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The *ICPR* is an international publication with a focus on the theory, practice and research in the field of coaching psychology. Submission of academic articles, systematic reviews and other research reports which support evidence-based practice are welcomed. The *ICPR* may also publish conference reports and papers given at the British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology (BPS SGCP) and Australian Psychological Society Interest Group in Coaching Psychology (APS IGCP) conferences, notices and items of news relevant to the International Coaching Psychology Community.

Case studies and book reviews will be considered. The *ICPR* is published by the BPS SGCP in association with the APS IGCP.

1. Circulation

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

2. Length

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

3. Peer review

This publication operates a policy of anonymous peer review. Papers will initially be desk reviewed by the editorial team, to confirm they meet the scope and focus of the journal. At the sole discretion of the editor/s the paper will be sent to two independent reviewers, with the aim of a review within 21 days. The reviewers will not be aware of the identity of the review and any markings, references, etc., will be removed from the paper to ensure the anonymity of the author/s. Authors are asked to remove any information about the authors, including self-citations, acknowledgements, affiliations, etc., to ensure a blind review. These can be added following the review if the paper is accepted.

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Editorial

Yi-Ling Lai

IT IS my absolute pleasure to join the *ICPR* editorial team, working with Professor Jonathan Passmore and our partner in Australia, Dr Michael Cavanagh to continue the development of evidence-based coaching by publishing high quality coaching psychology papers. I have been a member of BPS Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) since 2010 and published my first PhD study in *ICPR* in 2014, I would like to call *ICPR* 'home' in my academic publication career.

Following Professor Passmore's endeavour to advance the scope and quality of *ICPR*, we will further the transformation through the following numerous ways in 2021. First, we will carry on the digitalisation of *ICPR* to reduce the impact of print and distribution on the environment. To promote the distinctiveness of papers published in *ICPR*, we have invited authors to address a short highlight of their papers, and these 'highlights' will be shared respectively on a regular basis through SGCP social media domains, such as Twitter and LinkedIn. The main purpose is to engage our authors, audiences and SGCP members for further discussions and potential collaborations. Second, we are restructuring and expanding our editorial board by inviting experts from a wider background in coaching. We aim to further the quality of our published articles by adding on new editorial board members' insights. Here, I hope you can join me to welcome one of our new editorial board members, Dr Gil Bozer from Sapir Academic College, Israel. Dr Bozer has published numerous excellent workplace coaching studies and review papers, we regard Dr Bozer will bring novel perspectives into our future published manuscripts. Last, but not the least, we have made plans to grow *ICPR* farther by

calling an additional annual special issue. As coaching has a strong educational element which is evident in practice, we would like to welcome empirical, theory-driven discussion papers, and short reports on coaching in education practice or policy-related reports (either coaching for staff, managers or students) by 30 September 2021. Please visit *ICPR* webpage or contact ICPRsubmissions@bps.org.uk for submission details. Dr Manfusa Shams, who has continually committed to *ICPR* editorial board, will join me to co-edit this 'Coaching in Educational Sectors' special issue.

In the first Issue of 2021, I am delighted to present five papers from an international field of highly respected coaching academics covering many of the core themes in workplace, executive and educational coaching. In addition, we include three book reviews which address essential guidelines for coaching practices and research administration.

The first paper by Anna Kane, Rachel Lewis and Joanna Yarker investigates the Embodied, Dynamic and Inclusive (EDI) model of self-confidence in executive coaching. Building upon current coaching approaches which mainly focus on personal attributes, cognitive and motivational aspects over physiological experiences, EDI model captures the dynamics of Loss of Confidence and building a Confident Performance and identifies the role Mindset plays in the coaching process. The second paper by Sophie Fanshawe, explores educational psychologists' (EPs) views and experiences of coaching and indicates ambiguity in both the understanding and practice of coaching. Fanshawe also points out the lack of professional confidence and the type of service in which EPs work as well as a need

for clarity regarding how coaching can be used in the educational setting. The third paper by Eva-Maria Graf and Frédéric Dionne presents the first part of their review which took stock of coaching research in the year 2020 regarding its history, findings and current trends. Given the ever-growing systematic reviews of coaching, Eva-Maria Graf and Frédéric Dionne focus on eight international meta-analyses published since 2010 and administer a comparative analysis with relevant empirical studies in the context of negative effects of coaching in Germany. This review reveals coaching research has moved beyond its quest to substantiate that coaching works towards also exploring success factors and now investigating risk factors of coaching. The fourth paper by Heike Thomas investigates coaching in the mergers & acquisitions (M&A) process by drawing upon insights from M&A experts, representing different industries and cultures. Leadership and culture in the organisation are identified as essential considerations when leveraging coaching in the M&A process. The final paper also by Anna Kane, Joanna Yarker and Rachel Lewis presents a systematic review on self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem in the workplace setting and elaborates the potential use of these three theoretical frameworks in the coaching engagements. This review identifies 15 measures which could be used workplace coaching context.

Furthermore, we include three book reviews in this issue. First, Julie Flower reviews *Becoming a Coach: The Essential ICF Guide* by

Jonathan Passmore and Tracy Sinclair and indicates that this book offers both established and coaches-to-be with an integrated guide to development, underpinned by the latest ICF evidence-based models and competencies. Second, Claudia Day reviews *INdivisible – Radically Rethinking Inclusion for Sustainable Business Results* by Rebekah Steele and Arthur Maitland. Claudia Day's review stresses on a very timely awareness and corporate development in today's world, 'diversity and individual differences' have been raised for the enhancement of learning and development in the organisation (e.g. coaching). Finally, Tia Moin reviews *Doing Coaching Research* edited by Peter Jackson and Elaine Cox and suggests this book is well-suited for postgraduate students embarking upon research in the field of coaching psychology from a pragmatic perspective.

Finally, as editor, I am keen to open up *ICPR* to all coaching researchers and practitioners by welcoming your empirical studies, theoretical discussions or project reports (5000 to 6000 words). Please feel free to contact us if you have any suggestions and thoughts regarding the future improvement of *ICPR*.

Please take extra care of yourself and your loved ones during this challenging period.

Happy New Year and I hope you enjoy this issue.

Dr Yi-Ling Lai

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The development of the Embodied, Dynamic and Inclusive (EDI) model of self-confidence; a conceptual model for use in executive coaching

Anna Kane, Rachel Lewis & Joanna Yarker



This paper offers a model of self-confidence for use in executive coaching. Self-confidence is an important coaching topic, yet our understanding of what it is and how it can be developed is limited to narrower concepts of self-efficacy and self-esteem. Current approaches are static and focus on personal attributes, cognitive and motivational aspects over physiological experiences and pay insufficient attention to diversity. Using an embodied interview approach with a diverse sample of 27 employees, we propose an Embodied, Dynamic and Inclusive (EDI) model of self-confidence that contains the components of Authenticity, Competence and Connectedness. The EDI model is unique in that it captures the dynamics of Loss of Confidence and building a Confident Performance, and identifies the role Mindset plays. We discuss our main contribution to the literature; that confidence is embodied and dynamic. We also explore what impact our research has on coaching.

Keywords: Coaching; self-confidence; model; embodied; dynamic; inclusive.

Introduction

Current conceptualisation and measurement of self-confidence

SELF-CONFIDENCE is important in coaching. Fillery-Travis and Lane (2007) describe self-confidence as one of the

overarching skills of the executive and argue that coaching research should look directly at whether skills such as self-efficacy have improved and assume an impact on the bottom line through the link with performance.

First, self-confidence and the related construct of self-efficacy, is an antecedent of affective coaching outcomes (de Haan et al., 2016). Second, research has shown enhanced self-efficacy as an outcome of coaching (Evers et al., 2006). Third, and perhaps most importantly, self-confidence is important in coaching because of its strong and enduring link to performance. Taking self-confidence as an overarching skill, arguably it contributes to enhancing leaders' performance across a range of areas. Moore (2016) reported 10 frequent coaching topics for C-Suite level leaders, mostly skills required for effective leadership performance such as listening, influence, communication, building teams and strategy. In their meta-analysis, Staikovic & Luthans (1998) reported that increased self-confidence was associated with a 28 per cent increase in work-related performance outcomes.

Coaches can play an important role in supporting leaders to understand and develop self-confidence and in turn enable them to enhance their performance across a range of leadership skills.

With such importance placed on self-confidence, it is curious to note in the literature that authors frequently use the term self-confidence interchangeably with self-esteem or self-efficacy (Hollenbeck & Hall, 2004; Kolb, 1999; Lenney, 1977; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Stankov et al., 2015). The conceptual overlap between self-efficacy and self-esteem is well recognised (Brockner, 1988; Tafarodi & Swann, 2001). Personal self-efficacy is an individual's belief in their ability to succeed in a specific situation or complete a task (Bandura, 1977), while authors tend to define self-esteem as the evaluative dimension of the self-concept (Baumeister et al., 2003; Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991; Hewitt, 2005) such as self-acceptance, self-worth and self-liking (Kernis, 2003).

This interchange of terms and concepts can have implications for coaches who need to ensure their interventions are focused appropriately in order to achieve the desired

impact. Such overlaps have potential to cause confusion for coaches turning to the literature for guidance on the best tools to use to measure self-confidence. Blascovich and Tomaka (1991) reviewed self-esteem measures and Stankov et al. (2015) reviewed self-efficacy measures. Both reviews featured the Personality Evaluation Inventory. Consider the real-life implications of a leader with low self-esteem coming to an executive coach who inadvertently measured and worked on low self-efficacy with the leader. They would be unlikely to solve the leaders' issue to satisfaction and may cause further issues of enhancing the leader's task-focus at the expense of their regard for self.

In an effort to gain clarity, Kane et al. (2021) examined how self-confidence is measured, as a way to develop a representation of an established conceptualisation. They conducted a systematic review of measures (including self-efficacy and self-esteem) and identified 15 relevant measures. Five themes were found 1) Relationship with self 2) Competence, 3) Seeking and Offering Help, 4) Social/communication, and 5) Appearance. Self-efficacy and self-esteem were found to be thematically distinct. Self-efficacy was comprised of competence, social/communication, and seeking and offering help, whereas self-esteem was comprised of relationship with self, appearance and competence. The review also highlighted three specific methodological and conceptual limitations: the static nature of self-confidence measures; omission of embodiment or physiological factors; and limited diversity of participants used to develop measures. These measures do not comprehensively measure the construct of self-confidence, particularly for use within the context of executive coaching. We argue that unless these limitations are overcome, coaches will be restricted in the extent to which they can fully support clients' growth of self-confidence.

This study therefore aims to develop a conceptual model of self-confidence that can be used by coaches to understand,

measure and develop self-confidence in coachees.

Overcoming the limitations of existing conceptualisations and measures of self-confidence

The three limitations identified by Kane et al. (2021), and the proposed alternative methodologies to counter them, are discussed here with reference to the proposed aim of the current study.

Static nature of self-confidence measures. We have seen from the workplace research that self-confidence does not operate in a social vacuum. Gruenewald et al. (2004) show that interactions where the social self is threatened, cognitive, emotional and physiological responses including loss of self-confidence, a sense of shame and increased cortisol are elicited. This research implies that self-confidence functions within a social context, it is not a static phenomenon. Yet most existing models conceptualise and measure self-confidence as a static construct without attending to the social context. For example, the Self-Liking and Self-Competence scale (Tafarodi & Swann, 1995), a robust and well-designed measure, conceptualises global self-esteem as having two dimensions: a sense of social worth – self-liking, and a sense of personal efficacy – self competence. Self-liking and self-competence are then measured by asking respondents how much they agree or disagree to statements such as ‘I like myself’ and ‘I tend to devalue myself’ (Tafarodi & Swann, 1995, p.341). This measure essentially provides a baseline rating of an individual’s self-confidence. This is useful but restricted in use in that coaching as ‘static’ conceptual models do not provide insight into what happens when one loses self-confidence or needs to build the confidence to perform at work. Furthermore, many scales measure an individuals’ efficacy or esteem based on personal attributes (Betz et al., 1995; Fan et al., 2013; Grieve et al., 2014; Schyns & Von Collani, 2002; Sherer et al., 1982; Tafarodi & Swann, 1995). Whether in relation to private

or interpersonal domains this emphasis on the personal offers only a partial view of the individual and their social interactions (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). Therefore, we propose that the conceptualisation of self-confidence should include dynamic and socially constructed components.

Omission of embodiment and physiological factors. In the extant literature, cognitive and motivational aspects prevail, while physiological factors have been largely overlooked. Bandura (1977) refers to physiological states as one of the four principal sources of information in personal efficacy expectations, yet some measures featured in our review did not acknowledge the importance of physiological states despite being based on Bandura’s (1977) theory (Schyns & Von Collani, 2002; Sherer & Maddux, 1982). Physiological states were recognised as important by some researchers who developed measures, yet physicality or embodiment of self-efficacy were not present in their methodology nor was their omission discussed to offer insights into why physicality or embodiment was not included (Fan et al., 2012; Smith & Betz, 2000). Embodiment has been linked with higher self-esteem (Impett et al., 2011; Tolman et al., 2006), and researchers have validated self-esteem measures by examining correlations with factors that are arguably physiological as well as psychological such as social anxiety, wellbeing, depression and stress (Betz et al., 1995; Tafarodi & Swann, 1995). In acknowledgment of the importance of physiological states noted by Bandura (1977), we propose an embodied methodology. In the literature, embodiment is seen as both a state of the body and an interaction with other bodies in the social environment (Ellingson, 2017; Merleau-Ponty, 1945:2012; O’Loughlin, 1998; Perry & Medina, 2011). Thoughts, feelings and behaviours are experienced from within one’s body and arrive into awareness through the senses (Meier et al., 2012; Tantia, 2014). Pursuing an embodied methodology may allow any social, dynamic and embodied nature of self-confidence to emerge.

Limited diversity of participants used in development. Blascovich & Tomaka (1991) have criticised authors of paying too little attention to the diversity of participants when developing frameworks or measures to assess self-esteem. Authors frequently used high level descriptions. Examples from the literature include ‘the total sample consisted of 301 participants’ (Grieve et al., 2014, p.72), and ‘Participants were 844 (391 women and 453 men) students’ (Tafardodi & Swann, 1995, p.333). Limited consideration is given to factors such as sexuality, ethnicity, socio-economic status, job role and industry. The increasing recognition of different experiences of diverse workplace populations, means there is a need to consider whether the current conceptualisations and measures reflect and serve the needs of a diverse range of coachees. This study is aligned with the overarching goal of feminist values in research to create spaces to disclose lived realities of difference and generate evidence to address these (Jenkins et al., 2019). The feminist concept of intersectionality speaks to how we understand the organisation of human life along lines of race, gender, sexuality, class and more, and how we respond to this reality (Mojab & Carpenter, 2019). We propose that a conceptual model of self-confidence be developed using a diverse sample of workplace perspectives including transgender and cis women and men, non-binary individuals, and a range in terms of ethnicity, sexuality, socio-economic status, age, profession and industry to feel relevant and meaningful to all.

Existing conceptualisations and measures of self-confidence are static, they overlook the role of social context and physiological factors, and do not reflect the diversity and complexity needed to develop and measure self-confidence in the workplace. As such this study draws from a qualitative approach to develop a contemporary model of self-confidence for use in workplace coaching that aims to overcome the limitations of existing conceptualisations and measures, and provide coaches with a model

that will serve the needs of a diverse range of coachees.

Method

The methodology employed in this study aimed to address a number of the limitations noted in past research and the research team took a series of steps to recruit and engage a diverse participant pool and ensure credibility of the approach.

Participants: Driven by our awareness that, historically, insufficient attention has been given to possible group, subcultural and cultural biases in self-esteem assessment (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991), we specifically targeted diverse employees.

Steps to enhance credibility: the use of staff networks and Facebook transgender and non-binary support groups facilitated the otherwise difficult recruitment of non-binary individuals; social media and professional networks were also used.

We then adopted a two-stage approach to recruit interview participants to ensure representation of minority groups. At the first stage, a 13-question survey was used purely to establish participants’ working status, work experience, industry, occupation, age, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, socio-economic status. This survey was used purely to attract people interested in taking part in an interview, no data was analysed. At the second stage, we carefully hand selected and invited a purposive sample of participants from the survey to take part in the interviews. Care was taken in selecting participants to ensure a range of ethnicity, sexuality, genders, socio-economic statuses, ages, professions and industries were represented.

Ethical considerations were given to ensure participant anonymity, informed consent was received, vulnerable participants were treated with appropriate care and consideration, and participant data was stored securely. Having completed the interviews, we thought it would be interesting to report the participants’ neurodiversity as well as mental and physical disability. A second survey was emailed to collect this data.

Interview: The interview was semi-structured, with two main questions: one asking for an example of when they felt high in confidence, the second when they felt low in confidence. Probing questions enabled exploration of physical, emotional, cognitive, speech and social experiences.

In response to two of the limitations in existing research, the static measures and oversight of physiological factors, we used an embodied interview approach. Embodiment is both a state of the body and an interaction with other bodies in the social environment (Ellingson, 2017; Merleau-Ponty, 1945:2012; O'Loughlin, 1998; Perry & Medina, 2011). The embodied approach to research serves to empower 'public intellectuals to spark positive social change, particularly with underserved and marginalised communities' (Ellingson, 2017, p.1). There is also a wider call for greater attention to the physical body in organisational and leadership development research on the basis that research not taking account of physiological processes alongside cognitive ones is incomplete; researchers are seeing great promise in bringing the body back into accounts of social relations (Boyatzis et al., 2006; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; Wright & Diamond, 2006). We started interviews with a body awareness practice to facilitate the embodied interview, which both the researcher and the participant took part in just before the start of the questions. This practice brings both individuals intentionally into their bodies, so their dialogue is more than an exchange of words. Cognisant of the potential ethical implications of the participant-researcher power play, the option to decline the body-awareness practice before the interview was offered; all except one participant took part.

Thematic Analysis was the basis for our interview data analysis as it allows the researcher to identify, analyse and report patterns within data. It was important to choose a methodology that enabled description of patterns across qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The initial coding used a process of mind mapping. Mind mapping is considered to be an effective tool for gathering, interpreting and communicating large quantities of complex information, and ideal for capturing ideas and insights (Mento et al., 1999). Next the data was coded in Excel and repeated in Nvivo before comparing all three outputs. It resulted in overlapping, unique and contradictory codes. The researcher was 'holding space for philosophical contradictions without resolving them' (Ellingson, 2017, p.152).

Our embodied approach extended from interview through analysis. The lead researcher listened carefully to her whole mind-body to guide her analysis, using meditation for guidance or practised meditative movement which has also been termed 'Percolating Data' (Daza & Huckaby, 2014, p.803). While allowing themes to emerge, she also moved back and forth between data and theoretical literature. Mazzei and Jackson (2012, p.746) call this 'plugging one text into another' and view the process as one of opening up knowledge and of proliferation, as opposed to ruling out and simplifying. The process resulted in five overarching themes, each with sub-themes.

Results

Five overarching themes relating to self-confidence were identified in the analysis: Authenticity, Competence, Connectedness and Mindset and Confident Performance. However, rather than discrete themes, the data suggested a dynamic model.

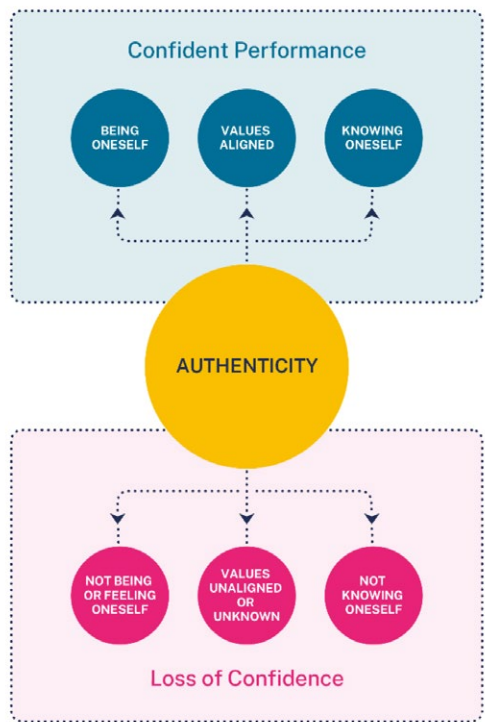
We propose self-confidence is composed of three interrelated components; Authenticity, Competence and Connectedness; influenced by Mindset and resulting in a Confident Performance.

Within each of the three overarching themes of Authenticity, Competence and Connectedness, the sub-themes enable us to identify what is happening during a Confident Performance or during a Loss of Confidence. Figure 2 shows the component Authenticity and its sub-themes: Being

Figure 1: The three components of self-confidence



Figure 2: The component Authenticity and its sub-themes



Oneself, Values Aligned and Knowing Oneself, for a Confident Performance and sub-themes for a Loss of Confidence.

Figure 3 shows the component Competence and sub-themes for a Confident Performance: Knowledge, Skill and Affirming Feedback and sub-themes for a Loss of Confidence.

Figure 4 shows Connectedness and its

sub-themes: Engaging with Others, Support and Sense of Belonging, for a Confident Performance and sub-themes for a Loss of Confidence.

When Authenticity, Competence and Connectedness are in place and interacting, the response can be a Confident Performance: Showcasing, Embodied, Articulate, In-flow. It can feel like an upward spiral,

Figure 3: The component Competence and its sub-themes

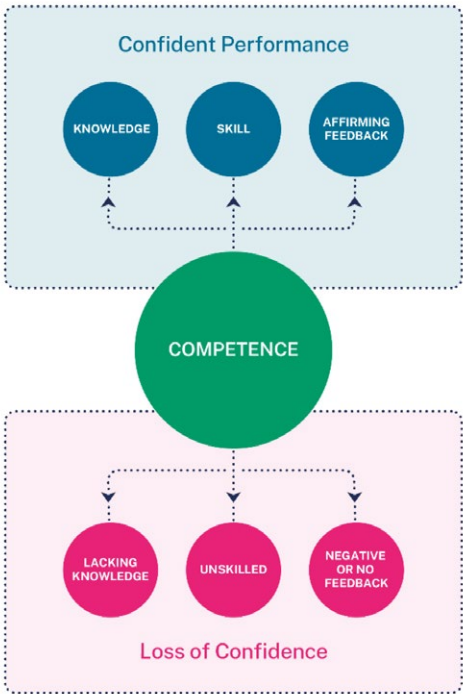


Figure 4: The component Connectedness and its sub-themes

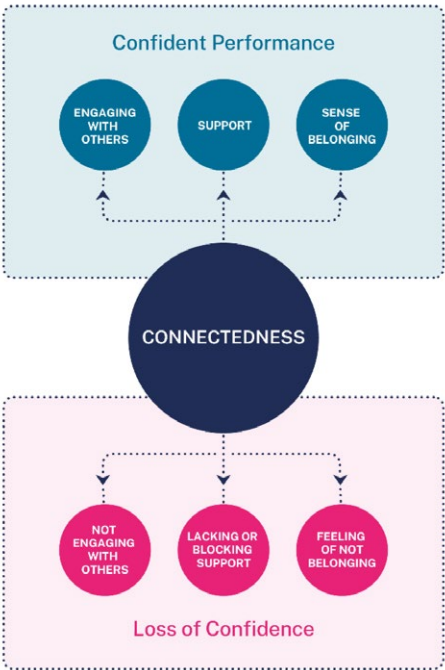


Figure 5: The dynamic flow of the upward and downward spiral associated with the interacting components and mindset

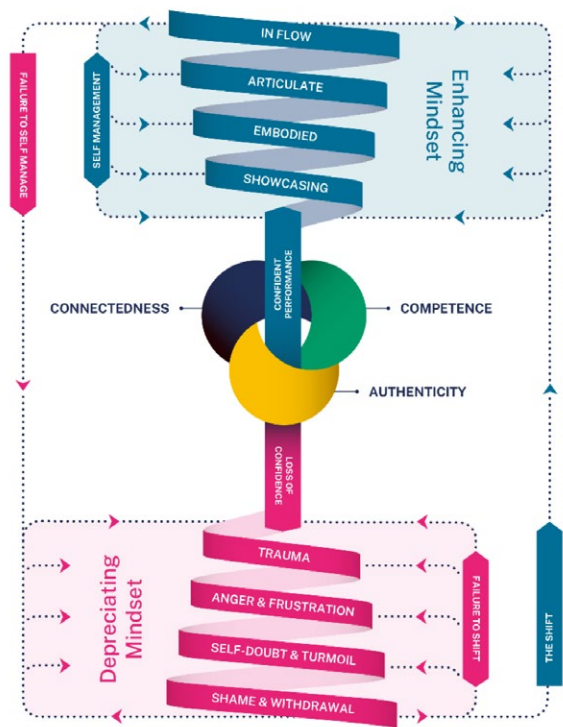
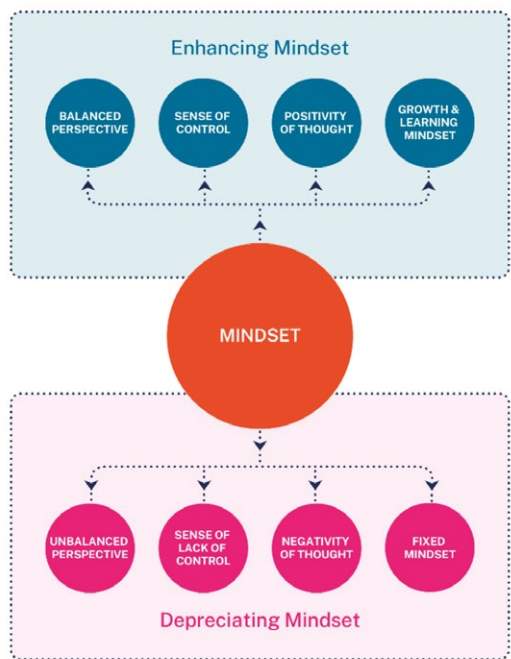


Figure 6: Enhancing Mindset, Depreciating Mindset and sub-themes



unless there is a failure to Self-Manage, at which point, Loss of Confidence is possible.

When one or more of the components is missing or removed, our findings suggest that the reaction is likely to be Loss of Confidence: Trauma, Anger & Frustration, Self-Doubt & Turmoil, Shame & Withdrawal. It was described as feeling like a downward spiral. Most participants reported the need to experience all phases of loss before a shift occurs, and that the shift usually happened when the missing component(s) are (re) introduced. If the shift is not experienced, then the individual risks remaining in a state of Loss of Confidence. This interactive and dynamic flow of self-confidence has been illustrated in Figure 5.

Mindset was reported to act like a lens or magnifying glass for many participants. An Enhancing Mindset was described as strengthening a Confident Performance and helping individuals move quickly through the loss phases with clarity. It is made up of four sub-themes: Balanced Perspective, Sense of Control, Positivity of Thought, and Growth and Learning Mindset. Those who described a Depreciating Mindset also reported that this intensified Loss of Confidence and prevented the shift through to a Confident Performance. It also appeared to blur the stages of Loss of Confidence or create resistance to the phases and which in turn tends to slow down or even freeze the process. Depreciating Mindset is made up of four sub-themes: Unbalanced Perspective, Sense of Lack of Control, Negativity of Thought and Fixed Mindset.

Authenticity is the first of three components. Here Participant (P)15 is telling the interviewer their internal dialogue to begin with and then they switch to explaining how having the confidence to physically express their gender identity positively impacts their confidence at work when giving a presentation:

'OK, you've been going out in a skirt and tights for a good few years now erm, ten years before that I couldn't have imagined myself having the confidence for that and I still

don't know exactly where that confidence comes from. Erm, and it's just that I've made at least part of that change helped me to get through the presentation... starting to understand and relate to myself is has been a big boost' (P15)

Other participants also explained their authenticity:

'Yeah, it's feeling you know there's, you know highs there's, you know good moments and it's those, that confidence of being able to, OK I'm more, I feel more, I feel better in myself, more certain of myself and then being able to explore facets, maybe like facets and aspects of myself that I'd not previously been remotely motivated to poke at with a stick' (P12)

'I interact with my team, and I sit in team meetings, that's when I feel I have lots of confidence. I can be myself' (P4)

'I think is the person that I am, and it's me being authentic... It is, erm, translating, err, the person that I am, erm, both in terms of character and personality, and the values that I have, err, into my day to day work' (P14)

Competence is the second of three components:

'I just feel like having the background knowledge that I have of it from being in it for so many years, it's made me just have a high level of confidence... it was that last final thing where you could just literally stand on the stage and look at every single person there being in your venue enjoying what you'd basically created. That was an amazing feeling actually' (P17)

'It was kind of empowering, uplifting, confidence building, hey, I can do this, yeah, course I can do this, erm, I've done it before, and it's just nice to use other old skills, so, skills that I'd acquired elsewhere' (P6)

'I mean sometimes I get really good feedback, and, and that really helps me like be a bit more confident, and, and everything' (P11)

'Knowing my knowledge, knowing err, the political aspects, knowing the technical aspects, knowing the people involved erm, and advising erm, company directors of national companies erm, that I certainly wouldn't be recommending something and giving reasons behind it and confident that those reasons would be erm, backed by erm, the councillors the political erm, members, yes' (P13)

Connectedness is the third of three components:

'we have team meetings every week.... we lean on each other a lot, erm, we run ideas past each other, we give each other advice, we erm, we mentor each other, and we just, we just have each other's backs... maybe cos I'm more confident, I will sit in the meetings, and I will actually, actively contribute rather than waiting, a bit more... it's because they're on the same level as me, and we've got the same views on things' (P4)

'You're trying to get a message across... get them to understand what the message is and if they are not, then trying another way of doing that... so you are engaged I guess, it's the only way to say, with the people in the room' (P22)

'It felt really good that he wanted me to be there so that probably made me feel a little bit more confident and felt that I did have a voice and a say in that in that' (P5)

'But they kind of get it, and they're quite the same, it's like, we need a walk, we need to, we need to get out, talk about what's happened, what's been said, erm, and yes, I have got colleagues that I will go and say, oh, what about this then, and they'll say, I know, or they'll say that to me' (P3)

Mindset:

'it made me feel like I was more in control of the situation because I could leave when I wanted, I would have the security, it was on my turf, I knew what was going on... I would say that that whole kind of episode actually built my

confidence... reflect upon it and maybe take a different perspective and then that helps you readjust and come back feeling, I've lived through that now, I've seen it, I know what it's like' (P10)

'OK well "what's next?" I suppose and erm, and it's done, I, I, I, I'm happy with what's happened so far so I've got a bit more confidence going into the next step' (P25)

'It was like that sort of, that That lovely combination of erm, of fear and love you know, so, and almost never the twain shall meet but when they do it's like a lovely comfortable, fluffy explosive feeling and you think, and it is relief but it's also slightly fearful, but we all know that risk and fear can sometimes pan into something quite lovely you know' (P7)

'It's just sort of a kind of a confidence, I suppose, the kind of feeling when you know you're in charge, you've got a job to do, you know how to do it, it's gonna be done' (P9)

Confident Performance:

'It's like a performance... I'm probably then more expressive with my hands and things more, move around the room... you kind of show it in your movements.... Walking around the room a bit you know. Trying to just move around, I think it's important to move around space as well... I'll try and use language which is a bit more, I don't want to say grown up but a bit more, professional... suddenly something pops into your mind, and you quickly say it, and you haven't thought about it ... in that moment of doing the training and feeling at ease, I would have just been talking and not thinking about what I was gonna say next.... Just get over it you know.... So, it's just me managing myself.' (P1)

'I had to lead the way and erm, at the same time kind of thinking I also have to impress her... I kind of had to remember all the processes and procedures to go through err, so that I could show my manager kind of what,

what it is we do in the correct way... I stood up straight, tried to kind of keep my head up and not look down at the floor erm, kind of like make eye contact with the person that I was speaking to... it was quite assertive in as much as I was asking the operator direct questions erm, in a non-hostile way but you know quite a serious way erm, and quite concise. I was you know I wasn't really making general chit chat, I was getting the information I wanted to get. Erm, so yeah, I mean I would say that was the general tone of it... I just sort of kept calm and tried to keep a clear head... I was quite focused... I was so focused on what I was doing that I couldn't hear or see anything else going. There was quite a lot going on around me and I was kind of oblivious to it cos I was just focusing on the one thing, like with the one task I was doing... So, I, my usual mental preparation is you know if I get a negative reaction, it's not about me, it's you know, it's bigger than that so just don't take it personally erm, and in practice it works better because you know I'm representing something bigger, and it's not just me versus them' (P18)

This participant draws on metaphors to describe their Confident Performance where they were interacting with a customer:

I think it's the expression of skill... uhm.. you know the... it's all well and good practicing guitar alone in your room but it's better if you have an audience... you sort of sit up a bit, square your shoulders, as it "ok then, we get on with this, it's good"... there were no missed beats in the conversation, it just went "ah yes, this is the perfect interaction"... it's sort of like an internal flow diagram, flow chart, it's, you get an input, you run it through what, I need this thing from this place and then come back with the information, it's not really flavoured by anything because it's just number crunching. but you reach for and it's there...' (P21)

Based on the analysis of the interview data, the EDI model is operationalised in our definition of a confident performance:

'A confident performance is experienced in the mind, body and emotions in response to all three components (authenticity, competence and connectedness) occurring, interacting and being positively influenced by an enhancing mindset. Loss of confidence is a reaction to one or more components missing and being negatively influenced by a depreciating mindset.'

This is the EDI model of self-confidence, capturing the embodied, dynamic and inclusive features that set our model apart from existing conceptualisations.

Discussion

Drawing from an embodied approach and a diverse participant sample, our findings have led to the proposition of a conceptual model that more clearly articulates self-confidence as a dynamic process. The emerging model is composed of the interactive overarching themes of Authenticity, Competence and Connectedness. Unlike other models, ours also conveys what happens when an individual experiences Loss of Confidence and what is needed to develop a Confident Performance, with Mindset being situated as playing an integral role in increasing or decreasing self-confidence.

Contributions to the literature and applying our understanding to coaching interventions

While remaining grounded in sound research methodology, aspects of this research has enhanced our understanding of self-confidence in five ways because it:

1. Responds to the need for a dynamic model
2. Moves beyond cognitive and emotional concepts to embodiment
3. Reflects workplace diversity
4. Identifies the role of mindset
5. Conceptualises self-confidence as a broad factor

The need for a dynamic model arose from our criticism of existing conceptualisations of self-confidence in that they tend to be static models, they are not sufficiently socially

oriented. Existing models provide a baseline rating of self-confidence, which is beneficial, but our model also offers an opportunity to describe the dynamic aspect of what happens when confidence is lost or built. We highlight the experiential nature of losing or growing confidence through spirals that resonate with Fredrickson's (2004) broaden-and build theory of positive emotions.

The EDI model suggests that a Confident Performance requires social factors such as being Articulate and Showcasing one's work. Loss of Confidence also appears to contain social emotions such as Shame and Withdrawal which could not exist without a wider social workplace. We conclude that our model is more reflective of the true determinants of self-confidence in the workplace. Coaching conversations should reflect this. Topics could include the art of giving and receiving feedback, giving and receiving support from colleagues and creating inclusive environments where a range of individuals feel secure being themselves and have a sense of belonging.

We moved beyond cognitive and emotional concepts to embodiment in an effort to address a lack of attention to the body in existing conceptualisations of self-confidence. Features of our model reflect that embodiment has an important role to play in self-confidence, such as an Embodied Confident Performance, and the strong physical experiences reported during Loss of Confidence, in particular the Trauma phase of loss.

Considerations for coaches seeking to develop confidence in their clients might mean a more embodied approach is appropriate. If self-confidence is experienced as an embodied interaction with the world, then we suggest it should be developed as such.

We reflected workplace diversity in our methodology by ensuring a wide range of perspectives were sought out. As such, we believe that our research has contributed to the coaching community by enriching and broadening our understanding of what self-confidence is.

We argue that coaches will be better placed to develop the self-confidence of a more diverse range of individuals by using our model to inform interventions. This in turn will give organisations access to a wider pipeline of talent and leaders.

The role of Mindset in determining one's self-confidence was reached in our research by exploring self-confidence as a dynamic construct. Dweck (2012, p.6) who labels mindset as either fixed or growth describes the former as 'believing that your qualities are carved in stone – the fixed mindset creates an urgency to prove yourself over and over'. While growth mindset is 'based on the belief that your basic qualities are things you can cultivate through your efforts.... Everyone can change and grow through application and experience' (Dweck, 2012, p.7). As far as we are aware, mindset does not feature heavily in any of the existing conceptualisations of self-efficacy or self-esteem. Yet we argue it plays a crucial role in the dynamics of building and maintaining a confident performance at work, and the restoration of confidence after the inevitable experiences of losing confidence. As such, coaches should build this into their conversations.

A broad factor has merits over specific factors in psychology. Specific factors that have been split by psychologists to make fine distinctions give little consideration to their possible core, whereas broad factors have potential to explain the overlap in measures. For example, Judge et al. (2002) found a single factor to explain the strong relationship between self-esteem, neuroticism, locus of control and generalised self-efficacy. We propose our model of self-confidence is a broad factor.

In the literature, the term self-confidence is widely used, yet ill-defined and frequently confused with self-efficacy and self-esteem. The thematic review of 15 self-confidence measures conducted by Kane et al. (2021) found self-efficacy and self-esteem to be distinct constructs with five themes arising from the scales. We compare these themes

Table 1: Comparison of Kane et al.'s (2021) conceptual review, existing self-confidence concepts and our model

Conceptual review	Existing self-confidence concepts		EDI model
Appearance	Self esteem		Authenticity
Relationship with self	Self esteem		Authenticity
Competence	Self esteem	Self-efficacy	Competence
Seeking and Offering Help		Self-efficacy	Connectedness
Social/communication		Self-efficacy	Connectedness

with the EDI model, see Table 1 above. Authenticity, Competence and Connectedness in the EDI model map onto all five themes that arose from self-esteem and self-efficacy. These findings serve to explain the inter-changeable use of self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem in literature. It also supports the conclusion that the construct of self-confidence is broader than either self-efficacy or self-esteem (Stankov et al., 2015). We also note that Loss of Confidence and Mindset do not feature on the table which serves to highlight that existing models do not capture these themes, and coaches should ensure their work is not restricted by a narrow understanding of the concept.

Limitations and future research

Our self-confidence model arose from qualitative research, to enable satisfactory understanding, measurement and subsequent development of self-confidence in coaching.

Limitations

We sought to identify a broader model, yet identify the risk that the conceptualisation can be too broad and factors might not relate to a higher order core construct. It is possible that we have found a cluster of constructs that only have minimal relation. As such we have identified a number of further research areas that in conjunction could address this concern, and help further address the three main limitations we sought to overcome.

Dynamic: Firstly, self-confidence is not static, and it operates in a social context. We believe quantitative empirical validation of the model could be beneficial. In particular, the dynamic nature of our model lends itself to both state and trait. Research on the Loss of Confidence and Confident Performance as states of self-confidence, and the core components and Mindset as trait self-confidence warrant further exploration. Understanding the impact of specific coaching interventions on mindset and self-confidence through research and exploration from the perspective of Dweck's model might support our theory that an Enhanced Mindset plays the role we suggest it does.

Physiological: The second limitation we identified was that physiological factors have been largely overlooked in measuring self-confidence. We echo other researchers' calls for greater attention to the body in leadership and organisational research (Boyatzis et al., 2006; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; Wright & Diamond, 2006) and to pursue more contemporary research approaches as demonstrated in our method. We also encourage coaches to consider embodied coaching for developing self-confidence.

Diversity: While our research focused on diversity and inclusion to overcome the third limitation, we acknowledge that neither interviewers were male, BAME, nor had disabilities and they reported as neurotypical. It is possible this influenced and limited our research findings, and researchers with other

identities may have had a different interview and analysis insights. As such we have sought to share our research as openly as possible to provide readers with the opportunity to make their own interpretations.

Without intention, and despite efforts to sample broadly, no participants from lower socio-economic status came forward for interview, and our sample of black and ethnic minority participants was smaller than desired, despite best efforts to reach out to a wide background of participants. We acknowledge these restrictions within our sample may render our model less meaningful to those coaching clients, as such this is also a recommended area for further research. We believe the research was significantly enriched by expanding gender categories beyond the traditional binary norms; as such we encourage researchers to engage non-binary and transgender individuals in research as a matter of course.

Conclusion

This study aimed to address three limitations of existing conceptualisations and measures of self-confidence; the static nature of measurement; the omission of embodiment and physiological factors; and limited diversity of participants used in development. Through incorporating experiences of self-confidence from a diverse population and giving due consideration to embodi-

ment in our methodology, our study suggests that self-confidence is a broad, dynamic construct. We encourage future research to consider context, embodiment and diversity in the consideration of self-confidence and the implications of its presence or absence when coaching. In practice, the EDI model, of Authenticity, Connectedness and Competence, with Mindset can be used for individuals, teams and organisations across a range of topics, in combination with a range of approaches, to enhance coaching that aims to optimise a Confident Performance.

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Exploring educational psychologists' views and experiences of coaching: A mixed methods study¹

Sophie Fanshawe



Coaching psychology is an emerging sub-discipline of coaching and represents a unique approach to practice in educational psychology. This research sought to explore educational psychologists' (EPs) views and experiences of coaching in practice.

Phase 1 of the research obtained EPs' views of coaching whilst Phase 2 explored the experiences of EPs who use it in practice. Both quantitative and qualitative data was collected, through the use of online questionnaires in Phase 1 (N=119) and semi-structured individual interviews in Phase 2 (N=10). Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and frequency statistics, Chi-square analysis, independent t-tests and Tukey HSD tests, whilst the qualitative data was subject to a mixture of content and thematic analyses.

The findings of this research suggest that there is ambiguity in both the understanding and practice of coaching. However, 81 per cent of participants believe that it fits with the practice of educational psychology, whilst 93 per cent believe that it will have a future in educational psychology. A number of barriers to practice were identified, including a lack of professional confidence and the type of service in which EPs work. Consideration is given to the implications of this research for the future practice of EPs, and suggestions for future, evidence-based research are presented.

Objectives

THE aim of this research was to explore educational psychologists' (EP) views of coaching and the experiences of those using

it in practice. Phase 1 of the research explored the views of EPs, whilst Phase 2 explored the experiences of those using coaching in practice.

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Introduction

Coaching is an emerging practice in the field of educational psychology (Lee, 2017); its increased use over the last two decades has led to more research in the area (Adams, 2016; Lai & Palmer, 2018; Palmer & Whybrow, 2018) and its contribution to educational psychology is increasingly recognised (van Nieuwerburgh, 2018; Wang, 2018). However, there are few studies currently available which explore the impact of coaching psychology in educational settings (Adams, 2016). This suggests that the practice of coaching in educational psychology is still developing and highlights the need for further research (Palmer & Whybrow, 2018; Short et al., 2010; Wang, 2018).

The distinction between coaching and coaching psychology has been the subject of much academic debate and the question remains as to whether there are clear distinctions between the two (Allen, 2016; Lai & Palmer, 2018; Palmer & Whybrow, 2018; Passmore et al., 2018). Adams (2016) highlighted that the recognition of coaching psychology as a distinct aspect of psychological practice and research is 'a relatively recent phenomenon...[emerging] in Australia and the UK at the turn of the twenty-first century' (p.232). The British Psychological Society (BPS) formally recognised coaching as a distinct subdiscipline of psychology within the last decade (Ryan, 2018).

Coaching psychology focuses on the systematic application of psychology to enhance the life experience, work performance and wellbeing for individuals, groups and organisations (Green et al., 2006). It is a branch of applied positive psychology (Kauffman, 2006; Madden et al., 2011; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007), developed from the humanistic psychology movement of the 1950s (Palmer & Whybrow, 2007), which focuses on enhancing performance, development and wellbeing (Adams, 2015; Grant, 2006; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007). Coaching psychology is informed and underpinned by a variety of psychological models and approaches (Adams, 2015; Allen, 2016; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007).

Research into coaching has undergone significant growth in recent years (van Nieuwerburgh, 2018), in line with increased public and professional interest in its use (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2007; Stober & Grant, 2006) and the introduction of government initiatives in the United Kingdom such as The National Strategy (Department for Education and Skills (DfES), 2003) and the National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching (CUREE, 2005), both of which highlight the potential value of coaching in education (Lee, 2017).

Interest in the efficacy of coaching has only recently developed, with the majority of research into developing its evidence-base having been conducted within the last decade (Lai & Palmer, 2018). A number of meta-analyses and systematic reviews have served to highlight the potential psychological merit of coaching (for example, the work of Bozer & Jones, 2018; Grover & Furnham, 2016; Jones et al., 2015; Lai & McDowall, 2014; Theeboom et al., 2014).

Although coaching psychology which utilises the principles of positive psychology and focuses on optimising wellbeing has been identified as valuable in the context of education (Barr & van Nieuwerburgh, 2015; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), the way coaching is applied is diverse; evidence suggests that it can be used to support a wide range of needs at different levels in schools, colleges and universities (van Nieuwerburgh, 2018). Consequently, there is continued interest in the use of coaching in education (Gormley & van Nieuwerburgh, 2014), with the past 10 years highlighting an increase in the use of coaching in educational settings (van Nieuwerburgh, 2018).

Cameron and Monsen (1998) outlined how coaching is relevant to the EP role; it could be applied in various contexts and may help to diversify practice (Adams, 2016). Research also indicates that psychologists' training, knowledge and skills makes them well placed to practice as coaches (Brotman et al., 1998; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007; Kilburg, 1996; Sperry, 1996).

Methods

Ethical approval for this research was received from the University of Exeter ethics committee on 19 April 2018.

This research adopted a pragmatic epistemological stance and used a mixed-methods, as opposed to a mixed-model, design; the two phases of research were conducted sequentially, and the findings integrated within an overall discussion. Quantitative and qualitative data was gathered using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews respectively. A sequential approach was chosen as equal status was given to both the quantitative and qualitative datasets due to the exploratory nature of the study. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p.15) argued that 'epistemological and methodological pluralism should be promoted in educational research'. This fits with the argument of Creswell (2009) who suggested that research in educational psychology is often used to inform policy and theory as well as practice suggesting that the approaches taken and the outcomes of research should be equally diverse in order to adequately inform its objectives.

Phase 1

The aim of Phase 1 was to explore EPs' views of coaching. To do this, a questionnaire was developed and shared online through a professional email forum and by email through the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP). There were no pre-set criteria for participation; the questionnaire was open to both qualified and trainee EPs (TEPs).

The quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires was analysed using descriptive and frequency statistics. Further analysis was conducted using chi-square statistics, for which the data was grouped in three ways: comparing TEPs to qualified EPs, by years of experience, comparing TEPs to EPs with 0–8 years of experience and with 9 or more years of experience, and by experience of those who reported using coaching and those who did not. Post-hoc analyses using independent t and Tukey HSD tests were also conducted to determine where

the significances indicated by the chi-square analysis existed. Qualitative data obtained from the free-text questionnaire items was subject to content analysis.

Phase 2

Phase 2 explored the experiences of EPs who use coaching. 10 interviewees were randomly selected from the 24 who registered their interest in taking part in an interview following completion of the questionnaire. The interview schedule consisted of eight open-ended questions designed to explore the participant's use of coaching, the contexts in which they practiced, the models used, how useful they felt coaching was and any barriers they had experienced. The transcribed interview data was analysed using Braun and Clarke's (2006) six stage thematic analysis framework. From the initial codes, emergent themes were generated. These were refined into six main and three global themes. A holistic thematic analysis was conducted to explore overall connections between interviewee experiences.

Results

Phase 1

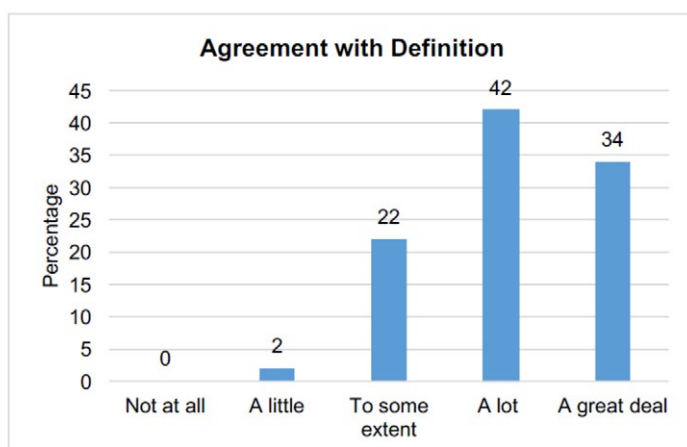
In total, 119 EPs completed the questionnaire, including both in-training ($N=43$, 36 per cent) and qualified ($N=76$, 64 per cent) EPs. The total number represents just over 2 per cent of the total population of EPs in the UK (based on figures obtained from the HCPC in the summer of 2018). Amongst qualified EPs, 13 per cent were in senior roles ($N=16$) and 9 per cent were principals ($N=11$). Accordingly, the years of experience amongst participants varied; 24 per cent had between 1 and 8 years of experience working as an EP ($N=28$), 11 per cent had 9–15 years ($N=13$) and 25 per cent ($N=30$) had more than 15 years.

Defining coaching

All participants agreed to some extent with a given definition of coaching:

Coaching is a form of helping relationship, in which the coach builds a relationship with the

Figure 1: Agreement with definition of coaching



coachee in order to facilitate the development of the coachee's performance, learning, and support them to make positive changes in their life and situation (adapted from Adams, 2015; Downey, 2003; Zeus & Skiffington, 2002).

76 per cent of participants strongly agreed with the definition (42 per cent 'a lot' ($N=50$), 34 per cent 'a great deal' ($N=41$)). No significant differences were found when comparing participants by qualification, years of experience or experience in using coaching.

Coaching's fit with EP practice

Overall, 81 per cent of participants felt that coaching fits with EP practice (37 per cent a lot ($N=44$), 44 per cent a great deal ($N=52$)).

Only 5 EPs (4 per cent) felt that there was little or no place for coaching in practice. Chi-square analysis showed that, compared to TEPs, qualified EPs felt that coaching fits more with practice. No significant differences were found when comparing participants by years of experience or experience in coaching. However, 58 per cent of EPs with 9 to 15 or more years of experience reported feeling that coaching fits 'a great deal' with practice, whilst only 35 per cent of those in training gave the same rating.

Impact of coaching in practice

Participants rated the likely positive impact of coaching in practice highly and the negative impact as very low. Overall, 79 per cent ($N=93$) of participants strongly felt that coaching could have a lot or a great deal of positive impact, whilst 91 per cent ($N=108$) felt there would be little or no negative impact. No significant differences were found when comparing participants by qualification, years of experience or experience in using coaching. However, participants who rated themselves as being less experienced in coaching (having no, little or some experience) rated the positive impact of coaching less highly ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 0.72$). In contrast, those who had 'a lot' or 'a great deal' of experience in coaching rated the positive impact more highly ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 0.76$). Content analysis of the comments regarding whether coaching is perceived as a valuable addition to practice highlighted that coaching was described by three EPs as a unique addition to practice, whilst the majority ($N=30$) suggested coaching as an additional tool or set of skills which could be offered. A further 12 EPs described coaching as being implicit to practice; one stated that 'many of us do this [coaching] automatically', whilst another outlined how coaching

Figure 2: Coaching's 'fit' with EP practice

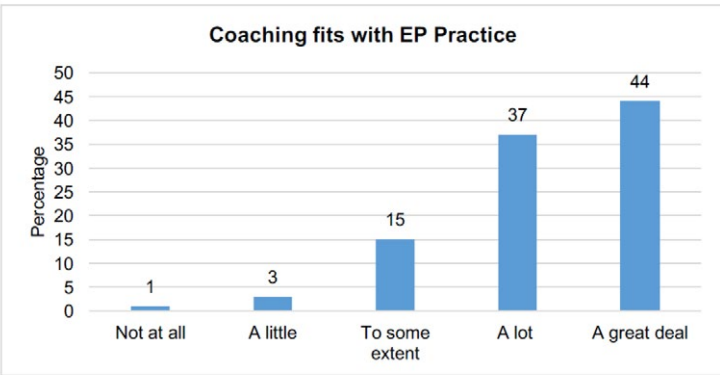
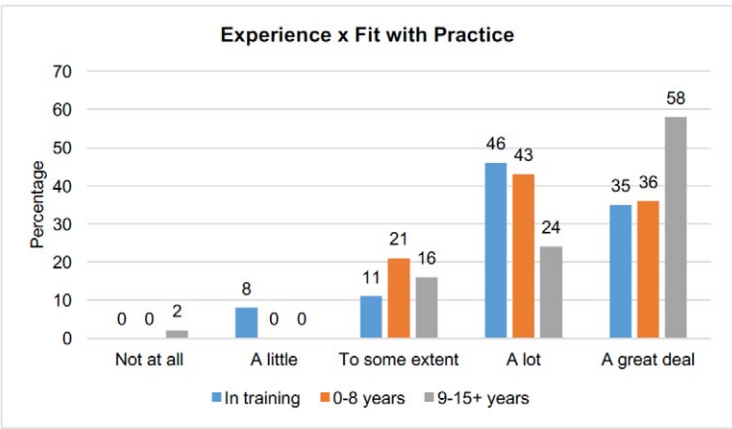


Figure 3: Coaching's 'fit' with EP practice, grouped by years of experience



is 'just part of the process of what we do'. Several barriers to the practice of coaching were identified. Eight EPs felt it could be confusing if coaching was used as part of consultation. Time was also cited as a barrier to practice ($N=5$), as well as the conceptualisation of coaching as an 'expert' model, which highlighted the need for coaching to be implemented carefully.

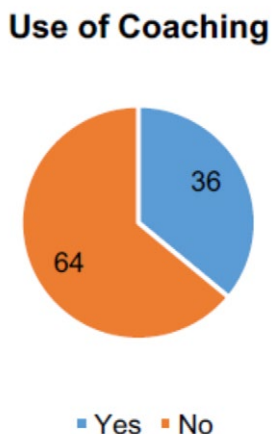
Use of coaching

Participants were also asked about their use of coaching. Sixty-four per cent ($N=76$) of participants reported not using coaching in their practice. Thirty-six per cent ($N=43$) said that they use coaching, but only 27 per cent ($N=32$) reported 'a lot' or 'a great deal' of experience. This suggests that coaching is

being used, but amongst those who are using it, there may be a lack of experience and/or confidence.

Further analysis highlighted a significant difference in the use of coaching between TEPs and qualified EPs; 49 per cent ($N=37$) of EPs used coaching, compared to only 14 per cent ($N=6$) of TEPs: $\chi^2(1, N=119) = 14.35, p < 0.05$. An independent samples t-test showed that this difference was also significant, $t(117) = 4.41, p < 0.05$, illustrating that fewer TEPs use coaching. This may reflect the need for TEPs to focus on learning core skills and meeting the competencies required for successful qualification, which may limit their ability to engage in other practices. A significant difference was also found depending on participants'

Figure 4: Participants' use of coaching



years of experience ($\chi^2(2, N=119) = 12.02, p < 0.05$). Over half (54 per cent, $N=23$) of EPs with more than 9 years of experience reported using coaching, compared to only 39 per cent ($N=11$) of EPs with 0–8 years' experience and 19 per cent ($N=9$) of those in training. Tukey HSD tests indicated that EPs in training ($M = 1.8, SD = 0.39$) used coaching significantly less ($p < 0.05$) than those with more than 9 years of experience ($M = 1.47, SD = 0.50$). This suggests that more experienced EPs feel more confident engaging in practices beyond those which would be typically associated with the work of EPs. It is also likely that experienced EPs are in more senior roles and so may have greater professional autonomy to practice in a more diverse way.

Experience in coaching

Participants were asked to rate their level of experience in coaching. Overall, 50 per cent ($N=59$) of EPs reported little or no experience. There was a standard deviation of 1.3 ($SD = 1.25$) suggesting that responses varied and there was a range of experience. Chi-square analysis found a significant difference when comparing the responses of TEPs to those of qualified EPs ($\chi^2(2, N = 119) = 8.37, p < 0.05$). Qualified EPs reported

more experience in coaching compared to TEPs; 35 per cent ($N=15$) of TEPs had no experience compared to 17 per cent ($N=13$) of qualified EPs. Furthermore, 26 per cent ($N=20$) of EPs reported 'a lot' of experience, whilst only 7 per cent ($N=3$) of TEPs gave the same rating. Qualified EPs' mean rating of their experience was 2.88 ($SD = 1.24$), whilst for TEPs the mean was 2.1 ($SD = 1.13$). An independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the mean scores was significant, $t(117) = 3.24, p < 0.05$. These results are in line with what would be expected, as the nature of the trainee role means that generally their experience is less. Chi-square analysis also showed a significant difference based on years of experience ($\chi^2(1, N=119) = 7.80, p < 0.05$). Tukey HSD tests indicated that EPs with 9 to 15+ years of experience ($M = 3.09, SD = 1.31$) reported more experience in coaching compared to those with 0 to 8 years of experience ($M = 2.54, SD = 1.10$) or in training ($M = 2.23, SD = 1.15$). Content analysis regarding EPs' experience in coaching highlighted that, of the 98 who provided a comment, 16 had no experience. Twenty-seven used coaching in schools, with staff, students and parents as well as other colleagues. Fifteen EPs used coaching in a non-specific manner whilst

a further 20 referred to specific training experiences, although there was variation in the training received. Fourteen EPs used coaching as a supervisory tool or as part of consultation, whilst six had received coaching themselves.

Future of coaching in educational psychology practice

EPs were also asked the extent to which they believe coaching will play a role in educational psychology in the future. The majority (93 per cent, $N=109$) felt that coaching will have some future in practice. However, the mean response was 4 ($M = 3.6$), suggesting that many EPs feel uncertain about coaching's future, although there remains a tendency to rate it positively.

No significant differences were found when comparing participants by qualification, years of experience or experience in using coaching. Content analysis of EPs' views highlighted that, of the 58 who provided a comment, 17 felt that coaching should be included in doctoral training; one EP stated that coaching 'could be considered an essential orientation for EPs'. However, an almost equal percentage of EPs described how greater awareness of coaching was

needed; it was felt that general knowledge about coaching was lacking, both for EPs and for the recipients of coaching.

Coaching and doctoral training

When asked about whether they felt coaching should be included in doctoral training, 62 per cent ($N=74$) of EPs agreed, whilst 35 per cent ($N=41$) responded with 'maybe'. Only 3 per cent ($N=4$) felt that coaching should not be included

These findings are of interest when considered in conjunction with the responses shown in Figure 5, which suggests that 93 per cent ($N=109$) of EPs felt that coaching would have a future in educational psychology. This discrepancy suggests that there is uncertainty about how that future may evolve, especially if coaching is not included in doctoral training. A significant difference was found when comparing participants by their level of experience in using coaching ($\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 4.78, p < 0.05$). This perhaps indicates a higher level of confidence and belief in coaching as an approach to practice amongst those who have more experience in using it.

Figure 5: Participants' views of the future of coaching in EP practice

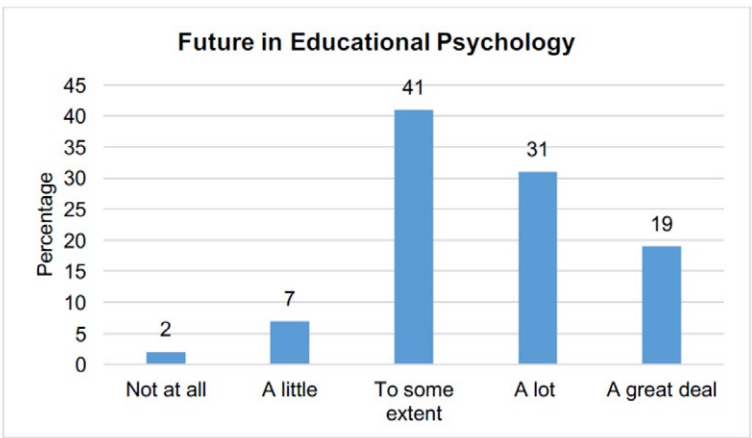


Figure 6: Participants' views of the inclusion of coaching in doctoral training

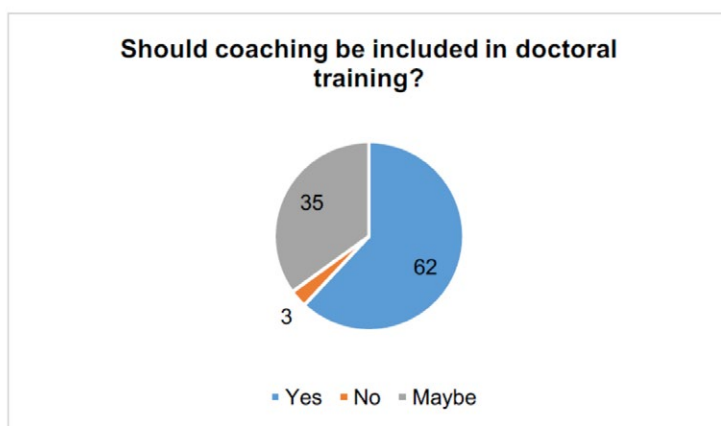
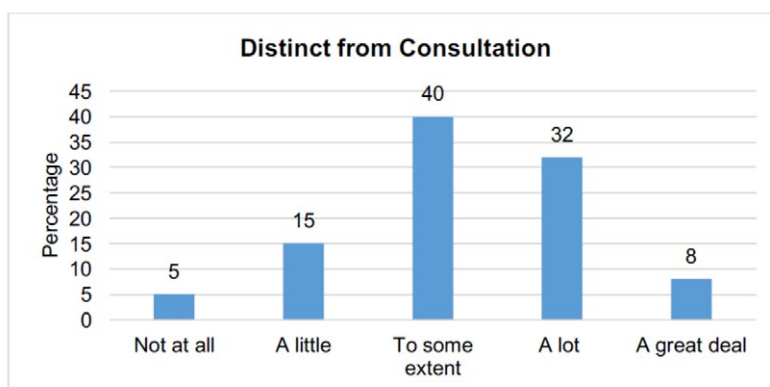


Figure 7: Distinctiveness of coaching



Coaching and consultation

Twenty per cent ($N=24$) of EPs felt there was little or no distinction between coaching and consultation, whilst 40 per cent ($N=47$) felt there was some difference. A further 40 per cent ($N=48$) believed there was a strong distinction to be made between coaching and consultation.

The mean response was three ($M = 3.24$), suggesting that the majority of EPs rated coaching as distinct 'to some extent'. However, the standard deviation was 1 ($SD = 0.98$), suggesting that the responses varied. The spread of data is roughly equivalent to a normal distribution curve, which indicates uncertainty regarding the distinctiveness of coaching. No significant differences were found when comparing participants by quali-

fication, years of experience or experience in using coaching.

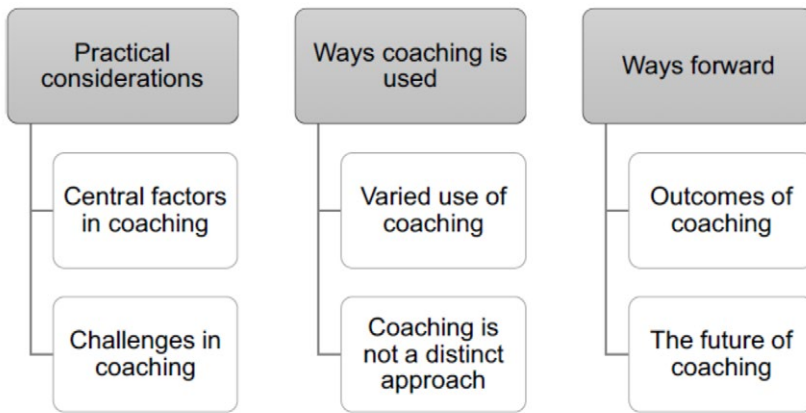
Phase 2

The transcribed interview data was initially analysed at the level of each interview question, using thematic analysis to explore themes relating to the aim of exploring EPs' experiences of using coaching. The codes for each dataset were grouped into emergent themes. Further analysis of data resulted in the generation of six associated main and three global themes.

Use of coaching

A common theme identified was that coaching is used in a variety of ways; one EP (participant 4) used coaching 'in many

Figure 8: Global and main themes



guises’ (page 1, line 17). Furthermore, despite the common perception of coaching as an ongoing package of support, two EPs described using coaching in single sessions; coaching ‘can just be a one-off’ (participant 10, page 1, line 8), whilst participant 4 described how they used coaching as:

‘...listening spaces – a bit like surgeries – where a teacher brings, or a parent brings – an issue and it’s just a single session but they bring an issue that they want to have some time with an EP with and so using a coaching model for that’ (page 1, line 17).

Professional autonomy

Another key theme was that of professional autonomy; a number of EPs described coaching as an optional approach to practice. For example, one stated that ‘there are probably some psychologists who are more interested in doing it than others’ (participant 3, page 3, line 146) whilst another outlined how they felt that ‘coaching models should be an option to people to learn it and then try it out’ (participant 1, page 3, line 149). This analogy of coaching as an approach to be selected from a variety of options was further reflected in the ways it is applied. Participant 3 explained how they had their ‘own sort of structure’ in coaching and, although this EP was ‘aware of some

of the coaching frameworks, such as the GROW model and so on, [they didn’t] stick particularly to those’ (page 1, line 45–46). Providing an explanation for this movement away from models, participant 8 (page 2, line 115–116) described how they felt that the frameworks weren’t flexible enough, noting that ‘coaching models are often quite rigid and so therefore there feels like an expectation that if you’re going to follow the model to its fidelity then you sometimes are missing things’. Despite this notion of autonomy, many EPs highlighted how structures can be applied. For example, participant 5 (page 4, line 212–213) felt the frameworks provide ‘a model for going in there’ and give ‘a structure to using solution-focused thinking’. Another EP (participant 7, page 3, line 167–170) commented how ‘learning coaching really brought home the importance of having structure in these conversations, flexible structures that we don’t necessarily adhere to rigidly, but it gave me different structures that I could use to scaffold the conversation’. The frameworks of coaching, such as the IGROW model, were also felt to be transferrable, with one participant stating how they felt the model can also be applied to guide consultation practices.

Outcomes of coaching

The outcomes of coaching were another main theme. In particular, the idea that coaching enabled change, both for the coachee and the EP delivering it. Participant 9 (page 2, line 106) felt coaching resulted in 'sustainable change', whilst participant 3 outlined how 'when coaching's going well, people do really make quite a lot of changes' (page 2, line 99–100). Participant 6 felt coaching had 'created a paradigm shift in my work' (page 4, line 203–204). The concept of change is closely linked to another emergent theme: the benefits of coaching. Two EPs (participants 2 and 3) described how coaching helped build confidence for the coachee, whilst an overwhelming majority (seven out of 10) described coaching as 'empowering'; participant 6 found coaching to be 'transformational at both a personal and professional level' (page 4, line 217). Coaching was also felt to be a 'positive', 'facilitative' tool, helping individuals believe in themselves and their capabilities. Participant 7 described how coaching had enabled individuals to understand that '[their goal] is possible and that they can make time to do it' and can help them 'go further in their thinking than they otherwise would' (page 2, line 86; page 1, line 8).

Impact and evaluation of coaching

The impact of coaching and how it is evaluated appeared to be a contentious issue; similar to the ways coaching is used, there was variation in how it was evaluated, if at all. A number of EPs referred to specific evaluative processes, such as using questionnaires, standardised tests or scaling as pre and post measures. One EP (participant 9, page 3, line 152–153) highlighted that the type of evaluation 'depends on what you [are] trying to achieve from doing the coaching...'. Scaling was identified as a positive tool for evaluation as 'school [and]... parents can relate to it' (participant 1, page 2, line 107). Evaluation was also particularly valued when coaching was used over time, with several EPs describing how they facilitate an evalu-

ative conversation or questionnaire after the coaching engagement.

The coaching relationship

The coaching relationship was identified as a central factor in determining how the process developed. Participant 3 described the relationship as central to their work, stating that they felt the process was entirely facilitated through the relationship. Similarly, another EP described how 'most of what happens in a relationship like this is about the relationship you create, not about anything you bring' (participant 2, page 4, line 211).

A holistic and future-focused approach

It was outlined how, as well as focusing on the individual, coaching also enabled the coach to build a more holistic picture of the situation. Participant 3 described how, when used to support teaching practice, coaching 'gives you a chance to think about their whole practice – and not just their work with one or two students' (page 1, line 25–26). Coaching was also felt to be helpful in providing coachee with the space to share. Participant 4 stated that coaching is 'giving them the space to co-construct the solution' (page 1, line 8); another EP described this opportunity as 'vital' and that coaching provided 'a safe, non-judgmental, reflective space to be able to talk openly' (participant 7, page 2, line 119–121).

Coaching was described 'a purposeful helping relationship towards a targeted outcome', with 'the outcome as the key thing' (participant 6, page 1, line 57–58; page 3, line 168). In particular, there was a focus on coaching as a future-focused approach; all EPs mentioned the use of solution-focused practices. However, it was felt that these were not able to fully account for the reality of the coachee's situation, which could undermine the efficacy of the coaching process: 'they can't really fully engage in the coaching – they can't start thinking about what might happen next, they just need to kind of get it off their chest' (participant 9, page 2, line 98–99).

Challenges of coaching

Two main themes relating to the challenges of implementing coaching were identified: boundaries and barriers. In terms of boundaries, one EP (participant 5, page 3, line 161–162) described the difficulty she had when working with a student; she felt that he ‘had become a little bit dependent’ on the coaching relationship. Questions were also raised regarding the boundaries of practice, with one EP (participant 3) asking ‘where some of the boundaries might be between coaching and counselling and how to manage that’ (page 3, line 136–137).

Half of EPs mentioned time as a constraint in practice. For the EPs who focused on student coaching, timetabling was an issue; ‘the biggest challenge may be that actually it’s finding the time to take them out [of lessons] regularly...’ (participant 5, page 3, line 155–156). For teacher coaching, finding cover for lessons was another constraint (participant 4, page 4, line 222). One EP working in a Local Authority (participant 3, page 3, line 147–149) described how service level agreements posed a challenge because ‘it depends a little bit on how much time [the settings] have’. EPs also discussed the importance of needing to find opportunities to use coaching; one felt ‘there aren’t many suitable opportunities...due to the nature of the work that I’m doing at the moment’, citing statutory work as a constraint (participant 8, page 2, line 126–127). Additionally, the willingness of schools to use EP time for coaching varied; ‘there’s a real sort of practical challenge too in just getting schools to use us in that way’ (participant 3, page 2, line 130–131). This is potentially further compounded by a lack of awareness about coaching:

‘I think the main challenge I would say is because it’s novel to people and so...there isn’t a public image of what coaching is... So I think the fact that it’s not how people see EPs; they still see EPs as “you test children don’t you?”’ (participant 4, page 4, line 210–214).

Another EP also described how, even when

coaching was accepted as an approach to practice, there was a challenge in ‘helping teachers to understand what you’re trying to do and why you’re trying to do it’ (participant 5, page 3, line 174–175).

The traded model

Exploring the traded model in greater depth, and considering the financial implications for schools, participant 6 described the challenge of ‘encouraging...governors and head teachers to pay exactly the same for a coaching framework that they would for an EP framework’ (page 5, line 297–298). A number of EPs also discussed confidence as a factor, outlining how ‘psychologists need to offer [coaching] with confidence’ (participant 3, page 3, line 156) and have the ‘confidence...to integrate it into practice’ (participant 6, page 5, line 292).

The traded model was also cited as a potential opportunity, as ‘coaching lends itself well to trading’ (participant 10, page 4, line 207). Another EP (participant 3, page 3, line 171) outlined that their service is ‘helped by having a traded model’, which enables them to sell coaching to schools.

Distinctiveness of coaching

The interview data suggested that coaching is not perceived as being distinct from other approaches; it was used in a variety of ways, described as an additional tool, part of other practices and linked extensively to the practice of consultation. Seven out of 10 EPs described coaching as part of a ‘toolkit’. It was also described as common practice to integrate psychological approaches, rather than applying one in isolation. One EP described how they often drew on different elements of psychology, rather than a single, specific coaching model.

All EPs mentioned consultation when exploring how coaching was used. One EP ‘had the principles of coaching in mind in consultations’ (participant 8, page 1, line 19–20), whilst another (participant 6, page 2, line 73) felt coaching was ‘another tool to use in the consultation process’. Others

integrated the principles of consultation into coaching, outlining how 'there's a really strong core of consultation practice on which to build from, so I think the psychologists have got the skills to deliver this' (participant 3, page 3, line 162–163).

Discussion

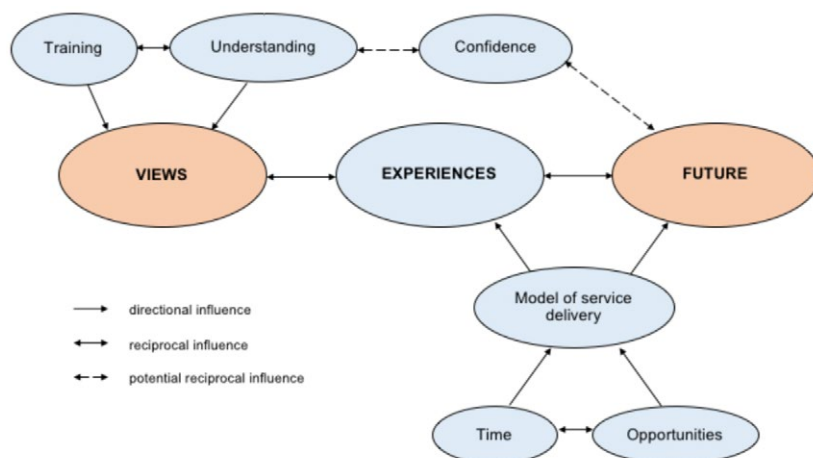
The key findings of this research are that, firstly, there is an interest in coaching but a lack of understanding about what it is. Secondly, coaching and consultation are deemed as being closely linked, either being used in conjunction or in a complementary way. Thirdly, it was felt that a lack of professional confidence could affect EPs' use of coaching and, finally, that coaching may have a future in educational psychology but that this is subject to overcoming a number of potential barriers to practice.

Figure 9 highlights the reciprocal interactions which existed between the views and experiences of EPs and their views of the future of coaching. It is suggested that EPs' views of coaching are influenced by their training in and understanding of coaching, which affects professional confidence in implementing coaching. Further barriers may mediate the experience of coaching in practice and its future in educational psychology, including the model of service delivery.

There is a generally positive view of coaching within educational psychology. As well as being seen as a valuable and flexible approach to practice, the skills of coaching were described as fundamental to the work of an EP. It was also felt that training in these skills could make a valuable contribution to future practice. This fits with the suggestion of Adams (2016) who noted that coaching may represent an opportunity for EPs to diversify their practice.

This research suggests a need for greater clarity about what coaching is and how it can be used in practice. Overall, coaching appears poorly understood amongst EPs. There is inconsistency in how it is applied in practice and it is perceived as being similar to the practice of consultation. Cumulatively, these factors suggest that coaching lacks distinctiveness and may not be considered as making a unique contribution to practice. In line with the suggestion of van Nieuwerburgh (2018), this research illustrated inconsistency in practice; coaching was applied in different ways across school systems with EPs using coaching with staff, students and parents, within supervision, and as part of consultation. Coaching and consultation are often perceived as similar (Cameron & Monsen, 1998, p.119; Ryan, 2018); they both focus on problem-solving

Figure 9: Conceptual map of coaching in educational psychology



and working collaboratively with others (Wagner, 2001), are ‘informed by the same psychological approaches’ and make use of frameworks to structure conversations (Ryan, 2018, p.61). This research indicated that EPs viewed coaching as a tool which could be used within the consultation process. It was also suggested that a coaching engagement may arise through a need identified within consultation. Within this research, coaching was felt to be a more collaborative and less expert approach than consultation; coaching enabled the EP to work alongside the coachee, helping them gain clarity and develop their skills and knowledge in practice, whilst consultation focused on the EP providing psychological advice and support to help staff problem-solve. Stout-Rostron (2014, p.124) suggested that the concept of expertise in coaching helps to further clarify its distinctiveness, explaining that ‘coaching is not about the coach giving all the answers; that tends to be the role of the consultant’.

This research also highlighted variation in how coaching was evaluated, if at all. Less formal methods were often used; more formal procedures tended to be introduced if coaching was used long-term, in order to establish its efficacy at individual and systemic levels.

Several barriers which may mediate the use of coaching in educational psychology were also identified, including finding appropriate opportunities for its use, professional confidence and the model of service delivery. For example, several participants suggested that EPs need to have the confidence to integrate coaching into their work and that a lack of confidence constrained their practice. This could be attributed to the limited evidence base for coaching; much of the research in this area has been conducted within the last decade (Lai & Palmer, 2018). Alternatively, as coaching is not currently included in all doctoral training programmes and does not yet have a formal curriculum or framework for teaching (Madden et al., 2011), it is possible that EPs have not received sufficient training in the practice of coaching and therefore do not feel confident in including it in their practice.

Without a strong evidence base, it was felt that it was difficult for EPs to clearly articulate to schools why coaching would be of value. This is a particular challenge in the field of coaching psychology as psychologists are generally expected to base their work on evidence-based data, theory and science (Boyle & Lauchlan, 2009). However, in everyday practice there is often a gap between theory and practice; EPs may borrow ideas from other professions, such as philosophy (Boyle & Lauchlan, 2009; Lunt & Majors, 2000).

Professional confidence could be positively influenced by the inclusion of coaching in doctoral training, which would provide TEPs with a theoretical grounding in the practice and potential applications of coaching. Discussion about the value of coaching in doctoral training produced unequivocally positive findings within this research; the vast majority of EPs agreed that coaching would be a positive addition to doctoral training, citing the skills as fundamental to practice and coaching as a valuable and flexible tool. However, concerns were raised about how coaching would be taught, whether there was the necessary capacity to include it in the curriculum and how to ensure that it would be well-taught across courses.

EPs in this research also reported that their use of coaching was also affected by the willingness of schools to commission them as coaches. It was felt that schools needed to be more aware of coaching as a potential service which could be offered and that without this awareness it was difficult for EPs to encourage schools to engage with coaching. It was further suggested that the absence of a public image of coaching contributed to the unwillingness of schools to accept the EP-coach role.

Coaching was also felt to be a more long-term investment for schools, both in terms of time and finance. This is an important factor when considering models of service delivery. A large percentage of LAs now adopt a part or fully traded model of service delivery (Lee & Woods, 2017). This has implications for the work EPs can complete within the boundaries of the time

paid for by schools (Farrell et al., 2006; Stobie et al., 2002; Truong & Ellam, 2014). Furthermore, with funding now increasingly being delegated to schools, decisions about how EPs work are more often determined by schools rather than the service (Gibbs & Papps, 2017). This again underlines the importance of EPs being able to present coaching to schools as a valuable approach.

Limitations

It is important to consider the limitations of this research. For example, the total number of participants (N=119) represented only 2.4 per cent of the total population of EPs in the UK. Therefore, the findings may not be generalisable to or truly representative of the wider population of EPs. However, this research was exploratory; the findings are intended to provide further information about coaching, rather than making any determinative claims. Participants were also self-selected, and it could therefore be suggested that their views lack objectivity. However, only 36 per cent of participants reported using coaching, which suggests that, although there may be some selection bias, it is unlikely that the sample was disproportionately biased towards the use of coaching.

Conclusion

This research has addressed a gap in the literature by providing an insight into the view EPs have of coaching and the experience of those using it. It suggests a lack of

clarity regarding the understanding and use of coaching in educational psychology and that its use is affected by practical barriers such as time, opportunities and EPs' feelings of professional confidence. Furthermore, it is suggested that, without a clear evidence base, coaching's application in schools will continue to be limited. The priorities for the future of coaching in educational psychology are that EPs are able to clearly communicate how coaching is used, find the time and opportunities to use it, and effectively 'sell' it to schools. There is also a need for clarity regarding how coaching can be used alongside or within consultation. It is important that the evidence base for coaching in educational psychology practice continues to be developed and that training in coaching is robust and introduced to doctoral courses.

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I am a newly qualified EP; I completed my doctoral training in 2019 and now work as a main-grade EP for Hertfordshire County Council.

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Coaching research in 2020 – About destinations, journeys and travelers (Part I)¹

Eva-Maria Graf & Frédérick Dionne



The growing international importance and professionalisation of coaching shows in a substantive gain in high-quality research. The aim of our contribution (in the form of two consecutive papers) is to take stock of coaching research in the year 2020 both as regards its history, its major findings and its current trends. This has been done repeatedly over the last few years, which in itself attests to the growing importance and relevance of coaching research. The added value of this contribution is its specific focus on eight international meta-analyses on outcome research published since 2010 and on relevant primary studies from the German-based outcome coaching research in the context of negative effects of coaching. The second part of this overview (see Graf & Dionne, Part II under review) will take the reader beyond coaching outcome research into the more recent paradigm of coaching process research, particularly into qualitatively operating linguistic analysis of coaching processes.

Keywords: Coaching (outcome) research; coaching effectiveness; positive outcomes; negative side-effects; meta-analyses and systematic reviews.

1. Setting the stage: Coaching and its (outcome) research

1.1 Introduction

■ N 2010, Peltier claimed that ‘[i]t looks like coaching is here to stay’ (ibid., p.xv) and Peterson just eight years later even argued

that ‘[o]ur field is currently evolving so fast that a new handbook makes sense every 4–5 years. Looking back, it’s clear we have come long way’ (2018, p.xxviii). Coaching, the ‘applied field of practice’ with intellectual roots in a range of disciplines (Bachki-

¹ The title is an elaboration of Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) and further develops the conceptual metaphor of COACHING RESEARCH IS A JOURNEY.

rova et al., 2018) has left its embryonic, belief-based origin and is gaining a more and more evidence-based status (Grant & O'Connor, 2019). Yet, although the past two decades have witnessed a substantial growth in its research, coaching still lacks a sound academic foundation with significant research gaps (Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018, p.518; Graf & Ukowitz, 2020). Particularly when juxtaposed with the situation in other personal and professional development practices such as psychotherapy, research on coaching is (still) less established and less prominent; reasons for this lie in its practical origin, its market success, and the multidisciplinary nature of coaching (Fietze, 2017; Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018; Schermuly, 2019). Due to certain parallels between coaching and psychotherapy, research designs and questions in the former often replicate available settings in the latter. In this vein, coaching research exists in the paradigms of outcome research dedicated to the destinations of coaching and process research dedicated to both journey and travelers of coaching (Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018; Wegener et al. (eds.), 2018).

As regards its evaluation methods, we find both quantitative and qualitative approaches in coaching research, yet with substantial differences in objectives, theory-guided vs. descriptive-phenomenological notions of science, conceptualisations of scientific quality, as well as amount and type of data processed (McDowall & Lai, 2018; de Haan, 2019). While '[q]uantitative research, in essence, takes sequences of numbers originating from coaching assignments ... and generalizes to produce statistically reliable statements applicable to all coaching assignments in the data set', '[q]ualitative research, on the other hand, starts with extensive descriptions (or recordings) of the events

themselves and thus with a detailed picture of what happens within coaching' (de Haan, 2019, p.228)².

Particularly in the field of quantitative outcome studies, coaching research has recently gained considerable ground (Kotte et al., 2016; Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018; Grant & O'Connor, 2019). While Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson (2001), for example, found only seven empirical studies up to 2000 that explored the effectiveness of executive coaching, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) (see Section 2) already base their review article on 110 peer-reviewed outcome studies on executive coaching, with 32 of them published in impact factor journals.

The aim of our two-part contribution is to take stock of coaching research in the year 2020 both as regards its history, its major findings and its current trends. This first part specifically focuses on eight international meta-analyses published since 2010 and adds relevant studies from the German-based outcome coaching research in the context of negative effects of coaching with the aim to bring this kind of research to the international coaching (research) community. To do so, we first give a short overview of the history of coaching research (see below) by sketching out the various phases of coaching research and by zooming in on the questions that dominated these phases of inquiry and the methodologies that were/are used to address and answer these questions. We thereby follow Schermuly's (2019) recent arrangement, who argues from a quantitative psychological perspective.

Our exploration into the current state of coaching (outcome) research is guided by the following questions: *What are the most prominent developmental phases of coaching research and where does coaching research stand in the year 2020?* Next, we zoom in on coaching

² The distinctions between outcome and process as well as quantitative and qualitative approaches are valid but somewhat simplified classifications of research in coaching, given that there is process-outcome research as put forward by the work of Kauffeld and colleagues and Behrendt, the latter of whom is included in our review.

outcome research and present the gist of the most recent international meta-studies by focusing on the questions *What factors of influence have been identified?* and *What types of outcomes (positive and negative) emerge from the coaching process?* In this context we also present recent insights into negative outcomes of coaching, a research focus that is particularly strong in the German-speaking coaching research community. In the second part of our state of the art in coaching research 2020, we turn to coaching process research and argue for the necessity to gain insights into the coaching process itself. By asking *What can and must coaching process research add to our understanding of coaching?* we particularly, but not exclusively, look into qualitative evaluation methods in the context of linguistic coaching process research (see Graf & Dionne, Part II under review).

1.2 The History of Coaching Research

In his recent work on business coaching, Schermuly (2019) identifies four main phases in the development of coaching research and thus in the generation of a body of specific coaching knowledge. While these phases should not be understood as clearly distinguishable temporal units, their findings and insights nevertheless build on each other in the sense of significant epistemes of coaching. The individual phases were steered by maturing research questions and motivations: Phase 1 was motivated by the basic, yet quintessential question *Does coaching work?* Once the overall effectiveness of coaching had been established, Phase 2 was dedicated to the question *Which factors work in coaching?* Next, Phase 3 was motivated by an interest in the coaching process itself and pursues the question *What happens in coaching and how does this influence its effectiveness?* Finally, Phase 4 is dedicated to taking empirical stock and to critically reflect on what has been achieved both as regards insights into coaching effectiveness and in the process as well as the factors that enable such effectiveness; the guiding focus thereby is on summarising the results and engaging in a critical reflection in meta-studies, for example.

Phase 1: Does coaching work at all?

Coaching did not originate in an academic discipline, but rather in practice. Professionals drew on their successful work experience to develop or transfer strategies and tools to this newly developing helping format. While its immediate market success served as a kind of legitimization for some, the incentive to investigate coaching stemmed from the desire to prove that coaching worked as practitioners had predicted it would. Another motivation to analyse coaching and its effectiveness stemmed from an ethical concern: any instrument that influences mind, emotions and behaviour of people should undergo scientific evaluation (Schermuly, 2019, p.21). As a result of the seemingly simple question whether coaching works, numerous (quantitative) studies have been conducted to examine the various and multiple effects of coaching on its various stakeholders, namely coaches, clients, and also clients' organisations.

Phase 2: Which factors work?

Once it was established that coaching did indeed work, the focus turned to the question what exactly contributed to the success of a coaching intervention (Schermuly, 2019, p.22). Researchers started to look into the success factors that caused or contributed to the effectiveness of coaching. A relevant issue in this ensuing success factor research was where these factors were located (i.e. in the coach, client, organisation, etc.). Another relevant question that geared and moulded this second phase was why some clients benefited more from coaching than others; that is to say, research focused on the fact that there were not only different effects in different clients, but also that we witness stronger or weaker effects in different clients.

Phase 3: Which processes occur in coaching and add to the effectiveness of coaching?

As a logical consequence of the mounting evidence that coaching worked and growing detailed insights into the 'what' worked in coaching, researchers started to turn away

from the mere results and focused more on the coaching process as such (Schermulý, 2019, p.22). Special empirical attention lies on the process variables of coaching and how they contribute to the overall positive outcomes of coaching. What kind of behaviour do coach and client show in the process of coaching, what affects their working relationship and how does their behaviour influence the effectiveness of coaching? In this vein, a recent meta-analysis by Graßmann et al. (2020) concentrated on the working alliance between coach and client and its influence on client outcomes, while other research by Kauffeld and colleagues (e.g. Ianiro & Kauffeld, 2014) focused more specifically on dominant or empathic behaviour by the coaching participants and how this impacts on their relationship and the effectiveness of coaching.

Phase 4: Summary of results and critical reflection

According to Schermulý (2019), process-oriented coaching research is in full progress and so far only a few success factors have been causally corroborated in quantitatively operating process-outcome research. How and why coaching works is still partly a black box. Given the complexity of the research object, it will take some time and much effort to fully comprehend and capture the personal and professional development practice coaching (ibid., p.23). Yet, coaching research has made substantial progress over the last few years and a phase of taking stock and critical reflection has begun. This shows in the growing number of meta-analyses that summarise and evaluate the research findings as regards effectiveness or outcomes of coaching. What is more, the growing self-security of coaching research and coaching practice also leads to a more critical research stance in which researchers have started to also explore possible negative side-effects of coaching (e.g. Künzli, 2013; Schermulý, 2019). Considering negative effects also attests to the growing professionalisation of coaching (Schermulý, 2019, p.23). Coaching and its research is thereby taking a similar

developmental path as other helping professions such as psychotherapy have taken before.

As indicated above, the compartmentalisation of coaching research into these four rough phases was/is based on the maturing empirical questions that researchers engage(d) in as part of larger research paradigms. According to Fillery-Travis and Cox (2018, pp.519f), this maturing has automatically led to changes in the applied methodologies and instruments appropriate to answer these questions. A rudimentary, yet hotly debated issue here is the application, significance and potentials of quantitative vs. qualitative evaluation methods (McDowall & Lai, 2018; de Haan, 2019). This issue emerges most prominently in the more recent coaching process research with its empirical focus on the interaction between coach and client. While this type of research will be at the core of the second part of our contribution (see Graf & Dionne, Part II under review), the present article takes a 2020 stock of coaching outcome research. In what follows, we present a literature review of the most recent meta-analyses of coaching outcome research. The contribution at hand is structured in the following way: next (Section 2), we begin with detailing our procedure and the literature reviewed. In Section 3, we synthesise the results obtained in the available meta-studies and current research on both positive and negative outcomes. We discuss the findings of recent international meta-studies on coaching effectiveness/outcome in a condensed form and add up-to-date insights from the German-speaking research community on negative outcomes. We end with considering limitations and with addressing existing research gaps beyond quantitative coaching outcome research, as these will be at the core of Part II of our contribution (see Graf & Dionne, Part II under review).

2. Procedure: Data, methodology and terminology

As mentioned in the introductory section, a primary aim here is to provide an up-to-date overview of coaching outcome research, that is, on the research on factors that influence outcomes of coaching. To do

so, we consider eight of the most recent international meta-analyses and literature reviews³, namely those by Theeboom et al. (2014), Sonesh et al. (2015), Jones et al. (2016), Grover and Furnham (2016), Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018), Jones et al. (2018), and Bozer and Jones (2018). In addition, we include research from the German-speaking academic spheres: Schermuly's (2019) monograph synthesises international studies on positive and negative outcomes, as well as Künzli (2009⁴), Mäthner et al. (2005), and Behrendt (2012⁵). For our review, we proceeded in the following manner: in order to obtain a first overview, findings were initially summarised following the original authors' categorisation and their quality rating based on primary studies' research designs. The most salient findings were then reorganised according to the classifications we now present.

The results of our re-analysis are ordered according to whether they pertain to factors of effectiveness, types of effect/outcomes, and level of effectiveness. Factors are divided according to the overarching categories (adapted from Athanasopoulou & Dopson's 2018 interpretation meta-synthesis): *Intervention, Client, Coach, Organisation, and Relationship*.

Next types of outcomes are classified based on their cognitive, skill-based, and affective effects on the client (cf. Jones et al., 2018):

Examples of cognitive outcomes from coaching include new declarative and procedural knowledge which could be acquired by self-directed learning and problem-solving (guided by goal-setting). The work-based application of improvement and development activity that is encouraged in coaching is likely to promote

skill acquisition and enhancement, effectively resulting in skill-based outcomes. In addition, many of the intended benefits of coaching represent affective outcomes, such as the development of self-efficacy and confidence, reduction of stress, and increased satisfaction and motivation' (Jones et al., 2016, p.255)

To clarify, we understand *outcomes* as any effects – positive or negative – occurring as a result of coaching. Schermuly (2019, p.48) highlights intentionality as a differentiating feature between types of outcomes and introduces 'side effects' to mark unintentional results.

Negative side-effects encompass 'all harmful or undesirable consequences for the client which are directly caused by the coaching and which occur in parallel or subsequent to the coaching intervention' and do not result from errors in the intervention (cf. Schermuly et al., 2014, p.19; Schermuly, 2019, p.133; see also Künzli, 2013). In this contribution, we will not include negative effects stemming from misuse, but only discuss *negative side-effects* on clients' and their organisations' side. In this sense, we will be using the terms 'negative outcomes' and 'negative side-effects' interchangeably throughout the text.

Finally, outcomes are considered as having an effect on clients (individual level) and potentially on their team and organisation (organisational level) (see e.g. Grover & Furnham, 2016; Jones et al., 2016). The individual level includes most prominently outcomes such as self-efficacy, psychological factors, satisfaction and performance, and others such as competency change, managerial flexibility, and solution-focused thinking. Organisational outcomes have been measured in terms of transformational leader-

³ Some of these meta-analyses and reviews make use of both quantitative and qualitative primary studies for coaching (quantitative) outcome research purposes.

⁴ As soon as 2005, Künzli provided an overview of 22 empirical studies on coaching outcome research. The contribution included here, Künzli (2009), builds upon this overview with additional eight other studies.

⁵ Mäthner et al. (2005) and Behrendt (2012) are primary studies.

Table 1: Types of Effects of Coaching (adapted from Schermuly, 2019, p.48)

	Intended	Unintended
Positive effect	Success	Positive side-effect
No effect	Boycott	Failure
Negative effect	Misuse	Negative side-effect

ship, other-rated performance, and manager behaviours among others (Grover & Furnham, 2016). While there is also research investigating outcomes for the coach (e.g. Schermuly & Graßmann, 2019; Schermuly, 2019), these will not be thematised in the present contribution.

3. Coaching outcome research: What do we know about the destinations of coaching in 2020?

The present section gives an overview of what we currently know in terms of coaching outcome research. We begin with the synthesis of international research on positive outcomes in Section 3.1 and then survey the findings on negative side-effects from (principally) German coaching research in 3.2.

3.1 Synthesis of available research on positive outcomes of coaching

The present subsection on positive outcomes is organised as follows: we first consider insights into factors of success by classifying them following their belonging to the intervention, client, coach, organisation or relationship; then, we summarise the types of effects they evoke in terms of cognitive, affective or skill-based outcomes, and, finally, we address the level of effect (i.e. individual or organisational).

Factors

Intervention

Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) report that every coaching approach studied generates positive outcomes. Behrendt (2012) presents findings from research on the

psychodramatic approach; he argues that goal-orientation in the intervention (particularly in this coaching approach) is key to inducing change in clients. Psychodramatic coaching, thus, goes into the sense of guiding the client in their endeavour to develop their own solutions: the role of coach is to identify which resource must be activated in the client so as to help them master their concerns.

Critical moments bring about positive emotions. Coaches, who use assessment tools timely and appropriately generate positive effects (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). Focusing on clients' strengths and on furthering goal orientation during the intervention has also been proved to be successful (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018; see also Behrendt, 2012). Influence tactics (e.g. coalition, rational persuasion) have an impact on the client's engagement towards the coaching process; coaches adapting their language to the clients' language has a positive effect on outcomes. In addition, Grover and Furnham (2016, p.22) state that 'the amount of adherence to the strength-based methodology was a significant predictor of clients' change in transformational leadership behavior, with greater adherence resulting in a greater positive leadership change' (see also the discussion of types of outcomes below).

As regards the length of the coaching intervention, Jones et al. (2016) confirm Sonesh et al. (2015) and Theeboom et al.'s (2014) results that a greater number of coaching sessions has no moderating effect on outcomes. Nonetheless, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) contradict these findings and affirm that long-term coaching has

been deemed more effective than shorter interventions. As regards the medium used, telephone coaching is a 'powerful coaching tool' (ibid., p.7). Similarly, Jones et al. argue that combining various modes of contact (i.e. face-to-face, telephone, email, etc.) also has an impact for the client:

'the combination of face-to-face contact, through which safe and open relationship can be fostered, and the responsiveness of remote contact, through which the temporal state-like nature of affective issues can be responded to flexibly, explain this finding' (2018, p.487; see also Jones et al., 2016).

This hints at support from the coach's side in-between session and therefore at a 'longer' coaching period for the client, which in turns has a positive effect (Jones et al., 2018, p.488).

Client

Client characteristics such as openness to experience, conscientiousness, self-awareness, extraversion, emotional stability, self-efficacy and confidence in themselves tend to positively influence outcomes of the coaching process (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). According to Behrendt (2012), short-term changes are generated by strengthening clients' self-awareness and activating their resources (e.g. perception abilities, hopes and positive expectations, goals and motivations, abilities and strengths). Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs and positive outcome expectancies improve chances for a successful coaching process (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). Indeed, Sonesh et al. (2015) find that clients' work-related attitudes, among which self-efficacy figures (but also commitment to their workplace and satisfaction) have a positive impact on work performance (see also Grover & Furnham, 2016 for self-efficacy). Bozer and Jones (2018) also find that higher self-efficacy in clients is a predictor of affective coaching outcomes and of skill-based outcomes. They report that, overall, clients with

higher pre-coaching self-efficacy set more challenging goals and show more constant determination as well as confidence towards reaching them. A sense of personal development capacity also affects outcomes positively (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). In addition, middle-level managers seem to benefit more than higher-level leaders from coaching (Künzli, 2009; see also Grover & Furnham, 2016).

Although Grover and Furnham (2016) detail mixed results on the topic, motivation is generally reported to impact on skills transfer into the work environment and overall commitment to coaching (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018; see also Bozer & Jones, 2018). Goal orientation is linked with positive effects on affective and skill-based outcomes (Bozer & Jones, 2018; see also Grover & Furnham, 2016). In addition, '[a] learning goal orientation indicates that a coachee is more likely to hold the belief that they are able to change, this belief will then influence the individual's focus on their goal, likelihood to seek challenging goals and persistence towards desired results' (Bozer & Jones, 2018, p.350). In terms of learning style, self-directed learning and learning goal orientation help as long as clients are motivated to engage in the coaching process (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018; see also Grover & Furnham, 2016).

Coach

In terms of characteristics, coaches with a professional attitude and a positive state of mind, authenticity, active listening skills, reflective questioning skills and empathy, who are facilitators of learning and development, with 'agility and ability to understand context and interpret results and ethical challenges' affect outcomes positively (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018, p.7). For their part, Grover and Furnham state that research on coach characteristics has yielded mixed outcomes (2016, pp.21f). They outline several single studies that offer rather diverse insights on the topics of coaches' behaviours and roles: to illustrate, in one study,

facilitative behaviour in the coach was found to have significant positive effects on the client in terms of affective outcomes, and, in another, dominant behaviour in the coach during the first session was linked to clients' goal attainment (Grover & Furnham, 2016, p.21). Furthermore, while a few studies did not correlate coach's idiosyncratic characteristics to outcomes in the client, the authors report findings in line with Bozer and Jones' (2018) on interpersonal attraction as a factor of effectiveness in coaching (see the factor 'Relationship' below).

Moreover, coaches' backgrounds demonstrate an influence on clients' outcomes. Sonesh et al. (2015) state that a mixed business and psychology background tends to have better rates of outcomes. For their part, Bozer et al. (2013) as reported by Grover and Furnham (2016, p.22) found that coaches' background in psychology also has a positive effect on affective and skilled-based outcomes in the client.

While Jones et al. (2016) found that coaches employed internally by clients' organisation had stronger effects than those employed externally, this finding was revised in Jones et al. (2018). Indeed, external coaches have more impact in terms of affective outcomes. The researchers provide a potential explanation for this: it may be easier for clients to open up and share sensitive information with a professional who is external to their organisation and who is thus perceived as more impartial and confidential. Having the future client select a coach with whom they feel more interpersonal attraction (termed 'coachee autonomy' by the authors) is equally important and is often not considered when working with an internal coach (Jones et al., 2018, p.487).

Organisation

Findings that address the role of the organisation on outcomes of coaching are still rather scarce. Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) report that perceived support from the organisation on the part of the client has a positive

effect (see also Bozer & Jones, 2018, for similar findings). Integration of coaching to leadership development has a positive impact as it 'signals the organization's commitment to coachee's development' (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018, p.76). In small to medium enterprises, it has been found that coaching has more impact on personal than on business attributes.

Relationship

Mäthner et al. (2005) and Sonesh et al. (2015) point out the role of the coach-client relationship in general and the working alliance in particular have for clients to achieve their pre-defined coaching goals. As Behrendt (2012) states, establishing a good working relationship in which the client can be challenged in a supportive manner is key to bring about change. Sonesh et al. (2015, p.87) recommend a client-centred approach to coaching in order to 'build a positive relationship and simultaneously leverage the emergent relationship to facilitate the attainment of goal-oriented coaching outcomes'.

Bozer and Jones (2018) discuss 'interpersonal attraction', which they understand as human beings' 'natural tendency to identify and attract with individuals perceived similar to themselves' in terms of common values, perspectives and interest, with as a result 'mutual trust' and 'effective interpersonal communication' (Bozer & Jones, 2018, p.352). For coaching, this means that coach-client are compatible, and this impacts coaching outcomes positively. This is confirmed in Jones et al.'s (2018) meta-analysis: compatibility between coach and client contributes to higher rates of affective outcomes. This is also supported by Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018): compatibility between coach and client as well as a solidly built working relationship based on mutual trust, honesty and respect have positive effects on outcomes. Furthermore, gender similarity between coach and client has an impact on the selection of a particular coach as well as on the overall coaching process effectiveness (see also

Grover & Furnham, 2016). Alignment from stakeholders on purpose, methods, measurements criteria and goals as well as agreeing on each participant's roles and responsibilities improve chances of success (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018).

Research on the coach-client relationship has also investigated the working alliance and the effects it causes in the client in some details. To illustrate, Grover and Furnham (2016) report on studies linking the working alliance with the number of sessions needed in the intervention and affective outcomes, for instance. They nonetheless add that not the entirety of the reviewed studies found significant effects for the working alliance. For their part, Bozer and Jones (2018) found that supervisory support is positively affected by the working alliance. In addition, they discuss trust as a crucial component of the working alliance for creating a safe space for clients to openly discuss and tackle their concerns with coaches. While Bozer and Jones cannot report conclusive results on that topic in their systematic literature review, Künzli (2009) reports that the level of trust is increased by clients voluntarily opening up to non-judgmental coaches in an environment where they feel confidentiality will be respected, by coaches positively and supportively challenging clients and their leadership for the purpose of helping clients reach the goals agreed upon, and by a felt support from clients' organisations (Künzli, 2009, p.3; see also Behrendt, 2012).

Feedback as part of the coaching process has been found to play a central role as it improves clients' awareness of how their behaviour affects their organisation and thus brings into effect behavioural changes (Bozer & Jones, 2018). As a matter of fact, Bozer and Jones (2018) report that receptivity to feedback has been established as a moderator of coaching (see also Grover & Furnham, 2016). For their part, Jones et al. (2016) investigate the effects of multisource feedback; while coaching with multisource feedback shows positive effects, stronger impacts are observed in coaching without.

Types of outcomes

Cognitive outcomes

In terms of cognitive outcomes, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) describe goal-setting (ability and quality) as improved (see also Mäthner et al., 2005). Coaching can increase self-awareness and sense of responsibility in clients in order to inspire their learning, goal achievement as well as performance improvement (Bozer & Jones, 2018, p.348). Mäthner et al.'s study (2005) indeed reports that clients find themselves more prone to self-reflection/self-awareness, clarification of role, consideration of new perspectives, and priority setting. Theeboom et al. (2014) also show that coaching has a positive effect on goal-directed self-regulation and Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) detail amelioration in resource management (e.g. time) and self-control as well as improved adaptability and flexibility (see also Bozer & Jones, 2018 for resource management).

Affective outcomes

Regarding affective outcomes, an elemental finding is satisfaction towards what was achieved through coaching (e.g. in Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). Clients' satisfaction towards their career and work is found to be significantly increased (Grover & Furnham, 2016; Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). Künzli (2009), Sonesh et al. (2015), Grover and Furnham (2016) as well as Bozer and Jones (2018) report findings that clients' self-efficacy was higher. In addition to this, clients' well-being, coping, personal as well as work attitudes, and motivation to apply new knowledge in their work environment are generally found to be improved following coaching (Theeboom et al., 2014; Sonesh et al., 2015; Grover & Furnham, 2016; Bozer & Jones, 2018 for motivation). Sonesh et al. (2015) and Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) also show that coaching brought about a reduction of stress in the client and higher commitment to their organisation (see also Grover & Furnham, 2016; Bozer & Jones, 2018 for reduction of stress). Furthermore, clients' self-confidence and self-worth as well as motivation and initia-

tive increased (Mäthner et al., 2005). Social integration, psychological wellbeing and work as well as private life satisfaction are also described as being improved (Mäthner et al., 2005; Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). In some cases, a re-evaluation of the client's work environment has led them to re-orient themselves or even change employers (see also the section on negative side-effects below for a discussion of perspectives). Overall, clients estimate to be less burdened emotionally (Mäthner et al., 2005).

Skill-based outcomes

As regards skill-based outcomes, Theeboom et al. (2014) demonstrate that coaching has the effect of improving clients' performance and skills at work. Sonesh et al. (2015), Grover and Furnham (2016), Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018), and Bozer and Jones (2018) tell of similar results. Mäthner et al. (2005) state that clients evaluate their leadership as ameliorated (see also Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). Bozer and Jones (2018) also report that successful coaching has an impact on transformational leadership.

Levels of effect

Based on the reviews and meta-analyses available, coaching outcome research seems to have concentrated its efforts on documenting change at the individual level, while little is known in terms of how clients' organisations are affected as a result. Jones et al. (2016) indeed confirm that coaching works at the individual level of effectiveness, that is, clients demonstrate change; however, their meta-analysis could not establish whether this change is also reflected at the level of clients' teams or organisations. Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018, p.75) describe 'indirect positive organizational effects from increased employee satisfaction, productivity, leadership effectiveness and coaching culture.' For their part, Grover and Furnham (2016) report that studies testing effectivity of coaching on the organisational level with multi-source ratings have yielded mixed results, with positive impacts in certain types of outcomes

but not all. For instance, a small number of studies looking into the effects of a particular client's coaching on other members of the organisation, with measurements such as subordinates' satisfaction, work engagement, organisational commitment, psychological empowerment, psychological strain, and turnover intentions, documented generally positive effects except on psychological empowerment and strain, for which no significant outcomes were found (ibid., pp.18–19).

Having outlined some of the most prominent findings on factors, positive outcome types and levels of effect in our discussion of international meta-analyses and literature reviews, we now turn our attention to a relatively novel aspect of coaching outcome research which is particularly explored in the German-speaking research community: negative side-effects of the coaching intervention.

3.2 Contributions from the German-speaking coaching outcome research: Research on negative side-effects of the coaching intervention

Although negative effects of coaching have been theoretically topicalised as early as 2002 (cf. Schermuly, 2019, p.124), touched upon as a type of outcome for example by Mäthner et al. (2005) and extensively discussed as a research gap in Künzli (2013) for instance, Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018, pp.79f) state that they 'came across only 16 studies that report either negative or not-fully positive outcomes' out of the 84 screened studies included in their review. Accordingly, their discussion of negative outcomes is largely formulated as 'questions or challenges practitioners must keep in mind' (ibid., p.80). Schermuly and colleagues' (e.g. Schermuly et al., 2014; Schermuly, 2019) thorough investigation and description of negative side-effects of coaching is now shedding more light on the topic. As a matter of fact, in the study they presented in 2014, Schermuly et al. enjoined 123 coaches to rate a list of potential negative side-effects for clients on a scale from 'strongly disagree/does not apply' to 'strongly agree' on the basis of their last coaching process; in addition to also rating

the perceived success of the coaching, practitioners that listed at least one side-effect were asked to reflect on and rate factors that might have led to side-effects (2014, p.22). In a later study (Graßmann & Schermuly, 2016), 111 clients who had participated in a coaching in the last year were asked to answer the same questionnaire. Their results, among those from other studies, will be presented in this section; we will first report on factors (understood as potential causes), then continue with negative side-effect types, and we will conclude with a consideration of the levels of effect (i.e. individual and organisational).

Factors

In a contribution to the journal *Coaching Magazin*, Künzli (2013) identified 'theoretical approach and training', 'personality and behaviour of coach', 'personality and behaviour of client' and 'context' (e.g. the client's organisation) as 'risk factors'. As the following shows, these are largely confirmed by Schermuly and colleagues' findings (particularly in Schermuly et al., 2014, as reported in Schermuly, 2019).

Intervention

'Lack of time' and 'lack of monetary funds' may result in 'topic hopping' (Schermuly, 2019, p.165), that is, in the lack of depth in the exploration of a relevant topic in favour of touching upon several concerns. Moreover, the 'lack of a precise (enough) diagnostic' was determined to be a detrimental factor. Drawing on Möller and Kotte (2014), Schermuly argues that diagnostic – 'the systematic collection of information about the clients, their concerns and their organization' (Schermuly, 2019, p.166, transl. EG & FD) – is decisive because how it encourages clients' reflection and development of problem awareness. By doing so, the most relevant topics for the intervention become salient (ibid., p.167).

Client

As regards factors on the clients' part, 'lack of problem awareness', 'false expectations as

regards the coaching', 'pre-existing struggle with mental disorder', 'lack of concrete coaching goal', 'withholding of important information', 'lack of motivation' and 'lack of sympathy towards the coach' are enumerated (Schermuly, 2019, pp.162f). It is however argued that these side-effects can be (partly) avoided when coaches clarify the possibilities and limitations of coaching as well as help clients develop problem awareness and concrete goals (ibid., p.159). Moreover, while insisting that clients with pre-existing mental disorders can benefit from coaching, Schermuly recommends a collaboration between various experts (i.e. experienced coach, coaching supervisor, psychotherapist) in order to avoid side-effects (Schermuly, 2019, p.160; see also Künzli, 2009 for a discussion of mental health and coaching).

Coach

As regards factors on the coaches' part, Schermuly et al.'s 2014 study reports 'lack of accompanying supervision', 'lack of comprehensive knowledge as to the client's organization/work role', 'lack of professional expertise', 'overworked', 'attempt to deal with client's mental disorder in coaching', 'lack of methodic expertise', 'did not sufficiently clarify the coaching process to the client', 'overlooking a mental disorder', 'own mental charge', 'surpassed the client intellectually', 'could poorly empathize with the client', 'intervention exceeded the coach's competences', 'lack of motivation', and 'lack of sympathy towards the client' as factors that potentially induce negative side-effects for the client (Schermuly, 2019, pp.162f).

Organisation

Coaches understand organisations that 'did not make the transfer of client's new knowledge and skills possible', 'did not provide the coach with help during the coaching', 'compelled the client to be coached', 'legitimized a termination through the coaching' and 'interfered in the coaching process' as

possible factors for clients to develop negative side-effects from coaching (Schermulý, 2019, pp.162f).

Relationship

Finally, complementarily to factors for positive outcomes (see ‘Relationship’ in the section on positive outcomes above), ‘coach and client were too dissimilar’ and ‘poor quality of the coach-client relationship’ have been identified as factors fostering negative outcomes for clients (Schermulý, 2019, pp.162f).

Types of outcomes

As a result of Schermulý et al.’s (2014) and Graßmann and Schermulý’s (2016) research, Schermulý (cf. 2016; Schermulý, 2019, pp.140f) formulates the following categories of negative outcomes for the client: psychological wellbeing, social integration, performance, evaluation of work, material losses as well as miscellaneous. We follow his classifications, adding where appropriate to which type (i.e. cognitive, affective or skill-based) the outcome belongs.

Psychological wellbeing

This category, concerned mainly with cognitive and affective outcomes, is subdivided into ‘problem which could not be solved’, ‘reduction of life satisfaction’, ‘deterioration of work-life balance’, ‘fear towards workplace’, ‘worsening of mental disorder’, ‘development of mental disorder’, and ‘augmentation in the consumption of cigarettes, alcohol and medicaments’ (Schermulý, 2019, pp.140f). Schermulý explains that the change process can indeed be experienced as difficult by clients due to the problematisation of clients’ particular thoughts and behaviours (ibid., p.143).

Social integration

Changes in the client can potentially be perceived negatively in their social environment, with conflicts arising as an affective side-effect (Schermulý, 2019, p.147). Moreover, some clients show difficulties

in decision-making without their coaches following the intervention (ibid., p.146). Accordingly, side-effects affecting social integration are ‘deterioration of relationship with supervisors’, ‘dependence on the coach’, ‘deterioration of relationship with life partner’, ‘deterioration of relationship with other family members’, ‘deterioration of relationship with colleagues’, and ‘deterioration of relationship with employees’ (ibid., pp.140f).

Performance

The performance category touches upon all three types of outcomes (i.e. cognitive, skill-based and affective). It is subdivided into ‘fluctuations in work performance’, ‘reduction of work motivation’, and ‘worsening of work performance’ (Schermulý, 2019, pp.140f). According to Schermulý (2019, pp.147f), clients’ performance may vary because of difficulties in applying newly acquired knowledge at work and may stabilise after an adaptation period; it can also be the consequence of over-reliance on the coach or of clients’ focus on coaching instead of work tasks.

Evaluation of work

New insights gained during coaching shed light on clients’ abilities and values, and, as a result, affective and skill-based negative outcomes such as ‘loss of meaningfulness in relation to work’, ‘reduced work satisfaction’, ‘reduced feeling of competency’, ‘reduced feeling of impact’, and ‘reduced feeling of self-determination’ may occur (Schermulý, 2019, pp.140f and pp.149f).

Material losses

More rarely, coaching has the following negative side-effects: ‘change of employment with worse work conditions’, ‘loss of employment’, and ‘precarious financial situation’ (Schermulý, 2019, pp.140f). As Schermulý exemplifies, the re-evaluation of the work role/place may result in a change of employment, or clients who pay for the coaching on their own and become over-reliant on

their coach may find themselves in a difficult financial situation (ibid., p.150).

Miscellaneous

Coaching may induce the following negative side-effects and cause dissatisfaction with the coaching intervention: 'modification of goals against the client's wishes', 'communicating client's personal information to third party', and 'legal dispute with coach' (Schermuly, 2019, pp.140f). Schermuly suggests a few explanations for the modification of pre-defined goals. It may be that coaches work towards the (paying) organisation's goals rather than clients' needs (ibid., p.151). Goals may also have been under-negotiated in the beginning or clients' goals changed during the coaching process and were not re-negotiated (ibid.).

Levels of effect

In their literature review, Schermuly and Graßmann (2019) discuss negative side-effects and their impact on clients, their organisations and, while we will not be touching upon this level here, coaches. The researchers explain that the results of coaching can be perceived very differently depending on whom is asked:

'Clients, coaches and organisations do not possess continuously congruent interests. It is therefore important to note that the same effect can be evaluated differently due to the diverse perspectives and interests of the involved parties. A layoff of an important employee because of coaching can be a negative effect for the organisation because they incur costs to replace that client. At the same time, the client can be very pleased about the layoff because the client might view the event as a positive opportunity for a new life ... Therefore, it is very important to consider the different perspectives before classifying an effect as negative' (ibid., p.45).

While many side-effects at the individual level

are known as the above shows, Schermuly and Graßmann (2019) tell of a single study that focused on negative effects for the organisation, namely Oellerich (2016). From this research, they report that organisations may evaluate coaching clients' changes as disruptive in terms of social integration: for instance, conflicts may arise between clients' and their supervisors and/or colleagues. This is an insight that clients and coaches had also provided in Schermuly and colleagues' research (see above). Other side-effects for the organisation include layoff, which was discussed from the individual perspective as 'loss of employment' in the 'material losses' outcome type as well as 'loss of reputation' (cf. Oellerich, 2016; Schermuly & Graßmann, 2019, pp.54f).

This section aimed to provide an overview of what we know in coaching outcome research. The next one will give some specifications as to what is still on the agenda for coaching research.

4. Conclusion: Summary, limitations and research gaps

This paper set out to take stock of coaching research in 2020 with a particular focus on research dedicated to the destination of coaching, that is, to the coaching outcome. As the various overviews and studies reviewed here confirm, research has moved beyond its quest to substantiate that coaching works towards also exploring success factors and now investigating risk factors of coaching, too. Furthermore, although there seems to be no definitive consensus as to which extent coaching impact client and their work environment (i.e. the level of effect), how clients are affected has been explored generally in terms of positive outcomes and negative side-effects, and more precisely in terms of cognitive, skill-based, and affective outcomes (i.e. the types of effects).

Nevertheless, despite the substantial and convincing evidence that coaching works, several methodological challenges have been identified over the course of the devel-

opment of coaching outcome research, and research gaps remain. Schermuly formulates the situation as follows:

'the immateriality, the co-creation, the complexity, the difference in information, the lack of objectivity, the confidentiality, and the high heterogeneity render evaluating outcomes and factors of effectiveness of coaching ... difficult' (2019, p.27, transl. EG & FD).

Such observations replicate findings in several older meta-analyses and literature reviews on the topic. As a matter of fact, Athanasopoulou and Dopson's review devotes much time to 'assessing the quality' of available coaching research as well as discussing 'methodological rigor' (2018, p.70, p.72). In the other meta-analyses and reviews, the following issues and challenges have been thematised among others: the heterogeneity of findings (Künzli, 2009; Theeboom et al., 2014; Grover & Furnham, 2016), the quality of research design (and/or description) (Künzli, 2009; Jones et al., 2016; Grover & Furnham, 2016) and of data analysis (Künzli, 2009), the small number of studies (Theeboom et al., 2014; Sonesh et al., 2015), the lack of longitudinal studies (Künzli, 2009; Theeboom et al., 2014; Grover & Furnham, 2016; Bozer & Jones, 2018) as well as the difficulty to replicate the studies and verify findings (Künzli, 2009; Grover & Furnham, 2016). In addition, Theeboom et al. (2014) discuss the disadvantages of self-report studies as well as the focus on outcomes at the individual level. Finally, both Grover and Furnham (2016) and Bozer and Jones (2018) also criticise the lack of research investigating the interaction between factors.

To remediate these challenges, Schermuly (2019, p.32) proposes some leads towards providing 'unequivocal' results as to causes of effectiveness for coaching: he

suggests, for instance, studies designed in a collaboration between practitioners and researchers (for a similar claim see Graf & Ukowitz, 2020 and Graf & Dionne, in press) and gaining a broader perspective through the use of a variety of methods. This is an argument also put forth by Grover and Furnham (2016), who highlight the potential benefits (and disadvantages) of quantitative and qualitative studies.

Another major research gap concerns the coaching process itself, namely what process-oriented insights tell us about the effectiveness of coaching and in particular how such effectiveness is accomplished by the participants (i.e. by coach and client) in and through the coaching process. As de Haan et al. already argued a while ago,

'to understand the impact and contribution of executive coaching ... it is not enough to just understand general effectiveness or outcome. One also has to inquire into and create an understanding of the underlying coaching processes themselves, from the perspectives of both clients and coaches' (2010, p.110; see also Theeboom et al., 2014, p.14).

We will expand on both these issues – combining qualitative and quantitative research methods in and research on the coaching process – in the second part of our contribution, 'Coaching Research in 2020 – Beyond Outcome Research' (Graf & Dionne, Part II under review).

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Coming together: A grounded theory study of the role of coaching in the mergers & acquisitions process

Heike Thomas & Jonathan Passmore



This study explores the impact of coaching during mergers & acquisitions (M&A) and is based on constructivist grounded theory. While M&As have been an important growth strategy for many decades, few M&As have achieved the desired outcome. Many M&As leave a trail of emotional destruction throughout the affected organisations, requiring years of recovery. This qualitative study focuses on the exploration of coaching as a tool to positively impact M&A outcomes. This study draws upon insights from a combination of literature review, and personal interviews conducted with experienced M&A experts, representing different industries and cultures. Leadership and culture are consistently mentioned as the most impactful themes. The study disclosed potential risks and limitations associated with coaching and provided sufficient evidence to reinforce the significance of contracting and defined metrics. Different coaching profiles and methodologies are illustrated to address the aspects of M&As.

Keywords: M&A; mergers; acquisitions; coaching; organisational change; leadership.

Introduction

MERGERS and acquisitions have become a reality for most employees and leaders in one way or another and are a key activity in today's business environment. While the global volume of M&A transactions have slightly decreased over the past five years

(Statista, 2020), it remains an integral piece of any growth strategy, regardless of the industry or geography.

The study provides testimony about how M&A's impact the way people work and manage significantly. In 2015 a study

(Gordon, 2015) revealed \$4.7 trillion worth of M&A deals were announced worldwide. Considering these financial costs involved and acknowledging that after 100 years of M&A history, nearly one-half of all transactions have failed to succeed (Gerds & Schewe, 2014; Jemison & Sitkin, 1986).

Research by Kegan and Lahey (2009) concludes that change is painful in every human community. Applebaum et al. (2000: 674) confirms that M&A's are 'intrinsically stressful' for all people involved, introducing uncertainty resulting in ambiguity and fear. If the human aspects are not addressed properly, they can result in wasted financial resources, high personnel fluctuation, staff and managers suffering from burn-out, lack of motivation and sometimes physical ailments (Kotter, 2012). But given these research findings what is being done to reduce or eliminate the psychological (Applebaum et al., 2000, Hubbard, 2001) and physical strains (Klendauer et al., 2006) of the M&A process.

While it is important to acknowledge that the size and complexity of M&As will not be extinct by coaching it may provide the sufficient support in managing this dynamic more effectively. This research explored the opportunities but also identified certain risks for introducing coaching to facilitate M&A transactions throughout each stage of the process, across different organisational levels and functions, as a mechanism to reduce the pressures and tensions described above with the objective to amplify the return of investment.

The literature review

The initial search for published literature has been categorised into three areas: primarily on M&A coaching but a web search revealed only a few publications. The second focus area are mergers and acquisition and change management and seeking more understanding about the complexity of the M&A aspects and dynamics, organisational change and leadership. The research was coherent in highlighting the lack of focus on the human capital during the M&A process

and mainly focusing on the financial returns. The literature consistently reinforced the importance of managing the human aspects of M&As to increase the success level. Hence, focusing the third area of the literature review on professional coaching seemed a natural link. The literature about coaching offers a wide variety of approach, methodologies and techniques that qualifies to support the M&A environment specifically. Some literature about the wider field of Organisational Change (Management) has acknowledged coaching, as a valuable tool, which has been helpful as a basis for further investigating.

Ultimately, companies are focusing on the financial bottom-line but the human capital must be part of the equation as a wealth of research has highlighted in the following review extracts.

The Gallup's (2017) workforce analysis indicates that global productivity was declining even before 2020 and suggests that employee development rather than satisfaction should be a focus for organisational development. Further, the focus should be on a strengths-based management and stop concentrating on improving weaknesses. Considering that 85 per cent of employees worldwide are not engaged or actively disengaged in their job (Gallup, 2017).

Several studies have acknowledged that in-depth research is required to uncover in more detail the role of human factors during M&A (Brueller et al., 2018; Klendauer et al., 2006; Napier, 1989) and its impact on the bottom line. As one example of such a study, the human dimension was the main contribution to failure as explored by Barrett (2014). The study focused on those organisations with employee engagement and cultural entropy, which paid off with stronger performance levels and the achievement of the financial results. Employee engagement as a measure of the level of emotional and intellectual involvement that employees have with an organisation, directly impacting the amount of enthusiasm and commitment. He made an attempt to correlate the financial

wellbeing of national economies with the level of engagement and productivity. The results show that 27 per cent of employees in the UK are highly engaged, which significantly impacts the UK productivity score (Barrett, 2014: 23). This also means that the remaining 73 per cent are fairly or not engaged at all.

The publication of Marks and Mirvis (2001) draws upon their M&A experience in over 70 mergers and acquisitions. The authors investigated M&A transactions that were successful and contrasting to M&As that failed, acknowledging that few M&A combinations actually achieved the financial and strategic targets. They argue that a majority of M&As are focusing on the attractiveness of the financials, while organisational and cultural aspects are largely ignored. By contrast, successful transactions approached the M&A with a strategic mind set and focusing the due diligence beyond financials but also considering synergies that can be found in operations and markets, which always include the human factors. The involved M&A team is diverse and includes not only finance, it also includes members of the technical and operational departments early in the M&A search.

The more recent work by Brueller, Carmeli and Markman (2018) has emphasised the complexities and threats perceived by all stakeholders involved during M&A transactions. The authors draw from a vast amount of research about M&As and developed a conceptual framework that links the management of human capital to the outcome of M&A strategies and post-merger integration. While the authors acknowledge the complexity of the M&A process, they introduce a model that address the challenges of the dynamic typically occurring during an M&A. The ability, motivation and opportunities (AMO) model is designed to enhance personnel skills and abilities, with the focus on motivating and empowering employees to engage at higher levels across both firms. The authors conclude that the AMO practised management of the

human capital represents the main modality for establishing the necessary foundation for creating a social fabric and augmented success rates.

Ashkenas (2014) claims that successful M&As were more likely to consider the human element and specifically organisational culture as a factor alongside strategy, price, and positioning. The importance of the economic synergies are undeniable, however, psychological issues tend to be underappreciated and he argued should be assessed in the pre-merger phase by conducting an identity audit during the due diligence process. Of course such audits may conclude the anticipated synergies many not be achieved from the merger (Bouchikhi & Kimberly, 2012).

The primary literature addressing coaching during the M&A process includes the work of Fuchs (2001) and the post-acquisition phase of integration. Fuchs describes the lack of support during the integration of the affected companies. Further, suggesting organisations reinforce the positive implications of an M&A, by providing strategic perspectives, supported by offering coaching the leadership and employees.

The study by Visagie's (2010) explored deploying coaching to address specifically cross-cultural challenges during M&A transactions. The research discussed the effectiveness of team/group coaching through 'Mental Health Facilitation' (Visagie, 2010) and generating corresponding evidence through extensive interviewing across the organisation. An M&A specific coaching programme supporting managers during an M&A can improve the lives of all stakeholder, hence, positively impact the effectiveness of transactions has been one of the fundamental insights of her research.

Weber's (2015) work about coaching during the M&A process, claimed that a clearly defined plan for introducing coaching during an M&A is beneficial. The plan should be specific to the organisation and its culture, addressing the following aspects:

1. Why coaching during the M&A will be beneficial?
2. What specific issues should coaching address during the M&A?
3. What should be achieved – overall goal? What does success look like?
4. The competencies of the coach and contracted principals
5. The coaching concept: who should be coached? Individuals and/or executives? Teams?
6. The coaching portfolio to design the program for the M&A environment
7. Including a budget in the M&A financials for coaching interventions, either using external resources or designated internal resources.

Grant (2014) recognised that the research explicitly exploring the impact of coaching during times of organisational change literature is limited. He suggested that quantitative evaluations are necessary to provide objective and aggregate measures of change, allowing a direct comparison between the different approaches. His work focused on executive coaching during organisational change, including mergers and acquisition specifically. He identified behavioural changes and hypothesised participation in the coaching programme would increase goal attainment, enhance solution-focused thinking and a greater ability to deal with the challenges related to the change as well as stronger leadership self-efficacy and resilience, decrease depression, anxiety and stress, and increase workplace satisfaction.

Dunbar (2014) introduced specific characteristics attributed to effective M&A leaders. He divides competencies specific to leaders in the acquiring organisation, such as motivating and influencing others, build relationships, develop others, act with integrity, show adaptability and focus on customer needs. Competencies specifically helpful to leaders of the acquired organisation include: motivate and influence others, build relationships, provide direction. Another example is the work of Clutterbuck (2011), high-

lighting lessons learnt about the benefits of mentoring accompanying acquisitions and mergers. His work suggests that mentoring early on, starting during the public negotiation period can have a powerful effect on the job commitment on both sides of the organisations. Cross-organisation mentoring helps to build trust, identify cultural and process barriers to integration and create informal communication networks.

Further, the interesting work by Bergamim and Braun (2015) contrasting the aspects of internal vs. external coach in more depths and suggest introducing external consultants (coaches), early on and throughout the entire M&A process to senior leaders and teams from both organisations. Some studies focused on specific coaching methodologies, with a strong focal point on executive coaching (Dunbar, 2014; Grant, 2014), team and group coaching (Visagie, 2010), and systemic coaching (Hsia, 2012).

The current literature is mainly focusing on introducing coaching to support the integration and actual post-acquisition stage (Fuchs, 2001; Epstein, 2004; Gerds & Schewe, 2014;). On the contrary, few research claims that coaching will deliver its full capacity, if introduced as early as the strategy development (Clutterbuck, 2011; Bergamim & Braun, 2015) and consistently support those that are leading the process across the organisations involved. The study of linking coaching with business strategy (SIOP, undated) enhances the benefits of coaching and business strategy development.

While the synthesis of the literature review suggested a certain bias about the positive impact of coaching, contrarily, the better understanding about the M&A processes and dynamics has also helped in deriving potential drawbacks to coaching. The analysis and findings of the literature review has provided sufficient content for shaping relevant questions for the qualitative research to explore the complexity of introducing coaching throughout the M&A process in more depths. What might be relevant provisions for introducing effective and mean-

ingful coaching to assure the attainment of the M&A goals? What does success look and feel like?

Research design

The researcher employed thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013), based on a constructivist grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2006) with the objective of developing a hypothesis applying the philosophical orientation of realism (Rose et al., 2015: 16). The research paradigm is meant to be exploratory and seeks to build on existing theory from the subjective experience of the participants, applying the findings from the literature on the M&A research in framing the questions. This research aimed to understand the personal, operational and social impact of the participants M&A experience and explored the prospect of introducing coaching to the M&A process as well as potential risks associated to the coaching approach.

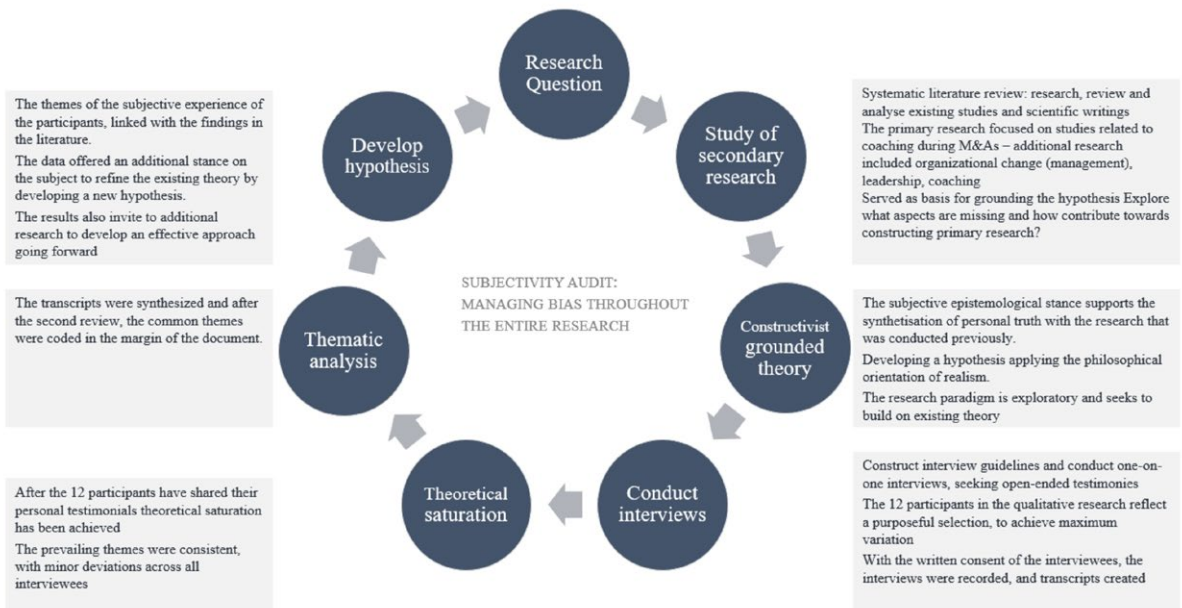
The qualitative research intended to seek open testimonials in an attempt to answer the initial research question about *How*

Coaching may Contribute to increasing the effectiveness of Mergers & Acquisitions?

The questionnaire consisted of 11 questions and was designed to start investigating the interviewees' M&A experience, before exploring if/how the introduction of coaching may impact the prospect of successful M&A transactions. The research involved 12 participants, with the objective of achieving maximum variation through a diverse range of perspectives. The participants represented a variety of industries, such as banking, engineering, technical services, automotive and different level of leadership and departments, including General Management, HR, production, engineering as well as demographic and cultural (North American and European) diversity.

The researcher's design model followed a process with specific outcomes as shown in Figure 1. The researcher was keen on managing bias throughout the entire process. The 'subjectivity audit' (Pope, 2007 cited in Savin-Baden & Howell Major, 2013: 463) has helped with the challenge throughout the interviewing and interpretation process.

Figure 1: The research design model



The thematic analysis

The data collected from the interviews corresponded largely to the secondary research of the literature review but offered an additional stance on the subject and the refinement of the existing theory. The responses emerging from the interviews can be organised into two major themes: leadership and culture (organisational and national). Also, the importance of the potential risks and limitations associated with coaching became quite apparent from the research.

Leadership

During the data collection it became evident why much of the literature is focused on leadership, it is the *leitmotiv* appearing throughout the entire M&A transaction. Regardless of whether it concerns communication or the execution of the M&A transaction.

The interviewees representing executives and senior leaders from different industries, consistently reflected on the degree of emotional and professional strain. The transaction has often left them feeling overwhelmed, even if they had already gone through an M&A before. All of them claimed that each experience is 'never quite the same'. One of the key challenges amongst all participants was managing discrepancies between personal values versus what the organisation expects from them as a leader.

It creates disruption on multiple levels, emotionally, rationally and potentially also physiologically. One example from the interviewees: '*... another very emotional moment was the occasion when we stopped the deal two weeks after announcing it, causing a lot of disruption for the company...., leaving me feeling like a failure or lack of good leadership....*'. At the same time leaders confronted with building trust with the staff while facing the pressure (Brueller et al., 2018) of having to deliver on the return on investment in a short period of time. Managing the impact on many employees, some positive, others negative, which needs to be coped with effectively to avoid further detriment. One interviewee explained: '*...as a leader, I have always felt*

that all of our lives are depending on me, if I don't deliver...'

Power struggles within the same organisation but also between the acquiring and to be acquired company have been frequently mentioned and commonly resulting in a high fluctuation at the senior leadership level leading to the cessation of commitment and often further investments which had been contracted with the sellers. One respondent described it as: '*... it felt like little boys in a sandbox...*'. Ashkenas (2014) provides testimony of the prevailing fear amongst leaders about: who will be in charge, who will lose the job? Leaders finding excuses for not working together, even if both sides agreed to collaborating.

The participants mentioned that the communication has often been unrealistic and untruthful, with the intention of influencing the motivation and engagement of the staff, leading to contrary results. One senior manager explained: '*No clear guidance from anyone about the what and how... even after one year into the acquisition, the integration was at a point of day one...*'. The effectiveness of the communication is a symptom of the leadership style and personality. The interviewees consistently reflected that communication is one of the most powerful means of steering the M&A in one direction or another and therefore it carries the highest risk of going wrong.

Despite the diversity of the participants, the strong emotional response throughout the interviews was striking, even after many years have passed from the individual's experience.

Culture

The cultural fit is perceived to be as one of the key variables determining the success or failure of an M&A. Every interviewee had mentioned culture, whether it relates to the organisational (impacting the leadership style), or the national culture of the organisations involved.

The data includes an example of a small company acquired, historically driven by

a consensus driven leadership style and through the acquisition of a large conglomerate it has been replaced by the patriarchal leadership of a large conglomerate. The acquired company's aspiration was focusing on innovation and long-term technological break throughs to achieve sustainable growth and strengthening of the brand. While the acquiring organisation was practising a finance-driven culture, aiming for quick wins and short-term results. Consequently, contributing to the low morale and motivation of the staff who felt left behind competing in the high-tech global marketplace, leading to a soaring number of talent leaving the acquired organisation and significantly reducing the value of the acquisition. One of the respondents representing the acquired company expressed his frustration and anger about the culture clash this way: *'...the discussions were always extremely hard and full of mistrust'*.

The interviewees have described the different organisational cultures, depending also on the size of the organisation. The leaders represented large financial conglomerates, mid-size engineering organisations and small, privately owned companies. Ranging from a command-and-control to consensus driven cultures, offering different value systems, leadership styles, business practices. The participants have also experienced how the regional (European vs. North-American) and national cultures (German vs. Italian vs. Swiss vs. English) impact the approach and management of the M&A process. Hence, a 'cultural due diligence' has been identified as an important part of the process and making time early on, to identify the organisational fit as a key decision criteria for moving forward with the acquisition. Connell (2016) points out the importance of identifying the characteristics of the acquirer and the candidate to be acquired early on, analysing and matching the relationship between the two to improve the overall, long-term performance of the M&A.

All respondents emphasised on a culture of transparency and trust, which will more

likely nurture the willingness to introduce coaching support amongst their leaders and employees. The data suggests that the good intentions are there but oftentimes not realised. A general manager has offered an interesting analogy describing the complexity of merging two cultures: *'... M&A is like buying a home, where one moves out, another moves in. Once the money changes hands, we are going to move in together...'*

Coaching

The interviewee's previous experience with coaching and how it was introduced was not always favourable and therefore they felt somewhat critical about the coaching in general. Based on their experience they were able to point out some of the risks and limitations. At the same time the interviewees acknowledged potential benefits which might emerge from coaching if managing the constraints early on. Since none of the participants have received coaching or mentoring in support with managing the M&A process. One of the respondents: *'...I think there is an enormous role for executive coaching in that context to support the general management...'*. Team and group coaching was perceived as an effective means of driving collaboration and culture. Another interviewee described it as: *'...coaching of groups can certainly drive alignment... it is always a team process and therefore it only works in collaboration. Individual coaching can be useful, since I am alone and have to endure new situations.... however, group coaching would be more meaningful.'*

The interviewees felt that a reflection facilitated by a professional, experienced executive coach, would have benefitted them with the emotional strain, their responses and decision making process. One of the respondents was specific about a particular coaching profile: *'...I can only imagine a coach with a deep psychological qualification to support those leaders'*.

The interviewees are open to the application of specific coaching methodologies to enhance leadership competencies, as outlined by Dunbar (2014) to motivate

Table 1: Risks and benefits of external vs. internal coach

External coach	Internal coach
Benefits	
• Likelihood of having a neutral and independent stance (regardless of who the purchaser of the coaching service may be) • Ideally unbiased or at least with a controlled bias • Should be selected by the coachee and not the organisation/supervisor	• More likely to be connected to HR or the direct supervisor • Very familiar with the organisation and its 'ecosystem' • Cost efficient – include a time budget • Should be selected by the coachee
Risks	
• Unfamiliar with the organisation, industry, processes, culture and social network • Potentially costly – include a financial budget	• Stronger degree of bias, depending on the organisational structure and the department the coach is part of

staff, build relationships with leaders from 'the other' organisation, demonstrate adaptability and provide a direction and hope for the future.

Based on the respondents' observations and experience throughout the M&A process, they affirm that trust is the imperative in moving forward with coaching and all interviewees had reservations about coaching being 'mandated'. Generally, it was perceived to be less effective, when forced upon executives or senior leaders, especially considering that the acquiring company contracts with the coach. Which has been perceived as a notion of manipulation, one respondent mentioned the term 'brain-washing'. The coach assigned to the interviewee had been contracted by the acquiring company and mandated to the leaders of the company that was taken over. Another stated: *'... once the coachees completed their sessions and returned to their jobs, they all provided positive feedback for fear of being fired and/or penalised in some way ...'*

Related to a culture of trust, is the decision about contracting with an internal vs. external coach. While valid reasons for either option have emerged from the research, Table 1, shown below, highlights some of the benefits and risks.

The findings provide practical examples of emotional, operational and social dynamics throughout the entire M&A process and represent the execution layer of the M&A process and validates what has been widely acknowledged by the literature. The research has reinforced the importance of the potential risks when deploying coaching throughout the M&A process. What might be the provisions for making coaching an accepted approach to potentially increase the effectiveness of M&As?

Respondents consistently mentioned the significance of contracting between the supplier of the coaching services and the purchaser of the coaching support. Which has been supported also by Weber's (2015) research that introduced the need

Table 2: Examples of a contracting framework

	CLIENT	COACH
Define Objective of coaching through the entire M&A process	Increase effectiveness of people management Contribute to the financial return, propose a business model that suits the client Define and clarify boundaries and ethical concerns	Supporting leaders with meaningful, facilitated reflection throughout the entire M&A Detailed coaching plan, with a clearly defined team, addressing specific aspects such as communication, cultural issues, process related, teams and roles / responsibilities
Defined metrics	On schedule with the number of coaching sessions conducted Overall progress with the execution of the M&A plan Feedback from the coachee Feedback from the staff customers external stakeholder About specific leaders and/or activities Financial results / fluctuation of staff	The maintenance of a schedule with coaching sessions Soliciting random feedback from the internal and external stakeholder Assess the financial results and / or specific achievements from specific leaders Monitor the fluctuation of the different leaders' staff Common understanding and agreement of metrics amongst all stakeholder
Competencies of the coach and contracted principles	A professional coach who has had experience with at least 10 M&A clients (XX hours of coaching) Coaching qualification(s) from academic institute(s) ... other credentials	References from previous coaching contracts Provide appropriate documentation of qualifications
Define coaching portfolio	Executive and individual leadership coaching Team and group coaching Coachees will be representing both parts of the M&A (the buying and selling company)	Specific coaching methods, tools and techniques to address the relevant challenges effectively (see proposed program addressing the common challenges occurring during M&A)
Budget for coaching interventions	Internal coach = XYZ amount of sessions = hours External coach - XYZ amount of sessions = monetary cost	Monitor the budget and adjust accordingly
Code of ethics and confidentiality	Practice political immunity, openness and acceptance Regardless of who the client, purchasing the coaching service Non-disclosure agreement (NDA) in place	Regular update meetings with the client, discussing high level conclusions, without mentioning any details that could reveal the personality of the coachee Mutually signed NDA on record
Liabilities	Coaching sessions will have to be cancelled at least 24 hours prior to the scheduled time Coaching sessions cancelled in less than 24 hours prior to the scheduled time will accrue the full amount of the session the coach will not provide the solutions to the challenges. The coach is obliged to attend a monthly supervision session for quality control	Regular update meetings with the client, providing a general gauge for the status of the coaching effort, drawing high level conclusions, without mentioning any details that could reveal the personality of a coachee Written confirmation of attending a supervision session

for a detailed plan, reinforcing transparency and increasing trust in the coaching approach. Some respondents have been quite detailed about a list of aspects that should be covered by the contract. The more specific the objectives, competencies (and therefore, lack of) and coach specific principles, perhaps including a coaching portfolio with a variety of different coaching expertise available to the client. A code of ethics and confidentiality is essential for enhancing trust and integrity. Agree to liabilities as well as a mutually agreed set of metrics, defining what is considered success and failure. A business model with a budget for the coaching service is needed to avoid any misunderstandings later on.

The data provides sufficient evidence to summarise a contracting construct, offering examples in Table 2. The contracting is important not only to increase the acceptance of the coaching culture but also holding the supplier of the coaching services as well as the purchaser of the offering accountable.

Additional research will be needed to obtain more robust findings to better measure the impact of M&A's with the coaching support vs. M&A outcomes without. The value of the learnings can be significant, considering that the coaching framework should be specific to a particular combination of organisations, cultures, leadership, etc. Perhaps identifying patterns of what might be consistent for certain M&A constellations and derive a framework for a coaching culture, with continuous monitoring and adaption to the coaching offering.

Discussion

The literature and qualitative research provides sufficient evidence that the focus on the management of the human factors is a critical variable in increasing the success rate of M&As. While the literature offers limited research about the direct link of M&As supported by professional coaching practises. The study conducted by Visagie (2010) provides fundamental insights about

M&A specific (coaching) programme with the aim to improve the lives and mental health of the managers. Hence, the genuine intention and motivation for the wellbeing of all staff (including senior leaders) is indispensable to capitalise on the benefits of coaching. Establishing a culture of trust is imperative in having coaching accepted as a meaningful means during the entire M&A process. Starting with the most senior leaders and while they mentioned reservations about coaching, they also expressed a strong desire for support. A detailed framework (Weber, 2015) will help to establish the mechanics for a consistent approach. A clearly defined plan specific to the organisation and its culture, developed by the leaders of both organisations and facilitated by a professional coach will be the 'engine'.

On the contrary, organisations that cultivated a command and control behaviour and lack transparency may be challenged with introducing an authentic and open coaching programme. Leaders may be in conflict between their personal values versus what the organisation expects from them as a leader and creating the grounds for growing mistrust and disruption. What might be the provisions to achieve acceptance for coaching in this type of culture?

The respondents consistently mentioned the need for a coach to be experienced and understand the culture of the organisation to navigate through the dynamics and provide the framework for an adequate coaching programme. Would an external coach be more effective than an internal coach? The question has multiple variables to consider, such as the personality, position in the organisation, the level of experience both as a coach and as a leader? Who contracts with the coach? Regardless of the coaches profile or whether an internal or external coach will be contracted, clearly defined metrics are an important ingredient to drive trust and consistency. Mutually determining what does success mean? How is it measured? The work of Fuchs (2001) introduces the relevancy of goals and motives, with the focus on the integration, which can be

Table 3: Examples of coaching methodologies

Who are the coaches?	Coaching methodologies	Behaviour Competencies
Executive Senior Leaders Decision Maker	Behavioural cognitive coaching Gestalt Mindfulness Motivational interviewing Neuro-Linguistic-Programming – NLP Positive Psychology	agile, flexible, adaptable authentic and courageous builds rapport and relationships collaborative, integrative curious, empathetic develop people influence
Individuals (leadership/ staff)	Shadow Coaching Solutions focused Systemic coaching Team building ... and many others are available	integrity mindfulness, reflective motivate and encourage negotiation skills optimistic
Teams groups (leadership/staff)		patient provide direction, guidance self-awareness

contracted for the entire duration of the M&A, starting early on, upon defining the strategy. While it may be challenging and requires close contracting between the management and the coach(es) it will reduce the ambiguity of coaching and make the process more transparent and tangible.

Coaching may be supporting every layer of the organisation, meeting specific needs through executive/leadership coaching to individual and team coaching. The research has identified behaviours and competencies that are helpful in supporting the M&A process consistent across all M&A scenarios. Table 3 above offers examples of specific coaching methodologies to emphasise specific leadership qualities (Dunbar, 2014) important during the dynamic of an M&A.

Conclusion

The research gathered more evidence and analysis supporting the view that most M&A failures can be traced to two main areas: challenges to leadership, and cultural fit. The findings, relied upon the survey of the literature combined with in-depth designed interviews with leaders that offer a wealth

of M&A experience, demonstrates the need for targeted coaching to help increase the chances of achieving the M&A objectives.

At the same time the research has also elaborated certain risks and limitations associated with the introduction of coaching and should be identified and addressed early on.

The research suggests that organisations that foster distrust and authoritative leadership styles will find it more challenging to gain the trust of the leaders and the staff to embrace the coaching support. On the contrary, value driven organisations that promote trust, integrity and transparency are more open to the coaching culture.

The evidence calls for certain provisions to be met to increase the effectiveness of the coaching support and enhancing the positive impact on the transaction and its outcome. While the challenges are consistent, the testimonials emphasise the fact that each and every M&A dynamic is unique in its constellation, considering the complexity of financial targets, cultural aspects (organisational as well as national), leadership and human factors in general, the industry and market place, etc. Hence, the coaching

programme should be specifically designed for the individual merger and acquisition. A clearly defined contracting framework will reduce ambivalence, manage expectations and provide consistency throughout the process. The defined metrics make the outcome more tangible.

The literature and the interviewees have consistently referred to culture as a key variable to drive the success of any M&A and trust as an imperative for a coaching environment (Weintraub & Hunt, 2015: 4). The focus on the human capital is often dismissed or diluted with business objectives. The M&As are complex in its nature and when the leadership team provides a set of values that can set the stage for a more successful M&A process. It drives behaviour and potentially reduces ambiguity and uncertainty for all involved. A set of strong value-based principles (Hawkins, 2014) such

as transparency, honesty and truthfulness, empathy, integrity, collaboration and integration as well as authenticity are particularly important during the communication of merging two or multiple cultures. Guiding principles drive accountability and consequences of the stakeholder's actions.

The research suggests the need for a long-term study and populating a sufficient size of mergers and acquisitions samples that applied a coaching framework throughout the entire process and compare it to the M&A transactions without the support of coaching.

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Measuring self-confidence in workplace settings: A conceptual and methodological review of measures of self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem

Anna Kane, Joanna Yarker & Rachel Lewis



Coaching is often used to improve self-confidence however little is known about how self-confidence is measured. For practitioners looking to evaluate their work, being able to measure self-confidence is key. This systematic review presents findings from a conceptual and methodological review of measures of self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem and considers their use in workplace settings. Three databases (EBSCOhost business source premier, Proquest ABI/INFORM Collection and ASSIA and PsycINFO) were searched to retrieve empirical studies published up until 2017, with no lower time limit. A search of theses and dissertations was also conducted. 15 papers met the inclusion criteria providing the development and properties of 15 different measures of self-confidence. The conceptual review included a thematic analysis of the items across all measures and Skinner's (1981) validity evidence framework was chosen to underpin the methodological review. A number of conceptual and methodological limitations of the available measures were noted. The available measures do not comprehensively measure the construct of self-confidence. Furthermore, they are limited in their design and development, their psychometric properties and validity in a workplace setting. We conclude that current measures are unlikely to measure self-confidence effectively within workplace settings and make recommendations for future developments.

Keywords: Self-confidence; self-efficacy; self-esteem; measures; workplace.

Purpose

THE PURPOSE of this systematic review is to identify and evaluate measures of self-confidence suitable for use in

coaching. Specifically, this study aims to explicitly seek to understand the empirical and conceptual overlap between self-confidence,

self-efficacy and self-esteem; review measures of self-confidence, including measures of self-esteem and self-efficacy, which are designed for the adult population and potentially relevant for use in coaching; and take a more rigorous approach than previous reviews through adopting a systematic process and the inclusion of a quality review.

1. Introduction

There has been a longstanding interest in the use of coaching for improving workplace self-confidence. Lenney (1977) describes how low self-confidence can be a frequent and debilitating problem, particularly among women and can minimise engagement in achievement activities. Self-confidence has been found to help leaders take necessary risks for working towards visions and objectives (Black & Porter, 2000) and increases an employee's willingness to respond to their leader, thereby bolstering their effectiveness (Luthans & Peterson, 2002). Hollenbeck and Hall (2004) propose that executives can use an understanding of self-confidence and how it develops to manage their own performance and the performance of those they lead. Within this context it is not surprising that self-confidence is the topic of many coaching discussions. When coaches support their clients to develop confidence, it is important they have the tools to measure self-confidence in an accurate and meaningful way so they can build a profile of the coachee's confidence to inform coaching interventions which can then be subsequently evaluated. However, as with many latent constructs it is at the early point of definition that the academic literature cannot agree. The terms and definitions of self-confidence and self-efficacy (Hollenbeck & Hall, 2004; Smith & Betz, 2000), and self-confidence and self-esteem (Bénabou & Tirole, 2002; Bogan, 1988; Chemers et al., 2000) are used interchangeably. Furthermore, a conceptual overlap between self-efficacy and self-esteem is noted (Brockner, 1988; Tafarodi & Swann, 2001).

In this paper we first present an overview

of the related constructs before providing an in-depth review of the measures available, giving due consideration to their appropriateness for coaching, with the aim of synthesising the findings to inform the measurement of self-confidence in coaching interventions.

1.1 Self-efficacy and self-confidence

Bandura (2001) explains self-efficacy belief to be the foundation of human agency, 'unless people believe they can produce desired effects and forestall detrimental ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties' (p.179). Furthermore, Bandura (2012) states that 'people's beliefs in their capabilities vary across activity domains and situational conditions rather than manifest uniformly across tasks and contexts in the likeness of a general trait' (p.13). This would suggest that self-efficacy is specific to the task, whereas confidence, according to Stankov et al. (2015) is a broader factor, one that extends across different tasks and domains and has broader predictions and applications. Others however have called this broader factor 'general self-efficacy' (Judge & Bono, 2001; Sherer & Adam, 1983).

1.2 Self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-confidence

Self-esteem is generally defined as the evaluative dimension of the self-concept (Baumeister et al., 2003; Bénabou & Tirole, 2002; Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991; Hewitt, 2005). Kernis (2003) discusses how most contemporary theorists conceptualise high self-esteem as global feelings of self-worth, self-liking, respect and acceptance. As with self-efficacy, self-esteem can be global or specific, and whilst the definitions of specific self-esteem tend to differ a little, authors tend to agree that specific self-esteem may contribute to, but the sum does not equate to global self-esteem (Baumeister et al., 2003; Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991; Kernis, 2003; Rosenberg et al., 1995).

As well as the interchange mentioned above,

some authors believe self-esteem is composed of self-confidence (Kohn & Schooler, 1969; Owens, 1993), and that self-confidence is a narrower construct than self-esteem (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). Others simply purport that self-esteem is associated with, or gives confidence (Baumeister et al., 2003; Leary et al., 1995; Shipman & Mumford, 2011). Hollenbeck and Hall (2004) state categorically that 'self-confidence is NOT self-esteem' (p.258) on the basis that high self-esteem is not sufficient for people to succeed and suggest that individuals need more than high self-confidence to like themselves.

Tafarodi and Swann (2001) argue that task-specific self-efficacy is conceptually separate to self-esteem. They claim the conceptual separation also applies to general self-efficacy and self-esteem but, 'it may be so difficult to discern as to render the distinction practically insignificant' (Tafarodi & Swan, 2001, pp.654–655). Maddux (2005) suggests that efficacy beliefs in a given domain will contribute to self-esteem only in direct proportion to the importance placed on that domain.

So, it would seem there is no clear agreement on the overlap or relationships between self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem. The potential for confusion could have a detrimental impact within a coaching scenario, for instance where an individual with low self-efficacy was mistakenly coached to improve self-esteem.

Many claim, despite numerous examples, that measures of self-esteem do not perform adequately (Baumeister et al., 2003; Heatherton et al., 2003; Mruk, 2006; Scheff & Fearon, 2004;). The volume of measures impede comparisons of results and may contribute to the variation in findings (Baumeister et al., 2003).

Four reviews of measures have been conducted: three of self-esteem (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991; Donnellan et al., 2015; Heatherton et al., 2003) and one of self-confidence (Stankov et al., 2015). The reviews considered between three and 11 measures and reported that these measures vary in quality and rigour. However, a criticism

noted in all four reviews was that nearly all the measures reviewed were developed using samples of school children, adolescents and college or university students, which questions the utility of such measures for use in workplace coaching. Only two measures among all reviews included partial samples of working adults (see Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991) and no measures specifically designed for use in coaching or the workplace were identified. Arguably Blascovich and Tomaka applied the most rigour to their review, and unlike the other reviews described the process by which they selected the scales for review. However, all four reviews are limited due to the absence of: i) a clearly defined search protocol that would enable replication; ii) sufficient detail reported in the findings (for example, high level descriptions such as 'Three large samples, all university students' (Donnellan et al., 2015) were prevalent across all reviews); iii) a thematic comparison of constructs and items used in the scales or iv) a systematic review of the quality of the scales. As none of the reviews address the overlap between the concepts of self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem explicitly, we suggest this is a necessary step in progressing the literature on self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem, and providing coaches with a clear insight to inform their work with clients.

1.3 Present study

As there is a need for coaches to have access to valid and reliable measures of self-confidence, the purpose of this current study is to:

- a. explicitly seek to understand the empirical and conceptual overlap between self-confidence, self-efficacy and self-esteem;
- b. review measures of self-confidence, including measures of self-esteem and self-efficacy, which are designed for the adult population and potentially relevant for use in workplace coaching; and
- c. take a more rigorous approach than previous reviews through adopting a systematic process and the inclusion of a quality review,

In order to achieve this, we will conduct a conceptual review examining the operationalisation of self-confidence and a methodological review examining the psychometric properties of the scales using an adaptation of the framework used by Pangallo et al. (2015).

2. Methods

In this study we adhere to the reporting guidelines of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement.

2.1 Search strategy

The review protocol and search terms were arrived at during the advisory process; a series of iterative discussions and a preliminary review of the literature by the lead psychologist and advisory group. The advisory group was made-up of two psychologists, both with academic and practitioner experience. The Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions (Higgins & Green, 2008) recommends six members or more depending on the breadth of the public health review. As our review is not related to public health, and narrow in focus, two members with a range of experiences in topics and methodologies beyond the topic were deemed sufficient. The advisory process led to agreement that two separate searches

would be conducted; the academic peer reviewed literature and the grey literature.

First, a computerised literature search would be conducted using the following databases: EBSCOhost business source premier, Proquest ABI/INFORM Collection and ASSIA, PsycINFO, Proquest ABI/INFORM Collection. Search parameters included: (self-confidence OR self-efficacy OR self-esteem) and (measure OR scale OR assessment OR questionnaire). Results were restricted to English AND human AND adult AND peer reviewed publications and were subject to specific exclusion and inclusion criteria (see Figure 1).

The advisory process also stipulated that study population parameters were restricted to adult due to our interest in using the measures in workplace coaching. No other restrictions were placed on the population, and no restrictions at all were placed on the settings, nor time period of study in order to maximise the scope of the results. Arguably it may make sense to restrict the population to workers and the setting to the workplace, however the advisory group believed it may be too restrictive and result in too few papers to gain a comprehensive understanding of the available measures. However, measures designed for particular occupations, career guidance and non-work contexts were excluded to increase the generalisability

Figure 1: Inclusion and exclusion criteria for literature search

Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
1. Study population: adults (18+)	1. Study did not contain original data
2. Study settings: not specified	2. Study did not describe or validate a measure of adult confidence
3. Time period: unrestricted	3. Qualitative studies
4. Publication: English language, peer reviewed OR dissertation/thesis	4. Measures relative to health
5. Admissible criteria: original study of scale development, scale revisions, validation studies	5. Measures relative to sport
6. Conceptually related cases	6. Measures relative to consumer
	7. Measures relative to family
	8. Measures relative to religion
	9. Measures relative to specific occupations
	10. Measure relative to career choice

of our findings to the broader workplace. Scale refinements were included since scale development is an iterative process and can result in the development of revised scales (McHorney, 1996).

Second, a computerised literature search would be conducted, looking at Theses and Dissertations. ABI/INFORM Collection and EBSCOhost Open Dissertations were searched. Search parameters included: (self-confidence OR self-efficacy OR self-esteem) and (measure OR scale OR assessment OR questionnaire) and were subject to specific exclusion and inclusion criteria (see Figure 1).

Risk of bias

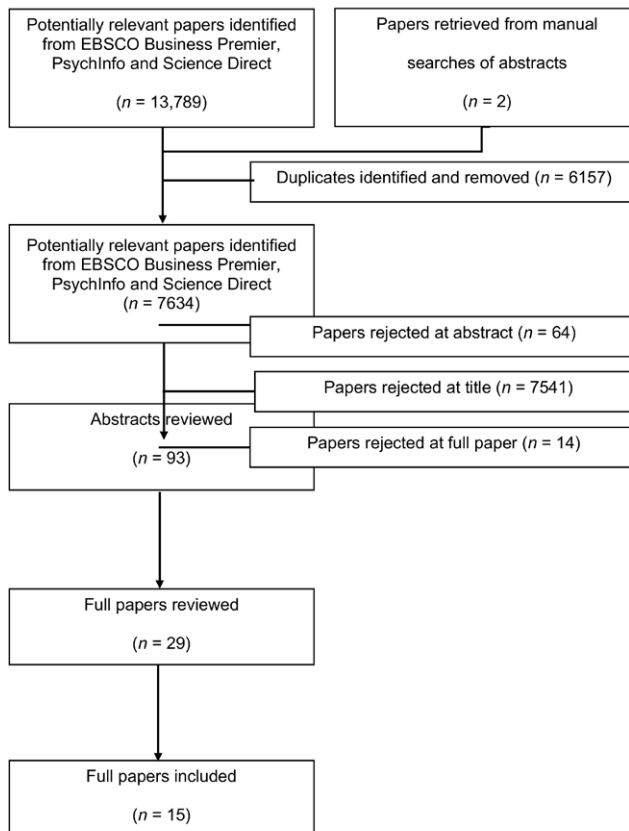
The Cochrane Non-Randomised Studies Methods Group guidance (Reeves et al., 2008) recommends a number of strategies to limit the risk of bias including the search trial registers, conference abstracts, grey literature.

Recommendations are aimed at interventions, rather than the conceptual and methodological review of construct measurement and are therefore not appropriate in this context. Rather, the advisory group agreed a second search of theses would assist in avoiding publication bias. At each point the lead researcher consulted with one or more members of the advisory group and a systematic quality review of the measures would be incorporated to minimise the risk of bias in reporting.

2.2 Data collection

The initial literature database search yielded 13,789 paper titles, and a further two papers were retrieved from a manual search of the abstracts from within the sift. Researcher one removed 6157 duplicate paper titles leaving 7634 papers. Researcher one and member one of the advisory group sifted titles independently by reading the paper titles. They

Figure 2: Sift results flow diagram



agreed upon 7541 titles that failed the inclusion criteria or did not meet the exclusion criteria. Titles that were only excluded by one reviewer were not sifted out at this point and remained in the sift so the abstract could be reviewed. They sifted abstracts together and excluded 64 papers. Reasons for exclusions are as follows: 39 papers did not describe or validate a measure, 16 measures were not sufficiently relevant to self-confidence. Six papers contained a research population below 18 years. Two were not peer reviewed, and one scale was not written in English. Researcher one read the full papers and excluded 14 articles leaving 15 to be included in the review. The advisory group reviewed the rejected papers, and contributed to the discussion on two papers, with joint agreement to reject these 15 papers. Reasons for these rejections are as follows: five papers did not contain sufficient data, three papers contained scales that weren't written in English, two papers were not sufficiently relative concepts to self-confidence, one paper did not describe or validate a measure, one paper contained a measure that was relevant to a specific occupation, one paper contained a measure relative to religion, one paper declared the measure not to be valid. See

Figure 2 for an outline of the sifting process. See Table 3 for summary information on each of the final papers.

2.3 Data extraction

A data extraction tool based on another systematic literature review (Pangallo et al., 2015) was used to extract data on theory formulation, internal validity and external validity for the psychometric properties of the final 15 measures. The basis for this three-stage framework is the construct validation approach formulated by Skinner (1981): First; theory formulation, where the content domain and theoretical foundations of the self-construct are defined; second, internal validity phase, which involves test stability, internal consistency, and replicability; and third, the external validity evidence phase looks at convergent and discriminant evidence of test scores. See Figure 3.

2.4 Data analysis

Skinner's validity evidence framework is used in combination with established empirical guidelines to determine specific criteria cut-offs (Pangallo et al., 2015). Each scale was assessed against six criteria and awarded

Figure 3: Visual representation of Skinner's validity evidence framework. Source: Pangallo et al., 2014, p.11.

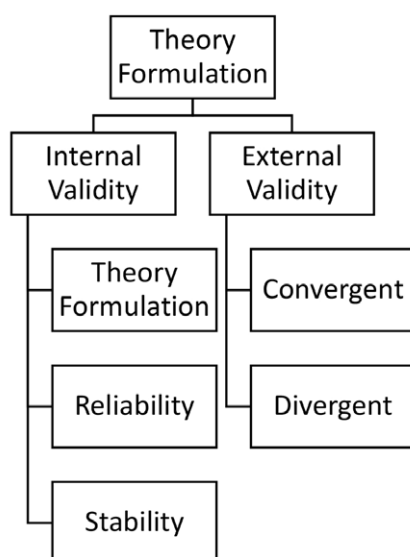


Table 1: Methodological assessment criteria

Criterion	Definition	Score	Scoring criteria
Theory formulation			
Evidence based on test content	The extent to which the construct is comprehensively sampled by scale items.	2	Clear description of item selection AND involvement of target population AND subject matter experts in item selection/development
		1	Either target population OR subject matter experts NOT involved in item development/selection
		0	Incomplete description of item development/selection
Internal validity evidence			
Internal consistency	Extent to which (sub) scale items correlate to determine whether items are measuring the same construct.	2	Cronbach's alpha $>.70$ for total scale and/or subscales
		1	Cronbach's alpha values of $<.70$ for total scale and/or Subscales
		0	Insufficient information
Stability	Scores on repeated administrations of same test highly correlated OR scores on similar version of same test highly correlated.	2	Values of $>.70$ for test re-test or parallel forms ($>.75$ if ICC reported)
		1	Test-retest or parallel forms $<.70$
		0	Insufficient information
Replicability	EFA followed by CFA to empirically support hypothesised factor structure.	2	CFA criteria for good model fit (TLI/CFI $>.95$, SRMR $>.08$, RMSEA $<.08$); OR EFA primary factor loadings $>.60$, absence of salient cross loadings with $n > 100$ AND >3 items per factor.
		1	EFA with $n < 100$ AND <30 -items per factor with loadings $>.60$ AND/OR cross loadings $>.32$; OR CFA does not meet good model fit and is NOT performed using separate sample from EFA.
		0	Insufficient information

Table 1: Methodological assessment criteria (*continued*)

Criterion	Definition	Score	Scoring criteria
External validity evidence			
Discriminant evidence	Test scores showed negative correlations in theoretically expected directions with related measures.	2	Correlation of test scores $>-.30$ or more with theoretically distinct measure.
		1	Test score correlations with theoretically distinct measure $<-.30$; OR correlation with theoretically ambiguous measure
		0	Insufficient information
Convergent evidence	Positive correlations of test scores in theoretically expected directions with related measures.	2	Correlation of test scores at $>.30$ with conceptually similar measure
		1	Correlation of test scores at $<-.30$ with conceptually similar measure OR correlation with theoretically ambiguous measure
		0	Insufficient information

Note. ICC = intraclass correlation coefficient; EFA = exploratory factor analysis; CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index.

points using a three-point rating scale (as adopted in other systematic reviews, e.g. Pangallo et al., 2015). Researcher one and member one of the advisory group reviewed the 15 papers independently by following the assessment criteria in Table 3. The two researchers discussed minor differences in assessment to reach agreement on all 15 papers. There were no major points of difference. The purpose of this process is to systematically compare the measures and identify strengths and weaknesses both in terms of psychometric properties, and the intended use within the workplace. Scales were allocated two points for fully satisfying the assessment criterion, one point for partially, and zero for not satisfying it. A seventh criteria, ‘Application’ – a reference to the number of separate studies in which the instrument was

used for empirical or validation studies - was rejected. This approach has been used in other systematic reviews of latent criteria (e.g. Mehling et al., 2009; Pangallo et al., 2015). However, the approach was found to be untenable in the context of self-efficacy and self-esteem. Most of the measures contained the terms ‘self-efficacy’ or ‘self-esteem’ which produced high volumes of results which were difficult to navigate through. Furthermore, authors were not always clear of the originating author for the specified scale used in their study. Another difficulty encountered was one specific case where multiple authors contributed to scale generation, the various authors subsequently published their own version of the scale. This made it difficult to conduct a fair comparison of measures on ‘application’.

The sum of all three categories (theory formulation, internal validity evidence and external validity evidence) produced an aggregate score, with a maximum of 12. Pangallo et al. (2015) determined the cut-off score to be 11/14 – 78 per cent for a measure to possess ‘acceptable’ psychometric properties. This review therefore has assumed 75 per cent as a cut-off point; measures scoring 9/12 or above.

3. Results

3.1 Description of scales

See Table 2 for a full description of the 15 self-efficacy scales.

Four of nine self-efficacy scales (PSSE, StrSES, CBSSES, WSSE) have used the response scale suggested by Bandura (2006). The standard methodology for measuring self-efficacy beliefs is where individuals are presented with tasks to which they need to record the strength of their efficacy beliefs on how certain or confident they are they can do the task. Bandura proposes a 0 – 100% scale, although a Likert scale is used in many. The important feature appears to be about how the wording taps into individuals’ *confidence* in their ability to do a task. Only one of six self-esteem scales (SEW) uses both descriptive and evaluative measures of self-esteem.

3.2 Conceptualisation of Self-Confidence

A conceptual review was conducted to examine the operationalisation of self-confidence across the final 15 scales. First, all self-report scale items were aggregated into a global anonymised list of items. The initial thematic framework was developed by the researcher who read each item individually and labelled it. She reviewed the labels to identify overlaps and reduced them to five themes. Each item was then reviewed to ensure they were in the relevant theme with uncertainties highlighted for discussion. This was refined and agreed through discussion with the advisory group. See Table 3.

Five themes emerged from the data; *social/communication*, *competence*, *appearance*,

seeking and offering help and *relationship with self*. It is notable that not one scale measures four or all five themes. Two scales measured three themes (LSE, SSES), four scales measured two themes (PSSE, SES, WSSE, SLSC) eight scales measured one theme (OBSE, UCSR, StrSES, CBSSES, S-OCCSEFF, OCCSEFF, NGSE, FNNL), and one scale (SEW) did not measure any of the themes, although it has the potential (indicated as ‘?’ in the table) to measure up to all five of them as scale users identify and evaluate areas relevant to their self-esteem.

Six scales measured *social/communication* (PSSE, SES, CBSSES, NGSE, LSE, WSSE), three of these were scales designed to measure the facet social self-efficacy. Eight scales measured *competence* (SES, LSE, StrSES, SLSC, S-OCCSEFF, OCCSEFF, OBSE, SSES). One scale measured *appearance* (SSES). Three scales measured *seeking and offering help* (PSSE, LSE, WSSE). Four scales measured *relationship with self* (SLSC, SSES, USRS, FNNL).

Social/communication is only measured by self-efficacy scales, as is *seeking or offering help*. *Relationship with self* is only measured by self-esteem scales, as is *appearance*. *Competence* is measured by both self-efficacy and self-esteem scales, but not all self-efficacy scales, nor all self-esteem scales.

3.3 Methodological Review

Results from the methodological review are presented in Table 4. The 15 self-confidence scales were evaluated against criteria outlined in Figure 3. A zero score is not necessarily indicative of low quality, rather it might be due to insufficient description or information to evaluate the scale sufficiently.

Six scales scored nine points out of a possible 12 (PSSE, StrSES, CBSSES, OCCSEFF, WSSE, SLSC) indicating scales with acceptable psychometric properties. Only three scales indicated systematic construct development (WSSE, LSE, SEW). Thirteen scales demonstrated strong internal consistency (PSSE, StrSES, SLSC, OCCSEFF, WSSE, USRS, OBSE, SSES, NGSE, LSE, SES, S-OCCSEFF). Two scales were constructed in

Table 2: Summary information of self-confidence scales

No.	Measure	Cited conceptual foundation	Development sample(s)	Reliability of test scores	Evidence of validity
1	Scale of Perceived Social Self-Efficacy (PSSE; Smith & Betz, 2000)	Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1977) helps to explain individual's career decisions/ performance, and inform interventions. <i>Designed for career development.</i>	Undergraduate students ($n = 354$); male ($n = 90$), female ($n = 264$). Test retest sample ($n = 107$); males ($n = 29$) females ($n = 78$)	25 items* Total scale ($\alpha = .94$) Test retest overall ($r = .82$); males ($r = .86$), females ($r = .80$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Written or adapted from Adolescent Social Self-Efficacy Scale (Connolly, 1989) <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlated with Social SE scale of SES M & F ($r = .60$ & $.62$), Social confidence scale of SCI M & F ($r = .46$ & $.53$), Holland themes Enterprising: M & F ($r = .68$ & $.65$), Artistic M & F ($r = .45$ & $.31$) Negative correlation with Interaction Anxiousness Scale M & F ($r = -.57$ & $-.68$)
2	Unconditional Self Regard Scale (USRS; Betz et al., 1995)	A self-esteem measure, Roger's (1957, 1961); discussion of healthy personality and self-acceptance/ unconditional self-regard. <i>Designed for counselling interventions.</i>	Study 1: students ($n = 152$); male ($n = 78$), female ($n = 74$). Study 2: students ($n = 107$); male ($n = 56$), female ($n = 51$) Study 3: students ($n = 95$) Study 4: students ($n = 164$); female ($n = 83$), male ($n = 81$)	19 items Total scale samples 1 and 2 ($\alpha = .87$ and $.90$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Experts wrote questions based on the writings of Rogers. <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlation with Rosenberg, Samples 1 & 2, ($r = .77$ & $.78$) Coopersmith, Sample 1 ($r = .64$), General Mental Health Questionnaire, Samples 1 & 2 = $.67$ & $.69$, negative correlation with State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, Samples 1 & 2, ($r = -.70$ & $-.75$), Beck Depression Inventory, sample 2 ($r = -.65$, social anxiety ($r = -.36$))

Table 2: Summary information of self-confidence scales (*continued*)

No.	Measure	Cited conceptual foundation	Development sample(s)	Reliability of test scores	Evidence of validity
3	Strengths Self-Efficacy Scale (StrSES; Tsai et al., 2014)	Strengths assessment consistent with counselling psychology's philosophy that focusing on individuals' strengths can lead to an improvement in vocational and psychological health and wellbeing. <i>Designed for career counsellors, educators and researchers.</i>	Study 1: ($n = 275$) females ($n = 212$), males ($n = 63$). Various occupations Study 2: ($n = 302$); females ($n = 213$), males ($n = 87$), other ($n = 2$) Various occupations Test-retest ($n = 36$)	11 items* Total scale ($\alpha = .95$) Test retest ($r = .88$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Items were generated by experts, based on self-efficacy theory and literature related to the development of strengths <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlated with Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale ($r = .57$) and Satisfaction with Life Scale ($r = .49$) Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale - Short Form ($r = .15$)
4	Self-Efficacy Scale (SES; Sherer et al., 1982)	Bandura (1977); two types of expectancies exert powerful influences on behaviour: outcome expectancies - certain behaviour will lead to certain outcomes and self-efficacy expectancy - belief one can successfully perform the behaviour. <i>Designed for therapy settings.</i>	Study 1: students ($n = 376$) Study 2: inpatients having alcoholism treatment ($n = 150$)	23 items General SE ($\alpha = .86$) Social self-efficacy ($\alpha = .71$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Items written to measure general self-efficacy expectancies in areas such as social skills or vocational competence. <i>Validity argument:</i> General & Social Correlation with Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, ($r = .431$ & $.278$), Ego Strength Scale, ($r = .290$ & $.061$), Interpersonal Competency Scale ($r = .451$ & $.432$), Self Esteem Scale ($r = -.510$ & $-.279$) Negative correlation with Internal-External Control Scale ($r = -.28$ & $-.173$), Personal Control subscale of Internal-External Control Scale ($r = -.355$ & $-.137$)

Table 2: Summary information of self-confidence scales (*continued*)

No.	Measure	Cited conceptual foundation	Development sample(s)	Reliability of test scores	Evidence of validity
7	Short version of the Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (S-OCCSEFF; Rigotti et al., 2008)	Bandura's concept of self-efficacy (1977). <i>Designed for the workplace.</i>	Health care, Retail, and Temporary Agency Workers ($n = 1,535$); Germany ($n = 200$), Sweden ($n = 147$), Belgium ($n = 616$), Great Britain ($n = 195$), Spain ($n = 377$)	6 items* Germany ($\alpha = .87$) Sweden ($\alpha = .86$) Belgium ($\alpha = .85$) Britain ($\alpha = .90$) Spain ($\alpha = .86$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Items were selected from parent scale on the basis of their item characteristics such as item-total correlation, factor loading and effect on internal consistency. Further modifications were made to items. <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlation with Performance Germany ($r = .32$) Sweden ($r = .58$) Belgium ($r = .43$) UK ($r = .44$) Spain ($r = .45$) No consistent significant correlations across all five countries for Job Satisfaction, Commitment or Job Insecurity.
8	Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OCCSEFF; Schyns & von Collani, 2002)	Bandura's concept of self-efficacy (1977). <i>Designed for the workplace.</i>	Study 1: students who had worked or were working, with a broad range of professions from academic, skilled, unskilled ($n = 153$); female ($n = 88$), male ($n = 64$), did not say ($n = 1$) Study 2: workers in a hierarchically low position with no subordinates ($n = 326$); male ($n = 196$), female ($n = 124$)	20 items ($\alpha = .92$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Items were taken from four different scales that were modified and adapted, being reformulated to address the occupational domain. <i>Validity argument:</i> OCCSEFF correlations with General Self Efficacy Scale ($r = .568$), Generalised work-related self-efficacy scale ($r = .674$), Internal locus of control ($r = .388$), Rosenberg's Self Esteem scale ($r = .493$). OCCSEFF correlations with Task Demands ($r = .22$), Leader-Member Exchange ($r = .17$), Job Satisfaction- superior ($r = .16$), JS colleagues ($r = .10$), JS task ($r = .31$). NS correlation with JS job conditions ($r = .02$)

Table 2: Summary information of self-confidence scales (*continued*)

No.	Measure	Cited conceptual foundation	Development sample(s)	Reliability of test scores	Evidence of validity
9	New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE; Chen et al., 2001)	A more trait-like SE arising from Bandura's definition of self-efficacy (as opposed to a task-specific or state-like construct (SSE) also arising from Bandura). <i>Designed for the workplace.</i>	Study 1: students ($n = 316$) 78% female Study 2: students ($n = 323$), 77% women. 43% employed part time, 30% employed full time	8 items ($\alpha = .86$ and $.90$) Test retest ($r = .67$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Retention of the seven NGSE items Chen & Gully found to be distinct from the SGSE scale and S-esteem. And created seven additional NGSE items, intending to eliminate redundancies later. Independent construction followed by third author review. Two independent panels (10 Psych grads and psych undergrads) examined the content validity of the scales using definitions of GSE and self-esteem. 6 items eliminated based on face validity, inter-item correlations and factor loadings. <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlation NGSE with SGSE ($r = .78$), with Rosenberg Self Efficacy ($r = .75$) factor analysis used to determine discrimination between self-efficacy and self-esteem. Correlation with NGSE and 10 occupational self-efficacy subscales ($r = .35, .33, .28, .34, .28, .32, .23, .27, .26, .33, .30$) ns correlation with exam performance ($r = .07$)

Table 2: Summary information of self-confidence scales (*continued*)

No.	Measure	Cited conceptual foundation	Development sample(s)	Reliability of test scores	Evidence of validity
10	Leadership Self Efficacy (LSE; Anderson et al., 2008)	Bandura (1991, 1997) and Gist and Mitchell (1992) theory: People with strong self-efficacy beliefs are likely to be more motivated to pursue action, contribute more effort, and persevere in the face of obstacles to leadership. <i>Designed for the workplace.</i>	Phase 1: middle to exec. level managers of a large financial institution ($n = 44$); executives ($n = 11$) male ($n = 10$), female ($n = 1$), managers of SMEs ($n = 33$), male ($n = 27$), female ($n = 6$) Phase 2: managers ($n = 227$); women ($n = 158$), men ($n = 69$) representing a diversity of business units in an international services company	88 items LSE ($\alpha = .70$) 2 subscales ($\alpha = <.70$), 16 ($\alpha = >.70$) Leadership Effectiveness all 9 subscales ($\alpha = >.70$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Items identified via interview with leaders and literature review. <i>Validity argument:</i> Multi source ratings of leadership effectiveness ($r = .59$)
11	The Self Esteem Worksheet (SEW, Overholser, 1993)	Idiographic method of assessing self-esteem whilst retaining a quantitative basis. <i>Designed for clinical and research settings.</i>	College students ($n = 323$); males ($n = 148$), females ($n = 175$)	0 items** α cannot be calculated for nil items Test retest 10 week interval whole sample ($r = .61$) males ($r = .73$), females ($r = .54$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> A one-page flow chart to be filled out in worksheet format, collaboratively between tester and participant <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlations with Rosenberg Self-Esteem ($r = .36$), Watkins Self-Esteem ($r = .34$), Luck & Heiss Self-Esteem Scale ($r = .30$) Negative correlations with Beck Depression Inventory ($r = -.25$), UCLA-Loneliness Scale ($r = -.33$), DEQ dependency ($r = -.13$) DEQ self-criticism ($r = -.29$)

Table 2: Summary information of self-confidence scales (*continued*)

No.	Measure	Cited conceptual foundation	Development sample(s)	Reliability of test scores	Evidence of validity
12	Organization-Based Self-Esteem Scale (OBSE; Pierce et al., 1989)	Korman's (1976); self-consistency motivational theory. The way individuals react to life experiences varies as a function of their self-esteem. Individuals develop attitudes and motivations and behave in ways that to maintain levels of self-esteem. <i>Designed for the workplace.</i>	Summer School Teachers, Mining Firm Employees, Managers, School Employees, Automotive Service Club Employees, State Employees Association & Evening MBA Students ($n = 2444$)	10 items Across all 7 studies ($\alpha = >.86$) Test retest ($r = .75$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Derived from comments heard often in discussions with employees, managers and organisational scientists. <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlations Summer school teachers; OBSE (semantic differential) ($r = .69$), Managerial respect ($r = .52$) General job satisfaction ($r = .45$) Organizational commitment ($r = .53$). Mining Firm employees; Internal work motivation ($r = .47$) Organizational commitment ($r = .59$). Managers; negative correlation ($r = -.46$). School district employees; Managerial respect ($r = .30$) Organizational commitment ($r = .19$) General job satisfaction ($r = .58$) Organizational commitment ($r = .43$). Automobile service-club employees; Rosenberg's Self-Esteem ($r = .54$) Beehr's task self-esteem ($r = .57$) Job complexity ($r = .44$) Intrinsic work motivation ($r = .21$) General job satisfaction ($r = .41$) Organizational commitment ($r = .50$) Performance, non-exempt employees ($r = .15$) ns correlation with performance, telemarketers ($r = .11$). State educational association employees; Rosenberg's Self-Esteem ($r = .54$) Beehr's task self-esteem ($r = .57$) Job complexity ($r = .39$) Intrinsic work motivation ($r = .30$) General job satisfaction ($r = .44$) Organizational commitment ($r = .60$) Performance ($r = .26$). Evening M.B.A students; Chronic Self-Esteem ($r = .32$) Organisational satisfaction T1 ($r = .61$) Organisational satisfaction T2 ($r = .59$)

Table 2: Summary information of self-confidence scales (*continued*)

No.	Measure	Cited conceptual foundation	Development sample(s)	Reliability of test scores	Evidence of validity
13	Workplace Social Self-Efficacy (WSSE; Fan et al., 2013)	Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1986, 1997) - a conceptualization of a potentially malleable antecedent of social components of work performance. <i>Designed for the workplace.</i>	Study 1: full time employees ($n = 304$) Study 2: full time employees ($n = 137$)	22 items* Social Gathering factor ($\alpha = .90$) Public Performance factor ($\alpha = .92$) Seeking and Offering Help factor ($\alpha = .83$) Conflict Management factor ($\alpha = .81$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Interviews with 15 FTEs, followed by discussions with I-O Psychologists. <i>Validity argument:</i> WSSE strong and positive correlations with Perceived Self Efficacy Scale ($r = .67$), Political Skill Inventory ($r = .55$) and Organizational Based Self Esteem ($r = .53$) and Job related affective wellbeing scores ($r = .35$). Negative correlation with Physical Symptom inventory ($r = -.18$)
14	State Self Esteem Scale (SSES; Heatherton & Polivy, 1991)	Self-esteem is persistent and stable, and people actively seek information that confirms their self-concept and reject information that threatens their general view of self. However, situational factors can lead to momentary changes in self-evaluation. <i>Intended setting not stated.</i>	Study 1: undergraduates ($n = 428$); women ($n = 284$), men ($n = 144$) Study 2: undergraduates ($n = 102$); women ($n = 72$), men ($n = 30$) Study 3: undergraduates ($n = 128$); women ($n = 99$), men ($n = 29$) Study 4: undergraduates ($n = 79$), all women Study 5: obese women ($n = 18$)	20 items ($\alpha = .92$)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> 20 items from modified versions of Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale. <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlations with Rosenberg Self-Esteem ($r = .72$), Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale ($r = .27$), Satisfaction with Height ($r = .40$) Satisfaction with current figure ($r = .54$) Negative correlations with Beck Depression Inventory ($r = -.71$), Trait Anxiety subscale of State-Trait Anxiety Inventory ($r = -.59$), state Hostility ($r = -.30$) Dietary Restraint Scale ($r = .42$), current appearance ($r = -.21$)

Table 2: Summary information of self-confidence scales (*continued*)

No.	Measure	Cited conceptual foundation	Development sample(s)	Reliability of test scores	Evidence of validity
15	Full-Name Name-Liking (FNNL; Gebauer et al., 2008)	Koole and Pelham's, (2003); mere-ownership effect - the tendency to evaluate self-related objects more positively than self-unrelated objects e.g. preferring numbers that appear in own date of birth than numbers that do not. <i>Useful for future research.</i>	6 studies with male and female participants from North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa and Australia (<i>n</i> = 823)	1 item α cannot be calculated for one item Test retest (<i>r</i> = .85)	<i>Evidence based on test content:</i> Based on theory, three measures of name-liking were developed. <i>Validity argument:</i> Correlations with Single item Explicit measure of Self-Esteem (<i>r</i> = .35), Self-Liking/ Self-Competence Scale (<i>r</i> = .30) Explicit Measure of Self-Esteem (<i>r</i> = .36), Domain-specific Self-Esteem – Social Domain (<i>r</i> = .30), Domain-specific Self-Esteem – Physical Appearance (<i>r</i> = .30), Self-Deceptive Enhancement (.24) Negative correlation with Beck Depression Inventory (<i>r</i> = -.29) Observer Rater Anxiety (<i>r</i> = -.47). Ns correlation with Impression Management (<i>r</i> = .11)

*self-efficacy scales using the response scale ratings recommended by Bandura (2006) for effective design of self-efficacy measures

**Self-esteem scales measuring both descriptive and evaluative as recommended by Bogan (1988)

Development samples marked in bold indicate a sample of participants who are in work.

such a way that reporting it was not possible; FNNL had only one item only, SEW had no pre-constructed items. Six measures fulfilled a high standard for test stability (PSSE, StrSES, SLCS, CBSES, OBSE, FNNL) and three for replicability (SLSC, OCCSEFF, WSSE). Only four scales reported or met the requirements for discriminant evidence (OCCSEFF, PSSE, USRS, SSES) and thirteen satisfied the convergent evidence criterion (not SLCS, S-OCCSEFF).

4. Discussion

This study reviewed measures of self-confidence, including self-esteem and self-efficacy, designed for the adult popu-

lation and potentially relevant for use in coaching. Using a systematic approach, 15 measures were identified for consideration. A number of limitations were noted in the conceptual and methodological review of these 15 measures.

The conceptual review of the items within the 15 identified measures identified five themes. These themes indicated a clear difference between the constructs of self-efficacy and self-esteem, and yet the themes did not indicate consistency between scales, furthermore there was a lack of clarity on the relationship between self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-confidence. No measure claimed to measure self-confidence as

Table 3: A summary of the conceptual review

Assigned number	Name of Measure	Measure Self-Construct		Thematic Analysis				
		Self- efficacy	Self- esteem	Social/ communication	Seeking and offering help	Competence	Appearance	Relationship with self
1	Perceived Social Self-Efficacy Scale (PSSE)	X		x	x			
3	Strengths Self-Efficacy Scale (StrSES)	X				x		
4	Self-Efficacy Scale (SES)	X		x		x		
6	Cognitive-Behavioural Social Self-Efficacy Scale (CBSSES)	X		x				
8	Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OCCSEFF)	X				x		
9	New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE)	X		x				
10	Leadership Self Efficacy (LSE)	X		x	x	x		
13	Workplace Social Self-Efficacy (WSSE)	X		x	x			
7	Short version of the Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (S-OCCSEFF)	X				x		
5	Self-Liking and Self-Competence (SLCS)		X			x		x
11	The Self Esteem Worksheet (SEW)		X	?	?	?	?	?
12	Organization-Based Self-Esteem Scale (OBSE)		X			x		
15	Full-Name Name-Liking (FNNLI)		X					x
14	State Self Esteem Scale (SSES)		X			x	x	x
2	Unconditional Self-Regard Scale (USRS)		X					x

a construct in itself, and no measure sufficiently captured all five themes that emerged from the conceptual review, it was therefore concluded there were no measures of self-confidence.

The methodological review considered each of the measures using a quality assessment (Pangallo et al., 2015; Skinner, 1981;). Six of the 15 measures reviewed met acceptable psychometric standards. Five of which measured self-efficacy, only one of the six acceptable scales measured self-esteem, supporting the proposition that self-esteem measures tend not to perform adequately (Boyle et al., 2015). The concept of self-esteem does not appear to lend itself well to measurement. Bogan (1988) argues that measures only tapping into descriptive information invalidate themselves in the conclusions they reach, whilst James' definition of self-esteem (1890) (as cited in Neff & Vonk, 2009), the degree to which the self is judged to be competent in life domains deemed important, is not fully captured within the measures. Mruk (2006) adds further weight to this argument, claiming self-esteem to be multidimensional 'thereby rendering most of the tests as inadequate from the beginning' (p.37).

A number of scales were restricted in their approach to scale development and deviated from best practice principles of scale development (e.g. Rust & Golombok, 1999). For example, rather than evidence of rigorous steps to use qualitative methodologies to gather information to inform item generation stages, in one instance authors referred to 'comments we have often heard in discussions with employees, managers and organisational scientists' with further input from respondents on the items generated (Organization-Based Self-Esteem Scale, Pierce et al., p. 634, 1989). Only four of nine self-efficacy scales and just one self-esteem scale were developed in accordance with expert guidance.

Theoretical arguments suggest that although self-confidence includes self-efficacy and self-esteem, it is made up

of more factors and conceptualisation could usefully incorporate elements of personality. Judge et al. (1998) found evidence to suggest that 'positive self-concept' consists of four specific traits previously studied individually, namely self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, locus of control and (low) neuroticism. Judge and Bono (2001) conducted a meta-analysis of the relationship between the same four traits and found positive correlations with them and job satisfaction and job performance. Bernard et al. (1996) found a self-confidence factor that loads the intercorrelated measures of self-esteem, optimism and general self-efficacy. Baumeister et al. (2003) concluded that the ability of any one of self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, (low) neuroticism or locus of control to independently predict outcomes is poor. They recommended researchers should include more of these inter-related measures in future studies. Theoretically, self-confidence is a broader construct than either self-esteem or self-efficacy and this review demonstrates that no measure currently exists that measures the full construct for adult populations. For those engaged in coaching this is a significant limitation.

4.1 Limitations and future research

Three main limitations were identified in the research. First, while this paper set out to examine self-confidence measures of potential use in coaching, only measures of self-efficacy and self-esteem were identified, many of which were of poor quality. Subsequently, we question whether these scales actually measure self-confidence. What is clear is that self-confidence is ill-defined and while used in common discourse, there is no measure available for coaches to use. It may be that self-confidence is a cluster of inter-related constructs or a broader construct than self-efficacy and self-esteem, possibly including elements of personality. Further research is required to establish what self-confidence is, particularly in a range of workplace settings, and how it is conceptualised and measured. We propose future

Table 4: Summary of methodological review

Assigned number	Scale	Theory formulation	Internal Validity Evidence			External Validity Evidence		Total Score	
			Internal Consistency	Stability	Replicability	Discriminant Evidence	Convergent evidence	12	%
1	PSSE	1	2	2	0	2	2	9	75
3	StrSES	1	2	2	1	1	2	9	75
5	SLSC	1	2	2	2	1	1	9	75
6	CBSES	1	2	2	1	1	2	9	75
8	OCCSEFF	1	2	0	2	2	2	9	75
13	WSSE	2	2	0	2	1	2	9	75
2	USRS	1	2	0	0	2	2	7	58
12	OBSE	1	2	2	0	0	2	7	58
14	SSES	1	2	0	0	2	2	7	58
9	NGSE	1	2	1	0	0	2	6	50
10	LSE	2	2	0	0	0	2	6	50
11	SEW	2	0	1	0	1	2	6	50
15	FNNL	1	0	2	0	1	2	6	50
4	SES	0	2	0	0	1	2	5	42
7	S-OCCSEFF	1	2	0	1	0	1	5	42

research starts by reviewing the limitations of existing approaches to self-confidence. This should enable the researchers to determine the appropriate qualitative research methodology; one which will allow for the emergence of a broader, potentially more inter-related or dynamic construct, including the five themes identified in this research.

Second, the appropriateness of some items in the available measures are questionable in a workplace setting for which coaching occurs. For example, the PSSE (Smith & Betz, 2000) is intended, but unsuitable for use in the work-

place due to items such as 'Ask someone out on a date'. In FNNL (Gebauer et al., 2008) there is just one question about how much you like your name. Such measures are unlikely to have the credibility required for coaching contexts. This issue should be addressed in any future research, the development of a model or construct that is applicable to a diverse range of people and workplaces is required before any measures are developed.

Finally, the methodological rigour in the development of the measures was compromised by the lack of adherence to best practice in psychometric measure development

and for the most part, inadequate sampling drawing from student samples rather than broad workplace samples. Future research would benefit from the involvement from diverse working populations and a systematic approach to measure development.

5. Conclusions

No measure of self-confidence was identified in this review while measures of associated constructs of self-efficacy and self-esteem have limited applicability for use in coaching. The conceptual review identified five themes, yet none of the individual scales measured all five themes, and none of the five themes were measured by all of the scales. Self-efficacy and self-esteem appeared thematically distinct and yet both are used interchangeably in the literature with each other and self-confidence. The methodological review shone a light on the psychometric limitations of the available measures with self-efficacy measures achieving higher quality assessments than those of self-esteem. The conclusion of this review is that self-efficacy and self-esteem are important components of self-confidence, yet it is a wider construct than either alone. Further qualitative work is required to define self-confidence

in order to enable its measurement. A clearer definition and measurement would benefit coaches who wish to gain a full and in-depth understanding of self-confidence, profile coachee's self-confidence, and evaluate the effectiveness of coaching interventions designed to develop self-confidence in the workplace.

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Book Review

Becoming a Coach: The Essential ICF Guide

Jonathan Passmore & Tracy Sinclair

ISBN: 978-1912755-950 (pbk) (2020).

Shoreham by Sea: Pavilion Publishing and Media

Reviewed by Julia Flower

Introduction

BECOMING *a Coach: The Essential ICF Guide* seeks to offer both established and would-be coaches with an integrated guide to development, underpinned by the latest ICF (International Coaching Federation) competencies and evidence-based models and tools. As world-renowned experts in both the theory and practice of coaching, Jonathan Passmore and Tracy Sinclair are well-placed to guide coaches on the ongoing journey towards a more mature practice. As coaching continues to professionalise, including through the work of bodies such as the ICF, *Becoming a Coach* offers thoughtful and constructive insight into the integrated, and often eclectic, nature of coaching. Likely to be especially helpful to newer coaches, this book is a supremely practical yet theoretically grounded guide, covering a wide range of considerations to enable coaches to practise ethically and effectively in service of their clients.

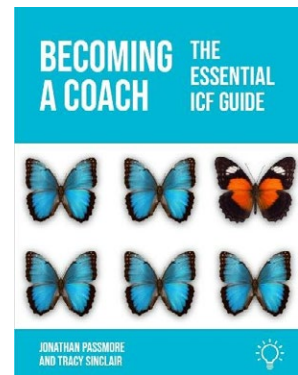
Structure and content

The book is well set-out and easy to navigate, in six sections comprising 36 short chapters in total. Whilst the ICF's recently updated competencies play a central role in *Becoming a Coach*, it is much more than a guide to gaining an ICF credential. A 'tick-box' guide this is not.

It begins by setting the scene, exploring definitions of coaching and self-reflection on who you are and what that means for your coaching. The book then moves on to a carefully constructed section outlining the development of the ICF's credentialing process and each of the eight new competencies, which were published in 2019 after a significant period of research and review. Exploration of the detailed sub-competencies includes pragmatic discussion of the definitions, outlines strengths, issues and challenges, offers case study examples, and provides helpful reflective questions, along with practical tools.

The subsequent sections and chapters cover a wealth of information in relation to different aspects of coaching. These include coverage of a range of approaches to coaching, introducing techniques and models drawn from different evidence-based psychological domains, such as cognitive-behavioural, humanistic and solution-focused. A section on coaching practice explores issues including ethical practice and contracting. This is followed by considerations in the development of coaching practice, including reflective practice and supervision.

The final section includes practical tools and resources with links to additional materials available online.



Analysis and use

This book is strong in its recognition of the complexity of coaching as a professional practice, looking beyond the competency model to consider the interplay of factors such as different coaching approaches, personal values and ongoing reflection and development. It manages to provide accessible and practical exploration of complex topics. This works well with the different competencies, bringing life to what could be a rather dry subject, and helping a coach to understand what a competency looks and feels like in practice, together with why it is important to clients.

The book acknowledges that the competencies are interrelated and that 'coaching is sometimes described as a dance and this embodies both the partnership between coach and client and also the intertwined way in which the coach applies the core competencies' (p.113). This is often a fundamental challenge for a developing coach embarking on the ICF credentialing process. This book does not shy away from the challenge; the sections on different approaches to coaching and the development of your practice provide alternative, though complementary, lenses through which to view the journey to coaching maturity. An inevitable downside is that some parts of the book feel a little repetitive, with some themes, such as ethical practice, being covered in both the competencies and the section on coaching practice.

The section on coaching approaches provides a tantalising taste of a range of evidence-based psychological approaches to coaching, set in the context of eclecticism. These chapters provide coverage of approaches as diverse as systemic, cognitive-behavioural and psychodynamic coaching, backed up by helpful resources and practical tools. I felt that attempts within some of the chapters to explicitly link them back to certain sub-competencies could have moved beyond simple lists to further discussion of the interplay between a competency-based approach and the application of particular coaching models or tools. The section on coaching approaches could

only ever be an overview, albeit a very authoritative one, and the developing coach would want to read and train further in certain areas as they hone their own integrated practice.

It was refreshing to read the comprehensive section on 'developing your practice', particularly the focus given to reflective practice and supervision, recognising the continued professionalisation of coaching as a helping profession. The strong, and welcome, message is that maturing as a coach is about so much more than passing a competency assessment. It is a positive sign that accredited coach training courses remain popular and that coaches across the world seek to gain recognised credentials, which are, in turn, increasingly sought by commissioners. However, this book covered little on establishing and maintaining a commercially viable career in coaching. In a market that could be seen to be increasingly saturated, greater discussion of the economics of coaching practice and, indeed, where it can add most value to the world, would have been welcome additions.

Conclusion

Becoming a Coach: The Essential ICF Guide provides an important and welcome contribution to the coaching literature, offering a practical and accessible handbook, whilst not compromising on theory and evidence. Coaching is a challenging profession to enter into, requiring ongoing development and integration of knowledge, skills and way of being. This book provides the most comprehensive and accessible guide I have found to making sense of that journey of development for the benefit of clients, whether you are seeking to gain an ICF credential or not.

Reviewed by Julia Flower

Julie Flower is a leadership coach, consultant and facilitator with a specialism in applied improvisation. She is in the process of gaining the ICF ACC (Associate Certified Coach) credential.

Book Review

INdivisible: Radically Rethinking Inclusion for Sustainable Business Results

Alison Maitland & Rebekah Steele

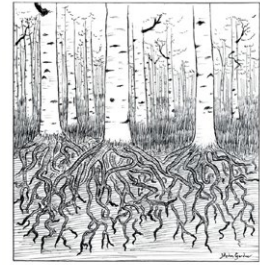
ISBN: 978-1912755-950 (pbk) (2020)

Canada, UK: Young & Joseph Press

Reviewed by Claudia Day

THIS book is very timely in raising awareness of a very important element of corporate development in today's world; that with diversity there needs to be inclusion. The book is intended for every individual who wants to have an impact on inclusion in their organisation, from senior leaders to individuals within a company.

The book looks at the risk of having diversity without inclusion. In current times, a corporation that does not do enough to address inclusion, can suffer long lasting consequences. The author gives some examples of how lack of inclusion can impact its workforce: unequal development, career progression and rewards; lower engagement, retention and performance; higher effort to 'fit in'; less creativity; poor collaboration and conflict. An important number of companies around the world are taking steps to have greater diversity and inclusion, the author highlights some examples of this commitment talking about initiatives such as the Diversity & Inclusion Pledge taken by 700 CEOs and Presidents and the Embrace Difference pledge supported by 50 CEOs and Chairs of European companies, but it raises the concern that inclusion is treated as a piecemeal approach, not being



INdivisible

Radically rethinking inclusion for sustainable business results
ALISON MAITLAND & REBEKAH STEELE

comprehensive enough. The book suggests that inclusion should be treated as any other initiative where the desired outcomes are defined, options are considered, there is an assessment of the value and the risks of every option, there is an action plan, and after the strategy is implemented, there is a measure of the impact of the outcomes. The authors raise the point that everyone is affected by it, and everyone needs to make it happen. They suggest that any corporation looking to address inclusion should consider the co-creation of teams to address barriers, opportunities and think of ways to address them. Throughout the chapters, the author offers ideas that the reader can take based on their seniority/role in a company.

They argue that designing and implementing a comprehensive inclusion strategy has many benefits for a company. Throughout the book the authors give some examples where this is the case.

The authors invite the readers to think about inclusion in a more profound way. To not group the people by a single identity, but taking into consideration that everybody has a collection of identities. They make reference to the advert made in Denmark – All that we Share – that starts with a number

of people distributed in groups based on the more obvious differences, and then as a facilitator asks more personal questions, they start mixing and belonging to different groups. This adds another layer to diversity, making it not just about diversity of minorities, but also of other differences.

Throughout the book they give lots of examples and analogies that make it easier for the reader to grasp all the angles of the topic. I especially like one where they invite us to see inclusion as a roundabout, where everybody pays attention to everyone else, takes turns, and is thoughtful of their actions to be successful as a whole. It makes you think about inclusion as a way of being aware of self and others within a system, thinking of how I and others feel, what is done to self and others, and the impact of actions and inactions within the system. The success of the system depends on the actions of everyone.

Continuing with the roundabout analogy, the authors invite us to think of the organisational structures as well. For a roundabout to function well, drivers need to be trained, there need to be clear signals, and law enforcement needs to be implemented.

The authors offer a framework to approach inclusion that includes 10 enablers that are related to connection (openness, respect, trust), opportunity (fairness, transparency, choice), common cause (shared power, participation, support, shared purpose) – with examples for a questionnaire.

They also invite the reader to take into account external systems. Looking outwards as well as inwards. The author shares Steele's expanded Ecosystem Model, encouraging companies to also understand legislation, the education system, access to resources by the community, etc. to make sure they implement a comprehensive inclusion strategy.

The book helps a planted seed to grow roots. It is a good place to start the journey of thinking about inclusion, it can then be complemented with further reading. If you are already implementing some initiatives, it may help you identify gaps in your current work.

Reviewed by Claudia Day

Book Review

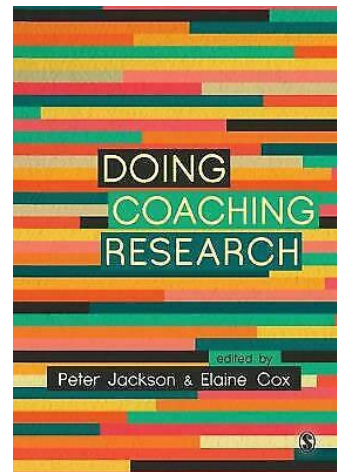
Doing Coaching Research

Edited by Peter Jackson & Elaine Cox

ISBN: 978-1526459-473 (pbk) (2020)

London: Sage Publications

Reviewed by Tia Moin



THE book is aimed at postgraduate students embarking upon research in the field of coaching psychology. The authors approach the content from a pragmatic perspective and address the practical challenges of carrying out psychological research specifically within the field of coaching. This is their rationale for including the verb ‘doing’ in the title of the book: *Doing Coaching Research* (Jackson & Cox, 2020, p.3).

As a coaching practitioner and postgraduate student who has in recent years stepped into the world of coaching psychology research, I wholeheartedly agree with the authors’ claim that the existing literature available on research paradigms, methodology, ontology and epistemology can leave a student ‘bewildered’ (Jackson & Cox, 2020, p.5). My own experience as a Master’s student was consistent with this; I found it challenging to map the philosophical theories and concepts back to a specific research paradigm due to inconsistent and contradictory terminology. Determining my research outlook felt like wandering through a complicated, overgrown maze. Having taken various twists and turns, and crawled through secret trapdoors, I finally stumbled upon my research outlook. Once I found it, I stood firmly in the ground reluctant to stray from it for fear of getting lost. As I pursue a new path of research at PhD level,

I find myself being beckoned to explore the maze again to gain a better angle on my research question. I cannot stay in the same position. This book has been invaluable in allowing me to step up and look over the boundaries of the maze so that I may navigate to a more suitable position for this next piece of research and I highly recommend it as essential reading for students doing coaching research.

The authors skilfully break down and map the various paradigms and their associated ontological and epistemological positions. They address the complexities of seemingly conflicting or overlapping concepts, principles and terminology and present this in a logical, coherent manner mapped using comparison tables. As you progress through to the second part of the book; the authors have engaged doctoral graduates to share their experiences of various research methods in practice, chapter by chapter. The research paradigm or methodology is continually placed into context against the method and a critique, implications and outcomes are discussed. In the final chapters there is useful discussion on the link between the methodology, research design and resulting challenges experienced with dissemination of the research.

What is unique about this book is the way in which information is presented. It is not a traditional text book on research methods,

rather it includes a series of what feels like ‘diary entries’ by real researchers who have attempted to apply the textbook methods to their own research projects. Unique, individual case-studies are presented as phenomenological accounts in the first person by doctoral graduates. It is refreshing to read about the personal doubts and convictions of the authors; e.g. ‘as a novice research-practitioner, I felt a level of intimidation when embarking on my study’ (Noon, 2020, p.89). This provides a sense of reassurance that you are not alone in your experiences as a student. The case studies offer opportunities to learn from the past experience of these graduates and demonstrate examples of how to overcome the various challenges of the outlined research strategies in practice. If you are looking for a more thorough, factual, objective summary of the research approach then essential texts for each method are signposted chapter by chapter.

My background is in organisational psychology where I have relied heavily on quantitative research methods and psychometrics to support applied psychological practice. As I navigated into the territory of coaching psychology, I have been coaxed away from a traditional positivist perspective into the realms of post-positivism and erring on the borders of constructivism; or at least appreciating this paradigm’s perspective. The authors are very transparent about their own preference of research paradigm (Jackson & Cox, 2020, p.4) and are careful to point out that the pragmatic and constructivist lens through which they have presented information in the book does not indicate that they favour this paradigm over another. Setting this aside, my personal experience was that the narrative in the chapter on quantitative methods reads as an outsider looking into the positivist paradigm. The authors steer the reader to cautiously pursue this approach when doing coaching research

claiming ‘a mixed methodological design will be the most useful approach and will help to ensure that the clarity of numbers is balanced by the explanatory power of words’ (Davies & Fillery-Travis, 2020, p.124). Whilst I cannot disagree with this in the context of coaching psychology research and I acknowledge the authors’ efforts to highlight the benefits of quantitative methods e.g. ‘relatively simple to implement, particularly when administered online, and quantitative analysis, despite its reputation, is usually far quicker and more straightforward than its qualitative counterpart’ (Davies & Fillery-Travis, 2020, p.124); I was still left feeling that there is a lack of sufficient depth or insight as to why quantitative methods might be beneficial, or even desirable in coaching research. This is in contrast to the chapter on the less utilised approach of autoethnography, where a more convincing narrative on how the method could advance coaching psychology was articulated. I would have liked to have read a more persuasive argument as to when and how quantitative methods might be used to genuinely enhance the field of coaching psychology aside from artificially inflating the confidence of a business audience. The question could be posed: is my critique here valid because the authors are somewhat biased in their methodological position on quantitative methods in coaching research or is my critique invalid because what the authors allude to is in fact true and quantitative methods might not have a significant role to play in the advancement of coaching psychology research? I guess that depends on your own research position or outlook. I will leave you to ponder that question...

Reviewed by Tia Moin, Special Group Coaching Psychology Committee Member – British Psychological Society/MSc Tutor – MAPPCP, University of East London, United Kingdom.
Email: t.moin@uel.ac.uk

APS CPIG Chair's Report

Vicki de Prazer

2021 is continuing to present significant psychological challenges, for individuals and their families, for workers and workplaces and the global community.

In Australia we appreciate we live on an island and our challenges around Covid-19 have been different to those our colleagues around the globe have experienced.

CPIG does recognise the impact of Covid-19 has none the less, seen the demand for psychological services increase exponentially across most sectors.

The demand for emotional support around uncertainty, the impact of lockdowns, the accelerated shift to online consulting, working and learning, the reality of job insecurity, and the unrelenting and complex pressures for those in health care, frontline services, various businesses, leadership and government.

As I mentioned a year ago, from the perspective of coaching psychology, we are obliged to reflect on what we have learned and how can we support resilience and optimism in a changed world.

Coaching psychologists need to be compassionate and empathic, acknowledging that many clients' priorities have

changed. Coaching psychologists also need to be cognitively agile and well informed, if we are to add value in this new world. CPIG attempts to meet these needs and continues to offer online PD which is well supported by members Australia wide.

An opportunity exists for coaching psychologists to play a vital role in the new future of work, the wellbeing of our communities and the lives of individuals as they build resources, resilience and optimism.

CPIG recognises the value of professional dialogues, research and knowledge exchange at a global level; we saw the amazing work that collaboration achieved in producing vaccines in an astonishing short time.

We again invite you to contact CPIG, if you would like to collaborate with us in delivering a workshop, a panel discussion or perhaps some research.

We hope to hear from you soon.

Best wishes

Vicki de Prazer

National Chair APS CPIG

SGCP Chair report

Laura Rees-Davies

THE Covid-19 pandemic has resulted in a shift towards remote working, work-life balance challenges and a focus on wellbeing both during and after lockdown. The Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) recognise the crucial role that coaches can play in both research and practice during the Covid-19 recovery phase. We have been meeting remotely to ensure that momentum is maintained in our commitment towards the re-development of professional standards, increasing our Peer Practice Group (PPG) provision, members publications, the creation of a research subgroup and our fantastic series of professional development opportunities.

We thank those of our members who joined for our recent discussion regarding the movement of the SGCP from special group to division status. It was a fantastic opportunity to talk with our members, and we look forward to such opportunities to collaborate with you in the future. If you have any questions or would like to know more about the professional standards development, you can contact Marie Stopforth by emailing sgcpchair@bps.org.uk.

The SGCP is formed of a main committee and supported by members who sit on sub-committees and working party groups. The committee remains a volunteer group, with members committed to the development of the profession and to providing our members with numerous valuable benefits. Moving into the warmer months of 2021, we will welcome Jonathan Passmore into the role of Chair. This past year, we have been joined by several new members and the committee is now as follows:

Chair: Laura Rees-Davies

Chair Elect: Jonathan Passmore

Honorary Treasurer: Michael Webster

Honorary Secretary: Natalie Lancer

Professional Standards Development: Marie Stopforth

Research Lead: Catherine Steele

Events Leads: Tia Moin, Andrea Giraldez-Hayes

Peer Practice Group Lead: Anthony Page

ICPR editor: Jonathan Passmore, Yi-Ling Lai

TCP editor: David Tee

Social Media: Tia Moin, Kazia Anderson,

PsyPAG Representative: Beth McManus

Committee members: Paula Dixon, Theresa Quinn, Jenny Lynden

We would like to take the opportunity to thank our members who have supported the webinars series and SGCP Conference 2020. If you are interested in becoming a speaker for the future webinar series, please contact us by emailing your ideas to sgcpchair@bps.org.uk for consideration.

Our Peer Practice Groups are continuing to grow. If you are interested in hosting a Peer Practice Group, please contact PPG Coordinator Tony Page by emailing member-networkservices@bps.org.uk.

We look forward to meeting with you all very soon.

Dr Laura Rees-Davies

Call for papers

The ICPR is an international peer review publication focusing on theory, practice and research in the field of coaching.

We welcome a variety of submissions covering topics including:

- Workplace coaching
- Health Coaching
- Team Coaching
- Coaching Supervision
- Leadership Coaching
- Coaching for emotional intelligence
- Gestalt Coaching
- Coaching for weight loss

Papers may include:

- Research studies examining team, board or systemic coaching
- Theoretical papers connected to team, board or systemic coaching.
- Cross cultural coaching research
- Book reviews of relevant books

All queries and submissions should be submitted to the editors via ICPRsubmissions@bps.org.uk
All research submissions will be subject to blind peer review.

Call for papers – Special Edition

Coaching in Education: Special issue of *ICPR*

Coaching has a strong educational element which is evident in practice.

The psychological practice in coaching is guided through selected systematic learning steps to achieve expected coaching outcomes. Coaching is included in the school curriculum and coaching psychology is emerging as a qualification through taught course/programme in the higher education sectors.

This special issue is calling for papers and short reports on coaching in education (either coaching for staff or students). This can be empirical evidence-based papers, theory-driven discussion papers, short reports on coaching in education practice, and policy-related reports on coaching in education.

Submission deadline: **30 September 2021**

All queries and submissions should be submitted to the editors via ICPRsubmissions@bps.org.uk
All research submissions will be subject to blind peer review.

4. Online submission process

- (a) All manuscripts must be submitted by email to: ICPRsubmissions@bps.org.uk
- (b) The submission must include the following as separate files:
 - Title page consisting of manuscript title, authors' full names and affiliations, name and address for corresponding author.
 - Abstract.
 - Full manuscript omitting authors' names and affiliations. Figures and tables can be attached separately if necessary.

5. Manuscript requirements

- Tables and figures should be included as part of the article. Images should be supplied as separate JPG files. The resolution of digital images must be at least 300 dpi.
- The following structure is suggested, although may be varied with good reason: Abstract – summarizing each of the following sections in 2 or 3 sentences; Introduction – containing a review of the literature and a link to theory where relevant; Method – description of the process with sufficient detail that another researcher could repeat the process followed during the study; Results – what was found; Discussion – What do the results mean, when considered in the light of past research findings and theory, and the limitations of the research; Implications for Practice – what does this mean for coaches; Conclusions: a short summary of the paper
- Overall, the presentation of papers should conform to the British Psychological Society's Style Guide (available at www.bps.org.uk/publications/publications_home.cfm in PDF format). Non-discriminatory language should be used throughout. Spelling should be Anglicised when appropriate. Text should be concise and written for an international readership of applied psychologists. Sensationalist and unsubstantiated views are discouraged. Abbreviations, acronyms and unfamiliar specialist terms should be explained in the text on first use.
- Particular care should be taken to ensure that references are accurate and complete. Give all journal titles in full. Referencing should follow BPS formats. For example:

Billington, T. (2000). *Separating, losing and excluding children: Narratives of difference*. London: Routledge/Falmer.

Elliott, J.G. (2000). Dynamic assessment in educational contexts: Purpose and promise. In C. Lidz & J.G. Elliott (Eds.), *Dynamic assessment: Prevailing models and applications* (pp.713–740). New York: J.A.I. Press.

Passmore, J. (2010). A grounded theory study of the coachee experience: The implications for training and practice in coaching psychology. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 5(1), 48–62.
- SI units must be used for all measurements, rounded off to practical values if appropriate, with the Imperial equivalent in parentheses.
- In normal circumstances, effect size should be incorporated.
- Authors are requested to avoid the use of sexist language.
- Authors are responsible for acquiring written permission to publish lengthy quotations, illustrations, etc., for which they do not own copyright.

6. Publication ethics

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

Principles of Publishing – Principle of Publishing.

7. Supplementary data

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

8. Post acceptance

PDF page proofs are sent to authors via email for correction of typesetting but not for rewriting or the introduction of new material. Corrections at this stage in production due to errors made by an author may incur a fee payable by the author or their institution.

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10. Checklist of requirements

As a general guide we would expect most papers to include the following sections, and approximate word lengths:

- Title and Abstract (100–200 words – this should include a sentence or two summarising each of the main sections, along with author names and affiliations)
- Full paper (4500–6000 words, with number pages and anonymised) including:
 - References
 - Tables, figures, captions and images (suitable for reproduction in black and white)

11. Ethical standards for publication

This publication has adopted a statement of compliance with COPE, as part of its ethical standards of publication. A copy of the policy can be downloaded from the ICPR website.

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Yi-Ling Lai

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