



the british
psychological society
special group in
coaching psychology

International Coaching Psychology Review

Volume 16 No. 2 – Autumn 2021



International Coaching Psychology Review

Subscriptions

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

Consulting Editor

Jonathan Passmore, DOccPsych, Centre for Coaching, Henley Business School, UK & University of Evora, Portugal

Editors

Yi-Ling Lai, PhD, Birkbeck, University of London, UK

Michael Cavanagh, PhD, Coaching, Psychology Unit, School of Psychology, Sydney University, Australia

Francine Campone, PhD Field University, USA

Joel DiGirolamo, International Coaching Federation

International Editorial Board

Hilary Armstrong, PhD, Director, Changeworks Pty Ltd, Sydney, Australia

Tatiana Bachkirova, PhD, Oxford Brookes University, UK

John Bennett, PhD, Queen's University of Charlotte, North Carolina, US

Patricia Bossons, PhD, Massey University, New Zealand

Gil Bozer, PhD, Sapir Academic College, Israel

Cary Cooper, PhD, Manchester Business School, UK

Sarah Corrie, PhD, Middlesex University, London, UK

Susan David, PhD, Harvard Medical School, US

Joel DiGirolamo, International Coaching Federation

Annette Fillery Travis

Head of the Wales Institute for Work-based Learning, Wales

Andrea Giraldez-Hayes, PhD, University of East London, UK

Eva-Maria Graf, PhD, Alpen-Adria-Universität Klagenfurt, Austria

Suzy Green, Psych (Clin), The Positivity Institute, and University of Melbourne

Rebecca Jones, PhD, Centre for Coaching, Henley Business School, UK

Stephen Joseph, PhD, University of Warwick, UK

Travis Kemp, PhD, International Graduate School of Business, University of South Australia, Australia

Rainer Kurz, PhD

Ho Law, PhD, Cambridge Coaching Psychology Group, UK

Terrance Maltbia, PhD, Columbia University, USA

Michel Moral, HEC, Paris, France

Lindsay Oades, PhD, University of Melbourne

Manfusa Shams, PhD, The Open University

Gordon Spence, PhD, University of Wollongong, Australia

Ernesto Spinelli, ES Associates, London, UK

Catherine Steele, University of Leicester, UK

Reinhard Stelter, PhD, University of Copenhagen, Denmark

Salome van Coller-Peter, University of Stellenbosch, South Africa

Llewellyn E. van Zyl, Eindhoven University of Technology, Netherlands

Mary Watts, PhD, City University, London, UK

Notes for Contributors

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.

Continued on inside back cover.

The British Psychological Society
Special Group in Coaching Psychology



International Coaching Psychology Review



Volume 16 No. 2 – Autumn 2021



Contents

- 4 Editorial
 Yi-Ling Lai

Papers

- 6 Coaching research in 2020 – About destinations, journeys and travelers (part II)
 Eva-Maria Graf & Frédérick Dionne
- 22 Does it last? A systematic review of the enduring effects on managers
 from executive coaching
 Éamon McInerney, Sabir Giga & Abigail S. Morris
- 51 Coaching for cultural sensitivity: Content analysis applying Hofstede's framework to a
 select set of the International Coach Federation's (ICF) Core Competencies
 Leticia P. Mosteo, Terrence E. Maltbia & Victoria J. Marsick
- 75 Coaching vulnerable youths for positive change: A coaching relationship model for
 promoting adolescent interpersonal relationships with trusted adults
 Rachid Choaihi & Tim Lomas

Book Reviews

- 93 *Introduction to Coaching Psychology*
 Siobhain O'Riordan & Stephen Palmer – Reviewed by Lilith A. Whiley

Editorial

Yi-Ling Lai

IT HAS been a tough 18 months for most of us whereas Covid-19 impacted our work pattern and lifestyle. Majority of us have experienced a full work from home (WFH) and isolated working environment since March 2020. Some of us have been trying to maintain the balance between work and family life. Thanks to the science and technology, our life has come back sort of 'normal' and finally we can meet up with friends, family, colleagues and loved ones in an ordinary setting we had before. I believe we all reflected on this unprecedented crisis in human history and developed a coping strategy during this period. This also can be a great opportunity for us to reassess the application and value of coaching in the exceptional circumstance.

In the past 18 months, SGCP has been continuously making efforts (as usual) to promote scientific research evidence in coaching practice and development. Here are two wonderful news to share with our members and readers.

First, we are pleased to welcome the re-designation of the Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) to a new Division of Coaching Psychology after society members voted overwhelming in favour of the resolution at the recent BPS Annual General Meeting. The current SGCP committee is working with the society to make the transitional arrangements and it is hoped these will be in place by November. We look forward to an exciting future for the network, its members and the profession.

Second, we are excited to welcome Dr Francine Campone to join us as the Editor of *ICPR* in America. Dr Campone was the Director of Fielding University's Evidence-Based Coaching certificate programme and a founding faculty member

of the coaching programme at the University of Texas at Dallas. Her research interests include the boundary between coaching and psychotherapy, the impact of life events on coaches and their coaching practice. It is our pleasure to have Dr Campone in our team and expand *ICPR* into a broader interpersonal perspective.

In the second issue of 2021, I am delighted to present three review papers which scrutinise existing coaching literature and models and reassess the sustainability of coaching intervention. In addition, this issue also includes an empirical study to explore in what way coaching impacted on adolescents within community settings. The first paper by Eva-Maria Graf and Frédérick Dionne presents the second part of their coaching literature review in 2020. Instead of outcomes and effectiveness of coaching, the second part of this review focuses on the 'process' of coaching. Specifically, their analysis argues for the necessity to engage more in qualitative research to carve out the micro-level individual interactions in the coaching process. The second paper by Éamon McInerney, Sabir Giga and Abigail Morris synthesises contemporary research evidence of executive coaching and its sustainable impacts on leaders' individual level outcomes, including leadership behaviours, influencing styles and self-evaluations. The third review paper by Leticia Mosteo, Terrence Maltbia and Victoria Marsick conducts a critical analysis of International Coach Federation's (ICF) Core Competencies by means of Hofstede's cultural dimension framework. This analysis indicates that inter-rater reliability of ICF competency definitions and cultural descriptions were conceptually clear and coherent. The paper offers evidence-based insights for the inclusion

of cultural competence in coach education, training, and credentialing processes. Last, but not the least, a qualitative research paper by Rachid Choaibi and Tim Lomas investigates the relations between the emotions-focused coaching relationship framework and vulnerable youths' psychological wellbeing. This study offers valuable insights into the understudied area of Coaching Psychology within community settings. The Holding-Containing-Attunement Model and Emotional Attunement theory makes a significant contribution to the discussion on the need for a dedicated theory on the coaching relationship. Moreover, Dr Lilith A. Whiley reviews *Introduction to Coaching Psychology* edited by Siobhain O'Riordan and Stephen Palmer and suggests this is a user-friendly, informative, and acces-

sible text for those interested in a robust and engaging to coaching psychology. Specifically, this book keeps the balance of theory, research, and practice.

Finally, we always welcome contributions from all coaching researchers and practitioners, please submit your empirical studies, theoretical discussions or project reports (4500 to 6000 words) and feel free to contact us if you have any suggestions and thoughts regarding the future improvement of *ICPR* (ICPRsubmissions@bps.org.uk). I hope you enjoy this issue.

Dr Yi-Ling Lai

Department of Organizational Psychology
Birkbeck College, University of London

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

Eva-Maria Graf & Frédérick Dionne

After Part I of Coaching Research in 2020 (Graf & Dionne, 2021a) summarised research on the destination(s) of coaching in the context of quantitative psychological outcome research, Part II will look beyond outcomes and effectiveness. It calls for more research on the coaching process itself, that is, on the journey of coaching and its travelers. To this end, we first explore the different research foci in the change-process research paradigm of coaching (Wegener et al. (Eds.), 2018). Next, the paper argues for the necessity to engage more in qualitative process research to carve out how coach and client locally, that is, on the conversational micro-level, interact with each other on a moment-to-moment basis along individual coaching sessions and entire coaching processes. We introduce qualitative linguistic coaching process research (Graf, 2015, 2018, 2019). This research paradigm addresses the coaching micro-level and investigates how the local effectiveness of coaching emerges from the turn-by-turn verbal interaction between coach and client on the basis of the sequentiality and the intersubjectivity of the coaching conversation. While coaching research and practice will benefit immensely from such an in-depth, qualitative linguistic analysis of authentic coaching interaction, this paper ends with a call for research that addresses and relates both the global effectiveness and the interaction of coaching. The TSPP (Turn–Sequence–Phase–Process) Model (Deplazes et al., 2018), which integrates concepts from quantitative psychological outcome research and qualitative linguistic process research, is presented. This model also allows for relating coaching effectiveness and interaction. The TSPP Model also underlies a very recent interdisciplinary, mixed-methods research project on questioning sequences in coaching (Graf, Spranz-Fogasy & Künzli, 2020), which will be briefly sketched out in the final part.

Keywords: Coaching process research; coaching interaction; quantitative and qualitative evaluation methods; qualitative linguistic coaching process research; interdisciplinary, mixed-methods research.

1. Beyond outcome research – Focusing on the journey, but also the travelers!

THE OVERALL EFFECTIVENESS of coaching has been convincingly corroborated in the realm of quantitative psychological outcome research (see Graf & Dionne, 2021a; Part I). While outcome research is still very prolific, there is a growing consensus amongst coaching researchers that we need to turn our empirical attention more to the journey of coaching and no longer only inquire about

its destination(s). In other words, we need more research into the coaching process itself and into the underlying interactive mechanisms between coach and client that enable and allow for such effectiveness along individual sessions and entire processes (de Haan et al., 2010, p.110; Theeboom et al., 2014, p.14; Wegener, 2018, p.23; Graf, 2018, p.151f). Such insights are still scarce and represent a major research gap in the epistemics of coaching:

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

(w)hile considering the evolution of coaching research and the tendency to focus on outcomes and process, we noticed a gap in the research. Little has so far been done to explore the interactions between coach and coachee in vivo. We believe that significant research is still needed in this area in order to explain the practice of coaching. (Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018, p.530)

This need to find out about the ‘how’ of coaching, that is, how the effectiveness of coaching is achieved, should concurrently turn our attention to the travelers who embark on the journey together. That is, our scientific focus should be directed towards coach and client. Coach and client verbally and non-verbally co-construct the aspired change and development in client’s feeling, thinking, and acting and together ‘reach the destination’, that is, together achieve change for the client. Engaging in coaching process research allows for broadening and diversifying the scientific knowledge base of coaching as we add the ‘knowing how’ to the ‘knowing that’ (Ryle, 1949) as is established in coaching outcome research.

Beyond scientific curiosity and strive, turning towards the coaching process is inspired and fueled by the concern of coaching practitioners to monitor and professionalise their work. This was already succinctly expressed by Stein about 10 years ago:

What if coaches had a tool where they could listen to, or look at transcripts of, their conversations with clients and be able to name what they were doing in every sentence or phrase that they said? What if the same tool could help coaches be conscious of the choices that they make at each moment of a coach-client conversation? Such a tool would allow coaches to be more self-reflective as practitioners; it would allow them to analyse their own conversations, in the moment and afterwards, and make judgments about what worked and what didn’t work. In short, such a tool could provide the information to help individual coaches pursue mastery of their coaching process. (2009, p.163)

With the help of (inter)action-based insights into the ‘waterline of coaching’ (Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018), that is, the point of intervention itself, it will in become possible to organise and perform coaching processes in more impactful ways (Graf & Ukowitz, 2020; Loebbert et al., 2018, p.13) and offer clients the above mentioned ‘tool’. Yet, ‘(t)he complex nature of the process, arising from the multitude of factors acting upon it, cannot be underestimated’ (Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018, p.522) and researchers are still struggling with this challenge.

One suggested solution is to focus on common factors alone and to investigate their generic influence on the process (Myers, 2017) as found in a recent meta-analysis by Graßmann et al. (2020) (see below). Yet again, the mere knowledge of how key success factors (such as the working alliance) influence the coaching outcome or how frequently certain success factors occur are not telling the practitioner enough about ‘how’ such a working alliance is really ‘done’ in the here-and-now of the unfolding coaching interaction with the client. To come up with concrete, evidence-based recommendations for actions and to develop helpful feedback tools we need to generate in-depth insights into how the outcomes of coaching emerge in the coaching interaction on a moment-by-moment basis (Deplazes et al., 2018). However – as was addressed by Fillery-Travis and Cox (2018) above – to uncover where and how the effectiveness of coaching emerges along the coaching process is empirically and methodologically challenging; coaching resides in a complex reciprocity of the participants’ communicative actions and represents a unique, while at the same time communicatively structured and systematic, event (see 4.1).

In what follows, we will provide an overview and the state-of-the-art of available research that addresses the coaching process and its participants, that is, coach and client. To this end, in Section 2, we briefly sketch out the paradigm of coaching process research, which according to Loebbert et al. (2018) combines

the classical and often diverse perspectives of quantitative and qualitative research, of subjective and objective observation, of research on outcomes and events, and of process characteristics and subjective experience. In this context, we will also juxtapose quantitative and qualitative evaluation methods of coaching. In Section 3, we will elaborate in more depth on qualitative linguistic coaching process research as originated in various publications by Graf and colleagues. The contribution ends with a call for integrating research on the effectiveness and the interaction of coaching as a possible and very promising next step in coaching research. We present the TSPP (Turn-Sequence-Phase-Process) Model as a theoretical frame to do so and a recent, interdisciplinary research project on questioning sequences in coaching (Graf, Spranz-Fogasy & Künzli, 2020) as a practical realisation.

2. From destinations to journeys and travelers: Coaching process research

2.1. The change-process research paradigm of coaching research

Coaching research in many respects follows the older and more established psychotherapy research. Coaching process research, too, has been developed in analogy with psychotherapy process research, to be more precise in analogy with the so-called 'change-process research paradigm' (Elliott, 2010, 2012; see Wegener, 2018, pp.23ff). Change process research exists in different designs, the 'process-outcome design', the 'helpful factors design', the 'microanalytic sequential process design', and the 'significant event research design'. Coaching process research is fed by various disciplines such as psychology, educational science or linguistics and applies both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Quantitatively operating *process-outcome research* targets success factors in coaching, which are theoretically and normatively developed in established change models in psychology. These explicate how clients proceed from realising a desire for action to taking such action, to evaluating the

action and to upholding the action (Greif & Benning-Rohnke, 2015). The empirical focus is, for example, on assessing frequency and intensity of success factors across established change process phases to measure how responsive coaches are regarding the theoretical underpinning of coaching (Deplazes et al., 2018). The overall goal of research in the process-outcome design is to validate the causal relationship between process and outcome variables (see, for example, Ianiro & Kauffeld, 2014): In a recent meta-analysis, Graßmann et al. (2020) investigate the relationship between working alliance and outcomes in coaching. They conclude that the relationship seems to be stronger in comparison to psychotherapy, which – according to the authors – may result from different expectations in the two formats:

Coaching clients may expect less depth and necessity to open up and as such tend to hold back sensitive but valuable information. When the working alliance is strong, clients may still share their feelings and thoughts with their coaches, which may contribute to a stronger working alliance-outcome relationship in coaching. (ibid., p.17)

Helpful factors research, following the paradigm of qualitative social research, targets process variables of coaching that are experienced as helpful, supportive or counter-productive for clients' change (see, for example, de Haan et al., 2010; de Haan & Nieß, 2018). Research in this design draws on the subjective experience of both coach and client in ex-post interviews or questionnaires and aims at identifying these (un-)helpful factors as possible starting points for in-depth analysis of the related process components. Moreover, the goal is to build categories of helpful process factors and thereby to contribute to theory building as regards how helpful factors influence the overall outcomes of coaching.

Microanalytic sequential process design – located both in the quantitative deductive and qualitative inductive research paradigm – aims to assess established interven-

tions in coaching, their quality as well as clients' reactions in (short) sequences of video-recorded coaching interaction. Its goal is to validate assumed or established relationships between interventions or common factors and the effectiveness of coaching. Deplazes (2016) developed a category system for the analysis of coaching process: she started out with an extensive literature review on coaching interventions and then coded the contributions by both coach and client in video-recorded coaching processes to corroborate the theoretical assumptions regarding coaching interventions and tools. The linguistic coaching process research by Graf and colleagues can also be attributed to the micro-level sequential process research (see Section 3).

The fourth and last research design within the change-process research paradigm investigates significant events along the coaching process in qualitative-quantitative studies (*Significant events design*). These events are assessed with the help of post-event interviews with the participants and in addition with an analysis of these events and their development along the coaching processes themselves. The goal is to advance a theoretical foundation of their characteristics as well as their processual creation and development. The overall goal is to relate significant events in the process to coaching outcomes (see Wegener, 2017, 2018).

The biggest setback with existing process research lies in its understanding and conceptualisation of the coaching process itself, which according to Wegener (2017, p.35) is oftentimes too simplistic and too static. A more realistic perspective sees the coaching process as 'the interaction between the coach and the client within a single session of the coaching and/or a series of coaching sessions' (Myers, 2017, p.590) or 'the point of the intervention itself' (Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018, p.527). The process is locally co-constructed by coach and client on a moment-by-moment basis in and through their turns-at-talk as part of their coaching conversations. According

to de Haan and Page (2013), these conversations between coach and clients are key to results, or, in other words, they are the guarantor of the effectiveness of coaching. Concurrently, they are not replicable in their singularity and reside in a complex reciprocity of the participants' communicative actions. Analysing the in-situ coaching conversations between coach and client therefore poses empirical and methodological challenges and consequently, '...with notable exceptions... the coaching activity itself, the interactions of the dyad, including the elements of listening, questioning, clarifying, reflecting, challenging and thinking, have not been researched' (Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018, p.527).

Before we present linguistic coaching process research in Section 3, which is particularly dedicated and prone to investigate exactly those interactive phenomena in coaching, we want to briefly discuss the major differences between quantitative and qualitative evaluation methodologies in coaching research.

2.2. From quantitative to qualitative evaluation in coaching

While coaching process research cannot be equated with qualitative research and qualitative research entails various, often-times quite diverse research perspectives (cf. Flick et al., 2019, p.19), there are substantial differences between investigating the effectiveness of coaching from a quantitative or qualitative perspective. While the quantitative research paradigm is still more prominent, there is a recent upsurge in qualitative coaching research. As argued by de Haan (2019, p.227), '(t)here is substantial evidence that qualitative research in executive coaching has come of age in the previous decade'. His 2019 systematic review attests to such a positive development. Quantitative (coaching) research applies a deductive, theory-driven approach and requires large data sets to generate statistically reliable findings as regards the frequency of certain factors or the causal relationship between

these factors and the outcome of coaching. Qualitative (coaching) research – in contrast – (mostly) applies an inductive, phenomenological approach and requires rich, natural data to carve out the participants' own understanding of the processes under scrutiny. As such, qualitative coaching research starts with the coaching session or the coaching process itself, that is, with the interaction between coach and client. It aims to evince how the participants themselves co-construct what the session is about, what is important and what should be achieved (Graf, 2015, 2018). This means that '(t)his form of qualitative research stays as close as possible to the events in the sessions themselves' (de Haan, 2019, p.228) with the goal to draw an authentic picture of what really happens when coach and client interactively engage in coaching.

The gist of the difference lies in the necessary reduction of the complex and unique coaching interaction to a single, replicable number or a row of replicable numbers in the context of large data sets in quantitative research as opposed to the in-depth description and interpretation of single moments or interactive practices in the context of a reduced data set. While the former research is thus aiming at validating hypotheses, the latter research is (mostly) explorative in nature. In very general terms, qualitative social research does not approach the data with pre-established hypotheses or categories, but with an open heuristic to develop categories inductively from the material itself within an exploratory design (Ayaß, 2018; Flick et al. (Eds.), 2019). Neither statistical relevance, replicability of its findings nor the reduction of social reality to variables is thereby aspired. The consequences of this principal difference lie in the applicability of both methodologies as regards diverse research questions, but also in the disciplinary acceptance of these paradigms or of the findings generated:

Although quantitative evaluations (...) are habitually considered to be the most rigorous evaluation method of coaching results (...), many researchers appreciate more in-depth

information about a coachee's progress and organisational change. Such information needs to be collected using qualitative measures ... or combined methods. (McDowall & Lai, 2018, p.483)

As argued convincingly in de Haan's (2019) review, research in the qualitative methodological paradigm allows to answer questions that cannot be addressed from the methodological paradigm of quantitative research. Qualitative research thus adds decisively to our overall epistemics of coaching by enquiring into how coaching effectiveness is achieved or why certain coaching sessions are more effective than others (Deplazes et al., 2018; Graf, 2015, 2018; Graf & Jautz, 2019). As already mentioned, generating answers to these questions requires the researcher to delve deeply into the interaction itself with the help of detailed descriptions or recordings of the coaching events themselves. According to de Haan (2019, p.228), such insights offer valuable, yet highly personal and provisional answers. As will be argued later on in the context of linguistic coaching process research, the rigorous methodologies of Conversation Analysis (CA) do allow for generating systematic and stable findings in the context of representative examples for a specific communicative phenomenon beyond such highly personal and provisional answers.

To sum up, coaching process research applies both quantitative and qualitative methodologies to gain insights into the coaching interaction or conversation and to find out how the attested effectiveness of coaching is interactively co-constructed by coach and client. Each methodological approach is suited to address specific research questions in the overall strive to create a sound evidence-base for the coaching process. Qualitative research is particularly suited to explore and describe the communicative activities that take place during the coaching interaction, that is, those activities that Fillery-Travis and Cox (2018) term as 'linguistically rich' (but also

activities such as listening or silences, which they term as ‘linguistically poor’). While they argue that research into these phenomena is still scarce and represents one of the most pressing research gaps, they elaborate that ‘methods for uncovering what happens in the linguistically ‘rich’ end of the spectrum might involve recordings of speech and verbal interaction during the coaching session followed by the use of conversation or discourse analysis approaches’ (Fillery-Travis & Cox, 2018, p.529).

In what follows, we will describe such an approach and document how the use of conversation analytic methods allows to generate stable insights into the complexity of the in-vivo coaching interaction and its underlying communicative activities and thereby also allows to generate insights into the (local) effectiveness of coaching.

3. Qualitative linguistic coaching process research

3.1. General background, argumentation and procedure

Linguistic coaching process research follows qualitative social research and its primary goal to describe the underlying processes and practices used by the participants themselves in their co-construction of the social situation. Premised on the insight that human interaction and thus human communication is not haphazard, but organised following an interaction order as stated by Goffmann (1983), its quality and informative value come from carving out and interpreting representative examples and interactive patterns for the phenomenon under scrutiny (Voutilainen et al., 2011, p.350).

More specifically, linguistically based coaching process research in its descriptive-phenomenological stance forms part of the ‘microanalytic sequential process design’ (see 2.1.) and addresses how coaching as interactive and communicative process emerges from the verbal, sequentially organised, turn-by-turn interaction between coach and client along individual coaching sessions as well as entire coaching

processes. Informed by research in Conversation Analysis on more established professional helping formats, particularly research on psychotherapy, it investigates the local and processual co-construction of the coaching interaction by coach and client in search of answering basic questions such as ‘what features of the professional helping conversation between coach and client characterise it as coaching (as opposed to, for example, a therapeutic conversation?)?’ (Graf, 2015, 2018, 2019). The analytic focus thereby is on structural, interactive and thematic characteristics of these conversations.

Numerous findings from linguistic research on other helping professional formats such as psychotherapy convincingly argue that anything the professional and the client do along their conversations, is done and understood in the context of the other participant’s previous turn(s) at talk (most recently Peräkylä, 2019; Graf et al. (Eds.), 2019; Pawelczyk & Graf (Eds.), 2019). In responding or reacting to each other, the participants, for example, coach and client, convey an understanding of the other’s experience as it has been expressed and displayed by the others (that is, they co-construct intersubjectivity). Because turns are tied together by adjacency, in responding to the prior action, ‘the participants inevitably have to orient to and work with the understandings of the experience that they each bring about through their actions’ (Peräkylä et al. (Eds.), 2008, p.16). This ‘interplay of understanding’ as regards both the content and the relation to the co-participant brings the coaching process forward and allows for the local effectiveness of coaching (Deplazes et al., 2018; Graf et al. (Eds.), 2019). As summarised by Peräkylä (2019) from a CA perspective, clients’ transformation of their experience can be identified in sequential relations between utterances, that is, in the sequential organisation of conversations. Furthermore, ‘the utterance-by-utterance transformation contributes to the process of change in more macroscopic time, spanning the continuum

of psychotherapeutic [or coaching, EG & FD] sessions' (2019, p.257). With the help of a microscopic analysis of the interactional trajectory of a coaching session/a coaching process, namely the build-up of sequentially organised and interdependent turns-at-talk, we can carve out how clients' transformation emerges locally in the context of their conversations with the coach.

What CA research needs for this kind of analysis is video- and/or audio-recordings of authentic coaching processes (that is, not staged for training, research, or illustration purposes), which are linguistically transcribed following the transcription guidelines of CA (see Jefferson, 2004). Such linguistic transcription goes well beyond verbatim protocols used for most other types of process research. Instead, linguistic transcriptions reproduce the recorded talk as closely as possible by focusing – beyond the verbal content part – also on interactive phenomena such as (length of) pauses, overlaps, repairs, back channelling behaviour, minimal responses, pitch, stress etc. but of course also on body-posture, gaze direction, etc.

Graf (2018, p.141ff) sketches the following rough research schedule for qualitative linguistic coaching process research:

1. Recording of authentic coaching conversations.
2. Transcription of authentic coaching conversations.
3. Familiarisation with the data (via close reading and note taking) and looking for patterns.

While CA approaches the data with an open eye, such familiarisation with the data is not an 'unmotivated looking' (Stokoe & Smithson, 2001), but a sensitised perception of what is going on geared by 'sensitising concepts' (Blumer, 1969). These 'sensitising concepts' are open enough to integrate interaction-type specificities, while at the same time they help the researcher to develop a more sensitive perception of underlying patterns of meaning making in the event under scrutiny. As mentioned above, in the case of CA-based

coaching research such sensitising concepts stem from CA-based research on professional communication in general (Drew & Heritage (Eds.), 1992), on helping professions (Graf et al. (Eds.), 2014; Graf et al. (Eds.), 2019; Graf & Spranz-Fogasy, 2018a; Pick, 2017; Scarvaglieri et. al., under review) and particularly on psychotherapy (e.g. Pawelczyk & Graf (Eds.), 2019; Peräkylä, 2019).

4. Interpretation of patterns and terminological reconstruction.

Categories in linguistic analysis are abductively developed, detailed and adapted according to the data at hand. The concrete analysis is based on a sequential analysis of the phenomenon under scrutiny and on a collection of these phenomena; such a sequential analysis minimally considers the three-part interactional trajectory of target actions in the form of (1) initiation (e.g. coach's question) (2) response (e.g. client's answer) (3) third-position action (e.g. coach's assessment of client's answer). So-called 'target utterances or actions' (Peräkylä, 2019) thereby refer to any distinguishable action the conversation analyst focuses on. The entire material is skimmed through for such target actions, these are collected until the collection is saturated, that is, until no more examples of such target actions are found in the data. Next, the collection of examples is – case-by-case – sequentially analysed regarding their linguistic-discursive and interactive characteristics. On this basis a typology of the 'target action' is developed, whose validity is based on the representativeness of its examples, and a terminological reconstruction frames this typology.

Such methodology allows for the analysis to go way beyond a mere description of the data at hand: 'in order to develop analysis that goes beyond pure description, one must look to the wider argumentative and interpretative resources of both, speakers and analysts, in order to produce analytic commentary' (Stokoe & Smithson, 2001, p.238).

3.2 Current research foci

As was outlined above, qualitative linguistic coaching process research is still in its infancy. In comparison with CA research on psychotherapy, many questions have not even been posed at this point and for others we are just slowly starting to generate first answers. The following subsection provides information on some of these findings and on some of the current questions.

The Basic Activity Model of Executive Coaching (Graf, 2015, 2019)

One of the first results of linguistic coaching process research was a model that allows to both describe and analyse single coaching sessions and entire coaching processes along their (inter)active and thematic lines. Based on a corpus of nine complete coaching processes (around 145 hours of authentic coaching conversations), Graf developed an activity-based descriptive model of coaching. The basic activity approach captures what coach and client ‘do’ together, that is, the approach focuses on the communicative tasks the participants verbally tackle along the coaching session and the coaching process as well as the discursive practices (such as, for example, active listening, re-interpreting, asking questions) they use to solve these tasks. It thereby, pays tribute to the interactively, thematically, and discursively looping nature of coaching. The established basic activities are ‘Defining the Situation’ (with core communicate tasks such as ‘Establishing the Coaching Realm’ or ‘Methodological and Procedural Framing of Coaching’), ‘Building the Relationship’ (with core communicative tasks such as ‘Establishing the Roles and Identities of ‘Coach’ and ‘Client’ or ‘Negotiating Hierarchy in an Asymmetrical Relationship’), ‘Co-Constructing Change’ (with core communicative tasks such as ‘Diagnosing’ or ‘Intervening’) and ‘Evaluating the Coaching’ (with core communicative task such as ‘Evaluating the Coaching Interaction’). Coach and client must engage in all of the four basic activities to be doing ‘coaching’. The individual discursive and interactional morphology of

each coach-client dyad and their ‘coaching work’ results from the local, in-situ realisation of these four basic activities together with their communicative tasks, core components and applied communicative strategies (Graf & Jautz, under review). While certain basic activities entail an inherent temporal ordering (for example, communicative tasks in the context of ‘Defining the Situation’ must be tackled before communicative tasks in the context of ‘Co-Constructing Change’), in others such as ‘Building the Relationship’ the participants engage along the entire coaching process, yet in the context of varying communicative tasks. Current research applying this model investigates the inter- and intra-activity dimensions of ‘Co-Constructing Change’ within individual coaching sessions and entire coaching processes (Graf & Jautz, 2019) and the discursive practices used to build the working alliance in coaching (Graf & Jautz, under review).

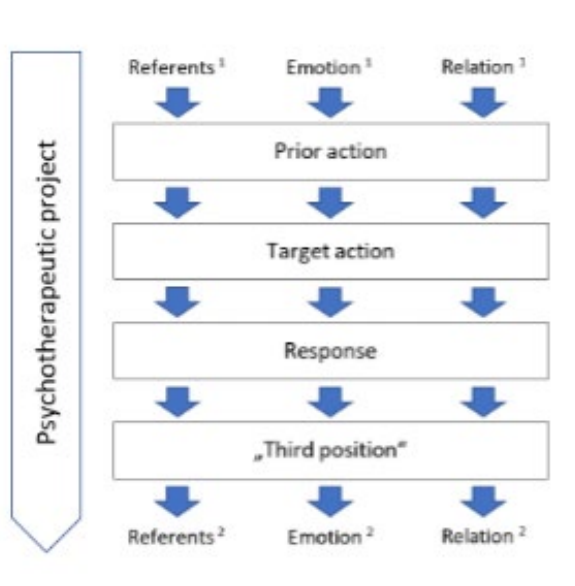
Research on questioning practices in coaching

Another research focus lies on questioning practices in coaching. It is motivated by the stark contrast between the claimed omnipresence and omnirelevance of questions across the coaching practice literature and their dire research situation (see Graf et al., 2020; Graf & Spranz-Fogasy, 2018b). This circumstance was also recently criticised by Fillery-Travis and Cox (2018, p.528):

Blocked quotation

While the little existing research on questions agrees that ‘effective questioning lies at the very heart of the coaching conversation’ (Grant & O’Connor, 2010, p.102), questions such as ‘(b)ut what constitutes ‘effective’ questioning in coaching?’ (ibid.) remain unanswered. Existing studies relate pre-defined, isolated types of questions, whose exact wording is laid out in coding schema, to certain effects on clients’ affect, cognition, or behaviour. They focus on the ‘what’ in coaching and look into the frequency of questions, but do not consider the sequential and interactive character of

Figure 1: Three-part sequential organisation of target actions (from Peräkylä, 2019).



(questioning in) coaching along individual sessions and entire processes.

These aspects are at the centre of the linguistic research on questioning practices, which is based on the assumption that analysing questions means analysing a central, reflection inviting, and thus change inducing, communicative practice in professional helping interactions (Graf & Spranz-Fogasy, 2018b; Graf, Dionne & Spranz-Fogasy, 2020; Graf, Spranz-Fogasy & Künzli, 2020). The inherent sequentiality of questions – questions always cause some kind of response – allows the participants to co-construct intersubjectivity, which ensures the local effectiveness in helping interactions (see 3.1). According to Voutilainen et al. (2011, p.348), ‘an analysis that focuses on sequences of talk that are interactionally similar offers a sensitive method to investigate the manifestation of therapeutic change.’ Researching questions from a CA perspective therefore entails a necessary shift from ‘question’ to ‘question-answer-third position reaction sequence’. In this sequential design, questions help coaches to pursue their professional agenda by setting a specific kind of response from the client thematically

and interactionally relevant and by reacting to clients’ response via their ‘third position action’. This third position action captures what the producer of the question (i.e. the coach) does in ‘response to the response’ due to the professional agenda they follow (cf. Peräkylä, 2019, p.262) (see Figure 1).

Questions are linguistically defined according to structural aspects such as lexical criteria (wh-questions such as ‘what’ or ‘why’) and syntactic criteria (verb-first and declarative questions). Different question types entail an inherent asymmetry according to different stocks of knowledge in and epistemic rights of the participants. Questions manifest the questioner’s presuppositions, prospectively set the thematic and action-oriented agenda and contain a preference organisation for the answers. Questions are posed for various communicative purposes such as asking for information, requesting actions, or inviting for reflection and perform a moment-by-moment informational and relational management on the local level of the coaching conversation. Finally, questioning practices show interaction-type specificity, even in relatively ‘close’ interaction types such as psychotherapy and coaching (see above

Fillery-Travis and Cox's (2018) argument for comparative research).

In this vein, Spranz-Fogasy et al. (2019) analyse and contrast requesting examples in both psychotherapy and coaching. Requesting examples are understood as retrospective requests from the therapist/coach to the patient/client to elaborate their directly preceding utterance via an exemplary concretisation such as, for example, 'Could you give an example?'. The findings attest to similarities between the two formats (such as initiating patients/clients to reflect on their perception and action), but also to interaction-specific disparities in terms of content thematised as well as patients'/clients' resistance and/or readiness to provide the professionals with examples of problematic behaviours and thus to change them in therapy and coaching respectively.

More recently, Graf and Kabatnik (under review) as well as Kabatnik and Graf (under review) set out to analyse solution-oriented questions in coaching and to contrast the findings with solution-oriented questions in psychotherapy. Based on prior work on solution-oriented questions in psychotherapy (Kabatnik et al., 2019; Marciniak, 2017; Spranz-Fogasy et al., 2019), these specific questioning practices are assumed to produce forward-looking awareness, expansion and reorganisation of knowledge as well as an increased agency on the clients' side. These procedures are assumed to become apparent not only locally in the immediate context of solution-oriented questions, but also globally in the course of the interaction as a whole, that is, along the entire coaching process. While our linguistic research on questions tackles the local change potential of this intervention, tackling their global change potential requires a close alliance between linguistics and psychology as will be argued at the end of this contribution.

3.3. Challenges

Linguistic coaching process research is a convincing and rewarding method to learn about the in-situ interaction of coach and

client in the context of their coaching session. Yet, due to its qualitative evaluation practices, the required data type and the manageability of only relatively small amounts of data, it is challenging and challenged in many ways. According to Fillery-Travis & Cox (2018, p.528),

(i)n fact, what we have termed the 'waterline' area of coaching is probably not researched because it is quite challenging methodologically and ethically. It may evolve some form of interruption to coaching sessions, which could be an anathema to researchers and participants. It could be obtrusive and it may be time-consuming. However, this should not discourage researchers when they are in pursuit of the reliability or legitimacy of coaching.

In respect of the ethical issues, the video-recorded data is completely anonymised as regards names, places, organisations and/or any other recognisable piece of information in the process of its linguistic transcription. In addition, for publication purposes only small, decontextualised parts are reproduced as data excerpts and recognition is completely impossible. As regards the intrusion into the coaching process, both our own experience (Graf, 2015, 2019) and those of colleagues (for example, Hutchby, 2007; Hutchby et al., 2012) found that often participants actively integrated the recordings of the sessions into the coaching or therapeutic process as part of their situated interactional work, that is, they sometimes discussed the videos and treated them as an additional resource in their mutual work on clients' concerns. In order to minimise the intrusion, the coaches themselves are invited to video-record the sessions as was done in the data that Graf collected for her research. Still, too few practitioners (and clients) are willing to participate in such research and provide linguists with recordings of authentic coaching material.

Besides such data generation problems, the biggest challenge is the time-consuming qualitative analysis (and prior to that, the

transcription) that renders the analysis of large data sets (nearly) impossible. While this is not considered problematic from a CA perspective, whose exploratory empirical interest lies in reconstructing the social event under scrutiny from the participants' (that is, coach and client's) own perspective in a systematic, detailed and bottom-up manner, the standards of quantitative research – meaning objectivity, validity and reliability – cannot be met.

All in all, as long as we strive for the gold standard of double-blind randomised control trials, of systematic reviews or meta-analyses and consider the empirical value of primary studies and case studies low, the 'waterline of coaching' will remain a black box. We should therefore take the results from linguistic primary studies on questioning practices or other discursive and interactive phenomena (as well as other qualitatively operating coaching research) as one form of the 'best available evidence' (McDowell & Lai, 2018, p.495) for the underlying coaching interaction and as a (small) part of the overall 'wide agenda of coaching evaluation' (ibid).

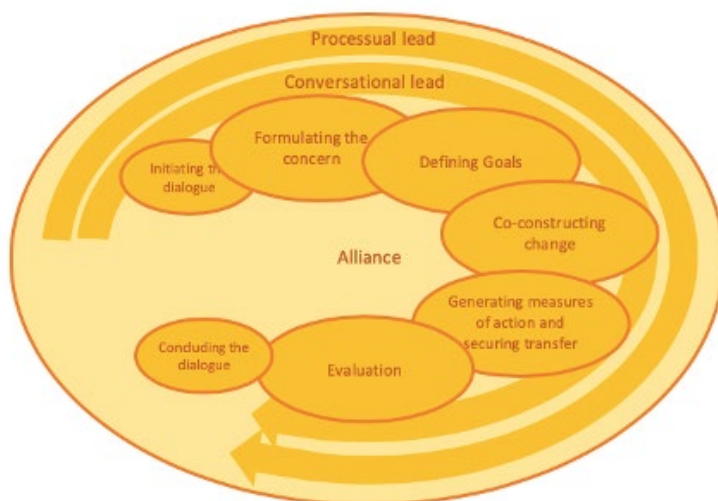
Concurrently, we also want to make a claim for interdisciplinary (and ideally transdisciplinary) as well as mixed-methods coaching research that aligns various perspectives and assembles different epistemes around the 'common cause' of coaching (Widdowson, 2018, p.141) to trespass disciplinary and methodological limitations (Graf & Dionne, 2021b): given that qualitative linguistic coaching process research focuses on the local effectiveness of discursive practices such as questioning sequences, but does not (and would have difficulties to do so) relate these findings to the overall, global effectiveness of the intervention 'coaching', a cooperative research approach seems promising. We will elaborate on these thoughts in our final section.

4. Integrating effectiveness and interaction as a possible next step in coaching research

4.1. The appropriate responsiveness problem

To briefly summarise all the above, while coaching outcome research documents that coaching is effective due to certain success factors, coaching process research adds insights into intensity and frequency of such success factors (in the theory-guided psychological research tradition) and insights into the sequentiality of the coaching interaction (in the descriptive-phenomenological linguistic research tradition). While integrating effectiveness and interaction is highly relevant for our understanding of coaching, this endeavor is empirically challenging. This challenge, termed 'appropriate responsiveness' (AR) by Stiles (2013) and Kramer and Stiles (2015), refers to how professional helpers act in accordance with what is best for their clients based on both their professional agenda and the interactional context. AR may manifest itself in the form of attentive listening or asking appropriate questions (cf. Stiles, 2013, p.33). For outcome research, AR is highly challenging given that it '...undermines many conclusions based on linear reasoning and linear statistics' (Kramer & Stiles, 2015, p.277). Kramer and Stiles (2015) suggest qualitative descriptions that engage in responsiveness by detailing how therapist – or coach – and client respond to each other on the micro-level of the interaction as one way of empirically addressing this 'responsiveness problem' (ibid, p.283). In Conversation Analysis (CA) based psychotherapy research, various studies have already tackled (and referred to) the problem of responsiveness by focusing on the sequential relations between participants' utterances alongside a therapy session (see 3.1). Yet, these linguistic investigations do not link the local change potential of questioning practices, for example, back to the underlying professional agenda, the established phases of change and the goal attainment, (that is, to the global effectiveness of the interac-

Figure 2: The TSPP Model (adapted from Deplazes et al., 2018).



tion; see 3.3). Concurrently, psychological outcome research argues for the global effectiveness of coaching through established phases of change, while ignoring the sequentially unfolding coaching interaction. This current state of affairs results in an incomplete picture of how professional helpers tailor their behaviour in response to what their clients and the intervention need (see also Graf, Dionne & Spranz-Fogasy, 2020).

4.2. The TSPP Model of Coaching

The goals of fully understanding appropriate responsiveness and the development of change (that is, both local and global effectiveness) in coaching can only be reached through interdisciplinary work among psychological and linguistic researchers. The design and publication of the Turn-Sequence-Phase-Process (henceforth TSPP) Model of Coaching by Deplazes et al. (2018) is a first successful result of such a collaboration. The model links the established phases of change to the sequentiality of conversations by integrating both the action logic of interactions and of change. The smallest conversational units, turns, combine into sequences due to conditional relevance and thematic connections, and from these sequences emerge complex phases. These phases – ‘Initiating

the dialogue’, ‘Formulating the concern’, ‘Defining goals’, ‘Co-constructing change’, ‘Generating measures of action and securing transfer’, ‘Evaluation’, and ‘Concluding the dialogue’ – incorporate the theory on phases of change discussed in psychological research (see Figure 2).

During the coaching, helping professional and client build a working alliance upon which the entire helping interaction rests. The coach is responsible for the ‘processual lead’ and ‘conversational lead’ of the interaction: this means that, following their professional agenda, the coach initiates, processes and finalises the phases of the process as they take place in the helping conversation.

Concretely, the TSPP Model has the potential to shed light on ‘what’ (for example, a success factor), ‘how’ (the sequential character of this success factor in the unfolding coaching conversation), ‘where’ (success factors in the context of specific phases of coaching) and ‘how often’ (how often do certain success factors occur in the various phases) and connect the obtained results to the intervention’s global effectiveness. In this sense, the model allows insights into coaches’ appropriate responsive behaviour in terms of both professional agenda and

micro-level interaction with their clients (see also Graf et al., 2020).

Besides such general usability to address the appropriate responsiveness problem, the model underlies a current international DACH (Germany – Austria – Switzerland) coaching research project that aims to assess the local and global change potential of questioning sequences by carving out their coaching endemic functions as well as their occurrences and frequencies along phases, sessions and entire coaching processes (Graf, Spranz-Fogasy & Künzli, 2020). The project *Questioning Sequences in Coaching* (Austrian Science Fund (FWF): I 49990 – G) builds on an interdisciplinary, mixed-methods research design that integrates qualitative and quantitative methods from the realms of psychology and linguistics and works with authentic, video-taped and linguistically transcribed coaching processes whose overall, global effectiveness is concurrently be assessed via a reduced and simplified Goal Attainment Scaling GAS.

5. Conclusion

Coaching Research in 2020 – About Destinations, Journeys and Travelers (Parts I & II) offers an extensive up-to-date overview of coaching research in 2020 and summarises both existing coaching outcome research (Part I, Graf & Dionne, 2021a) – metaphorically framed here as research on the destinations of coaching – and coaching process research (the current contribution, Part II) – metaphorically framed here as research on the journeys and travelers of coaching.

The current contribution, Part II on the coaching process started out with detailing the change-process research paradigm, originally developed for psychotherapy research, and then moved on to elaborate on linguistic coaching research as one possible way of engaging in coaching process research. This qualitative research paradigm focuses on what coach and client ‘do together’ when they engage in coaching (as elaborated in the Basic Activity Model of Executive Coaching) and more specifically on the local

turn-by-turn co-construction of the coaching conversations by coach and client. As such it allows to carve out how the in-situ sequential interaction of coach and client in the context of the basic activities accounts for the local effectiveness of coaching.

We ended the state of the art in coaching (process) research with sketching out the necessary next step in coaching research to understand how the global effectiveness of coaching emerges in and through the local coaching interaction. To do so, we as researchers must trespass disciplinary and methodological boundaries, draw on epistemes from various disciplines and engage in interdisciplinary meaning making. This was illustrated with the TSPP Model (Deplazes et al., 2018) where qualitative linguistic coaching process research joined forces with quantitative psychological outcome research. A model was developed that builds on turns, sequences, phases, and processes and allows to address the research foci ‘what’, ‘how’, ‘where’ and ‘how often’ against the backdrop of the assessment of the global effectiveness of analysed coaching processes. While this model was theoretically developed to overcome the appropriate responsiveness problem, it also underlies a very recent, international, and interdisciplinary coaching research project (Graf, Spranz-Fogasy & Künzli, 2020). This project sets out to establish the first evidence-based typology of coaching questions and to assess their local and global change potential in the context of authentic coaching processes. To do so, it applies a mixed-methods research design that draws on qualitative linguistic coaching process research and qualitative and quantitative psychological coaching process-outcome research. While this research design was developed to analyse questioning sequences in coaching, its interdisciplinary and mixed-methods approach will hopefully also help to address and investigate other processual phenomena in coaching in the future and thereby add to our understanding of both the effectiveness and the interaction of coaching.

Authors

Eva-Maria Graf & Frédérick Dionne

Affiliation (for both authors):

University of Klagenfurt

Correspondence

Eva-Maria Graf

eva-maria.graf@aau.at

References

- Ayaß, R. (2018). Qualitative Methoden. In D. Hoffmann & R. Winter (Eds.), *Mediensoziologie. Handbuch für Wissenschaft und Studium*. Baden-Baden: Nomos
- Blumer, H. (1969). *Symbolic Interactionism: Perspective and Method*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- de Haan, E. (2019). A systematic review of qualitative studies in workplace and executive coaching: The emergence of a body of research. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 71(4), 227–248.
- de Haan, E., Bertie, C., Day, A. & Sills, C. (2010). Critical moments of clients of coaching: Towards a 'Client Model' of executive coaching. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 9(4), 607–621.
- de Haan, E. & Page, N. (2013). Outcome report. Conversations are key to results. *Coaching at Work*, 8(4), 10–13.
- de Haan, E. & Nieß, C. (2018). Kritische Momente im Coaching. Wie Klienten und Klientinnen, Coaches und Interessensgruppen Veränderung wahrnehmen. In R. Wegener, A. Fritze, M. Hänseler & M. Loebbert (Eds.), *Coaching-Prozessforschung. Forschung und Praxis im Dialog*. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht.
- Deplazes, S. (2016). *KaSyCo – Kategoriensystem zur Analyse von Coachingprozessen*. Kassel: University Press.
- Deplazes, S., Graf, E.-M. & Künzli, H. (2018). Das TSPP-Model. Eine Blaupause für die Coaching-Prozessforschung. *Coaching | Theorie & Praxis*. doi:10.1365/s40896-018-0025-0.
- Drew, P. & Heritage, J. (Eds.) (1992). *Talk at work. Interaction in institutional settings*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Elliott, R. (2010). Psychotherapy change process research. *Psychotherapy Research*, 20(2), 123–135.
- Elliott, R. (2012). Qualitative methods for studying psychotherapy change process. In D. Harper & A.R. Thompson (Eds.), *Qualitative research methods in mental health and psychotherapy: A guide for students and practitioners*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Fillery-Travis, A. & Cox, E. (2018). Researching Coaching. In E. Cox, T. Bachkirova & D. Clutterbuck (Eds.), *The Complete Handbook of Coaching* (3rd edn). London: Sage.
- Flick, U., von Kardoff, E. & I. Steinke (Eds.) (2019). *Qualitative Forschung. Ein Handbuch* (13th edn). Hamburg: Rowohlt's Enzyklopadie.
- Flick, U., von Kardoff, E. & I. Steinke (2019). Was ist qualitative Forschung? Einleitung und Überblick. In U. Flick, E. von Kardoff & I. Steinke (Eds.), *Qualitative Forschung. Ein Handbuch* (13th edn). Hamburg: Rowohlt's Enzyklopadie.
- Goffman, E. (1983). The Interaction Order. *American Sociological Review*, 48(1), 1–17.
- Graf, E.-M. (2015) Kommunikative Basisaktivitäten im Coaching-Gespräch: Ein linguistischer Beitrag zur Coaching-Prozessforschung. *Coaching | Theorie & Praxis*. doi:10.1365/s40896-015-0001-1.
- Graf, E.-M. (2018). Äußerung für Äußerung zum Coaching-Prozess: Das Potential einer gesprächsanalytisch fundierten Coaching-Prozessforschung. In R. Wegener, A. Fritze, M. Hänseler & M. Loebbert (Eds.), *Coaching-Prozessforschung. Forschung und Praxis im Dialog*. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht.
- Graf, E.-M. (2019). *The Pragmatics of Executive Coaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Graf, E.-M., Sator, M. & Spranz-Fogasy, T. (Eds.) (2014). *Discourses of Helping Professions*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Graf, E.-M. & Spranz-Fogasy, T. (2018a). Helfende Berufe – Helfende Interaktionen. In K. Birkner & N. Janich (Eds.), *Handbuch Text und Gespräch*. Amsterdam: de Gruyter.
- Graf, E.-M. & Spranz-Fogasy, T. (2018b). Welche Frage, Wann und Warum? Eine qualitativ-linguistische Programmatik zur Erforschung von Frage-Sequenzen als zentrale Veränderungspraktik im Coaching. *Coaching | Theorie und Praxis*. doi:10.1365/s40896-018-0021-4.
- Graf, E.-M. & Jautz, S. (2019). 'und wie wie entsteht veränderung und damit haben_s wir ja auch mit dir zu tun' – Einblicke in die kommunikative Basisaktivität 'Ko-Konstruieren von Veränderung' im Führungskräfte-Coaching. In E.-M. Graf, C. Scarvaglieri & T. Spranz-Fogasy (Eds.), *Pragmatik der Veränderung. Problem- und Lösungsorientierte Kommunikation in helfenden Berufen*. Tübingen: Narr/Francke/Attempo.
- Graf, E.-M., Scarvaglieri, C. & Spranz-Fogasy, T. (Eds.). (2019). *Pragmatik der Veränderung. Problem- und Lösungsorientierte Kommunikation in helfenden Berufen*. Tübingen: Narr/Francke/Attempo.
- Graf, E.M. & Ukowitz, M. (2020). Transdisziplinarität in der Coaching-Prozessforschung – Neue Wege der Zusammenarbeit. *Coaching | Theorie & Praxis*.

- Graf, E.-M., Spranz-Fogasy, T. & Künzli, H. (2020). *Questioning Sequences in Coaching*. DACH-research project funded by FWF, DFG and SNF.
- Graf, E.-M., Dionne, F. & Spranz-Fogasy, T. (2020). How to investigate the local and global change potential of questioning sequences in executive coaching? A call for interdisciplinary research. *Scandinavian Studies in Language*, 11(1), 214–238.
- Graf, E.-M. & Dionne, F. (2021a). Coaching research in 2020 – About destinations, journeys and travellers (Part I). *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 16(1), 36–50.
- Graf, E.-M. & Dionne, F. (2021b). Knowing 'that', knowing 'why' and knowing 'how' – Aligning perspectives and assembling epistemes for a transdisciplinary analysis of questioning sequences in executive coaching. A research journey. *AILA Review*, 34(1), 56–77.
- Graf, E.-M. & Jautz, S. (under review). Co-constructing the professional identities of 'coach' and 'client' – Insights into the local management of the coaching alliance. In C. Scarvaglieri, E.-M. Graf & T. Spranz-Fogasy (Eds.), *The Pragmatics of Relationship Building in Helping Professions*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Graf, E.-M. & Kabatnik, S. (under review). [W]ie und was können Sie noch besser • organisieren, um • auch Freiräume sich zu sichern? [...] Wo kann das irgendwie noch effektiver, ((1,2s)) ja, • gestaltet werden? – Lösungsorientierte Fragen im Führungskräfte-Coaching aus gesprächsanalytischer Perspektive. *Zeitschrift für Angewandte Linguistik*.
- Grant, A. & O'Connor, S. (2010). The differential effects of solution-focused and problem-focused coaching questions: a pilot study with implications for practice. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 42(2), 102–111.
- Graßmann, C., Schölmerich, F. & Schermuly, C.C. (2020). The relationship between working alliance and client outcomes in coaching: A meta-analysis. *Human Relations*, 73(1), 35–58.
- Greif S., & Benning-Rohnke, E. (2015). Konsequente Umsetzung von Zielen durch Coaching: Praktisch nützliche Erkenntnisse aus der Grundlagenforschung und ihre Anwendung. *Coaching | Theorie & Praxis*, 1(1), 25–35.
- Hutchby, I. (2007). *The Discourse of Child Counselling*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Hutchby, I., O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2012). Ethics in practice. Negotiating the presence and functions of a video camera in family therapy. *Discourse Studies*, 14(6), 675–690.
- Ianiro, P.M., & Kauffeld, S. (2014). Take care what you bring with you: How coaches' mood and interpersonal behaviour affect coaching success. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, 66, 231–257.
- Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. In G.H. Lerner (ed.), *Conversation Analysis: Studies From the First Generation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Kabatnik, S., Nikendei, C., Ehrenthal, J.C. & Spranz-Fogasy, T. (2019). The Power of LoF: Veränderung durch Lösungsorientierte Fragen im psychotherapeutischen Gespräch. In E.-M. Graf, C. Scarvaglieri & T. Spranz-Fogasy (Eds.), *Pragmatik der Veränderung. Problem- und Lösungsorientierte Kommunikation in helfenden Berufen*. Tübingen: Narr/Francke/Attempto.
- Kabatnik, S. & Graf, E.-M. (under review). Lösungsorientierte Fragen im Coaching- und Psychotherapie-Gespräch – Ein gesprächslinguistischer Vergleich ihres lokalen Veränderungspotentials. *Coaching | Theorie & Praxis*.
- Kramer, U. & Stiles, W.B. (2015). The responsiveness problem in psychotherapy: A review of proposed solutions. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 22(3), 277–295.
- Loebbert, M., Wegener, R., Fritze, A. & M. Hänseler. (2018). Einleitung der Herausgeberinnen und Herausgeber. In R. Wegener, A. Fritze, M. Hänseler & M. Loebbert (Eds.), *Coaching-Prozessforschung. Forschung und Praxis im Dialog*. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht.
- Marciniak, A. (2017). *Agency in Lösungsorientierten Fragen im Psychodiagnostischen Gespräch: Agency-Implikationen und Reaktionen in Wunschfrage-Sequenzen*. Universität Mannheim, Masterarbeit.
- McDowall, A. & Lai, Y.-L. (2018). Evidence, Measurement and Evaluation in Coaching. In E. Cox, T. Bachkirova & D. Clutterbuck (Eds.), *The Complete Handbook of Coaching*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Myers, A. (2017). Researching the coaching process. In T. Bachkirova, G. Spence & D. Drake (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of coaching*. London: Sage.
- Pawelczyk, J. & Graf, E.-M. (Eds.) (2019). Special issue: Understanding change in psychotherapy. *Communication & Medicine*, 16(2).
- Peräkylä, A. (2019). Conversation analysis and psychotherapy: Identifying transformative sequences. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 52(3), 257–280.
- Peräkylä, A., Antaki, C., Vehviläinen, S. & Leudar, I. (Eds.). (2008). *Conversation Analysis and Psychotherapy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Pick, I. (2017). *Beraten ist Sprechen. Eine linguistische Typologie zu Beratungsgesprächen in verschiedenen Handlungsfeldern*. F.A.L. Bern: Peter Lang
- Ryle, G. (1949). *The Concept of Mind*. London: Penguin.
- Scarvaglieri, C., Graf, E.-M. & Spranz-Fogasy, T. (Eds.), (under review). *The Pragmatics of Relationship Building in Helping Professions*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

- Spranz-Fogasy, T., Graf, E.-M., Ehrental, J.C. & Nikendei, C. (2019). Beispiel-Nachfragen im Kontext von Veränderung: Elitizierungs- und Prozessierungsstrategien in Psychotherapie und Coaching-Gesprächen – Ein Vergleich. In E.-M. Graf, C. Scarvaglieri & T. Spranz-Fogasy (Eds.), *Pragmatik der Veränderung. Problem- und Lösungsorientierte Kommunikation in helfenden Berufen*. Tübingen: Narr/Francke/Attempto.
- Stein, I. (2009). Which hat am I wearing now?: An evidence-based tool for coaching self-reflection. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 2(2), 163–175.
- Stiles, W.B. (2013). The variables problem and progress in psychotherapy research. *Psychotherapy*, 50(1), 33–41.
- Stokoe, E. & Smithson, J. (2001). Making gender relevant: Conversation analysis and gender categories in interaction. *Discourse & Society*, 12(2), 217–244.
- Theeboom, T., Beersma, B. & van Vianen, A.E.M. (2014). Does coaching work? A meta-analysis on the effects of coaching on individual level outcomes in an organisational context. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*. doi:10.1080/17439760.2013.837499.
- Voutilainen, L., Peräkylä, A. & Ruusuvuori, J. (2011). Therapeutic change in interaction: Conversation analysis of a transforming sequence. *Psychotherapy Research*, 21(3), 348–365.
- Wegener, R. (2017). *Bedeutsame Momente im Coaching*. Doctoral Thesis. Helmut-Schmidt Universität. Hamburg
- Wegener, R. (2018). Konturen eine prozessorientierten Coaching-Forschung. In R. Wegener, A. Fritze, M. Hänseler & M. Loebbert (Eds.), *Coaching-Prozessforschung. Forschung und Praxis im Dialog*. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht.
- Wegener, R., Fritze, A., Hänseler, M. & Loebbert, M. (Eds.) (2018). *Coaching-Prozessforschung. Forschung und Praxis im Dialog*. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht.
- Widdowson, H.G. (2018). Applied linguistics as trans-disciplinary practice: What's in a prefix? *AILA Review*, 31, 135–142.

Does it last? A systematic review of the enduring effects on managers from executive coaching

Éamon McInerney, Sabir Giga & Abigail S. Morris

This systematic review explores the enduring, individual effects on managers following executive coaching, which is a widely used, expensive intervention. To date, short-term effects appear largely positive, although the medium and long-term individual effects are largely under-investigated. The data for the review comprise primary studies published in peer-reviewed journals reporting individual outcomes on managers from executive coaching where data were collected at least one month after the end of the coaching. Evidence of enduring outcomes from the 16 retained studies was integrated using narrative synthesis. Research insights from the studies were integrated using techniques of meta-synthesis. The synthesis of evidence suggests that effects in the cognitive, behavioural and affective domains persist in the months following the coaching and that some effects may emerge only after the intervention has ended. The insights from the retained studies suggest that enduring outcomes involve two key sub-processes occurring within the overall coaching process: 'psychological resourcing' and 'leader identity development'. Overall, the systematic review highlights the paucity of research on how the effects of executive coaching unfold over time and the absence of a theoretical framework to guide research in this area. Specific knowledge gaps are identified and future research strategies are proposed.

Keywords: executive coaching; coaching psychology; effects; outcomes; systematic review.

COACHING became popular in organisations in the US in the 1990s (Brock, 2018), in the UK from the early 2000s (Passmore et al., 2018) and continues to grow in use (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). Total annual expenditure on professional coaching worldwide was estimated at \$2.9 billion in 2019, with executive and management clients as principal beneficiaries (ICF, 2020).

Executive coaching (EC) is a professional relationship between a client who has managerial responsibility in an organisation and a consultant who uses various behavioural techniques to help the client to achieve mutually defined goals to improve professional performance and personal satisfaction and thereby to improve the effectiveness of the client's organisation (Kilburg, 2000). There is, however, considerable semantic confusion around the word 'coaching', even in the scientific literature. Terms such as

'executive', 'leadership', 'management', 'business' and 'workplace' coaching are often used interchangeably, sometimes to designate different interventions (Ladegård & Gjerde, 2014).

While outcome research on EC has advanced significantly in recent years (Passmore & Tee, 2020) two major gaps exist at the core of this study field: there has been no systematic review (SR) of the effects of coaching specifically on managers nor of the persistence of these effects over time. This is surprising, given that the intervention is construed primarily as a method of manager and leader development and, despite its high cost (ICF, 2020), has become one of the most frequently deployed tools to this end (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2015). This situation is due to manager-specific outcomes not being readily identifiable within the literature (Ladegård & Gjerde, 2014) and the fact that most coaching outcome studies use

data collected immediately at the end of the intervention. This SR seeks to address these two weaknesses by focusing specifically on (a) the outcomes of executive coaching on managers and (b) the persistence of these effects over time.

Executive coaching outcome research to-date

Meta-analyses are largely silent on the long-term effects of EC specifically on managers. They have addressed the short-term effects on performance and skill improvement (De Meuse et al., 2009), performance/skills, wellbeing, coping, work attitudes and goal-directed self-regulation (Theeboom et al., 2013); behaviour change, personal attitude change, work-related behaviour change, cognitive outcomes and relations with others (Sonesh et al., 2015); affective, cognitive, skill-based and changed performance (Jones et al., 2016). To-date, no meta-analysis has addressed medium or long-term effects of EC. Only one meta-analysis, based on six studies, with a cumulative sample of $N=764$ participants (De Meuse et al., 2009), investigated outcomes specific to managers. This work found an overall positive effect for EC, noting that effect sizes were greater in studies based on self-reports (Cohen's $d=1.27$) than when reported by others, peers, team members and/or line managers ($d=0.5$). Theeboom et al. (2013) included 18 studies and found significant positive effects on performance, skills, wellbeing, coping, work attitudes and goal directed self-regulation. Effect sizes were large, Hedges g 0.5 or higher for the wellbeing, coping and attitudes categories. Performance/skills showed the weakest effects, from 0.1 to 0.3. The meta-analysis of Sonesh et al. (2015) used 24 studies. The inclusion criteria specified studies on 'leadership, business or executive coaching' (Sonesh et al., 2015, p.78) but the data show that non-manager coachees ($N=2151$) greatly outnumber managers ($N=999$) in the included studies, with some students ($N=367$) also included in the sample. This meta-analysis concluded

that coaching was significantly associated with changes in all categories except for 'cognitive outcomes', where the number of primary studies was small. Most effect sizes (Cohen's d) were weak: behavioural change (0.19), work-related attitude change (0.18) and personal attitude change (0.08), with the strongest effect for relations with others (0.32). The meta-analysis by Jones et al. (2016) included 17 studies and showed a positive impact for coaching on all investigated categories. Across the included studies the combined effect of coaching on all criteria 0.36. The effect was strongest (1.24) for individual performance improvement and affective outcomes (0.51) and lowest for skill-based outcomes (0.28).

Several systematic reviews on coaching effectiveness have been published, including Kampa-Kokesh and Anderson (2001), Grover and Furnham (2016), Bozer and Jones (2018), Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) and de Haan (2019). Effects specifically on managers and effects beyond the end of the coaching are not addressed in any of these SRs. Taken together, the existing SRs offer strong evidence for positive effects of coaching in work contexts in the short-term. Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018), for example, included 84 studies, quantitative and qualitative, and found over 70 positive effects from EC.

Challenges in investigating enduring effects of EC

Most studies use pre- and post-measures applied just before and just after the coaching, or they use retrospective designs (Grover & Furnham, 2016). This is for good reason, as establishing cause-effect relations over time is particularly challenging (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). The extant outcome research on coaching makes two implicit assumptions, that outcomes are manifested immediately and that these outcomes are sustained over time (Spence et al., 2019; MacKie, 2014; Fischer et al., 2017; Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). However, outcome data collected only at the end of

an intervention will miss both persistence of outcomes and any effects which become visible only after a latency period (Grover & Furnham, 2016).

The question of which effects, if any, persist over time is an important part of a decision to invest in EC relative to other management development actions (Dagley, 2006). Following psychotherapy conventions, 'long-term' is understood as two years or more after the end of the intervention (Gibby et al., 2017). 'Medium-term' is defined as one month after the end of the intervention up to two years. For parsimony of language the terms 'persisting' and 'enduring' are used when no distinction is made between medium and long-term effects within the studies. To the knowledge of the authors this is the first SR of peer-reviewed studies on the medium and long-term effects of EC specifically on managers and leaders. The aim of this review, therefore, was to explore the individual effects of EC on managers where outcome data were collected at least one month after the end of the coaching. The independent variable was executive coaching, as defined above. The population of interest is managers, defined as people with responsibility for the work of at least one other person.

Methods

Design

The review takes an approach described as an interpretation meta-synthesis (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018, following Hoon, 2013) in order to bring together extant knowledge meaningfully on the 'what', 'why' and 'how' of EC over time. The specific objectives of the review were to:

- a. identify relevant empirical studies;
- b. synthesise the evidence they offer on enduring outcomes (the 'what' question); and
- c. synthesise research insights from these studies into meaningful theoretical constructs to explain the reported phenomena ('how' and 'why' questions). The review has been conducted using

the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses guidelines (PRISMA: www.prisma-statement.org/).

Philosophical underpinnings

The predictive goal of positivist research is an inadequate frame for the study of human development over time. The worldview informing this systematic review is characterised by openness to many kinds of knowledge, on the assumption that the different insights may converge to produce stable and useful explanations (Miles & Huberman, 2002). The paradigm is thus essentially post-positive (Hoon, 2013) in that it construes the research process as discovery of social phenomena and realities which are more than transient social constructions. Creating this kind of knowledge involves bringing together findings from multiple primary studies of the phenomenon of interest in a process of accumulation and interpretation (Hoon, 2013).

Eligibility criteria

Table 1 presents the inclusion and exclusion criteria. To be eligible, primary studies needed to report individual outcomes on managers from EC where data were collected at least one month after the end of the coaching. No time limits regarding publication were applied and only papers published in English, French, German, Dutch, Spanish or Italian in peer-reviewed journals were eligible. There were no criteria relating to study design, methodology or quality of the overall research process. EC is still a young research field and much of the extant primary research has been carried out by coaching practitioners who did not always use recognised research approaches (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018).

Search strategy

A literature search drawing on 21 databases was conducted in March 2020. The databases included Scopus, ABI/INFORM Global, Social Sciences Citation Index and PsycARTICLES. The all-text search terms were: 'exec-

Table 1: Inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Inclusion	Exclusion
Studies with empirical evidence of effects of EC the individual (coachee) level beyond the end of the intervention	Opinion pieces and studies where outcomes were assessed only at the end of the intervention
Coaching in a work setting	Laboratory or study settings
Coachees were managers, defined as holding management responsible for the work of at least one other person	Non-managers or students as coachees
Coaching provided by trained, professional coaches, whether working inside the organisation or contracted in	Coaching provided by line managers or peers
Intervention purely or predominantly coaching; in the case of complex interventions, studies which assessed the specific effects of the coaching component	Coaching as an add-on to another, non-coaching intervention, where the coaching outcomes were not separately assessed
Coaching on leadership / management competencies	Life coaching; coaching focused exclusively on specific workplace skills; coaching on health practices; other non-management coaching
Texts in languages which the authors could read (English, French, German, Dutch, Spanish, Italian)	Texts in languages that the authors could not read (following de Haan, 2019)
Published in peer-reviewed journals, no date limits	
Studies using any design or methodology	

utive coaching' OR 'leadership coaching' OR 'work* coaching' AND 'effect*' OR 'outcome'. Earlier pilot searches indicated that identifying studies reporting specifically on long-term outcomes was not feasible at the search stage. The initial search returned 563 papers. Four leading researchers were asked for advice on relevant studies, yielding three additional papers.

Data extraction

Data were extracted from the retained studies to the following predefined categories:

- Time from end of the coaching intervention to collection of data on outcomes
- Participants
- Hours of coaching received or number of coaching sessions (where given)
- Setting
- Design
- Methods
- Outcomes

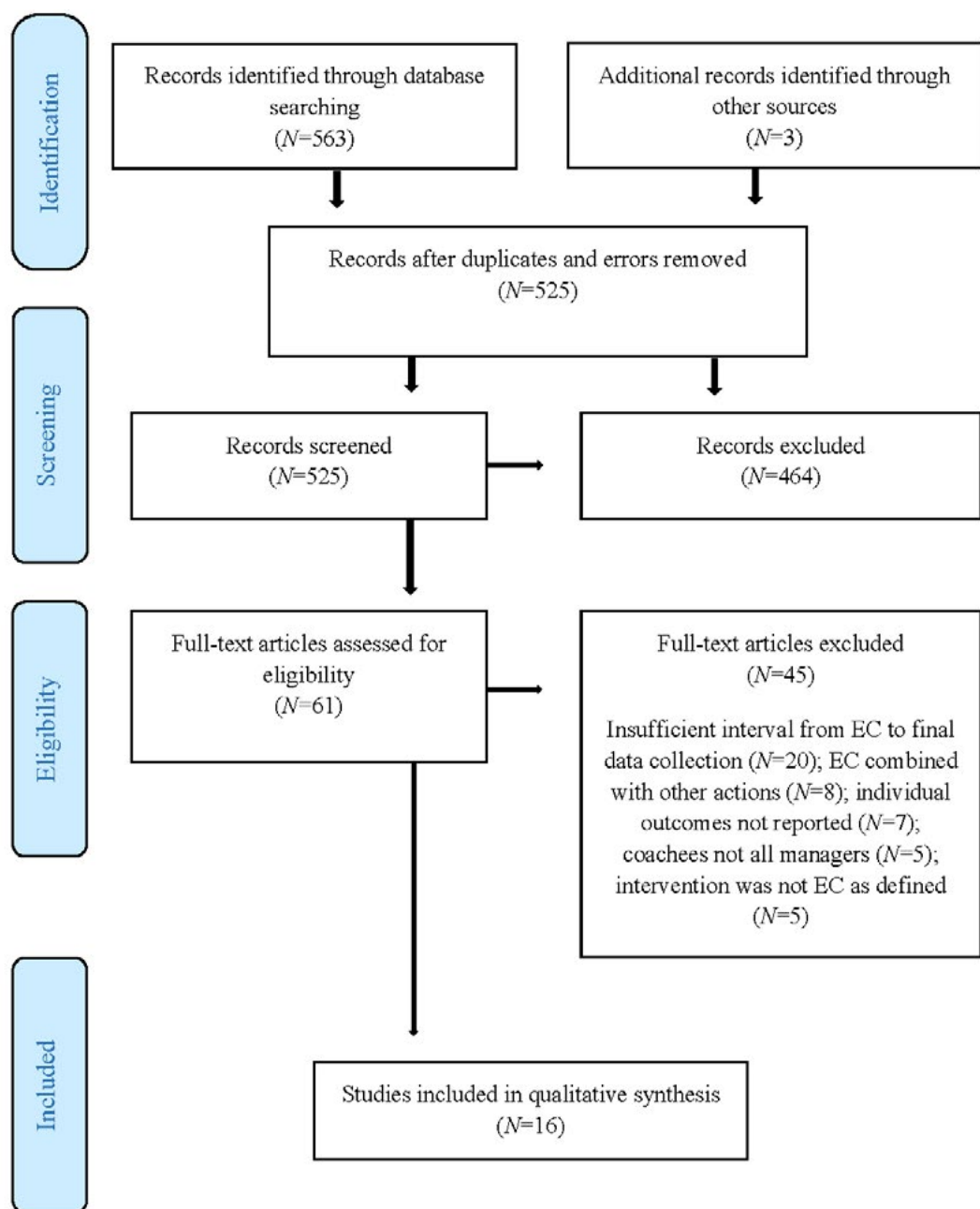
- Other findings
- Theoretical insights
- Implications for practice.

Synthesis of results

Synthesis of outcomes reported in the included studies

The synthesis of outcomes combined elements from Popay et al. (2006) and Hoon (2013). The narrative approach of Popay and colleagues (2006) was used to develop a conceptual framework of outcomes reported in the different studies. The outcomes operationalised in studies with hypotheses ($N=7$) provided the basis for an initial categorisation. These were: change in different behavioural variables, core self-evaluations and developmental readiness. Next, the conceptual framework of outcomes was completed using thematic analysis of the Results and Discussion sections in all studies ($N=16$) which generated

Figure 1: Screening process flow.



the following additional categories: a strengthened sense of self, self-reflective skills and insight and strengthened leader identity. Emergent themes were discussed and agreed by all authors (EM, SG, AM).

Synthesis of explanatory constructs evoked in the included studies

The meta-synthetic approach of Hoon (2013) was used to integrate researchers' insights from all the studies in an effort to make an overall theoretical contribution while respecting the unique context of each study (Yin, 2009). Meta-synthesis builds on insights of the original researchers based on their interpretation of the data. The elaborated insights of the researchers constitute in effect the data of meta-synthesis. (Hoon, 2013). The meta-synthesis involved three steps:

1. The principal explanatory constructs evoked in each study were identified; these include theories underlying supported and partially supported hypotheses, insights offered by researchers in the discussion sections of papers and insights offered by participants in qualitative studies.
2. Common themes were noted across studies and merged to generate unifying themes or meta-insights.
3. The results were linked to the wider literature on psychology and management.

Results

Screening process

The search identified 566 papers of which 16 were retained following application of the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Figure 1 presents an overview of the screening process in four phases following the PRISMA model proposed by Moher et al. (2009). Decisions were discussed and agreed by all three authors. The included studies are marked with an asterisk in the references.

Quality appraisal of the included studies

Table 2 presents an overview of the 16 included studies and the categories of data

extracted from each. Seven studies^{2,3,7,9,12,13,14} were qualitative. Five studies^{4,5,6,11,16} use pre- and post-measures. Only one⁶ study reported effect sizes. In two studies^{11,12} the persistence of effects over time (one year later) was a specific aim of the research. In seven studies^{4,5,7,12,13,14,15} the researcher was involved directly or indirectly in the coaching intervention. Eight of the included works used case-study designs^{2,3,7,9,10,12,13,14}. While no study was excluded on language grounds, all of the retained works were written in English ($N=16$).

Findings

In line with the objectives, the findings of the systematic review are presented in two parts:

1. Synthesis of evidence from the retained studies on enduring individual outcomes (the *what* question).
2. Synthesis of the constructs evoked in these studies to explain the reported outcomes (the *how* and *why* questions).

Enduring individual outcomes

Table 3 presents an overview of all individual outcomes reported in the studies, organised into a conceptual framework using an approach based on Popay et al. (2006). The outcome categories are: changed behaviour, a strengthened sense of self, increased readiness to learn and change, improved self-reflective skills, insight and strengthened leader identity.

Changed behaviour reported by others

Five studies^{1,4,8,11,14} found evidence of behaviour change reported by line managers, peers or team members one month or more from the end of the coaching. Rekalde and colleagues (2017)⁸ surveyed 99 Spanish managers who had taken executive coaching in the previous years and 122 HR managers involved in purchasing and evaluation of coaching. The HR managers were asked to rate the effectiveness of coaching relative to other HR interventions to bring about sustained, observable change in management behaviour. Change was meas-

Table 2: Overview of the included studies.

N°	First author	Year	Area	Participants (coached managers)	Coaching sessions received	Control group	Design	Analysis	Baseline data collection	'Other reports' ^a used	Time from end of coaching to final data collection	Author involved in intervention
1	Anthony	2017	USA	75	Not specified	N	Cross-sectional	Quantitative	N	Y	Not specified	N
2	Brand	2013	RSA	5	Not specified	N	Case-study	Qualitative	N	N	Not specified	N
3	Freischlag	2019	USA	1	Not specified	N	Case-study	Qualitative	N	Y	15 years	N
4	MacKie	2014	AUS	37	6	Y	Experimental	Quantitative	Y	Y	4 months	Y
5	MacKie	2015	AUS	30	6	Y	Experimental	Quantitative	Y	N	4 months	Y
6	Nieminen	2013	USA	227	4-5	Y	Experimental	Quantitative	Y	Y	3 months	N
7	Rathmell	2019	USA	1	Not specified	N	Case-study	Qualitative	N	Y	Not specified	Y
8	Rekalde	2017	Spain	99	Not specified	N	Survey	Quantitative	N	Y	Several years	N
9	Skinner	2014	USA	11	6	N	Case-study	Qualitative	N	N	2 years	N
10	Smith	2013	USA	30	Not specified ^b	N	Case-study	Quantitative	N	N	18 months	Not clear

11	Smither	2003	USA/ global	286	2-3	Y	Experi- mental	Mixed	Y	Y	1 year	N
12	Spence	2019	USA	15	Not specified ^c	N	Case-study	Qualitative	N	N	8-12 months	Y
13	Trevillion	2018	UK	6	Not specified	N	Case-study	Qualitative	N	Y	Not specified	Y
14	Wales	2003	UK	16	Not specified	N	Case-study	Qualitative	N	N	Up to 1 year	Y
15	Wasylyshyn	2003	USA	106	Not specified	N	Survey	Quantitative	N	N	Several years	Y
16	Williams	2018	USA	64	4	Y	Experi- mental	Quantitative	Y	Y	5 weeks	N

^a 'Other reports' include data from line managers, peers, subordinates and/or human resource managers.

^b Time investment by participants in the coaching averaged 82 hours, including homework assignments.

^c Coaching was delivered over a ten week period.

Table 3: Enduring individual outcomes reported in the included studies.

Outcomes	Study n°	How the outcome was defined or described in the study	How the outcome was operationalised or identified in the study
1		Value judgements by third parties: peers, line managers, team members or HR managers	
1.1	8	Improved leadership behaviour generally	Observers used a seven-point Likert scale to report whether change had been seen, if it was sustained and positive for the organisation in the opinion of the raters.
1.2	4	Comprehensive shift towards a transformational leadership style	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: workplace observers reported behaviour on a five-point Likert scale; the 49 items describe idealised manager behaviours and attributes.
1.3	1	Individualized (as a dimension of transformational leadership)	Observers rated their leader's behaviour on a five-point Likert scale using a four-item measure adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.
1.4	1	Delegation (as a dimension of transformational leadership)	Observers rated their leader's behaviour on a five-point Likert scale using a six-item measure based on scales developed and validated by Schriesheim et al. (1998).
1.5	1	Close supervision (as an inverse dimension of transformational leadership)	Observers rated their leader's behaviour on a seven-point Likert scale using an eight item measure adapted from George & Zhou (2001).
1.6	11	Soliciting ideas for improvement	Supervisors rated managers under their responsibility on frequency of soliciting ideas using an ad-hoc five point scale.
1.7	11	Setting specific goals	The researchers rated the specificity of participants' development goals on a four-point scale.
1.8	14	Presentation and influencing style	Analysis of semi-structured interviews with coaches and their line managers.

Cognitive and affective outcomes			
2.1	Strengthened sense of self		
2.1.1	Self-reported performance improvement and self-confidence	10	Increased competencies in areas such as strategic thinking, decision making, communication, interpersonal skills
		12	Improved communication style Enhanced confidence Leadership self-efficacy
		14	Improvements in self-awareness, confidence and performance of team manager roles
		16	Increased competency in a) modelling the way, (b) inspiring a shared vision, (c) challenging the process, (d) enabling others to act and (e) encouraging the heart
2.1.2	Core self-evaluations	5	A combination of four constructs, self-esteem, self-efficacy, neuroticism and locus of control, understood as representing personality traits (MacKie, 2015)
2.1.3	Self-efficacy	6	'Belief in their ability to perform effectively as leaders' (Nieminen et al., 2013: 167)
		13	–
2.2	Developmental readiness	5	'the ability and the motivation to attend to, make meaning of, and appropriate new knowledge into one's long-term memory structure' (MacKie, 2015, p 121)

Interviews, structured and semi-structured: interview questions resulted in either categorical or ordinal/continuous codes depending on the nature of the responses.

Narrative enquiry – thematic analysis of participant responses to open questions on their coaching experience.

Phenomenological analysis of participants' descriptions.

Participants' self-reports using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI; Kouzes and Posner, 2003)

Participants completed the Core Self-evaluation Scale (CSES), a five-point Likert scale with 12 items.

The researchers interpreted positive changes in coached leaders' self-ratings as evidence for strengthened self-efficacy.

Thematic analysis of semi-structured interviews with coachees and their line managers.

Coachees completed the 14-item Developmental Readiness Questionnaire constructed by the author bringing together five dimensions: development orientation, mastery orientation, emotional regulation, developmental efficacy and growth mindset.

Table 3: Enduring individual outcomes reported in the included studies (*continued*).

2.3	Self-reflective skills and insight	2	'More aware and understanding of themselves, their emotions and behaviour' (Brand & Coetzee, 2013: 254)	Grounded theory analysis of semi-structured interviews with coachees and their coaches.
		7	'learning to recognize what style I was using and what voice I was drawing from.' (Rathmell, Brown, & Kilburg, 2019: 149)	Coachee voice.
		12	'capacity to reflect on aspects of self, others and the environment.' (Spence, Stout-Rostron, Reenen, & Glashoff, 2019: 134)	Thematic analysis of semi-structured interviews with coachees.
		14	'Self-awareness appears to consist of four elements: the ability to understand one's past and learn from it; openness to one's own and other's feelings; the ability to reflect on situations before moving to action; and the ability to make appropriate choices.' (Wales, 2002: 278)	Thematic analysis of participant responses to open questions on their coaching experience.
		15	'Increased understanding of self' (Wasylyshyn, 2003: 103)	Analysis of survey responses from coachees.
2.4	Strengthened leader identity			
		3	Staying 'true to myself' while embracing a new role Freischlag, 2019: 172)	Coachee voice.
		7	'At the end of 6 months, I felt ready to tackle hard problems, and I was having more comfort in the role than I could have ever imagined' (Freischlag)	Coachee voice.
		9	'their executive coaching experience helped them to define their own personalised approach to leadership rather than internalising prevailing male norms of leading.' (Skinner, 2014: 107)	Grounded theory analysis of semi-structured interviews with coachees.
		12	'profound leadership identity change' (Spence et al, 2019: 136)	Thematic analysis of semi-structured interviews with coachees.

ured using a scale adapted from Ely and Zaccaro (2011), comprising eight indicators assessing whether the coachee's behaviour had changed and if any changes were sustained over time, although the interval was not specified. Findings suggest a 'strong capacity' (Rekalde et al., 2017, p.2155) of executive coaching to modify managerial behaviour. In an Australian study using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1997), MacKie (2014)⁴ found that transformational leadership behaviour of coachees continued to improve in the four months after the coaching stopped. Data came from participants, their line managers, direct subordinates and peers.

Smither et al. (2003)¹¹ used the multi-source feedback system in a large, US based, global firm to investigate the effect of executive coaching on three variables: overall management performance, setting of specific (as opposed to vague) goals for team members and soliciting ideas for improvement. The quality of goal setting was assessed by the researchers qualitatively based on texts supplied; ad-hoc, non-validated scales were used to measure the other variables. The design was quasi-experimental: 400 participants received coaching between feedback rounds; approximately 800 managers served as a control group. There was almost one year between the coaching intervention and the second feedback round. Analysis of the feedback ($N=286$) showed that managers who had been coached were more likely to set specific goals and to solicit ideas for improvement from their supervisors.

Overall, managers who were coached were judged by supervisors and team members to have improved more than non-coached managers but the effect size ($d=0.17$) was small. Anthony (2017)¹ surveyed 75 leaders and 188 followers in US firms to assess the relationship between coaching and three outcome variables: individualised consideration for team members, delegation and close supervision. Individualised consideration was measured using Avolio and Bass' (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, dele-

gation using a scale based on Schriesheim and colleagues (1998) and closeness of supervision using a scale adapted from George and Zhou (2001). The interval between the end of the coaching and data collection was longer for some participants than for others. Results showed that coaching had a positive association with individualised consideration. Individualised consideration, in turn, had a positive association with delegation and a negative association with close supervision. Results were significant at the level of $p < 0.05$. Trevillion (2018)¹⁴ analysed semi-structured interviews with coachee-supervisor dyads with the objective of identifying behaviour changes which both coachees and their line managers agreed resulted from executive coaching. Alongside attitudinal changes there was agreement that the coachees had improved presentation and influencing styles.

Strengthened sense of self

Seven studies^{5,6,10,12,13,14,16} found evidence of improvement in coached managers' self-confidence, core self-evaluations, self-efficacy and self-perceived performance. These outcomes are assigned to a conceptual category 'strengthened sense of self'. Four studies^{10,12,14,16} describe behavioural improvement beyond completion of the coaching but perceived by coachees only. Wasylyshyn (2003)¹⁵ surveyed 106 high-level US managers, 85 per cent male, who had been coached at different times during the previous 16 years. Sixty-three per cent of participants reported sustained behaviour change as an outcome of their coaching. Smith and Brummel (2013)¹⁰ analysed semi-structured interviews with 30 high-level US managers (70 per cent male) approximately 18 months from the end of coaching. Participants provided examples of how their performance had improved through coaching in areas such as strategic thinking, decision making, communication, interpersonal skills and leadership. Spence et al. (2019)¹² used a similar retrospective study design to investigate outcomes eight to 12 months after a coaching intervention among

15 US managers (80 per cent male). As well as change in confidence and self-reflection, participants reported significant improvement in their communication style and in a range of management behaviours, assigned by the authors to a category of 'performance foundations'.

Williams and Lowman (2018)¹⁶ analysed data from supervisors as well as self-reports from 64 coached senior managers in the US five weeks after their coaching. Participants reported strong increases in leadership competencies and continuing use of the acquired competencies. However, these improvements were not visible to the supervisors of the coached managers. MacKie (2015)⁵ found that managers' core self-evaluations (Johnson et al., 2008), including self-efficacy, locus of control, neuroticism and self-esteem, continued to improve in the four months following the intervention. In two studies^{6,13} the authors interpret increased self-confidence as strengthened self-efficacy. Self-reported increases in confidence in four more studies^{10,12,14,16} can be interpreted as an increase in self-efficacy.

Developmental readiness

MacKie (2015)⁵ investigated change in levels of 'developmental readiness' using the Brief Coaching Readiness Scale (BCRS; Franklin, 2005), a 14-item questionnaire based on Prochaska and DiClemente's (1986) work on stages in clinical change. MacKie (2015) found that developmental readiness did not increase during the coaching but increased significantly in the four months afterwards, which provides some support for a latency effect.

Self-reflective skills and insight

Five studies^{2,7,12,14,15} identify self-reflection and insight as enduring outcomes. In a study from South Africa, Brand and Coetzee (2013)² report, in a participant's words, that coaching was 'a significant positive and magical process. Initially, it seems uncomfortable and tough, because you have to face

yourself honestly, discover yourself' (Brand & Coetzee, 2013, p.254). The sole participant in Rathmell, Brown and Kilburg's (2019)⁷ US case study says 'I was helped tremendously by learning to recognise what style I was using and what voice I was drawing from.' (p.149). Spence and colleagues (2019)¹² applied narrative analysis to rich descriptions of coaching experience of 15 managers to conclude that 'the coaching process greatly enhanced their capacity to reflect on aspects of self, others and the environment. For some participants, the purposeful reflection encouraged in coaching was entirely new and even revelatory' (Spence et al., 2019, p.134)¹². Wales (2002)¹⁴, using a phenomenological approach to analyse the experience of 16 coached UK managers, identified self-awareness as the key outcome of the intervention, on which all further development was predicated. Wasylyshyn's (2003)¹⁵ US survey of former coachees identified increased understanding of self and personal insight as the second most valued outcome, after behaviour change.

Strengthened identity as leader

The formation of a leadership identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) is reported as an outcome in four studies^{3,7,9,12}. Freischlag's (2019)³ personal account stresses that in coaching she learned to be 'true' (p.174) to herself in her leadership role: her changing dress style is a metaphor, first dressing to fit in with her new work environment, later finding a style that was hers. The coachee voice in Rathmell et al. (2019)⁷ states 'At the end of six months... I could step into many foreign situations, able to be me' (p.147). Skinner (2014)⁹ interviewed 11 women in senior management positions in the US who had taken executive coaching in the preceding two years. Interviews were analysed using grounded theory techniques. A core finding was that coaching helped the women to form and refine their identities as leaders in settings where male leadership norms were dominant. Spence et al. (2019)¹², using narrative enquiry, found evidence of

‘profound leader identity change’ (p.136) eight months to one year after coaching, noting that this effect emerged only after ‘a period of incubation’ (p.136), that is, it was not present at the end of the intervention.

Explanatory constructs evoked in the retained studies

Table 4 presents an overview of the meta-synthesis of theoretical constructs evoked in the studies. The initial analysis identified 51 researcher insights involving explanation of the outcomes reported. In a second step these study-specific insights were merged into six meta-insights on the basis of unifying themes, as follows:

1. Intrinsic motivation
2. Identity work
3. Mental reframing of relationship to subordinates
4. Coach as teacher
5. Building confidence
6. Metabolising the learning.

A further synthesis of these researcher insights using higher-level unifying themes suggests that the EC interventions investigated in the retained studies comprised two dominant dimensions, as follows:

- a. Leader identity formation (Intrinsic motivation, Identity work, Mental reframing of relationship to subordinates), and
- b. Psychological resourcing (Coach as teacher, Building confidence, Metabolising the learning).

Discussion

Findings from the SR offer limited evidence of individual positive effects persisting after the end of the intervention. These effects involve changed behaviour, a strengthened sense of self, increased developmental readiness, improved self-reflective skills, insight and manager/leader identity formation. There is evidence that some individual effects begin to operate only after a period of latency or incubation. Synthesis of theoretical constructs evoked in the studies suggests that the reported enduring effects reflect two

principal dimensions of EC: leader identity development and psychological resourcing.

Discussion of outcomes reported in the studies *Improvement in the eye of the coachee: self-delusion or self-efficacy?*

When the coachee is the sole supplier of data the outcomes appear to be more positive (de Haan et al., 2013) and authors of systematic reviews and meta-analyses regard self-reported improvement as unreliable data (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018). However, Nieminen and colleagues (2013)⁶ found that improved self-perception by coachees at one point in time was an antecedent of substantive changes later in the developmental process and express caution against simply dismissing uncorroborated self-reports. They studied coached and non-coached managers, both of whom received feedback from supervisors, peers and team members. The only significant difference initially was in the self-perception of the coached group, who felt they were performing better than the non-coached managers. However, regression modelling suggested that participants’ self-ratings at one time point predicted improvements seen later by others, thus construing this effect as a possibly important transitional effect of EC. This suggestion is in line with findings in psychology that biases such as over-confidence may be self-protective and on occasion even adaptive for human functioning (Gigerenzer, 2000).

Only one⁵ study employed psychometric tools measure effects in the period after coaching. MacKie’s (2015)⁵ finding that core self-evaluations and developmental readiness improved in the four months after the end of the coaching is suggestive of changes in psychological functioning linked to EC. In the wider literature, improved self-efficacy is a common outcome at the end of coaching (Baron & Morin, 2009; Bozer & Jones, 2018; Moen & Federici, 2012). Self-efficacy may have an added importance for leaders as it appears to have a direct effect on attitudes and motivation of followers (Chemers

Table 4: Synthesis of explanatory constructs evoked in the retained studies.

Study N°	'How' and 'Why' research insights in the included studies	Constructs and works cited	References in the wider literature	Unifying theme	Higher order construct
1	EC may induce a wish by the coachee to reciprocate the investment made by the organisation.	Social exchange (Alge et al., 2006; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Van Dick et al., 2007)	Self-knowledge and insight (Grant et al., 2009; Green et al., 2007; Spence, 2008)	Intrinsic motivation	Leader identity development
1	EC motivates managers to align behaviour with values.	–			
2	The coach used mirroring to create self-awareness.	Self-discovery (Mink, Owen, & Mink, 1993) Non-judgemental space (Bluckert, 2005)			
9	EC deepened the desire to lead authentically.	Authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005)			
9	EC helps introject positive motivation.	Self-determination theory (Deci et al., 1994)			
10	The involvement of the coachee is a critical success factor.	Therapeutic relationship (McKenna & Davis, 2009)	Cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957)		
12	Coaching conversations take people to the edge of their current capacities.	Leader development (Berger, 2011) Innate tendency to develop and grow (Rogers, 1961)	Introjected motivation (Koestner & Losier, 2002)		
12	The coach may challenge some long-held beliefs about leadership abilities.	–			
12	Observation of the coach may lead to a re-appraisal of own learning abilities.	–			
15	The coachee's motivation to learn and / or change is a key success factor.	–			

Study N°	'How' and 'Why' research insights in the included studies	Constructs and works cited	References in the wider literature	Unifying theme	Higher order construct
1	EC motivates managers to align behaviour with values.	-	Identity work (Brown, 2015)	Identity work	Leader identity development
3	EC promoted authentic leadership.	-			
7	EC helps to integrate different aspects of personality and different life experiences into the person.	-			
8	EC personalises competency development.	Authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005)			
9	EC helps build a personalised approach to leadership.	-			
9	EC helps with negotiating identity formation in a social context.	Social identity theory (Burke, 1996; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) Processes of identity development (DeRue et al., 2009; Dutton et al., 2010; Stets & Burke, 2005) Leadership and self-concept (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Ely & Rhode, 2010; Ibarra, 1999; Lord & Brown, 2004)	Leader identity development (DeRue et al., 2009; Haslam & Ellemers, 2011; Lord et al. 2016)		
9	EC brought coherence and meaning to experiences.	Schemas to give coherence and meaning to experience (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Stets & Burke, 2005)	Cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957)		
9	The coach is an enabler of and a role model for identity formation.	-	Authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005)		
14	Increased self-confidence enabled coachees to bring more of themselves to the workplace.	-			
14	EC helped managers to be more honest about their feelings.	-			

Study N°	'How' and 'Why' research insights in the included studies	Constructs and works cited	References in the wider literature	Unifying theme	Higher order construct
1	EC helps managers gain an understanding of their followers' strengths as individuals.	Individualised consideration and transformational leadership (Arnold & Loughlin, 2010; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985; Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004, 2006)	Transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006)	Mental reframing of relationship to subordinates	Leader identity development
1	EC inspires managers to liberate staff from fears/build a supportive climate.	Transformational leadership (George & Zhou, 2001; Grant, Green, & Rynsaardt, 2010; Mackie, 2014)			
3	The coachee discovered empowerment of teams.	-			
3	EC enabled the manager to care about the team's growth.	-			
14	EC helped managers to be more sensitive to the feelings of others.	-			
14	EC increased desire to help people in the team.	-			

Study N°	'How' and 'Why' research insights in the included studies	Constructs and works cited	References in the wider literature	Unifying theme	Higher order construct
1	EC teaches how to engage followers.	Coaching and engagement (Bennett & Bush, 2013; Grant et al., 2010; Sonesh et al., 2015; Tooth et al., 2013)	Coach-client micro-interactions (Gessnitzer et al., 2016)	Identity work	Leader identity development
3	The coaching involved practising skills for different social situations.	-			
7	The coaching involved training in skills (social, political, self-evaluation).	-			
7	The coach taught emotion management.	-			
7	EC teaches how to set goals and expectations.	-			
9	The coach is a role model and guide, as in school.	-			
11	The coach guides people through the stages of change.	Stages of change (Dalton & Hollenbeck, 2001; DiClemente et al., 1995)			
14	The coach taught how to understand team dynamics.	-			
14	The coach taught how to reflect.	-			

Study N°	'How' and 'Why' research insights in the included studies	Constructs and works cited	References in the wider literature	Unifying theme	Higher order construct
1	EC builds self-confidence.	Confidence to model appropriate behavior (Tooth et al., 2013)	Cognitive appraisal (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984)	Building confidence	Psychological resourcing
3	EC deepened self-knowledge and confidence.	-			
5	EC improves core self-evaluation (CSE).	CSEs changed by executive coaching (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011) CSEs correlated with performance and satisfaction (Judge et al., 2003)			
6	EC improves belief in self as leader.	Effect of coaching on leaders' self-efficacy (Baron & Morin, 2009; Evers et al., 2006; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Moen & Skaalvik, 2009) Feedback (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005)			
7	EC teaches self-awareness and confidence.	-			
10	The coachee's perception of developability of competence is a success factor.	Individual implicit theory (Dweck & Leggett, 1988) Perceptions of developability (Gibbons et al., 2006) Motivation (Dweck et al., 1982)	Self-efficacy belief (Bandura, 1977)	Core self-evaluation (Johnson et al., 2008)	
10	Merely planning actions leads to improved self-ratings.	Stages of change (Dalton & Hollenbeck, 2001; DiClemente et al., 1995)			
12	EC builds self-confidence.	-			
13	EC built self-efficacy.	-			
14	EC built self-confidence and self-esteem.	-			

Study N°	'How' and 'Why' research insights in the included studies	Constructs and works cited	References in the wider literature	Unifying theme	Higher order construct
1	The coaching motivates the manager to transfer acquired skills to the workplace.	Coaching and transfer of learning (Baron & Morin, 2009)	Double-loop learning (Argyris, 1977) Cognitive appraisal (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984) Psychological resource theory (Hobfoll, 2002)	Metabolising the learning	Psychological resourcing
4	The coaching helped the manager transfer acquired skills to the workplace.	-			
5	Developmental readiness grew in the months following the coaching.	Developmental readiness (Hannah & Lester, 2009) Stages of change (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1983)			
6	Positive outcomes cascade from greater self-efficacy.	Role of self-efficacy in work-related performance (Moen & Allgood, 2009; Smither et al., 2005; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1997)			
6	Others may directly sense the growth in self-efficacy and respond positively to it.	The looking-glass self (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1983)			
7	The coachee metabolised the learning from the coaching sessions.	-			
12	EC can engage a process of transformative learning that will continue after the coaching has ended.	Double-loop learning, meta-cognition (Mezirow, 1978, 2000) Punctuated Equilibrium model of evolutionary change (Gould & Eldredge, 1972)			
12	Insights from coaching can fundamentally alter a manager's network of beliefs, attitudes and behaviour.	Change in deep structures (Gersick, 1991) Evolving Transformational Shift model of change (Moons, 2016)			

et al., 2000). Future research is therefore warranted to measure self-efficacy pre-, post- and at regular follow-up intervals to explore whether these effects are sustainable within ongoing management practices.

Discussion of theoretical constructs evoked in the studies

Executive coaching as leader identity development

Derue et al. (2009) construe leader identity development as a process involving resolution of ambiguity related to performance of leader roles. Resolution of leadership identity issues was reported as an enduring outcome of EC in three studies^{3,7,9}. Two further studies^{12,13} conclude that EC involved transformative learning, an overlapping construct with identity change (Illeris, 2014). Identity development or 'identity work' (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) involves testing provisional identities and refining them based on feedback, both self-generated and from the social environment (Lord et al., 2016). When successfully implemented it harmoniously links 'the past and present to the future' (Lord et al., 2016). Lackritz and colleagues (Lackritz et al., 2019) describe coaching as a means to gain agency over identity development. Transformative learning (Mezirow, 1978, 2000) proposes that, by engaging meta-cognition (thinking about thinking), the way the learner experiences the world can be transformed, in contrast to 'instrumental' learning which aims to help the learner control and manipulate the world (Habermas, 1984; Mezirow, 1978). These findings reflect the emergence in management literature of identity as central to leadership. Effective performance of the leader role is associated with strong leader identity (Day & Sin, 2011) and internalisation of a leader identity, a process which is social as well as individual, is proposed as central to becoming a leader (Haslam & Ellemers, 2011; Lord et al., 2016).

Executive coaching as creation of psychological resources

Psychological resource theory (Hobfoll, 2002) is part of a set of overlapping theories which address motivation in the context of psychological self-regulation (Gregory et al., 2011) and build on the idea of 'cognitive appraisal' in Folkman & Lazarus' (1984) seminal work. These include social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001, 2005), goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2013), and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2012). All assign a central importance to two sub-processes, feedback and goal-setting, which are evoked directly or indirectly in six studies^{2,7,10,12,14,15}. Feedback, defined as awareness of discrepancy between one's performance and one's standards (Kluger & DiNisi, 1996), has been proposed as an essential ingredient of coaching (Kilburg, 2001; Joo, 2005; McDowall & Millward, 2010; Bozer & Jones, 2018). Gregory et al. (2011) propose that the negative feedback control loop is a primary motivational mechanism used in executive coaching, i.e. helping the coachees to realise that their performance falls short of their own standards. Self-generated feedback appears to enhance motivation strongly (Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Gist, 1987), while feedback from others is more complex i.e. negative feedback can result in a loss of motivation and negatively adjusted goals (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Careful handling of feedback, especially when negative, is suggested as a core contribution by the coach towards building coachee motivation (Gregory et al., 2011).

Goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2013) proposes two main factors as influencing the goals people set, the perceived importance of the goal and the person's sense of self-efficacy. Grant (2012) suggests that coaching helps people align their lower order goals with their higher order goals. Thus, work-related goals (lower order) gain in value through becoming associated with life values. Self-efficacy is a central construct within social cognitive theory (Bandura,

Table 5: Overview of specific knowledge gaps.

N°	Knowledge gap	Key references	Suggested research approaches		
			Designs	Data collection	Analysis
1	Which behavioural outcomes reported at the end of coaching last and for how long?	MacKie, 2014	Longitudinal, cross-sectional, retrospective	'Self' and 'other' reports, e.g. multi-source feedback	Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods
2	Is executive coaching associated with long-term changes in psychological variables, including use of meta-cognition?	Grant, 2003; Ladegård, 2011	Experimental, longitudinal, cross-sectional	Psychometric measures	Quantitative
3	Do important long-term effects emerge only after the intervention?	Spence et al., 2019	Retrospective, case-studies	Coachee reports	Qualitative
4	What are the long-term effects of executive coaching on managers' wellbeing?	Grant et al., 2009	Longitudinal and retrospective Case-studies	Coachee and 'other' reports	Qualitative
5	How do women and men experience professional identity development within executive coaching?	Derue & Ashford, 2010; Lord et al., 2016;	Experimental	Organisational metrics, e.g. illness absences, surveys	Quantitative
6	Are there differences in long-term outcomes of executive coaching by gender and other demographics?	Bonneywell, 2017	Longitudinal and retrospective Case-studies	Coachee and 'other' reports	Qualitative
7	Interactions between factors affecting long-term outcomes e.g. personality traits, sex, post-coaching experiences, organisational context.	Ladegård, 2011	Retrospective, cross-sectional Case-studies	Coachee reports	Qualitative and mixed
			Longitudinal, cross-sectional Case-studies	Coachee reports, 'other' reports, organisational metrics	Quantitative and mixed methods
			Experimental with follow-up measures over time	Psychometric measures, coachee reports	Quantitative

2001) and is a psychological resource which shapes people's motivation to act and protects in case of setback. Improved self-efficacy as an enduring outcome of coaching is identified inductively by the researcher in two of the included studies^{6,13}, is objectively measured in one⁵ and can be inferred in four others^{10,12,14,16}. This finding is in line with previous research, for example Baron and Morin (2010) and Moen and Federici (2012). Bozer and Jones' (2018) SR concluded that self-efficacy is a 'key psychological variable' in understanding how coaching works (Bozer & Jones, 2018, p.348).

Knowledge gaps

Table 5 summarises the main knowledge gaps and, building on the work of Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018), offers suggestions on appropriate research strategies in each case. These specific knowledge gaps co-exist with an absence of overarching theory on how executive coaching works (Theeboom et al., 2017).

Two research domains merit special mention because of their importance at the level of organisations and wider society: well-being and gender.

Wellbeing

There is a significant body of literature supporting a link between executive and workplace coaching and improved well-being immediately at the end of the intervention. The evidenced positive outcomes include resilience, well-being and stress (Grant et al., 2009; Ladegård, 2011), hope and purpose (Green et al., 2006), reduced turnover intention and increased trust in subordinates (Ladegård & Gjerde, 2014) and positive affect, autonomy and motivation (Yu et al. (2008). Nevertheless, the persistence of these important effects over time for coached managers appears not to have been investigated.

Gender

There is evidence that women and men experience the formation of a leader identity differently (Bonneywell, 2017; Debebe,

2011; Ely et al., 2011), reflecting the possibility that leadership may still be defined by masculine norms and symbols. Lackritz et al. (2019) suggest that executive coaching has unique advantages among development programmes in helping women to appropriate leader roles. Skinner (2014)⁹ found that executive coaching supported her study participants, all female managers, in satisfying these needs. She invokes social identity theory (Hogg, 2016; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) to explain a specific contribution of coaching to women leaders, arguing that an organisational context with male-imbued leadership values and symbols cannot nourish adequately the acquisition of a leadership identity by women. Skinner (2014)⁹ found evidence that executive coaching offers what Debebe (2011) calls a safe environment for women's leadership transformation. The personal stories of Freischlag (2019)³ and Rathmell et al. (2019)⁷ echo Skinner's (2014)⁹ conclusion that executive coaching is particularly valuable to women in the process of developing identities as leaders.

Conclusion

The studies included in the present review (1) offer some evidence of enduring cognitive, behavioural and affective changes in managers associated with EC and (2) associate two processes within EC with achievement of these outcomes: 'Leader identity formation' and 'Psychological resourcing'. Nevertheless, the existing literature is limited and does not offer sufficiently robust data either to demonstrate convincingly that the positive short-term effects on managers are sustained over time or to explicate fully the processes involved in achieving enduring effects for managers from this intervention.

Declarations

The authors declare no conflict of interest concerning this work and no specific funding was received for it from any source.

Authors

Éamon McInerney

PhD student

Lancaster University

Dr Sabir Giga

Faculty of Health & Medicine

Lancaster University

Dr Abigail S. Morris

Faculty of Health & Medicine

Lancaster University

Correspondence

Éamon McInerney

eamon.mcinerney86@gmail.com

References

- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179–211.
- Alge, B.J., Ballinger, G.A., Tangirala, S. & Oakley, J. L. (2006). Information privacy in organizations: Empowering creative and extrarole performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(1), 221.
- *Anthony, E.L. (2017). The impact of leadership coaching on leadership behaviors. *The Journal of Management Development*, 36(7), 930–939. doi:10.1108/JMD-06-2016-0092
- Argyris, C. (1977). Double loop learning in organizations. *Harvard Business Review*, 55(5), 115–125.
- Arnold, K.A. & Loughlin, C. (2010). Individually considerate transformational leadership behaviour and self sacrifice. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*.
- Athanasopoulou, A. & Dopson, S. (2015). *Developing leaders by executive coaching: Practice and evidence*. OUP Oxford.
- Athanasopoulou, A. & Dopson, S. (2018). A systematic review of executive coaching outcomes: Is it the journey or the destination that matters the most?(Report). *The Leadership Quarterly*, 29(1), 70. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.11.004
- Avolio, B. & Bass, B. (2004). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.
- Avolio, B.J. & Gardner, W.L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 315–338.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social Cognitive Theory: An Agentic Perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 1–26. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.1
- Bandura, A. (2005). The evolution of social cognitive theory. *Great Minds in Management*, 9–35.
- Bandura, A. & Cervone, D. (1983). Self-evaluative and self-efficacy mechanisms governing the motivational effects of goal systems. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45(5), 1017.
- Baron, L. & Morin, L. (2009). The coach-coachee relationship in executive coaching: A field study. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 20(1), 85–106.
- Baron, L. & Morin, L. (2010). The impact of executive coaching on self-efficacy related to management soft-skills. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 31(1), 18–38. doi:10.1108/01437731011010362
- Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. Collier Macmillan.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (1997). Full range leadership development. *Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. California: Mind Garden.
- Bass, B.M. & Riggio, R.E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*. Psychology Press.
- Bennett, J.L. & Bush, M.W. (2013). *Coaching for change*. Routledge.
- Berger, J.G. (2011). *Changing on the job: Developing leaders for a complex world*. Stanford University Press.
- Bluckert, P. (2005). Critical factors in executive coaching – the coaching relationship. *Industrial and Commercial Training*.
- Bonneywell, S. (2017). How a coaching intervention supports the development of female leaders in a global organisation. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring (S11)*, 57–69.
- Bozer, G. & Baek-Kyoo, J. (2015). The effects of coachee characteristics and coaching relationships on feedback receptivity and self-awareness in executive coaching. *International Leadership Journal*, 7(3), 36–58.
- Bozer, G. & Jones, R.J. (2018). Understanding the factors that determine workplace coaching effectiveness: A systematic literature review. *European Journal of Work & Organizational Psychology*, 27(3), 342–361. doi:10.1080/1359432X.2018.1446946
- *Brand, H. & Coetzee, M. (2013). An explorative study of the experiences of the coach and coachee during executive coaching. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 34(3), 247–256. doi:10.1080/09718923.2013.11893136
- Brewer, M.B. & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this 'We'? Levels of collective identity and self representations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(1), 83.
- Brief, A.P. & Motowidlo, S.J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of Management Review*, 11(4), 710–725.

- Brock, V.G. (2018). The roots and evolution of coaching. *Professional Coaching: Principles and Practice*.
- Brown, A.D. (2015). Identities and identity work in organizations. *International journal of management reviews*, 17(1), 20–40.
- Burke, P.J. (1996). Social identities and psychosocial stress. *Psychosocial stress: Perspectives on structure, theory, life course, and methods*, 141–174.
- Chemers, M.M., Watson, C.B. & May, S.T. (2000). Dispositional affect and leadership effectiveness: A comparison of self-esteem, optimism, and efficacy. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(3), 267–277.
- Cho, J. & Dansereau, F. (2010). Are transformational leaders fair? A multi-level study of transformational leadership, justice perceptions, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(3), 409–421.
- Dagley, G. (2006). Human resources professionals' perceptions of executive coaching: Efficacy, benefits and return on investment. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 1(2), 34–45.
- Dalton, M. & Hollenbeck, G. (2001). After feedback: How to facilitate change in behavior. *The Handbook of Multisource Feedback*, 352–367.
- Day, D.V. & Sin, H.-P. (2011). Longitudinal tests of an integrative model of leader development: Charting and understanding developmental trajectories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(3), 545–560.
- de Haan, E. (2019). A systematic review of qualitative studies in workplace and executive coaching: The emergence of a body of research. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 71(4), 227.
- de Haan, E., Duckworth, A., Birch, D. & Jones, C. (2013). Executive coaching outcome research: The contribution of common factors such as relationship, personality match, and self-efficacy. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 65(1), 40.
- De Meuse, K.P., Dai, G. & Lee, R. J. (2009). Evaluating the effectiveness of executive coaching: beyond ROI? *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 2(2), 117–134. doi:10.1080/17521880902882413
- Debebe, G. (2011). Creating a safe environment for women's leadership transformation. *Journal of Management Education*, 35(5), 679–712.
- Deci, E.L., Eghrari, H., Patrick, B.C. & Leone, D.R. (1994). Facilitating internalization: The self-determination theory perspective. *Journal of Personality*, 62(1), 119–142.
- Deci, E.L. & Ryan, R.M. (2012). *Self-determination theory*.
- DeNisi, A.S. & Kluger, A.N. (2000). Feedback effectiveness: Can 360-degree appraisals be improved? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 14(1), 129–139.
- DeRue, D.S. & Ashford, S.J. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *The Academy of Management Review*, 35(4), 627–647. doi:10.5465/AMR.2010.53503267
- DeRue, D.S., Ashford, S.J. & Cotton, N.C. (2009). Assuming the mantle: Unpacking the process by which individuals internalize a leader identity. *Exploring positive identities and organizations: Building a theoretical and research foundation*, 213232.
- DiClemente, C., Norcross, J. & Prochaska, J. (1995). *Changing for good*. New York: Avon Books.
- Dutton, J.E., Roberts, L.M. & Bednar, J. (2010). Pathways for positive identity construction at work: Four types of positive identity and the building of social resources. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(2), 265–293.
- Dweck, C.S., Tenney, Y. & Dinces, N. (1982). Implicit theories of intelligence as determinants of achievement goal choice. *Unpublished manuscript*. Cambridge, MA.
- Dweck, C.S. & Leggett, E.L. (1988). A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological Review*, 95(2), 256.
- Ely, K. & Zaccaro, S.J. (2011). Evaluating the effectiveness of coaching. *Advancing executive coaching: Setting the course for successful leadership coaching*, 319–349.
- Ely, R.J. & Rhode, D.L. (2010). Women and leadership. *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice*, 377–410.
- Evers, W.J.G., Brouwers, A. & Tomic, W. (2006). A quasi-experimental study on management coaching effectiveness. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 58(3), 174–182. doi:10.1037/1065-9293.58.3.174
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance* (Vol. 2). Stanford University Press.
- Fischer, T., Dietz, J. & Antonakis, J. (2017). Leadership process models: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*, 43(6), 1726–1753.
- Folkman, S. & Lazarus, R.S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Franklin, J. (2005). Change readiness in coaching: Potentiating client change. *Evidence-Based Coaching*, 1, 193–200.
- *Freischlag, J.A. (2019). Put me in, coach: Reflections of one female physician turned academic leader on the transition of another. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*. 71(3), 170–174. doi:10.1037/cpb0000132
- Gecas, V. & Schwalbe, M.L. (1983). Beyond the looking-glass self: Social structure and efficacy-based self-esteem. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 77–88.

- George, J.M. & Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: An interactional approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 513.
- Gersick, C.J. (1991). Revolutionary change theories: A multilevel exploration of the punctuated equilibrium paradigm. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(1), 10–36.
- Gessnitzer, S., Schulte, E.-M. & Kauffeld, S. (2016). 'I am going to succeed': The power of self-efficient language in coaching and how coaches can use it. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 68(4), 294–312. doi:10.1037/cpb0000064
- Gibbons, A.M., Rupp, D.E., Snyder, L.A. et al. (2006). A preliminary investigation of developable dimensions. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 9(2), 99–123. doi:10.1207/s15503461tpmj0902_4
- Gibby, B.A., Casline, E.P. & Ginsburg, G.S. (2017). Long-term outcomes of youth treated for an anxiety disorder: A critical review. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 20(2), 201–225.
- Gigerenzer, G. (2000). *Adaptive thinking: Rationality in the real world*. USA: Oxford University Press.
- Gist, M.E. (1987). Self-efficacy: Implications for organizational behavior and human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(3), 472–485.
- Gollwitzer, P.M. (1999). Implementation intentions: Strong effects of simple plans. *American Psychologist*, 54(7), 493.
- Goodstone, M.S. & Diamante, T. (1998). Organizational use of therapeutic change: Strengthening multisource feedback systems through interdisciplinary coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 50(3), 152.
- Gould, N.E.-S.J. & Eldredge, N. (1972). Punctuated equilibria: An alternative to phyletic gradualism. *Essential Readings in Evolutionary Biology*, 82–115.
- Grant, A., Curtaayne, L. & Burton, G. (2009). Executive coaching enhances goal attainment, resilience and workplace wellbeing: A randomised controlled study. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4(5), 396–407. doi:10.1080/17439760902992456
- Grant, A.M. (2003). The impact of life coaching on goal attainment, metacognition and mental health. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 31(3), 253–263.
- Grant, A.M. (2012). An integrated model of goal-focused coaching: An evidence-based framework for teaching and practice. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 7(2), 146–165.
- Grant, A.M., Green, L.S. & Rynsaardt, J. (2010). Developmental coaching for high school teachers: Executive coaching goes to school. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 62(3), 151–168. doi:10.1037/a0019212
- Green, L., Oades, L. & Grant, A. (2006). Cognitive-behavioral, solution-focused life coaching: Enhancing goal striving, well-being, and hope. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 1(3), 142–149.
- Green, S., Grant, A.M. & Rynsaardt, J. (2007). Evidence-based life coaching for senior high school students: Building hardiness and hope. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 2(1), 24–32.
- Gregory, J.B., Beck, J.W. & Carr, A.E. (2011). Goals, feedback, and self-regulation: Control theory as a natural framework for executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 63(1), 26–38. doi:10.1037/a0023398
- Grover, S. & Furnham, A. (2016). Coaching as a developmental intervention in organisations: A systematic review of its effectiveness and the mechanisms underlying it. *PLoS One*, 11(7), e0159137. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0159137
- Habermas, J. (1984). *The Theory of communicative action*. Heinemann.
- Hannah, S.T. & Lester, P.B. (2009). A multilevel approach to building and leading learning organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(1), 34–48.
- Haslam, S.A. & Ellemers, N. (2011). Identity processes in organizations. *Handbook of Identity Theory and Research* (pp.715–744). Springer.
- Hobfoll, S.E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychology*, 6(4), 307–324. doi:10.1037/1089-2680.6.4.307
- Hogg, M.A. (2016). Social identity theory. *Understanding peace and conflict through social identity theory* (pp.3–17). Springer.
- Hoon, C. (2013). Meta-synthesis of qualitative case studies: An approach to theory building. *Organizational Research Methods*, 16(4), 522–556. doi:10.1177/1094428113484969
- Ibarra, H. (1999). Provisional selves: Experimenting with image and identity in professional adaptation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44(4), 764–791.
- ICF (2020). *2020 ICF global coaching study*.
- Illeris, K. (2014). *Transformative learning and identity*. Routledge.
- Johnson, R.E., Rosen, C.C. & Levy, P.E. (2008). Getting to the core of core self-evaluation: A review and recommendations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29(3), 391–413. doi:10.1002/job.514
- Jones, R.J., Woods, S.A. & Guillaume, Y.R.F. (2016). The effectiveness of workplace coaching: A meta-analysis of learning and performance outcomes from coaching. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 89(2), 249–277. doi:10.1111/joop.12119

- Joo, B.-K. (2005). Executive coaching: A conceptual framework from an integrative review of practice and research. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4(4), 462–488. doi:10.1177/1534484305280866
- Judge, T.A., Erez, A., Bono, J.E. & Thoresen, C.J. (2003). The core self-evaluations scale: Development of a measure. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(2), 303–331.
- Judge, T.A. & Kammeyer-Mueller, J.D. (2011). Implications of core self-evaluations for a changing organizational context. *Human Resource Management Review*, 21(4), 331–341.
- Kampa-Kokesch, S. & Anderson, M.Z. (2001). Executive coaching: A comprehensive review of the literature. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 53(4), 205–228. doi:10.1037/1061-4087.53.4.205
- Kilburg, R.R. (2000). *Executive coaching: Developing managerial wisdom in a world of chaos*. American Psychological Association.
- Kilburg, R.R. (2001). Facilitating intervention adherence in executive coaching: A model and methods. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 53(4), 251–267. doi:10.1037/1061-4087.53.4.251
- Kluger, A.N. & DeNisi, A. (1996). The effects of feedback interventions on performance: A historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological Bulletin*, 119(2), 254.
- Koestner, R. & Losier, G.F. (2002). Distinguishing three ways of being highly motivated: A closer look at introjection, identification, and intrinsic motivation.
- Kouzes, J.M. & Posner, B.Z. (2003). *The Jossey-Bass academic administrator's guide to exemplary leadership (Vol. 131)*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Lackritz, A.D., Cseh, M. & Wise, D. (2019). Leadership coaching: A multiple-case study of urban public charter school principals' *Experiences. Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 27(1), 5. doi:10.1080/13611267.2019.1583404
- Ladegård, G. & Gjerde, S. (2014). Leadership coaching, leader role-efficacy, and trust in subordinates. A mixed methods study assessing leadership coaching as a leadership development tool. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(4), 631–646.
- Ladegård, G. (2011). Stress management through workplace coaching: The impact of learning experiences. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 9(1), 29–43.
- Locke, E.A. & Latham, G.P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist*, 57(9), 705.
- Locke, E.A. & Latham, G.P. (2013). *Goal setting theory*. Lord, R. & Brown, D. (2004). Organization and management series. *Leadership processes and follower self-identity*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Lord, R.G., Gatti, P. & Chui, S.L.M. (2016). Social-cognitive, relational, and identity-based approaches to leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 136, 119–134. doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2016.03.001
- *MacKie, D. (2014). The effectiveness of strength-based executive coaching in enhancing full range leadership development: A controlled study. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 66(2), 118–137. doi:10.1037/cpb0000005
- *MacKie, D. (2015). The effects of coachee readiness and core self-evaluations on leadership coaching outcomes: A controlled trial. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 8(2), 120–136. doi:10.1080/17521882.2015.1019532
- Markus, H. & Wurf, E. (1987). The dynamic self-concept: A social psychological perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 38(1), 299–337.
- McDowall, A. & Millward, L. (2010). Feeding back, feeding forward and setting goals. *The Coaching Relationship* (pp.73–96). Routledge.
- McKenna, D.D. & Davis, S. (2009). Hidden in plain sight: The active ingredients of executive coaching. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 2(3), 244–260. doi:10.1111/j.1754-9434.2009.01143.x
- Mezirow, J. (1978). Perspective transformation. *Adult Education*, 28(2), 100–110.
- Mezirow, J. (2000). Learning as transformation: Critical perspectives on a theory in progress. *The Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series*. ERIC.
- Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. (2002). Reflections and advice. *The qualitative researcher's companion*, 393-397.
- Mink, O., Owen, K. & Mink, B. (1993). Developing high performance people: *The art of coaching*. Basic Books.
- Moen, F. & Allgood, E. (2009). Coaching and the effect on self-efficacy. *Organization Development Journal*, 27(4), 69–82.
- Moen, F. & Federici, R.A. (2012). Perceived leadership self-efficacy and coach competence: Assessing a Coaching Leadership Self-Efficacy Scale. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 10(2), 1–16.
- Moen, F. & Skaalvik, E. (2009). The effect from executive coaching on performance psychology. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 7(2), 31–49.
- Moher, D., Liberati, A., Tetzlaff, J. et al. (2009). Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: The PRISMA statement (Chinese edition). *Journal of Chinese Integrative Medicine*, 7(9), 889–896.
- Moons, J. (2016). A shift in the room-myth or magic? How do coaches create transformational shifts in a short period of time? *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*.

- *Nieminen, L., Smerek, R., Kotrba, L. & Denison, D. (2013). What does an executive coaching intervention add beyond facilitated multisource feedback? Effects on leader self-ratings and perceived effectiveness. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 24(2), 145–176. doi:10.1002/hrdq.21152
- Passmore, J., Brown, H., Wall, T. & Stokes, P. (2018). *Executive Report 2018 – The State of Play in Coaching in the United Kingdom*. EMCC/Henley.
- Passmore, J. & Tee, D. (2020). Insights from qualitative coaching psychology research. *Coaching Researched: A Coaching Psychology Reader for Practitioners and Researchers*, 141.
- Piccolo, R.F. & Colquitt, J.A. (2006). Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of core job characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(2), 327–340. doi:10.5465/AMJ.2006.20786079
- Popay, J., Roberts, H., Sowden, A. et al. (2006). Guidance on the conduct of narrative synthesis in systematic reviews. *A product from the ESRC methods programme Version, 1*, b92.
- Prochaska, J.O. & DiClemente, C.C. (1983). Stages and processes of self-change of smoking: Toward an integrative model of change. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 51(3), 390.
- Prochaska, J.O. & DiClemente, C.C. (1986). Toward a comprehensive model of change. *Treating addictive behaviors* (pp.3–27): Springer.
- Rafferty, A.E. & Griffin, M.A. (2004). Dimensions of transformational leadership: Conceptual and empirical extensions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(3), 329–354.
- Rafferty, A.E. & Griffin, M.A. (2006). Perceptions of organizational change: A stress and coping perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5), 1154.
- *Rathmell, W.K., Brown, N.J. & Kilburg, R. . (2019). Transformation to academic leadership: the role of mentorship and executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 71(3), 141–160. doi:10.1037/cpb0000124
- *Rekalde, I., Landeta, J., Albizu, E. & Fernandez-Ferrin, P. (2017). Is executive coaching more effective than other management training and development methods? *Management Decision*, 55(10), 2149–2162. doi:10.1108/MD-10-2016-0688
- Rogers, C. (1961). *On Becoming a person* (rev. edn.) Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Schriesheim, C.A., Neider, L.L. & Scandura, T.A. (1998). Delegation and leader-member exchange: Main effects, moderators, and measurement issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(3), 298–318.
- Sheeran, P. & Orbell, S. (1999). Augmenting the theory of planned behavior: Roles for anticipated regret and descriptive norms 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 29(10), 2107–2142.
- *Skinner, S. (2014). Understanding the importance of gender and leader identity formation in executive coaching for senior women. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 7(2), 102–114. doi:10.1080/17521882.2014.915864
- *Smith, I.M. & Brummel, B.J. (2013). Investigating the role of the active ingredients in executive coaching. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 6(1), 57–71. doi:10.1080/17521882.2012.758649
- *Smither, J.W., London, M., Flautt, R. et al. (2003). Can working with an executive coach improve multisource feedback ratings over time? A quasi-experimental field study. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(1), 23–44. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2003.tb00142.x
- Smither, J.W., London, M. & Reilly, R.R. (2005). Does performance improve following multisource feedback? A theoretical model, meta-analysis, and review of empirical findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(1), 33–66.
- Sonesh, S.C., Coultas, C.W., Lacerenza, C.N. et al. (2015). The power of coaching: A meta-analytic investigation. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 8(2), 73–95. doi:10.1080/17521882.2015.1071418
- Spence, G. (2008). *New directions in evidence-based coaching: Investigations into the impact of mindfulness training on goal attainment and wellbeing*. VDM Publishing.
- *Spence, G.B., Stout-Rostron, S., Reenen, M.V. & Glashoff, B. (2019). Exploring the delayed effects of leadership coaching: A pilot study. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 12(2), 125–146. doi:10.1080/17521882.2019.1574308
- Stajkovic, A.D. & Luthans, F. (1997). A meta-analysis of the effects of organizational behavior modification on task performance, 1975–1995. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(5), 1122–1149.
- Stets, J.E. & Burke, P.J. (2005). New directions in identity control theory. *Advances in Group Processes*, 22(1), 43–64.
- Tajfel, H. & Turner, J.C. (1979). The social identity theory of group behavior. *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations*, 33–47.
- Theeboom, T., Beersma, B. & Van Vianen, A.E.M. (2013). Coaching in organizations – A meta-analytic review of individual level effects. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2013(1), 11881. doi:10.5465/ambpp.2013.11881abstract
- Theeboom, T., Van Vianen, A.E. & Beersma, B. (2017). A temporal map of coaching. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 1352.

- Tooth, J.-A., Nielsen, S. & Armstrong, H. (2013). Coaching effectiveness survey instruments: Taking stock of measuring the immeasurable. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 6(2), 137–151. doi:10.1080/17521882.2013.802365
- *Trevillion, F. (2018). Executive coaching outcomes: An investigation into leadership development using five dyadic case studies illustrating the impact of executive coaching. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring* (S12), 21–40. doi:10.24384/000542
- Van Dick, R., Hirst, G., Grojean, M.W. & Wieseke, J. (2007). Relationships between leader and follower organizational identification and implications for follower attitudes and behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(1), 133–150.
- *Wales, S. (2002). Why coaching? *Journal of Change Management*, 3(3), 275–282. doi:10.1080/714042542
- *Wasylyshyn, K.M. (2003). Executive coaching: An outcome study. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 55(2), 94–106. doi:10.1037/1061-4087.55.2.94
- Webb, T.L. & Sheeran, P. (2004). Identifying good opportunities to act: Implementation intentions and cue discrimination. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 34(4), 407–419.
- *Williams, J.S. & Lowman, R.L. (2018). The efficacy of executive coaching: An empirical investigation of two approaches using random assignment and a switching-replications design. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 70(3), 227–249. doi:10.1037/cpb0000115
- Witherspoon, R. & White, R.P. (1996). Executive coaching: A continuum of roles. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 48(2), 124.
- Yin, R.K. (2009). How to do better case studies. *The SAGE handbook of applied social research methods*, 2, 254–282.
- Yu, N., Collins, C. G., Cavanagh, M. et al. (2008). Positive coaching with frontline managers: Enhancing their effectiveness and understanding why. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 3(2), 110–122.

Coaching for cultural sensitivity: Content analysis applying Hofstede's framework to a select set of the International Coach Federation's (ICF) Core Competencies

Leticia P. Mosteo, Terrence E. Maltbia
& Victoria J. Marsick

Grounded in a selective integrated literature review, this study analyses select ICF core coaching competencies, critically reviewed by an established competency modeling architecture and Hofstede's Five Cultural Dimensions Model. Qualitative content analysis methodology was used by three independent evaluators. The objective is to provide evidence as to the competencies effectiveness across different cultures. The aim is better understanding the specific interplay between modes of cultural programming and basic coaching competencies, to offer evidence-based awareness for the inclusion of cultural competencies in coach education. Our analysis shows that directionality shifts depending on behavioural indicators associated with each competency – suggesting the application of cultural competence in coaching is both dynamic and complex. Our results show inter-rater reliability was highest where both competency definitions and cultural descriptions were conceptually clear and coherent. Specific cultural assumptions embedded in the ICF competency model are revealed. The paper offers evidence-based insights for the inclusion of cultural competence in coach education, training, and credentialing processes.

Keywords: coaching competencies; cultural competence; competency modelling; coach education and training.

EXECUTIVE COACHING is one of five top best practices helping leaders respond to challenges and opportunities associated with globalisation, technology, demographic diversity, and cross functional and cross-cultural teamwork (WanVeer & Ruthman, 2008). Differing perceptions of what constitutes coaching core competencies by academic and coach preparation programs, credentialing associations, and practitioners have obfuscated clarity of definition, roles, and implementation (Maltbia et al., 2014). Boundaries within coaching serve several purposes, most notably they provide clarity for practitioners around acceptable practice and support them in discerning what is expected of them (Sime & Jacob, 2019). Coaching itself is a professional helping relationship since the process mainly relies on reciprocal actions

between the coach and coachee (Lai & Passmore, 2019). We particularly understand coaching as a process of learning, development and human performance.

In this concern, coaches need to enhance cultural competence and cultural awareness capabilities (Plaister-Ten, 2009), yet coaching competency models: (a) are embedded in Western cultural assumptions because of their origins; and (b) do not explicitly address the cross-cultural applicability of their models. These models originated in North America during the 1990s and are now being applied globally to prepare professional coaches, accredit training and education providers, and certify individual coaches. This paper's purpose is to: examine the level of cultural sensitivity embedded in the widely-used International Coach Federa-

tion (ICF) competency model; and identify implications for decision makers, practicing coaches, and researchers regarding education, credentialing, and service delivery.

Study design and objectives

We undertook a selective integrated literature review (Torraco 2005) combined with a qualitative content analysis (Krippendorff, 2013). We applied Hofstede's cultural dimension framework to six of ICF's 11 core coaching competencies to examine embedded cultural assumptions. Content analysis is a flexible method for analysing text data that describes a family of analytic approaches ranging from impressionistic, intuitive, interpretive analyses to systematic, strict textual analyses.

Methods

An integrated critical literature review was carried out. We selectively reviewed three areas: (1) executive coaching to situate the concept of culturally sensitive coaching; (2) cultural competence to operationalise the central construct under investigation; and (3) competency modeling to examine the cultural basis of ICF's competency model.

Executive and organisational coaching

The ICF, the largest professional association for coaches, provides a generalist definition of coaching (www.coachfederation.org/):

...partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximise their personal and professional potential – coaches honor the client as the expert in his or her life and work and believe every client is creative, resourceful and whole.

Table 1 provides sample definitions for executive coaching that reveal several themes – executive coaching is a process (focused on learning, choice, change, growth); a partnership (between coach and executive); a balance between individual and organisational needs; a way of working; the new face of leadership for the 21st century; a goal-focused

form of customised leadership development, performance improvement and skill enhancement support; a vehicle for systematic feedback; a form of executive consultation; and enabled via Socratic dialogue.

We undertook content analysis of selected ICF core coaching competencies, using a research-based cultural framework, to examine implications for what executive coaches might need to operate across cultural boundaries – a key requirement in global workplaces.

Cultural sensitivity and cultural competence

The word culture derives from the Latin word *colere*, meaning 'to build', 'to care for' or 'to cultivate'. However, like coaching, definitions of culture vary and may include diverse ideologies (Harrison, 1972), a coherent set of beliefs and basic assumptions (Schein, 1985), and 'collective programming of the human mind' (Hofstede, 2005). A number of person-made, collective and shared artifacts, behavioural patterns, values or other concepts, taken together, form the culture as a whole.

Cultural intelligence (CQ) is defined as 'an individual's capability to function, interact, and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings and with others from diverse backgrounds' (Early & Ang, 2003). Further, cultural competence is defined as a set of aligned behaviour and attitudes that creates a system or organisation, and enables effective cross-cultural work – expanding the concept beyond individuals to include inter-personal spaces, systems, communities, and even countries (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2000).

We adopt the orientation expressed by intercultural sensitivity expert Milton Bennett (2004), who noted that 'as people become more inter-culturally competent, they move from ethnocentrism – the experience of one's culture as the center of reality, to ethno-relativism – the experience of one's own beliefs and behaviors as just one view of reality among many viable possibilities' (p.62). In fact, to move away from ethnocentrism, Bennett (2004)

Table 1. Illustrative definitions of executive coaching (in chronological sequence).

Source	Definitions and purposes
Kilburg (1996)	A helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organisation and a consultant who uses a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods to help the client achieve a mutually identified set of goals to improve his or her professional performance and personal satisfaction and, consequently, to improve the effectiveness of the client's organization within a formally defined coaching agreement (p.142).
Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck (1999)	A practical, goal-focused form of personal, one-on-one learning for busy executives and may be used to improve performance or executive behaviour, enhancing a career or prevent derailment, and work through organisational issues or change initiatives (p. 40).
Sperry (2008)	A form of executive consultation in which a trained professional, mindful of organisational dynamics, functions as a facilitator who forms a collaborative relationship with an executive to improve his or her skills and effectiveness in communicating the corporate vision and goals, and to foster better team performance, organisational productivity, and professional-personal development (p.36).
Passmore & Filler-Travis (2011)	A Socratic based dialogue between a facilitator (coach) and a participant (client) where the majority of interventions used by the facilitator are open questions which are aimed at stimulating self-awareness and personal responsibility of the participant (p.74).

suggests three Ethno-centric pitfalls to overcome (Denial, Defence and Minimisation) and then three Ethno-relative approaches (Acceptance, Adaptation and Integration).

While there are many approaches to understanding cultural orientations, we employ Hofstede's (2005) framework because it: (1) includes five cultural scales (compared to other models that include as few as two dimensions or over 10); and (2) has been used in nearly 600 studies, with over 200,000 individuals, for over three-decades (Taras et al., 2010). According to Hofstede (2005), miscommunication and misconceptions in the global environment are often the result of ethnocentric thinking, frequently consequence of poor cultural self-awareness. He argues that ethnocentrism is to people what egocentrism is to individuals, of incorrect assumptions about other people's values and standards being made with our own cultural codes in mind as an ideal reference point.

Hofstede (1980) mapped cultural orientations in over 50 countries to identify work values, on which he based five cultural

dimensions that have become foundational for understanding cultural variation (see Table 2.) Hofstede (2005) further operationalised cultural dimensions by including indicators that help make distinctions across the sub-dimensions (see Table 3).

Competency modeling and core coaching competencies

Given our interest in coaching competencies, we review competency modeling literature and its application in professional coaching. Competencies specify success factors (i.e. knowledge, skills, and other characteristics) necessary for achieving results in a job, work role, or professional practice (Singh Chouhan & Srivastava, 2014). The competency construct dates back to David McClelland who advocated use of skills sets related to performance based on criterion sampling as an alternative to intelligence testing (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2006).

Competency modelling distinguishes top performers from average performers; includes descriptions of how required capa-

Table 2: Hofsetde's (2005) *Cultural Dimensions*.

Dimension	Descriptions
Individualism	Degree to which people of a society understand themselves as individuals, as apart from their group; degree to which action is taken for the benefit of the individual or the group (pp.74–78).
Power distance	Degree of equality, or inequality between people that is acceptable, or excepted, in society; the degree to which inequality or distance between those in charge and the less powerful (subordinates) is accepted (pp.45–46).
Uncertainty avoidance	Degree to which people in a society feel uncomfortable in unexpected, surprising and unknown situations; the extent to which people prefer rules, regulations and controls or are more comfortable with unstructured, ambiguous or unpredictable situations (pp.164–168).
Masculinity	Degree the society reinforces, or not, the traditional competitive masculine work role model; the degree to which we focus on goal achievement and work or quality of life and caring for others (pp.116–120).
Time orientation	Degree people attach importance to a future oriented way of thinking rather than to a short-term oriented one; the degree to which we embrace values oriented toward the future, such as perseverance and thrift, or values oriented toward the past and present, such as respect for tradition and fulfilling social obligations (pp.208–210).

Source: Author's (2014) adaptation of concepts found in G. Hofstede (2005, 1980).

bilities change or progress across level; is linked to objectives and outcomes (individual and organisational); and may consider future job requirements (Campion et al., 2011). A competency model generally includes: (1) categories of competencies; and (2) a clear architecture (i.e. target population/classification; competency; definitions or descriptors; and criterion-referenced behavioural indicators – competency modelling applies to a wide range of human systems in organisations – as such the validity and reliability of the selected method for modelling must satisfy contextual demands.

Competency modelling in professional coaching

Maltbia et al. (2014) note that coach competency models and related credentialing processes used by professional bodies do not explicitly cite theories or related research supporting these approaches in publically available documentation; and do not provide conceptual clarity regarding cultural competence in coach education and training, nor

the procedures employed in developing competency models.

Maltbia et al. (2014) conducted a multi-year, systematic literature review to ground 10 of ICF's 11 core coaching competencies. The 11th competency – 'meeting ethnical guidelines and professional standards' – was excluded because it did not meet operational definitions of 'competency'. Key findings revealed:

- There is both theoretical and empirical support for what we labelled as conversational, relational, and facilitative ICF competencies (i.e. ICF #5 – active listening, 6 – questioning, 3 – trust & intimacy, 4 – presence, 7 – direct communication and 8 – creating awareness – all clearly coach capabilities that we included in our analysis, as reported in the next section);
- For the competencies that we labelled ICF 'structural' competencies, there is support for inclusion in the education, training and credentialing of coaches (or ICF #2 – coaching agreement, 10 –

Table 3: Hofstede's Cultural Sub-Dimensions

Related cultural continuum (Sub-dimensions)	
Individualism	Individualism – Script: 'looking out for #1; if you want something done right, do it yourself' Sample Indicator: feedback is given directly to the individual; 'I' focus (or 'me'), driven by an internal motivational orientation.
Power distance	Hierarchical – Script: 'even better than respect is obedience; the highest duty is to respect authority' Sample Indicator: manager makes decisions appropriate to his/her level; employee should rely on manager for direction; regard social order to be important in resolving conflict.
Uncertainty avoidance	Need for certainty – Script: 'do it by the book (i.e., focus on 'proven approaches'; better safe than sorry' Sample indicator: stability is sought, valued and rewarded; what is 'different' is valued as dangerous, or risky; need for precision and formality; expertise and technology-based solutions.
Masculinity	Achievement/masculinity – Script: 'nice people finish last; winning isn't everything, it's the only thing; being fast and being first matters' Sample indicator: performance and results are stressed; focus on challenge, earnings, recognition, and advancement.
Time orientation	Long-term – Script: 'diligence is the basis of success and wealth, and thrift the source of riches' Sample indicator: success over a long time horizon is valued; time is fluid; respect for circumstances; deferred gratification of needs is accepted; synthetic thinking
	Collectivism – Script: 'two heads are better than one; many hands make light work' Sample Indicator: feedback is given indirectly or through in-group member; 'We' focus (or 'team), driven to maximise welfare of group. Participative – Script: 'tell people the 'what' and 'why', and let them surprise you with their ingenuity' Sample Indicator: employees are expected to report progress to managers and suggest approaches to problem solving; use of power should be legitimate and negotiated. Tolerance of ambiguity – Script: 'rules are meant to be broken; nothing ventured, nothing gained' Sample indicator: trying new approaches is valued and rewarded; tolerance for, or desire for exploration, creation and diversity; generalists and common sense focused; there should be no more rules than necessary. Quality of life/femininity – Script: 'it is nice to be important, yet it is more important to be nice; all work and no play makes for a dull life.' Sample indicator: solidarity and service are stressed; collaborative and open; management as intuitive and consensus seeking. Short-term – Script: 'time is money; keeping up with the 'Joneses' is the measure of success' Sample indicator: produce quick results are expected and valued; here-and-now focused; immediate gratification of needs is expected; analytic thinking.

planning and goal setting, 9 – designing action and 11 – managing progress and accountability). However, they describe the coaching process rather than coach capabilities – and thus are NOT included in our analysis; and

- There appears to be conceptual confusion about what constitutes factors related: to mindset (i.e. ethics, for example) vs competencies (capabilities that reside in the coach) and process (partnership work with the client, yet not necessarily focused on coach capabilities).

To summarise, coaching competency models are aggregates of capabilities – with competency defined as an underlying characteristic that is causally related to superior performance (Spencer & Spencer, 1993, p.9) – that, when applied across the entire coaching process, create synergy and add value to clients. Cultural competence refers to integration of key dimensions of the client's cultural identity into theories, tools, and practices that guide one's coaching approach with the intent of providing clients of all socio-demographic backgrounds with relevant services focused on achieving desired results (Maltbia & Prior, 2012).

Analysis

A content analysis was conducted by three independent evaluators in four different rounds. Each evaluator is from a different culture; they were chosen for their intercultural profiles and their extensive expertise on cultural diversity. One is an American of Czechoslovakian heritage. In earlier work experience she had the opportunity to live and work in India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Thailand, Malaysia, the Philippines and Indonesia. Another is Spanish, with a strong influence from German culture. She worked for several years in Germany, and has also lived and studied in a number of places in EEUU and United Kingdom. The third evaluator is an American with wide expertise on intercultural intelligence and cultural diversity.

The three of them received the same

particular instructions: They should independently compare the definition of each of the six selected ICF core competencies identified for this analysis, with the definitions of each of Hofstede's five cultural dimensions. For the six competencies, each author: (1) should review the content from the two sources to first determine if there was a degree of alignment between the competency definition and each cultural dimension; and (2) should record their 'judgment' in a matrix. Then they would engage in an inter-rater reliability discussion to determine the level of agreement resulting from independently coding the two constructs at the definitional level of analysis. Concretely, they proceed as follows:

- In the first round, the three evaluators independently analysed definitions of each of the six ICF coaching competencies to determine if there is likely an interaction with each of Hofstede's five cultural dimensions using the coding matrix in Appendix A.
- Second, the evaluators then compared ratings and came to agreement as to which coaching competencies are likely to be affected by which dimensions.
- In the third round, two of three evaluators independently analysed indicators for each coaching competency to determine if there is likely an interaction with each of Hofstede's five cultural dimensions. They used a continuum to characterise the polar opposites of each of Hofstede's five cultural dimensions drawn from the Culture in the Workplace Questionnaire's (CWQ) technical manual to refine the analysis. A higher score would thus indicate a preference for the orientation on the left side of the continuum, and a lower score a preference for the orientation on the right side of the continuum. In each cell of the matrix, the raters noted observations to support their judgment (Miles & Huberman, 1994 pp.239–286).
- In the fourth round, all three evaluators examined output from the third

Table 4: Competency Clusters for Select ICF Competencies.

Cluster	ICF Competencies
Co-creating the relationship	#3. Establishing trust and intimacy with the client #4. Coaching presence
Communicating effectively	#5. Active listening #6. Powerful questioning #7. Direct communication
Facilitating learning and results	#8. Creating awareness

round to reach agreement about which coaching competencies and indicators are likely to be affected by which of Hofstede's dimensions, as further characterised using the CWQ continuum of polar opposites.

The level of agreement on the whole analysis ranged from 66 per cent (or two of three) to 100 per cent (or three of three).

Findings

Findings are presented by displaying a cultural profile for each of the six ICF core coaching competencies selected for this content analysis based on our application of Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Note, each ICF competency is aligned with a related competency cluster (see Table 4).

Competency and cultural dimension definitions: Level one and two analysis

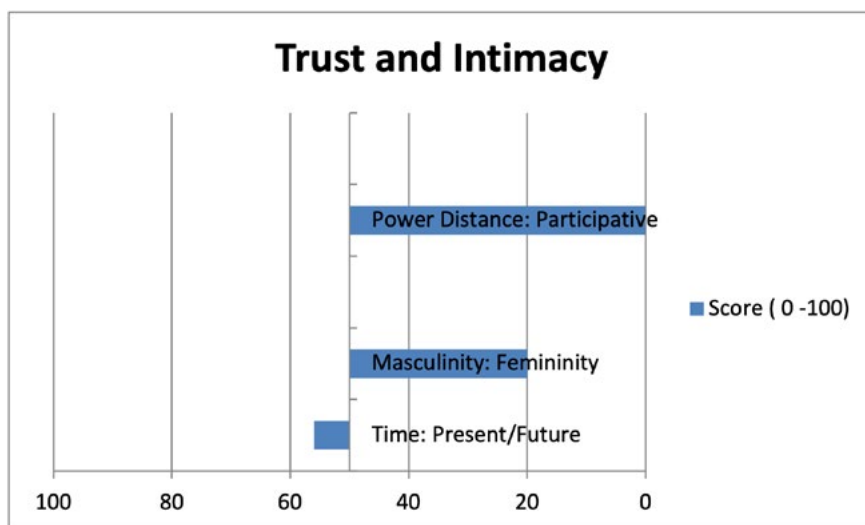
Appendix A revealed the following results of Rounds One and Two of Analyses. Specifically, findings indicate unanimous agreement that:

- **power distance likely affects all six selected ICF competencies** (i.e. each competency is sensitive to difference along the 'hierarchical' to 'participative' continuum);
- **masculinity likely affects five of the six selected ICF competencies** (i.e. all competencies – with the exception of 'trust and intimacy' – appear sensitive to difference along the 'achievement' to 'quality of life' or 'femininity' continuum);

- **uncertainty avoidance likely affects three of the six ICF competencies** – 'questioning,' 'direct communication' and 'awareness' (i.e. these three competencies appear sensitive to difference along the 'need for certainty' to 'tolerance of ambiguity' continuum);
- **individualism likely affects two of six selected ICF competencies** – 'direct communication' and 'awareness' (i.e., these two competencies appear sensitive to difference along the 'individualism' to 'collectivism' dimension); and
- **time likely affects two of six selected ICF competencies** – 'trust and intimacy' and 'questioning' (i.e. these two competencies appear sensitive to difference along the 'long term' to 'short term' dimension).

When looking across rows in the Appendix A matrix, all three authors unanimously agreed that four of five Hofstede dimensions do likely affect three of the ICF competencies ('questioning,' 'direct communication, and 'awareness'). Inter-rater agreement ranged from moderate (or 66 per cent agreement) to high (or 100 per cent agreement) for the 30 cells in the coding matrix. We assumed differences were due in part to lack of conceptual clarity of competency definitions and cultural dimensions of constructs. We expected higher levels of agreement during the next round because competency indicators would include specific behaviours.

Figure 1: ICF Competency #3 and Activated Cultural Dimensions.



Competency indicators and related cultural dimensions: Level Three and Four Analysis

Appendix B displays levels of agreement at the 'cultural description' level for each competency, during our first inter-rater discussion (i.e. analysis level 2 – 'dark green') and any modifications made during our second inter-rater discussion (i.e. analysis level 4 – 'light green'), in order to clearly document shifts in our thinking as we progressed through various levels of coding and analysis.

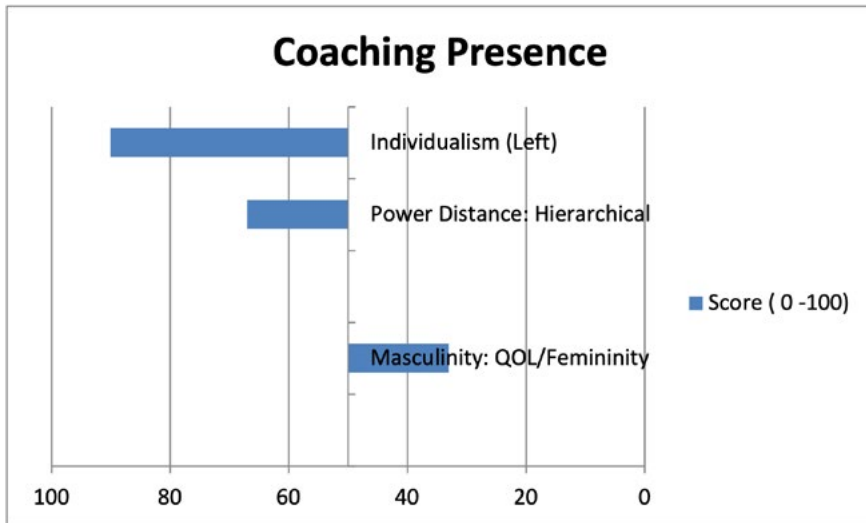
During our third and fourth rounds of analysis, we assessed, for each sub-competency indicator: (1) the likely influence of a cultural dimension on a given coaching competency using the summary definition; (2) whether that influence fell on the left or right sides of the cultural dimension's polar opposites continuum; or (3) whether that influence included dimensions on both sides of the continuum (middle); or (4) did not seem to apply at all (using a dash). The data in Appendix B show areas of absolute agree-

ment (highlighted in green in each cell), as well as variance among raters. Discussions in these rounds enabled us to visually depict connections between selected cultural dimensions and competencies using the following decision rules:

- limit the cultural composite for each competency to those cultural dimensions where there was unanimous agreement (i.e. highlighted in 'dark' or 'light' green at the top of the coding matrix for each competency);
- determine the directionality for each cultural dimension linked to each related competency indicator); and
- calculate the directionality of each cultural dimension for each competency based on the result of step 2. By so doing, we estimated a preference score for cultural dimensions for each competency – leaning to the left, right or middle of the continuum, by adapting the algorithm used to calculate CWQ results¹.

¹ For example, the 'position' for the masculinity dimension for 'trust and intimacy' is 20; i.e. two of the five indicators coded 'middle' or $2 \times 50 = 100$; + two of the five indicators coded 'right' or $3 \times 0 = 0$, $100/5 = 20$, where 'b' and 'f' were coded 'N/A' for this cultural dimension, so not included in the calculation. This is an expected result given that raters coded the directionality of this competency to the right at the description levels for both the competency and cultural dimension.

Figure 2: ICF Competency #4 and Activated Cultural Dimensions.



ICF #3: Creating Trust and Intimacy. See Figure 1. This composite cultural profile indicates that three of five dimensions ('Power Distance,' 'Masculinity' and 'Time') are activated by six indicators that make up this competency. The directionality of these three cultural factors suggests that coaches adhering to this competency when building and maintaining relationships with clients would have a tendency to:

- take a highly participative stance and treat the client as an equal (i.e. as reflected in the score of '0' based on all factors being coded to the right);
- place attention on the 'client's' expressed needs and wants, compared to goal achievement (i.e. a score of 25 suggests a moderate orientation toward femininity, vs a score of 50 that suggests balanced interaction between relationship and achievement);
- place attention on the 'client's' expressed needs and wants, compared to goal achievement (i.e. a score of 25 suggests a moderate orientation toward femininity, vs a score of 50 that suggests balanced interaction between relationship and achievement); and
- focus on the present and move toward the future (score of 56 indicates present

time orientation moving slightly in the direction in the future, given that 50 is the midpoint).

There was high consistency between the summary definition and supporting operational competency indicators for two of three cultural dimensions (i.e. 'power distance' and 'time'), and moderate consistency for 'masculinity.' The cultural profile raises questions as to how coaches might adjust their stance when interacting with clients with a different cultural orientation, along one or more of these dimensions.

For example, how might the coach need to flex the assumptions embedded in indicators for the competency of trust and intimacy with clients who hold strong masculinity cultural assumptions, where the basis for trust might emphasise task accomplishment vs the relationship (i.e. the coach demonstrating an ability to help the client achieve tactical goals vs personal connection)?

ICF #4: Coaching presence

See Figure 2. This composite cultural profile indicates three of five dimensions ('Individualism,' 'Power distance,' and 'Masculinity') are activated by seven indicators comprising coaching presence. The directionality of

these three cultural dimensions suggests that coaches adhering to this competency, when co-creating relationships with clients, should:

- a. be guided by coach's self-awareness and high predominant internal motivational processing (i.e. score of '90' indicates prominent individualistic orientation moving very slightly toward client's benefit, given that '50' is the midpoint);
- b. interact with the client in moderately hierarchical ways (i.e. as reflected by score of '67' where '50' would show consideration for both direction and equality); and
- c. place attention early in the interaction on the quality of relationship, rather than goal attainment (i.e. a score of '33' suggests moderate orientation toward femininity).

There was low consistency between summary definition and supporting operational competency indicators for one of three cultural dimensions (i.e. 'individualism') and consistency with 'power distance' and 'masculinity.' Previous research on presence as a relational competency (Maltbia et al., 2011) implies a capacity to access the client's complexity by being fully conscious in the moment of one's own reflexivity to multiple client dimensions. Bearing that in mind, how might the coach adjust to clients who hold strong collectivistic cultural assumptions, wherein the basis for presence might emphasise 'being here for the benefit of the 'group' and not oneself as client'?

ICF #5: Active listening

See Figure 3. This composite cultural profile indicates three of five dimensions ('Power distance,' 'Masculinity,' and 'Time') are activated by eight indicators comprising this competency. Directionality of these cultural dimensions suggests that coaches adhering to this competency, when striving to communicate effectively with clients, would likely:

- a. be highly interactive in attending to client messages, striving to engage them

as equal partners (reflected in score of '14');

- b. place emphasis on the meaning of what is, or is not, said by the client, compared to emphasising goal attainment (i.e. score of '36' suggests moderate orientation toward femininity); and
- c. stay in the present moment attending to client's short term aims (i.e. score of '38' indicates short-term orientation vs long-term one).

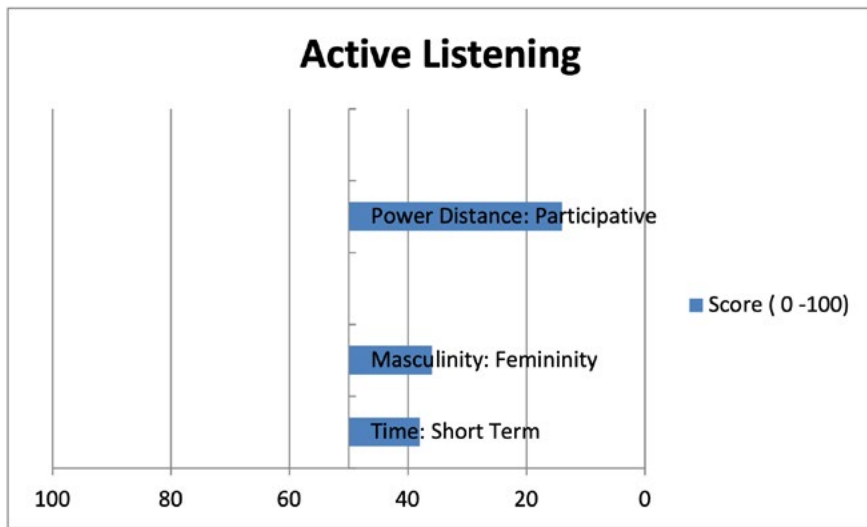
There was high consistency between the summary definition and supporting operational competency indicators for one of the three cultural dimensions (i.e. 'power distance'), with moderate consistency for 'masculinity' and 'time.' Interactive listening, as a context-dependent competence in service of communicating effectively with clients (Maltbia et al., 2010), raises questions as to how the coach might adjust his/her stance when attending to clients with a different cultural orientation along one or more of these dimensions. For instance, how might the coach modify his/her approach when hearing a client's concerns, whose strong respect for authority combined with high task orientation might mean the client wants the coach to give him/her directions on goals and task accomplishment vs expecting the client to determine direction himself with coach support?

ICF #6: Powerful questioning

See Figure 4. The composite cultural profile for questioning indicates all five cultural dimensions are activated by four indicators comprising this competency. Directionality suggests that coaches enacting this competency, when communicating effectively with clients, would have a tendency to:

- a. focus on their inner awareness to inform questioning that helps understand clients, and their situation, for maximum benefit of clients and coaching relationships (i.e. score of '50' suggests balance between two extremes of individualism-collectivism continuum);
- b. be highly interactive with emphasis on

Figure 3: ICF Competency #5 and Activated Cultural Dimensions.



- inquiry (i.e. reflected in score of '0' based on all factors being coded to the right);
- display comfort in working with ambiguity, possibility thinking, and learning from/with the client (i.e. score of '25' shows moderate level of tolerance for ambiguity vs need for certainty);
 - attend to both quality of space created through communication and goal attainment (i.e. score of '50' suggests balanced orientation between relational and accomplishment aspects of interaction); and
 - inquiry into present, near term and long-term as basis for comprehensive communication (i.e. score '50' highlights the midpoint).

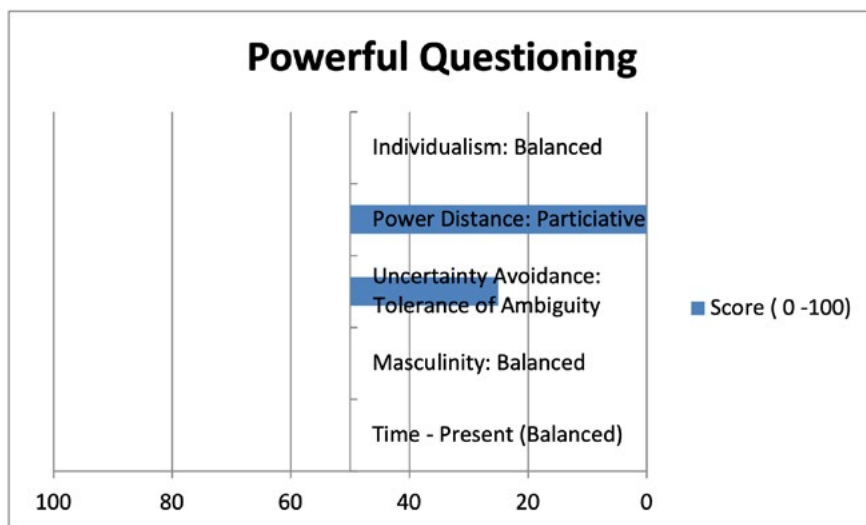
There was high consistency between the summary definition and supporting operational competency indicators in four of five cultural dimensions and moderate consistency for 'uncertainty avoidance.' Considering this profile and research positioning questioning as a conversational competency, along with listening (Maltbia et al., 2010), queries arise about how the coach might flex his/her communicative stance with clients who differ in cultural assumptions. For instance, how might the coach

adapt when interacting with clients high in 'power distance' and 'uncertainty avoidance' who consider coaching useful when coaches provide 'answers' and clear direction vs asking questions that may evoke the client's inner reflection and discovery?

ICF #7: Direct communication

See Figure 5. Communication involves people expressing themselves, which in cultural terms can range from direct communication (i.e. preference for using precise, explicit language to state needs, or wants – which aligns with 'low context,' i.e. the meaning is in the 'message'); to indirect communication (i.e. circular approach, emphasising protection of public honor – aligns with 'high context' – meaning resides 'outside' of the verbal message and is linked to the situation, including prior experience or reputation). It seems important that the word 'direct' characterises preferred 'communication' in defining this competency. The composite cultural profile indicates all five indicators comprising this competency are activated, i.e. above 80 and far to left of 50 (midpoint, indicating balanced cultural orientation). Collectively, direct communication is defined by strong individualistic behavioral patterns, high regard for authority, emphasis

Figure 4: ICF Competency #6 and Activated Cultural Dimensions.



on predictability, and outcome-focus. Directionality suggests that coaches enacting this competency:

- use clear, concise and direct language when requesting and providing feedback;
- 'reframe' the essence of what clients experience to broaden perspective;
- confidently state coaching objectives, session agenda, and/or intent of suggested approaches, with focus on client as individual (vs the group); and
- increase clarity by focusing on outcomes and success indicators.

The profile's directionality implies that, if the coach establishes a personal connection, as reflected in the 'right' orientation of the competency trust and intimacy, he/she will have effectively 'earned-the-right' for direct communication. It is less clear how coaches might adapt when interacting with clients with strong preferences for indirect modes of communication – Should he/she use discretion in voicing goals vs stating them explicitly; or strive to understand self in context of others, tradition, and obligation? Indicators for this competency show alignment of only one ('e' –use of 'metaphor' and 'analogy') with indirect forms of communication.

ICF #8: *Creating awareness*

See Figure 6. The composite cultural profile indicates four of five dimensions (all except 'Time') are activated by nine indicators comprising this competency. Directionality suggests that coaches, enacting this competency in service of facilitating learning and results with clients, would be inclined to:

- help clients discover interrelated factors that affect identity and related behavior (i.e. score of '33' reflects moderate collectivistic orientation);
- facilitate client learning through participative stance that treats client as equal (i.e. reflected in score of '21' on the right-side of power distance continuum); and
- maintain balance between complexity/ambiguity and certainty-seeking while evaluating multiple sources of information (i.e. score of '56' shows slight orientation toward need for certainty); and
- balance attention between quality of learning space created with client and results fulfillment (i.e. score of '50' suggests balanced orientation between relational and achievement aspects of interaction).

Figure 5: ICF Competency #7 and Activated Cultural Dimensions.

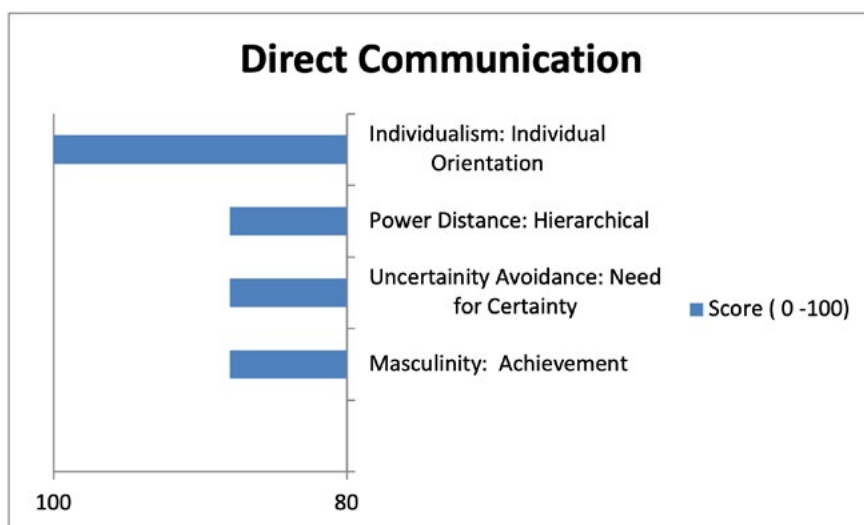
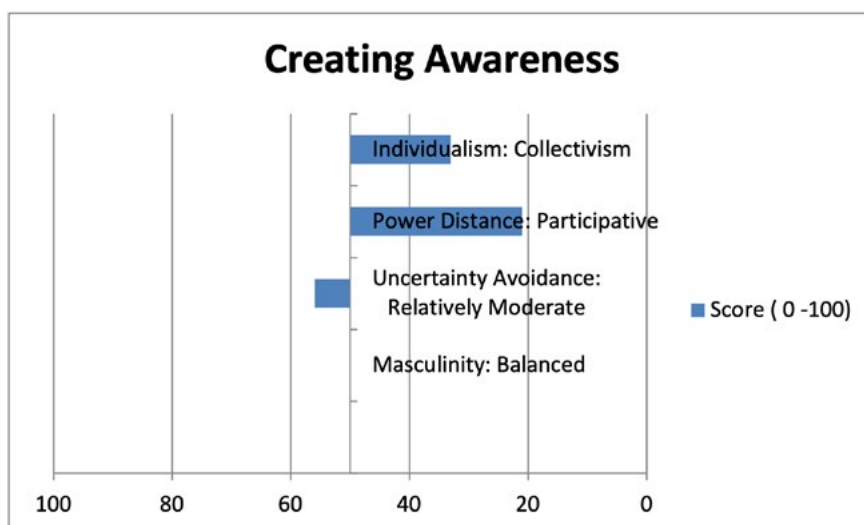


Figure 6: ICF Competency #8 and Activated Cultural Dimensions.



There was moderate-high consistency between the summary definition and supporting operational competency indicators in one of five cultural dimensions (i.e. 'uncertainty avoidance'); and lower consistency for other three cultural dimensions (i.e. 'individualism,' 'power distance,' and 'masculinity'). How might this composite score affect adjustment of the coach's cultural orientation *vis-à-vis* this competency? For instance, how might limited self-social aware-

ness influence the coach's scope of awareness or how he/she interprets what clients need or want to achieve agreed-upon results?

Discussion

We conclude by summarising observations and related implications. First, consistent with competency modeling research, our results show inter-rater reliability was highest where both competency definitions and cultural descriptions were conceptually clear –

Figure 7: Composite Profile: ICF Competencies and Hofstede's Five Cultural Dimensions.

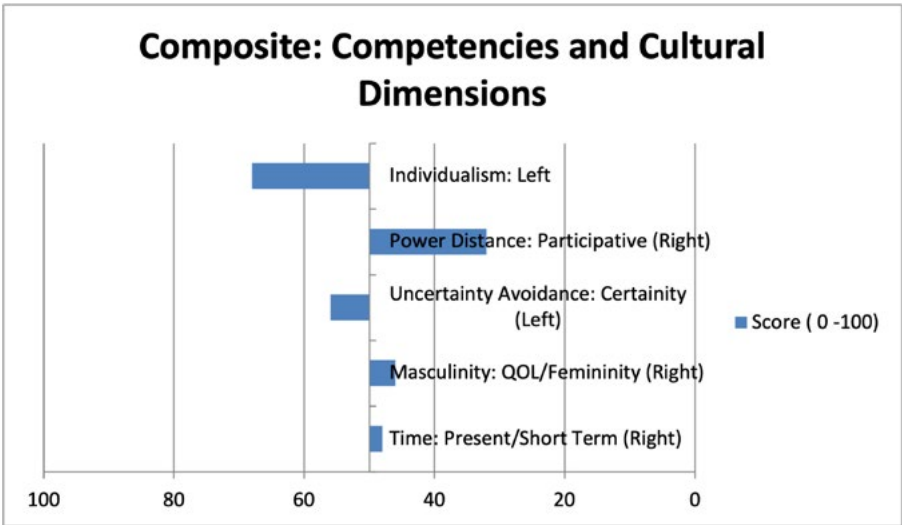


Table 5: Cultural Dimension and ICF Competencies.

Sub-dimension	ICF Competencies
Moderate preference for individualism	Coaching presence, questioning, direct communication & creating awareness
Moderate participative orientation	Trust and intimacy, coaching presence, active listening, powerful questioning, direct communication, creating awareness
Low need for certainty	Powerful questioning, direct communication, creating awareness
Low femininity orientation	Trust and intimacy, coaching presence, active listening, powerful questioning, direct communication, creating awareness
Low short-term preference	Trust and intimacy, active listening, power questioning

implying that a framework for understanding cultural dynamics is foundational for developing coach cultural competence. Adapting coaching competency models (and related credentialing processes) for increased cultural sensitivity requires meeting rigorous psychometric properties of validity (i.e. construct, discriminant, and criterion-related) and reliability – both contribute conceptual clarity and utility (i.e. credibility).

Figure 7 – the composite cultural profile of six ICF competencies included in this analysis – is an artifact of collective cultural assumptions embedded in the ICF competency model. Table 5 lists specific competencies that influenced overall directionality of each cultural sub-dimension. Our analysis

shows that directionality shifts depending on behavioral indicators associated with each competency – suggesting the application of cultural competence in coaching is both dynamic and complex. Membership in multiple identity groups means several layers of mental programming, and correspondingly different levels of culture (e.g. national, regional, ethnic and/or religious, gender, generational, social class, profession), are activated simultaneously.

Implications include:

- coaches might complete the CWQ (or related measure) to increase awareness of cultural programming and consider implications for applying ICF competencies to explicitly attend to cultural

- dynamics during coaching engagements;
- the ICF could commission research with a global sample to better understand interplay between modes of cultural programming and coaching competencies; and
- researchers could: (1) replicate this study; and (2) conduct additional studies (using CWQ and interview data) with global samples of matched-coach-client-pairs to extend preliminary findings.

Conclusions

Finally, while this study's cultural profiles may not be exact, Hofstede's cultural dimensions are likely embedded in both definitions and indicators of the six ICF competencies – which raises questions about whether cultural competence should be separately added or embedded into existing competencies. We recommend:

- embedding cultural competence in existing competencies given: (a) cultural assumptions already appear in existing models; (b) doing so could enhance cultural sensitivity by making existing competencies less ethnocentrically grounded and more ethno-relatively oriented; (c) this approach requires reexamining competencies and ensuring related indicators reflect the full range of each cultural dimension;
- identifying clear foundational capabilities needed to develop cultural competence and disseminating guidelines to coach training/education providers to: (a) assess cultural self-awareness and capability; (b) establish cultural knowl-

edge base; (c) build skills to communicate, listen and coach cross-culturally.

This last set of recommendations requires cultural courage. Doing so activates 'cultural guards,' who have created, and/or benefit from, existing competency model and credentialing systems. Yet – given the relevance of developing coach cultural competence for today's global diversity – we contend it is less a question of 'if,' but rather 'when and how.'

We live in an increasingly global world, and also one in which there is greater awareness, sensitivity and social equity orientation in face of exploitation, racism and other forms of inhumane treatment of other people. Coaching is a profession that is built on respect for the people we coach and a value of supporting their empowerment and growth. Cultural sensitivity and deep respect for one another's cultures is key to those aims and values.

Authors

Leticia P. Mosteo
ESADE Business School

Terrence E. Maltbia
Columbia University

Victoria J. Marsick
Columbia University

Correspondence

Leticia P. Mosteo
Leticia@Mosteo.com

References

- Bennett, M. (2004). Becoming inter-culturally competent. In J. Wurzel's (Ed.), *Toward multiculturalism: A reader in multicultural education* (pp.62–77). Newton, MA: Intercultural Resource Corporation.
- Campion, M.A., Fink, A.A., Ruggeberg, B.J. et al. (2011). Doing competencies well: Best practices in competency modeling. *Personnel Psychology*, 64, 225–262.
- Cardy, R.L. & Selvarajan, T.T. (2006). Competencies: Alternative frameworks for competitive advantage. *Business Horizons*, 49, 235–245.
- Drake, D.B. (2008). Finding our way home: Coaching's search for identity in a new era. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice* 1(1), 15–26.
- Earley, C.P. & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

- Hall, D.T., Otazo, K.L. & Hollenbeck, G.P. (1999). Behind closed doors: What really happens in executive coaching. *Organizational Dynamics*, 27(3), 39–53.
- Hampden-Turner, C. & Trompenaars, F. (2000). *Building cross-cultural competence: How to create wealth from conflicting values?* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Harrison, R. (1972). Understanding your organizational character. *Harvard Business Review*, 3, 119–128.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Cultures consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. & Hofstede G.J. (2005). Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind. *Intercultural Cooperation and its Importance for Survival*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kilburg, R.R. (1996). Toward a conceptual understanding and definition of executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal Practice and Research* 48(2), 134–144.
- Krippendorff, K. (2013). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*, (3rd edn). Sage Publications.
- Lai, Yi-Ling, L. & Passmore, J. (2019). Coaching psychology: Exploring definitions and research contribution to practice? *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 14(2), 69–83.
- Maltbia, T.E., Ghosh, R. & Marsick, V.J. (2011). Trust and presence as executive coaching competencies. In K.M. Dirani & J. Wang (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Academy of Human Resource Development Conference*. Schaumburg, IL: Cutting-edge Award.
- Maltbia, T.E., Marsick, V.R. & Ghosh, R. (2014). Executive and organizational coaching: A review of insights drawn from literature to inform practice. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 16(2), 161–183.
- Maltbia, T.E. & Prior, D.M. (2012). Cultural competence in leadership coaching: What coaches need to know? *Choice*, 9(3), 22–24.
- Miles, M.B. & Huberman, M.A. (1994). *An expanded sourcebook: Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Passmore, J. & Illery-Travis, A. (2011). A critical review of executive coaching research: A decade of progress and what's to come. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice* 4(2), 70–88.
- Plaister-Ten, J. (2009). Towards greater cultural understanding in coaching. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 3, 64–81.
- Schein, E.H. (1985). *Organizational culture and leadership, A dynamic view*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sime, C. & Jacob, Y. (2018). Crossing the line? A qualitative exploration of ICF master certified: Coaches' perception of roles, borders and boundaries. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 13(2), 46–61.
- Singh Chouhan, V. & Srivastava, S. (2014). Understanding competencies and competency modeling: A literature survey. *Journal of Business and Management*, 16, 14–22.
- Spencer, L.M. & Spencer, S.M. (1993). *Competence at work: Models for superior performance*. New York: John Wiley.
- Sperry, L. (2008). Executive coaching: An intervention, role function, or profession? *Consulting Psychology Journal Practice and Research* 60(1), 33–37.
- Taras, V., Kirkman, B.L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of Culture's consequences: a three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 405–439.
- Torraco, R. J. (2005). Writing Integrative Literature Reviews: Guidelines and Examples. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4, 356–367.
- WanVeer, L., & Ruthman, S. (2008). *The 2008 executive coaching fee survey: An analysis of fee structures used by executive coaches*. New York: The Conference Board.

Appendix A.

ICF Core Coaching Competency Definitions and Definitions of Hofstede's 5 Cultural Dimensions Coding Matrix

The results from our first round of coding are presented in the table below. During this first round of coding, the three evaluators independently compared the definition of each of the six selected ICF core competencies identified for this analysis, with the definitions of each of Hofstede's 5 cultural dimensions. For the six competencies, each author: (1) reviewed the content from the two sources to first determine if there was a degree of alignment between the competency definition and each cultural dimension; and (2) recorded their 'judgment' in a matrix similar to the table below, then emailed the completed matrix to each

other. Then they engaged in an inter-rater reliability discussion to determine the level of agreement resulting from dependently coding the two constructs at the definitional level of analysis. The result below show the level of agreement ranged from 66 percent (or two of three) to 100 percent (or three of three).

Hofstede's five cultural dimension are positioned along a continuum with the label of for each dimension on the left of the scale (or 100) and its opposite on the right end of the scale (or 0); with 50 representing the middle of the continuum. For example 100 on the Individualism scale would suggest a high preference for that orientation and a low preference for its opposite collectivism; whereas 50 on that same continuum would suggest a moderate preference for both.

ICF Core Competencies & Hofstede's 5 Cultural Dimensions Matrix	Individualism (Individualism – Left 100 vs collectivism – Right 0)	Power distance (Hierarchical – Left 100 vs participative – Right 0)	Uncertainty Avoidance (i.e. Need for Certainty – Left 100 vs Tolerance of Ambiguity – Right 0)	Masculinity (i.e. Achievement or Masculinity – Left 100 vs Quality of Life or Femininity – Right 0)	Time Orientation (i.e. Long term – Left 100 vs Short term – Right 0)
ICF #3 Trust & Intimacy	66	100	66	66	100
ICF #4 Coaching Presence	66	100	66	100	66
ICF #5 Active Listening	66	100	66	100	66
ICF #6 Powerful Questioning	66	100	100	100	100
ICF #7 Direct Communication	100	100	100	100	-
ICF #8 Creating Awareness	100	100	100	100	-

Appendix B.

ICF Core Coaching Competencies and Hofstede's 5 Cultural Dimensions Coding Matrix

The results from two additional rounds of coding and analysis are presented on the following pages. Here two of the three authors used the coding matrix on the following pages to independently document their assessment of levels of alignment between indicators for each ICF competency and each of Hofstede's 5 cultural dimensions. For this round of coding, each rater used the indicators provided for the two sub-dimensions related to Hofstede's 5 cultural dimensions (found in the technical manual for a measure of Hofstede's cultural dimensions), resulting in a more refined level of coding and analysis. In each cell of the matrix, the raters noted their observations to support the judgment made during this round of independent coding.

The results from their independent coding were combined into a single matrix to inform the second inter-rater reliability discussion. This discussion was facilitated by the third author, the most experienced researcher of the three to help guide the interpretation of

results emerging from this second round of analysis work. During this conversion, areas of absolute agreement were discussed and confirmed first. Note each rater's results were colour coded and the initial level of agreement at the 'description' level is indicated by the 'dark green shading,' yet adjustments to the level of agreement that resulted from the facilitated discussion is indicated by the 'lighter green shading.' Realising a higher level of conceptual clarity at the description level for each dimension and related coaching competency provided a stronger foundation for reaching informed agreement at the indicator level of each ICF competency.

The data in the following tables reflect: (a) the level of agreement between the two raters during this analysis task; and (b) the level of agreement resulting from the facilitated inter-rater reliability discussion, including interpretative input from the senior researcher. The table for each of the select ICF competencies also 'high-light' interpretative data used for select cultural dimensions more strongly 'activated' by various indicators related to each of the ICF competencies included in this analysis. These data matrixes informed the analysis presented in the 'finding' section of the paper.

*Mosteo: Red

*Maltbia: Blue

*Areas of Agreement: GREEN

*100% Agreement 1st round

*100% Agreement 2nd round

ICF Core Competencies & Hofstede's 5 Cultural Dimensions Matrix	Individualism (Individualism – Left Right 0) (66% agreement 1st round)	Power distance (Hierarchical – Left Right 0) 100% Inter-rater Reliability (1st round) High consistency between Definitional Level (1st unit of analysis) and Operational Level of Description (Indicators): PARTICIPATIVE ORIENTATION PRIVILEGED	Uncertainty Avoidance (i.e. Need for Certainty – Left 100 vs Tolerance of Ambiguity – Right 0) (66% agreement 1st round)	Masculinity (i.e. Achievement or Masculinity – Left 100 vs Quality of Life or Femininity – Right 0) 66% (1st round) / 100% Inter-rater Reliability (2nd round) Moderate Consistency between Definitional Level (1st unit of analysis) and Operational Level of Description (Indicators): FEMININITY ORIENTATION PRIVILEGED	Time Orientation (i.e. Long term – Left 100 vs Short term – Right 0) 100% Inter-rater Reliability (1st round) High consistency between Definitional Level (1st unit of analysis) and Operational Level of Description (Indicators): LONG-SHORT TERM ORIENTATION BALANCED
ICF #3 Trust & Intimacy Ability to create a safe, supportive environment that produces ongoing mutual respect and trust	RIGHT	RIGHT	Middle to Left Middle	RIGHT	MIDDLE
a. Shows genuine concern for the client's welfare and future	Right –	RIGHT	Left Middle to Right	RIGHT	MIDDLE-LEFT

b. Continuously demonstrates personal integrity, honesty and sincerity	Left –	RIGHT	Left –	–	MIDDLE
c. Establishes clear agreements and keeps promises	Right –	RIGHT	Left –	MIDDLE	MIDDLE
d. Demonstrates respect for client's perceptions, learning style, personal being	Right Left	RIGHT	Right –	RIGHT	–
e. Provides ongoing support for and champions new behaviors and actions, including those involving risk taking and fear of failure	Right –	RIGHT	RIGHT	MIDDLE	MIDDLE
f. Asks permission to coach client in sensitive, new areas	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	–

Appendix C

ICF Core Coaching Competencies and Hofstede's 5 Cultural Dimensions Coding – Composite Matrix

ICF Core Competencies & Hofstede's 5 Cultural Dimensions Matrix	Individualism (Individualism – Left 100 vs collectivism – Right 0)	Power distance (Hierarchical – Left 100 vs participative – Right 0)	Uncertainty Avoidance (i.e. Need for Certainty – Left 100 vs Tolerance of Ambiguity – Right 0)	Masculinity (i.e. Achievement or Masculinity – Left 100 vs Quality of Life or Femininity – Right 0)	Time Orientation (i.e. Long term – Left 100 vs Short term – Right 0)
ICF #3 Trust & Intimacy Ability to create a safe, supportive environment that produces ongoing mutual respect and trust	RIGHT	RIGHT	Middle to Left Middle	RIGHT	MIDDLE
Sub-dimension Data/Scaling	-	0 (Very High Participative)	-	20 (Moderate QOL)	56 (Present/Future)
ICF #4 Coaching Presence Ability to be fully conscious and create spontaneous relationship with the client, employing a style that is open, flexible and confident	MIDDLE	RIGHT	Middle to Right Middle	RIGHT	Middle to Right Middle
Sub-dimension Data/Scaling	90 (High Individualism)	67 (Moderate Hierarchical)	-	33 (Moderate QOL)	-
ICF #5 Active Listening Ability to focus completely on what the client is saying and is not saying, to understand the meaning of what is said in the context of the client's desires, and to support client self-expression	MIDDLE	RIGHT	Right Middle-Right	RIGHT	RIGHT

Sub-dimension Data/Scaling	–	14 (High Participative)	–	36 (Moderate QOL)	38 (Short Term)
ICF #6 Powerful Questioning Ability to ask questions that reveal the information needed for maximum benefit to the coaching relationship and the client	MIDDLE	RIGHT	MIDDLE	MIDDLE	MIDDLE
Sub-dimension Data/Scaling	50 (Ind./Collect.)	0 (Very High Participative)	25 (Moderate TOA)	50 (Achievement/QOL)	50 (Past/Present/F)
ICF #7 Direct Communication Ability to communicate effectively during coaching sessions, and to use	LEFT	LEFT	LEFT	LEFT	–
Sub-dimension Data/Scaling	100 (Very High Ind.)	88 (Highly Hierarchical)	88 (High Need 4 Certainty)	88 (High Need Ach.)	–
ICF #8 Creating Awareness Ability to integrate and accurately evaluate multiple sources of information, and to make interpretations that help the client to gain aware-ness and thereby achieve agreed-upon results	MIDDLE	RIGHT	MIDDLE	LEFT	–
Sub-dimension Data/Scaling	33 (Moderate Coll.)	21 (Moderate Participative)	56 (Need 4 Certainty)	50 (Achievement/QOL)	–
Subtotal/Number of Activations	273/4	190/6	169/3	277/6	144/3
Composite Score/Directionality	68 (Mod. Individualism)	32 (Moderate Participative)	56 (Need 4 Certainty)	46 (Bal./QOL)	48 (Present/ST)

Coaching vulnerable youths for positive change: A coaching relationship model for promoting adolescent interpersonal relationships with trusted adults

Rachid Choaibi & Tim Lomas

Objective: Despite the growing research in Coaching Psychology, there is little literature on the psychology of coaching adolescents within community settings. This study aimed to explore youth work practitioner experiences to gain insights into how vulnerable adolescents are supported in their emotional wellbeing within the domain of Coaching Psychology.

Methods: The study explored, through semi-structured interviews with 13 qualified youth practitioners how emotional wellbeing may be promoted in adolescents within existing positive development and Coaching Psychology theoretical frameworks.

Results: The findings, using Grounded Theory methods presents a Holding-Containing-Attunement Coaching Model that conceptualises the coaching relationship processes for promoting an authentic, communicative environment to enhance adolescent interpersonal relationships with trusted adults. The emotions-focused model informs a coaching relationship framework based on the environment provided by participants (holding), their way of being (containing) and perceived emotions-related outcomes (attunement).

Discussion: The Model forms the basis of a framework for promoting emotional wellbeing in adolescents and an emerging Emotional Attunement theory on the coaching relationship that can be further researched and used to coach positive adolescent development.

Conclusions: The findings of this study go some way to addressing the gap in current adolescent coaching research, and provides valuable insights into the understudied area of Coaching Psychology within community settings. The Holding-Containing-Attunement Model and Emotional Attunement theory makes a significant contribution to the discussion on the need for a dedicated theory on the coaching relationship.

Keywords: emotional wellbeing; adolescence; Coaching Psychology; positive youth development; Grounded Theory; Emotional Attunement theory.

Introduction

IT IS RECOGNISED that socially competent adolescents who can understand and regulate their emotions have improved mental health, enhanced life chances and achieve higher academic success (Weare & Gray, 2003) due to Emotional Wellbeing positively impacting on adolescent motivation, self-esteem and behaviour (Coughlan, 2010). This study explores how youth work practitioners in community settings promote emotional wellbeing in adolescents, and examines their approaches

and experiences in relation to researched emotional wellbeing and coaching theoretical frameworks. The study identifies approaches used by qualified youth workers to encourage emotional wellbeing; including emotional, behavioural, social and cognitive attributes (DCSF, 2009). In doing so, this study asks the two questions; what are the experiences and realities of youth work practitioners in promoting emotional wellbeing. Secondly, how do their delivery models relate to existing coaching psychological theories.

The study rests on the premise that supportive adults can empower young people to build a range of internal and external socio-emotional regulatory skills that promote prosocial behaviour, and emotional and psychological wellbeing (Rose et al., 2015). Bowers and colleagues (2012) found that non-parental adults, such as youth work practitioners are influential contributors in the development of positive traits and behaviours in adolescents. Bandura's (1997) study showed that developmental antecedents of self-efficacy; a learned trait defined as 'people's beliefs in their capabilities to produce desired effects by their own actions' (p.vii), include verbal persuasion by influential, trusted and expert other people. Lopez et al. (2019) claim that self-efficacy highlights the important role powerful figures such as parents and teachers, and arguably youth work practitioners can have on adolescent personal development and emotional wellbeing. There is evidence that high self-efficacy in such powerful figures can endorse similar levels of the trait in young people. Yet there are very few studies that research promoting self-efficacy and its role in promoting emotional wellbeing in adolescents beyond parents and teachers.

Whilst there is existing literature on validated youth work programmes, mostly in schools with middle class, white adolescents, there is scarce research on the role and experiences of youth work practitioners working with more vulnerable youth from lower socio-economic and minority ethnic backgrounds within community settings. No grounded theory studies were found that explore the experiences of youth workers to gain insights into their realities in the domain of Coaching Psychology and emotional wellbeing. This research study uses existing psychological theoretical frameworks to define and explore participants' views on emotional wellbeing, although there were inevitably orientations to other related concepts of psychological and social wellbeing.

Positive youth development

Most psychology research on adolescence focuses on the problems of youth and how they can be fixed (Lerner et al., 2013), although more recent research in North America and Australia (Lerner et al., 2013) has focused on positive youth development in schools (Rashid et al., 2018). Positive youth development advocates demonstrate that the focus on addressing problems young people face has overshadowed attempts to understand and promote positive growth (Lerner et al., 2013). Positive youth developmentalists have used resilience and Positive Psychology findings to create youth programmes and activities that support the development of adolescents by helping them utilise their personal strengths and environmental assets (Lopez et al., 2019). Positive Psychology and Coaching Psychology in their applied form both draw on a shared body of theories and practice in relation to wellbeing and human flourishing, despite holding distinctive features (Lomas, 2020). Positive youth development adopts a youth work approach that views adolescents as having the potential to flourish through systematic change, and that their trajectories are not fixed (Lerner et al., 2013). Positive youth scholars have looked at the positive traits and outcomes of young people and adolescents and studied the naturally occurring personal and environmental resources that support young people to cope and overcome life's challenges (Lopez et al., 2019). There has been a lack, however, of studies exploring positive youth work in different social identity circles despite this being of high significance (Lopez et al., 2019). It is conceivable that different populations and communities contain and provide different developmental assets. Sellers et al. (2006) found that strong ethnic identity in young people was related to positive characteristics such as higher self-esteem.

The Penn Resiliency Programme prepares adolescents to handle the daily stressors and challenges of life by fostering youth's individual strengths in resilience related areas such as

emotional competence, self-control, problem solving, social competence, self-efficacy, and realistic optimism (Reivich & Shatt'e, 2002). The programme has been evaluated in nine studies when taught by teachers, counselors and clinicians (Parks & Schueller, 2014), but not community-based youth work practitioners. The Positive Psychology Programme focuses on helping adolescents 'develop an increased capacity for positive emotions, build close relationships, and engage in meaningful activities' (Parks & Schueller, 2014, p.312). Specific approaches and programmes such as those described above are valuable in the emotional wellbeing domain, but Bundick (2011) found that even more general extra-curricular activities typical of generic youth work in community settings can promote the emotional wellbeing of young people. Bundick demonstrated that community leadership activities and volunteering opportunities promoted a sense of purpose in life and greater life satisfaction.

The review of existing literature highlighted a lack of research on the roles and experiences of youth work practitioners in the field of promoting emotional wellbeing, particularly in informal, community settings. The present study therefore addressed this research gap by investigating approaches and experiences of youth practitioners, and the impact they may have on the emotional wellbeing of adolescents. It investigates whether youth workers identify with emotional wellbeing constructs defined below, and what approaches are used, regardless if the participants consciously promote it under a specific theoretical model or not.

Emotional wellbeing and coaching theoretical frameworks

Although there is no single agreed upon definition of emotional wellbeing, it is closely linked to social wellbeing, and broadly refers to the way one feels and thinks about themselves and others. emotional wellbeing is a multi-layered concept that involves individual and social competencies. How indi-

viduals report on overall life satisfaction and happiness is often used for measuring emotional wellbeing (Freiler, 2008; Jeba & Premraj, 2017; Sabatier et al., 2017). Due to the multifaceted developmental stages of children and adolescence, the way in which their emotional wellbeing is portrayed in their feelings, thoughts, and behaviours is significant but differs across the ages, however no single measure of emotional wellbeing can be accurately used for all adolescents (Jeba & Premraj, 2017). psychological wellbeing is linked to emotional wellbeing. Ryff (1989) defined objective approaches to understanding psychological wellbeing, providing a framework for conceptualising positive functioning. Ryff (1989) includes six components of positive functioning that form her model of psychological wellbeing: self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, autonomy, and positive relationships with others. Together with theories of subjective wellbeing; individuals' self-appraisal of emotional wellbeing and happiness, objective measures of psychological wellbeing provide a more complete picture of mental health (Keyes, 2009).

The theories of emotional intelligence and emotional resilience are closely linked to the promotion of emotional competence and emotional wellbeing, and underline many interventions used to promote adolescent emotional wellbeing in schools and community settings (Sabatier et al., 2017). Concepts such as emotional intelligence, emotional literacy, emotional resilience and emotional regulation are today commonly used, not only by clinical professionals but by youth work practitioners in youth centres and community settings (Sabatier et al., 2017). Emotional competence is conceptualised as the social skill to recognise, interpret and respond positively to one's own emotions and others' (Sabatier et al., 2017). Emotional intelligence is the self-perceived ability to assess and control emotions in one's self and others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotional resilience refers to the aptitude to cope with

adversity and to bounce back to normal functioning (Catalano et al., 2002), and can be promoted through emotional support. (Sabatier et al., 2017).

It is this emotional support and protection of adolescence that this research study explores by investigating the experiences of youth work practitioners. Emotional resilience research provides youth work practitioners with what might help adolescents cope with life challenges, but it does not provide an exact method for the operation of resilience (Luthar et al., 2000). Fostering resilience within youth work may be about promoting good adaptation (Lopez et al., 2019), however although researchers agree external adaptation; meeting the social, cultural and educational needs of young people is a defining factor in resilience, academics disagree whether internal adaptation; positive psychological wellbeing is also necessary. This raises the important question of whether bouncing back is inevitably linked to emotional adaptation (Lopez et al., 2019), and whether youth work practitioners can promote emotional toughness to prepare youths for challenges in the absence of adversity. Possibly the only universal truth about resilience is that a caring adult, such as a youth worker, coach or mentor can support a young person adapt to adulthood and society (Lopez et al., 2019). Of relevance to this study is Masten and colleagues' (2009) list of protective factors for psychosocial resilience in youth, in which they suggest participation in prosocial organisations, such as youth centres, is an important factor in helping youths build emotional competencies.

Coaching adolescents

Although non-adult coaching literature mainly focuses on raising educational attainment in schools, two studies (Campbell & Gardner, 2005; Green et al., 2007), albeit with small sample sizes, have demonstrated that coaching can contribute to adolescents developing coping skills and mental resilience, as well as the specific concepts of

hardiness and hope. Importantly, Passmore and Brown (2009) in their multi-school site longitudinal study suggest that coaching, even when working on educational performance can provide longer term benefits for adolescent personal development by equipping them with coping skills needed to manage times of stress through building resilience and hope, which in turn protects them during their transition to adult life and their eventual self-identity as an adult. Relevant to the present study of vulnerable youths in community settings, their paper further proposes that coaching young people, if targeted, can be influential in addressing inequality and reducing social disadvantage (Passmore & Brown, 2009).

Emotion Coaching, based on empathy and guidance is a relational and skills-based approach clinically observed to promote young people's emotional self-regulation and social skills (Rose et al., 2015). Emotion coaching addresses emotional empathy, which involves recognising, classifying and validating an adolescent's emotions, not behaviour, so to promote awareness of emotions (Rose et al., 2015). The emotion coaching approach encourages coaches to accept adolescent internal emotional states, therefore creating a context of responsiveness and security that supports young people to engage with positive solutions (Rose et al., 2015). Particularly relevant to youth work practitioners is the claim that emotion coaching provides professionals with a relational model to support their work and promotes empathic ways to manage behaviour and build resilience and confidence. The narrative provided by emotion coaching creates a communicative setting for adolescent emotional experiences to be clearly and meaningfully processed within an interpersonal adult-child dyad (Gottman et al., 1997) emotion coaching, as is generic youth work, is built on the premise that learning and teaching are relational interactions and positive relationships play a major role in promoting happiness (Rose et al., 2015).

Methods

Table A: Participant demographics.

Participants				
Gender	Male: 10 (76.9%)	Female 3 (23.1%)		
Age	25–34yrs: 10 (76.9%)	35–44yrs: 3 (23.1%)		
Ethnicity	Caucasian: 3 (23.1%)	Black & Ethnic Minority: 10 (76.9%)		
Qualifications	PhD: 1 (7.7%)	Masters: 2 (15.4%)	Postgraduate Diplomas: 2 (15.4%)	NVQ level 2/3: 8 (61.5%)

Design

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 13 community-based youth practitioners with a UK National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) Level 2 Award in Youth Work Practice or above. Participants were recruited via emails sent to London local authority youth service departments and invitation messages using the LinkedIn professional networking site. A Grounded Theory strategy of seeking data, describing events, answering fundamental questions about experiences, and developing theoretical categories to understand them was used. Data was analysed using Grounded Theory techniques; interviews were transcribed for substantive coding and theoretical coding purposes, and conceptual memoing used between data analysis and collection. Data analysis examined whether theoretical codes and connected concepts yielded hypotheses that explain the relationship between youth practitioners and emotional wellbeing.

Participants

A purposive sample of 13 qualified youth practitioners was recruited. Participants had at least an NVQ Level 2 youth work qualification and worked in community settings with adolescents they viewed as being vulnerable or at risk, based on the pre-interview questionnaire. An NVQ Level 2 Award in Youth Work Practice is a standard UK accredited

youth work qualification that embraces the National Occupational Standards for youth work. Although many youth work practitioners are qualified up to a Master's degree in Youth Work or Informal Education, the varying degrees of qualifications, experience and expertise between youth workers makes it challenging to study this group. To address this, a purposely sampled participant group ensured participants had comparable levels of capability so that the study gained insights from practitioners who would have likely reflected on their work and be confident in discussing their roles and experiences. Unqualified sessional youth workers and volunteers were excluded from this study, as were youth practitioners who had no experience in informal, non-statutory community settings. Therefore, Youth Offending Team officers, Pupil Referral Unit workers, and Social workers with no generic youth work experience were not included in the sample. As themes emerged in the study, further purposive sampling techniques were used to recruit participants from who had certain expertise or experience in a particular area such as coaching and/or mentoring.

Data collection

Ethical approval to collect data for this study was obtained from the University of East London Psychology Research Ethics Committee. Three participants were recruited

via an invitation email to two London local authority youth service departments, who were asked to share information on the proposed study with their qualified youth workers. Each email included a participant invitation letter, introducing each youth worker to the researcher, supervisor and study, and invited them to participate voluntarily. Those who agreed to participate in the study were then sent a Pre-Interview Questionnaire to gain demographic data, information on accreditation and frameworks used in their field of work. A further 10 participants were recruited using LinkedIn. Those who showed interest to a message like that emailed to local authorities, were asked for personal email addresses and the same recruitment procedure as above was used.

A semi-structured interview format was used with a pre-determined set of interview questions during initial interviews. Questions initially explored youth work approaches before probing questions about how this may impact on how young people viewed their selves, others and their aspirations. When participants were not so forthcoming about emotional wellbeing, I encouraged them to open up and reflect on when and how adolescents spoke about moods, emotions and behaviours, sometimes relating to my own experiences and showing an understanding of what interviewees were expressing. On completion of each interview, the participants were debriefed verbally and provided with a debrief letter. All interviews were held face-to-face or over Skype and recorded using a Dictaphone. The recorded information was then uploaded to the Temi online software for transcription. Each interview was transcribed for coding purposes before conducting the next interview with a new participant.

Data analysis

A Grounded Theory approach was used to analyse the data, with the overarching objective throughout the coding being to explore and understand how participants

promoted emotional wellbeing in adolescents. I attempted to develop a grounded theory of the approaches and methods used by coding participant responses. Using Grounded Theory methods of conceptual memoing; moving forward and backwards between data analysis and collection was adhered to in this study. Two types of coding were used to analyse data; substantive coding and theoretical coding. During the initial four interviews, substantive coding took place; a line by line analysis of the data using open coding practices allowed for the emergence of core categories and concepts (Charmaz, 2014). Using the emergence of these categories and concepts to categorise tentative themes meant they could be explored during later interviews with refined questions and areas of enquiry. Codes that were not used often or were subsumed by other codes were deleted.

The analysis gradually shifted away from a descriptive stance and towards a conceptualisation and emergence of core data categories that eventually produced delimiting data collection and coding to core concepts (Charmaz, 2014). During the process of conceptual memoing and data analysis, data sets were constantly compared to capture the study's ideation of the emerging theory. Via the constant comparison of data sets and indicators found in the data, axial coding explored the core properties and dimensions of given codes were produced and eventually yielded the interchangeability of indicators (Bryant & Charmaz, 2011). When the interchangeability of indicators had been reached at the 12th interview, this indicated that theoretical saturation had been achieved, and that no fresh dimensions from the data were likely to emerge (Charmaz, 2014). One further interview was conducted to ensure this was the case. Broad and deep coverage of developing categories made for relative accuracy and theoretical credibility of analysis (Charmaz, 2014). The analysis of the data in the next section explains the experiences of youth workers and forms the

foundation of an emerging theory on how they promote emotional wellbeing.

Ethics

Ethics approval for this study was granted by the School of Psychology at the University of East London. Full ethical considerations were taken throughout the research to minimise risks and protect the anonymity, confidentiality and privacy of both participants and the young people they support. Relevant documents used in this study to ensure ethical practice are included in the Appendices section. Data collection involved participants discussing their past work with young people and other adults, which revealed relatively sensitive yet anonymous information. Where, participants named their organisation or other information that may identify them, this was omitted from transcriptions. The participant invitation letter, presenting a clear description of the study's aims and any potential risks provided sufficient time for participants to consider the implications of them participating.

Since only qualified youth workers took part in the study, risks of managing challenging material or sensitive topics was reduced as participants were familiar with discussing such topics during feedback and supervision sessions with senior staff. Nonetheless, during and post interviews, participants were encouraged to speak to their supervisor, senior member of staff, or the research supervisor of this study if for any reason they found anything unmanageable or disturbing. This was explained in the debrief letter, the invitation letter and consent form. Participants were fully advised on their right to withdraw from the research at any point up until a specified date. They were made aware that their choice to withdraw any data – whether it be partial excerpts or the whole interview – did not have to be justified in any way and would not disadvantage them. All participants were given a unique participant number attached to their data to protect their anonymity and allow for their data to

be withdrawn if necessary. The researcher was the only person to know names of participants but did not use this information for any purpose beyond the that of this study as agreed with participants. All audio files of interviews were stored securely on a password protected system that only the researcher could access during the transcribing stage before deleting them. All transcribed data has been stored digitally for up to four years on a password protected system, as explained to all participants in the invitation letter, consent form and debrief letter.

Reflexivity

The epistemological framework of the research followed a constructivist approach that both theorises the interpretive approach of youth work practitioners and acknowledges that resulting theories are an interpretation. In doing so, this study recognises the researcher's subjectivity and reflexivity; the research was conducted under pre-existing conditions and partially influenced by my views, perspectives, and own past experiences. Although within constructivist Grounded Theory research a reflexive stance is often explicitly recommended (Smith et al., 2009), as a previous youth practitioner with close interests in the studied phenomena, I consistently considered my views may be affecting the development of theory and to ensure methodological rigour. I acknowledge that my insider perspective may have produced an etic perspective, in that I was not totally detached from the data and that this may shape some content. I shared examples and experiences of my youth work practice, such as challenges of getting young people to express emotions during interviews to encourage participants to relate to myself and the research topic being explored, allowing for more reflection and richer data. This emic standpoint meant my subjectivity may have provided deeper means of viewing, engaging, and interrogating data to generate unique interpretations of a tacit phenomenon (Charmaz, 2014).

Table 1: Themes.

Thematic theme	Participant number
Safe space	1, 6, 13
Trusted adult	2, 6, 11
Authentic relationship	3, 5
Active listening	8, 9, 12
Meaningful conversations	4, 7
Reflection	10, 13
Positive choices	1, 9

Results

The interviews produced 173 pages of transcripts. The open coding stage of analysis resulted in 344 initial codes, 113 of which were related to emotional wellbeing. These codes were further classified through axial coding, which produced 23 codes used in this study. Further selective coding created a rational classification of codes into 11 axial categories. These categories were arranged into seven thematic categories and resulted in three theoretical categories that formed this study's model and emerging grounded theory of promoting emotional wellbeing through a coaching relationship.

Only few of the research participants declared their primary role to be promoting emotional wellbeing, but all interviewees reflected that managing emotions was of paramount importance, once probed. Interviewees highlighted that it was a complex issue that was not easy to promote, and very few had training to do so. Several participants stressed that emotional wellbeing was a prominent and current 'buzz word' or 'current agenda' and meant different things to different people. The themes below were consistently described when managing emotions and promoting wellbeing.

Safe space and trusted adult

Many participants stated the most important aspect of their work was providing a safe space where young people could be with a trusted adult and share their concerns. Providing

authentic, albeit often informal conversations was frequently specified as the most used and natural method to support adolescent challenges and promote emotional wellbeing.

Participant 1:

We provide an environment which is a safe space for listening... youths are more willing to talk to us due to building trust and (us) not seen as statutory workers.

Most youth practitioners were conscious that most of the adolescents they worked with did not have other trusted adults or safe places to talk about their emotions other than with them or their colleagues.

Participant 6:

Many of these young people don't have adults at home or school they can open up to and discuss their real emotions. We build trusting relationships by being transparent and open, keeping everything confidential and consistently being there for them.

The notion of trust was a key factor in creating a place adolescent felt safe and could speak about emotions, although it was highlighted that trust wasn't always easy to build or maintain.

Participant 2:

Some of these kids are troubled, and they take a long time to trust you, you have to be consistent.

Participant 13:

You can easily break that trust in their eyes if you don't constantly open up a space their comfortable in.

Many practitioners were conscious that for most adolescents they were the only adult they could trust and talk to about emotions, despite feeling young people generally found it difficult to talk about them.

Participant 11:

They want to have better emotional wellbeing but they find it difficult to deal with this. I have to find indirect ways to help them manage emotions.

Authentic relationship

Participant 3 stated that holding youths in positive regard was essential to effective work with adolescents, and that he often shared with them the value he was also receiving from talking to them. Authentic relationships were often created via a role modelling, mentoring and coaching approach. Creating trust and rapport by demonstrating empathy and sharing their own mistakes and journey into adulthood through meaningful conversations was often used to gain young people's trust and build authentic relationships.

Participant 5:

I often relate my own teenage struggles to demonstrate empathy and understanding. This creates an authentic two-way relationship where I can model to young people what they may be able to do, but also create an authenticity for connection.

Participant 3 spoke about reflecting on their own transition to adulthood and their own emotions when creating authentic relationships because young people saw them as role models and mimicked their responses and coping mechanisms to challenges. Importantly, participants were aware that they had to be authentic about their own emotions to

effectively manage youth's emotional wellbeing.

Participant 3:

I think something that is missed a lot is actually the wellbeing of youth workers...the wellbeing of staff to be able to promote wellbeing... healthy youth workers results in healthy young people, as they feed off our energy.

Active listening and meaningful conversations

Listening using coaching techniques rather than leading by example was used to assess the needs of adolescents; factors around their peers, family, school and community were described as dynamics that were explored during conversations and active listening. Probing questions allowed young people to reflect on their position in society. Participant 8 said, 'promoting wellbeing is all about listening carefully and actively to young people through meaningful conversations'. Participant 9:

Listening is the key ingredient. Sometimes you have to read between the lines and probe skilfully- this opens up emotions.

Participant 12:

It's easy to get caught up in the traditional role model youth worker mode and give answers, but often just really listening to their needs is vital.

Key to meaningful conversations was the social interaction with adults, learning experiences and social wellbeing gained by interacting positively with adults. It was evident that many activities used regularly, such as residential trips, play and sports often involved authentic conversations, active listening, and story-telling, which allowed practitioners to work closely with adolescents and address their emotional needs.

Participant 4:

Going on residential trips with young people allows us to have real, authentic conversations to ascertain articulation, confidence, self-esteem, and independence.

Reflection

Youth practitioners' role in helping with managing conflict, stress, anxiety, anger, risky behaviour, and relationship issues featured prominently in the data collected. Youth practitioners often got adolescents to acknowledge and 'voice their emotions', particularly the notion of happiness and to reflect on this to create solutions and goals.

Participant 10 used 'non-intrusive Solution-Focused Brief Therapy' to address the meaning adolescents gave to events and to 'drive positive affirmations'. Story telling was also used by him to share his own adolescent journey:

Participant 10:

Stories of suffering are important because relationships are a two-way thing and you can't be a true professional without being authentic and consciously sharing 'I am human like you'. I help them get away from inhibitions and make new discoveries... giving them credit for coming up with the answers.

Participant 13 stated practitioners often dealt with anger by addressing anger, rather than getting young people to 'reflect on what they can have, like happiness'. Adolescents, it was noted, grasped the concept of happiness far more easily than other more complex notions, and he often addressed happiness when asking questions and story-telling to reframe perceptions of happiness. He used questions such as; 'What would make you happy now?' and 'How would being happy feel like?'

Importantly, youth workers perceived themselves to be adopting a mentoring and role model approach because they felt that

young people benefited most when youth practitioners shared their own mistakes, and young people learnt from them by reflecting and imitating their coping strategies. Participants claimed to use mentoring to aid reflection with all age groups but expressed its effectiveness with younger adolescents who had less life experiences and needed more guidance.

Participant 13:

Nothing works better than a combination of informal education mentoring and coaching (for reflection)... the problem with coaching younger people is there's less life experience. Coaching is very specific, it's led by the client... and many young people cannot lead. I think the mentoring and role model element is just super important because we've been there, you've got a bit more knowledge and walked that (adolescent) path.

Positive choices

All participants predominantly saw their overarching role as one that facilitated positive ideas, positive attitudes, and positive choices in adolescents. A key role highlighted by most participants was helping young people to overcome challenges and barriers to promote better informed choices, decision-making and ultimately positive lifestyles.

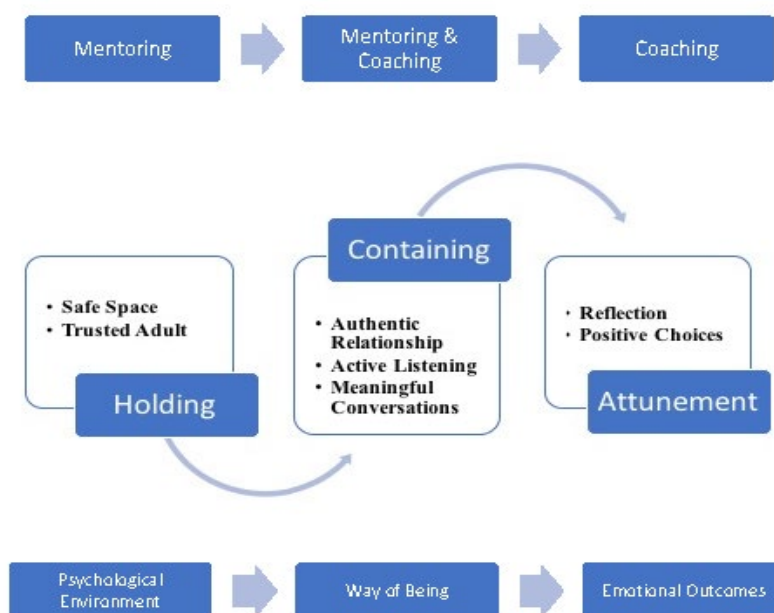
Participant 1, who had a youth work qualification and Integrative Counselling degree referred to herself as an 'integrative therapist' in her work within youth centres.

Participant 1:

I use counselling and coaching with young people to assess factors impacting on emotional wellbeing, and to help them forward through goals focused coaching... I change unwanted habits.

'Positive engagement', 'positive activities' and 'positive experiences' (participant 9) were also concepts viewed as significant elements of informal education. Community

Figure 1: Holding-Containing-Attunement Model.



participation and volunteering were often cited as being effective ways to promote adolescent autonomy, self-esteem, assertiveness and sense of identity. These constructs were named as being important for future emotional wellbeing in adult life. Participant 9 stated that ‘we can’t talk about values without identity... those who nurture children can instil values that aren’t productive’.

Many participants used a coaching, goal-setting approach to ‘break things down to sizeable action plans’ (participant 1). Youth workers believed promoting positive choices in particularly older teenagers sometimes required a directive approach that was led by young people and focused on their aspirations. Again, active listening was often cited as an important method to identify the needs and ambitions of adolescents. Questions using scales to determine emotional wellbeing needs were highlighted by participants 1 and 9 to identify needs and obstacles, facilitate reflection and to create goals and action plans, what many participants referred to as ‘positive choices.’

Discussion

Figure 1 above captures the results of his study in the form of a three-stage holding-containing-attunement model that represents a new framework for youth coaching. Results of the study established how being a trusted adult in a safe, holding and containing environment allowed for emotional attunement between adolescents and practitioners to be conceptualised under the constructs of ‘holding’, ‘containing’ and ‘attunement’. The emotions-focused model informs a coaching relationship framework based on the environment provided by participants (holding), their way of being (containing) and perceived emotions-related outcomes (attunement).

When comparing the participants’ approaches and processes it was evident that youth practitioners used directive, mentoring and role-modelling techniques to create the holding environment, and Solution-Focused coaching approaches in the containing stage of preserving the holding relationship. Grounded in cognitive-behavioural theory, solution-focused cognitive-behavioural

coaching techniques are the most validated in coaching literature, and used to build personal strengths, as well as define and achieve practical solutions to problems (Grant & Atad, 2021). Participants in this study also alluded to a similar approach to facilitating adolescent goal attainment by helping them appreciate the mutual relationships between the world around them and their thoughts, feelings, and behaviour before organising them in new ways to support change and goal attainment (Grant et al., 2010).

Findings further demonstrated that the final emotional attunement phase, where the practitioner-adolescent relationship was at a greater emotional state of consciousness, involved increased coaching psychology methods to aid reflection, set goals, and promote positive choices – a process that can be described as promoting self-efficacy or confidence in one's own abilities. Bandura (1997) demonstrated that developmental antecedents of self-efficacy can be enhanced through verbal persuasion by influential, trusted and expert other people. Grant and Atad (2021) found that participants involved in Coaching Psychology exercises experienced additional benefits in self-insight, goal attainment, solution-focused thinking, and psychological wellbeing. Similar processes may have been in play in the findings of this study, in that these positive outcomes in adolescents may be attributable to the collaborative, action-oriented coaching relationship between youth workers and clients. An influential tenet of the coaching relationship and its processes is the ability to foster goal-focused self-regulation to improve personal agency (Grant & Atad, 2021).

The findings of the present study also found that a consistent containing provision of youth work based on authentic relationships produced attunement between practitioner and client that promotes deep reflection, appreciation of adolescent emotions, and leads to positive life choices. It may be argued that this coaching approach to youth work provision is significant in promoting the emotional wellbeing of young

people. Harris (2011) states; 'the capacity for empathy and attunement occurs in the context of a reliably attached relationship within which the child feels protected.... in a setting where the safely attached relationship is itself safely held so that emotions and feelings can be effectively contained' (p.96).

Holding

The holding environment here refers to the psychological safety provided by practitioners. It was only when this was established and maintained that the foundations were laid for the containing process that fosters an authentic relationship. Our findings relate to the safe holding space described by Pearson and Wilson (2012), who define an effectual 'holding space' as a setting where a practitioner: 'feels integrated, cohesive and effective, and a client experiences an integrating space that is comforting, and devoid of reminders of emotional turmoil.' (p.12). Although the scope of this study meant it did not determine whether emotional wellbeing was promoted, its findings demonstrate a concerted effort by youth practitioners to create and maintain an authentic, trusting relationship that provides psychological safety and secure attachments that can positively address emotions. Positive social learning often occurs best in reliable, trusting environments where adolescents feel protected and safe from harm and psychological distress (Harris, 2011). Secure attachments often provide attuned, empathic relationships with adults, resulting in emotionally healthy adolescents who can empathise with feelings of others (Gerhardt, 2004; Schore, 2009).

Containing

This study found youth workers encourage emotional wellbeing by promoting personal and social development that contains and protects the trust created within a safe space. Exploring the concept of meaningful relationships and conversations allowed for the themes of active listening, having positive regard and goal-setting based on individual emotional needs to emerge in this study.

Building relationships through this process may be essential to maintaining trust and the ability to promote emotional regulation and resilience. As found in the earlier literature review, researchers have defined emotional regulation as the ability to increase and reduce emotions as necessary (Sabatier et al., 2017). Participants in this study provided meaningful conversations that helped adolescents to think positively (cognitive resilience), assert control over their behaviour, such as anger, and received emotional support- the three stages researchers have found to promote emotional resilience (Sabatier et al., 2017).

Our findings show that youth practitioners built and maintain authentic relationships in a way that relates to theories and models of Coaching Psychology, despite many participants alluding to a role-modelling and goal-setting, mentoring approach. Coaching Psychologists often provide authentic feedback within a supportive and facilitative environment in a way that is potential-guided, in that it recognises failures but focuses on future achievement (Linley & Harrington, 2006). Youth work delivery in this study often followed a similar transformational coaching approach to provide positive activities and reflection. Participants cited that they often addressed negative emotions and moods such as anger to encourage young people to reflect and reframe negative attitudes. Building trust and facilitating authentic conversations often meant helping adolescents find strength and resilience from negative life events. Using active listening, probing questions and allowing young people to both relate to their needs and establish future goals for themselves is typical of a Positive Psychology Coaching approach that increases awareness in people about ways they look after their wellbeing and that of others by focusing on positive components such as strengths, optimism and motivation. (Biswas-Diener, 2020).

Youth practitioners, through a containing process may promote emotional wellbeing using meaningful conversations as a positive

narrative reframing approach on current needs rather than fixing problems for a better future. Flynn et al.'s study (2018) found that an integrated coaching-counselling Personal Consultancy model of being heard, finding your balance, moving forward and supporting was effective in promoting positive emotional and cognitive-behavioural changes in young people. These changes were likely due to the goals-focused coaching techniques, and may indicate that an emotions-informed coaching approach found in this study may also enhance the sense of self-esteem, autonomy and interpersonal relationships that promote immediate emotional wellbeing (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). Results of this study did not find that youth workers had the theoretical knowledge or expertise in using Coaching Psychology techniques to promote emotional wellbeing, but this could be further explored in future research and encouraged in the youth work profession.

Attunement

Authentic relationships between participants and adolescents allowed for meaningful conversations that encouraged deep practitioner-adolescent emotional attunement and produced meaningful reflections on client emotions so they could make positive choices in their lives. Attunement is defined as an embodied experience that includes a psychological and emotional state of consciousness often accompanied with enhanced perception, appreciation and understanding (Maslow, 1964). Coaching Psychology studies have often presented a correlation of this therapeutic relationship or working alliance with coaching outcomes, particularly affective and cognitive coaching outcomes. (de Haan et al., 2016; Graßmann, et al., 2020). Although most coaching research has assessed executive coaching in the work place, there are parallels with the interpersonal and contextual processes in play in our findings that formed practitioner-client emotional attunement. Sun et al. (2013) describe

this as the ‘real relationship’ based on an authentic experience of each other. It may be contended that the holding and containing processes found in this study resulted in youth worker-adolescent attunement that further creates an environment for greater trust, positive regard and the basis to promote emotional wellbeing.

Learning to navigate the complexities of teenage life through working with trusted, non-judgmental adults can invariably promote autonomy, self-esteem, positive aspirations and attunement in adolescents (Eichas et al., 2017; Warren et al., 2016). This study did not evidence whether the process of holding-containing-attunement promoted emotional wellbeing or emotional regulation in adolescents, but it may be reasoned that providing positive experiences, building self-esteem and autonomy through emotion-focused coaching interventions may result in attunement to their emotions and others (Coughlan, 2010), and that this may result in improved emotional wellbeing. Attunement formed the basis to develop the capacity to translate emotions into words so that they can be communicated at sophisticated levels (Harris, 2011), and therefore would encourage adolescents to further talk about difficult emotions. This finding is particularly significant for future research in promoting adolescent emotional wellbeing because adolescents, as found in this study, may not naturally express difficult emotions but may do so with trusted adults in informal settings if attunement is nurtured and preserved. Further empirical knowledge is needed to establish a robust theory that advances the concept of emotional attunement within a coaching relationship in promoting adolescent emotional wellbeing.

Limitations

Many of the participants in the sample studied had specialist training and more likely to have a theoretical grasp of the concept of emotional wellbeing compared to other less qualified practitioners. Purposive sampling for this study is likely to have

resulted in gaining data from those who have addressed emotional wellbeing and adequately express their experiences, therefore excluding the significant views of less qualified youth practitioners who are more representative of the profession (Hefferon et al., 2017). Participants of this study may have also been more likely to highlight positive aspects of their work and less willing to convey less positive features.

My own understanding of youth work and grounding in coaching psychology concepts may have prejudiced the way interviews were conducted and the probing questions used to illicit responses on the construct of emotional wellbeing. Nonetheless, this emic perspective and insider knowledge may have proved influential in encouraging the research participants to reflect on their work and rationale behind it, therefore extracting richer data than may have otherwise been the case. However, the environment, sample, and process used in this study were inherently uncontrolled, meaning the study cannot be exactly replicated, nor the findings generalizable (Hefferon et al., 2017).

Recommendations for future research

The proposed Emotional Attunement Coaching Theory that promotes adolescent emotional wellbeing makes a significant contribution to the discussion on the need for a dedicated theory on the coaching relationship (Henderson & Palmer, 2021). The Model demonstrates that Positive Psychology Coaching approaches can play a major role in promoting adolescent happiness and thriving. This is an area that needs further research to validate the Model’s efficacy in promoting adolescent emotional wellbeing before being part of an established framework within future youth work training and provision. The Model should be researched and tested using controlled trials and quantitative methods to test its efficacy in developing adolescent emotional wellbeing within youth work settings, and to further establish the Emotional Attunement Coaching Relationship theory.

If youth practitioners are to be competent in promoting emotional wellbeing, there is a need for evidence-based coaching models that are grounded in theory to be researched, validated and adopted in community settings. We claim that informal youth settings are ideal environments for validated Coaching Psychology and Positive Psychology interventions to be used. Youth work, as are Coaching Psychology methods is built on the premise that learning and teaching are relational interactions, and that positive relationships play a major role in promoting happiness and human flourishing (Rose et al., 2015).

Conclusion

This study found that an emotions-focused Holding-Containing-Attunement Coaching Model using evidence-based coaching psychology methods is used as an operative model within youth work to provide an authentic communicative environment that can promote emotional wellbeing in adolescents. The study showed that youth workers consistently provide safe, holding and containing environments that foster authentic and meaningful relationships with adolescents, and that this plays a major function in supporting their emotions and encouraging adolescent self-efficacy, an under-researched domain in coaching psychology. The findings provide valuable insights from a specific population of practitioners that can offer a contextualised understanding of promoting emotional wellbeing through coaching psychology in young people, as well as offering some explanations that can inform coaching relationship processes and theory. It is hoped the study can go some way to contributing to the applied practice and research that the field of coaching psychology and positive psychology is becoming more renowned for (Lomas et al., 2014b).

The Holding-Containing-Attunement Coaching Model informs an operative

framework and emerging Emotional Attunement theory that contributes to a concept on the coaching relationship that can be further researched and used to successfully coach positive youth. In addition, these new insights into the coaching relationship have wider relevance to coaching beyond the youth focus of this study and provides a theoretical and practical approach for exploring and extending our understanding of the coaching relationship in other fields of coaching.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr Tim Lomas immensely for helping facilitate the ethical clearance process that made this study possible, and for his important contributions around ethical research practice and rigorous research methods. I am also appreciative of the dedicated Coaching Psychology colleagues, whose existing research and conceptual insights made this article possible.

Declaration of interest

There are no interests to declare.

Data availability statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author, RC. The data are not publicly available due to their containing information that could compromise the privacy of research participants.

Authors

Rachid Choai

Current: YoungScape CiC

At point of research: MSc student, University of East London

rachid.choaibi74@gmail.com

Dr Tim Lomas

Honorary Reader, University of East London
t.lomas@uel.ac.uk

References

- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Benson, P.L. & Scales, P.C. (2009). The definition and preliminary measurement of thriving in adolescence. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4, 85–104.
- Biswas-Diener, R. (2020) The practice of positive psychology coaching. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 15(5), 701–704, doi:10.1080/17439760.2020.1789705
- Bowlby, J. (1973). *Attachment and loss, Vol. 2: Separation*. New York: Basic Books.
- Bowers, E.P., Geldhof, G.J., Schmid, K.L. et al. (2012). Relationships with important nonparental adults and positive youth development: An examination of youth self-regulatory strengths as mediators. *Research in Human Development*, 9(4), 298–316.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis. In H. Cooper (Ed.), *Handbook of Research Methods in Psychology, Vol 2: Research Designs*, (pp.57–71). Washington, DC: APA books.
- Bryant, A. & Charmaz, K. (2011). *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory* (1st edn.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Bundick, M.J. (2011). Extracurricular activities, positive youth development, and the role of meaningfulness of engagement. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 6, 57–74.
- Campbell, M. & Gardner, S. (2005). A pilot study to assess the effects of life coaching with year 12 students. In M. Cavanagh, A.M. Grant & T. Kemp (Eds.). *Evidence based coaching: Volume 1 Theory, Research and Practice from the behavioural sciences*. Bowen Hills, Qlds: Australian Academic Press.
- Catalano, R.F., Berglund, M.L., Ryan, J.A. et al. (2002). Positive youth development in the United States: Research findings on evaluations of positive youth development programs. *Prevention & Treatment*, 5(1). Article 15. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1522-3736.5.1.151a>
- Chang, E.C., Downey, C.A., Hirsch, J.K. & Lin, N.J. (Eds.). (2016). Cultural, racial, and ethnic psychology book series. *Positive psychology in racial and ethnic groups: Theory, research, and practice*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory* (2nd edn.). SAGE Publications.
- Ciocanel, O., Power, K., Eriksen, A. & Gillings, K. (2017). Effectiveness of positive youth development interventions: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 46, 483–504.
- Coughlan, B.J. (2010). *Identifying and responding to the needs of young people who present with learning disability and mental health difficulties: A training workshop*. Southport: United Kingdom.
- de Haan, E., Grant, A.M., Burger, Y. & Eriksson, P.-O. (2016). A large-scale study of executive and work-place coaching: The relative contributions of relationship, personality match, and self-efficacy. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 68(3), 189–207.
- Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) (2009). *Improving the psychological well-being and mental health of children and young people: Commissioning early intervention support services*. Department of Health (DH).
- Eichas, K., Montgomery, M.J., Meca, A. & Kurtines, W.M. (2017). Empowering marginalized youth: A self-transformative intervention for promoting positive youth development. *Child Development*, 88, 1115–1124.
- Flynn, T.A., Sharp N.L., Walsh, J.J. & Popovic, N. (2018). An exploration of an integrated counseling and coaching approach with distressed young people. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 31(3), 375–396, doi: 10.1080/09515070.2017.1319800
- Fredrickson, B.L. (1998). What good are positive emotions? *Review of General Psychology*, 2, 300–319.
- Fredrickson, B.L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, 56(3), 218–226.
- Fredrickson, B.L. & Branigan, C.A. (2005). Positive emotions broaden the scope of attention and thought-action repertoires. *Cognition and Emotion*, 19, 313–332.
- Fredrickson, B.L. & Losada, M. (2005). Positive affect and the complex dynamics of human flourishing. *American Psychologist*, 60, 678–686.
- Freiler, T.J. (2008). Learning through the body. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 37–48. doi:10.1002/ace.
- Gerhardt, S. (2004). *Why love matters: How affection shapes a baby's brain*. Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.
- Gottman, J.M., Katz, L.F. & Hooven, C. (1997). *Meta-emotion: How families communicate emotionally*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gov.uk (2019). New youth charter to support young people across the country. Downloaded on 05/05/2019 from www.gov.uk/government/news/new-youth-charter-to-support-young-people-across-the-country.
- Graßmann, C., Schölmerich, F. & Schermuly, C.C. (2020). The relationship between working alliance and client outcomes in coaching: A meta-analysis. *Human Relations*, 73, 35–58. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726718819725>

- Grant, A.M. & Spence, G.B. (2010). Using coaching and positive psychology to promote a flourishing workforce: A model of goal-striving and mental health. In P.A. Linley, S. Harrington, & N. Page (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of positive psychology and work* (pp.175–188). Oxford University Press.
- Grant, A.M. & Atad, O.I. (2021): Coaching psychology interventions vs positive psychology interventions: The measurable benefits of a coaching relationship. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*. doi: 10.1080/17439760.2021.1871944
- Green, S., Grant, A.M. & Rynsaardt, J. (2007). Evidence-based life coaching for senior high school students: Building hardiness and hope. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 2(1), 24–32.
- Harris, B. (2011). *Working with distressed children*. Learning Matters Ltd.
- Heath, S.B. & McLaughlin, M.W. (Eds.) (1993). Identity and inner-city youth. *Beyond ethnicity and gender*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Henderson, A. & Palmer, S. (2021). ‘Desperately seeking... a theory of the coaching relationship.’ *International Journal of Coaching Psychology*, 2(3), 15. <https://ijcp.nationalwellbeingsservice.com/volumes/volume-2-2021/volume-2-article-3/>
- Hefferon, K., Ashfield, A., Waters, L. & Synard, J. (2017). Understanding optimal human functioning – The ‘call for qual’ in exploring human flourishing and wellbeing [Editorial]. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 12(3), 211–219. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2016.1225120>
- Jeba, J.J. & Premraj, F. (2017). Influencing factors on the social and emotional wellbeing of adolescent in Indian social work practice. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 7(17), 2017.
- Keyes, C.L.M. (2009). Towards a science of mental health. In S.J. Lopez & C.R. Snyder (Eds.), *Oxford Handbook of Positive Psychology* (pp.89–95). Oxford University Press.
- Lakes, R.D. (1996). *Youth development and critical education: The promise of democratic action*. New York: SUNY Press.
- Lerner, R. & Lerner, J. (2013). The positive development of youth: Comprehensive findings from the 4-h Study of positive youth development. Institute for Applied Research in Youth Development, Tufts University.
- Linley, P.A. & Harrington, S. (2006). Playing to Your Strengths. *The Psychologist*, 19, 86–89.
- Lomas, T., Hefferon, K. & Ivtzan, I. (2014b). The LIFE model: A meta-theoretical conceptual map for applied positive psychology. *Journal of Happiness Studies*. doi:10.1007/s10902-014-9563-y
- Lomas, T. (2020). Positive coaching psychology: A case study in the hybridisation of positive psychology. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 10(2), 37–52. doi:10.5502/ijw.v10i2.1083
- Lopez, J.L., Pedrotti, J.T. & Snyder, C.R. (2019). *Positive psychology: The scientific and practical explorations of human strengths*. SAGE Publications.
- Luthar, S., Cicchetti, D. & Becker, B. (2000). The construct of resilience: A critical evaluation and guidelines for future work. *Child Development*, 71(3), 543–562.
- Lyubomirsky, S. & Della Porta, M. D. (2010). Boosting happiness, buttressing resilience: Results from cognitive and behavioral interventions. In J.W. Reich, A.J. Zautra, & J.S. Hall (Eds.), *Handbook of adult resilience* (pp.450–464). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Maslow, A. (1964). *Religious, values and peak experiences*. New York: Viking Press.
- Masten, A.S., Cutuli, J.J., Herbers, J.E. & Reed, M.J. (2009). Resilience in development. In S.J. Lopez & C.R. Snyder (Eds.), *Oxford Handbook of Positive Psychology* (pp.117–131). New York: Oxford University Press
- Mayer, J.D. & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D.J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications* (pp.3–34).
- Passmore, J. & Brown, A. (2009). ‘Coaching non-adult students for enhanced examination performance: A longitudinal study’. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 2(1) 54–64
- Pearson, M. & Wilson, H. (2012). Soothing spaces and healing places: Is there an ideal counselling room design? *Psychotherapy in Australia*, 18(3), 46–53.
- Parks, A.C. & Schueller, S.M. (2014). *The Wiley Blackwell handbook of positive psychological interventions*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Rashid, T., Loudon, R. & Wright, L. (2018). Flourish: A strengths-based resilience (SBR) approach to support students’ transition from secondary to post-secondary education (PSE). University of Toronto.
- Reivich, K. & Shatté, A. (2002). *The resilience factor: 7 essential skills for overcoming life’s inevitable obstacles*. New York: Broadway Books.
- Rose, J., McGuire-Snieckusa R. & Gilberta, L. (2015). Emotion Coaching- a strategy for promoting behavioural self-regulation in children/young people in schools: A pilot study. *The European Journal of Social and Behavioural Sciences EJSBS Volume XIII* (eISSN: 2301–2218).
- Ryff, C.D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological wellbeing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1069–1081.
- Sabatier, C., Cervantes, D.R., Torres, M.M. et al. (2017). Emotion Regulation in Children and Adolescents: concepts, processes and influences. *Psicología desde el Caribe*, 34(1).

- Schore, A.N. (2009). Attachment trauma and the developing right brain: Origins of pathological dissociation. In P.F. Dell & J.A. O'Neil (Eds.), *Dissociation and the dissociative disorders: DSM-V and beyond* (pp.141–153). New York: Routledge.
- Seligman, M.E.P. (2002). *Authentic happiness: Using the new positive psychology to realize your potential for lasting fulfillment*. New York: Free Press.
- Sellers, R.M., Linder, N.C., Martin, P.M. & Lewis, R.L. (2006). Racial identity matters: The relationship between racial discrimination and psychological functioning in African American adolescents. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 16, 187–216
- Smith, J.A., Flowers, P. & Larkin, M. (2009). *Interpretative phenomenological analysis: Theory, method and research*. London: Sage.
- Sun, B., Deane, F.P., Crowe, T.P. et al. (2013). A preliminary exploration of the working alliance and 'real relationship' in two coaching approaches with mental health workers. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 8(2)6–17.
- Warren, M.T., Wray-Lake, L., Rote, W.M. & Shubert, J. (2016). Thriving while engaging in risk? Examining trajectories of adaptive functioning, delinquency, and substance use in a nationally representative sample of U.S. adolescents. *Developmental Psychology*, 52(2), 296–310.
- Weare, K. & Gray, G. (2003). *What works in promoting children's emotional and social competence and well-being?* London, UK: Department of Education and Skills.

Book Review

Introduction to Coaching Psychology

Siobhain O'Riordan & Stephen Palmer

ISBN: 9780415789080 (2021)

UK: Routledge

Reviewed by Lilith A. Whiley

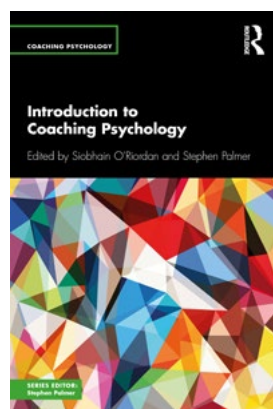
O'Riordan and Palmer (2021, p.205) share with their readers that a key aim in writing this book was to contribute by introducing key topics in the field in an 'accessible and informative way'. This, they have accomplished, and also succeeded in inspiring readers further. The book opens with a foreword by Professor Sir Cary Cooper that sets the scene against the backdrop of the pandemic, which serves to reinforce the up-to-date publication date. In part 1, Siobhain O'Riordan and Stephen Palmer begin the book with a helpful overview that introduces coaching psychology and positions this distinct branch within the broader psychological discipline. Alanna Henderson and Stephen Palmer then explain the complexities of the coaching relationship, in particular, by spotlighting the coaching alliance, boundaries, and real-world issues. These discussions are important and narrated in a way that teases out some common complexities without overstressing readers with more niche debates.

In part 2, Rachael Skews, Stephen Palmer and Alison Whybrow introduce and explain core knowledge must-haves, such as evidence-based models, frameworks, and approaches, in a user-friendly and engaging manner. Catherine Steele then closes part

2 by outlining the assessment process and tools that coaches may use to gain a deeper understanding of coachees. Importantly, Catherine Steele also stresses how important it is for coaches to develop the appropriate level of expertise prior to using some specialised assessment resources.

Part 3 begins with a very interesting and insightful overview by Gisele Dias, Siobhain O'Riordan and Stephen Palmer, of the different specialisms that are available in coaching psychology. This should no doubt be helpful in exposing readers to the different options that are available for their careers should they wish to specialise. The table on page 88 that summarises coaching techniques and their intersections is especially useful in visualising where exactly these different tools may 'sit' *vis-à-vis* their underlying philosophies. Siobhain O'Riordan and Stephen Palmer then differentiate organisational coaching while Ole Michael Spaten focuses on the intricacies of youth coaching – arguably a very complex sub-discipline of coaching because coachees are still emerging adults. Sheila Panchal, Siobhain O'Riordan and Stephen Palmer conclude this part by providing a snapshot of generalised life and personal coaching.

Adrien Myers and Tatiana Bachkirova start part 4 with some sobering but crucial



topics including boundaries, ethics, and supervision in coaching. They aptly establish the importance of 'rigorous training, foundational knowledge, and continued professional development' to the best practice of coaching psychology – all of which are much needed to ground and professionalise this branch of psychology even further. Ho Law's chapter on diversity was extremely insightful, especially the attention to intersectionality. Yi-Ling Lai and Stephen Palmer's chapter on coaching psychology research was informative and engaging, and even inspires readers towards directions for future research, which is likely to be of great help to emerging researchers who are exploring topics for their dissertations.

The final and fifth part showcases different case studies by Siobhain O'Riordan, Stephen Palmer, Lizz Fields-Pattinson, Kristina Gyllensten, Hugh O'Donovan and Per-Olaf Eriksson, which really bring to life several of the key concepts discussed in the book thus

far. Filomila Papakonstantinou then focuses on in-house organisational coaching, and Siobhain O'Riordan and Stephen Palmer close the book with some reflections on the pandemic and the future of coaching.

Overall, *Introduction of Coaching Psychology* is a user-friendly, informative, and accessible text for those interested in a robust and engaging introduction to coaching psychology. I especially appreciated the balance of theory, research, and practice. The authors explained concepts, models, and frameworks, and then highlighted and discussed relevant empirical work. The authors also illustrated key points via helpful case studies and examples. The discussions on diversity and intersectionality are also noteworthy – more plurality of voices and approaches please!

Reviewed by Dr Lilith A. Whiley

Department of Organisational Psychology at Birkbeck, University of London.

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: **31 January 2022**

All queries and submissions should be submitted to the editors via ICPRsubmissions@bps.org.uk

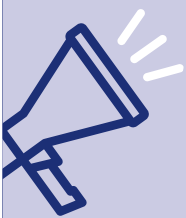
All research submissions will be subject to blind peer review.



the british
psychological society
promoting excellence in psychology

BE THE FIRST TO KNOW

UPCOMING BPS CONFERENCE & EVENTS
CPD OPPORTUNITIES
POLICY UPDATES



SIGN UP BY LOGGING IN AT: [BPS.ORG.UK/USER/LOGIN](https://bps.org.uk/user/login)
AND GO TO THE PREFERENCES SECTION.

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 – summarising each of the following sections in two or three 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.

9. Copyright

To protect authors and publications against unauthorised reproduction of articles, the British Psychological Society requires copyright to be assigned to itself as publisher, on the express condition that authors may use their own 'Accepted' version at any time without permission. For permission to reproduce 'Published' versions please email permissions@bps.org.uk. On acceptance of a paper, authors will be requested to sign an appropriate assignment of copyright form.

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.

Contents

- 4 Editorial
Yi-Ling Lai

Papers

- 6 Coaching research in 2020 – About destinations, journeys and travelers (Part II)
Eva-Maria Graf & Frédérick Dionne
- 22 Does it last? A systematic review of the enduring effects on managers
from executive coaching
Éamon McLnerney, Sabir Giga & Abigail S. Morris
- 51 Coaching for cultural sensitivity: Content analysis applying Hofstede's framework to a
select set of the International Coach Federation's (ICF) Core Competencies
Leticia P. Mosteo, Terrence E. Maltbia & Victoria J. Marsick
- 75 Coaching vulnerable youths for positive change: A coaching relationship model for
promoting adolescent interpersonal relationships with trusted adults
Rachid Choaibi & Tim Lomas

Book Reviews

- 93 *Introduction to Coaching Psychology*
Siobhain O'Riordan & Stephen Palmer – Reviewed by Lilith A. Whitley

St Andrews House, 48 Princess Road East, Leicester LE1 7DR, UK
t: 0116 254 9568 f: 0116 247 0787 e: info@bps.org.uk w: www.bps.org.uk

© The British Psychological Society 2021
Incorporated by Royal Charter Registered Charity No 229642

