Dr. Jonathan Passmore's Publications Library:

This paper is the source text for the published paper or chapter. It is made available free of charge for use in research. For the published version of this paper please visit the publisher's website. Access to the published version may require a subscription or purchase.

Author(s): Grant, A. M., Passmore, J. Cavanagh, M. J. & Parker, H.

Title: The State of Play in Coaching Today: A Comprehensive Review of the Field

Year of publication: 2010

Journal / Source: Annual Review of Industrial & Organizational Psychology

Citation: Grant, A. M., Passmore, J. Cavanagh, M. J. & Parker, H. (2010). *The State of Play in Coaching Today: A Comprehensive Review of the Field*. Annual Review of Industrial & Organizational Psychology. 25 pp125-168. Chichester: Wiley

The State of Play in Coaching Today: A Comprehensive Review of the Field

Anthony M Grant [1]
Jonathan Passmore [2]
Michael J Cavanagh [1]
Helen Parker [1]

[1] *Coaching Psychology Unit, University of Sydney, Australia*
[2] *Embrion, UK & University of Evora, Portugal*

Grant, A. M., Passmore, J. Cavanagh, M. J. & Parker, H. (2010). *The State of Play in Coaching Today: A Comprehensive Review of the Field*. Annual Review of Industrial & Organizational Psychology. Chichester: Wiley

Introduction

Over the past decade workplace and executive coaching has grown from a relatively novel intervention, to a mainstream developmental activity in organizations worldwide. The annual revenue expended on corporate coaching has been estimated to be in the region of US$1.5 billion, and in 2006 it was estimated that there were approximately 30,000 professional coaches globally (International Coach Federation; ICF, 2006); the figures are probably higher today. In the US, 93% of US-based Global 100 companies use executive coaches (Bono, Purvanova, Towler, & Peterson, 2009). In the UK , 88% of organizations use coaching (Jarvis, Lane, & Fillery-Travis, 2005). In Australia, 64% of business leaders and 72% of senior managers report using coaches (Leadership Management Australia, 2006). Seventy-one percent of these Australian respondents also stated that having a coach was an important factor in their decision to stay with their organizations.

This rapid growth in organizational demand for coaching has presented both challenges and opportunities for industrial and organizational (I/O) psychologists and for the broader psychological enterprise. First, even though coaching focuses on individual and/or organizational change (a key focus of behavioural science), the majority of individuals offering coaching services to organizations are not psychologists or behavioural scientists (Grant & Zackon, 2004). The majority of coaches practicing today do not use theoretically coherent approaches and scientifically validated techniques and measures (Grant and O'Hara, 2006). Interestingly, while psychologists' training would appear to ideally equip them for the delivery of coaching services, psychologists have not been seen as uniquely qualified coaching practitioners; either within the coaching industry or by the purchasers of coaching services (Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000). Nevertheless,

we believe that psychologists have much to offer the field of coaching. Their training as scientist practitioners, their critical thinking skills and understandings of validated change methodologies, coupled with a long-standing tradition of research and a sound theoretical knowledge base can bring much needed rigour to the coaching arena (for a discussion of the application of the scientist practitioner model in coaching see Cavanagh & Grant, 2006).

In this review, we draw on our past scholarship in this area (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007; Grant & Cavanagh, in press; Passmore & Gibbes, 2007) to provide an extensive overview of the state of play in relation to coaching research and practice. We review the professional status of coaching and the various bodies that seek to accredit and organise coaches and the coaching industry. We highlight the development of coaching psychology as an up-and-coming psychological sub-discipline, including a review of the research into the efficacy of coaching, and presentation of ideas for a future research agenda. The links between I/O psychology, positive psychology and Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS) are discussed in relation to organizational coaching, and we present a model that can guide organizational coaching practice by integrating workplace engagement and well-being. In conclusion, we outline some potential lines of inquiry for future work in this emerging and exciting sub-field of psychological research and practice.

Understanding Coaching

Although definitions of coaching vary, most are underpinned by a view of coaching as a collaborative relationship formed between coach and coachee for the purpose of attaining professional or personal development outcomes which are valued by the coachee (for a recent

discussion, see Spence & Grant, 2007). Typically, the coaching goals are set in order to stretch and develop an individual's current capacity or performance. In essence the coaching process facilitates goal attainment by helping individuals to: (i) identify desired outcomes, (ii) establish specific goals, (iii) enhance motivation by identifying strengths and building self-efficacy, (iv) identify resources and formulate specific action plans, (v) monitor and evaluate progress towards goals, and (vi) modify action plans based on feedback.

The 'monitor-evaluate-modification' steps of this process constitute a simple cycle of self-regulated behaviour. This is a key process in creating intentional behaviour change (Carver & Scheier, 1998). The role of the coach is to facilitate the coachee's movement through this self-regulatory cycle by helping the coachee to develop specific action plans and then to monitor and evaluate progression towards those goals.

Coaching is a broadly-applied human change methodology and has been applied across many areas, including: workplace stress reduction (Wright, 2007); business coaching (Clegg, Rhodes, Kornberger, & Stilin, 2005); communication and leadership skills (Wilson, 2004); career development (Scandura, 1992); team building and group development (Cunha & Louro, 2000); improving sales skills and performance (Rich, 1998), and coaching to improve performance in job interviews (Maurer, Solamon, & Troxtel, 1998).

Skills, Performance and Developmental Coaching

Coaching applications can be categorised under one of three main categories: skills coaching; performance coaching, and developmental coaching (Witherspoon & White, 1996).

Skills' coaching focuses on developing a specific, designated skill set. The coach often models the required skills and behaviour, and coaching sessions then involve a rehearsal and feedback process. For example. skills' coaching may be used for improving skills in areas such as: presentation, communication and sales skills, or preparation for negotiations.

Performance coaching is concerned with improving performance over a specific timeframe; ranging from just a few weeks to several years in workplace settings. Performance coaching focuses on the processes by which the coachee sets goals, overcomes obstacles and evaluates and monitors their performance over a period of time. Performance coaching is somewhat more strategic than skills coaching, and in the workplace may take place following a performance review or in relation to a specific workplace project.

Developmental coaching also takes a broader strategic approach and deals with the individual's personal and professional development. Developmental coaching refers to coaching aimed at enhancing the individual's ability to meet current and future challenges more effectively via the development of increasingly complex understanding of the self, others and the systems in which the person is involved. This kind of coaching may focus on facilitating perspective taking and meaning making, enhancing emotional competencies, and working more effectively with team members. Developmental coaching often involves the creation of personal reflective spaces where coachees can explore issues and options and formulate action plans in a confidential, supportive environment. The majority of leadership and executive coaching is primarily developmental in nature.

As discussed later in this chapter, the competencies and skills of effective coaches may vary somewhat across the three types of coaching. In skills coaching, the emphasis may be on the coach's ability to role model the required behaviours and provide supportive and

detailed behavioural feedback to the coachee. For performance coaching, the coach may need to more competent in root cause analysis; problem solving; action planning and goal setting skills, as well as being able to manage the coachee's performance over a specific timeframe. Development coaching requires the coach to possess greater competence in the intra -and inter-personal domains, superior active listening and reflection skills, and the ability to help the coachee explore more personal aspects of their work or personal lives.

It is important to note that these three types of coaching are not discrete or discontinuous categories; there is considerable overlap between them. For example, a coaching intervention focusing on enhancing presentation skills for an introverted coachee would have a substantial developmental element. Conversely, a developmental coaching program, focusing on developing leadership competencies may include some skills coaching. Nevertheless, this tripartite subdivision is a useful heuristic for understanding both the nature of individual coaching sessions and whole coaching engagements.

Executive and Workplace Coaching

Coaching in the workplace is conducted at all levels of an organization. *Executive coaching* encompasses a vast range of services and specialties; coaching for enhanced strategic planning; presentation skills; anger and stress management; executive management team building, and leadership development. Kilburg (1996) defines executive coaching as:

> *"A helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organization and a consultant who uses a wide variety of 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. 138).

Much executive coaching is primarily developmental interwoven with skills and performance coaching components, and is most often delivered by *external coaching* providers, i.e., by professional coaches who are not part of the client organization. Typically, external coaching providers tend to offer a combination of training, consultancy and coaching, rather than just coaching services (Binstead & Grant, 2008; Clegg et al., 2005). These services include coaching for workplace safety behaviours (Geller, Perdue, & French, 2004), life coaching for work-life balance (Sparrow, 2007), leadership development and executive coaching (Kilburg, 1996).

Workplace coaching includes both executive coaching and coaching that is delivered to non-executive employees in workplace settings. Workplace coaching may be delivered by external coaching providers or may be an internal coaching intervention, delivered by employees specially designated as occupying a coaching role (often Human Resources or Learning and Development personnel). There is some debate as to whether the 'manager as coach' should be included within the category of formal workplace coaching. We would hold that formal coaching should be distinguished from the intermittent use of coaching skills by line managers in the normal execution of their managerial duties. Hence, impromptu or 'corridor coaching' by managers is an example of the use of coaching skills in the workplace, rather than formal workplace coaching. Nevertheless the training of managers in coaching skills and their use in the workplace represents a significant contribution to rise coaching in the workplace.

Organizations tend to use a combination of both external and internal coaching approaches. One UK survey found that 51% of UK organizations used external coaches, 41% trained their own internal coaches and 79% used managers to coach employees (Kubicek, 2002). Given that coaching is currently so widely used in the workplace, what is the professional status of coaching?

The Professional Status of Coaching: Accreditations and Industry Organizations

When judged against the commonly accepted criteria for professional status, the coaching industry display few of the standard hallmarks. There are no barriers to entry, no minimal or requisite educational process or specified training routes, and no binding ethical or practice standards (Sherman & Freas, 2004). Anyone can call themselves a coach, or set up a coach training school, and coaching practice is currently unregulated. In response, and calling for greater scientific and professional rigour in coaching, Seligman (2007, p. 266) has commented that:

> *People who call themselves coaches and get paid for coaching have an enormous range of academic qualifications from none at all to bachelor's degrees in almost anything, to masters degrees in counselling, education, social work, or positive psychology, to doctorates in psychology, medicine, and philosophy.. Some have taken face-to-face or telecourses in coaching, but many have not. Some are "accredited" by the self-appointed International Coach Federation … but most are not. The right to call oneself a coach is unregulated. And this is why a scientific and a theoretical backbone … (is essential)…"*

The accreditation of coaches is controversial. Much of the coach training industry appears to have been driven by a need for credibility and status and the demand for 'accreditation' by people who wish to work as coaches (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004). Over time, a veritable global 'coach certification' industry has developed. Indeed, some coach training organizations seem to be little more than credentialing 'mills'. That is, after a brief attendance at a training program: in- person, online, or even over the phone, (and after payment of the requisite fee), one can be awarded the title of 'Professional Certified Master Coach' or similar (Grant & O'Hara, 2006). Not surprisingly, the true worth of these certifications is decidedly questionable. This is an important issue because the general public are not well-informed about the value of bona fide psychological qualifications, let alone coaching qualifications, and may rely on impressive-sounding titles to guide them in selecting a coach. Furthermore, naive trainee coaches may be misled into believing that certifications awarded by an impressive-sounding 'certification board' are a guarantee of solid professional training.

However, some of the larger coaching organizations such as the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC; UK-based, over 3,000 members), and the International Coach Federation (ICF; US-based, 15,000 members in nearly 90 countries) have put significant effort into establishing credentialing processes and developing coaching competencies, both individually and collectively.

Globally, and particularly in the US and Australia, some commercial and government organizations now require as a condition of employment, that external coaches be accredited by the ICF. This development appears to represent a quest on the part of purchasers of coaching services for some security regarding the quality of offerings in an often disparate and confusing market place. Of course it may also reflect the effective lobbying of bodies such as the ICF, to be seen as the official representatives of 'professional' coaching. These moves are

likely to increase the tensions held by many psychologists currently coaching in the field, who consider that their training represents a superior preparation to be an organizational coach (for research on the differences between psychologist and non-psychologist executive coaches see Bono et al., 2009).

It is noteworthy however, that Government bodies are being to take an active interest in the development of coaching standards. In 2008, Standards Australia (which is recognised by the Australian Government as Australia's peak standards body) began the process of consultation with key industry stakeholders including: the Australian Human Resources Institute, coaching industry bodies, Australian universities (including the Australian Graduate School of Management, the University of Sydney and Monash University), long time purchasers of coaching services (including some of Australia's largest corporations) and coaching providers, with the aim of developing Government-recognised standards for executive coaching.

Other countries have also explored the development of standards. In the US, the Graduate School Alliance for Executive Coaching (GSAEC), with institutional members from 10 universities, including University of Pennsylvania, University of Texas at Dallas and the University of Toronto, is developing a set of standards for the teaching of executive coaching at university level (see: www.gsaec.org).

Unfortunately the attempt by Standards Norway (the Norwegian peak standards body) to create coaching standards for the Norwegian coaching industry collapsed in disarray after a 17-month consultative process. Standards Norway eventually stated that the industry was too immature and fragmented to develop a genuine joint standard (Ladegård, 2008).

Interestingly, the Norwegian taskforce committee was made up of a number of coach training schools (and their associated industry bodies) who were all vigorously competing for business in the local market. Their offerings varied greatly in quality and substance, ranging from two-day courses which awarded 'coaching certifications', to comprehensive university-level programs. In contrast, the standards being developed by Standards Norway were comprehensive in scope; encompassing terminology, educational quality standards, practitioner competence requirements, standards for independent practitioner certification and ethical guidelines. The development of higher level standards meant that at least some of the coach training businesses would have to make significant changes to their training products. if they were to meet the new standards. In short, the development of a joint standard would directly impact some of the taskforce's own business products and profitability (Jensen, 2009; Ladegård, 2008). Future projects that seek to develop common standards should seek to learn from the Norwegian experience.

Coaching Professionalisation Parallels Development in Other Fields

While coaching is unlikely in the near future to achieve the status of a true profession (such as medicine or law, with their State sanctioned monopolies of practice and clear barriers to entry), coaching is attempting to move towards a more professional footing. The move towards increased professionalisation outlined above echo the challenges experienced in the development of other related disciplines. For example, contemporary Human Resource Management (HRM) is broadly recognised as a professional discipline; covering the recruitment, selection, training and development of employees, as well as the management of issues such as Industrial Relations, remuneration and

working conditions (Garavan, Costine, & Heraty, 1995). Like coaching, HRM has tended to be defined by practice rather than theory, is variously and broadly understood, and until relatively recently had not been taught at university level (McGoldrick, Stewart, & Watson, 2001).

Those concerned with the professionalization of coaching should take note of the controversies associated with the development of HRM as a professional field. These included: issues with precisely defining HRM (Hamlin, Andrea, & Beattie, 2009), an unclear theoretical basis, a paucity of research (McGoldrick et al., 2001) and the lack of defined demarcation with related disciplines (Jacobs, 2000), leading to 'territory' disputes with areas such as Learning and Development (L & D), change management (Worren, Ruddle, & Moore, 1999) and, albeit to a lesser extent, the broader psychological enterprise.

Coaching Psychology as an Emerging Psychological Sub-discipline

Psychology as both an academic discipline and a professional practice has often failed to meet the demand for personal and professional development, and this has left the way open for other, possibly less qualified, individuals to dominate the market (Fox, 1996). However, the importance of psychology's role in coaching has begun to be more broadly recognised with a number of professional psychological societies establishing formal coaching psychology groups. These include the Australian and British Psychological Societies, the Danish Psychological Association, the Swedish Psychological Association and the Federation of Swiss Psychologists. Many other groups around the world, such as the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology in South Africa (SIOPSA), are developing strong interests in coaching. In April 2008 the Psychological Society of Ireland's Division of Work and Organizational Psychology established a Coaching Psychology Group to further develop coaching psychology as a psychological sub-discipline.

There are now a number of universities worldwide who offer degrees in both coaching and coaching psychology. Since the introduction in 2000 of the first postgraduate degree in coaching psychology at Sydney University, Australia now has three universities offering masters-level coaching Degrees. In the UK there are at least ten Degree programs, with coaching psychology units established at City University and the University of East London, and doctoral-level mentoring and coaching programs at Oxford Brookes and Sheffield Hallam universities. The University of Copenhagen has also established a coaching psychology unit. Between Australia and the UK, there are at least nine university-accredited Masters Degrees in coaching psychology. In the US at least seven universities offer coaching degree programs, with an Institute of Coaching recently established at Harvard University. It appears that coaching is becoming increasingly accepted within academia. We anticipate that the availability of specialist university qualifications in coaching and coaching psychology will do much to raise the bar for the coaching industry.

Of course, both psychologists and non-psychologists have much to contribute to professional coaching (Bono et al., 2009). Indeed, the majority of coaching degrees are offered by faculties of business or education, rather than by schools of psychology. Psychology faces the challenge of engaging with the broader coaching industry to draw out it's strengths and provide a solid foundation for professional coaching practice and training (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2006). However, regardless of whether coaching is mainly conducted by psychologists or non-psychologists, or taught from schools of psychology or business, a solid professional foundation stems from a rigorous and coherent body of coaching-specific research (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007). We now turn to a consideration of the existing research.

Coaching Research

In reviewing the literature, the first coaching citations listed in PsycINFO are Gorby's (1937) report of senior staff coaching junior employees on how to save waste, and Bigelow's (1938) article on how best to implement a sales coaching program. Despite these early citations, contemporary research in the area of coaching is, in many ways, in its infancy. Unlike I/O and clinical psychology, where there exists a century of intensive theoretical and empirical research, the bulk of the literature on coaching is less than 10 years old.

As of May 2009, there were a total of 518 published scholarly papers and dissertations on coaching listed in PsycINFO. This figure includes life (or personal coaching) and executive and workplace coaching, and excludes papers on other applications of coaching such as: sports or athletic coaching, use of forensic, clinical or psychotherapeutic populations and educational coaching or coaching for faking on psychometric or educational tests.

The coaching literature has grown significantly in recent years. In the 62 years between 1937 and 1999 there were only 93 papers published, whereas between 2000 and May 2009 a total of 425 papers were published. However, of the 499 papers published since 1980, 265 have been opinion papers, descriptive articles or theoretical discussions. There have also been 77 PhD dissertations, and only 186 empirical studies. Many of the published empirical papers are surveys (e.g., Coutu & Kauffman, 2009) or descriptive studies into the nature of executive coaching (e.g., Bono et al., 2009), surveys about different organizations' use of coaching (e.g., Douglas & McCauley, 1999; Vloeberghs, Pepermans, & Thielemans, 2005), or studies examining the characteristics of coach training schools (e.g., Grant & O'Hara, 2006). That is, most of the empirical literature to date is contextual or survey-based research about the characteristics of coaches and coachees, or about the

delivery of coaching services, rather than outcome research examining the efficacy of coaching as a methodology for creating individual or organizational change.

Outcome Studies

The first published empirical outcome study on workplace coaching in the psychology literature was Gershman's (1967) dissertation on the effects of specific factors of the supervisor-subordinate coaching climate upon improvement of attitude and performance of the subordinate. No other coaching outcome studies were published until Duffy's (1984) dissertation on the effectiveness of a feedback-coaching intervention in executive outplacement. In total, between 1908 and May 2009, there have been 156 outcome studies that have examined the effectiveness of coaching. There have been a total of 101 case studies, 39 within-subject studies and 16 between-subject studies.

Most of the 101 case studies in the coaching literature are purely descriptive, tending to emphasise practice-related issues rather than presenting rigorous evaluations of the coaching intervention. Very few of these case studies used well established quantitative measures (one exception is Libri & Kemp, 2006). The 39 within-subject studies represent the largest single methodological approach to coaching outcome research. While within-subject studies can provide useful quantitative data and allow for the use of inferential statistics, randomised controlled studies are frequently held to represent best practice in researching the impact of specific interventions.

Randomised Controlled Studies

Only 11 of the 16 between-subject outcome studies used a randomised controlled design (Deviney, 1994; Duijts, Kant, van den Brandt, & Swaen, 2008; Gattellari et al., 2005; Grant, 2002; Grant, Frith, & Burton, in press; Green, Grant, & Rynsaardt, 2007; Green, Oades, & Grant,

2006; Miller, Yahne, Moyers, Martinez, & Pirritano, 2004; Spence, Cavanagh, & Grant, 2008; Spence & Grant, 2007; Taylor, 1997). Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) used random assignment to self, peer, or external coaching group, but did not use a no-intervention or placebo intervention control group. The 11 randomised controlled studies of coaching that have been conducted to date indicate that coaching can improve performance in various ways. Table 1 presents summaries of the 16 between-subject studies.

Table 1: Summary Table of Between-subjects Studies to 2009

Study	Intervention Overview	Type of Study	Key Findings
Miller (1990)	33 employees. Some received coaching by their managers over 4 weeks	Quasi-experimental field study (a) Coaching group; (b) control group	No sig. differences pre-post for interpersonal communication skills
Deviney (1994) *	45 line supervisors at a nuclear power plant. Some received feedback and coaching from their managers over 9 weeks	Randomised controlled study (a) Feedback plus coaching, (b) Feedback with no coaching, (c) Control group	No sig. differences in pre-post feedback behaviour
Taylor (1997) *	Participants undergoing a Medical College Admission Test preparation course	Randomised controlled study (a) Training only; (b) Coaching only; (c) Training plus coaching; (d) Control group	Coaching reduced stress more than training
Grant (2002) *	62 trainee accountants received group coaching over one semester	Randomised controlled study (a) Cognitive coaching only; (b) Behavioral coaching only; (c) Combined cognitive and behavioral coaching; (d) Control groups for each condition	Combined cognitive and behavioral coaching most effective in increasing grade point average, study skills, self-regulation, and mental health. GPA gains maintained in 12 month follow-up
Miller, Yahne, Moyers, Martinez & Pirritano (2004) *	140 Licensed substance abuse professionals learnt Motivational Interviewing via a range of methods	Randomised controlled study (a) Workshop only; (b) Workshop plus feedback; (c) Workshop plus coaching; (d) Workshop, feedback, and coaching; or (e) Waitlist control group	Relative to controls, the 4 trained groups had gains in proficiency. Coaching and/or feedback increased post-training proficiency

Sue-Chan & Latham (2004)	53 MBA students in two studies in Canada and Australia	Random assignment (a) External coach; (b) Peer coach or (c) Self-coached	Study 1: External coaching associated with higher team playing behavior than peer coaching; Study 2: External and self coaching associated with higher grades than peer coaching

Study	Intervention Overview	Type of Study	Key Findings
Gattellari, M., N. Donnelly, et al. (2005) *	277 GPs in total. Some received 2 phone-based peer coaching sessions integrated with educational resources	Randomised controlled study (a) Peer coaching and educational resources; (b) Control group	Compared to controls, peer coaching increased GPs ability to make informed decisions about prostate-specific antigen screening
Gyllensten & Palmer (2005)	31 participants from UK finance organization	Quasi-experimental field study (a) Coaching group; (b) Control group	Anxiety and stress decreased more in the coaching group compared to control group
Evers, Brouwers & Tomic (2006)	60 managers of the federal government	Quasi-experimental field study (a) Coaching group; (b) Control group	Coaching increased outcome expectancies' and self-efficacy
Green, Oades & Grant (2006) *	56 adults (community sample) took part in SF-CB life coaching program	Randomised controlled study (a) Group-based life coaching; (b) Waitlist control	Coaching increased goal attainment, well-being, and hope. 30-week follow-up found gains were maintained
Green, Grant & Rynsaardt (2007) *	56 female high school students took part in SF-CB life coaching program for 10 individual coaching sessions over 2 school terms	Randomised controlled study (a) Coaching group; (b) Waitlist control group	Coaching increased cognitive hardiness, mental health and hope
Spence & Grant (2007) *	63 adults (community sample) took part in SF-CB life coaching program	Randomised controlled study (a) Professional coaching group; (b) Peer coaching group; (c) Waitlist control group	Professional coaching more effective in increasing goal commitment, goal attainment and environmental mastery
Duijts, Kant, van den Brandt & Swaen (2008) *	Dutch employees assessed for the effectiveness of a preventive coaching program on sickness absence due to psychosocial health complaints and on wellbeing	Randomised controlled study: (a) 6 month course of preventive coaching; (b) control group	Significant improvements in health, life satisfaction, burnout, psychological wellbeing but no improvement in self-reported sickness absence

outcomes

Study	Intervention Overview	Type of Study	Key Findings
Spence, Cavanagh, & Grant (2008) *	45 adults (community sample) took part in mindfulness-based health coaching over eight weeks	Randomised controlled study: (a) SF-CB coaching followed by mindfulness training (MT); (b) Mindfulness training followed by SF-CB coaching; (c) Health education only control group	Goal attainment greater in coaching than in the educative/directive format. No significant differences were found for goal attainment between the two MT/CB-SF conditions.
(Grant, Frith, & Burton, in press)*	41 executives in a public health agency received 360-degree feedback and four SF-CB coaching sessions over ten week period	Randomised controlled study (a) Coaching group; (b) Waitlist control group	Coaching enhanced goal attainment, resilience and workplace well-being and reduced depression and stress and helped participants deal with organisational change

Notes: SF-CB = Solution-focused cognitive behavioural; * = Randomised controlled study

Four of these 11 studies have been conducted in the medical or health work areas. Taylor (1997) found that solution-focused coaching fostered resilience in medical students. This study appears to be the first study reporting on the impact of solution-focused coaching. Solution-focused coaching is similar to Appreciative Inquiry (Cooperrider, Sorensen, Whitney, & Yaeger, 2000), in that it specifically focuses on the individual's strengths and goals, rather than taking a reductionist, diagnostic approach. Gattellari et al. (2005) found that peer coaching by General Practitioners improved coachees' ability to make informed decisions about prostate-specific antigen screening. Miller, Yahbe, Moyers, Martinez, and Pirritanol (2004) found that coaching with feedback was superior to a training-only condition, in a program designed to help clinicians learn motivational interviewing skills. (Spence et al., 2008) found that goal attainment in a health coaching program was greater in the coaching condition when compared to an education-only intervention.

Four outcome studies have been in the life (or personal) coaching domain, with community and student samples. These have indicated that coaching can improve indeed facilitate goal attainment, reduce anxiety and stress (Grant, 2003), and enhance psychological and subjective well-being (Green, Oades, & Grant, 2006; Spence & Grant, 2007) and resilience, while reducing depression, stress or anxiety (Green, Grant, & Rynsaardt, 2007).

There have been only two randomised controlled studies of workplace coaching. Deviney (1994) examined the efficacy of supervisors acting as internal workplace coaches, finding no changes in supervisors' feedback skills following a multiple-rater feedback intervention and coaching from their managers over nine weeks. Duijts et al., (2008) examined the effectiveness of coaching as a means of reducing sickness absence due to psychosocial health complaints. On wellbeing outcomes they found significant improvements in health, life satisfaction,

burnout, psychological wellbeing but no improvement in self-reported sickness absence; showing that coaching can enhance the general well being of employees.

There has been only one randomised controlled study of the effectiveness of executive coaching, with participants receiving 360 degree feedback followed by four sessions of executive coaching. The coaching was found to improve goal attainment, increase resilience, and reduce stress and depression (Grant et al., in press).

The paucity of randomised controlled outcome studies is perhaps the major shortcoming in the coaching literature. Although some might contest the practical utility of randomised controlled studies, they are held to be the 'gold standard' in quantitative outcome research (for discussion on this issue in relation to coaching, see Cavanagh & Grant, 2006). However, in 'real-life' field research, such as in coaching, genuine randomised allocation to intervention or control is often extremely difficult, if not impossible, to achieve. Because of this many coaching outcome studies have used single group, and 'pre-post within-subject' designs (e.g., Grant 2003, Jones, Rafferty, & Griffn, 2006; Olivero, Bane, & Kipelman, 1997; Orenstein, 2006).

There have been some quasi-experimental studies with pre-test and post-test comparisons and non-randomised allocation to an experimental or control group. Miller (1990) examined the impact of coaching on transfer of training skills, but the drawing of conclusions was restricted by a high participant drop-out rate: ninety-one participants began the study but only 33 completed the final measures. Gyllensten and Palmer (2005) found that, compared with a 'no-coaching' control group, coaching was associated with lower levels of anxiety and stress. Evers, Brouwers and Tomic (2006) found that executive coaching enhanced participants' self-efficacy and their beliefs in their ability to set personal

goals, but they did not measure actual goal attainment. Barrett (2007) used a quasi-experimental, modified 'post-test only' control group design. He concluded that group coaching reduced burnout but did not improve productivity.

Longitudinal Studies

To date there have been very few longitudinal studies. Those conducted indicated that coaching can indeed produce sustained change. Grant (2002) investigated the effects of cognitive, behavioural, and combined cognitive and behavioural coaching, and found that only the gains from the combined cognitive-behavioural coaching were maintained at a 6 month follow-up. In a 12 month follow-up, Miller et al. (2004) found coaching with feedback was superior to a training-only condition in maintaining clinicians' interviewing skills. Green, Oades and Grant (2006) found that gains from participation in a 10-week solution-focused cognitive-behavioural life coaching were maintained at a 30 week follow-up. Libri and Kemp (2006) provide a refreshing example of a well-designed case study of cognitive-behavioural executive coaching. Using an' A-B-A-B design with an 18 month follow-up, Libri and Kemp (2006) found that cognitive-behavioural coaching enhanced sales performance and the participants' core self-evaluations.

Measuring Outcomes of Coaching

This literature review suggests that coaching outcome research, as a relatively new area of study, may be moving through the 'natural' stages of research development, ie., from case study-based research, to 'within-subject' studies, and on to quasi-experimental and randomised controlled 'between-subject' designs. Indeed, the 55 outcome studies conducted to date provide a useful foundation for evidence of coaching effectiveness and the number of studies is on the increase. However, the issue of variation in the outcomes measures used in the

research needs to be addressed, in order to draw meaningful comparison between studies and develop a coherent body of knowledge about the effectiveness of coaching.

For executive coaching studies, the coaching outcomes and topics vary widely and include interpersonal skills, stress management, strategic thinking, time management, dealing with conflict, leadership and management styles, delegation, staffing issues and sales or financial performance (Bono et al., 2009). Not surprisingly the ways these study goals are measured also varies considerably. Following are some representative examples of outcome measures from the literature.

Executive Coaching Measures

In relation to executive coaching, Peterson (1993) provides an useful example of how to develop coaching assessments to suit the idiosyncratic goals of individual coaching clients. Peterson explored the effectiveness of an individualized coaching program for managers and executives using multiple customized rating inventories and rating scales based on each coachee's individual training objectives and also draws data from a number of raters. Similar techniques have been reported by Orenstein (2006).

Customised surveys, completed by the coachee, their direct reports, managers and/or peers, form the largest single group of outcome measures in executive coaching outcome research. For example, Jones, Rafferty and Griffin (2006) developed a customised self-report inventory based on aspects of transactional and transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994), and self-report measures of managerial flexibility. Although these measures were theoretically-grounded, no reliability or validity data (beyond face validity) was reported. Gravel (2007) investigated the efficacy of executive coaching workshops with High School principals using customised surveys that assessed time

spent on administrative tasks and overall job satisfaction. In a frequently cited study, Olivero, Bane, and Kopelman (1997) used behavioural, task-specific outcome measures (the timely completion of patient evaluation forms), to assess the relative impact of training and coaching. They reported that a combined coaching and training program was more effective than training alone.

Given that most executives participate in 360 degree assessments, and that such assessments are frequently used at the beginning of a coaching assignment in order to define the coaching goals (Coutu & Kauffman, 2009), it is surprising that more outcome studies do not use 360 assessments or validated leadership style assessments as outcome measures. Of those that did, Kampa-Kokesch (2002) used the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Bass & Avolio, 1990), a well-validated and widely-used leadership assessment tool (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996), to assess changes in leadership style. However, only coachees' self-ratings were taken following the coaching program. Thach (2002) used a customised 360 degree feedback tool which drew on previously-validated items to assess the impact of executive coaching collecting ratings from the coachees themselves, their mangers and their direct reports, finding that coaching increase leadership effectiveness. Thach (2002) conducted a number of additional analysis including exploring and reporting positive correlational relationships between the number of coaching sessions attended and increases in self-reported leadership effectiveness. Trathen (2008) used *CHOICES ARCHITECT®*, a research-based 360 tool designed to measure learning agility (Lominger, 2009), collecting data from both participates and their managers before and after coaching. The study found a meaningful and significance association between changes in leadership competencies and learning agility, among those participating in executive coaching.

Grant, Frith and Burton (in press) report on a randomised controlled study of executive coaching in the health industry using the following measures: the Human Synergistics Life Styles Inventory (LSI; Lafferty, 1989) for 360 degree feedback, the Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995), the Workplace Well-being Index (WWBI; Page, 2005) and goal attainment scaling where participants set personal goals and rated their goal progression before and after the coaching intervention. Coaching was associated with improved outcomes on these measures.

An issue in using 360 degree assessments is the time consuming and challenging process of data collection, as it involves coordinating employees and senior executives at multiple time points. Nevertheless, when reliable and well-validated 360 tools are used, such research is important for the advancement of coaching and we recommend that more research is conducted along these lines.

Workplace and Personal Coaching Measures

A similarly diverse pattern emerges from outcome literature on workplace coaching with non-executive employees. For example, Sergio (1987) evaluated a coaching intervention which aimed to modify six specific behaviours of 24 male forming-machine operators in a mid-sized fastener manufacturing organization. The outcome measures were observed behaviours, and most importantly, a reduction in actual wasted material.

Duijts, Kant, van den Brandt and Swaen (2008) conducted an unusual randomised controlled study into the impact of coaching on employees' sickness absence due to psychosocial health complaints and general employee wellbeing. Well-validated self-report measures were used including: the Short Form Health Survey (Ware & Sherbourne, 1992), the General Health Questionnaire (Koeter & Ormel, 1991), the

Dutch Questionnaire on Perception and Judgment of Work (Veldhoven & Meijmen, 1994), and the Dutch version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Schaufeli & Dierendonck, 2000).

In a quasi-experimental study examining the impact of workplace coaching on mental health with finance industry employees, Gyllensten and Palmer (2005) used the DASS (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995) as an outcome measure and found that levels of anxiety and stress decreased more in the coaching group compared to a control group, and were also lower in the coaching group compared to the control group at the end of the study.

Evers, Brouwers, and Tomic (2006) report on an executive coaching intervention with managers of the US federal government using self-report measures of self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies which were linked to three central domains of functioning: setting one's own goals, acting in a balanced way and mindful living and working.

Outcome measures in coaching studies conducted in non-work settings are also varied and include: body mass index (Zandvoort, Irwin, & Morrow, 2009), personality inventories (Norlander, 2002), and goal self-concordance (Burke & Linley, 2007) as well as measures of mental health (Spence & Grant, 2007), well-being (Green et al., 2007), and self-refection and insight (e.g., Grant, 2008).

Of course it is important that outcome measure are purposefully aligned with individual clients' goals, and given that coaching is a highly individualised human change methodology (Kauffman & Bachkirova, 2008), it is inevitable that outcome measures will vary considerably between studies. However, over-use of idiosyncratic measures means that it is difficult for a coherent body of knowledge to develop over time.

One important direction for future research will the be the increased use of validated and psychometrically reliable measures (Passmore, 2008).

Validated Measures

Given that coaching is frequently promoted as being effective as a means of enhancing goal attainment and well-being (e.g., Levine, Kase, & Vitale, 2006; Passmore & Gibbes, 2007), it is surprising that few studies have used well-validated measures of mental health and well-being, despite the fact that there are many such measures designed for use in non-clinical populations; for example, the Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995), the Psychological Well-being Scale (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) and the Cognitive Hardiness Scale (Nowack, 1990).

Goal attainment is an important outcome measure in coaching. However, few outcome studies have measured the impact of coaching on goal attainment. Goal attainment scaling (GAS) techniques offer a useful methodologies for measuring goal progression towards predetermined objective success benchmarks (see Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006), and the broader use of GAS could provide a means of making comparisons between studies. Goal Attainment Scaling could also help address the serious limitations of the few studies that have examined return on investment in coaching using subjective post-coaching ratings of success (e.g., McGovern et al., 2001). For a comprehensive discussion of the use of GAS in coaching see Spence (2007).

Is Return On Investment 'the' Benchmark for Coaching Success?

Return on Investment (ROI) is often presented as the most important indicator of success in organizational coaching. Return on investment data, calculated using metrics such as growth in market share, profitability or sales, is frequently used by coaching and consulting organizations as a marketing tool in order to promote their coaching services. Return on investment figures of 788% (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001) and 545% (McGovern et al., 2001) are commonly reported as being '*the*' ROI for executive coaching.

In essence, return on investment is calculated by subtracting the costs of coaching from the estimated value of the outcomes of coaching and then expressing this as a percentage (estimated coaching benefits – costs of coaching / costs of coaching x 100%).There are different variations on this formula; for example, deliberately underestimating the financial return figure, thereby producing a 'conservative' estimate, or including a rating of the coachee's level of confidence that all or some of the perceived benefits were in fact due to coaching.

However, while ROI can provide some indications about the impact of a specific coaching intervention, we argue that it has serious limitations as a key benchmark outcome measure for coaching effectiveness. Reducing the benefits of coaching to a single monetary figure may give a sense of comfort and some reassurance to the purchasers of coaching services, but does it truly measure the impact of coaching? We do not think so.

It is important to note that the ROI metric depends on two things: 1) the amount charged by the coach and the total costs of the coaching intervention, and 2) the financial benefit obtained. Using an extreme example; company X employs a coach who charges $5,000 for the coaching engagement. The coach works with an executive who is working on a project that will net $10 million profit. The deal is completed,

and the executives estimates that 50% of the result is due to the coach's input (and let us assume that this estimate is fair and accurate). In this case ROI is 99,900%. Can we now say that *"the"* ROI for executive coaching is in the region of 99,900%? Of course not!

The key factor in determining a ROI figure is the degree to which revenue can be attributed to the actual work of the coachee. Return on investment calculations tend to ignore the impact of other variables such as market context and team input. Furthermore, while organizations often seek to improve financial performance via coaching, such measures are typically not the direct focus of coaching interventions, and the estimated benefits often represent highly spurious and contextually-bound variables. In addition, it is often extremely difficult to delineate specific causal relationships between a coaching intervention and improvements in organizational metrics. Moreover, while there can be reasonable certainty about the direct costs of coaching, indirect costs (e.g. opportunity costs) tend not to be included. It should be noted that these issues have not been factored into ROI studies to date.

If such factors can be accounted for, at best a ROI metric can only be indicative of a single specific coaching engagement. In order to meaningfully compare ROI across different coaching studies, all facets of the coaching engagement must be similar across the studies, including coaching costs and most importantly the opportunities that the executive has to shape the outcomes of the revenue stream. Because of these factors we argue that the ROI metric is of very limited validity, unless such issues are specifically addressed.

It must also be noted that virtually all the ROI research that we examined was conducted by organizations that supply coaching services, or the human resources professionals that employ them to provide coaching services to their organization. Also, much of what is presented as research or case studies appeared to be more like marketing material promoting a specific proprietary coaching service than a

rigorous scientific evaluation (e.g., Rock & Donde, 2008). Thus, as is often the case with unsupervised practitioner research, there may be unstated vested interests in emphasizing commercial success and reporting 'value for money'. Of course, this is not to imply deliberate misreporting of results. Rather it suggests that there may be unintended demand characteristics at play which bias participants' responses and the way that data is reported and interpreted. For example, the Rock and Donde (2008) paper claims an ROI of 17 times the organizational investment, yet beyond reporting a single "dollarised RIO" amount (p. 79) Rock and Donde provide no details of how this figure was calculated. For this reason we argue that such research should be interpreted with some caution.

A potentially positive development is that ROI research is now being conducted by coaching industry bodies such as the ICF. The ICF Global Coaching Client Survey (e.g., ICF, 2009a) surveyed 2,165 clients in 64 countries on a range of issue related to coaching, including ROI. It was found that 40% of respondents indicated that they had experienced a financial change (either personally or in their business) as a result of coaching (It should be noted that not all of the coaching was directed towards monetary gain). The median reported ROI for organizational coaching was 700%. A distinguishing point is that the study was conducted through the International Survey Unit of PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) who carried out the primary fieldwork for the research. The survey did not control for individual differences in clients' abilities to generate income, or identity if ROI was indeed a focus point of the coaching intervention. Despite the fact that bodies such as the ICF have a vested interest in the outcome, the involvement of well-known independent professional services firms such as PwC has the potential to increase perceived rigour in this field.

Competencies of Effective Coaches and Coachees

Competencies have emerged as critical tools for appraisals, learning and development, and recruitment in organizations (Rodriguez, Patel, Bright, Gregory, & Gowing, 2002; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Clearly, the identification of the key competencies of effective coaches is important for coach education and training, and the coaching literature reflects this trend.

Hall, Otazo and Hollenbeck (1999) identified a range of coaching behaviours, skills and attributes that coachees found helpful. These included core empathy building skills, particularly good listening skills. Other factors contributing to the effectiveness of coaches include the coach's level of credibility and confidence (Hall et al., 1999; Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004), the coach displaying authenticity and integrity and showing a willingness to probe and challenge the coachee (Gonzalez, 2004). In addition, many coachees find that the coach's ability to use their own personal career experience to inform the coaching process to be a valuable skill (Hall, et al, 1999), and this may be particularly important for coaches acting in an executive consultancy or advisory role.

Other important factors that have been indentified include establishing clear boundaries with the client, acting to preserve confidentiality, and working flexibly to meet coachees' needs (Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996). In addition some researchers have emphasised the importance of the coach being able to work from a psychodynamic perspective (i.e., with the client's unconscious impulses and motivations; e.g. Kilburg, 2004)

Exploring senior executives' view on what makes executive coaching effective Passmore (2008) found that executives hold strong opinions about what works in coaching. The factors identified included the coach's ability to manage emotions, their flexibility in moving between being challenging and supporting, being able to stimulate reflection and problem solving, setting between-session client action steps (sometimes known as homework), and helping the coachee develop alternative points of view.

There have been a number of attempts to place these behaviours, skills and attributes within a competency model. Ahern (2003) outlined a competency model for use by executive coaches based on a quadrate matrix, with business competence (high and low) and coaching competence (high and low) forming the two dimensions. What is interesting about Ahern's model in relation to coaching is its emphasis on the coach having high levels of business competence in the form of business sector knowledge and commercial awareness. This stands in contrast to the approaches to coaching that argue that the coachee, should be the expert and the coach should play the role of a facilitator rather than advice-giver (Whitmore, 1992).

However, although the above work on competencies is very useful, apart from Ahern's model, most of this work treats coaching as a monolithic or uni-dimensional change methodology. In reality there are many different applications of coaching, and these different applications demand different skills sets of the coach. Yet it is difficult to find truly comprehensive work that links specific coaching applications (for example, skills, performance or development coaching) to specific competency sets and it is important for the development of the field that such work be undertaken.

The professional coaching bodies have also engaged with the competency issue to set standards for coaching. Perhaps the most comprehensive perspective to date is the EMCC coaching competencies (EMCC, 2005) which were developed through an extensive Europe-wide consultative process, drawing on both expert and practitioners' experiences (see Table 2 for a summary).

Table 2: European Mentoring and Coaching Council Competency Framework

Self
Self belief
Self awareness
Self development
Self management

Values & Coaching Approach
Belief in others
Integrity
Valuing diversity
Political awareness
Flexible approach

Cognitive Skills
Problem solving
Systems thinking
Assessment skills
Knowledge base integration

Domain Specific Knowledge, Expertise & Focus
Therapeutic approaches
Corporate knowledge
Psychological models
Management expertise
Leadership expertise
Organization development
Learning theory
Artistic skills
Business focus

The Processes of Coaching
Building the relationship
Maintaining the relationship
Session management
Evaluating process
Evaluating outcome
Contracting & Record keeping
Review process
Transfer of learning
Development planning
Terminating the relationship
Evaluating practice

Communication skills
Listening skills & Empathy
Promoting understanding
Asking questions & Giving Feedback
Communication style

Facilitating
Goal focused and achievement
Supporting independence
Working with attitudes
Developing internal motivation
Advice & advocacy

Professionalism & building a practice
Professional practice
Continuing Professional Development
Business development & Professional discipline

Copyright (c) 2005 EMCC. Reproduced by kind permission of the publisher (Source: EMCC, 2005)
Further details available at www.emccouncil.org

Grant, A. M., Passmore, J. Cavanagh, M. J. & Parker, H. (2010). *The State of Play in Coaching Today: A Comprehensive Review of the Field*. Annual Review of Industrial & Organizational Psychology. Chichester: Wiley

The British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology (BPS SGCP, 2007a, 2007b) has also undertaken work on coaching competencies, as part of a wider project to establish clear accreditation standards for UK coaching psychologists. This work has been expert led, and based on a meta-analysis of previous research and personal experience. The BPS SGCP model divides coaching competencies into four broad clusters:

- Professional autonomy and accountability of the coaching psychologist
- The application of coaching psychology practice in enhancing well being and performance
- The knowledge, understanding and skills that underpin the education and training of coaching psychologists
- Effectiveness of the coach-client relationship

Reflecting past work in the psychotherapeutic arena (e.g., Horvath & Symonds, 1991), aspects of coach-coachee relationship or working alliance have also been examined. Key factors related to successful coaching outcomes indentified thus far include a collaborative style of working, being friendly without becoming a friend, maintaining coachee confidences (Jones & Spooner, 2006), providing candid feedback and fostering self awareness in the coachee (Luebbe, 2005), and ensuring that the coaching conversation focuses completely on the coachee's needs (Hall, et al, 1999; Jones & Spooner, 2006). Additionally, Bush (2005) highlighted the importance of the coachee's commitment to the process. Along similar lines, Marshall (2007), in a critical incident study based on a sample of over 100 coaches, suggested that key factors in

the coaching relationship which contributed to successful outcomes were a connection between the coach and client, unconditional positive regard, the coach selection process, client accountability, openness and motivation on the part of both parties and the tacit knowledge of the coach.

More recently the role of personality in coaching has been examined. Stewart, Palmer, Wilkin, and Kerrin (2008) found conscientiousness, openness to experience and emotional stability were related to the transfer of developmental insights from coaching into the workplace, and suggested that personality measures may have value as a means of identifying coachees who may require support in order to make manifest the learnings developed in the coaching session. For additional discussion of the central importance of the coaching relationship for ensuring positive outcomes, see Gyllensten and Palmer (2005).

The above work on competencies has yet to coherently inform the teaching of coaching and coaching psychology at university level; there are a wide variety of competency frameworks underpinning university degrees. For example, the University of Sydney courses make reference to both the ICF and the BPS SGPC competency frameworks. The courses offered at the University of East London's Coaching Psychology Unit also draw on the BPS SGPC competency framework. The programs taught at Oxford Brookes University draw on the EMCC competency model, and the Master of Business Coaching taught at the University of Wollongong places significant emphasis on a generic ethical business practice and competency framework rather than a set of EMCC or ICF coach-specific competencies.

Of course, in part this is due to variance in the taught content of the courses. The courses at the University of Sydney and the University of East London emphasise the psychology of coaching, the Oxford Brookes University programs are grounded in models of adult learning and

mentoring, and the University of Wollongong program is specifically designed to produce business coaches and consultants. However, this lack of a common underpinning competency framework is also indicative of the relative infancy of the field.

One sign of maturation in the field will be the development and adoption of common educational standards and competencies in university level education. The work on developing a common set of teaching standards and competencies for executive coaching being done by the GSAEC in the US, is an important indication of how coach education at university level can be further developed.

Research Directions

Two questions about the future of coaching emerge from this review: What are the main foci of organizational coaching research, and what are trends that will shape the future of coaching in organizations?

The answer to the first question, "where should coaching research focus its efforts?" is wide open. While coaching, and particularly coaching psychology, is connected to more than a century of psychological theory, research and development, the coaching field is still in its infancy and the potential research agenda is vast. Nevertheless, we argue that three basic areas of research focus are needed and are emerging.

Firstly, there is a clear need to focus on conducting well-deigned outcome studies. These should include large-scale efficacy studies of both internal and external coaching in the enhancement of goal attainment and performance. Multiple studies using randomised controlled

methodologies are required to assess the effects of numerous contextual variables, and establish what kinds of coaching interventions work best in specific organizational settings.

However, while these methodologies would certainly contribute to the knowledge-base, it is also important that researchers embrace a range of investigative paradigms. In many coaching contexts, randomised controlled methodologies are simply not feasible. Indeed, such approaches may well not be suitable for coaching populations where coachees are working on attaining highly personal and individualistic goals. By taking coaching research further into the laboratory we may well overly 'sanitise' the research process, loosing the very data we seek to examine. Thus, in some situations well-designed single cases studies using relevant pre- and post-measures may be more appropriate, and we would certainly encourage research along these lines.

Boundary Issues

The second focus for research is the boundary between coaching and other forms of organizational and psychological intervention. This includes the boundaries between coaching and organizational development, and research into the differential effectiveness of coaching compared to training. The most often quoted study on the relative impact of coaching and training is that by Olivero, Bane and Kopelman (1997). Using a quasi-experimental design they found training increased productivity by 22.4 percent, whereas training followed by eight weeks of one-on-one coaching enhanced increased productivity by 88 per cent. Little rigorous research has been conducted since, to assess more fully the value of coaching over and above training.

As mentioned, an area that requires conceptual and empirical clarification is the boundary between the work of professional coaches who coach in organizational contexts, and the work of Organizational Development (OD) and Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals who use coaching as a means of facilitating organizational change (Hamlin, Ellinger, & Beattie, 2008). In fact, differentiating between the work conducted by professional coaches in an organizational context and the work of OD and HRD professionals is extremely difficult (Hamlin, Ellinger, & Beattie, 2009).

Firstly, this is because many definitions of HRD have a high degree of convergence with definitions of coaching. For example, Hamlin (cited in Hamlin et al., 2009; p.20) defines HRD as;

> "… planned activities and processes designed to enhance organizational and individual learning, develop human potential, maximize organizational effectiveness and performance, and bring about effective and beneficial change within and beyond the boundaries of organizations"

This definition aligns quite closely with the International Coach Federation's definition of coaching (ICF, 2009b) as;

> "… partnering with clients in a thought-providing and creative process that inspires them to maximise their personal potential. It is an ongoing relationship which focuses clients on taking action towards the realisation of their visions, goals or desires."

Secondly, the actual practice of professional coaches in organizational contexts and the practice of OD and HRD professional is very similar, and in some cases, may in fact be identical. The potential overlap between professional coaching and OD and HRD professionals is exemplified in Schein's (1969) notion of process consulting**.**

Brown and Harvey (2006) estimate that 80% of OD practitioners use Schein process consulting methodologies, and that process consulting is the most often-used OD skill set. The central emphasis in process consulting is on facilitating the self-directed learning and growth of the client, and this emphasis is echoed in the majority of coaching philosophies (Whitmore, 1992).

Process consulting is based on the notion that the primary role of the process consultant is to 'help the human system to help itself', and this can be contrasted with more directive approaches such as the consultant as 'expert' (the selling and telling model), and the consultant as 'diagnostician' (the doctor – patient model). In process consulting these are not discontinuous approaches, and interventions generally start with the development of the helping relationship, then proceed into a joint diagnosis phase (consultant and client), and then into various specific interventions.

The majority of interventions in process consulting are conducted in group settings, and Schein refers to these group processes as 'facilitation'. Process consultants also conduct interventions on an individual level, and Schein refers to these individual processes as 'coaching'. In fact, Schein specifically defines coaching as working with individuals, and sees coaching very much as a subset of process consulting, with the coach moving between the same three stages, expert, diagnostician and process consultant as required (for a discussion on how this relates to the role of the executive coach see Chapman, Best, & Van Casteren, 2003).

Schein views the role of coaching as establishing behaviours that helps the client to develop new ways of seeing, feeling, and behaving in problematic situations. Schein's approach is to coach the individual so that the individual is then able to influence the broader organizational system (for discussion on the similarities and differences between group facilitation and group coaching see Brown and Grant, in press).

Thus one key distinction between understandings of OD and HRD and professional coaching in organizational contexts may well be that professional coaching tends to be focused at the individual level, where the work of OD and HRD professionals tends to be more aligned with organization-level change.

Most importantly, distinctions between the work of OD and HRD professionals and professional coaches will also depend to a great extent on which type of coaching is being referred to, as well as whether the coaching is primary aimed at systems or individual level change. For example, developmental executive coaching with a coachee who is at risk of derailment due to an over-controlling leadership style, may well require a specialised skill set that does not fall within the training afforded to OD and HRD professionals. In addition, workplace coaching which draws on domain-specific knowledge (such as sales skills coaching) may well fall outside of the OD and HRD professional's remit. One example here is the kind of coaching that is conducted in the field by sales managers with sales representatives during customer service calls.

Of course, if coaching is conducted completely outside of the organizational or workplace context and focuses on non-work related issues, it becomes far easier to distinguish between the work of professional coaches, and the work of OD and HRD professionals. Thus, there are a number of differences between these modalities. However, it is clear that far more work needs to be conducted in relation to clarifying the

boundaries between the role of the OD and HRD professional and the professional coach, and this will be important in further developing theoretical and practice frameworks for coaching, as well as better meeting clients' needs.

Of particular importance for future research is boundary between coaching and therapy. This issue came to the fore following the publication of Berglas's (2002) oft-cited article on the potential dangers of psychologically untrained executive coaches inadvertently reinforcing unhealthy behaviours patterns in those they coach.

However, while this issue is often mentioned in the coaching literature, very little empirical research has examined the prevalence of mental health issues in coaching clients. There has been some mental health-related data published in relation to studies of life coaching clients. Green, Oades and Grant (2006) and Spence and Grant (2007) found clinically significant levels of mental distress in 52% and 26% of participants seeking life coaching in their studies respectively.

It is probable that those presenting for executive and workplace coaching will have a different mental health profile than people presenting for free life coaching as part of a research study, but little specific research has been conducted into the mental health of executive and workplace coaching clients. Based on our experience, we believe that mental health issues are indeed an important consideration in coaching and that coaches therefore need to be able to identify potential mental health issues and make sound judgements as to when the a coachee should be referred for specialist mental health care. Hence coaches need to be aware of the features and presentation style of both mood and personality disorders in coaching settings (Cavanagh, 2005). Currently, research into the prevalence and presentation of the full range of mood disorders and personality disorders in coaching is sorely needed.

Impact in Organizations

The third focus for research is into the impact of coaching on organizations. We suggest that this should go well beyond merely examining the ROI for coaching programs, and into the way that organizational coaching interventions effect a wide range of variables including workplace well-being, organizational performance, intra-personal communication styles, and organizational culture itself. Thus such research should span the impact of coaching interventions not just on the individuals, but on different groups and workplace teams, whole organizations as well as the wider community. In this way, coaching can be assessed as a developmental methodology to see if it has the potential to create stronger, more resilient individuals, organizations, and communities.

As regards the second question "What are the trends that will shape the future of coaching in organizations?" We anticipate that research into the use of coaching as a methodology for facilitating organizational change will continue. We expect that the use of both executive and workplace coaching will increase, with an emphasis on developing internal coaches, and that coaching will become increasingly used as a means of facilitating organization wide change with a new emphasise on driving cultural change. Indeed, such interventions are being reported in the professional and trade media (e.g., Anderson, Anderson, & Mayo, 2008) (for further discussion on an agenda for coaching research see Bennett, 2006)

The needs of organizational performance and organizational cultural change will continue to shape the type of research conducted in executive and workplace coaching. Hence aside from research into ROI and general individual and organizational performance measures, we expect that there will be greater levels of research into the interplay between complex systems dynamics and coaching. The use of complexity

theory in relation to organizations is well established (for examples see Stacey, 2000; Waldrop, 1992; Wheatley, 1999), but its application to coaching is more recent (Cavanagh, 2006).

Networking theory is an emerging science that has great potential and clear application to coaching in organizational contexts. This area of theoretical development focuses on the dynamics which shape connectivity in complex natural networks such as cells, organs and ecosystems, and social networks such as organizations, professional networks, the internet, and even terrorist groups (Kilduff, Crossland, Tsai, & Krackhardt, 2009). The application of both complexity and network theories would seem to be a fertile avenue of research for coaching, given that one of the major foci of coaching interventions is the enhancement of communications within and across social and organizational networks.

How could the impact of coaching interventions in organizational settings be measured within these approaches? One answer may be to adapt the social-network analysis methodologies used by Cross, Baker and Parker (2003) who explored the 'energy networks', which are the extent to which relationships and interactions were perceived as being energising or de-energising.

Cross et al (2003) used a case-based approach informed by perspectives from social-network analysis, charismatic leadership, motivation, role theory and goal-setting theory, conducting interviews with members of the social and organizational networks with each member rating others whom they perceived to be energising or de-energising (using a simple 1 to 5 rating scale). Their aim was to examine if the levels of positive energy in networks are truly related to organizational performance and learning, and to explore the way energy is created and transferred in groups. The semi-structured interviews allowed them to create an 'energy map' of the social and organizational networks,

and then to relate the perceived levels of energy to actual performance indicators. Some of their key findings were that high energisers were themselves high performers, high energisers facilitated high performance in others, and not surprisingly, high energisers got more effort and commitment from those around them.

This methodology could be used in coaching by surveying organizational networks and collecting data on a range of variables before and after a coaching intervention. In this way it might be possible to develop representations of how the communication, relationship and energy dynamics change following individual or group coaching.

New Directions

The past two decades have seen renewed interest in areas of psychological research which were previously viewed as being scientifically marginal. For example, there has been increasing interest in both the clinical and positive psychology literature in mindfulness meditation and the intentional use of attention (e.g., Shapiro, 2009). We expect that the use of mindfulness and other metacognitive techniques in coaching will become an increasing focus of research (for exploration of the use of metacognition and mindfulness in coaching, see Collard & Walsh, 2008; Passmore & Marianetti, 2007; Spence et al 2008).

Coaching is also increasingly being viewed as an applied arm of the positive psychology movement (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007). As both coaching and positive psychology develop we anticipate that there will be a greater cross-pollination of ideas, models of practice, and research between them, and that such interactions will be of benefit to both psychological sub-disciplines. Indeed, both Seligman (2007) and Kauffman

(2006) argue that positive psychology research can help to scientifically ground the field of coaching, proposing that that "positive psychology theory and research will provide the scientific legs upon which the field of coaching can firmly stand" (Kauffman, 2006; p.221).

A Positive Future?

The focal point of I/O psychology is the role of psychological theory and practice in the service of organizational goals. Organizational psychologists seek to "enhance organizational effectiveness, productivity and individual wellbeing… [by applying] psychological principles and methods to understand and influence work behaviour and attitudes, and organizational structures" (APS, 2008). The occupational psychology division of the British Psychological Society (BPS) is concerned with "…the performance of people at work and in training, with developing an understanding of how organizations function and how individuals and groups behave at work. (We) aim…to increase effectiveness, efficiency and satisfaction at work" (BPS, 2009). Such a stance clearly resonates with the emerging positive psychology agenda. This agenda focuses on the scientific study of optimal human functioning, with the aim of discovering the factors that allow individuals, organizations, communities and societies to thrive and flourish (Keyes & Haidt, 2003; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

A recent related development is the emerging Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS) movement (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). The aims of POS are to understand the organizational dynamics and factors that foster strengths, resilience, and well-being and to explore ways of facilitating the emergence of excellence and positive human change in organizational settings (see Cameron & Caza, 2004). Thus, the focus on well-being, functionality and performance central to the I/O agenda receives even greater explicit emphasis within POS. We anticipate

that a conjunction of POS and I/O will provide an important framework for coaching in organizational settings. Indeed, a number of authors have already explored this issue (e.g., Boyatzis, Smith, & Blaize, 2006; Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

However, as in much of the positive psychology literature, the POS literature tends to report theoretical, cross-sectional or correlational research rather than research based on interventions specifically designed to enhance workplace well-being and individual or organizational performance (e.g., Luthans, 2002; Muse, Harris, Giles, & Feild, 2008; Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005; Wright, 2003; Zhong, 2007). We think that evidence-based approaches to coaching will prove to be an important methodology for applying the insights developed in such cross-sectional or correlational research.

A Well-being and Engagement Framework for Organizational Coaching

How can we draw on the present literature with the aim of using organizational coaching as applied positive psychology for enhancing performance and well-being in the workplace? The work engagement literature (e.g., Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) and recent work by Keyes (2003) on languishing and flourishing holds promise for a framework for organization coaching.

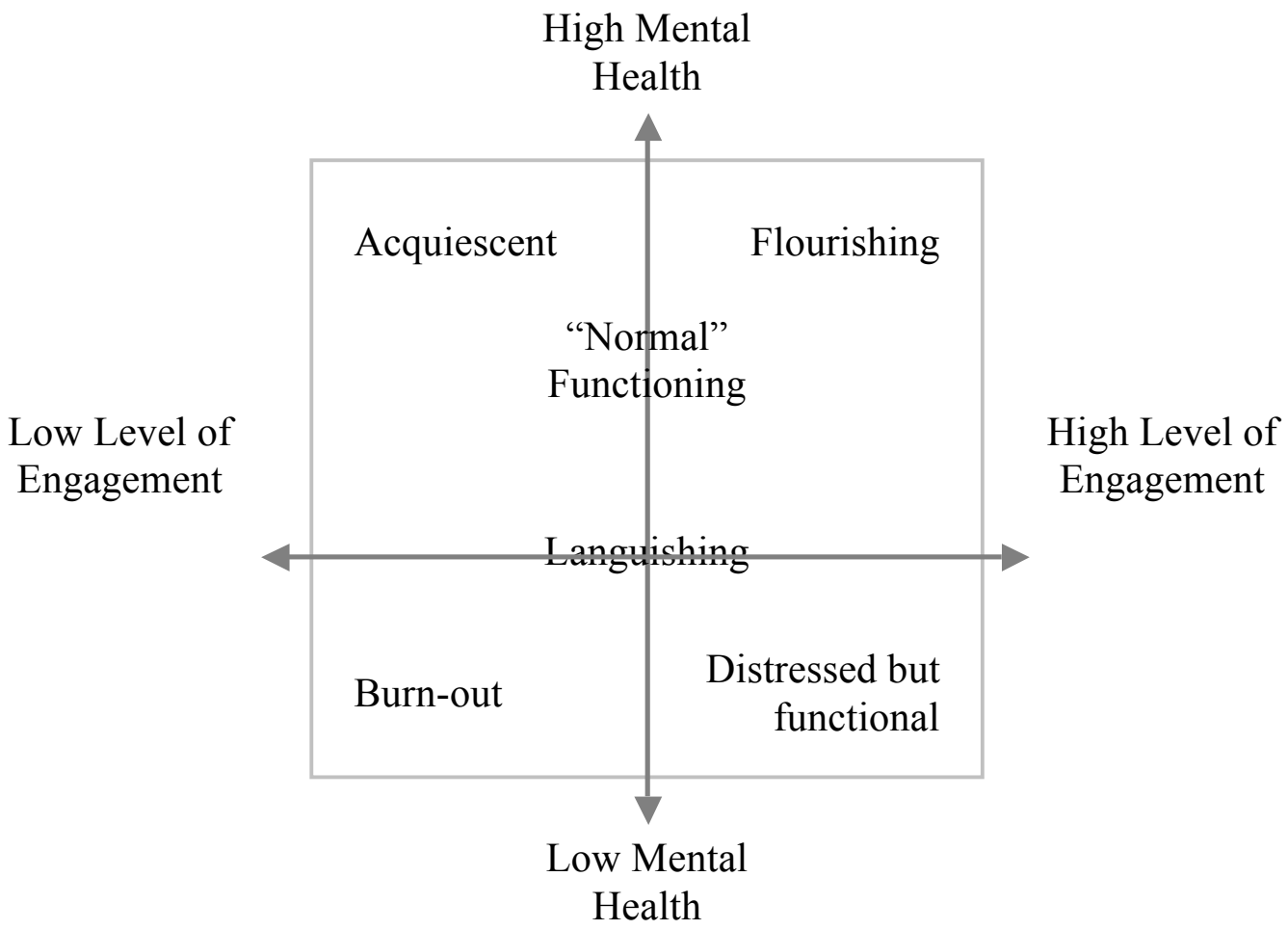
According to Keyes (2003) mental health is far more than the mere absence of mental illness symptoms. It is represented by high levels of psychological wellbeing, including self-acceptance, purpose in life, positive relations with others, environmental mastery, and autonomy (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Individuals high in mental health are designated as flourishing in life, whereas those low in mental health symptoms are designated as languishing.

Workplace or employee engagement is another important concept for organizational coaching that has emerged from I/O research. Conceived as the positive opposite of job burnout, workplace engagement can be understood as a state of high energy, strong involvement, and strong sense of commitment to the performance of work functions (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998).

The dimensional model outlined below is based on an assumption that organizational performance is closely related to the degree to which employees can be considering as flourishing or languishing in life (Wright & Cropanzano, 2004). As can be seen in Figure 1, the model has two dimensions: a *mental health* dimension (high-low) and a *workplace engagement* dimension (high-low).

It should be noted that the areas within this diagram are qualitatively representative only and are not meant to reflect the quantative distribution of individuals across the various quadrants.

Figure 1: A Well-being and Engagement Framework for Organisational Coaching



Grant, A. M., Passmore, J. Cavanagh, M. J. & Parker, H. (2010). *The State of Play in Coaching Today: A Comprehensive Review of the Field*. Annual Review of Industrial & Organizational Psychology. Chichester: Wiley

Area of flourishing

The area of flourishing is located in the upper right area of Figure 1, where individuals experience elevated mental health and high levels of engagement. For many this area is likely to represent the ideal (or target) state. One would expect individuals in this area to be highly involved with and absorbed in their work, have a well developed sense of work-related meaning and purpose, and enjoy positive relations with work colleagues. The concept of goal self-concordance is particularly relevant in this quadrant.

Self-concordance refers to degree to which individuals' goals are aligned with their developing interests and core values (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). When people set goals that are self-concordant, they feel a greater sense of ownership over these goals. Not surprisingly, this sense of ownership is associated with higher levels of goal striving and greater levels of well-being upon goal attainment (Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). We could therefore expect that, for individuals in this quadrant, work-related goals will be more self-concordant than for individuals in other quadrants, and such self-concordance will be related to commitment to the organization (see Bono & Judge, 2003).

Area of acquiescence

The upper left area of Figure 1 reflects the experience of individuals who have good mental health but relatively low levels of workplace engagement. The notion that individuals can have good levels of mental health and not be intentionally engaged with their workplace may sound somewhat incongruous. In the workplace, employees who acquiesce can be described as 'happy but disengaged', in the sense that they

might be physically and emotionally present but not actively engaged with the goals and day to day work of the organization. Although some individuals may well seek out work that does not demand such engagement, it may also happen that individuals in this quadrant may become increasingly cynical about their work over time, and thereby drift into a state of languishing.

Area of languishing

The area of languishing represents individuals who have low levels of well-being without elevated levels of depression, anxiety, and/or stress and with moderate levels of workplace engagement. Whilst individuals who are languishing may be trying to become more engaged and involved with their work (possibly with the assistance of a coach), in general their working lives are devoid of the energy, vigour, and resilience usually associated with high levels of workplace engagement and flourishing (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Area of the distressed but functional

The lower right area is the area of distressed but functional individuals who have relatively high levels of workplace engagement. This means that while these individuals may be highly functional in terms of work performance, they may also be dysthymic (a chronic form of depression which is less severe than major depression), highly anxious, or chronically stressed. Issues of mental health or mental illness here can range from moderately dysthymic or distressed to quite high levels of distress. This area represents an area of significant challenge for coaches who do not have clinical or counselling training (Cavanagh, 2005) because, contrary to popular belief, it is not always easy to identity depression or anxiety disorders particularly for those who are untrained in psychopathological diagnostics**.** In fact coachees in this area may not

even be aware that they have such mental health problems and are unlikely to request or seek out treatment. Rather, the coachee is more likely to present with issues related to motivation, time management, staff retention, or interpersonal communication difficulties; in other words, issues that appear on the surface to be appropriate to the coaching context.

Area of major psychopathology

The lower left area in the model is the area of major psychopathology. Here we find individuals with high levels of mental illness, which might include illness such as major depression, major anxiety disorders, serious chemical dependencies, self-defeating behavior patterns, or major personality disorders. In addition, clients in this area have very low levels of workplace engagement (i.e., they are experiencing major symptoms of job burnout including feelings of cynicism, low efficacy and exhaustion).

Although it may be argued that individuals in this area are not be suitable candidates for workplace coaching, some commentators have suggested that coaching might be a more acceptable alternative to therapy, especially for those who are resistant to therapy (Filippi, 1968; McKelley & Rochlen, 2007). Clearly, the boundaries between workplace coaching and therapy become dangerously blurred in this quadrant. Whilst a solid argument can be made in favour of trained mental health professionals using coaching methods to treat some forms of psychological disorder (e.g. schizophrenia, or depression), this would be ethically inappropriate for coaches or organizational psychologists who are not trained mental health professionals (Spence, Cavanagh, & Grant, 2006). With this caveat, we believe workplace coaching has great future potential as a methodology to enhance workplace engagement and well-being, and increase the performance and working environment of the contemporary workplace.

Research and practice using the Well-being and Engagement Framework

The Well-being and Engagement Framework (WEBF) presented above may prove to be a useful framework for future research and practice. As regards potential research, a number of interesting (although somewhat speculative) hypotheses flow from the framework. For example, individuals who are in the area of flourishing should have higher levels of self-concordance for work-related goals than those in the distressed but functional area. Individuals who are in the area of flourishing should also be more productive than those in the other three quadrants. We could also expect that team leaders who are themselves in the area of flourishing will tend to lead teams who are more productive and cohesive than those lead by team leaders who are themselves in the distressed but functional, or the acquiescent areas.

As regards implications for practice, on an organizational level, by using aggregate well-being and engagement metrics the WEBF might provide a useful heuristic from which to categorise work groups, managerial teams and even whole organizations, benchmarking the extent to which an organization is flourishing, languishing or in a collective state of psychological distress. On an individual level, the WEBF could provide a useful diagnostic tool to help determine whether individuals would benefit from counselling or coaching, and to help determine the focus of the coaching intervention; i.e., if the coach should be primarily aimed at reliving stress, increasing well-being, or enhancing engagement through the pursuit of workplace goals that are meaningful and poignant for the individual.

As yet there have been very few attempts to develop frameworks for organizational coaching that integrate goal striving, workplace engagement and well-being. We hope the ideas presented above stimulate thought, research and practice and help organizational coaching further develop.

Coaching and Coaching Psychology: A Shared Path Forward?

The foregoing review positions coaching as an academically immature but still emerging discipline. This is true of both the wider coaching industry and coaching psychology. Many of the challenges facing coaching are a function of its youth. As with all emerging areas of professional expertise, practice tends to precede the establishment of a sound theoretical and empirical foundation. Indeed, coaching practice has been largely disconnected from the peer reviewed literature. Until very recently, the literature on coaching has been spread thinly throughout the wider psychological and business journals. One of the challenges for researchers and theoreticians in coaching has been to establish effective platforms to facilitate the sharing of ideas and research. The journals emerging as key journals in the field find their foundations in a range of disciplines, including psychology, education and business. Such specialist journals include the 'International Coaching Psychology Review', 'Coaching: An International Journal of Theory Research and Practice' and the 'International Journal of Evidence-based Coaching and Mentoring'.

In coaching there is a large body of practitioner expertise and experience which is only now beginning to be reflected in this peer reviewed press. The future of coaching in moving from an industry toward a profession will be largely tied to the development of its theory and research base, and its ability to integrate theory are research from a range of disciplines relevant areas to human development, well being and productivity.

The boundaries between coaching as an emerging discipline of practice, and coaching psychology as a subdiscipline of psychology are unclear, and the place of psychology in the coaching market remains uncertain. It is becoming increasingly clear however, that there is a high

degree of interdependence between psychology and coaching, both in the marketplace and in practice development. The future for coaching psychologists and coaches more broadly, is likely to be intertwined. At the heart of any future is the quality of the knowledge base that is produced.

The imperative to develop a clear knowledge base and shared frameworks of practice, education, and professional standards has not been lost on the wider coaching industry. There are many initiatives currently afoot to increase common points of reference. For example, the International Coach Federation and the European Mentoring and Coaching Council are attempting to develop common codes of ethics. In July 2008 representatives and leaders of many of the major coaching bodies around the world (including the ICF, EMCC and many psychological bodies) met to discuss the establishment of common frameworks of ethics, education, research and practice. This gathering, the Global Convention of Coaching (GCC), produced the Dublin Declaration on Coaching and an ongoing dialogue about the future of coaching. Like coaching itself, these conversations are in their early stages and what they will produce into the future is unclear. Nevertheless, a flavour of these conversations can be gleaned in the first two articles of the Dublin Declaration on Coaching. The delegates sought to foster a global dialogue to:

1. Establish a common understanding of the profession through creation of a shared core code of ethics, standards of practice, and educational guidelines that ensure the quality and integrity of the competencies that lie at the heart of our practice.
2. Acknowledge and affirm the multidisciplinary roots and nature of coaching as a unique synthesis of a range of disciplines that creates a new and distinctive value to individuals, organizations and society. To accomplish this we need to add to the body of

coaching knowledge by conducting rigorous research into the processes, practices, and outcomes of coaching, in order to strengthen its practical impact and theoretical underpinnings. (Global Coaching Community, 2008),

As the practice of coaching matures it is well-positioned to draw together existing psychological approaches including I/O psychology, clinical and developmental psychology and positive psychology. Coaching has the very real potential to make significant contributions to the further development of evidence-based approaches to the enhancement of individual and organizational well-being and performance. Coaching psychology itself is a growing psychological sub-discipline and represents a welcome evidence-based approach to coaching, one which draws on a wide range of extant and emerging knowledge bases. We look forward to the future developments with anticipation and interest.

Ahern, G. (2003). Designing and implementing coaching/mentoring competencies: a case study *Counselling Psychology Quarterly, 16*(4), 373-383.

Anderson, M. C., Anderson, D. L., & Mayo, W. D. (2008). Team coaching helps a leadership team drive cultural change at Caterpillar. *Global Business & Organizational Excellence, 27*(4), 40-50.

APS. (2008). Organisational Psychologists. Retrieved May 17th 2009, from http://www.psychology.org.au/community/specialist/organisational/

Barrett, P. T. (2007). The effects of group coaching on executive health and team effectiveness: A quasi-experimental field study. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A, 67*, 26-40.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). *Transformational leadership development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving Organisational Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership*. London: Sage.

Bennett, J. L. (Writer) (2006). An Agenda for Coaching-Related Research A Challenge for Researchers *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research*.

Berglas, S. (2002). The very real dangers of executive coaching. [Article]. *Harvard Business Review* (June), 87-92.

Bigelow, B. (1938). Building an effective training program for field salesmen. *Personnel, 14*, 142-150.

Binstead, T., & Grant, A. M. (2008). An exploratory study of Australian executive coaches. *International Coaching Psychology Review, 3*(1), 41-54.

Bono, J. E., Purvanova, R. K., Towler, A. J., & Peterson, D. B. (2009). A survey of executive coaching practices. *Personnel Psychology, 62*(2), 361-404.

Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Self-Concordance at Work: Toward Understanding the Motivational Effects of Transformational Leaders. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*(5), 554-571.

Boyatzis, R. E., Smith, M., L., & Blaize, N. (2006). Developing sustainable leaders through coaching and compassion. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 5*(1), 8-24.

BPS. (2009). Occupational Psychology. Retrieved May 17th 2009, from http://www.bps.org.uk/dop/about-the-division/about-the-division_home.cfm

BPS SGCP. (2007a). BPS coaching accreditation. Access on 15 November 2007: http://www.sgcp.org.uk/news/accreditation-statement.cfm

BPS SGCP. (2007b). Coaching Subject benchmarks. Retrieved from : http://www.bps.org.uk/downloadfile.cfm?file_uuid=CE440B7B-1143-DFD0-7EB1-BC2522283A74&ext=doc on 15 December 2007.

Brown, S.W. & Grant, A.M. (in press) From GROW TO GROUP: A practitioner's view of group coaching and a practical model for organizational coaching practice *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*

Brown, D., & Harvey, D. (2006). *An Experiential Approach to Organization Development* (7 ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Burke, D., & Linley, P. (2007). Enhancing goal self-concordance through coaching. *International Coaching Psychology Review, 2*(1), 62-69.

Cameron, K. S., & Caza, A. (2004). Contributions to the Discipline of Positive Organizational Scholarship. *American Behavioral Scientist, 47*(6), 731-739.

Cameron, K. S., Dutton, J. E., & Quinn, R. E. (Eds.). (2003). *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1998). *On the self-regulation of behavior.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Cavanagh, M. (2005). Mental-health issues and challenging clients in executive coaching. In M. Cavanagh, A. M. Grant & T. Kemp (Eds.), *Evidence-based coaching (vol 1): Contributions from the behavioural sciences* (pp. 21-36). Qld: Australian Academic Press.

Cavanagh, M. (2006). Coaching from a systemic perspective: A complex adaptive conversation. In D. Stober & A. M. Grant (Eds.), *Evidence-based Coaching Handbook* (pp. 313-354). New Jersey: Wiley.

Cavanagh, M., & Grant, A. M. (2006). Coaching psychology and the scientist-practioner model. In S. Corrie & D. Lane (Eds.), *The modern scientist practitioner* (pp. 146-157). New York: Routledge.

Cavanagh, M., & Palmer, S. (2006). The theory, practice and research base of Coaching Psychology is developing at a fast pace *International Coaching Psychology Review, 1*(2), 5-7.

Chapman, T., Best, B., & Van Casteren, P. (2003). *Executive coaching: Exploding the myths*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Clegg, S., Rhodes, C., Kornberger, M., & Stilin, R. (2005). Business coaching: challenges for an emerging industry. *Industrial and Commercial Training 37*(5), 218 - 223

Collard, P., & Walsh, J. (2008). Sensory awareness mindfulness training in coaching: Accepting life's challenges. *Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive Behavior Therapy, 26*(1), 30-37.

Cooperrider, D. L., Sorensen, P. F., Whitney, D., & Yaeger, T. F. (2000). *Appreciative Inquiry: Rethinking Human Organization Toward a Positive Theory of Change*. Champaign, IL: Stipes Publishing.

Coutu, D., & Kauffman, C. (2009). The Realities of Executive Coaching: Harvard Research Report. *Harvard Business Review, Jan*.

Cross, R., Baker, W., & Parker, A. (2003). What creates energy in organisations? *MIT Sloan Management Review, Summer*, 51-56.

Cunha, P. V., & Louro, M. J. (2000). Building Teams that Learn. [Article]. *Academy of Management Executive, 14*(1), 152.

Deviney, D. E. (1994). the effects of coaching using multiple rater feedback to change supervisor behavior. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A, 55*, 114.

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment 49*(1), 71-75.

Douglas, C. A., & McCauley, C. D. (1999). Formal Developmental Relationships: A Survey of Organizational Practices. *Human Development Quarterly, 10*(3), 203-220.

Duffy, E. M. (1984). A feedback-coaching intervention and selected predictors in outplacement. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section B, 45*(1611).

Duijts, S. F. A. P., Kant, I. P., van den Brandt, P. A. P., & Swaen, G. M. H. P. (2008). Effectiveness of a preventive coaching intervention for employees at risk for sickness absence due to psychosocial health complaints: Results of a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Occupational & Environmental Medicine, 50*(7), 765-776.

EMCC. (2005). *Competency research project: Phase 2 Output*. London: EMCC.

Evers, W. J., Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2006). A quasi-experimental study on management coaching effectiveness. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 58*, 174-182.

Filippi, R. (1968). Coaching: A therapy for people who do not seek help. [Article]. *Zeitschrift Fuer Psychotherapie und Medizinische Psychologie, 18*(6), 225-229.

Fillery-Travis, A., & Lane, D. (2006). Does coaching work or are we asking the wrong question? . *International Coaching Psychology Review, 1*(1), 23-35.

Fox, R. E. (1996). Charlatanism, scientism, and psychology's social contract. . *American Psychologist, 51*(8), 777-784.

Garavan, T. N., Costine, P., & Heraty, N. (1995). The emergence of strategic human resource development. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 19*(10), 4-10.

Garman, A. N., Whiston, D. L., & Zlatoper, K. W. (2000). Media perceptions of executive coaching and the formal preparation of coaches. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research 52*(3), 201-205.

Gattellari, M., Donnelly, N., Taylor, N., Meerkin, M., Hirst, G., & Ward, J. (2005). Does 'peer coaching' increase GP capacity to promote informed decision making about PSA screening? A cluster randomised trial. *Family Practice 22*(3), 253-265.

Geller, E. S., Perdue, S. R., & French, A. (2004). Behavior-based safety coaching. *Professional Safety, July*, 42-49.

Gershman, L. (1967). The effects of specific factors of the supervisor-subordinate coaching climate upon improvement of attitude and performance of the subordinate. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section B, 28*, 2122.

Global Coaching Community (2008) *The Dublin Deceleration on Coaching* Retrieved 23rd May 2009 from, http://www.pdf.net/Files/Dublin%20Declaration%20on%20Coaching.pdf

Gonzalez, A. L. (2004). Transforming conversations: Executive coaches and business leaders in dialogical collaboration for growth. *Dissertation Abstract International Section A: Humanities and Social Science, 65*, 1023.

Gorby, C. B. (1937). Everyone gets a share of the profits. *Factory Management & Maintenance, 95*, 82-83.

Grant, A. M. (2002). Towards a psychology of coaching: The impact of coaching on metacognition, mental health and goal attainment. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences, 63/12, pp.6094*(June).

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), 253-264.

Grant, A. M. (2008). Personal life coaching for coaches-in-training enhances goal attainment, insight and learning. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 1*(1), 54-70.

Grant, A. M., & Cavanagh, M. (2007). Evidence-based coaching: Flourishing or languishing? *Australian Psychologist, 42*(4), 239-254.

Grant , A. M., & Cavanagh, M. (in press). Coaching and Positive Psychology. In K. M. Sheldon, T. B. Kashdan & M. F. Steger (Eds.), *Designing the Future of Positive Psychology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Grant, A. M., & Cavanagh, M. J. (2004). Toward a profession of coaching: Sixty-five years of progress and challenges for the future. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 2*(1), 1-16.

Grant, A. M., Frith, L., & Burton, G. (in press). Executive Coaching Enhances Goal Attainment, Resilience and Workplace Well-being: A Randomised Controlled Study. *Journal of Positive Psychology*.

Grant, A. M., & O'Hara, B. (2006). The self-presentation of commercial Australian life coaching schools: Cause for concern? *International Coaching Psychology Review, 1*(2), 20-32.

Grant, A. M., & Zackon, R. (2004). Executive, workplace and life coaching: Findings from a large-scale survey of International Coach Federation members. *International Journal of Evidence-based Coaching and Mentoring, 2*(2), 1-15.

Gravel, T. M. (2007). Principal time commitment and job satisfaction before and after an executive coaching workshop. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences Vol 68(4-A), 2007, pp 1247*.

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, L. 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.

Gyllensten, K., & Palmer, S. (2005). Can coaching reduce workplace stress: A quasi-experimental study. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 3*(2), 75-85.

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.

Hamlin, R., Andrea, E., & Beattie, R. (2009). Toward a Profession of Coaching? A Definitional Examination of 'Coaching,' 'Organization Development,' and 'Human Resource Development' *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring 7*(7), 13-38.

Hamlin, R. G., Ellinger, A. D., & Beattie, R. S. (2008). The emergent 'coaching industry': a wake-up call for HRD professionals. *Human Resource Development International, 11*(3), 287-305.

Horvath, A. O., & Symonds, B. (1991). Relation between working alliance and outcome in psychotherapy: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38*(2), 139-149.

International Coach Federation. (2009a). *ICF Global Coaching Client Survey 2009*: International Coach Federation.

International Coach Federation. (2009b). What is Coaching? Retrieved 17th May 2009, from http://www.coachfederation.org/find%2Da%2Dcoach/what%2Dis%2Dcoaching/

International Coach Federation. (2006). Global coaching study. Retrieved 20 October, 2008 from http://www.coachfederation.org/research-education/icf-research-portal/research-portal--reports/

Jacobs, R. L. (2000). Developing the boundaries of HRDQ and HRD. *Journal of Management Studies, 11*(2).

Jarvis, J., Lane, D., & Fillery-Travis, A. (2005). *Making the Case for Coaching: Does it Work*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Jensen, I. (2009). Can we have a joint coaching standard? A discussion of practical and ethical issues in the Norwegian coaching industry *Unpublished report, Coaching Psychology Unit, University of Sydney*

Jones, G., & Spooner, K. (2006). Coaching high achievers. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 58*(1), 40-50.

Jones, R. A., Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2006). The executive coaching trend: Towards more flexible executives. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 27*, 584-596.

Jones, R. A., Rafferty, A. E., & Griffn, M. A. (2006). The executive coaching trend: Towards more flexible executives. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 27*, 584-596.

Kampa-Kokesch, S. (2002). Executive coaching as an individually tailored consultation intervention: Does it increase leadership? [Empirical, PhD, WS, outcome]. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: the Sciences & Engineering, 62*(7-B), 3408.

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.

Kauffman, C. (2006). Positive Psychology: The Science at the Heart of Coaching. In D. R. Stober & A. M. Grant (Eds.), *Evidence based coaching handbook: Putting best practices to work for your clients* (pp. 219-253). Hoboken, NJ, US: : John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Kauffman, C., & Bachkirova, T. (2008). Coaching is the ultimate customizable solution: an interview with David Peterson. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 1*(2), 114-119.

Keyes, C. L. M. (2003). Complete mental health: An agenda for the 21st century. In C. L. M. Keyes & J. Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived* (pp. 293-290). Washington DC American Psychological Association.

Keyes, C. L. M., & Haidt, J. (Eds.). (2003). *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived*. Washington DC: American Psychologicla Association.

Kiel, F., Rimmer, E., Williams, K., & Doyle, M. (1996). Coaching at the top. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 48*(2), 67-77.

Kilburg, R. R. (1996). Toward a conceptual understanding and definition of executive coaching *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 48*(2), 134 - 144.

Kilburg, R. R. (2004). When Shadows Fall: Using Psychodynamic Approaches in Executive Coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 56*(4), 246-268.

Kilduff, M., Crossland, C., Tsai, W., & Krackhardt, D. (2009). Organizational network perceptions versus reality: A small world after all? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 107*, 15-28.

Koeter, M. W. J., & Ormel, J. (1991). *General Health Questionnaire Manual, Dutch Version*. Lisse: Swete and Zeitlinger.

Kubicek, M. (2002). Is coaching being abused? *Training*, 12-14.

Ladegård, G. (2008). Coaching in Norwegian businesses. *The Department of Economics and Resource Management, Norwegian University of Life Sciences*.

Lafferty, J. C. (1989). *Life Style Inventory LSI 1: Self-development guide*. Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics.

Leadership Management Australia. (2006). *The L.E.A.D. Survey 2005/6*. Melbourne: Leadership Management Australia

Levine, T., Kase, L., & Vitale, J. (2006). *The successful coach: Insider secrets to becoming a top coach*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Libri, V., & Kemp, T. (2006). Assessing the efficacy of a cognitive behavioural executive coaching programme. *International Coaching Psychology Review, 1*(2), 9-18.

Llorens, S., Schaufeli, W., Bakker, A., & Salanova, M. (2007). Does a positive gain spiral of resources, efficacy beliefs and engagement exist? *Computers in Human Behavior, 23*(1), 825-841.

Lominger. (2009). *CHOICES ARCHITECT®* Minneapolis, MN Lominger International.

Lovibond, S. H., & Lovibond, P. F. (1995). *Manual for the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales*. Sydney: Psychology Foundation of Australia.

Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformation and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly, 7*(3), 385-425.

Luebbe, D. M. (2005). The three way mirror of executive coaching. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences & Engineering 66*(3), 1771.

Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organization behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(6), 695-706.

Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Management, 33*(3), 321-349.

Marshall, M. K. (2007). The critical factors of coaching practice leading to successful coaching outcomes. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering., 67*, 4092.

Maslach, C., & Goldberg, J. (1998). Prevention of burnout: New perspectives. *Applied and Preventive Psychology, 7*(1), 63-74.

Maurer, T., Solamon, J., & Troxtel, D. (1998). Relationship of coaching performance with performance in situational employment interviews. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*(1), 128-136.

McGoldrick, J., Stewart, J., & Watson, S. (2001). Theorizing human resource development. *Human Resource Development International, 4*(3), 343-356.

McGovern, J., Lindermann, M., Vergara, M. A., Murphy, S., Barker, L., & Warrenfelz, R. (2001). Maximizing the impact of executive coaching: Behavioral change, organizational outcomes and return on investment. *The Manchester Review, 6*(1), 1-9.

McKelley, R. A., & Rochlen, A. B. (2007). The practice of coaching: Exploring alternatives to therapy for counseling-resistant men. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity., 8*(1), 53-65.

Miller, D. J. (1990). The effect of managerial coaching on transfer of training. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section B, 50*(2435).

Miller, W. R., Yahne, C. E., Moyers, T. B., Martinez, J., & Pirritano, M. (2004). A randomized trial of methods to help clinicians learn Motivational Interviewing. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology, 72*(6), 1050-1062.

Muse, L., Harris, S. G., Giles, W. F., & Feild, H. S. (2008). Work-life benefits and positive organizational behavior: Is there a connection. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29*, 171-192.

Norlander, T., H. Bergman, et al. . (2002). Relative constancy of personality characteristics and efficacy of a 12-month training program in facilitating coping strategies. *Social Behavior & Personality 30*(8), 773-783.

Nowack, K. M. (1990). Initial development of an inventory to assess stress and health

American Journal of Health Promotion, 4, 173-180.

Olivero, G., Bane, K., & Kopelman, R. E. (1997). Executive coaching as a transfer of training tool: Effects on productivity in a public agency. *Public Personnel Management 26*(4), 461-469.

Orenstein, R. L. (2006). Measuring executive coaching efficacy? The answer was right here all the time. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 58*(106-116).

Page, K. (2005). *Subjective Wellbeing in the Workplace*: Unpublished Honours thesis, Deakin University, Melbourne, Australia.

Passmore, J. (2008). *The character of workplace coaching: The implications for coaching training and practice*. Stratford: University of East London.

Passmore, J. (Ed.). (2008). *Psychometrics in Coaching*. London: Kogan Page.

Passmore, J., & Gibbes, C. (2007). The state of executive coaching research: What does the current literature tell us and what's next for coaching research? . *International Coaching Psychological Review, 2*(2), 116-128.

Passmore, J., & Marianetti, O. (2007). The role of mindfulness in coaching. *The Coaching Psychologist, 3*(3), 130-136.

Peterson, D. B. (1993). Skill learning and behavior change in an individually tailored management coaching and training program. *DAI-B 54/03, p. 1707, Sep 1993*,

Rich, G. A. (1998). Selling and sales management in action: The constructs of sales coaching: Supervisory feedback, role modelling and trust. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 18*(1), 53-63.

Rock, D., & Donde, R. (2008). Driving organisational change with internal coaching programmes: part two *Industrial & Commercial Training, 40*(2), 75-80.

Rodriguez, D., Patel, R., Bright, A., Gregory, D., & Gowing, M. K. (2002). Developing competency models to promote integrated human resource practices. *Human Resource Management, 41*(3), 309-324.

Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69*(4), 719-727.

Scandura, T. (1992). Mentoring and career mobility: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*(2), 169-174.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2003). Test manual for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. Utrecht University, the Netherlands.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Dierendonck, D. (2000). *UBOS, Utrechtse Bournout Schaal, Handeiding*. Lisse: Swets Test Publishers.

Schein, E. H. (1969). *Process consultation: Its role in organizational development*. London: Wesley.

Seligman, M. E. (2007). Coaching and positive psychology. *Australian Psychologist, 42*(4), 266-267.

Seligman, M. E., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 5-14.

Sergio, J. P. (1987). Behavioral coaching as an intervention to reduce production costs through a decrease in output defects. *Dissertation Abstracts International 47(8-B)*, 3566-3567.

Shapiro, S., L. (2009). The integration of mindfulness and psychology. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 65*(6), 555-560.

Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1998). Not all personal goals are personal: Comparing autonomous and controlled reasons for goals as predictors of effort and attainment. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 24*(5), 546-557.

Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: The self-concordance model. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 76*(3), 482-497.

Sherman, S., & Freas, A. (2004). The Wild West of executive coaching. [Article]. *Harvard Business Review, 82*(11), 82-90.

Sparrow, J. (2007). Life coaching in the workplace. *International Coaching Psychology Review, 2*(3), 277-291.

Spence, G. B. (2007). GAS powered coaching: Goal Attainment Scaling and its use in coaching research and practice. *International Coaching Psychology Review, 2*, 155 – 167.

Spence, G. B., Cavanagh, M., & Grant, A. M. (2006). Duty of care in an unregulated industry: Initial findings on the diversity and practice of Australian coaches. *International Coaching Psychology Review, 1*(1), 71-85.

Spence, G. B., Cavanagh, M. J., & Grant, A. M. (2008). The integration of mindfulness training and health coaching: an exploratory study. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice, 1*(2), 145-163.

Spence, G. B., & Grant, A. (2007). Professional and peer life coaching and the enhancement of goal striving and well-being: An exploratory study *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 2*, 185-194.

Spencer, L. M., & Spencer, S. M. (1993). *Competence at work: models for superior performance*. New York: John Wiley

Spreitzer, G., Sutcliffe, K., Dutton, J., Sonenshein, S., & Grant, A. M. (2005). A socially embedded model of thriving at work. *Organization Science, 16*(5), 537-549.

Stacey, R. D. (2000). *Strategic management and organizational dynamics* (3 ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

Stewart, L. J., Palmer, S., Wilkin, H., & Kerrin, M. (2008). The influence of character: Does personality impact coaching success? . *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 6*(1), 32-42.

Sue-Chan, C., & Latham, G. P. (2004). The relative effectiveness of expert, peer and self coaches. *Applied Psychology, 53*(2), 260-278.

Taylor, L. M. (1997). The relation between resilience, coaching, coping skills training, and perceived stress during a career-threatening milestone. [Empirical, PhD, WS]. *DAI-B 58/05, p. 2738, Nov 1997*.

Thach, L. C. (2002). The impact of executive coaching and 360 feedback on leadership effectiveness. [Empirical, , WS, action research]. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 23*(4), 205-214.

Trathen, S. A. (2008). Executive coaching, changes in leadership competencies and learning agility amongst Microsoft senior executives. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering Vol 69(1-B), 2008, pp 727*.

Veldhoven, M., & Meijmen, T. (1994). *Questionnaire on Perception and Judgment of Work* Amsterdam: NIA.

Vloeberghs, D., Pepermans, R., & Thielemans, K. (2005). High-potential development policies: an empirical study among Belgian companies. *Journal of Management Development, 24*(6), 546-558.

Waldrop, M. (1992). *Complexity: The emerging science at the edge of order and chaos*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Ware, J. E., & Sherbourne, C. D. (1992). The MOS 36-item short-form health survey (SF-36): Conceptual framework and item selection. *Med Care, 30*, 473-483.

Wheatley, M. (1999). Leadership and the new science: Discovering order in a chaotic world. In. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Whitmore, J. (1992). *Coaching for performance*. London: Nicholas Brealey.

Wilson, C. (2004). Coaching and coach training in the workplace. *Industrial & Commercial Training, 36*(3), 96-98.

Witherspoon, R., & White, R. P. (1996). Executive coaching: A continuum of roles. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 48*(2), 124-133.

Worren, N. A. M., Ruddle, K., & Moore, K. (1999). From Organizational Development to Change Management: The emergence of a new profession. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 35*(3), 273-286.

Wright, J. (2007). Stress in the workplace: A coaching approach. *Work: Journal of Prevention, Assessment & Rehabilitation, 28*, 279-284.

Wright, T. A. (2003). Positive organizational behavior: An idea whose time has truly come. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*(4), 437-442.

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (2004). The role of psychological welling in job performance. *Organisational Dynamics, 334*, 338-351.

Zandvoort, M. v., Irwin, J. D., & Morrow, D. (2009). The Impact of Co-active Life Coaching on Female University Students with Obesity. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 7*(1), 104-108.

Zhong, L. (2007). Effects of psychological capital on employees' job performance, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Acta Psychologica Sinica, 39*(2), 328-334.