (2002) which might have been that the graduate students were more satisfied with the quality of their lives due to completion of their degrees rather than the coaching they received.

According to Miller (1990), it is important to identify limitations and delimitations in the course of designing any research study to assure validity. Delimitations narrow the scope of the study, and to enhance validity quality of life indices (dependant variables) will be measured using a Likert-type assessment tool, the Quality of Life Inventory or QOLI (Frisch et al., 1992). The study will be limited to one independent variable; coaching, as opposed to studying clients who are concurrently

utilizing psychotherapy or other helping interventions. The control group will consist of randomly chosen individuals who have expressed an interest in being coached and have requested to be contacted by a potential coach via the ICF website. Potential participants will be contacted by the researchers and offered the opportunity to participate in the study. Participants in the control group will be offered free coaching at the completion of the study as an incentive to participate.

To minimize additional confounding variables, all participants chosen for both the experimental and control group will be non-clinical adults who have been screened for the absence of psychopathology using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI-2) (Butcher, 1990) and who are not currently receiving or utilizing any form of therapeutic or helping intervention services such as therapy, consulting or special educational assistance.

Depression and other clinical conditions have been shown to have a confounding effect on subjective self-assessments (Atkinson, Zibin, & Chauang, 1997) that could adversely affect the validity of scoring. Elimination of participants with psychopathology will also reduce the variance in range of pretest QOLI (Frish et al., 1992) scores, thereby eliminating a possible source of confounding variables due to psychopathology. To further limit confounding variables, all coaches will be recruited through the same source, the Coaches Training Institute (CTI), to assure consistency of coach training. This will be accomplished by inviting all students who completed the co-active coaching fundamentals training to participate in the study. As an incentive to participate, arrangements will be made with ICF to include participation in the study as credit toward coach credentialing.

The major limitation or potential weakness of this study will be the possibility of unforeseen confounding or disturbance variables. These will be any factors that limit the participant's ability to fully utilize coaching, such as severe trauma or major life changes (e.g., death in the family or divorce). Design of the research protocol will include monitoring and recording of possible disturbance variables. Monitoring participant status for possible confounding variables will be done pre and post coaching by utilizing the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) to identify major life change events. Notations will be made of conditions that varied over the course of the coaching interaction.

Guidelines for administration of the SRRS (Holmes & Rahe, 1967), the MMPI-2 (Butcher, 1990) and the QOLI (Frisch et al., 1992) will be followed and documented as to the accuracy of implementation. The researcher administering the tests will be well qualified and trained in the procedural aspects of administering the tests consistently and thoroughly, considering all aspects of collecting information from the participants and disseminating information and instructions to study participants.

Validity will also be supported by a large number of participants. Using 50 participants in the study will reduce the possibility of a Type I error (i.e., alpha error) and provide a large enough sample ($N > 40$) to assure the correlated group's t test will be markedly robust to avoid violations of the normality assumption. This will assure the possibility of confirming the hypothesis. Using 50 participants will also allow a safe margin for attrition.

Significance of the Study

This literature review traces the history of coaching, comparing and contrasting various models and methods of coaching. Distinct skill-based competencies are identified and characteristics of the coaching process are discussed in an effort to define what constitutes coaching and makes it different from other helping interventions. By doing this, researchers can direct their efforts toward designing and implementing research that can effectively assess the many variables that might affect coaching outcomes.

Despite the wide variety of contexts in which coaching is used and the multitude of techniques employed, a review of the literature reveals one major theme - coaching is an intervention designed to help clients enhance the quality of their lives. The research proposal contained within this literature review is designed specifically to confirm correlations between coaching and quality of life indices previously reported in the literature (Grant, 2003) utilizing a control group, a more diverse and larger subject population, and a coach population trained from the same source (i.e. CTI).

The significance of this research proposal lies in the suggested population. Grant's (2003) study used a non-diverse population with no control. If coaching is purported to work for clients from all walks of life in a variety of endeavors, studies should include a diverse client population with a diverse set of goals. It may be that coaching is not effective for certain goals and that therapy or consulting would be a more suitable intervention choice. A study which would shed light on the appropriate application of coaching to meet individual needs would assist the consumer tremendously in making a decision regarding whether or not to hire a coach for help. It would also assist coaches in making appropriate referrals when needed.

Summary

Individuals seeking to improve the quality of their personal and professional lives are being drawn to coaching, rapidly creating a demand for this new service; however, research to support the efficacy of this service has lagged. The purpose of this thesis is to stimulate interest and direct efforts toward additional research by proposing an experimental research design and identifying areas from the literature that need additional supportive evidence.

Coaching skills, techniques, and competencies that are thematic in the literature from the various methods and models developed are specified in chapter 2 for the purpose of identifying possible coaching variables that could be analyzed in the proposed research study and future outcome studies. The literature review also presents rudimentary research that supports the efficacy of the techniques identified when used in similar helping interventions.

Since most coaching outcomes require facilitating behavioral change, psychological principles and the theoretical foundations of various coaching models are identified. What the literature revealed was a variety of theoretical foundations upon which coaching is built, all of which have impacted the development of coaching. When examined closely, humanistic theory relates most closely to the majority of coaching models. Other characteristics and issues unique to coaching will also be discussed in chapter 2, the literature review section.

Chapter 3 will offer a research proposal designed to provide information on the efficacy of coaching. It will verify the hypothesis that there is a relationship between coaching and client satisfaction with quality of life indices. The proposal will help answer

the question: Can coaching result in satisfaction of one's personal or professional endeavors? The integrative summary and critique in chapter 4 will cast a spotlight on professional issues in coaching that are thwarting development of high standards in the field, compromising the integrity of the service, and hindering the availability of knowledge important to the consumer. Suggestions will be made as to how this might be corrected.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A comprehensive review of the literature using the American Psychological Society PsycINFO database, the Library of Congress database and the National Library of Medicine database reveals a wide variety of definitions and several proprietary models for coaching with heavy emphasis on executive coaching and leadership development. When present, references to theoretical frameworks are varied. Topics of discussion include coaching versus therapy and consulting, types of coaching, the coach-client relationship, coach characteristics and skills, techniques and tools, determinants of successful coaching outcomes, and ethical and professional considerations.

Due to the proprietary nature of much of the material presented, few references are made to parallel fields of study in an attempt to define a common base of knowledge; instead, case studies give examples of how the proprietary material is applied. The resulting analysis lacks articulation of a researched and universally accepted theoretical framework.

The research strategy used in this literature review was to first search for the historical beginnings of coaching so that the theoretical foundations upon which it emerged could be identified. In doing so, special attention was given to the various definitions of coaching that appeared in the literature. Characteristics of coaching such as the coach/client relationship are discussed. Both professional and personal aspects of coaching are described via executive and life coaching studies. Secondly, the peer-reviewed literature was categorized according to models and methods being used, so techniques and tools used in the process of coaching common to all models could be

identified and discussed. Thirdly, rudimentary research in similar helping professions is presented to give merit to and help substantiate the validity of coaching assertions that remain, by and large, testimonial in nature. Finally, the literature review is a presentation and discussion of several aspects important to the professional development and future definition of coaching, including coach credentials and competency requirements.

The research strategy used was a comprehensive search to identify a theoretical framework upon which a research study could be designed that would test the hypothesis that coaching improves client satisfaction with quality of life indices. Major themes in coaching were searched for. Thematic in the literature was the assumption that coaching improves the quality of life for those who are coached. Inherent in the diverse methods and models researched were humanistic themes that sanctioned the right of the client to achieve fulfillment and satisfaction by means of self-actualization and development of human potential.

History

The first peer-reviewed coaching article to appear in the literature was a study by Gorby (1937) in which senior employees working under a profit sharing plan coached newer employees on how to reduce waste and increase profits. Sporadic articles on the use of coaching continued to appear in the literature with Bigelow (1938) describing how coaching was used to improve sales performance, and Hayden (1955) advocating that performance evaluations be followed with coaching to facilitate improved productivity and sustained behavioral change. The first description of a managerial training program that emphasized interpersonal communication skills utilizing coaching techniques was reported by Mold (1951). It was more than 10 years later that Mahler (1964) first

published his research on training managers to be more effective coaches. It was another 10 years before his work became popularized in book form (Mahler, 1974; Mahler & Wrightnour, 1973) for general use by management teams within major corporations. Hence, the professional use of non-athletic, non-academic coaching began within the context of business with the first client population consisting of managers and executives.

The prevalent use of executive coaching as a performance tool did not occur until the late 1980s (Tobias, 1996) and was first believed to have its roots in applied psychological sciences (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck, 1999). More recent researchers who continued to observe the expansion of coaching in various contexts assigned a much broader knowledge base as the foundation upon which coaching has developed. Stein (2004) suggested that coaching has its roots in educational theory, communication studies, social systems theory, the self help movement, management and leadership theory, the holistic movement, athletic motivation theory, psychotherapy, and adult development theories.

According to Tobias (1996), the term *coaching* was first used as a substitute word to describe the practices of consulting and counseling in an effort to make both seem less threatening and remedial. Apparently, the re-labeling of this intervention to promote professional development worked, as media coverage in the late 1990s characterized coaching as a much sought after benefit being offered by companies and corporations willing to invest in an employee's individual growth and progress (Stern, 2001). Kilburg's (1996) depiction of coaching as "an emerging competency in the practice of consultation" (p. 59) supported the re-labeling theory of how coaching originally spawned from the field of consulting and counseling.

The reasons provided for the increased popularity of coaching have been speculative at best with some authors suggesting that bringing therapy into the workplace under the guise of coaching was one way for psychologists to revitalize their practices after the damaging effects of managed care (Filipczak, 1998; Tobias, 1996); however, Witherspoon and White (1996a) provided a simpler, more direct explanation for its popularity. The authors stated that, "Coaching brings out the best in people" (p. 124) and can be utilized to facilitate the learning of new skills, increased performance, and to prepare individuals for advancement and change.

Prior to the use of coaching to enhance performance in the workplace, concerns of the industrial psychologist centered on accurate and efficient selection and placement procedures for employees using psychological testing to measure intelligence, aptitude, interest, and personality as indicators for job placement and satisfaction (Ryan & Smith, 1954). As more psychologists entered the corporate arena, the scope of research expanded and studies focused on the impact of managerial influences on productivity. Early research on managerial effectiveness, organizational performance, and business strategy was under the heading of "developmental counseling" and the term "coaching" was rarely used. The practice of developmental counseling or "corporate psychology" dates as far back as the late 1930s (Flory, 1965), which was when Gorby's (1937) first peer-reviewed article on coaching appeared.

Research Trends

Since the late 1930s, three major research trends in coaching have been observed (Grant, 2004). The first trend concerns internal coaching, which is defined as coaching that is supported by the organization and provided by a boss, mentor, or colleague (Frish,

2001). The second and third trends incorporate external coaching or coaching that is done by individuals outside the organization, generally when confidentiality is a concern (Hall et al., 1999).

The first trend, from the late 1930s to the late 1960s, consisted of published reports of internal coaching. Peer-reviewed literature during this time described how internal coaching was implemented and the results that were observed. Authors from this period described coaching techniques utilized in supervisory training (Lewis, 1947), managerial development (Allen, 1957; Perley, 1958) and executive advancement (Parkes, 1955; Glaser, 1958).

According to Grant (2004), the second trend in peer-reviewed literature started in the late 1960s and continued until the 1990s. This period produced more rigorous academic research, and increasing numbers of doctoral dissertations began to appear in the literature. The first to appear was authored by Gershman (1967) who evaluated the effectiveness of coaching techniques to improve employee attitude and job performance; however, the literature remained extensively phenomenological rather than quantitatively experimental, with case studies and narratives presented on internal coaching scenarios. Empirical evaluations on the effectiveness of coaching slowly began to emerge during this time and additional doctoral dissertations were produced (Duffy, 1984; Filippi, 1972; Gant, 1985; Wissbrun, 1984).

Grant (2004) defined the third trend as the emergence of increased empirical studies and the acceleration of doctoral dissertations being written on external coaching starting in 1990 (Conway, 2000; Delgado, 1999; Hancyk, 2000; Kleinberg, 2001; Laske, 1999b; Miller, 1990; Peterson, 1993; Sawczuk, 1991; Wachholz, 2000; Wilkins, 2000).

Three doctoral dissertations were written during this period specifically on the use of peer coaching to facilitate change (Coggins, 1991; DeVilliers, 1990; Dougherty, 1993). Case studies still form the basis for most recent empirical research (Blattner, 2005; Cocivera & Cronshaw, 2004; Kilburg, 2001; Kralj, 2001; Lowman, 2005; Orenstein, 2000; Peterson & Miller, 2005; Schnell, 2005; Wasylyshyn, 2005; Winum, 2005).

The majority of research to date is still phenomenological in nature, using only small numbers of participants in an attempt to develop patterns and relationships of meaning by studying the client's coaching experience and the results obtained. Group studies using statistical analysis of variables began to emerge in the 1990s (Graham et al., 1993; McGibben, 1995; Olivero et al., 1997).

Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas and Kucine's, (2003) group study produced the first quasi-experimental field study conducted over an extended period of time, using multi-source feedback ratings to evaluate the effects of coaching on executive performance. The first empirical study to assess the effectiveness of coaching was conducted by Gegner (as cited by Grant, 2004) using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Related studies to assess the efficacy of coaching have consisted of analyzing results obtained from coaching individuals for employment interviews (Maurer, Solamon, Andrews, & Troxtel, 2001; Maurer, Solamon, & Troxtel, 1998), coaching strategic learning in the classroom (Hamman, Berthelot, Saia, & Crowley, 2000), coaching motivational interviewing techniques (Miller, Yahne, Moyers, Martinez, & Pirritano, 2004), and coaching parenting skills (Corrin, 2003).

Historical Summary

Using 1937 as a marker for the emergence of the profession, coaching coincided with the arrival of neo-analytical psychology on the twentieth-century timeline of empirical psychology, yet professional coaching is still looked at as relatively new and unscientific. This perception is not surprising considering the slow appearance of peer-reviewed literature and empirical studies, with substantial numbers of dissertations lacking until the late 1990s. The variety of contexts in which coaching is utilized amplifies the discrepancy between the proliferation of personal and professional coaching and the lack of research needed to build a strong, theoretical foundation that defines the field of study and professionalizes the practice of coaching as an evidence-based intervention.

Coaching Definitions

There are a wide variety of definitions found in the literature for personal and professional coaching (Brotman et al., 1998; Diedrich, 2001; Frisch, 2001; Garman et al., 2000; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1996; Kralj, 2001; Peterson, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Williams & Davis, 2002; Witherspoon & White, 1996a). This is in part due to the variable context in which coaching is used. The first definition to appear on the ICF website defined professional coaching as "an ongoing partnership that helps clients produce fulfilling results in their personal and professional lives" (ICF, n.d.). Currently the ICF defines professional coaching as "an ongoing professional relationship that helps people produce extraordinary results in their lives, careers, businesses or organizations. Through the process of coaching, clients deepen their learning, improve their

performance and enhance their quality of life” (ICF, 2005, Code of Ethics section, para. 2).

ICF (2003, coach referral section, para. 3) further describes coaching as an interactive, action-oriented, goal setting process that helps both individuals and organizations more fully develop. The most significant difference between the two definitions is removal of the term “partnership,” which was used by Katz and Miller (1996) to describe an essential aspect of the relationship that makes coaching unique from other interventions. Although Kilburg (1996) did not use the term partnership in his definition, he described coaching as a helping relationship formed to "achieve a mutually identified set of goals," (p.142) indicating that the client and coach relationship is an affiliation based on reciprocity rather than one formed for the sole purpose of seeking or giving advice.

Both past and present ICF definitions place emphasis on personal and professional goals, keeping the context of the process very broad. The same is true of definitions found in the literature. Belf (1996) described the process as organized and ongoing, placing an emphasis on action, improvement in performance, and personal learning and growth. Frisch's (2001) definition specified that it is a one-on-one intervention designed to support professional growth from within the organization, and should be distinguished from other general advisory roles provided by inside consultants and human resource professionals because it is focused at the individual level.

The most popularly cited definition (Brotman et al., 1998; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1997; Richard, 1999) found in peer-reviewed literature is Kilburg's (1996) definition of executive coaching which stated:

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

In his definition, Kilburg (1996) referred to a formal agreement (or contract). When coaching is outsourced or sought externally to the organization, confidentiality with respect to other employees can be easily guaranteed, yet if the coaching contract is made within the organization between an employee and internal coach, confidentiality is at greater risk. Due to the nature of the coaching relationship, many authors agree that confidentiality is essential to the process and is a fundamental ethic to be respected (Brotman et al., 1998; Frisch, 2001; Kiel et al., 1996; Kralj, 2001; Sauer, 1999; Wasylshyn, 2003).

Frisch (2001) defined internal coaching as "a one-on-one developmental intervention supported by the organization and provided by a colleague of those coached who is trusted to shape and deliver a program yielding individual professional growth" (p. 241). In this type of coaching scenario, absolute confidentiality would be cumbersome at best considering most work related issues concerning performance would not only be discussed, but be judged by a colleague who may not be impartial, fair or above gossiping with other employees. Other definitions specify that executive coaching, to be defined as such, be provided by outsiders or individuals not connected with the organization (Garman et al., 2000).

Laske's (1999a) definition of coaching differs from the others in that it is limited to a method-specific model and uses distinct terminology that relates only to the model it describes. He has defined coaching as "the multidirectional ability to observe executive-

organization interaction in two related mental spaces called the Professional House and the Company House, for the purpose of bringing about not only adaptive but transformative change” (p. 152). Hargrove (1995) also differentiated his description of coaching from others by referring specifically to “transformational coaching,” which he explains as a process that enables clients to broaden their vision. Some definitions describe coaching more in terms of a learning process in which clients increase their knowledge (Peterson & Hicks, 1996), facilitate learning (Diedrich, 2001), and increase opportunities with the tools that coaching provides rather than through the direct consultation from the coach as Kralj (2001) suggested.

Tobias (1996) emphasized the individualization of the process and noted that it is an ongoing process, unlike professional development workshops and seminars that serve as one-time consultations for employee issues. Williams and Davis (2002) agreed with the aspect that coaching is typically a long-term relationship. Some definitions are specific for coaching teams (Diedrich, 1996), while others call for an expansion of the definition to include individual, team and organizational interventions that are strategy-driven on a group level in order to stimulate individual and group change (Kralj, 2001).

Coaching has not been described as an intervention to assist people in getting over their past but rather as an intervention designed to move forward with future endeavors (Williams & Davis, 2002) by facilitating understanding and learning (Diedrich, 2001) in a holistic approach (Diedrich, 1996). Coaches have also been referred to as change agents in the corporate culture (Katz & Miller, 1996).

Lowman's (2001) criticism concerning the definition of coaching is that the term is often used too broadly within Organizational Development (OD) and Organizational

Consulting Psychology (OCP). Kleinberg (2001) went so far as to say that coaching lacks a theoretical understanding and, due to the lack of research, is ill-defined and inchoate. This may be due to the variety of fields from which essential concepts of the coaching construct are drawn. Educational literature, for example, provides an expansive and empirically sound foundation of research on self-efficacy (Bandalos, Yates, & Thorndike-Christ, 1995; Bong, 1997, 1998; Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001; Feltz, Chase, Moritz, & Sullivan, 1999; Goddard, 2001; Marsh, Dowson, Pietsch, & Walker, 2004; Page-Voth & Graham, 1999; Pietsch, Walker, & Chapman, 2003; Sawyer, Graham, & Harris, 1992; Shell, Covin, & Bruning, 1995), achievement goal theory (Bandalos, Finney, & Geske, 2003; Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliott, & Thrash, 2002; Middleton & Midgley, 1997; Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton, 2001; Pintrich, 2000; Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan, 1996; Ryan, Gheen, & Midgley, 1998; Wolters, 2004; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1997), and motivation (Bong, 2001; Eaton & Dembo, 1997; Gaskins, 1999; Standage, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2003; Turner & Johnson, 2003; Turner, Thorpe, & Meyer, 1998), all of which contain principles and theories that are applicable to the coaching process. According to the ICF, this definition is designed to enable clients to "deepen their learning" (ICF, 2005, Code of Ethics section, para. 2).

Common to all definitions of coaching in the literature is the aspect that coaching is a partnership or a relationship in which both coach and client share an interest in the development of a client's goals and aspirations. Structure of the process is emphasized with significance being placed on the development of clearly defined goals and a means of measuring the progress of the goals identified and agreed upon. Central to all definitions is the role of the coach as a facilitator of the process, rather than a director

providing support and encouragement. In general, coaching is described as an action-oriented process that promotes personal and professional development through self-initiated change, differing from therapy in that it is designed for the normal, non-clinical population that is seeking to improve their present day life, rather than heal from issues that need therapeutic intervention.

Coaching Versus Therapy

The major and most obvious difference between coaching and therapy is the paradigms from which they are drawn. Coaching is done in sports, business and personal growth seminars, and can be found as a useful intervention in many self-mastery models (Hayden & Whitworth, 1996). In contrast to coaching, therapy is a healing intervention used in medicine when psychological mediation is required. This paradigm is what separates individuals who need therapy for psychological/emotional healing from those who seek coaching to increase performance and become more successful personally and professionally. Hence, the remedial nature of therapy begins with the premise that the client needs healing, and coaching begins with the premise that the client is whole (Hayden & Whitworth, 1996). Sperry (1997) maintained that coaching as an intervention to improve performance is useful when working with healthy individuals who exhibit functional patterns of behavior; however, when personality disorders result in dysfunctional interactions, psychoanalytical intervention is needed (Sperry, 1997).

Although individuals seek both coaching and therapy as interventions for behavioral change, Hart, Blattner and Leipsie's (2001) study revealed several critical differences between coaching and therapy. In therapy the focus of the intervention is typically treatment for an identifiable condition, such as depression, which is defined by

the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM IV) criteria. The second major difference discerned by the survey was orientation to time. In therapy the focus is typically retrospective and deals with unconscious, historical issues that result in pathological symptoms. In coaching the perspective is focused on present conditions and future goals. Rather than healing the past, coaching is more action-oriented by focusing on maximizing one's potential through learning new skills and improving problem solving and decision making behaviors. Although both interventions foster insight, in therapy insight is needed for healing and in coaching insight is needed for action. Hayden and Whitmore (1996) described this difference by indicating that therapists work with clients who ask “why type questions” and coaches work with clients who ask “how type questions.”

Additional differences discerned by Hart's et al.'s (2001) survey were the types of conversation. Coaches in the survey identified coaching conversation as more relaxed and informal, using self-disclosure and humor more often. Coaching dialogue was also described as more structured and task-focused, involving strategic planning toward concrete and well-defined goals. Therapeutic conversations were depicted as less defined and more oriented toward discovery of emotional issues by expression of feelings. Similarities included methods of inquiry, boundary issues, potential power differentials, and guidance in the form of suggestions. Although boundary issues are of concern with both therapy and coaching, participants in the survey reported more relaxed boundaries in coaching (e.g., telling a client their birthday and even accepting a card or meeting in a public place such as Starbucks).

Richard (1999) listed additional differences—in therapy progress is mainly measured through patient self-reports, whereas coaching performance is measured by well defined criteria established by both coach and client. Modes of delivery also vary with coaching done face-to-face in private or sometimes public surroundings, over the phone or via email interaction (Krajl, 2001; Richard, 1999) and video conferencing (Charbonneau, 2002), but therapy is almost always done in person and in a professional office. Finally, the method of compensation may be different. Therapy is typically covered by insurance, but the client or employer typically pays for coaching.

In psychoanalytic interventions, transference is commonly used as a therapeutic tool to call attention to feelings the client has toward the therapist in an attempt help a client gain greater insight about themselves. Most authors agreed that transference is not a tool used in coaching (Hayden & Whitworth, 1996). Levinson (1996) believes that a crucial difference between coaching and therapy is that the coach deals with reality problems and uses little if any interpretation of unconsciously motivated attitudes toward the coach overtly to deal with projection derived from a client's personal history. He further recommended that intense psychotherapy be used in situations where unconscious pressures are overwhelming and the client is unable to move beyond their psychological impediments to progress.

The general consensus of how executive coaching differs from therapy is that it is focused on interpersonal skills and performance issues within the workplace. Bricklin (2001) added that the higher up the executive ladder, the more important interpersonal skills and emotional competencies become. Tobias (1996) viewed coaching as a mere repackaging of psychological interventions that make it seem less threatening and

remedial in nature. Many psychologists and therapists have looked at coaching as a new way to use their skills and are beginning to make the transition from therapist to coach (Williams & Davis, 2002). This has led to a growing concern that clinically trained therapists are entering the coaching arena with inadequate coaching skills (Lowman, 2005; Somerville, 1998). Some coaching models do not distinguish coaching from therapy as clearly as others.

Kilburg's model of developmental coaching (1995, 1996) contains many psychodynamic elements and discusses external adaptation and internal integration for emotional conflict. Kilburg (2004) asserted that there are coaching situations in which a psychodynamic approach is needed, as feelings, thoughts, events, and patterns of behavior that have a significant influence on decision-making are often outside an executive's conscious awareness.

Kilburg (2004) maintained that a thorough understanding of conflict theory and object relations theory can provide those interested in changing human behavior with a wide variety of conceptual tools and intervention strategies. Instances in which psychodynamic interventions may be useful include: situations in which the client continues to under-perform despite intentions to improve, when a client suffers from disruptive emotional experiences, when a client repeats incomprehensible and destructive behaviors, or when a client seeks to gain a greater understanding of their personal history, behavior, or psychological makeup. Additional relevant considerations for the use of psychodynamic theory based interventions include conflict, trauma, major transitions, family problems, relationship disturbances and crisis situations.

Tobias (1996) emphasized the importance of an indepth psychological assessment with history included. Quick's and Macik-Frey's (2004) developmental model of coaching is purported as neither a "surface approach" nor a "therapeutic approach," yet relied heavily on a process of deep interpersonal communication. Other developmental models are more focused on the fundamentals of learning (Hicks & Peterson, 1997) and placed emphasis on facilitating continuous leaning by the client.

Executive Coaching Versus Consulting

Sperry (1993) noted that although there is some overlap between counseling, consulting, and coaching, there are considerable differences among the three interventions, and specific competencies are needed for each. Sperry (1993) described executive consulting as an intervention designed to help the executive think through the presenting concern and generate solutions, considering various options. In this situation the consultant needs to be competent at establishing rapport and facilitating insight. Knowledge about business management is also a competency needed to guide the client in making informed decisions, and differs from executive counseling and psychotherapy in that the clinician-patient relationship is typically more process-oriented and the clinician's role is less directive and expert-oriented compared to the consultant's (Sperry 1993). In executive counseling and psychotherapy sessions are 50 minutes long, but consults may be as brief as a few minutes or last for hours. Coaching is different from consulting and counseling in that it primarily involves the teaching of new skills and is most useful when used to improve relationship skills (Sperry, 1993).

Garman et al. (2000) concluded that most articles on coaching do not identify specific coaching skills but focus on business content knowledge, which Levinson (1996)

stated is essential for business coaches to have. Kilburg (1996) suggested that although it is difficult to distinguish coaching from other helping interventions, consulting can be seen as different because of its focus on the executive aspect versus individual development and relationship issues.

Rather than delineating coaching specifically from consulting, Peterson (1996) identified three types of coaching:

1. Targeted coaching, which is a one-on-one focused, practical, skill-based approach, custom designed to meet the client's needs for improvement through personalized instruction, practice and feedback. This type of coaching is congruent with most coaching definitions found in the literature.
2. Intensive coaching, or coaching that is designed for more complex problems and issues. This kind of coaching typically involves issues that would require a therapeutic or counseling approach for the intervention to be successful.
3. Executive coaching, described as a consultative relationship, which is provided by a seasoned consultant specifically for the purpose of advising. Although this type of coaching is described as an intervention used to help clients meet both organizational and personal goals, the process can be characterized more by consulting than coaching, blurring the distinction between the two.

Internal Versus External Coaching

Tyler (2000) reported that historically coaches were hired external to the organization, but due to the need for more rapid change within organizations, developing existing internal resources to meet coaching needs is becoming more popular. Despite the trend toward internal coaching, 100% of the executives surveyed by Wasylyshn (2003) indicated a preference for external coaches, citing trust and confidentiality as reasons for their preference.

A media survey conducted by Garman et al. (2000), found that 56% of the articles reviewed could be described as having a focus on external versus internal coaching. Although statistics on the exact prevalence of internal coaching is unknown, Frisch (2001) formally recognized the growing role of the internal coach and described the typical internal coach as a human resource generalist or manager who coaches co-workers and colleagues part-time. This is in addition to their other responsibilities toward organizational goals using developmental planning in a collaborative process.

Frisch (2001) differentiated internal coaching from similar workplace activities such as advice received from consultants, trainers, team builders, and human resource generalists who direct and control a developmental process according to their expertise in a specific content area. Kilburg (1996) reported that the majority of literature on external versus internal coaching is directed at persuading executives and managers to, in an effort to empower subordinates and increase organizational performance by solving system shared problems, add coaching to their role.

Schnell's (2005) case study highlighted several advantages of internal coaching. The primary advantage is the ability to bring expert knowledge about policy and

procedures concerning the organization to the coaching process. Internal coaching also provides an opportunity for expanding the client's resource base with a larger number of contacts and alternative sources of information upon which to make decisions.

According to Schnell (2005), broader organizational goals can be better understood due to the shared nature of the experience. Administratively, internal coaching is facilitated by the ease of making contact more frequently through meetings and chance encounters. The major disadvantage seen by Schnell (2005) is the challenge that internal coaching presents in maintaining confidentiality. Another disadvantage of internal coaching arises when the coach becomes relied upon too heavily due to a greater amount of knowledge or expertise, and the coaching relationship loses the quality of being a supportive partnership.

For some corporations or organizations, the need to have both external and internal coaching may arise. When coaching leaders through cultural change, an external coach may be able to provide a valuably objective view. When inclusion and diversity issues need to be addressed, both external and internal perspectives are essential (Katz & Miller, 1996).

According to Witherspoon and White (1996a), more executives are seeking external coaches as they prepare to become leading contenders for CEO positions with American companies. In a study that explored the pros and cons of external and internal coaches, 100% of the respondents agreed with the following positive aspects of external coaching: objectivity, confidentiality, breadth of experience, psychological expertise, no "political agenda," trust, and integrity (Wasylyshyn, 2003). A large majority cited lack of

objectivity, conflict of interest, confidentiality concerns and lack of trust as hindrances to internal coaching.

Life Coaching

Although the primary use of non-sports coaching has been done in the professional arena, specifically with executives, personal coaching or life coaching is becoming more popular and sought after. Kiel et al. (1996) cautioned that a common assumption which hinders leadership development is that individuals who reach the executive level no longer need personal development. Although executive coaching focuses primarily on professional goals (Saporito, 1996) and is agenda-based, some authors (Witherspoon & White, 1996a; Kilburg, 1999; and Laske, 1999a) advocated for ontonic developmental models because of the link between personal and professional growth. Diedrich (1996) concurred that it is important to meet an individual's personal developmental needs in the coaching process. Independent of an executive's agenda, Belf (1995) advocated coaching for life purpose by incorporating an individual's beliefs, values and spiritual considerations into the process of setting personal and professional goals.

Peer-reviewed research literature specific for life coaching is scarce (Creane, 2003; Grant, 2002, 2003, 2004; Jonsson, 2003; Wilkins, 2000), yet several books on life coaching by Flaherty (1999), Whitmore (1996), and Whitworth, Kimsey-House and Sandahl (1998), appear in reference lists used by authors of “The Proceedings of the First ICF Coaching Research Symposium.”

The most comprehensive peer-reviewed research done to date on life coaching uses the Transtheoretical Model of Change (TTM) for performance enhancement (Grant,

2002). In this study Grant assessed the impact of coaching on metacognition, mental health and goal attainment. Grant's (2002) study concluded that solution-focused cognitive-behavioral (SF/CB) coaching appears to help clients move from a self-reflective stage of self-regulation to action and insight. Participants in the study who previously failed at goal attainment not only demonstrated increased goal attainment but also experienced enhanced mental health and quality of life.

Creane (2003) interviewed eight adults in an exploratory study of personal coaching. All clients were in long term coaching relationships with coaches trained in life coaching from CTI. Coaching, as described by clients participating in the study, is a powerful client-centered relationship that helps clients identify what they want while keeping the focus on the present and the future rather than the past. Participants responded that coaching helped promote self-discovery, accountability, recognition of internal barriers and flexibility in perceiving situations differently. Similarly, Jonsson's (2003) approach to life coaching offers clients advice on replacing self-defeating negative thoughts with positive problem solving strategies.

Wheeler's (2004) research study using individuals with traumatic brain injury (TBI) assessed the Life Coach Model of rehabilitation. The use of life coaching resulted in increased community integration, yet no differences were found on life satisfaction scores. Although the population used was a non-clinical based population, the study is significant in that cognitive and behavioral aspects of performance were targeted for observation, intervention treatment and assessment related to personal fulfillment.

Despite the lack of peer-reviewed research studies on life coaching used to direct and educate professionals on empirically sound principles in life coaching practice, a

comprehensive business plan template designed specifically for life coaching can be found in the literature. The business plan creation tool (Rogers, 2004) was extensively researched for its efficacy and effect. The most common benefit reported by users who participated in the study was that it was specifically designed for life coaching with an emphasis on personal rather than business related development. Wilkins's (2000) grounded theory study of personal coaching found further distinctions between coaching and business mentoring. The study revealed that, unlike mentors, coaches did not give expert advice to clients; instead, a facilitative experiential approach was used to encourage learning.

Gargiulo (2004) focused on the need to look forward and not backward in life, trusting in those who guide us. Both therapist and coach must bring to their work a sincere desire to guide an individual until they can guide themselves, bringing the individual through a series of developmental learning stages. Gargiulo metaphorically related overcoming life's difficulties with the process of learning how to navigate a motorcycle through potholes and bends in the road with the help of a coach. "Life coaching," as described by Williams and Davis (2002), is a powerful human relationship that focuses on the future (similar to the relationship Gargiulo describes with his motorcycle coach metaphor).

Strenger (2004) added that the difficulties of looking forward often impede our progress and that not just practice with a coach is needed for learning how to navigate potholes; depth of vision and achievement of harmony are also essential. For Strenger, his deep sense of trust and respect for his motorcycle coach was what made it possible for him to negotiate terrain he otherwise might not have been able to so freely with a sense of

confidence. Similarly, Williams and Davis (2002) described the coach/client relationship in life coaching as deep, meaningful and built on trust. The authors added that some coach-client relationships can even be described as “soulful.”

Coach-Client Relationship

The client coach relationship has been described as a one-on-one relationship (Garman et al., 2000; Peterson, 1996; Schnell, 2005; Sherin & Caiger, 2004; Stern, 2004; Wasylyshyn, 2003, 2005; Winum, 1999; Witherspoon & White, 1996a) which is entered into with mutual agreement (Schein, 1969). Like others, Sperry (1993) noted that the relationship is one-on-one, but adds that within an organizational setting it may take place in a variety of contexts such as during team building meetings (or as Greene, 2003, suggested, within a network of individuals formed to support one another).

When using a systems approach within an organization, the one-on-one nature of the coaching relationship must be tailored to include the needs of the organization as a whole. Kiel et al. (1996) stated that although the individual is the primary client, the organization is also the client and its needs must be addressed within the development plan. To fully develop the coach/client relationship, referred power must be given by the organization, typically in the form of a boss who explicitly supports the coaching process and the goals decided upon. Wasylyshn (2003) described systems coaching as a collaborative process and used the term “internal collaborators” in reference to human resource professionals and others (such as bosses) who can provide valuable feedback to both the client and the coach.

Trust is essential in the coach/client relationship (Blattner, 2005; Frisch, 2001; Lowman, 2005; Wasylyshyn, 2003, 2005), and Kiel et al. (1996) added that coaches must

really get to know their clients both professionally and personally through extensive data collection. Sperry (1997) advocated using a battery of psychological tests for personality assessment. Other data collection methods include the use of Witherspoon and White's (1996a) degree feedback tools (Diedrich, 1996; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Peterson & Hicks, 1995; Richard, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2005), qualitative interviews (Brotman et al., 1998; Tobias, 1996), and individual trademarked assessment tools (Blattner, 2005; Dawdy, 2004; Saporito, 1996). However, Garman et al.'s (2000) media survey revealed that the typical article on executive coaching did not identify any particular skill essential to an effective practice, and viewed the mention of assessment tools as primarily promotional in nature.

Respondents in Hart et al.'s (2001) survey reported that the relationship between coach and client is collaborative in nature, and although the coach is not in charge and does not direct the process, coaches serve as a guiding force in co-creating the client's goals. From a historical perspective, Frisch (2001) noted that human resource generalists have always considered coaching as part on their job, but the coaching relationship was more transactional and less formal in nature.

Independent of the approach (cognitive, behavioral, psychodynamic, constructive, or developmental) utilized when coaching, Laske (1999a) viewed the quality of the working alliance between coach and client as ultimately more important. Kilburg (2001) regarded a meaningful and effective therapeutic alliance as the single most important factor contributing to a positive outcome in any helping intervention. Goodstone and Diamante (1998) also placed emphasis on the importance of creating a strong alliance for managing change, noting that the quality of the therapeutic alliance is

a major factor in producing positive results when facilitating behavioral change (more so than feedback, reduction of incongruity or increased self awareness). The authors also specified that unconditional positive regard and empathy are characteristics critical to establishing a successful coach/client relationship. Levinson (1996) begins the relationship by asking the client to talk about their self in any way that would foster the greatest amount of understanding as to who they are as a person and what challenges they face.

Sperry (1993) described the consultant and counseling client bond as friendly without it being a friendship, and noted that the coaching relationship need not be as close and personal as a therapeutic relationship because the client is not engaged in deep self-disclosure. Due to the informality of the coaching relationship, it is important that clear boundaries be maintained between social and professional roles. Kiel et al. (1996) suggested that social invitations be declined, although meetings with the client at his or her home or off site location such as a hotel are appropriate if the tone is kept professional rather than social. Kilburg (1997) noted that the relationship needs to be predictable and reliable for the client. All administrative issues such as fees, confidentiality, cancellations, places and times for meetings, information exchange, and technical responsibilities on the part of the client or coach should be agreed upon and made clear in a formal working agreement.

Bugas and Silberschatz (2000) examined coaching behaviors of patients in a therapeutic relationship and found that patients actively engaged in prompting, instructing and educating their therapist. These prompting behaviors served to guide the therapist in assisting them more effectively. The observation of this phenomenon

occurring between coach and client is absent in coaching literature; however, Levinson (1996) stated that the coachee is dependent on the coach for advice, guidance, insight and information, yet did not add that the coachee actively helps the coach in doing so, even though this can be assumed due to the cooperative nature of the coaching partnership.

In education a similar process occurs when teachers help students devise learning strategies that are unique to their learning style. Hamman et al. (2000) found that caring, competent and qualified teachers who provide instruction aimed at helping students learn how to learn by providing learning strategies are more effective in the classroom.

Coach Characteristics, Skills and Responsibilities

Kilburg (1997) the qualities a coach must have for a successful coaching outcome, which include being respectful, considerate, predictable, courteous, empathetic, friendly, tactful, non-defensive, knowledgeable, and skillful. At times the coach may need to be tender and nurturing or even playful when challenging a client to grow, explore, or be curious. Ultimately the coach is responsible for engaging the client in full participation of the coaching process. The coach is also responsible for providing knowledge, skills, and technical assistance for the client's professional and personal growth. Coaches must be competent in facilitating the client's attention to stay on task. Since both coach and client are continually reflecting on and exploring performance issues, Kilburg (1997) added that coaches must be competent, appropriate and effective with their use of coaching skills.

Katz and Miller (1996) added that coaches must be careful, gentle and honest, and Diedrich (1996) added that practicality is an additional important quality. Other attributes include flexibility and creativity (Kiel et al., 1996), good rapport building,

communication, organization, problem-solving, and assessment skills (MODOONO, 2002), approachability, comfort around top management, compassion, customer focus, integrity, intellectual horsepower, interpersonal and political savvy, attentive and active listening skills, adaptability to the situation, and self knowledge (Brotman et al., 1998).

Wasylyshyn's (2003) outcome study reported that the ability to form a strong coaching alliance, professionalism and the use of a well defined coaching method were considered the top three coach characteristics deemed important by executives participating in a survey to assess client reactions to coaching. Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester's (1994) investigation of coaching skills found that defining clear performance goals, providing regular and pertinent feedback, and building a warm coach-client relationship are important.

Coaching responsibilities include providing feedback (Kampa-Kosesch & Anderson, 2001), forging a partnership, inspiring commitment, facilitating the growth of new skills, promoting persistence toward goals and encouraging the client to make maximum use of environmental support (Peterson, 1996). Witherspoon and White (1996a) identified the coach's role as one of helping executives learn, grow and change. This involves coaching for skills and developing performance while keeping the focus on the executive's agenda (Witherspoon & White, 1996a).

Coaching Models

A review of the literature reveals that many different executive coaching models emerged in 1996, during the period that Grant (2004) referred to as the third trend in peer-reviewed journal reporting. This period is also considered as more rigorously academic in character. The models introduced during this time vary in theoretical

application, approach, perspective and context. Many of the case studies during this period were examples of a team approach. Coaching used external consultants to coordinate the client's goal setting while ensuring that the needs and expectations of the organization were met. Upon examination of the models described herein, several important themes surface. Skill-based competencies and components important to the attainment of satisfactory results begin to emerge.

Team Approach Models

One of the earliest models presented was a systems-oriented, team-based approach described by Kiel et al. (1996) consisting of three distinct phases. The case study presented involved external consultants that facilitated and engineered the teamwork process. The first phase involves fact gathering. Both personal and professional information about the client's history is collected and psychological testing takes place. Additional information about the client and the client's role within the system is gathered from colleagues and significant people in the client's personal life. The second phase happens over a 2-3 day period and is commonly referred to as the "insight session" in which planning and consolidation of information take place between the coach (e.g., consultant), the client, and a consulting team. This is when performance goals are targeted and individual action steps are defined to reach those goals. Phase three is implementation and development—the action stage of the process which may take up to two years or more. During this stage coaching, counseling, support, and feedback continue as the client works toward the agreed upon development goals. Periodic six-month status check-ins are made by the consulting team to assess progress and assist in redefinition of goals if needed.

Another early model of coaching found in the literature which utilized external consultants and a team approach is presented by Saporito (1996). This model consists of four stages. The first stage is setting the foundation. This phase consists of defining the context of the process by identifying organizational imperatives, action steps the client must take to successfully complete the expectations of the company, and the behavioral requirements needed to do so. The second phase consists of assessing the client's strengths and weaknesses using a 360-degree feedback tool. The third phase is developmental planning in which leadership skills are fostered through feedback given by both the coach and the client's boss. It is this phase in which the client is able to gain greater insight concerning the developmental issues that need to be addressed. The last phase is implementation of the development plan by continued coaching support and feedback. This is the action phase of the process resulting in client growth and advancement.

Tobias's model of coaching (1996) also consists of four stages and utilizes managerial feedback and support coordinated by an external coach. This is a systems based, context oriented approach. The first step of this model is an initial meeting with the client to identify challenges, design a preliminary plan of action to meet the challenges, and discuss the limits of confidentiality in regards to the organization and the client's superiors. The second session is the start of psychological testing and 360-degree feedback to identify personality characteristics, behavioral capabilities and emotional maturity. Tobias (1996) emphasized that it is important in this phase of the coaching process to focus on clients' strengths as opposed to weaknesses. This helps reduce client resistance, allowing the client to discuss legitimate shortcomings non-defensively. The

third phase of the process is follow-up meetings with both the client and management for the purpose of feedback. The final phase is continued coaching support with emphasis on identifying additional resources and interventions which will support the client's progress.

Peterson (1996) also described a team approach model to external coaching in the case study described. The team consisted of an employee, an external coach (consultant), and several colleagues who provided feedback using a 360-degree feedback tool. The case study presented was an example of what Peterson (1996) referred to as “targeted” coaching which is a focused, practical, skills-based approach to performance improvement as opposed to intensive coaching for those who face major work challenges or executive coaching for improving leadership abilities. The model concentrates on relationship advancement, competency building, and insight generation.

Rather than outlining the coaching process in steps or phases, Peterson (1996) listed five essential strategies important to a successful helping intervention. The first strategy is the formation of a partnership in which building and maintaining rapport is crucial. The second strategy is to inspire commitment by fostering insight and motivation through feedback. The third strategy is to support skill development specific to the client's needs for goal achievement by promoting active experimentation and consistent practices. The fourth strategy is to promote persistence by helping the client find opportunities that will allow them to practice the new skills they have learned. Peterson (1996) also cautioned that to help clients become persistent the coach must counsel the client to manage the mundane aspects of their projects, identifying and breaking old habits that have thwarted previous attempts to be more productive and satisfied. An additional warning that Peterson believed to be beneficial in promoting persistence

toward goal attainment is fighting the fear of failure. The fifth and final strategy is to shape the client's environment by encouraging the client to seek organizational sponsors and role models within the company that will provide feedback and support for continued growth.

Kilburg's (1996) earliest work presented a multi-dimensional systems approach to coaching that incorporates five components. The first component is the development of an intervention agreement. During this phase goals, confidentiality, and the process in general are discussed and agreed upon. It is also at this point that a commitment is made in terms of time and resources. The next step is forming a strong coach/client relationship in which transferences are identified and managed. The third phase continues with creating and managing expectations of the coaching process. The fourth phase is the facilitation of behavioral and cognitive skills necessary to master the problems that arise during the course of goal attainment. Kilburg (1996) discussed many coaching skills needed to facilitate this phase, such as disclosure, confrontation, problem solving, communication skills, flexibility, curiosity, humor, and creativity. The final component of this model is continued evaluation and assessment of client progress.

Kralj (2001) provided a case study demonstrating a blend of individual and team based strategies to promote self-learning. By fostering individual self-correcting behaviors, Kralj (2001) demonstrated how the process of coaching can successfully result in self-initiated change, thereby diminishing the need for coaching support as the client progresses and the organizational goals are reached through group effort. The model has four distinct system level phases with individual coaching added when needed. The first phase is the design phase in which organizational goals are chosen for the next three

years. Participants included the chief executive officer (CEO), those who report directly to the CEO, and an assortment of hand picked individuals significant to the operation of the organization. The second phase was selection of an executive team for key leadership positions, using assessment tools specific for the skills and abilities required for the new team members appointed to carry out the three-year plan. The third phase was team development augmented by a 2 ½ day off site retreat which included team-building exercises, surveys and feedback bolstered by individual one-on-one coaching sessions. The last component to Kralj's (2001) model involved implementation of a 360-degree appraisal system in conjunction with routine strategy review and goal setting procedures.

Leadership Development Models

Executive coaching is often associated with the development of leadership skills (Brotman et al., 1998; Katz & Miller, 1996; Kiel et al., 1996; Kilburg, 1996b; Palus, Horth, Selvin, & Pulley, 2003; Witherspoon & White, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003). Katz and Miller (1996) presented a skill-based external model of coaching specifically for use in coaching leadership skills that will promote a culture change within an organization for the purpose of diversity inclusion. The first component of this model is to establish a firm foundation of rapport between senior executives and the external consulting group. According to Katz and Miller (1996), building strong rapport based on trust creates a safe environment in which learning can occur. Coaches are then able to model skills necessary for transitioning from an exclusive to an inclusive multidimensional organization, with a diverse work force that is able to embrace a wide range of perspectives. The process is carried out with an emphasis on partnership, assisting, guiding, coaching, and inspiring leaders to share power, responsibility, and authority. During this phase executives are

often given the opportunity to practice these new skills with a coach before using them in the workplace.

Palus et al. (2003) offered a model of coaching specifically designed to advance leadership skills called Exploration for Development (ED) in which sense-making or relational competencies are fostered. These include personalizing, imaging, serious play, co-inquiry, and crafting. Using a developmental curriculum that includes feedback from the coach, clients are guided in the learning process of navigating complex challenges faced by organizations. Enabling a client to take effective action and adapt to changes is accomplished through assisting the client in developing insights and new perspectives through exploration, improvisation, experimentation, limit testing, levity, and sport. An emphasis is placed on co-inquiry and synthesis of information and events.

According to Day (2000), leadership development models must distinguish between leader development and leadership development that necessitates definition of a conceptual context. For leadership development models to be successful they must incorporate development of human potential while making a social impact. Leader development focuses on impacting change within the organization. In addition to executive coaching, areas such as mentoring, feedback, networking, job assignments, and action learning are used in leadership development models. Traynor (2000) added that in addition to coaching, executives may need development training, mentoring and therapy to attain leadership competency.

Human Development Models

Laske's (1999a) model drafted a comprehensive structure for coaching that embraces a multitude of organizational and individual development principles. In this

model Laske (1999a) defined two types of coaching—first and second order coaching. In first-order coaching the coach assumes a political or structural perspective to facilitate their client's development in an executive role. In second order coaching the coach must model a more global perspective for the purpose of fostering leadership skills that require discerning multiple perspectives on organizational issues. The model is characterized by a life span developmental approach utilizing cognitive, behavioral, psychodynamic, and constructive developmental theories.

Laske (1999a) described the model as ontological because it is based on developmental principles that underlie the dynamic process of human growth and change. Laske defended the efficacy of using stage theories of development in executive coaching by stating that, "executive coaching is, after all, adult development in the workplace" (p.141). Laske (1999a) also cited Kegan's (1982) constructive-development theory to support the importance of utilizing a coaching model that encompasses both cognitive and affective approaches for professional development. Of the 21 ontic-developmental positions that Kegan (1982) presented, Laske (1999a) noted that 11 can be applied to professional growth. According to Astorino (2002) a full understanding of adult development theory and research makes Laske's (1999a) model grounded in applied psychological sciences.

Central to the success of utilizing Laske's (1999a) developmental approach is the element of fostering the skills necessary to cope with organizational change. Reframing or examining a situation from a different perspective is a second-order coaching (coaching aimed at changes that originate in the self) tool that Laske (1999a) reported was useful in promoting executive development on an organizational plane. Based on

Lewin's (1935) concept of re-education and principles of pedagogical psychology, Laske's (1999a) ontological approach purported that executives cultivating organizational skills not only need to learn new things, but often have to “un-learn the old.” Re-education, according to Lewin (1935), necessitates a change in cognitive structure by viewing our physical and social worlds differently. This in turn requires modification of beliefs, values, and behavioral patterns. In order to facilitate the process of re-education, Laske (1999a) recommended that the coach stay on a meta-level of awareness in relation to the client, who is enmeshed in his own subjectivity of the situation or event. Laske's (1999a) utilization of reframing techniques based on the work of Lewin (1935) provides clients with strategies to overcome or reduce the limiting effects of subjectivity when coping with the challenges of a changing organizational environment.

Quick and Macik-Frey (2004) offered a developmental model of coaching which uses an interpersonal approach grounded in the process of fostering self awareness and introspection of deep interpersonal communication. The model is two-tiered with the outer tier addressing organizational communication skills that are needed for the role of executive. The inner tier consists of developing interpersonal communication skills which are more intimate in character and, according to the authors, serve to bolster emotional competence, although no statistical results were provided to support this claim. The authors believe that coaching clients using this technique produces therapeutic results for both the individual and the organization. The executive benefits by gaining a greater sense of personal integrity that can, in turn, serve to impact the organizational environment in healthy, positive ways.

The Witherspoon and White (1996a) model of coaching can be seen as a developmental model that places emphasis on action learning. The development of new skills, increased levels of performance, preparation for advancement and the development of an executive agenda for major organizational change are aspects of this four-step model. The first step is forging a commitment by developing a contract for coaching through a series of meetings, which may include the executive's boss or a representative from human resources. Confidentiality concerns are addressed in this step. The next step is an assessment phase in which the problem is defined and goals are set to reach a solution. The third step is an action step in which the coach facilitates the executive in gaining confidence, competence and commitment to goal attainment. The final step is a continuance of improvement and monitoring of progress toward goal achievement. It is in this step that sustained behavioral change is fostered.

Integrative Model

Orenstein (2000) presented an integrative model for executive coaching that consists of eight steps based on the premise that the unconscious plays a major role in both group and individual behaviors. This model is inclusive of the individual's needs, the organizational needs, and dynamics that affect the interaction of both, with particular emphasis placed on the coach facilitating the “use of self” for executive performance within the organization. The eight steps of the model include the initial contact, the preliminary meeting, joint goal setting, contract approval, formal assessment, feedback, coaching, and termination.

Compliance Model

Kilburg's (2001) later work, subsequent to the development of a systems approach to coaching, focused on dealing with resistance, a major issue affecting successful outcomes in coaching. The case study presented introduces a compliance model of coaching that addresses protocol and compliance issues by identifying eight essential components for a successful intervention. The first two are commitment to a course of progressive development by both the coach and client; the third component is an understanding of the client's problems and issues; the fourth is a structured working relationship, which Kilburg (2001) referred to as “coaching containment”; aspects of the client-coach relationship is the fifth; sixth is the quality of the coaching intervention and the correct use of coaching tools; seventh is an adherence protocol in which long term goals are carefully monitored and resistance to barriers are dealt with appropriately; and the seventh and final component is that the organizational setting of both the client and the coach must be assessed for ample time and resources to maximize outcomes.

Summary of Models

Despite the variety of coaching models presented in the literature, all share common themes relative to the process. All begin with establishing a relationship or partnership that is built on trust, honest communication, and confidentiality. The second phase common to all models is the definition and agreement of client goals, with or without an official contract stating the agreed upon expectations. It is during this phase that emphasis is placed on the client's agenda in relation to their personal and professional development, although organizational concerns are often added to the official agreement or contract. Once goals have been clearly defined, all models imply a

phase in which insight development and/or action learning occurs as the result of feedback given directly by the coach or others involved with the process. In general, most models strive to foster accountability and commitment toward self-initiated change and continued growth.

Rudimentary Research

Similar to all new fields of study, coaching draws from many existing bodies of knowledge. Psychology—especially its branch of organizational development—has been a theoretical base upon which many coaching strategies, concepts, techniques, methods, tools, and models have been drawn. Additional fields of study have provided valuable information pertinent to facilitating behavioral change. Research in medicine, sports, and education has produced a tremendous wealth of empirical, peer-reviewed studies which contain facts and data useful for the development of a science-practitioner model of coaching. Such a model is built on sound research methodologies as opposed to proprietary models.

In sports and education, variables that are theorized to enhance performance have been studied; in medicine, variables that are believed to influence compliance and adherence to beneficial health care protocols have been researched. Within this diverse body of literature can be found a multitude of empirical evidence based models that share similar characteristics with personal and professional coaching models that are less well researched.

Medicine

Prochaska, DiClemente, and Norcross (1992) presented a five-stage medical model for behavioral change that incorporates many intervention strategies similar to those used in coaching. Their extensive research in the field of addiction (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1982, 1983, 1984; Prochaska, DiClemente, Velicer, Ginpil, & Norcross, 1985; Prochaska & Norcross, 1983; Prochaska, Norcross, Fowler, Follick, & Abrams, 1992; Prochaska, Velicer, DiClemente, & Fava, 1988) indicated that behavioral change, whether self-initiated or professionally facilitated, follows a progression of pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance, often recycling through each stage before the change is sustained.

Many case studies in the coaching literature followed Prochaska et al.'s (1992) five stage model of behavioral change. One such example is Blattner's (2005) case study of an executive who was experiencing tension and anxiety in his current position and was considering pursuing a career change. Seeking a coach to discuss this is consistent with the pre-contemplation phase of Prochaska et al.'s (1992) model. The next event in Blattner's case study was an assessment of the client's strengths and weaknesses and a thorough discussion of the situation. The client was asked to answer the following questions:

1. What brings you to coaching?
2. What do you want?
3. What are your three-month, six-month and twelve-month goals?
4. What skills do you need to work on?

This phase of Blattner's (2005) work with the client can be compared to the contemplation or second stage of Prochaska et al.'s (1992) model. The client was coached toward thinking about the problem and what behaviors were needed to reduce anxiety and tension.

The next two stages in Prochaska et al.'s (1992) model, preparation and action, can be seen in Blattner's (2005) case study as the coach works with the client on developing new skills, implementing new behaviors, and taking the actions necessary for goal attainment. The maintenance stage of Prochaska et al.'s (1992) model was shown in Blattner's (2005) continued work with the client on maintaining the behaviors that resulted in success and reduced anxiety and tension.

Intervention strategies used by Prochaska, DiClemente and Norcross (1992) to facilitate behavioral change include:

1. consciousness raising
2. self-reevaluation
3. self-liberation
4. counter-conditioning
5. stimulus control
6. reinforcement management
7. dramatic relief
8. environmental reevaluation
9. social liberation
10. helping relationships

Each strategy is related to the following coaching strategies, respectively:

1. promoting insight (Kiel et al., 1996; Laske, 1999a; Levinson, 1996; Maurer et al., 1998; Peterson, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Sauer, 1999)
2. self-evaluation (Feltz et al., 1999; Kiel et al., 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Smith & Smoll, 1990; Tobias, 1996)
3. making a commitment to act (Kilburg, 1996, 2001)
4. substitution of an alternative behavior for non-productive behaviors (Kilburg, 1996; Peterson, 1996)
5. identifying and avoiding situations that produce non-productive behaviors (Kralj, 2001)
6. using rewards for goal attainment (Anderson, Crowell, Doman, & Howard, 1988; Feltz et al., 1999)
7. role-playing (Maurer et al., 1998)
8. exploration of the problem from different perspectives (Katz & Miller, 1996; Palus et al., 2003)
9. self-advocacy (Peterson, 1996)
10. seeking therapeutic alliances (Kiel et al., 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Levinson, 1996; Richard, 1999; Tobias, 1996).

With the exception of Kilburg's (2001) compliance model, research is lacking on adherence and compliance behaviors in coaching interventions, but much can be found in medical literature regarding adherence to and compliance with programs designed to promote healthy behavioral change. Leventhal and Cameron (1987) have summarized compliance and adherence research into five major categories representative of the various models presented. The categories are: biomedical, educational, operant

behavioral, self-regulatory, and belief based models, each of which shares suggestions used in promoting adherence and compliance toward goal directed behaviors in coaching. Two additional research topics found in medical models of behavioral change, that lack research in the body of coaching literature yet are pertinent to coaching, are behavioral relapse (Irvin, Bowers, Dunn, & Wang, 1999) and achievement goal theory (Standage et al., 2003).

Sports

Kilburg's (1996) literature review of coaching revealed that the field of athletic coaching has been researched extensively, yet research on the application of athletic coaching techniques and variables have not been duplicated in personal and professional coaching research. Despite the lack of duplicative research, many dimensions of athletic coaching are incorporated in personal and professional coaching.

Miller, Ogilvie, and Adams (2000) found that careful assessment of an athlete's personality, learning, and competitive profiles provided information beneficial to the coaching process. Personality traits evaluated were loss of control, maturity of judgment, and emotional stability. Teachability, optimal learning conditions, and visual, kinesthetic, and auditory preferences were evaluated for the learning profile. The competitive profile examined the athlete's determination, concentration, poise, and mental toughness. Miller et al. (2000) concluded that insight is needed in all three areas for coaches to understand the needs of their athletes and determine strategies that will enhance performance.

Similar assessments were made in many of the non-athletic coaching case studies reviewed, however many of the assessment tools used were proprietary materials and not universally accepted, empirical, peer-reviewed psychological tests. Blattner (2005) used

DISC, an assessment tool he described as analyzing “behavioral style,” a term not used within psychological literature and absent from "The Dictionary of Psychology" (Corsini, 2001). In collecting information on goals, abilities, perceptions and organizational standards (GAPS) for the coaching process, Peterson (1996) cited a variety of means as diverse as personal reflection, career interest instruments, professional assessment, and perceptions from peers, bosses, clients, customers, and friends, none of which were documented as researched protocols for collecting information.

No studies could be found in the coaching literature that evaluated the efficacy of any coaching intake method, unlike other disciplines which are rich with studies analyzing various aspects of the intake such as client language (Amrhein, Miller, Yahne, Palmer, & Fulcher, 2003), client receptivity to the intake procedure (Hahn & Marks, 1996), individual aspects of a systemic intake procedure (Sommers-Flanagan & Sommers-Flanagan, 1995), and predictors of non-attendance at intake appointments (Akutsu, Tsuru, & Chu, 2004).

Self-esteem, an aspect of personality that affects performance, has also been researched by sports psychologists, and factors that affect global self esteem have attracted the attention of theorists from the early beginnings of psychology (James, 1950). Rogers (1961, 1980, 1989) regarded self concept as an important aspect of personality that influences behavior. Smoll, Smith, Barnett, and Everett (1993) studied the effects of coaching support for the enhancement of player self-esteem in a self-enhancement model of coaching sports. It was concluded that coaches trained to exhibit behaviors that enhanced self-esteem were regarded more positively by the players they coached. Players also had more fun and exhibited a higher level of interaction with other team members.

Similar results were observed with technical instruction and competency development. Athletes responded best to coaches who provided positive reinforcement (Smith & Smoll, 1990).

Feltz et al. (1999) emphasized the teaching aspect of sport coaching models by recognizing that athletic coaches provide instruction, oversee the practice of skills, and give feedback when coaching. The authors also agree that coaches must also believe they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their athletes. Leadership development, an aspect of executive coaching that is given much attention in the literature (Day, 2000), is also an important aspect of athletic coaching models that receives much attention (Chelladurai, 1990; Chelladurai, & Saleh, 1980; Spink, 1998).

Additional aspects of sports coaching that receive attention and are thematic within the personal and professional coaching models are self-confidence (George, 1994), psychological skills (Smith & Christensen, 1995; Howe, 1993), the effect of expectations on goals (Horn, 1984), performance enhancement (Petrie & Diehl, 1995), competition (Stanne, Johnson, & Johnson, 1999), individual and team efficacy (Feltz & Lirgg, 1998), coach effectiveness (Douge, 1993), and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Vallerand & Rousseau, 1984; Vallerand & Bissonnett, 1992).

Many variables exist in the coach-client relationship independent of the context in which coaching is done. Poczwardowski, Barott, and Henschen (2002) pointed out that the dynamics of the coaching relationship in sports is a multifaceted and interpersonal phenomenon. Kilburg (2001) reminded coaches that some of the coach/client relationship variables are within the power of the coach to control, yet others emerge as the result of coach/client interactions which are specific to the circumstances. In sports an athlete's

perception of their relationship with their coach and coach leadership are two important variables that influence team cohesion and performance (Jowett & Chaundy, 2004). Strong coach/athlete relationships also serve to enhance the athlete's self-efficacy (McCormick, 2002) and improve performance (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003). Although research is lacking on this specific aspect of the coach/client relationship in a systems approach to executive coaching, the leadership skills of a coach have been found to be of importance.

Education

Although research investigating the effects of coaching on an individual's self-efficacy is limited in the personal and professional coaching literature (Feltz et al., 1999), researchers in the field of education have provided a substantial base of knowledge about self-efficacy from which coaches can draw upon to enhance performance (Bandalos et al., 1995; Bong, 1997, 1998; Chemers et al., 2001; Pietsch et al., 2003; Sawyer et al., 1992). However, Dingman (2004) investigated the effects of executive coaching on self-efficacy and job-related attitudes, finding that the quality of the coaching relationship was related to higher self-efficacy in executives. The importance of believing in one's own capabilities to organize and execute a plan of action to reach one's goals was a prominent theme in Bandura's (1977) work, and continues to be studied extensively today on all [age] levels of academic achievement.

Goal setting strategies (Page-Voth & Graham, 1999), goal theory (Blumenfeld, 1992), achievement goals (Ames & Archer, 1988), goal orientation (Pintrich, 2000), outcome expectancies (Shell et al., 1995), self regulation and learning (Wolters, 2003), and collective efficacy (Goddard, 2001) are additional areas of research in education

which concern constructs found within the coaching process. Similar to the field of sport psychology, educational research has provided much knowledge about motivation. Educational research on motivational beliefs (Eaton & Dembo, 1997), the relationship between task value and motivation (Bong, 2001), the relationship between ability and motivation (Haydel & Roeser, 2002), and the effect of negative affect on motivation (Turner et al., 1998) provide pertinent and useful information upon which coaching models can be based.

Summary of Rudimentary Research

Many coaching strategies, tools, and techniques found in the literature are very similar to what is currently being used in medicine, sports, and education to facilitate behavioral change. An abundance of evidence already exists for the application and use of concepts critical to promoting sustained behavioral change, yet the field of coaching continues to use their own terminology and create more and more proprietary material. The majority of authors on coaching do not relate their studies to seminal works on motivation, goal theory, self-regulation, self-efficacy, conditioning, learning, and other aspects of the coaching process, and do not describe coaching using terms that behavioral change theorists use. Instead phrases like “dancing in the moment,” “bottom lining,” “clearing,” “intuiting,” and “intruding” (Whitworth et al., 1998) are used.

Theoretical Foundations

Like any new field of study and practice, coaching draws upon existing knowledge and theory. Present in the coaching literature are a wide variety of theoretical frameworks upon which aspects of the coaching process are based. Mention of theoretical

applications include psychodynamic theories (Glaser, 1958; Kilburg, 1995, 1996, 1997, 2000, 2001; Levinson, 1996; Rotenberg, 2000; Sperry, 1997; Tobias, 1996), cognitive behavioral theories (Anderson, 2002; Ducharme, 2004; Kodish, 2002; Olivero et al., 1997; Richard, 1999), Adlerian Individual Psychology or neoanalytic theories (Dunbar & Ehrlich, 1993; Page, 2003; Sperry, 1993), organizational theories (Scandura, 1992), developmental and ontological theories (Delgado, 1999; Laske, 1999a), humanistic theories and Reality Therapy (Glaser, 1958), and Choice Theory (Howatt, 2000). Kilburg's (1997) literature review of coaching has revealed a multitude of methods that vary widely, and he stated that it "seems almost impossible to differentiate executive coaching from other forms of consultation, training and organization development" (p. 138).

Some authors have based their model of coaching on a combination of theoretical foundations, such as Kiel et al. (1996), who blended humanistic, existential, behavioral, and psychodynamic approaches. In Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson's (2001) literature review of coaching, the authors noted that approximately half of the research articles on executive coaching were published in psychological literature and half in business-management literature, indicating a substantial reliance on psychological theories and organizational theories in the practice of coaching. Stein (2004) added that coaching draws from many more fields of knowledge such as communication studies, social systems theories, athletic motivation studies, education, leadership studies and the holistic and self-help movements.

Whiston and Sexton's (1993) review of the psychology-based literature indicated that no specific psychoanalytical theory has proven more effective than others in

facilitating change. This is supported by Smith and Glass's (1977) meta-analysis of a wide variety of therapeutic models which indicate that talk therapy in general results in positive change for the participants studied. Despite theoretical and systematic differences in many behavioral change therapies, Stiles, Shapiro, and Elliott's (1986) outcome research also showed little difference between effectiveness of methods.

Psychoanalytic

Kilburg (1997) explored common problems coaches face concerning the character of their clients and noted that unconscious psychological conflict can play a key role in both individual and organizational behaviors. Psychotherapy in addition to 360-degree feedback, psychological tests, family interviews, and behavioral observations can help clients gain greater self-awareness (Kilburg, 1997). Increasing self-awareness of unconscious conflicts can be accomplished by clients having increased access to their emotions, a better understanding of their family of origin, resolving trauma, and improving voluntary attention (Freud, 1953, 1960, 1973a, 1973b, 1995).

Kilburg (1996) related conscience (superego), rational self (ego), instinctual self (id) and ideal self (ego ideal) to conflict, emotion and defense mechanisms in the process of facilitating adaptive behaviors. Consistent with psychoanalytic perspectives, Kilburg (1995) found it useful to look at systems structure, systems content and systems process using several psychological perspectives. These are past, present and focal relationships, defense, conflict, cognition and emotion. Kilburg (1995) also drew from the work of Lazarus (1991) in assessing a client's expression and awareness of human emotion when coaching clients to adapt to new situations. Kilburg's (1997) psychoanalytic perspective to coaching assessed psychodynamic conflict by looking at the client's history and

relationships using psychological knowledge of structures and systems to resolve conflict and produce more productive and successful adaptive behaviors.

In his model of coaching effectiveness, Kilburg (2001) called attention to Freud's (1965) theory of progressive development and emphasized the importance of a strong commitment by both client and coach toward this path for the resolution of psychodynamic conflict. Freud (1966) ascertained that patients seeking help for their negative and adverse situations will often display a tenacious resistance toward those who seek to treat them. The presence of resistance accentuates the need for a strong commitment and mutual respect between coach and client. Self consistency theorists indicate that people with negative self concepts are unusually difficult to facilitate progressive development with as they engage in cognitive and behavioral activities that re-enforce their negative self views (Lecky, 1945), further calling attention to the need for a strong therapeutic alliance.

If indeed our cognitive responses conform to self-consistency theory as Swann, Griffin, Predmore, and Gaines (1987) suggested, it would be most beneficial for the coaching alliance to be built on a sound foundation of rapport, commitment, and communication as suggested by Kilburg (2001). Goodstone and Diamante (1998) supported this view and suggested that a strong and healthy coach/client relationship may contribute more towards facilitation of behavioral change than giving clients feedback. Levinson (1996) supported the importance of a healthy coach/client relationship and added that the coach must not be seen as a police officer in the coaching process, but as a supportive force to help clients overcome their difficulties and move forward. Although results of studies measuring the efficacy of self-enhancement models vary, most theorists

agree that feedback responses which contain an affective component serve to increase global esteem (Shrauger, 1975; Swann, 1985; Swann et al., 1987; Wylie, 1979).

As Kilburg (1995) pointed out, the evolution of psychodynamic theory has made it a very useful tool for a variety of interventions. Incorporated in Kilburg's (1995) model of effective coaching is Freud's (1966) mechanisms of psychological defense and adaptation. According to Kilburg (1995), an understanding of primitive, immature, mature, neurotic, and complex patterns of defenses and behaviors is useful in coaching executives to adapt to their organizational environment. Kilburg (1995) maintained that knowing how these psychological defenses work helps a coach be equipped to facilitate the client's progress of equilibration and mastery of their internal and external world.

Brotman et al. (1998) believe that most barriers to growth in a coaching intervention are primarily psychological, and that interventions used to help clients overcome these barriers must employ techniques based on psychological knowledge and expertise in the field. The authors defined sustained behavioral change as new behaviors that remain consistent during stressful, transitional situations. To overcome psychological barriers and sustain behavioral change, Brotman et al. (1998) maintained that the internalization of new psychological insights must occur.

Neo-analytic

Kilburg (1997) gave examples of client behaviors based on Horney's (1937, 1942) neurotic trends which can interfere with executive development and affect organizational progress. These are the need for affection, approval, power, social recognition, prestige, personal admiration, personal achievement, self-sufficiency, independence, perfection, partnering with someone who takes over your life, and the need to restrict one's life

within narrow borders. To overcome neurotic trends that thwart improvement of managerial and leadership skills, Kilburg (1997) suggested increasing client self-awareness through the use of self analysis techniques as defined by Horney (1942).

Many neo-analytic theorists emphasized the social dimension of healthy human functioning versus individualism (Adler, 1964; Frankel, 1965; Sullivan, 1953). Both counseling and coaching can be characterized as having an individualistic approach which presumably is preferred by clients and which recent studies indicate may negatively affect a client's social commitment (Heppner & Claiborn, 1989; Hogan, 1975; Kelly, 1989). This becomes relevant when considering the use of coaching in organizational development and whether or not to use a team approach. Kelly and Shilo (1991) studied coached clients who received an individualistic approach versus a social commitment emphasis and found no distinct client preference or difference in treatment adherence, suggesting that one-on-one coaching versus utilization of a team approach does not significantly alter results.

Biological

Principles of information processing described by Freud (1995) and Pavlov (1927) were used by Foster and Lendl (1996) to support the process of eye movement desensitization and reprocessing (EMDR) that was used in executive coaching to restore employee performance after setbacks. The client is verbally coached and directed through a series of eye movement exercises. It is hypothesized that mental processing is accelerated neuro-physiologically, and clients are able to shift their negative view to a more positive view subsequent to desensitization of the upsetting event. Although standard psychoanalytic techniques were not used, performance anxiety and symptoms of

post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) were alleviated with this procedure. It is suggested that EMDR facilitates information processing through a dual focus on past events and present stimuli. Another possible explanation for how EMDR might set in motion rapid processing is desensitization by reciprocal inhibition (Wolpe, 1982), or a comfortable response paired with a traumatic stimulus.

Research on implementation intentions (Gollwitzer, 1990; Gollwitzer & Oettingen, 1998) and goal attainment has recognized the necessity to take into account the neurophysical aspect of cognition and conscious control of behavior. Brain research (Cockburn, 1995; Craighero, Fadiga, Umiltà, & Rizzolatti, 1996) on executive functioning has shown that injury to the frontal lobe affects conscious control of behavior, yet automatic stimulus response patterns remain unaffected. Kimberg and Farah (1993) demonstrated that individuals whose conscious control of action was impaired due to frontal lobe damage benefited from forming strong implementation intentions (i.e. when X happens, I will automatically respond fast with rigor), indicating that implementation intentions may produce automatic responses. Molfenter (2004) found that talk of change in a coaching intervention builds behavioral intent and has a positive effect on behavioral change.

Cognitive Behavioral

Some coaching models draw heavily on cognitive-behavioral frameworks as described by Bandura (1986) for performance enhancement. Smoll et al. (1993) suggested using reinforcement, mistake-contingent encouragement, corrective instruction, clear expectations, technical instruction, and setting a good example as effective strategies for successful coaching. Incorporating these principles into Coach

Effectiveness Training (CET), Smoll et al. (1993) developed coaching guidelines based on techniques using social influence. Positive control rather than punitive measures are used. Another principle used in CET is a personal concept of success that defines winning as putting forth maximum effort.

Feltz et al. (1999) suggested that coaching efficacy consists of four dimensions: game strategy, motivation, teaching technique, and character building. Coaching efficacy, defined by Feltz et al. (1999), is the "extent to which coaches believe they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their athletes" (p. 765). According to Bandura (1977), sources of efficacy come from previous personal mastery attained through experience, education/preparation and prior success. Bandura's (1977) theory postulated that psychological interventions alter self-efficacy, which in turn may affect the way an individual copes. Persistence is also believed to strengthen self-efficacy.

Client self-efficacy is another variable in the coaching process that could conceivably be influenced by an experienced coach. The perception of competency during stressful or challenging situations is bolstered by past experiences of being able to perform successfully. According to cognitive behavioral theory (Bandura, 1977), persuasion and modeling also have a positive influence on self efficacy that enables clients to effectively accomplish their goals.

Once a goal has been set, the way in which clients frame their intentions concerning goal pursuit can lead to better performance. Bandura and Schunk (1981) have determined that intentions focused on proximal goals rather than distant goals, and lead to better performance. This is referred to as the "goal-proximity effect." Locke and Latham (1990) observed increased levels of performance when clients set specific,

challenging goals as opposed to vague goals lacking strong intentions. This is known as the goal-specificity effect. According to Bandura and Schunk (1981), both goal-proximity and goal-specificity are bolstered by the use of feedback and self monitoring which serve to build intrinsic interest and proximal self-motivation.

Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behavior supports the contention that strong intentions are realized more often than weak intentions, despite modest correlations between behavior and intention. According to Dweck (1996), strong intentions built on learning goals or goals that are based on learning how to accomplish a certain activity are also more likely to produce successful results. Higgins (1997) added that goal attainment is more likely when intentions are framed as promotion goals—or goals that focus on positive outcomes—rather than prevention goals which focus on negative outcomes.

Lazarus, a more recent cognitive-behavioral theorist and advocate of brief psychotherapy (Lazarus, 1976, 1985, 1989, 1997), supported a holistic, multimodal approach for coaching executive clients. Richard (1999) suggested that coaching activities should encompass the following seven dimensions as defined by Lazarus (1989): behavior, affect, cognition, interpersonal relationships, mental imagery, physical condition, and pharmacological influences that could influence an individual's biological capacity to perform. Using checklists in each of these dimensions can provide definable criteria upon which to base client progress.

In Lazarus's theory (1991) of emotion and adaptation, emotions are divided into goal congruent and goal incongruent sub-types. Brunstein, Schultheiss and Grassman's (1998) work with emotional states and motivation revealed that progress toward and

commitment to motive-congruent goals, as opposed to motive-incongruent goals, resulted in emotional well-being for the participants studied.

Field Theory

Kurt Lewin's (1936) Field Theory maintained that individuals are continually interacting with social, psychological, and physical forces within their immediate environment. Field Theory is a systems approach to psychology that describes human behavior as a series of dynamic interrelationships between the individual and all factors of the situation. The situation is termed the "life or field space," and each interaction within this space has a direction or vector with a positive or negative force or valence. According to Witherspoon and White (1996a), this theory has evolved into what can now be described as action learning. The authors maintained that an essential role of the coach is to facilitate action learning.

An additional aspect of Lewin's (1936) Field Theory, as described by Gollwitzer (1999), is implementation intentions that facilitate getting started on one's goals. According to systems theory, interaction with one's environment in the form of ongoing activities provides opportunities for distraction that can draw one's attention away from their intended goal. Gollwitzer and Brandstatter (1997) found that individuals who augmented goal intentions with implementation intentions, or specific time sensitive criteria for getting started, were more successful with goal attainment.

Personality Trait

Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) stated that many managers who are performing poorly often need more intensive coaching than what most leadership

development programs offer. Assessment of personality is suggested as an integral part of fostering potential leadership qualities when coaching executives. Hogan et al. (1994) suggested using McCrae and Costa's (1987) big five dimensions of personality characteristics for leadership assessment, which include: surgency (extroversion), emotional stability (neuroticism), conscientiousness, agreeableness, and intellectualness (openness).

Sperry (1993) has identified several character traits of the various personality types that are necessary for executive performance. According to Sperry (1993), executives must be able to view circumstances from a global perspective that requires an openness to thinking (one of the big five dimensions of personality). Executives must also be able to cope with issues that have far reaching consequences and may be ambiguous in nature. Sperry (1993) characterized executives who are able to do this as healthy and effective, implying that emotional stability or neuroticism is a factor in executive success. Additionally, executives must possess a strong desire and passion for their work that can be viewed as encompassing many of the suggested elements described as essential by Hogan et al. (1994).

Psychological assessment, Sperry (1999) pointed out, does not necessarily predict a good fit between the company and the executive being considered. Corporations looking for executives to fill key positions are interested in basic character dynamics that will assure consistent work performance, and indicate that the candidate can demonstrate sound judgment in times of transition. Character, as a learned component of personality, is a significant aspect to assess when coaching on an executive level.

Self-directness, cooperativeness, and self-transcendence are characteristics of the mature personality (Cloninger, Svrakic, & Pryzbeck, 1993) that have become increasingly important in the study of executive personality. Sperry (1997) has identified six executive character structures beneficial to performance that personify these aspects of maturity, all of which have dysfunctional counterparts identified in the DSM-IV manual. When coaching, the recognition and development of these characteristics may serve to improve performance and enhance leadership attributes. It is also imperative that dysfunctional counterparts to these character structures be recognized so that the proper interventions and treatment can be obtained.

The six character structures identified by Sperry (1997) and their respective DSM-IV counterparts are:

1. self-confident character structure and narcissistic personality disorder;
2. adventurous character structure and anti-social personality disorder;
3. dramatic character structure and histrionic personality disorder;
4. leisurely character structure and passive-aggressive personality disorder;
5. conscientious character structure and obsessive-compulsive personality disorder; and,
6. vigilant character structure and paranoid personality disorder.

Humanistic

A humanistic approach to a helping intervention emphasizes the spiritual nature of an individual and seeks to understand the human struggle for self-fulfillment and dignity, and is aimed at treating the person as a whole. As characterized by Rogers (1951), it is a non-directive, client-centered psychotherapy that strives to understand

human behavior from the internal perspective of the individual while respecting each person's uniqueness (Rogers, 1951, 1961, 1980, 1989). Peterson's (1996) humanistic approach with one-on-one coaching emphasizes these principles and requires patience and effective listening skills.

Goodstone and Diamante (1998) suggested that interdisciplinary coaching be used for sustained behavioral change, drawing upon humanistic criteria. The authors defined “interdisciplinary” as a combination of knowledge and experience with the study of human behavior and organizational development. Rogerian management is described by Goodstone and Diamante (1998) as striving to increase an individual's self-awareness to promote change. Rogers (1989) theorized that subjective experience, rather than external reality, guides our behavior. Also, that the process of self-actualization can free individuals from being blocked by their own defenses and anxieties to live fuller, more productive lives. Goodstone and Diamante (1998) noted that although behavior therapy and psychodynamic treatment produce similar results, humanistic principles of non-judgmental listening, empathy, and unconditional positive regard are essential aspects of the coach/client relationship required to facilitate change.

Smoll et al. (1993) recognized the importance of fostering self-esteem in the coaching process. Positive evaluative responses have long been recognized as an important aspect of the helping intervention in facilitating change (Rogers, 1951). Feedback given in the form of appraisal can serve to strengthen the self-enhancement process. Studies indicate that individuals who have low self-esteem are especially responsive to positive evaluative feedback given within a social context (Brown, Collins, & Schmidt, 1988; Dittes, 1959; Smith & Smoll, 1990).

Summary of Theoretical Foundations

Despite the wide range of theoretical foundations upon which coaching is based, one theoretical perspective stands out as being more representative of the coaching process as a whole. The humanistic perspective of facilitating behavioral change encompasses what most authors report to be essential in the coaching process. In humanistic theory emphasis is placed on self-exploration, self-expression, self-knowledge, self-actualization, trust, dignity and fulfillment of human potential. A humanistic approach deems each individual's experience as unique and encourages creativity in the attainment of one's goals; this is very similar to the individualized approach that coaching takes. Humanistic theory is also based mostly on the study of healthy, well-adjusted individuals (Friedman & Schustack, 2003) that matches the profile of the coaching client population. Trust and dignity are hallmarks of humanistic theory as well as coaching; both are client centered. Spiritual fulfillment is mentioned less often in professional coaching, but typically discussed in life coaching, another aspect of humanistic theory that matches the coaching paradigm of using a holistic approach.

Techniques and Tools

A variety of techniques and tools used in coaching are described in the literature. Some are proprietary and their use, although promoted, is not widespread. An example of a proprietary tool is Visual Explorer (VE), a computerized program designed to promote visual sense-making (a technique used by the Center for Creative Leadership, CCL) (Palus et al., 2003). Tools and techniques most frequently reported as used in the literature are goal setting, feedback, role-playing, brainstorming, reframing, and mind-mapping.

Goal Setting

Goal setting, a universally used coaching technique, is described by Locke and Latham (2002) as a highly effective motivational tool and has been demonstrated to increase management productivity (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). Anderson et al. (1988) found that combining goal setting with publicly posted feedback and praise enhanced athletic performance. Goal setting in combination with feedback was also found to increase performance in managerial interviewing skills (Nemeroff & Cosentino, 1979).

Typical executive coaching goals may include the following:

1. increased range, flexibility and effectiveness of client behavior;
2. increased managerial effectiveness for planning, organizing, leading, decision making and job related tasks;
3. improvement of social and psychological competencies;
4. increased ability to successfully cope with change or turmoil;
5. professional advancement;
6. increased ability to balance personal and professional life; and,
7. increased ability to positively affect the organization (Kilburg, 1996)

Successful goal pursuit can be compromised by distractions unless appropriate self-regulatory skills are used to cope with desirable activities unrelated to the goal(s) a client and coach have agreed upon (Gollwitzer, 1999). Although there are many social-psychological variables associated with goal intention, the strength of an individual's intent to follow through is thought to have a positive effect on self-regulation of behaviors (Bandura & Simon, 1977; Biddle, Soos, & Chatzisarantis, 1999). Associative

structures that underlie stimulus/response behaviors and reinforcement are also aspects of goal directed behavior and self-regulation that can be negatively or positively impacted depending upon the associations made (Pavlov, 1927, 1960; Rescorla, 1987). Other variables that influence goal-directed behavior are the amount of energy invested in the goals, the variation in the nature of the goals, and the way in which the goals are organized (Hyland, 1998).

Feedback and Praise

Feedback, an additional coaching tool which shares universal acceptance in many types of coaching and has been found to be a strong determinant in promoting self-esteem in athletic coaching (Smith & Smoll, 1990), serves many purposes. Brotman (1998) saw feedback as a way to help the client gain greater insight concerning his or her own subjective experience, which can lead to better management of emotions and eliminate subjective distortion of events. Goodstone and Diamante (1998) agreed, adding that increased self-awareness gained through the process of assimilating feedback is key to maximum performance as a leader.

The way in which feedback is provided is also of importance. Diedrich (1996) advised that feedback be specific, accurate, detailed, and refer to actual behaviors rather than be subjective and evaluative in nature. Maurer et al. (1998) found that feedback concerning good performance helped to enhance subsequent performance. In the workplace the coach may provide feedback to the client, elicit feedback from the client, or manage the process of receiving, reviewing, and utilizing feedback from internal and external workplace sources (Tobia, 1996).

In executive coaching, 360-degree feedback, multi-rater, and multi-source feedback tools are commonly used for performance assessment by both consultants and coaches. As popular as their methods are for providing feedback, Church and Bracken (1997) argued that the instruments are very poorly understood. Early instrument assessment studies such as the one done by London and Wohlers (1991) provide optimistic appraisal for their use. The authors found increasing correlation over a period of time between upward feedback, or feedback given by subordinates, and self-assessment measures, indicating that feedback given by subordinates over a period of time can help improve one's self-assessment (London & Wohlers, 1991).

The development and use of 360-degree multi-rater feedback tools were first used primarily for employee development purposes and all results were strictly confidential. Dalton (1996) reported a growing trend to use information contained within the reports for administrative purposes, such as denial or awarding of promotions and raises. Dalton argued (1996) that using the feedback instrument in this way ignores very basic psychological principles of behavioral change.

The first step in helping an individual change their behavior is to provide feedback and create insight concerning maladaptive behaviors in a way that is non-threatening and can be received in a context of psychological safety. Dalton (1996) argued that allowing administrative personnel access to feedback for punitive reasons undermines the confidential relationship between coach and client and can be threatening and/or harmful to the employee.

Praise as a form of feedback has been rated by athletes as a more important incentive when given by a coach versus a different source (Smith & Smoll, 1990) and has

been found to play a major role in the process of self-enhancement and performance (Anderson et al., 1988). Feltz et al. (1999) found that coaches who had high self-efficacy gave more encouragement than those coaches who had low self-efficacy and were more prone to give instructional and corrective feedback.

Role-playing, Story-making, Journaling and Mind-mapping

Coaches reported using a variety of tools in assisting client creativity, learning new skills and increasing self-awareness. Maurer et al. (1998) found that role-playing served to help clients learn new interview skills and enhance interview performance. Similarly, Palus et al. (2003) used story making to stimulate growth. Both character stories and identity stories are used. Identity stories address the questions of "Who am I?" and "Where am I going?" Character stories are used to see things from a different perspective by telling a story from another individual's point of view. Palus et al. (2003) used Compendium, a computerized program designed to mind map ideas and discussions in order to facilitate dialogue of complex issues and create a greater understanding of the problem.

Quick and Macik-Frey's (2004) health enhancing, developmental model of executive coaching suggested journaling as a means of creating a greater understanding of complex emotional issues that may hinder progress toward one's goals. Richard's (1999) multimodal model of executive coaching also suggested the use of journaling.

Brainstorming, Reframing and Use of Metaphors

Palus et al. (2003) used a combination of brainstorming and reframing to promote and refine solutions to complex problems. First, a tutorial on brainstorming is shown and

then clients are asked to participate in an activity called "walk and talk" in which participants pair up and go outside and walk the grounds for 20 minutes, sharing ideas from different perspectives. Laske's (1999b) systems theory gave executives a structure of organizational and personal roles that provide the executive with different perspectives. Shifting from one role to another allows clients to gain greater insight and integrate information. Another coaching tool used to help clients reframe difficult issues is the use of metaphors. By drawing on the use of imagery, clients are able to comprehend difficult issues faster and more easily (Eversole, 2004). Stories provided by the coach in which the coach can create scenarios that symbolize both problems and solutions are also used in coaching (Kilburg, 1997).

In addition to brainstorming to foster innovation, Richard (2003) suggested the use of rational, creative problem solving techniques that utilize well-developed strategic questioning skills. The first phase of problem solving, according to Richard, is to define the problem. The next step is to generate options either through brainstorming or idea checklists. This is followed by attribute listing in which the client lists the major characteristics of each idea or choice, followed by considerations that can be made in favor or against each choice. Synthesis of various combinations of options can then occur for the client to reach a comfortable, well thought out choice of actions to take.

Hypnosis, Relaxation Therapy and EMDR

Berger (2002) discussed the use of hypnosis and relaxation therapy as a valid and useful tool in coaching to assist client breakthroughs in overcoming obstacles that thwart goal achievement. Typically used in therapy for healing of emotional issues, Berger (2002) noted that hypnosis and visualization techniques can also be used as a coaching

tool to increase motivation and improve performance, adding that clinical training is essential for its use. Another technique most often used in therapy, but found to be useful in coaching, is EMDR. Used by Foster and Lendl (1996) to help clients shift their negative view to a more positive outlook and reduce anxiety, the authors suggested its use as a promising technique to enhance performance in the workplace.

Summary of Techniques and Tools

Many of the tools and techniques used in coaching are commonly used in similar helping interventions. Goal setting, which is used less often in therapy, is always used in coaching. Other techniques such as hypnosis, relaxation therapy, and EMDR are used less frequently in coaching and found more often in therapy. Consulting frequently uses brainstorming and mind-mapping, yet coaches often find these techniques beneficial. The context in which these tools are used and the purpose for which they are used is what distinguishes coaching from other helping interventions.

Determinants of Successful Coaching Outcomes

Olivero et al.'s (1997) research indicated that executive coaching increases performance, and Gegner's survey (1997, as cited by Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001) indicated that coaching contributes to behavioral change; but the question remains, "What defines a successful coaching intervention?" Brotman et al. (1998) believed that sustained behavioral change is the primary measure of success. The definition they used for sustained behavioral change is: "The executive displays a change in the targeted behavior(s). This change is consistent even under pressure or stress. The new behavior is sustained by (a) the internalization of deeper psychological insights about the undesirable

behavior(s), and (b) targeted coaching that converts the insights into pragmatic action steps" (p.41).

In addition to measuring sustained behavioral change, Lowman (2001) argued that research reports of case studies needed to establish criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of coaching using objective data, as opposed to subjective dimensions such as client satisfaction. Goodstone and Diamante (1998) argued that 360-degree feedback tools provide only partial evaluative data and that criteria must also be based on knowledge about adult development and behavioral change theories. Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson (2001) cautioned that subjective data must be collected carefully and be representative of the population being studied. The authors maintained that pertinent information regarding methodology, measurement, and analysis is also important to present for evaluations of successful interventions to be made.

Coaches surveyed by Wasylyshyn (2003) cited the following as indications of a successful intervention:

1. change in behavior;
2. increased understanding of self;
3. more effective leadership;
4. credibility of coach;
5. company satisfaction.

Lowman (2005) added that successful coaching removes barriers to understanding that limit solving workplace issues.

Many authors agreed that feedback is critical to the success of the coaching outcome (Diedrich, 1996; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Witherspoon & White,

1996b). The success or failure of a client to accomplish their desired outcomes with coaching can be influenced by many factors. Kilburg (2001) identified seven aspects that are essential to coaching effectiveness. The first two are the client's and coach's commitment to the path of progressive development. The second is the coach's thorough understanding of the client's characteristics and the problems and issues they bring to coaching. This was reiterated by Winum (2005) who emphasized that coaches must focus their assessment and intervention efforts on both the client's behavioral capabilities and the context in which they and their capabilities are being challenged, especially when the client is underachieving.

The fourth aspect outlined by Kilburg (2001) that needs to be engineered appropriately for coaching to be effective is the structure in which the coaching proceeds. There must be a clear agreement reached between client and coach of what the desired outcome is and the steps that will be taken to achieve results. The fifth and single most important ingredient for success is the quality of the coach-client relationship. Kilburg (2001) maintained that for this to develop the coach must have positive regard for the client, accurate empathy, authenticity, genuineness, ability to playfully challenge the client, and tactfulness. The quality of the coaching intervention is the sixth feature that influences efficacy. Kilburg (2001) articulated this as the coach's ability to choose and implement coaching tools wisely. A coach must know when and how to use role-playing, methods of inquiry, reframing, confrontation, etc. appropriately and proficiently. The seventh area of concern for coaching efficacy is adherence protocol and the coach's ability to sustain the client's accountability toward the goals agreed upon. Kilburg (2001)

suggested that a strength-based approach is essential in overcoming barriers and resistance to behavioral change.

When coaching within an organizational setting there is an eighth component to success, which is organizational support for coaching and allotment of sufficient time and money by the organization (Kilburg, 2001). Wasylyshyn's (2003) survey indicated that coaches believe it is their responsibility to manage the relationship with the sponsor, and notes that successful management of this aspect contributes to the likelihood of a positive outcome. Lowman (2005) added that effective coaching within an organization appears to integrate the dynamics of individual psychology approaches with the needs of the organization on both individual and system levels, taking into account the environmental context of each intervention. A complete understanding of the corporate culture in which the coaching intervention is taking place is also essential according to Richard (1999).

Lowman (2005) also stated that the model used may influence the coaching process less than the strength of conviction held by the coach that the model is effective; also, strength-based models appear to be more effective than focusing on the client's weaknesses. The self-efficacy beliefs of the employee also play a major role in changing work related behaviors (Sadri & Robertson, 1993). Self-efficacy beliefs have also been found to influence performance in academic environments (Fuller, Wood, Rapoport, Dornbush, & Sanford, 1982).

Six guidelines are given by Kiel et al. (1996) for establishing a successful coaching process. The guidelines advocate adopting a multi-systems or holistic view, establishing and maintaining clear coach/client boundaries, reducing resistance by

removal of hidden agendas, embracing flexibility, preserving confidentiality, and maintaining momentum with regularly scheduled meetings.

From the client's perspective, there are several things a coach can do to create successful coaching outcomes. The first, according to one case study (Peterson & Miller, 2005), is for the coach to take the “long view” even though the length of the coaching contract may be limited. It is assumed that by doing so a foundation is built that will help the client succeed in future endeavors. The second suggestion made was to “get to the heart of things” by exploring core issues that help the client stay connected to their fundamental purpose and not get distracted. The third suggestion was to be totally committed to the client and their agenda. The fourth and final coaching suggestion was to “make it real” by placing emphasis on action.

Wasylyshn (2003) reported that the most positive coaching outcomes result from clients who are highly motivated to learn and are willing to adjust behaviors and attitudes to succeed. Kilburg (2001) agreed that motivation is a contributing factor and a "commitment to the path of progressive development" is valuable for a successful outcome. Research confirms the importance of all aspects of motivation in goal achievement, including high competence expectancies and fear of failure (Elliot & Church, 1997). Implementation intentions, when strong, have a positive effect on motivation and serve to secure goal attainment more often than weak implementation intentions (Gollwitzer, 1999).

Adherence is also reported to be a factor contributing to sustained behavioral change and positive outcomes for the client. Attendance at regularly scheduled

appointments (Kiel et al., 1996; Kilburg, 2001; Maurer et al., 1998; Maurer et al., 2001) promotes and supports continued growth for the client.

Several factors influence the success of the coaching outcome, and can be divided into two categories—client related and skills/abilities. The first category, client related, concerns the issue of clients being motivated, committed and willing to adhere to their plan of action to achieve their goals. The second category concerns the skill and ability of the coach to provide structure, foster trust and rapport, and appropriately choose the correct coaching tools to use in each coaching scenario.

Factors that Challenge Successful Coaching Outcomes

It is estimated that 50% of executives will fail to advance in their careers with conventional interventions aimed at professional development (Hogan et al., 1994). Kilburg (1997) attributed many failures to workaholism, alcohol abuse, perfectionism and narcissistic behavior, many of which require a referral for an appropriate psychological intervention. Kilburg (1997) also cited many neurotic trends, defined by Horney (1937), and ten personality disorders, as specified in the DSM-IV, as maladaptive behaviors that thwart success and impede progress when coaching in the workplace. The lack of leadership skills and personal effectiveness as a communicator are also believed to be contributing factors (Kiel et al., 1996).

Additional challenges that provide barriers to lasting behavioral change include procrastination, distraction (Golliwitzer, 1999), unconscious defenses, core misperceptions, client subjectivity, negative internal dialogue, and a combination of adverse habitual scripts (Brotman et al., 1998). Poor goal clarification or lack of

competency with skills required for goal related tasks also contribute to failure (Kilburg, 2001).

Kilburg (1996) divided factors that negatively affect coaching outcomes into coach and client categories. Inadequate or detrimental coach qualities such as lack of empathy, lack of interest, underestimating the severity of the client's problems, significant negative countertransference, poor coaching technique, and major disagreements with the client are coach variables that can negatively affect the coaching outcome. Client factors that adversely affect outcome include severe psychopathology, severe interpersonal problems, lack of motivation, unrealistic expectations, and lack of follow through. Wolters (2003) added that poor follow through due to procrastination is related to a lack of self-efficacy and poor metacognitive strategies.

The major stumbling block to a successful coaching intervention is that coaching was chosen as the wrong helping intervention. Clients who are in need of a psychological referral typically have interpersonal and/or emotional problems that thwart their efforts. Coaches who lack proficiency with coaching skills will also contribute to unsuccessful coaching outcomes by being unable to establish rapport with their clients and facilitate goal clarification.

Coach Credentials and Competency Requirements

Brotman et al. (1998) discussed the issue of coaching credentials and competency requirements. The authors called upon experienced psychologists to take accountability for informing and educating corporate decision makers as to what competencies are needed to facilitate sustained behavioral change when coaching executives. Brotman et al. (1998) maintained that psychologists are uniquely qualified for the task of defining

coach credentials and requirements, as psychological intervention is needed when sustained behavioral change is the primary outcome to be achieved. Psychologists also have the ability to maintain intense relationships with objectivity and have a full understanding of confidentiality. Kilburg (2004) supported this view by adding that when unconscious feelings, thoughts and patterns of behavior adversely affect executive decision making, a psychodynamic approach is often needed. Psychological training is also needed to identify conflict and attachment style as well as to use interpretations appropriately. Kilburg (2004) also warned that there is the additional danger of using incomplete, ineffective, or incorrect psychodynamic interventions that may lead to injurious, disruptive results when psychodynamic approaches are not fully understood by coaches who use them.

Although Brotman et al. (1998) declared that psychologists already have the skills, knowledge, and expertise required to facilitate and sustain behavioral change, others added that knowledge of business, management, politics (Kiel et al., 1996; Levinson, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1993; Tobias, 1996), and leadership issues (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001) are needed for executive coaching.

Lowman (1998) and Somerville (1998) expressed concern over therapists who enter coaching with little or no re-training in coaching and have no corporate experience. Due to the popularity and increased demand for coaching, coaches with a wide variety of backgrounds (business, education, law, and sports) are entering the field of coaching, so the question of who is qualified to coach and who determines who is qualified to coach continues to remain an issue.

Debate about requirements for coach credentialing still exists in the literature even though the ICF has established standards. ICF does not require coaches to have any kind of degree in psychology. Since coaching involves facilitating behavioral change, the argument exists that a psychology background is needed for professionals who coach, yet many certified coaches do not currently meet this presumed standard. Some coaches argue the reverse, that an educational background in psychology is not enough and that psychologists need to be trained and have experience with mentor coaches to be qualified to coach.

Summary of Literature

A review of the coaching literature reveals a lack of theoretical coherence and dissimilar methods and models continue to proliferate. Despite the diverse discourse in case studies and research, thematic is the premise that coaching is a useful and helpful intervention that strives to help clients achieve satisfaction and fulfillment both personally and professionally. Coaches are often described as the facilitator in an intervention designed to support clients in their quest for self-fulfillment and self-actualization, a humanistic approach that compliments many aspects of what authors in the field indicate is valuable and noteworthy about coaching. Although coaching has many roots from which it has developed, humanism appears to be a major construct from which coaching themes emerge.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The literature review has indicated that coaching as a helping intervention endeavors to help clients achieve satisfaction with the quality of their lives both personally and professionally, yet only one study to date (Grant, 2003) has quantitatively measured the effects of coaching on quality of life indices. The purpose of this research proposal, which will not be conducted, is to test the hypothesis that coaching increases client satisfaction with quality of life indices. The study will seek to determine if correlations between life coaching and improvement in the quality of life indices exist.

At the time of this proposal one preliminary study completed and published to assess the efficacy of coaching has been identified in the literature. This study was done by Grant (2003) at the MacQuarie University in Australia. It is the purpose of this proposed study to verify Grant's results (2003) seeking improvements in validity through the use of more diverse client population thereby eliminating a possible confounding variable inherent within the population chosen.

This chapter will address the importance choosing a non-clinical population and using the Quality of Life Inventory (QOLI) (Frish et al., 1992) as a measurement tool. Careful considerations made in the choice of research design will be explained in detail, with attention given to ethical considerations.

Research Design

The research design proposed is a quantitative experimental study using a control group that will test the hypothesis that coaching increases client satisfaction with quality

of life indices. Use of a normed standardized Likert-type assessment tool will allow for quantification of result that can be compared with a control group, which strengthens the validity of empirical research. Both control and participants groups will be selected and screened for psychopathology. There will be one independent variable (coaching) and 16 dependant variables (satisfaction with quality of life indices). The experimental group will receive coaching for three months and be tested using the QOLI (Frish et al., 1992) before and after coaching. Participants in the control group will not receive coaching during the three-month period, but will be assessed for satisfaction with quality of life at the beginning and end of a three-month period.

Efforts will be made to eliminate as variables in the coaching process by structuring the coaching format so it will be consistent in length, time, type of session (i.e. face-to-face, phone and email), and number of sessions. Each coach participating in the study will use the same record keeping materials for logging client goals and summarizing individual coaching sessions. Standardizing administrative details and record keeping will facilitate assessment of results and allow researchers to better critique the study and the way in which the study was implemented.

According to Keppel (1991) internal validity threats arise when there is fluctuation in the treatment or experiences of the participants during the experimental procedure. To monitor for this, participants will be administered the SSRS at the beginning and the end of the coaching intervention to detect and document any major life changes that would pose a threat to the internal validity of a with-in subject design.

Hypothesis

The null hypothesis for this study is that there is no relationship between quality of life indices as defined by the QOLI (Frish et al., 1992) and the use of coaching. The alternative hypothesis is that there is a relationship between quality of life indices and coaching. The null (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_1) will be expressed symbolically as follows:

$$H_0: \mu_A = \mu_B$$

$$H_1: \mu_A \neq \mu_B$$

The statistical analysis of scores will determine if coaching has made a significant difference in satisfaction with quality of life indices as measured by the Quality of Life Inventory assessment tool. A significant positive difference between pre- and post-test scores would indicate that coaching has had a positive effect on client satisfaction with quality of life indices, thereby confirming the alternative hypothesis and rejecting the null hypothesis.

Population

The population to be studied in this experiment will eliminate a possible confounding variable in Grant's study (2003) that used 20 postgraduate students from a major Australian University. Using a larger, more diverse client population than used in Grant's pilot study (2003) will reduce the possibility that the results obtained from the pilot study occurred naturally. The population used in Grant's study (i.e. recently graduated students) may have reported increased life satisfaction due not to the coaching they received, but to natural improvements in their life as the result of obtaining a higher educational degree.

A convenience sample of 50 individuals will be solicited through the International Coach Federation (ICF) website by contacting individuals who expressed an interest in being coached. All individuals volunteering to participate in the study will be screened for pathology using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Minnesota (MMPI-2) (Butcher, 1990) so that depression, personality disorders, anxiety, or other psychological dysfunction will not interfere with participant evaluations. Qualified researchers trained in the administration and use of the MMPI-2 (Butcher, 1990) will complete all screenings. The sample size will be 50 experimental participants and 50 control participants. Participants will not be limited to any particular geographical location, age range, or cultural or ethnic background. Those who are randomly selected to participate in the control group will be given the opportunity to receive coaching at no cost at the completion of the study as an incentive for participation.

A convenience sample of coaches for the study will be solicited by invitation from the Coaches Training mailing list. As an incentive to participate, arrangements will be made with ICF to provide credit toward certification and continuing education requirements. Coaches participating in the study will be limited to those who have completed the Coaches Institute Basic Training program, but not limited to geographical location, age range, or cultural or ethnic background. Fifty coaches will be used in the study to provide the widest possible range in experience and ability at CTI's basic level of coach training. Each coach will be required to coach one study participant and one control participant should all 50 control participants opt for free coaching sessions at the completion of the study.

Instrumentation

The Quality of Life Inventory (QOLI) developed by Frisch, Cornell, Villanueva, and Retzlaf (1992) will be used to assess participant satisfaction with quality of life indices. It is a normed, standardized test based on population norms and has been clinically validated (Frisch et al., 1992) and used in a variety of treatment plans. It has a test-retest coefficient range of .80 to .91, and an internal consistency coefficient range of .71 to .89 using three clinical samples and three non-clinical samples. The test also shows significant positive correlations with seven related measurements of subjective well being including the clinical interview and peer rating assessments. Conversely, the QOLI correlated negatively with measures of general psychopathology, anxiety, and depression (Frisch et al., 1992).

The QOLI (Frisch et al., 1992) is a brief measure of how well an individual's needs, goals and expectations are being met. It was chosen for use in this proposed study because the tool takes into account how important the subject rates each area of assessment, placing emphasis on individual values and self assessment - a humanistic approach - and has been used extensively to evaluate the full range of effects of many psychological interventions (Gladis, Gosch, Dishuk, & Crits-Cristoph, 1999). The QOLI (Frisch et al., 1992) has been used to facilitate the improvement of treatment interventions by assessing 16 areas of life, including: health, self-esteem, goals and values, money, work, play, learning, creativity, helping, love, friends, children, relatives, home, neighborhood, and community. A total score for life satisfaction is also given, and the inventory weighs a person's satisfaction according to the importance assigned by the test

taker, once again placing emphasis on the individual, a humanistic principle thematic in coaching literature.

Three additional instruments will be used to increase the validity of the study. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI-2) originally developed at the University of Minnesota by Hataway and McKinley and revised and normed in 1989 (Butcher, 1990) will be used to screen participants for psychopathology so a non-clinical population can be chosen for the purpose of eliminating confounding variables due to psychological disorders that may interfere with self evaluation. Secondly, the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) developed by Holmes and Rahe (1967) will be used to monitor major life changes and events that may present a confounding variable within the study. The third assessment used will be a participant questionnaire developed and pilot tested by this researcher. Results of the pilot test will be published in the appendix of the study. The questionnaire will be given at the completion of the study. It will be given for the purpose of recording client feedback concerning their coaching experience. The questionnaire will be phenomenological in design and include broad open-ended questions, such as "Describe your coaching experience" and "Discuss your reasons for wanting to participate in this study." Obtaining client feedback may help to identify possible confounding variables that were not anticipated or provide valuable information to be used in the design of future studies.

Data Analysis

Data will be collected and analyzed to respond to the hypothesis that coaching increases satisfaction with quality of life indices. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) strategy to statistically analyze results will be used. The resulting variations in individual

dependant variable scores will be examined by analysis of variance with pre-test and post-test coaching scores. Contrasts between pre-coaching scores and post-coaching scores on the QOLI (Frish et al., 1992) can then be compared to control group scores so judgments about individual item scores can be made. The use of a with-in study design will allow individual participant variables such as intelligence, personality factors, and general social and environmental conditions to remain relatively constant.

This method of analysis was chosen as both the dependent and independent variables will meet the following criteria for increased validity as suggested by Isaac and Michael (1997):

1. the dependant variable (coaching) will be compared to a control group that did not receive coaching or other helping interventions;
2. the independent variables (quality of life indices) will be with-in subject in nature and are quantitative;
3. the independent variables will be rated on a Likert-type scale consisting of six levels of satisfaction and importance for each individual participant.

All data obtained from the QOLI (Frish et al., 1992) pre and post tests will be presented in a table format that lists the means, standard deviations, and ranges of individual item scores for each quality of life index for both the experimental and control group. The results will then be displayed in a chart format for ease of comparison. A discussion of results will ensue using additional data obtained from the SRRS (Holmes & Rahe, 1967) and participant questionnaire in an effort to identify possible confounding variable that were not predicted. Potential recommendations will be made based on the results of the data. Since this is a proposed study, which will not be conducted, the

hypothesis that coaching increases client satisfaction with quality of life indices remains unproven and recommendations will be speculative.

Anticipated Ethical Issues in the Study

Confidentiality of participants in the study will be strictly adhered to at all times previous to, throughout the course of, and following the study and publication of the results. According to Corey, Corey, & Callanan (1998) the physical and psychological safety of each subject is of utmost importance. Every effort will be made in the design and review of the design to develop appropriate protection measures. A handout of ethical guidelines will be distributed to each coach and subject. All participants will review these guidelines with the researcher before proceeding with the study.

The guidelines will include the previous concerns as well as a statement assuring equal chance of participation of volunteers regardless of gender, race, color, religion, or sexual orientation. In addition to the guidelines, the participant will be given a consent form to sign. If the subject is under the age of 18, the consent form must be signed by a parent or legal guardian. All research standards and guidelines required by Walden University will be followed and all requested forms must be completed, signed, and returned by the specified deadlines. Conflicts of interest will be brought to the immediate attention of Walden University and dealt with according to prescribed policies and procedures. All communication and relationships encountered during the full course of the study will be conducted in a professional and ethical manner with the highest regard for honest and principled behaviors and research standards.

Ethical principles will be in full compliance with any government regulations and/or laws that may apply, as well as ethical guidelines established by Walden

University, CTI, and ICF. The principle director of the research (and/or statistical gathering) and all assistants will be responsible for the welfare of the research participants for the entirety of the process, in so far as their welfare relates to the research project.

All reasonable precautions will be taken to respect and protect the welfare of all those concerned. The most important aspect of this will be in regard to informed consent. Any and all information collected for the purpose of evaluation and/or publication must be explained to the subject with a full description of how and for what purpose it is being used. Participants must be instructed that they are free to withdraw their consent and discontinue participation in the project at any time. Anonymity of all participants who agree to continue with the study will be protected in the absence of specific authorization for disclosure.

Reporting of evaluative information will be done with explicit mention of all variables and conditions known to the researcher that may have affected the outcome or interpretation of that information. The results of any research judged to be of educational value will not be withheld, despite any unfavorable reflection it may have upon other institutions, programs, or services. The publication of the information will not be misleading and will include sufficient original data and information for those who wish to replicate the study. Steps will be taken in a timely manner to correct any errors later found in published data.

Recognition will be given to those who have contributed by means of joint authorship and/or knowledge; abiding by all copyright laws. Publishing etiquette, as well as ethics, requires that the researcher not submit the same manuscript, or essentially the

same one, for simultaneous publication in more than one source. The stipulations and agreements of all publication contracts will be honored and permission obtained from previous publishers for submissions to additional publishers.

Summary

This study will use a quantitative research method to duplicate Grant's (2003) pilot study, using a control group, a larger sample size and more diverse population than found in the original study. Decisions concerning population selection, assessment tools, statistical analysis, and procedural implementation were carefully made to protect the validity, accuracy and ethical integrity of the study. Special attention was given to the selection of the assessment tool used to assess quality of life indices as a tool was needed that would reflect the humanistic nature of coaching.

CHAPTER 4: INTEGRATIVE SUMMARY AND CRITIQUE

Critique

The utilization of coaching as a development tool for business and industry has a history that exceeds half a century, yet evidence-based models for its use have been slow to develop. Proprietary material offered by consulting and development firms, such as PAS International (Blattner, 2005), Periscope and Leadership Development (Brotman et al., 1998), The Kaleel Jamison Consulting Group, Inc. (Katz & Miller, 1996), KRW International (Kiel et al., 1996), The Levinson Institute (Levinson, 1996), Center for Creative Leadership (Dalton, 1996; Palus et al., 2003), The Hay Group (Diedrich, 1996; MODOONO, 2002), Personnel Decisions International (Peterson, 1996; Peterson & Millier, 2005), RHR International (Saporito, 1996; Winum, 2005), Executive Development (Saurer, 1999), Stern Consulting (Stern, 2004), Nordli, Wilson & Associates (Tobias, 1996), Leadership Development (Wasylyshyn, 2005), Performance and Leadership Development, Ltd. (Witherspoon & White, 1996), and RPW Executive Development, Inc. (Witherspoon & White, 1996) is prevalent in the early literature and continues to be a source of information for those seeking to learn more about coaching. Non-proprietary information in the form of dissertations and empirical research, however, is rapidly becoming more available.

The increasing awareness that more evidence-based knowledge is needed is reflected in the keynote paper (Grant, 2004) of ICF's First Coaching Research Symposium held in 2003. Although contextually the vast majority of peer-reviewed literature thus far has focused on executive coaching, the symposium included several presentations and papers on personal and life coaching. The inclusion of material on life

coaching as a significant portion of the program is an important development for the future of personal coaching. Currently there exists a tremendous gap between evidence-based literature on life coaching and the rapid rate at which individuals are being trained as life coaches through commercial coach training programs. Many therapists are reshaping their practices to include coaching as evidenced by the appearance of William and Davis's book (2002), *Therapist as Life Coach*, a handbook developing a coaching practice.

Unlike therapy, which has a wealth of empirical research to support techniques and methodologies, coaching literature provides very little for the practitioner to rely on with only four dissertations written specifically on life coaching to date (Creane, 2003; Grant, 2002; Rogers, 2004; Wilkins, 2000). Therapists who are reshaping their practices to include life coaching must read a book on the subject or attend a commercial training program due to the absence of life coaching studies at universities. Currently no college or university degrees exist for becoming a life coach. An individual can be credentialed by ICF for life coaching through accredited commercial training programs (ICF, 2002), yet only two accredited training programs are currently university-affiliated, and both are for leadership development or executive coaching and not life coaching. Georgetown University's Center for Professional Development is accredited by ICF to offer a leadership coaching certification, and Royal Roads University is accredited by ICF to offer an executive coaching graduate certification. No university-affiliated training programs are presently available for life coaching through ICF (ICF, 2005).

As the consumer population becomes more diverse and coaching is no longer viewed as an intervention aimed at professional development for the executive, it

becomes increasingly apparent that a science-practitioner model is needed. Standards based on universally accepted theory are necessary for the future development of life coaching if it is to become a respected intervention for facilitating behavioral change. Research on the efficacy of techniques used is essential in more clearly defining the differences and similarities between coaching, therapy and consulting. There is also a need for higher academic standards in the quality of the material published.

Many authors based their work on excellent references, yet publications appeared with few if any references. MODOONO'S (2002) self assessment tool for executive coaches had no references available, and Kiel et al.'s (1996) article, "Coaching at the Top," although plentiful with information to assist the coach, had no references to support the suggestions given or direct the reader to any theoretical foundation that substantiated application of the material presented. Tobias's article, "Coaching Executives," a case study using Nordli and Wilson's systems based approach contains two references (one book and one journal article), each written by the author. Kralj's (2001) case study referenced one statement about organizational change to two authors, yet failed to reference any strategy decisions incorporated in the coaching plan to research methods or theoretical approaches.

Many coaching skills are very similar to skills used in the helping profession by therapists. Attending and listening, the use of restatements, open questions, closed questions, approval and reassurance, self disclosure, challenging, interpretation immediacy, and giving information and direct guidance are all helping skills used by therapists (Hill & O'Brien, 2002) to facilitate exploration, insight and action, all of which have research based evidence to support their use. These same skills are used in coaching

for both similar and different outcomes, yet have few or no studies to indicate the efficacy of their use.

Coaching, although popular and prevalent, is still in an early stage of development. With the exception of executive coaching, this field remains ill defined as a professional intervention. Coaching is prevalent in many forms (e.g., spiritual coaching, life coaching, AD/HD coaching), yet professionalized in few disciplines with competencies, standards, and guidelines defined and upheld. Although ICF has provided coaches with ethical standards and guidelines that are universally accepted in most helping professions, many of the coaching competencies upon which certification and accreditation are based have not been scientifically researched in experimentally controlled coaching scenarios, as has been done in the field of psychology with psychotherapy studies, medicine with treatment program studies, and sports with studies on athletic coaching protocols and methods. Despite ICF's initiatives to professionalize coaching, the question remains, "Is coaching a profession?" Certainly there are many professionals within the various disciplines that coach, but what specifically defines coaching as a profession when so many different definitions, models, methods and techniques appear in the literature?

Certification and training are certainly steps in the right direction, yet to become a discipline in its own right, coaching needs a shared body of knowledge that has a theoretical base linking it to the many disciplines in which it is practiced (e.g., business, health, education, psychology). Upon careful review of the literature it is this author's opinion that a humanistic approach is common to many of the methods and models currently in practice and a theoretical foundation upon which research can be conducted

to support the hypothesis that coaching increases client satisfaction with quality of life indices. Unconditional positive regard for the client, increased client self-awareness and creative learning strategies were thematic in the majority of methods and models reviewed.

In business, a humanistic approach is fostered by upholding client confidentiality and honoring the privacy of the individual's goals in relationship to the goals of the organization. When health and wellness coaching is done, the embodiment of humanism is seen in respect for client's physical and psychological well-being. In educational coaching, a humanistic theme is found by coaches who emphasize the importance of individual creativity in learning. In all contexts in which coaching is performed the coach client relationship is client-centered and there is a theme of unconditional acceptance. Although team coaching is often performed in corporate and organizational settings, the emphasis remains on the individual and his or her unique ability to contribute.

A common language for the study of coaching has yet to be developed. Because coaching is performed in a variety of contexts, researchers need definable terms when conducting research studies so that variables can be clearly distinguished. Creating a proliferation of proprietary terms, some of which may convey similar meanings, does not constitute an empirically sound method for developing a science-based practitioner model of coaching with a shared and universally accepted knowledge base.

In the most general of terms, coaching is certainly not new or unique. The term coaching can be found in a number of studies done to examine training techniques for various behavior modification programs such as social skill improvement (Newman, 1990; Zander, 1983) or assertive behavior development (Turner, 1976). The concept of

professional coaching depicted as an innovative process performed by uniquely qualified and credentialed professionals who facilitate behavioral change solely through the coaching process is new. Currently there are a growing number of professionals from many disciplines who coach, but does the profession itself exist or just the concept of it?

To answer this question, Grant (2003) suggested that we look at what defines a profession. Professions are commonly defined as unique when the profession has universally recognized qualification barriers, such as university degrees and various national professional organizations, which support various professions. Many professions use rigorous testing procedures and examinations that have been validated to qualify only those individuals who demonstrate an acceptable level of competency for intellectual knowledge and/or skills that have been defined as necessary to be qualified to practice the profession. Professions also have a shared body of knowledge stemming from academic research as opposed to proprietary information that may or may not be empirically verified. In addition, professions have regulatory agencies that have the power to admit members based on qualification criteria, sanction members by enforcement of rules and regulations, and bar membership for those who are not in compliance with regulations and codes of ethics. Most professions have state-sanctioned licensing or regulation (Bullock, Stallybrass, & Trombley, as cited by Grant, 2003; Williams, as cited by Grant, 2003).

Making the concept of professional coaching a reality by continuing to develop what is needed for coaching to become a legitimate, well-defined profession raises some interesting professional concerns. What competencies and/or degrees are needed to be considered qualified to coach? Are these qualifications the same for all kinds of

coaching? Who should determine who is qualified to coach? Who should regulate coaching? Can one organization alone determine the competencies needed and/or required for coaching across the broad context in which coaching is done? Should each discipline in which coaching exists standardize the practice of coaching by developing its own competencies and credential its own coaches? Are the ICF coaching competencies upon which ICF credentialing is based applicable and sufficient for all coaches in all disciplines? For coaching to become a profession, is more than credentialing needed and, if so, specifically what is needed?

In summary, an examination of the literature reveals that more questions have been asked than answered in the literature thus far. The development of coaching as a true profession, rather than a service industry, has been slow. Authors presenting proprietary material have encumbered a clear and universally accepted definition of coaching that encompasses the variety of contexts in which it is used. The development of coaching as a distinct and useful helping intervention is at a crossroad.

Theoretically grounded principles of coaching must be identified and researched for coaching to become a widely respected profession based on scientific knowledge and universally accepted theory. Moving toward a scientist practitioner model as called for by Grant (2004) is a step in that direction.

Recommendations for Future Research

Empirical research is needed to develop assessment tools for accurately measuring the efficacy of coaching. These tools must be designed to measure both the coaching skills and client outcomes. The tools must also be specific for the context in which coaching is used, similar to what has been done in sports with the Coaching

Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). MODOONO (2002) offers an inventory designed for executive coaches to identify critical elements and behavioral competencies that are stipulated as necessary to be an effective and successful coach, yet no assessment of the list was done to suggest the efficacy of their use. Future research should include additional studies that verify published assessment tools if they are to be used in coach training programs. Although many peer-reviewed articles suggest factors that contribute to a successful coaching intervention, few articles present controlled studies to substantiate the claims made.

Additional studies designed to record coaching skills used in taped coaching sessions may also provide researchers with information regarding coach behaviors that contribute to successful coaching outcomes when combined with measurements of satisfaction with quality of life indices. Assessment done by a third party specifically trained to accurately record both coach and client behaviors would aid in eliminating bias of self-reporting concerning skill level and implementation of coaching techniques.

Additional research that assesses measurement tools specifically designed for use in a coaching intervention would aid researchers in designing outcome studies that target well-defined result criteria. Designing several tools specific for various professional and personal aspects of coaching may prove to be beneficial in identifying coaching competencies specific for coaching sub-specialties such as spiritual coaching, AD/HD coaching or relationship coaching. Identification of core competencies needed for coaching in specific sub-specialties is important for consumers to be able to accurately choose a competent and well qualified coach who will meet their coaching needs.

Significance for Social Change

Life coaching holds great potential as a helping intervention for the non-clinical population. Coaching properly utilized to achieve balance and satisfaction with life at work and home could have a tremendous impact on the psychological and physical well-being of numerous individuals. All too often, helping interventions are not sought until symptoms of dysfunction appear in our social, psychological, medical, or financial status (Katschnig, 1997). Life coaching is a supportive intervention that, when utilized to enhance performance and achieve satisfaction, holds the potential to prevent dysfunction and enhance the quality of life for many. To assure that life coaching will have a positive social impact, more empirical outcome studies are needed to validate its usefulness and provide evidence based knowledge for both consumers and coaches.

Concluding Remarks

The practical implications of coaching as a helping intervention are many. Claims have been made that coaching can facilitate the improvement of self-efficacy, motivation, goal achievement, competency, decision-making skills, life management skills, and resiliency. It has also been suggested that problems with adherence, accountability, and procrastination can be overcome with the support of a well-qualified and experienced coach. These are practical and valuable goals, yet many individuals have a difficult time achieving results on their own. Coaching is an intervention designed to help individuals achieve success in these areas by facilitating skill development and providing the support and structure that is often needed by many to achieve performance related goals.

The increased popularity of professional coaching raises the question of its social significance. Recent societal trends indicate that large numbers of people have turned to

the self-help movement seeking answers for life's challenges (Norcross, 2000). The self-help literature is but one of the foundations upon which coaching draws from. Others include similar helping professions. Does the increased utilization of professional coaching services indicate that coaching is filling a gap in the range of helping interventions currently available? Is it a process designed for helping individuals achieve their desired outcomes when therapy, consulting, self-help literature, and/or support groups are either insufficient or inappropriate mechanisms for achieving the results, or is coaching just a new name for what is currently available by different labels? The future of the coaching profession may lie in answering these critical questions.

Comparing and contrasting the models of coaching presented in the literature suggests that many of the techniques and skills used in coaching share similarities with psychotherapeutic interventions, yet the purpose for which the techniques and skills are used is very different. Although coaching models vary tremendously and the context in which coaching is used is very broad, the literature suggests that most forms of coaching are aimed at facilitating performance enhancement for the purpose of fulfillment on a personal level, even when working within organizations and teams to accomplish corporate goals.

The literature, with few exceptions, makes it clear that coaching is not an appropriate intervention for emotional healing and/or treatment of psychological conditions. The majority of authors (Creane, 2003; Dawdy, 2004; Diedrich, 1996; Ducharme, 2004; Frisch, 2001, Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Grant, 2002; Kiel et al., 1996; Laske, 1999a; Olivero et al., 1997; Peterson, 1996; Quick & Macik-Frey, 2004; Richard, 1999; Tobias, 1996; Witherspoon & White, 1996) agree that coaching can be

used to facilitate behavioral change and help clients have more productive and fulfilling careers and lives. The vast majority of authors suggest that clients be referred appropriately for psychotherapy (Brotman, 1998; Ducharme, 2004; Kilburg, 1995; Laske, 1999a; Levinson, 1996; Sperry, 1993; Tobias, 1996; Traynor, 2000; Wasylyshyn, 2005) when it is determined that psychological issues or conditions are thwarting a client's progress.

The ability to make an appropriate referral when needed raises another important issue critical to the success of the coaching profession. What qualifications are needed to recognize the situations in which a client's needs are best met through a psychotherapeutic intervention? Professionals within the field still need to come to consensus regarding this issue. There are those who suggest that only qualified psychologists can make this determination, therefore only psychologists should be coaches. Others disagree, suggesting that coaches can be trained to discern a well-defined list of “red flags” indicating the need for referral for a psychological assessment.

Not all individuals seeking professional help for behavioral change need psychotherapy in the many forms that currently exist. There are a number of individuals who have had therapy in one form or another, to cope with clinical conditions or heal emotionally from psychological challenges, who need a different kind of support to continue to change, grow, and become successful at creating the fulfillment they want in their careers and personal lives. There is also another population of individuals who have never needed psychotherapy, but still need the support and structure that coaching provides when defining and accomplishing personal and professional goals. The needs of

both populations suggest a gap or void in what is currently available within the range of helping professions.

The social significance of a new profession that meets the needs of both populations of people who fall into the category of needing non-psychotherapeutic help is great. We are a technologically and industrially advanced nation dependent upon productivity to sustain our nation's wealth and way of life. Professional and personal coaching aimed at performance enhancement in the workplace and personal fulfillment can be seen as an important means of achieving productivity. Achieving personal or professional fulfillment has the potential of reducing stress and stress-related illness. The effects of increased productivity with decreased sick days, extrapolated to a large population of individuals, could produce significant financial and sociological benefits for our nation or any society.

As mentioned, professional coaching is at an exciting crossroad in its development. The future of coaching depends upon many decisions that have yet to be made by those who are currently in the occupation of coaching and by those who study and research the field of coaching. For coaching to sustain itself as a useful helping intervention, professionals in the field have to rally in support of clearly defined operational techniques and conduct empirical research studies that validate their use. The issues that professional coaches need to address are clear - coaches must develop a shared body of knowledge that is based on peer-reviewed research focused specifically on coaching.

Fads come and go in every profession, yet evidence-based methodologies continue to be used and refined by those professionals who become informed consumers

of current research in their field. Professionals who critically review and find ways to utilize current research not only help those they serve, they are true leaders within their professions.

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