

GROUNDING THEORY OF THE ROOTS AND EMERGENCE OF COACHING

by

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This dissertation is dedicated to past, present, and future coaches.

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Coaching is an emerging and evolving field, complex and dynamic, integrating the substance of many fields and the innovative thinking of great pioneers. Over the course of the study, the inquiry shifted from documenting the roots of coaching for the purpose of reducing confusion of what constitutes coaching to: identifying the influences each of the relevant root disciplines have on coaching; documenting the impact the backgrounds of influencers had on the discipline and its practices; looking at what coaching can learn from the evolution of root disciplines that may be relevant to the evolution of coaching; and what supporting factors contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline in the late 20th century. Factors explored include: the distinction between practice/tools and theories/models, the multidisciplinary influences on coaching' root disciplines, the evolutionary nature of socioeconomic influences, the impact of connections between influencers, the concept of postmodernism as a backdrop to coaching's emergence, and what the future holds for coaching.

Five points summarize my observations about the emergence of coaching: 1) coaching sprang from several independent sources at the same time and spread through relationships; 2) coaching has a broad intellectual framework that draws on the synergy, cross-fertilization, and practices of many disciplines; 3) modern patterns and practices of coaching are dynamic and contextual; 4) coaching came into existence to fill an unmet need in an interactive, fluid world of rapid change and complexity; and 5) coaching came into being in an open integral social network from a perspective of diversity and inclusion.

The grounded theory I offer contains several provocative propositions: a) coaching is an open, fluid social movement that spreads virally through human relationships and interactions, and will become woven into the fabric of life as the process and style of communication in which people interact with each other; b) modern patterns and practices of coaching are dynamic and contextual, awareness- and choice-focused, and delivered across a continuum of attributes customized to the person being coached, the coach, the context, and the specific situation; and c) coaching is a social phenomenon and multidisciplinary field that, to be sustainable, must continue rapid innovation encompassing diversity and inclusion while maintaining an integral balance within a loose open social network.

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM FORMULATION

Introduction

Coaching is an emerging and evolving field, complex and dynamic, integrating the substance of many fields and the innovative thinking of great pioneers. The intent of this study is to investigate the following problem in the field of coaching: There is a multitude of models, theories, practices, and standards, without a unifying body of knowledge connecting them. Consequently, 1) there are fuzzy boundaries between coaching and its root disciplines; 2) the field's unique status is uncertain and being challenged internally and externally—is it a profession or otherwise; and 3) the field lacks a single or unified operational definition, set of practice standards, and body of content and knowledge. Offered as a contribution to the continuing evolution of coaching as a profession and a social movement, this study focuses on historical roots of coaching including observations about where they diverge, where they align, the implications for the current coaching field, and its emergence as a profession. I am proposing a set of connections that help make sense of this multitude of models, theories, practices, and standards.

Since 1990 the field has grown from 3 coach-training schools to 273, from 0 professional associations to 16, and from 0 magazines and journals focusing on coaching in the year 2000 to 11 in 2008 (Carr, 2005). The coaching field, still in infancy, is seeking to prove itself as a separate and unique field from the disciplines that contributed to its

foundation. Inside the field there is much divergent thinking of what coaching is and whose approach is best. Outside the field there is even more confusion among clients and the public about what makes up coaching. For example, the largest professional coaching organization takes the stand that “coaches do not advise clients” and that “the client has the answers” (ICF, 1999, p. 1). Minority voices in the coaching community believe that clients hire coaches to provide specific knowledge, experience, and timely counsel as well as coaching. Many business coaches subscribe to the notion of not providing advice, and when asked directly admit that what they provide is consultative coaching to their clients. By looking to the well-established and researched professions influencing coaching’s development, one can build on the evidence-based research and belief-based practices that exist for these professions. This foundation for advancing coaching as a profession is inclusive of practice and evidence.

This study focuses on the historical roots of coaching. The opportunity, in the analysis and conclusion, is to draw together observations about where these roots diverge, where they align, and the implications for the current field of coaching and coaching’s emergence as a profession. As stated by Francine Campone,

The root disciplines are the DNA of coaching, the early pioneers are the parents and the current field of coaching (and current practitioners) are the children and grandchildren. This paper is an examination of the DNA and how it manifested in the parents, with suggestions about how the children and grandchildren might take it forward. (personal communication, February 15, 2007)

A definitive and agreed on history will be available and placed within the context of worldview paradigms and socioeconomic influences. This sets the stage for a next

phase, looking at the emerging coaching field. Each root discipline contributed to a unified core for the field, and I recognize where such unity cannot now take place.

Background of the Study

As one of the key players in the coaching field, Dr. Patrick Williams stated to The Royal Society of Medicine in London, United Kingdom on January 30, 2004:

Coaching, while the latest and hottest trend to invade the workplace, is not new. It is a new derivative of the best thinking in self-improvement since the turn of the twentieth century. Coaching found its place in history, and most recently in the business world, when it exploded into the corporate environment in the 1990s. Today, workplace coaching includes dozens of specialty fields (just like medicine) for every kind of business concern including personal career coaching; transitions and mergers coaching; start-up venture and entrepreneurial coaching; executive leader coaching; team coaching, and, what many call, life coaching. Coaching exists for every type and size of business from the self-employed sole owner to huge coaching programs within the top Fortune 500 companies . . . Coaching has proven a worthy investment during its short but remarkable history. (Williams, 2004, p. 1)

As the coaching field develops and matures, we must know where we came from and how we got to where we are today. Allison (1995) presents perhaps the most compelling case for understanding our past in this observation:

The point is that who we are as humans, our very concepts of reality, is determined by our histories, by what the past has handed down to us. And those who are most ignorant of their history are the most controlled by it because they

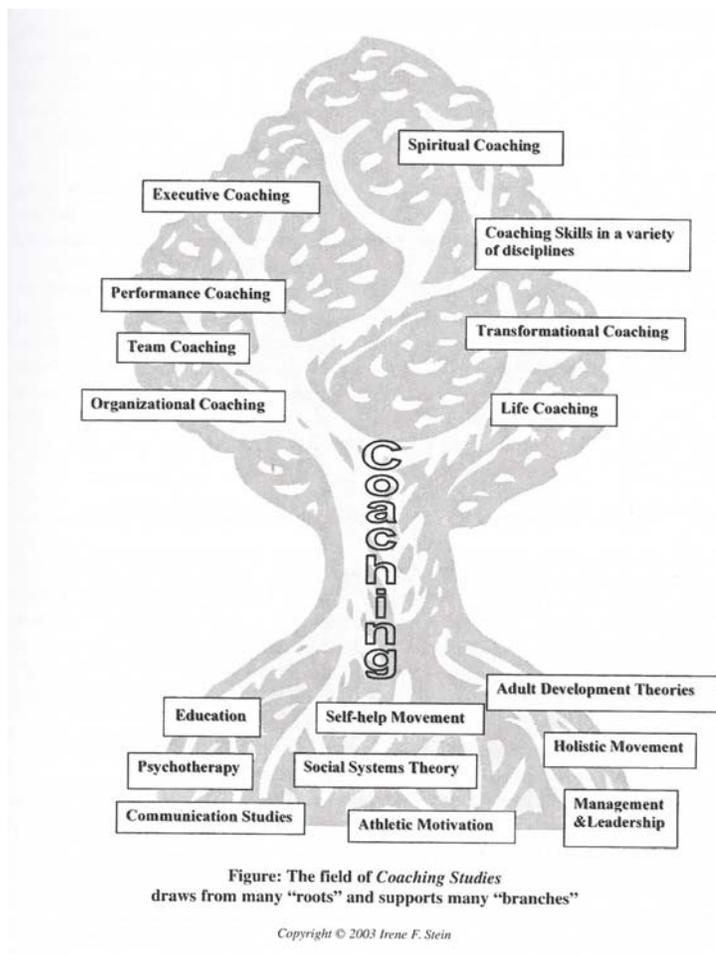
are the least likely to understand the sources of their beliefs. They are the most likely to confuse their inherited prejudices with Truth. (p. xiv)

This study is the beginning of a process to understand the history of the field of coaching.

The academic areas addressed are the roots of the professional coaching field, since claiming that coaching is a profession, “when it is not . . . diminishes the credibility of such individuals and the industry in general” (Grant, 2004, p. 2). As Irene F. Stein wrote at the Proceedings of the First International Coach Federation Coaching Research Symposium in November 2003,

Certainly, a field of coaching studies would draw its roots from many existing bodies of theory - just as most new fields arise from previous knowledge. And the application of coaching theory can be very broad, encompassing such diverse practices as 'executive coaching,' 'spiritual coaching,' and using coaching skills as a parent. Using a "tree" model [Figure 1-1] that depicts the trunk of a tree as the set of theories and practices that is common to different coaching applications, I see that trunk as being what 'we know when we see it.' Though I would define the field of coaching studies as the whole tree from just below ground-level, a big part of our work as researchers and scholar-practitioners is to define the trunk that is supporting the whole tree. The stronger the trunk, the more bountiful the branches can become. (Stein, 2003, p. ix)

Figure 1-1 The field of Coaching Studies draws from many 'roots' and supports many 'branches'



Many people conduct research on the "trunk" and "branches" of the tree. I see the added value in researching the "roots" of the tree, of which Stein identifies nine: education, psychotherapy, communication studies, self-help movement, social systems theory, athletic motivation, adult development theories, holistic movement, and management and leadership. Appendix A contains the tree schematic I plan to use for this study.

In addition, there is much public and verbal misinformation about the history of the early years of coaching. The author began professional coaching in 1996 on graduation from a recognized coach-training program, when there were only a few people in the field. During these early formative years the International Coach Federation defined the field. In the past eleven years the coaching field has grown exponentially and many coaches are not aware of who, what, and how of those beginnings. As the coaching field develops and matures, much will be gained in knowing the roots and how the field got to where it is today (our trunk and branches). What this research will accomplish is an accurate recording where coaching came from.

In studying the background, I discovered 1) root disciplines faced parallel struggles similar to what coaching is facing when they emerged; 2) many definitions of coaching, some of which contradict each other, are based on and influenced by practitioners backgrounds, theories, and models; and 3) coaching emerged in response to shifts in social, cultural, and economic changes.

Root Disciplines Parallel Struggles

The value of exploring the root disciplines emergence lies in understanding the particular struggles that each faced. Skiffington and Zeus (2003) states that:

One of the critical issues facing any emerging or newly established discipline is that of boundaries. Initially, there were clearer demarcations between coaching and related disciplines such as training, consulting, mentoring and HR services. Over time, these distinctions have become increasingly blurred, although the differences between coaching and therapy remain relatively clear. (p. 19)

Tim Gallwey (cited in Downy, 2003) agrees and expands on this when he says:

What is interesting about the beginning of any new profession is that agreed upon definitions, practices, and boundaries do not exist. People who coach and people who are coached don't really know exactly what it is that is happening. The shared understandings of the distinctions between coaching and its siblings: managing, consulting, leadership and teaching are anything but crisp. (p. vii)

The particular struggles that each discipline faced in professional definitions, boundaries, ethics, and theories can inform coaching's emergence into a profession. Some of coaching's root professions experienced the following as they struggled to become recognized:

- Sociology struggled with coming up with core theories.
- Education relied heavily on extrapolation and inference from psychological research.
- Adult education evolved in a context that shaped definitions, ideas, goals, and purposes of the field.
- Human resource management faced role confusion due to differences in background and gender.
- Communication integrated with other disciplines and borrowed theories from other social sciences.
- Consulting (management) achieved the benefits of a profession without becoming one.
- Organization development (consulting—Organization) has a diversity of practitioner backgrounds, lacks a unified definition and has fuzzy boundaries.
- Training lacks an articulated philosophical and theoretical foundation.

Coaching integrates and amalgamates many related disciplines and professions, as displayed in Appendix B. Looking to adult education, sociology, organization development (consulting-organization), human resource management, communication, and consulting (management) roots of coaching for commonality rather than differences may help to define what coaching is.

Sociology

The beginning of sociology is typical for new science formulation in that there were was a multitude of different theories about what sociology should be and do. In the view back, success and influence criteria filter these struggles. Whereas the theories of Weber, Durkheim, and Marx (and many others) are still used in sociology today, there were other perspectives which are neither well known nor used today, sometimes even if they bear interesting ideas for today. In the end, sociology did not replace the other social sciences. It became another discipline with its own particular emphases, subject matter, and methods (Sociology Wiki Project, 2006).

Coaching has many distinct perspectives in tools and models as well as niche and specialty areas that compete for domination in the success and influence criteria. Coaching is defining its own particular emphases, subject matter, and methods as distinct from related disciplines.

Education

In 1989, Hunter and Russell asserted that education qualified as a true profession based on the following points:

- (1) A body of research-based knowledge, not possessed by those outside the profession, exists and has been articulated for use by educators.
- (2) Performance

in education requires synthesis of that knowledge with additional knowledge about current situations and clients which results in professional decision-making rather than following a set of fixed procedures. (3) An educator must continue to add new insights, research-based skills and understandings to performance throughout that professional's career. . . . Knowledge about teaching and learning also is generated by extrapolation and inference from psychological research.

(Hunter & Russell, 1989, p. 1)

The author's review of coaching literature suggests coaching, in the process of developing a body of research-based knowledge, currently relies heavily on extrapolation and inference from psychological research. Synthesis of knowledge, rather than following a set of fixed procedures, and continuous learning are already standard in the coaching field.

Adult education

What has "counted" as adult education has changed over the years; furthermore, where one stands in relation to the field—as practitioner, academician, policymaker, or interested spectator—leads to particular understandings of what constitutes adult education. The values and beliefs held by individuals and society as a whole shape which goals and purposes are considered important in the practice of adult education. (Merriam & Brockett, 1997, p. 1)

Coaching does not occur in a vacuum. It occurs in a context that supports certain beliefs and values over others. Where one stands with the field as well as the values and beliefs held by practitioners and society as a whole shape the definitions, ideas, goals, and purposes of the field.

Human resource management (HRM)

Many people find HRM to be a vague and elusive concept – not least because it seems to have a variety of meanings. This confusion reflects the different interpretations found in articles and books about human resource management. Townley (1994) argues that much of the confusion over the role of human resource managers is due to two factors: 1. The conflict between the ‘welfare’ tradition of personnel management and the strategic orientation of modern HRM; 2. A gender divide between: – ‘female’ or ‘soft’ personnel management (particularly in respect of the welfare tradition) at lower management and administrative levels; – ‘male’, hard-nosed human resource managers within upper management or corporate headquarters. (Price, 2004)

Coaching is no different from HRM in having various meanings as shown by the multitude of definitions for specific niches and coaching as a whole. The author’s coaching literature review suggests confusion over the role of coaches is due in part to the behavioral approach of psychologists and consultants who coach in the corporate arena, and the humanistic approach of life and business coaches with backgrounds in other disciplines.

Communication

Communication theory is a relatively young field of inquiry that integrates itself with other disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, and sociology. Since a discipline is defined in large part by its theories and communication studies often borrow theories from other social sciences, it is difficult to grasp the field as a whole. Coaching is similar

in that it borrows theories from social sciences and has communication at its core. The following views of communication are equally applicable to coaching:

Mechanistic – This view considers communication to be a perfect transaction of a message from the sender to the receiver.

Psychological – This view considers communication as the act of sending a message to a receiver, and the feelings and thoughts of the receiver upon interpreting the message.

Social Constructionist (Symbolic Interactionist) – This view considers communication to be the product of the interactants sharing and creating meaning.

Systemic – This view considers communication to be the new messages created via “through-put”, or what happens as the message is being interpreted and re-interpreted as it travels through people. (Wikipedia, 2006a)

Consulting (management)

Management consulting is not yet a recognized profession, though it emerged during the early 1930s from a period of regulatory change and by 1960 “had successfully established, institutionalized, and defended management consulting from other professional competitors” (McKenna, 2006, p. 163). Now management consulting has shifted focus to highlight the continuities between themselves and other leading professions. Through mimicry of established professions they codified and commodified their professional culture “by assuming the outward appearance of a profession – including the rhetorical language, the career rewards, and the dignified style of client interaction – even as they avoided the most confining elements of professional status like state regulation, individual accreditation, and, most remarkably, professional liability”

(McKenna, 2006, p. 248). Coaching is institutionalizing and defending itself from other professions, and has chosen to do this by aiming for elements of professional status, like accreditation, while rejecting others, like state regulation and professional liability.

Organization development (consulting – organization)

Organization development (OD) is more than 50 years old and closely associated with practice from the beginning, as has coaching. Waclawski & Church (2001) suggest:

There is a lack of a unified definition of or approach to the central nature of OD is due in large part to the diversity of backgrounds of those who engage in OD practice—from forestry, to law, to history, to the social sciences. Because one of the values of the field is inclusivity, relatively little attention has been paid historically to maintaining boundaries around the practice or labeling of OD. (p. 4)

As with coaching and management consulting, it is said that literally anyone can hang a shingle outside and be a self-proclaimed OD practitioner. All three of these fields have fuzzy boundaries and parameters and some view coaching as a consulting, whether management or organization, intervention rather than its own field. In addition, coaching shares with OD a lack of unified definition or approach and a diversity of backgrounds of those who engage in practice. There is disagreement in the each field as to what is and is not part of the field.

Training

Training and development is a relatively young field of practice without “theoretical and philosophical foundations similar to those that have been formulated for the older fields of educational practice and been necessary to establish their credibility”

(Spurgeon & Moore, 1994, ¶ 3). Spurgeon and Moore (2004) further suggest that these foundations are important to “help the field mature into a profession that operates from a strong theoretical base” (¶ 3) and support practitioners to have a source for their beliefs beyond their own experiences. Coaching is actively addressing the lack of a strong theoretical base with focused research similar to this study.

If coaching can learn from the struggles of its root professions, it will have a basis for a more informed move toward a profession. Coaching, less than 20 years into its emergence, is at the same place some of the root professions are today and where some were 30, 40, 50 years ago. Coaching’s evolution can be looked at through the following lenses: definition, practitioner background diversity, barriers to entry, practitioner perspectives on professionalism, and coaching field professionalization, so far.

Coaching Definition Contradictions

There are many definitions of coaching, some of which contradict each other based on an influence by practitioner backgrounds, theories, and models. Most definitions assume an absence of serious mental health problems in the client and that coaching’s purpose is to effect some kind of change using similar knowledge, skills, and techniques.

In 1989, Evered and Selman wrote: “Coaches are used by individual players to improve personal performance or by teams to improve team performance” (p. 5). Public speakers and performing artists also work with coaches. Bell (as cited in Flaherty, 2005) writes:

The word coaching has been around for many years as related to sports and the theatrical arts professions. Not long ago, coaching meant training athletes, performers, and students. Recently, the use of the term has been extended into the

worlds of management, leadership, entrepreneurship, and performance in other domains of life . . . The discipline of coaching puts the center of its attention on the question of how a person can help other people develop new capabilities, new horizons, and new worlds of opportunity for themselves and those around them. Put this way, we can begin to see that this role—coaching—will be especially relevant for the coming era. (Flaherty, 2005, p. xi)

Individuals from a wide range of occupational backgrounds work as coaches. These backgrounds include business; consulting; management; teaching; training, learning and development; clinical, counseling, organizational, educational, developmental, and sports psychology; performing arts; and sports. As Grant states: “Each of these areas has its own knowledge base which comprises both theoretical frameworks and practice” (2005a, p. 1). Coaching practitioners rely upon their legacy field . . . for their theoretical grounding (Sherman & Freas, 2004) and eclectically use various tools and techniques from the other disciplines in their coaching practice. For example, coaches look to consulting for an understanding of intervention techniques (Block, 1999; Schein, 1969), management for leadership styles (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969), and organizational development for an understanding of organizational systems (Senge, 1990), and organizational change (Argyris & Schon, 1996). From psychology coaches apply humanistic approaches (Peltier, 2001; Stober & Grant, 2006; Skiffington & Zeus, 2003), psychodynamic theory (Kilburg, 2004), Adlerian principles of mutual respect; and emphasis on peoples strengths (Page, 2005), behavioral psychology (Peltier, 2001), clinical psychology for narrative (Hudson, 1999), cognitive psychology (Auerbach, 2006) and solution-focused approaches (Hudson, 1999; Green & Grant, 2003;

Cavanagh & Grant, 2006; Ting & Scisco, 2006), and developmental approaches (Laske, 2004; Berger, 2006; Ting & Scisco, 2006). From neuroscience (Rock, 2006), coaches can begin to find an explanation of how and why coaching works. “The various schools of thought agree on little, except that ‘coaching works’, and that more of it should be done” (p. 1).

The definitions are different in four general areas: how the coach role is defined; what the client’s expectations are; the intended outcome or purpose of the coaching engagement; and the protocol, boundaries, and parameters around the coaching engagement.

Some define the coach role as a peer relationship where the coach has the agenda to support the agenda of the individual being coached, while others define it as a power relationship to achieve a specific outcome that is the agenda of someone other than the person being coached. Client expectations range from receiving advice and consultation to facilitation to come up with their own answers. The engagement purpose can range from changing an individual’s specific behavior (the gap) to raising their awareness and choice (the opening). The engagement protocol, boundaries, and parameters range from voluntary to involuntary, short-term to long-term, specific to holistic, formal to informal, among others. One of the possible challenges that might arise in the practice of coaching as a result of these differences is legal, depending on how the coach role, client relationship, and contractual agreement are defined.

It is tempting to agree with Bloom (2006) when he says:

There are many definitions for coaching. With so many varying and contradictory definitions, it has been suggested that entering the debate of defining coaching is

at this present time an exercise in abstraction (Jackson, 2005). Even prolific academic writers (Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2005) change their viewpoint, indicating that the field is still developing and fluid. (¶ 2)

The rationale that the changing viewpoints are due to the “developing and fluid” nature of the field is only partly true. Behind this are several key points on coaching. a) The knowledge, skills, and abilities used in coaching can be used by anyone in any profession. b) Activities in coaching range on a continuum influenced by the coach, client, environment, and specific situation; and c) The worldview of coach and client will impact how coaching is defined.

However, as Grant (2006) summarized,

Central to most definitions are the assumptions of: an absence of serious mental health problems in the client (Bluckert, 2005); the notion that the client is resourceful (Berg & Szabo, 2005); willing to engage in finding solutions (Hudson, 1999); and that coaching is an outcome-focused activity which seeks to foster self-directed learning through collaborative goal setting, brainstorming and action planning (Greene & Grant, 2003). (p. 13)

Grant (2006) applies these assumptions to coaching “to enhance aspects of both their [clients] personal and professional lives.” (p. 13) He further states that coaching is “collaborative, individualized, solution-focused, results oriented, systematic, stretching, fosters self-directed learning, and should be evidence-based, and incorporate ethical practice” (p. 13). The evidence-based requirement remains open to debate depending on whether the strongest worldview is behavioral or humanistic.

Cavanagh and Grant (2006, p. 147) quote an earlier definition from Grant that does not contain a reference to either evidence-base or ethics. This Grant (2003) definition of coaching cited by Cavanagh and Grant (2006) “sees coaching as a goal-directed, results-oriented, systematic process in which one person facilitates sustained change in another individual or group through fostering the self-directed learning and personal growth of the coachee” (p. 147). Whatever the definition, many coaches act from an eclectic position, choosing compatible parts of different definitions to explain and guide practice.

Convergence of Twentieth Century Shifts

Coaching emerged in response to shifts in social, cultural, and economic conditions. Even though coaching initially began as the human development movement, one of the things that allowed this movement to be so popular during this time was the economy. Gross national income increased 220% and 234% respectively for the United Kingdom and United States, the two countries where coaching emerged, in the 10-year period from 1975 to 1985 and 360% and 367% respectively for the 20-year period from 1975 to 1995. People had more leisure time and disposable income, and the social climate permitted and encouraged them to spend their disposable income on self-development. Humanistic psychology, the Human Potential Movement, and the self-help industry ushered in this more optimistic view of humankind from the mid-20th century. There was no individualized, customized follow-up support for successful implementation of concepts and practices learned through experiential training, seminars, and reading. Other disciplines were also evolving in response to these same shifts. Organization Development was linking leadership behavior to bottom-line financial results, while encouraging learning organizations. Management consulting was booming as businesses

restructured to gain more productivity, while shifting from autocratic to participative leadership styles. Psychology models and theories reached the masses through the self-help industry.

Study Purpose

The purpose of the study is to understand how the intersections and divergences of theories, models, and practices in relevant root disciplines contribute to the emergence and evolution of coaching as a distinct field of practice. This study addresses the following questions:

1. What specific influences does each of the relevant root disciplines exert in coaching?
2. What are the boundaries of the coaching discipline that help distinguish it from related practices?
3. What impact did the backgrounds of influencers have on the coaching discipline and coaching practices?
4. What can we learn from the evolution of existing disciplines that may be relevant to the evolution of coaching?
5. What supporting factors contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline in the late 20th century?

Importance of the Study

For coaching to have its greatest power it needs to 1) understand the unique and adapted characteristics and traits of the coaching field, 2) to determine the appropriateness and matching of those traits and characteristics from the emergence to the present context of coaching, and 3) to evaluate how well those traits serve coaching as

an evolving field. This will provide a strong foundation for building coaching into a coherent field having a unified, inclusive and collaborative voice and vision, and with the potential to earn the status of a profession.

Primary beneficiaries of this research are coaches, clients, coaching scholars, and the coaching field. Secondary beneficiaries include related professions and the public. Coaches will have access to a historical perspective of the field that, by providing the most comprehensive knowledge of where we came from and where we are today, will allow them to better serve their clients ethically and consciously.

Scope of the Study

The study scope is a coherent picture of the roots and emergence of the global coaching field to lay the groundwork for the development of a more unified field of coaching.

This study examines the literature of coaching, beginning with the literature of the root disciplines. The root disciplines of coaching, which are the focus of this study, are themselves relatively new (Appendix B). The author did not go back and trace the roots of coaching back to Socrates. The disciplines focused on are: philosophy, psychology, consulting, education, management, mentoring, and sports, as well as organization development, sociology, training, performing arts, career development, and 12-step programs. The study itself progresses through an analysis of the literature, a survey, and interviews. Individuals and groups knowledgeable about the coaching field were surveyed to identify key influences—philosophy, profession, and constructs—on the coaching field. The survey and interview data were analyzed alongside the results of the literature review to present a coherent picture of the roots of the coaching field and lay

the groundwork for the development of a more unified field of coaching. Accurate information was gathered, and, at a minimum, where information was disputed, it was identified.

Limitations of the Study

There are limitations of this study that include the survey and interviews being conducted only in English precluded getting the insider perspective of people who speak a language other than English. The survey required technology to participate and was distributed only through the Internet and networks with which I am familiar, which may have resulted in inadvertent exclusion of independents. The survey wording was broad and nonspecific about influencers and influences. The people I interviewed came from the survey responses or were referred by other people I interviewed, so there may be some bias in those whom I interviewed. The interview data reflect only the perspective of the interviewees and not necessarily the researcher's view, nor is the interview data necessarily supported by references to literature. The richness of the data would have permitted multiple methods of analysis; however, because of limitations of time and other resources I restricted my method of analysis to the approach described earlier in this paper.

Definitions of Key Terms and Concepts for this Study

Behavioral sciences. Behavioral sciences is a term that encompasses all the disciplines that explore the behavior and strategies within and between organisms in the natural world. It involves the systematic analysis and investigation of humans and animal behavior, through controlled and naturalistic experimental observations, and rigorous formulations (History of Sciences WikiProject, 2006). Behavioral sciences are at the

crossroads between the [natural sciences](#) and the [social sciences](#), linking broad areas of scientific exploration. Behavioral sciences study the decision processes and communication strategies within and between organisms in a social system (History of Sciences WikiProject, 2006).

Coaching. Grant's 2003 coaching definition, as cited by Cavanagh and Grant (2006) and with one addition, is used for this study: "A good general definition of coaching sees coaching as a goal-directed, results-oriented, systematic process in which one person facilitates sustained change in another individual or group through fostering the self-directed learning and personal growth of the coachee" (p. 147) encompassing attributes along a continuum.

Consciousness. Consciousness is defined as the quality of the mind regarded to contain qualities such as subjectivity, self-awareness, and the ability to perceive the relationship between self and environment. "Consciousness is the emptiness, the openness, the clearing in which phenomena arise" (Wilber, 2006, p. 68). A stream of consciousness is experienced as thoughts flowing in and out of our mind as we move from one topic, feeling, image, or sensation to another.

Diffusion of innovation. Bell curve of adaptation with the tipping point at its peak between early and late majority:

- Innovators are transmitters.
- Early Adopters are second generation.
- Early Majority are those who sought to make incremental percentage improvement.
- Late Majority are those who commodify and institutionalize.

- Laggards arrive when reinventing or being eclipsed by a new innovation.

Natural sciences. The sciences, such as biology, chemistry, or physics, that deal with the objects, phenomena, or laws of nature and the physical world.

Originators. Those influencers who created the theories and models within disciplines related to coaching.

Philosophy. Philosophy means “love of wisdom,” from the ancient words *philos* (love) and *sophia* (wisdom) (Mannion, 2005, p. xii). A set of structures for exploring the questions about the human condition, in the West, philosophy is a method of investigation based on reason. East Asia philosophy is based on the assumption there is “a continuity between nature and nurture, a mutuality between context and the human being” (Aimes, 2005, p. 209).

Research and practice. The discussion of research and practice can be looked at as a discussion of behavioral, evidenced-based coaching versus humanistic, practice-based coaching. By applying the construct of a continuum and seeking to balance research and practice, one can link “coaching practice with existing, applicable bases of knowledge of science and practice [a]s an important step in enhancing credibility and shifting from focusing primarily on techniques and skills to a broader and deeper understanding of relevant knowledge in coaching education” (Grant & Stober, 2006, p. 1).

Root disciplines. These are the disciplines from which coaching adapted theories and models for use in the coaching field.

Six degrees of separation. Anyone on the planet can be connected to any other person on the planet through a chain of acquaintances that has no more than five

intermediaries. This premise is challenged on many fronts and may well be true only for connector-type people.

- Connectors—have wide social circles.
- Mavens—find a deal and tell others.
- Salesmen—persuade when unconvinced.

Social network analysis. Views social relationships in terms of nodes and ties (or points and lines) of graph theory. A social network is a map of all the relevant ties between the nodes being studied

Social sciences. A social science is any discipline or branch of science that deals with the sociocultural aspects of human behavior or the structural-level processes of a social system and its impact on social processes and social organization (History of Sciences WikiProject, 2006). The social sciences generally include cultural anthropology, economics, political science, sociology, linguistics, and social psychology. If both the terms social and behavioral sciences are used, then social sciences refers only to sociology, economics, political science, and economic sociology.

Socioeconomic. Socioeconomics is a multidisciplinary field that studies the relationship between economic activity and social life by analyzing the social impacts of economic activity and economic impacts of social activity.

Stickiness. Simple way to package information that can make it irresistible under the right circumstances.

Tipping point. This is the time in an epidemic when everything can change all at once.

Transmitters. Are those influencers who took the originators' theories and models and adapted them to the practice of coaching.

Worldview. A worldview is first described as:

The set of beliefs or lens through which we see and interpret the world. A worldview consists of a paradigm or model of how the universe works and how people work, and philosophies about how each individual should, therefore, be in order to meet his/her goals, relieve suffering and find happiness. This is often expressed as "how we show up" (Goldrich, 2005). Second a worldview is describes by vMEME systems that are:

A valuing system, a level of psychological existence, a belief structure, an organizing principle, a way of thinking or a mode of adjustment. A vMEME represents a core intelligence that forms systems and directs human behavior and impacts upon all life choices as a decision-making framework. Each vMEME can manifest itself in both healthy and unhealthy forms. Such a vMEME is a discrete structure for thinking, not just a set of ideas, values or cause. A vMEME can brighten and dim as the Life Conditions (consisting of historic Times, geographic Place, Existential Problems, and Societal circumstances) change. (Wilber, 2000, p. 47)

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

I looked at roots that form the foundation for the emergence and sustainability of the coaching field using a tree model for the context and structure of the literature review. Using a grounded theory approach, I began the investigation with a review of the archival literature from peer-reviewed and popular sources seeking the roots of coaching from the perspectives of these publications. From popular literature I examined coaching books published before 2001 to understand roots of coaching as identified by the authors. From current coaching research literature, I followed the sources and cited references to the primary sources in the influencing professions to position basic coaching concepts in a historical perspective.

This root structure contains a taproot that forms a center from which other roots sprout. In coaching it is philosophy that forms the taproot as the deepest and strongest influence on coaching. Many other roots spring from the taproot of philosophy, defined for purposes of this paper as the underpinning values, beliefs, and meanings (assumptions) about who we are and how we behave and act in the world. Roots springing from philosophy include psychology, sociology, anthropology, and science

(Mannion, 2005). Other roots stand on their own, such as sports and performing arts. These roots anchor coaching and result in surface roots that are just beginning to grow, such as positive psychology, facilitation, and coaching psychology.

According to Whitmore (1992):

Gallwey had put his finger on what is the essence of coaching. Coaching is unlocking a person's potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them. Gallwey's books coincided with the emergence in psychological understanding of a more optimistic model of humankind that the old behaviorist view that we are little more than empty vessels into which everything has to be poured. The new model suggested we are more like an acorn, which contains within it all the potential to be a magnificent oak tree. We need nourishment and encouragement, but the "oak-tree" is already within us. (p. 6–7)

With the backdrop of the root structure of a tree, I reviewed literature within the coaching field and in related professions to position the basic concepts of coaching in a historical perspective. Schein (1969) stated that, "a new field typically develops around a set of new concepts combined with some techniques for studying these concepts" (p. 10). On coaching and developing a research knowledge base, Stober saw one of three pathways to developing a research knowledge base as applying what is known from related fields of coaching. This literature review identifies what is known from fields related to coaching.

Scope of Literature Review

The literature review covers the related professions and their influence on the research and practices of coaching, within the framework of worldview, socio-economic factors, and human consciousness. So far, literature on the roots of coaching has been rare. Hudson (1999) included some historical content, and recently Williams (2006a) has written several popular articles for *Choice Magazine* on coaching's evolution. As with most emerging professions, the literature review confirms that coaching is a hybrid profession that is experiencing the effects of fragmentation. No one has the complete picture of where it is emerging from or what constitutes the fragmentation.

I begin this literature review with a look at coaching bibliographies and reviews conducted by Grant and Cavanagh and by Kilberg. I followed with my review of popular coaching books. I then place coaching in context by first grouping the literature of the social science disciplines of psychology, sociology, linguistics, and anthropology. The scholarly and peer-reviewed literature of psychology includes the popular literature of personal development and growth as part of humanistic psychology. This popular literature ranges from the motivation movement and humanist movement, encounter groups, human potential movement, and large group awareness trainings, to contemporary psychology, and self-help literature—support groups—personal development today. Second, the literature of business, including management, organization development, training, management consulting, career development, facilitation, human resources, and mentoring is reviewed. This is followed by the literature of: adult education, learning, and development; sports; and philosophy (Eastern, Western, analytic, existential, humanistic, phenomenological, theological, ontological,

and integral). Performing arts, communication, wellness and leisure, and creativity, along with the natural sciences (biology, systems theory), literature was also reviewed. A short section on the literature of coaching is included. The scope of the literature review is necessarily broad to encompass and value the contributions of other professions to the field of coaching.

Existing Coaching Literature Reviews

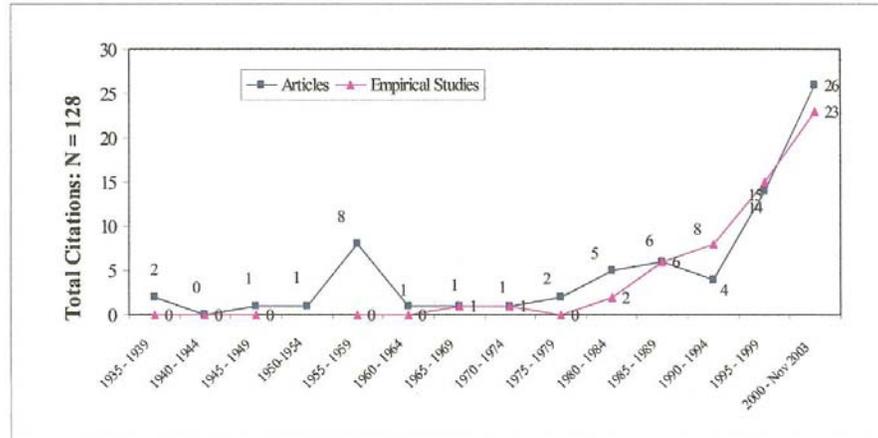
During my investigation of literature of coaching and its root disciplines I found three reviews of coaching journals and articles from the period of 1938 through 2005. Kilburg (1996b) conducted a literature review on coaching that “demonstrated an extensive history and broad empirical base, with the application of coaching as a concept and set of techniques to management growing rapidly through the 1980s and 1990s” (p. 136). I used Grant’s annotated bibliographies of peer-reviewed behavioral science literature (2005c) and peer-reviewed business literature (2005b) to group references to coaching, with a list of books about coaching published 2000 or earlier. Some of the 13 earliest references to coaching were in the 9 (69.2%) coaching articles that appeared between 1937 and 1959 in human resource journals. Between 1960 and 1979 15 of the 23 articles (65.2%) on coaching appeared in training journals. Between 1980 and 1989 16 of the 33 articles (48.5%) on coaching appeared in training journals, and 6 articles (18.9%) appeared in management journals. Between 1990 and 1999 129 total articles appeared on coaching, which is almost three times greater than the previous decade. Of these, 35 (27.1%) appeared in management journals, 27 (20.9%) articles appeared in training journals, 24 (18.6%) appeared in psychology journals, and 10 (9.3%) articles appeared in business journals. The remaining 33 (25.6%) articles appeared in various journals

including science, organization development, finance, and performance, among others. Between 2000 and 2004, journal articles on coaching doubled from the previous decade to 274. These articles appeared in the disciplines of: psychology journals with 62 (22.6%) articles; management journals with 59 (21.5%) articles; training journals with 55 (20.1%) articles and organization development journals with 35 (12.8%) articles. A listing of journals appears in Appendix C.

Two reviews of existing academic literature on coaching by Grant and Cavanagh show the marked increase since 1980. Grant and Cavanagh (2004) state:

The coaching industry has reached a key important point in its maturation. This maturation is being driven by at least three interrelated forces: (1) accumulated coaching experience; (2) the increasing entry of professionals into coaching from a wide variety of prior backgrounds; and (3) the increasing sophistication of management and Human Resource professionals. . . . 128 coach-specific peer-reviewed papers were identified between 1935 and 2003, with two or less in any five year time with the exception of eight between 1955-1959 until the 1980s when the trend increased. . . . Of these 128 citations, 73 were articles that discussed coaching, theories of coaching or application of techniques, and 55 were empirical studies of various types (see Figure 2-1). (p. 1)

Figure 2-1. Peer-reviewed Articles Compared with Empirical Studies Over Time



Grant and Cavanagh (2004) identified five broad research trends within coach-specific research:

- (a) discussion articles on internal coaching conducted by managers with direct reports;
- (b) the beginnings of more rigorous academic research on internal coaching and its impact on work performance;
- (c) the extension of research to include external coaching by a professional coach as a means of creating individual and organisational change
- (d) the beginning of coaching research as a means of investigating psychological mechanisms and processes involved in human and organisational change; and
- (e) emergence of a theoretical literature aimed at the professional coach. (p. 6)

In the second review, Grant (2005b) noted, “the use of coaching in workplace or organisations settings to enhance work performance and executive development is increasing in popularity. Using the search term *coaching*, this annotated bibliography draws on scholarly papers from the Peer-Reviewed Business literature” (p. 1).

Grant (2005b) further states:

The number of published peer-reviewed papers in the business literature has escalated since 1996. The first published peer-reviewed paper on coaching in the business literature was published in 1955. Between 1955 and September 2005 there were a total of 417 published papers. Of these 105 were empirical studies and 312 were articles that discussed coaching, theories of coaching or application of techniques. Of the 417 published papers, 342 were published since 1996. Of the 105 empirical studies, 78 were published since 2001. The majority of empirical investigations are uncontrolled group or case studies. Although coaching-related research is still in its infancy, there is an emerging body of empirical support for the effectiveness of workplace and executive coaching. (p. 1)

Books on the topic of coaching began to appear when early authors on coaching articulated theories and models of coaching for a general audience. I found 10 books on coaching published between 1978 and 1991 that focused on managers using coaching to improve performance, with 1 book on peer coaching in education. Whitmore's 1992 book offered tools and techniques on coaching for performance. Between 1993 and 1995, 9 books on coaching were published, of which 6 focused on coaching in management, 1 on coaching in sports, 1 on coaching for clinical supervision in psychology, and Hargrove's 1995 book on general principles and models of coaching. In 1996 and 1997 5 books were published, of which 4 addressed coaching in management and 1 addressed coaching in training. Between 1998 and 2000 twenty-29 coaching related books were published. These included books by Whitworth, Kimsey-House and Sandahl (1998); Berman-

Fortgang (1998); Leonard and Larson (1998); Richardson (1999); Hudson (1999); Flaherty (1999); Jay (1999); Goldsmith, Lyons, Freas, and Witherspoon (2000); and Kilburg (2000). Appendix D contains a listing of coaching books.

Examples from the literature showed a wide variety of approaches to coaching. These include Peltier (2001), who sees psychodynamic theory as an effective executive coaching approach, and Hudson (1999), who sees mentoring as a model for coaching. Others are Schein (2006), who sees coaching as a subset of consulting, and Kauffman (2006), who believes positive psychology has the potential to provide theoretical and empirical underpinnings for coaching.

Coaching in the Literature of the Social Sciences

Social science disciplines contributing to coaching include psychology, sociology, linguistics, and anthropology, which all emerged from philosophy in the late 1800s. Psychology has the greatest influence on coaching and many of the tools and models of psychology have been adapted by coaching. The literature suggests that sociology and linguistics and anthropology contributed to coaching through applying theories of human social behavior and an understanding communication within the diversity of human culture and interaction. For example, from Lewin we have the concept of ways to learn and keep learning (Hudson, 1999) and from Flores the power of language to coordinate action (Flaherty, 2006). Rosinski (2003) sees coaches acting as synapses and unleashing human potential when drawing from various disciplines and cultures. Literature in economics that applied to coaching was not found.

Psychology

Psychology is intended to understand human behavior and to help alleviate the suffering of mentally ill people. Within the literature linking psychology and coaching it would appear that all subdisciplines have some degree of influence on coaching.

Humanistic and clinical forms of psychology emerge as most influential, followed by organizational, developmental, and transpersonal, and the less influential forms of health and biological (also known as biopsychological) psychology.

The focus of psychology has evolved over time. Wilhelm Wundt, founder of European psychology, and William James, father of American psychology, both came from the philosophical tradition. Sigmund Freud, trained in the medical perspective, developed a method of psychotherapy known as psychoanalysis, which became the first major force in psychology. Behaviorists comprise the second major force and study overt behaviors and the way in which they are conditioned by external stimuli. Cognitive psychology introduced a cognitive dimension to the behavioral approach. It focused on the patterns and specific thoughts of conscious thinking with the concept that people can learn to notice and change their own thoughts. Humanistic psychology emerged as the third force with a focus on the whole person and increasing awareness, a philosophy of inclusiveness and openness to alternative points of view. Stober (2006) proposes that the humanistic perspective is “an underlying philosophical foundation of coaching today” (p. 17). Personal development and growth, is addressed as a subgroup within humanistic psychology, from which coaching adapted models, theories, and practices of self-knowledge and self-awareness. Transpersonal psychology, pioneered by Maslow who founded humanistic psychology, has been identified as the fourth force and brought

forward ideas of will and intentionality, as well as spirituality. The various sub disciplines within psychology use psychoanalytic, behavioral and cognitive, humanistic, and transpersonal approaches. These subdisciplines include clinical, social, educational, organizational, consulting, developmental, sports, health, counseling, biological or biopsychological, positive, and coaching.

The recent literature of coaching research has identified some of the relevant roots of coaching from the fields of psychology. “Counselors, therapists and organisational psychologists and others whose background and training is in the behavioral sciences had been practicing as coaches for many years before the term ‘coach’ became commonplace in the early 1990s.” (Grant, 2005a, p. 8) “There are three main schools of Western psychology—psychoanalytic, cognitive-behavioral, and humanistic. Whether implicitly or explicitly . . . coaches practice primarily from one of these orientations” (West & Milan, 2001, p. 199).

Structural and functional psychology

Much of the early influence on psychology came from the philosophical tradition, from which psychology sprung in 1879. Wundt, the “founder of European psychology” (Lane & Corrie, 2006, p. 10), favored introspection to explore the structure of thought. James, the father of American psychology, was a functionalist who “examined the functions or purpose of consciousness” (Mannion, 2005, p. 160). It is only now with transpersonal psychology that consciousness is being examined anew. Coaching uses structural and functional techniques of focusing on perceptions, self-observation, and the consciousness states of thinking, feeling, and knowing to enhance learning and growth for clients.

Psychodynamic psychology

According to Allcorn (2006), understanding the:

Dimensions of the interpersonal world requires a theory such as psychoanalytic theory that provides in-depth insight into human nature. . . . psychoanalytically informed executive coaching requires context setting. A psychodynamic approach to executive coaching is a collaborative process between the coach and the executive.” (p. 129)

A “psychologically informed approach” to coaching:

Blends traditional aspects of organizational consulting with executive coaching. A seamless continuum exists between knowing the organization and knowing the executive. Each affects the other in a continuous interplay of organization, social, interpersonal, and individual dynamics. Exploring one of these elements to the exclusion of the other is inconsistent with psychoanalytically informed coaching. (Allcorn, 2006, p. 130)

“Psychodynamic theory, particularly the constructs of self-awareness/insight and defense mechanisms, provides coaches with valuable information, especially when working with resistance” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 14).

Peltier (2001) agrees with Skiffington and Zeus, and adds:

Psychodynamic thinking adds yet one more important idea to the coaching mix, and it comes from the world of psychotherapy supervision. This is the notion that dynamics that occur in coaching mirror the dynamics that the executive client experiences in the regular world of work. . . . Therefore, the coach’s reactions to

the executive are likely to be important and valid clues about this persons work behavior. (p. 40)

Kilburg (2004) applies psychodynamic theory to executive coaching and believes that: “events, feelings, thoughts, and patterns of behavior that are outside of the conscious awareness of executives can significantly influence what they decide and how they act” (p. 246) and “many methods developed largely for use in psychotherapy are transferable to coaching situations” (p. 266). Kilburg (2004) created a table that “demonstrates that there are a wide variety of situations in which coaches can profitably use psychodynamic concepts and methods” (p. 253).

Peltier (2001) states that “the action-oriented and psychodynamically informed coach can be very effective . . . the trick is to integrate ‘analytic’ or ‘dynamic’ thinking into coaching without pathologizing the client or relationship. The task is to think analytically and behave proactively” (p. 23). Peltier further sees that “psychodynamic theory, including object-relations theory (ways people use each other to stabilize their own inner world) and self psychology are effective coaching approaches” (Peltier, 2001, p. 23). Hudson (1999) specifically noted the relevance of several psychodynamic models in coaching. Among these were Freud’s emphasis on symbolic thinking, Adler’s individual psychology, Jung’s spiritual awakening in the second half of life, and Gould’s attention to personal myth.

Behavioral psychology

Skiffington and Zeus (2003) acknowledge that:

Although Freud’s theories had a great impact and continue to be associated with literature and the arts, his emphasis on personal self-knowledge and growth was

eclipsed in mainstream psychology by behaviorist theory. In the second decade of the twentieth century, behaviorism, which is associated primarily with Pavlov, Watson and Skinner, proposed that we study only overt behaviors and the way in which they are controlled, or conditioned, by external stimuli. (p. 35)

Behaviorism had a dominant influence from the 1910s into the 1950s. According to Peltier (2001), early behavioralists viewed psychology as one of the natural sciences, and John Watson even “insisted that human behavior be studied and measured objectively and scientifically” (p. 45). “There are two general ways that a coach can use behavioral principles to help clients understand themselves and change (as people and leaders) and to teach clients how to use behavioral methods to manage and improve their own organization” (p. 47). Also, “behavioral interventions are used with goals in mind. Progress toward the goals is checked, and the experiment is adjusted, based on the measured progress” (p. 47).

The major influences on personal development goals in behavioral coaching, which apply to all types of coaching, are identified by Skiffington and Zeus (2003) in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1 Major influences on personal development goals in behavioral coaching

Personal development goals of behavioral coaching	Major influences
To live an authentic existence	Fromm, Adler, Frankl, existentialism
To find new purpose and meaning	Jung, Adler, existentialism, Frankl, logotherapy, Gestalt
To promote self-knowledge	Freud, rational emotive therapy (RET), Adler, Jung
To increase self-responsibility	Branden, logotherapy, existentialism, RET, cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT)
To increase feelings of self-worth	Branden, Bandura, RET, reality therapy, Leonard et al., Adler, CBT
To promote self-regulation of emotions	Mayer & Salovey, Greenberg, RET, CBT
To develop a sense of control	Bandura, Shapiro
To increase capacity for joy and pleasure	Maslow, Fromm, Jung, RET, Csikzentmihalyi
To live more fully in the present	Buddhism, existentialism, logotherapy, RET, Langer
To review life's achievements and goals	Adler, Jung, Erikson, Levinson
To develop realistic and meaningful goals	Adler, RET, CBT

“In the 1970s, Fred Luthans translated the work of behaviorists into management models and language through Organization Behavior Modification” (Peltier, 2001, p. 46–47). These models can be applied to coaching in organizations.

Cognitive psychology

“Studies of perception, such as attention, self-perception, and creative imagination, conducted during the late 1940s and early 1950s mark the development of cognitive psychology” (Hilgard, 1977, p. 7) “In the 1960s, Aaron Beck and Albert Ellis were influential in introducing a cognitive dimension to the behavioral approach, particularly through attention to dysfunctional thought processes and irrational beliefs” (West & Milan, 2001, p. 201). “Cognitive therapy has its core concept that people can learn to notice and change their own thoughts with powerful emotional and behavioral

benefits. Its central idea breaks with earlier theories in that it focuses on conscious thinking rather than unconscious processes” (Peltier, 2001, p. 82). According to Peltier Ellis addressed the relationship between conscious thought, emotions, and happiness; Beck taught new thinking habits to profoundly depressed people; and Homme focused on conscious ideas that could be observed, manipulated, and managed. (pp. 82–83) “There are three cognitive areas of interest available to coaches who want to use cognitive methods, and each involved a different aspect of client thinking: 1) general style of thinking, 2) specific thinking patterns, and 3) specific thoughts” (p. 84). “The coach employing cognitive techniques helps the client observe assumptions, erroneous conclusions, mental models, unproductive schemas, and maladaptive self-talk, and learn and execute alternative ways of viewing situations” (Auerbach, 2006, pp. 112–113).

Humanistic psychology

The literature of humanistic psychology provides coaching information about the role of coach and client. Evidence-based proponent Auerbach (2006) states: “Coaching without the humanistic side of a caring, trustworthy coach won’t get off the ground . . . Even the coach who uses largely cognitive approaches must incorporate emotional knowledge” (p. 103). Personal development and growth is addressed in this section and includes the Motivation Movement of the early 1900s, which was followed by the Humanist Movement, Encounter Groups, Human Potential Movement, Large Group Awareness Trainings, support groups, and self-help literature.

Moss (1999) wrote:

The psychology of the 1950s was dominated by what Maslow called the First Force of psychoanalysis and the Second Force of behaviorism. Each of these

schools in psychology accomplished breakthroughs in understanding human behavior and in ameliorating human suffering. Each of these schools also displayed major blind spots, refusing to acknowledge or explore critical dimensions of human life. Human psychology emerged to address these essential deficits in understanding humans. (p. 12)

Humanistic psychology focuses on the whole person as a conscious agent who experiences and decides; studies values, meanings, and experiences as important data; and emphasizes transcendental and transpersonal qualities of existence. “The theories and models of James, Allport, Murphy, Murray, Adler, and Jung as well as existential psychology and psychiatry, were important precursors of humanistic psychology” (Krippner, 1977, p. 15). De Carvalho (1990) asserts, “It is not a simple matter to present a single model of humanistic psychology because each theory reflects the background and interests of its author” (p. 267), and identifies five key founders and theories: Allport’s personality theory; Maslow’s growth hypothesis; Rogers’ client-centered approach; and the existentialist and phenomenological orientations of May and Bugental.

Bohart (2001) sees humanistic psychology as based on:

A philosophy of inclusiveness and openness to alternative points of view. This has led humanistic psychologists to try to understand different worldviews as expressed in different cultures (e.g., O'Hara, 1997). The general humanistic orientation includes not only approaches that value traditional positivistic research, but also alternative scientific approaches based in European philosophy, such as phenomenology, as well as the spiritual emphasis of transpersonal psychology. (p. 62)

Bohart summarizes the humanistic viewpoint “values connection, dialogue, understanding, and promotion” (p. 62) of the welfare of others. It also “values research, although this is defined broadly to include both positivistic and qualitative or phenomenological methods.” (Bohart, 2001, p. 81)

“What humanistic therapies and coaching share is the idea that positive change is a driving force for clients in either modality. . . . humanistic theory of self-actualization is a foundational assumption for coaching with its focus on enhancing growth rather than ameliorating dysfunction.” (Stober, 2006, pp. 17–18) Stober proposes that the humanistic perspective is “an underlying philosophical foundation of coaching today and links humanistic concepts and evidence to coaching practice” (p. 17). Key concepts from humanistic approaches include: growth-oriented view of the person (self-actualization); practitioner-client relationship (collaboration, directiveness, practitioners qualities of empathy, unconditional positive regard, authenticity-genuineness-congruence); holistic view of the person (range of human experience, uniqueness of the individual); choice and responsibility (availability of choice) (Stober, 2006).

Bandler and Grinder created Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) under the influence of Bateson and Erickson. NLP is used by coaches and therapists for a) personal development, b) creativity enhancement, c) increased performance, d) improved communicational skills, and e) accelerated learning (Kitaoka, 2000).

Personal development and growth. The personal development movement created an ideal environment for coaching’s acceptance in a wider community. The movement grew out of the human potential movement and proliferated in the 1980s in literature and

courses offered to the public. Individualized coaching is a logical next step from group participation in personal development and life skills training programs.

As Skiffington and Zeus (2003) say:

Coaching, whether it is to enhance work performance or achieve greater satisfaction in one's personal life, involves personal development and growth. Such development typically occurs within the context of self-knowledge and self-awareness. The notion of the value of personal education and self-knowledge is not new. After all, Socrates exhorted us to "know thyself." Socrates and his pupil Plato engaged in a dialogue method of education, whereby the student was led to question his or her understanding of truth and beauty. Behavioral coaching, although it does not necessarily employ "Socratic dialogue," does, through questioning and challenging by the coach, attempt to lead coachees to a deeper and rational understanding of their own personal truths and values. (p. 34)

What Skiffington and Zeus say about behavioral coaching applies equally to all types of coaching.

Motivation movement. The term "success merchants" (Derloshon & Potter, 1982) refers to the influencers in the success and motivation movement that had its start in the late 1930s during the aftermath of the Depression. Major success and motivation publications through 1967 include: Smiles' 1859 book *Self-Help*, Allen's 1902 book *As a Man Thinketh*, Wattles' 1910 book *The Science of Getting Rich*, Behrend's 1921 book *Your Invisible Power*, Holmes' 1926 book *The Science of Mind*, Carnegie's 1937 book *How to Win Friends and Influence People*, Hill's 1937 book *Think and Grow Rich*, Hubbard's 1950 book *Dianetics*, Peale's 1952 *The Power of Positive Thinking*, Maltz's

1960 book *PsychoCybernetics*, Maslow's 1962 book *Toward a Psychology of Being*, Harris's 1967 book *I'm OK, You're OK*, and Schuller's 1967 book *Move Ahead with Possibility Thinking*.

There are several places the messages of these books show up in the coaching field. According to Derloshon and Potter (1982) Allen's 1902 book was before this time yet "believed in the power of thought to bring fame, fortune, and happiness, which embodies the heart and soul of the parade of self-improvement books which have come after it" (Derloshon & Potter, 1982, p. 167).

Perhaps the earliest and to this day most influential was Hill's (1988) 1937 book, whose chapters included: imagination, organized planning, persistence, power of a mastermind group, and the sixth sense as the door to wisdom. According to Derloshon and Potter (1982), Carnegie's 1937 book stated that "training is rooted in learning by doing" (p. 21) and "based on self-assuredness and acceptance of oneself as a person of worth who can achieve desired goals through greater understanding of oneself" (p. 23). Carnegie's concepts are based on Gestalt school and autosuggestion (Derloshon & Potter, 1982, p. 23). Somewhat later Nightingale, the first of the success motivators ever to record his messages for listeners, had lessons, which included attitude, recognizing opportunity, setting worthy goals, self-knowledge and self-management (Derloshon & Potter, 1982, pp. 30–31).

Human possibility and motivation are foundational for coaching: Hargrove (1995) states "masterful coaching is about empowering people to create a future they truly desire based on unearthing what they passionately care about" (p. 20); Mink, Owen, and Mink (1993) see the "coach's role in helping learners see that their limits are self-imposed and

that growth is possible” (p. 6); and Whitmore (1992) says “the only truly effective motivation is internal or self-motivation, which is where the coach first comes in” (p. 12).

Humanist movement. By the 1950s the humanist movement, associated with Rogers’ and Maslow’s focus on “individual self and growth, reclaimed attention that was present in the philosophy and theories of the Enlightenment” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 35). Rogers and Maslow did not dismiss psychoanalytic thinking entirely, however, they did believe that the analytic approach to life was pathological in the focus on sick people. Applebaum (1982) stated that “psychoanalytic thinking was being challenged by a diverse group of mind and body therapists to the point that its prominence in training programs, its perceived desirability for patients, and its popularity with the public at large was endangered” (p. 1002). Skiffington and Zeus (2003) further describe the characteristics of the humanist movement:

The proponents of the so-called “Third Force” (against psychoanalysis and behaviorism) believed that people were free, creative individuals with an enormous capacity for growth and self-realization. The quest for personal authenticity as proposed by Maslow was grounded in the belief that we all have a natural drive to healthiness and self-fulfillment. Like Kierkegaard, Nietzsche and Sartre, the humanists believed that certain human needs, such as the search for meaning, authenticity and transcendence are universal, and part of the human condition. These existential issues are particularly relevant to personal development and growth. The existential approach to life underpins many of the theories of humanism, and, indeed, coaching. For instance, Sartre talks of the individual’s “responsibility,” by which he means that we are the author of our

own lives. Existential therapy claimed that the basic determinants of human behavior reside not in the past but in the present, in the kinds of choices we make to shape our future. The importance of choice, of understanding what we can change and what we cannot, and assuming responsibility for our choices, play a central role in any successful coaching outcome. (p. 35)

Skiffington and Zeus (2003) continue with the influence of Eastern philosophy on the humanist movement:

The humanist movement was also influenced by Zen Buddhist teachings. The 1950s in the West saw a wave of interest in eastern philosophy and religion. In 1957, Jack Kerouac published *On the Road*, which became a blueprint for 1960s counterculture. It embodied a search for existential freedom, spiritual growth and an escape from materialism. Individual, subjective experience was promoted.

Around the same time, Alan Watts published a well-received book on Zen and the beat movement and D. T. Suzuki was translating Japanese Zen for the West.

Behavioral coaching also derives some of its tenets from these teachings, which include being in the present, being mindful, transcending the self, remaining unattached to outcomes and enjoying the process as much as the outcome. The first wave of coaches hailed from the generation that was exposed to these influences. (p. 36)

Encounter groups. The encounter group movement emerged with the popularization of humanistic psychology. According to Weigel (2002):

Rogers had coined the term encounter group in the 1950s and was the most vocal advocate. Encounter groups go by many names: sensitivity training groups, T-

groups, human awareness groups, human relations groups, human enrichment groups, marathon groups, personal growth groups, sensory awareness groups, among others. (p. 187)

Such groups explored new models of interpersonal communication and the intensification of psychological experience.

Weigel (2002) further found that:

Encounter groups were preceded by group psychotherapy, which can be traced to primitive tribal healing ceremonies and group hypnosis by Mesner, and sensitivity training, or the T-group which was the product of Lewin's research and the National Training Laboratory (NTL). Sensitivity training included principles from group dynamics, from psychotherapy, and from philosophy. Sensitivity training assumed that normal adults could learn these principles in T groups, take their learning back to their real lives, and become more effective in their personal and work roles. (p. 186)

The 1960s saw the encounter group emerge just prior to and then overlapping the development of the marathon group. The broader social human potential movements include encounter and marathon groups. According to Weigel (2002), "the combination and integration of group psychotherapy, sensitivity training, and encounter in an extended time format was the 1963 breakthrough contribution of Fred Stoller, the founding father of the marathon group" (p. 188). "The marathon approach spread like wildfire from being therapy, to being the ultimate personal growth experience, to being a full-fledged social movement" (p. 191). According to Weigel, a commercialized strand of the encounter group movement developed into Large Group Awareness Training (LGAT).

Human potential movement. “The Human Potential Movement was a period of cultural revolution centered at the Esalen Institute in California, where concepts based on the principles of Maslow, May, Rogers, Perls, Schutz, and others were being implemented in a variety of workshops” (Weigel, 2002, p. 188). “Much of this transformation work born in the counterculture climate of the 1960s was a reaction to the elitism, sterility, and pathological focus of psychoanalysis” (Schwartz, 1995, p. 9). According to Smith (1990), the encounter group movement with its human growth centers became the chief focus in the 1960s and 1970s.

Esalen was founded in 1962 by Michael Murphy and Richard Price as an educational center for the exploration of unrealized human capacities. It soon became known for its blend of East/West philosophies, its experiential workshops, the steady influx of leading philosophers, psychologists, artists, and religious thinkers, and its breathtaking grounds blessed with natural hot springs. The Esalen Center for Theory & Research supports essential philosophic, academic, and research aims of the Esalen Institute. It evaluates frontier inquiry, creates networks of pioneering individuals, and works to catalyze new discoveries that promote personal and social transformation. It carries forward projects at the growing edge of philosophy, psychology, comparative religious studies, education, sociology, somatics, the arts, ecology, and related disciplines that bear upon transformative practice and the continued evolution of humankind. (Esalen, 2005)

Fritz Perls, a resident at Esalen before his death in 1970, led Gestalt therapy in the 1950s and 1960s, which had a large influence on personal growth and development.

Gestalt emphasized “being in the here and now” and taking responsibility for our choices. These elements remain critical to successful coaching today. In the 1960s and 1970s individuals turned inward in a search of meaning and truth using techniques which included transactional analysis (TA), primal therapy and est. Neurolinguistic programming (NLP) allegedly based on Gestalt and TA principles, also emerged around this time. Therapies spawned by the human potential movement emphasized the importance of the individual’s will and the search for personal well-being, health and psychic security. (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 36)

Margolis (1997) identified common elements to HPM systems as “breathing, physical exercise, diet, drugs, and meditation for problem-solving, clearing the mind or thematic,” (p. 38) among others. Some techniques are “Transcendental Meditation (TM), est, Arica, Sylva Mind Control, biofeedback, Feldenkrais, Tai Chi, Yoga and therapy-oriented models” (p. 38). These elements and techniques are also used by various coaching practitioners.

Large group awareness trainings (LGAT). Klar, Mendola, and Fisher (1990) state: “Psychological distress or dissatisfaction with current circumstances may be what motivates individuals to seek an available change activity, the kinds of values and worldviews held by individuals may steer them toward a specific change modality (e.g., Large Group Awareness Training or LGAT)” (p. 107). As the encounter group movement was declining in the early 1970s, LGAT programs such as *est*, Lifespring, and the Forum were first offered to the American public. LGATs focus was often “on philosophical themes related to personal responsibility, integrity, and commitment, and typically define

themselves as growth experiences designed for those already successful, healthy, and accomplished" (Klar, Mendola, & Fisher, 1990, p. 99).

Weigel (2002) felt that traditional marathon encounters had transmuted into LGATs and time-extended groups geared to a broad spectrum of special populations. His description of LGATs follows:

LGATs have lengthy, massed-time sessions that focus on philosophical, psychological, and ethical issues related to effectiveness, decision making, personal responsibility, and commitment. These issues are examined through lectures, demonstrations, dialog with participants, structured exercises, and participants' testimonials of relevant personal experiences. Unlike encounter groups, LGATs are less open to leader differences because there is a detailed written plan that is followed with little variation from one training to another. Participants are encouraged to apply the principles and insights toward improving their own lives. The groups I'm talking about are est (and its more recent descendent, The Forum) and Lifespring, both of which use structured activities; involve several hundred or more participants and one central leader; have specific ground rules of expected, appropriate behavior; and have a distinct dogma emphasizing personal responsibility and high levels of control over one's own destiny. (pp. 195–196)

"The most well known LGAT is the est process, which is designed to assist the participant to discover through experience, rather than analysis, aspects of his mental functioning and behavior" (Erhard, Guerin, & Shaw, 1975, p. 17), The goal is to increase

the individual's awareness of his present experience with satisfaction and aliveness (p. 15).

The impact of LGATs on the coaching field cannot be understated. Leonard (2006), an est employee in the late 1980s and founder of Coach U, the International Coach Federation, Coachville, and the International Association of Coaches, identified 10 concepts transformational types tended to overuse: commitment, enrollment, reinvention, breakthrough, make a difference, creating possibility-creating the future, empowerment, being-way of being, service, integrity.

Influence of HPM on contemporary psychology. Skiffington and Zeus (2003) write:

Since the 1970s, contemporary mainstream psychology has moved into studying cognitive processes, and recently attempts have been made to reconstruct Maslow's theory within a cognitive-systemic framework. Although it does not focus on personal growth and development with the intensity of humanistic theory, contemporary psychology does provide tools and techniques for growth and change. (p. 37)

Applebaum (1982) wrote of the challenge to psychoanalytic thinking by the Human Potential Movement and LGATs:

Psychoanalytic thinking is currently being challenged to the point that its prominence in training programs, its perceived desirability for patients, and its popularity with the public at large is endangered. Prominent among its challengers are a diverse group of mind and body therapists who can be gathered under the rubric "human potential movement." The "new therapies" in this movement

include Gestalt, psychosynthesis, Rolfing, bioenergetics, the Alexander technique, est, Silva Mind Control, meditation, biofeedback, and others. In effect this movement is the medical or therapeutic arm of the counterculture that burst into prominence in the United States in the 1960s. Although psychoanalysts only a few years before had themselves been in the forefront of change, asserting the usefulness of dynamic thinking as against the organicists in psychiatry, psychoanalysis has now itself become identified as an establishment. (p. 1002)

Applebaum (1982) went on to level the same criticisms of these new therapists as are being leveled on coaches today: “Many of the new therapists are without degrees or much training beyond their own experience in the therapy they choose to practice and they often come from diverse and nonacademic backgrounds” (p. 1008). For more information on contemporary psychology see the psychology section.

Self-help, support groups, and personal development today. Self-help and self-improvement is a multibillion-dollar industry. According to Skiffington and Zeus (2003), “some 2000 self-help books are published each year and many of these make unsubstantiated claims based on untested theories about change” (p. 37). Motivational books and workshops by Robbins, Zigler, Peters, Tracy, Dyer, and others like them have influenced the development of coaching, as have the television programs of Oprah and Dr. Phil.

The development of the self-help industry has benefited from large group awareness programs such as est, and from the Gestalt, Transcendental Meditation (TM), Transactional Analysis (TA), and NLP approaches. These programs and approaches “exist in modified forms today and emphasize the importance of self-awareness and self-

accountability in the pursuit of personal growth and development (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 37).

Self-help and support groups have emerged as a vehicle for personal development. Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) set up support groups as early as 1935. Mannion (2005) characterizes 12-step programs as “based on a positive philosophy of psychological and spiritual attitude adjustment that is one of the most successful action plans for self-improvement” (p. 231). The twelve steps of AA, adopted by hundreds of other groups facing assorted addictions and problems, are often referred to as a movement. “Twelve step members are encouraged to work with a sponsor, a person who has been around the block vis-à-vis recovery . . . harkens back to the age-old tradition of the mentor . . . these people do not claim any special wisdom; they merely know what worked for them and help themselves by helping out the next fellow (Mannion, 2005, p. 226). Sponsors and coaches share some attributes and are different on others.

Skiffington and Zeus (2003) quote a recent study in the United States that revealed that more Americans are trying to change their health behaviors through self-help than through all other forms of professionally designed programs. There are many telephone and online self-help groups formed around everything from diet programs to stress reduction programs. One of the oldest self-help group formats is the mastermind concept from Nightingale. “Clearly, coaching belongs in the contemporary landscape of personal development methodologies. Its aim is for the individual to become more self-aware, to assume greater responsibility for his or her life design and to grow and develop as a person” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 37).

Transpersonal psychology

Maslow, founder of humanistic psychology, also pioneered moving humanistic psychology into spiritual territory and founded the Fourth Force or transpersonal psychology. “Other origins of transpersonal ideas came from the American transcendental movement, James, and Assagioli’s psychosynthesis. The consciousness research of Grof and the integral view of Wilber are examples of specific approaches to transpersonal theory, research, and practice” (Soudkova, 2002, p. 175). Assagioli’s psychosynthesis was one of the most influential forces within transpersonal psychology. “The purpose of personal psychosynthesis is to help integrate—to synthesize—the individual around the personal self. The potential and awareness of spiritual psychosynthesis is a secondary goal. (Dierendonck, Garssen, & Visser, 2005, pp. 62–63)

A study by Ruzek (2004) found that neither founders of transpersonal psychology nor historians of psychology consider transpersonal psychology an influential force in American psychology. However, both groups suggested that with the current rise of positive psychology and a popular interest in spirituality, transpersonal psychology might be able to engage with mainstream psychology in the future.

Whitmore (2006) states:

While humanist psychology brought in the ideas around increasing awareness, transpersonal psychology brought in ideas around will and intentionality . . . It’s the next phase of psychology, if you like, which stands on the shoulders of humanist psychology. If you think that increasing awareness leads to an improvement in performance, think how much more improvement you can get when there is a particular direction you want to go – a goal. If coaches are not

familiar with the transpersonal in themselves and the methods of addressing it in others, their capacity to help others will be limited . . . The key ideas surrounding transpersonal coaching are about discovering the power of who you really are. (p. 34)

Specialty psychology subdisciplines

Psychology contains numerous subdisciplines that adapt the tools and models of the five psychology approaches or forces (psychodynamic, behavioral, cognitive, humanistic, and transpersonal) to specialty areas. Literature from twelve of these specialty areas provide evidence of direct adaptation by and influence on coaching. The literature suggests that the most influential specialty area subdisciplines are those that apply models and theories. Less influential are the predominately research-oriented specialty area subdisciplines. Peltier (2001) identifies the literature of clinical psychology as relevant to coaching in business. Results of the literature review identify the models and tools of clinical psychology as a key contributor to all types of coaching. The counseling psychology literature refers to coaching forms and methods as workplace performance counseling, for example using a repertoire of management skills to help troubled employees (Peltier, 2001).

The psychology subdisciplines of positive and coaching psychology were recognized in 1990 and 2002 respectively. Coaching psychology employs psychodynamic and systematic, developmental, cognitive-behavioral, solution-focused, behavioral, facilitation, goal-focused, person-centered, eclectic, problem-focused, humanistic, NLP, and other psychological frameworks.

Clinical psychology. “Despite the unsavory implications of psychotherapy in the corporate culture, there is no denying that the literature of psychotherapy is important and highly relevant to coaching in the work world” (Peltier, 2001, pp. xix–xx). “Examples of skills derived from psychotherapy literature include active listening and empathy, self awareness, process observation, giving and getting feedback, assertive communication, conflict resolution, cognitive restructuring and learned optimism, effective use of reinforcement, hypnotic language, resistance management, detriangulation, reframing, even paradoxical intent” (Peltier, 2001, p. xxi).

Hudson (1999) was clear that “even though coaches are not therapists, much of their interaction with clients takes on characteristics of therapy and coaches have much to learn by becoming acquainted with the various types of therapeutic interaction, including psychotherapy, solution-focused brief therapy and narrative therapy” (pp. 74–76).

Berman and Bradt (2006) address the shift or adding of coaching to many psychologists practices because of “increasing frustration with the politics and economics of traditional mental health care” (p. 244). They further state:

Experience with work-related issues in clinical practice makes this appear to be a logical extension of traditional clinical and counseling work. There are many types of executive coaching and consulting, however, and only some of these relate to traditional mental health services. Developmental coaching, which addresses longstanding behavior problems in both personal and work settings, is most likely to fit with traditional psychological training. Training or experience in the upper levels of the business world is essential to developing the capability to

help corporate leaders with a broad range of needs and situations in which they find themselves. (Berman & Bradt, 2006, p. 244)

Some specific therapies relating to coaching are: emotion-focused therapy, reality therapy, rational emotive therapy, and choice therapy. Emotion-focused therapy uses emotion coaches and is based on the premise that one cannot leave a place until one has arrived at it (Greenberg, 1997) Glasser's reality therapy accepts the patient as a responsible individual whose behavior is a problem. Ellis's rational emotive therapy and Glasser's reality therapy emphasize clients' responsibility for their behavior (Sewall, 1982). Glasser's choice theory is based on the premise that a person's actions are always within the person's control (Howitt, 2001).

“In addition to Rogers' client-centered approach noted above, other humanistic psychotherapists which have influenced coaching are: the Gestalt approach of Perls, the existential approach of May and Yalom and, to a lesser extent, the European existentialists, Binswanger, Boss, and Frankl” (Greenberg, 1997, p. 97). Erickson's hypnosis and communication work (Peltier, 2001; Lane & Corrie, 2006; Ting & Scisco, 2006) led to solution-focused approach that uses a non-pathological model and has other similarities with coaching.

The philosophical underpinnings of brief solution-focused therapies (BSFT) include: self and others are essentially able; people make the best choice for themselves at any given time; discourses and conversations shape our experience of reality; therapy/coaching is a dialogue between therapist/coach and client in which both co-jointly construct the problem and the solution. These indicate that BSFT embodies a

constructivist philosophy (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006, pp. 152–153). Such constructivism is a key premise in coaching.

Social psychology. Social psychology is a young science, and its origins are in events related to the Second World War. One of founder “Lewin’s many contributions is ‘field theory’ and it represents a way to help coaching clients cope with the social environment. Instead of focusing on personal qualities or shortcomings, it forces coaches to pay attention to the immediate social surroundings and pressures” (Peltier, 2001, p. 138). Another contribution by Lewin was “a learning by doing approach, termed action research, which is research with the goal of making action more effective” (Witherspoon & White, 1996, p. 126).

Educational psychology. Educational psychology is the study of how humans learn in educational settings, the effectiveness of educational interventions, the psychology of teaching, and the social psychology of schools as organizations. Educational psychology closely aligns to developmental psychology. Some major theorists of educational psychology include: Bandura (1925–present), James (1842–1910), Maslow (1908–1970), Rogers (1902–1987), Skinner (1904–1990), Thorndike (1874–1949), and developmental psychologists Piaget (1896–1980) and Vygotsky (1896–1934). Principles of Bandura’s social cognitive learning theory (Malone, 2002) and Rogers’ person-centered therapy (Ivie, 1988) can both be used effectively in coaching.

Costa and Garmston (1994) developed cognitive coaching to improve teacher effectiveness through a relationship that is nonjudgmental, relies on trust, facilitates mutual learning, and enhances growth toward working independently with others.

Cognitive coaching is based on the fields of “linguistics, individuation, constructivism, mediation, cognitive theory, humanistic psychology, systems thinking and clinical supervision” (Auerbach, 2006, p. 109), among others.

Organizational psychology. Industrial and organizational psychology (also known as I/O psychology, work psychology, occupational psychology, or personnel psychology) concerns the application of psychological theories, research methods, and intervention strategies to workplace issues. Relevant topics include personnel psychology, motivation and leadership, employee selection, training and development, organization development and guided change, organizational behavior, and work and family issues.

Glaser (1958) identified a shift of clinically oriented industrial psychologists to developmental counseling with key management personnel. One rationale was “that many of the problems in connection with the long-run operational performance of an organization stem from attitudes and actions of the managers” (p. 486). Glaser (1958) further states: “The psychological consultant to management is in a position to share with the managers and supervisors of men in our society what psychologists tentatively know about promoting healthy human development and constructive interpersonal relations” (p. 488).

“Consulting, industrial/organizational (I/O), and clinical psychology have increasingly embraced the concept of executive coaching over the past 10 years. Four types of coaching are practiced by psychologists in the organization environment and include facilitative coaching, executive consulting, restorative coaching and developmental coaching” (Berman & Bradt, 2006, p. 244). Testing and assessment are competencies from organizational psychology regularly used in executive coaching in the

form of multipoint or 360-degree feedback, interview, direct behavioral observation, and objective assessment instruments (Peltier, 2001). Specific organizational models that have been used in coaching are: Lazarus's multimodal therapy model, an integrative and holistic approach to executive coaching (Richard, 1999); Argyris' action science, about understanding and producing action (Argyris, 1995); and action research from Lewin's social research which has the goal of making action more effective (Witherspoon & White, 1996), as does coaching.

Consulting psychology. According to SCP, the Society of Consulting Psychology, is Division 13 of the American Psychological Association the "most common services offered by its members are individual assessment, individual and group process consultation, organizational development, education and training, employee selection/appraisal, expert technical support, research and evaluation test construction, executive/manager coaching, and change management" (Society of Consulting Psychology, 2006).

Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research published three special issues in Spring 1996, Fall, 2001, and Winter 2005 focusing on executive coaching as an emerging competency in the practice of consultation where "traditional organization development methods, adult education, management training, industrial-organizational psychology and generic consultation skills are being blended together to define a sub discipline" (Kilburg, 1996b, p. 59). "We draw from the frameworks of humanistic, existential, behavioral, and psychodynamic psychology and choose our techniques eclectically to fit the client, the situation, and the need." (Tobias, 1996, p. 68) Articles for Fall 1996 focused on approaches, roles, definition, actual executive coaching. Fall 2001

contained a literature review, team coaching, internal coach role, coaching versus therapy and a coaching model. Winter 2005 articles focused on case studies in executive coaching.

Though no mention of humanistic influences was made in the 1996 special issue, this author agrees with Peltier that authors of four of the ten articles sound Rogerian in their writings. These four are: David Peterson (1996) when talking about “build trust and understanding so people want to work with you” (p. 79), Richard Diedrich (1996) when identifying empathy as a critical element in feedback, Richard Kilburg (1996a) when identifying empathy as a coaching method and technique, and Witherspoon and White (1996) when focusing on client responsibility.

Consulting psychology literature puts forth various approaches to executive coaching, including a psychodynamic model (Kilburg, 1996b), a systems perspective (Tobias, 1996; Kilburg 1996b), an iterative feedback model (Diedrich, 1996), a multimodal therapy model (Richard, 1999), a rational-emotive behavior therapy (REBT) model (Sherin & Caiger, 2004), a transformative-developmental model (Laske, 1999), a constructive-developmental theory approach (Fitzgerald & Berger, 2002), a cognitive therapy orientation (Peltier, 2001), an action-frame theory approach (Cocivera & Cronshaw, 2004), a cognitive-behavioral approach (Ducharme, 2004), interpersonal communication (Campbell-Quick, & Macik-Frey, 2004), and even an existential approach (Peltier, 2001).

Developmental psychology. Developmental psychology is the scientific study of age-related changes in behavior over the life span and informs educational psychology among others. “Developmental coaching is based on adult development research,

specifically the work of Piaget, Kegan, Basseches, Jaques, and Laske. . . . Behavioral variables of coaching spell out what an individual does, while developmental variables describe what an individual is, or his/her present state of being” (Laske, 2004, pp. 52–53).

The principles of growth and development are critical to successful coaching, and Hudson (1999) sees Erikson as the beginning place for this learning, along with Kohlberg, who created a stage theory that presumed that each stage grows out of but supersedes the one that comes before; Neugarten’s social-developmental view, which forms the foundation for the human development field; Kegan’s model based on the relationship of independence and inclusion, which focuses on what goes on in a person’s mind during transitions; Levinson’s life transitions focusing on adult midlife crises; and Gilligan’s development pattern for females, which challenged existing theories and saw female development patterns as different from males.

Laske (1999) outlines a coaching paradigm derived from constructive-developmental psychology, family therapy supervision, and theories of organizational cognition. The “paradigm is one of transformative, developmental coaching, and thus it differs from both cognitive-behavioral and psychodynamic approaches” (p. 139).

Skiffington and Zeus (2003, p. 70) developed a table which links the stages of development, theories, and coaching issues, clearly identifying the influences of developmental psychology on coaching.

Sports psychology. Sport Psychology is the study of behavioral factors that influence and are influenced by participation and performance in sport, exercise, and physical activity. Sport psychology professionals are interested in how participation in

sport, exercise, and physical activity may enhance personal development and well-being throughout the life span. (AAASP & APA, 2003, ¶ 2)

Sports psychology at Esalen during the 1970s focused on the inner game of sports, with the works of Murphy, Gallwey, Schutz, and Millman (Esalen, 2005).

Whitmore (1992) noted that

Recently much has changed in sports and most top teams employ sports psychologists to provide performers with attitudinal training. If old coaching methods remain unchanged, however, the coach will frequently be unintentionally negating the psychologist's efforts. The best way to develop and maintain the ideal state of mind for performance is to build awareness and responsibility continuously throughout the daily practice and the skill-acquisition process. This requires a shift in the method of coaching, a shift from instruction to real coaching. (p. 25)

“Sports psychology has generated a significant body of research that affects executive and business coaching. The body of knowledge of particular relevance to behavioral coaching includes research findings on goal setting, focus, being in ‘the flow,’ motivation and commitment” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 14). For example, Martin and Hrycaiko (1983) identified six characteristics that appear to make behavior modification potentially valuable for coaches. (pp. 8–20) The relationship between the psychology of sport and the development of human potential in the workplace has been recognized since the 1970s (Grant, 2005a, p. 8).

Health psychology. Health psychology deals with individual behavior in a social context, and focuses on the relationship between psychological behavior—thoughts,

feelings, and actions—and physical health. The emphasis is on understanding psychological factors that relate to stress and developing effective coping mechanisms to promote health and wellness and to prevent illness. Two psychology theories of behavior change applied to health psychology are: Prochaska and DiClemente's (1983) transtheoretical model of change which sets stages and processes of change; and Miller and Rollnick's (1991) motivational interviewing. The second—a nonauthoritative approach to helping people free up their own motivations and resources—is a powerful technique for overcoming ambivalence and helping clients to get unstuck.

Palmer, Tubbs, and Whybrow (2003), who see a possible role of coaching to facilitate the promotion of healthy behaviors and to help individuals achieve their health-related goals, identifies a tentative definition of health coaching as: “Health coaching is the practice of health education and health promotion within a coaching context, to enhance the well-being of individuals and to facilitate the achievement of their health-related goals” (p. 91). With this definition Palmer attempts to link health education and promotion to the key elements of coaching. Butterworth, Linden, McClay, and Leo (2006) see health coaching as a “relatively new behavioral intervention that has gained popularity in health promotion, public health, and disease management because of the ability to address multiple behaviors, health risks, and self-management of illness in a cost-effective manner” (p. 358). Butterworth et al. conducted a study to evaluate the impact of MI-based health coaching on the physical and mental health status of employees at a large worksite (2006, p. 363).

Counseling psychology. Counseling psychology, as a psychological specialty, “facilitates personal and interpersonal functioning across the life span with a focus on

emotional, social, vocational, educational, health-related, developmental, and organizational concerns. Counseling psychology is unique in its attention both to normal developmental issues and to problems associated with physical, emotional, and mental disorders” (APA Division 17, 2006).

“Arguably, the lines drawn to date between the practice of counseling and coaching interventions may not be as obviously delineated as some may purport. Hence, to ignore the relativity of factors such as past learning (whether deemed functional or dysfunctional) to a client’s current situation appears contradictory to the espoused learning and development outcomes of the coaching relationship” (Kemp, 2005, p. 39).

“The helping skills profession contributes to . . . coaching in numerous ways, providing, among other things, communication models, models for active listening, questioning techniques, empathic responding, and reflection. Techniques for challenging and exploring issues, as well as helping individuals to gain insight, also have enriched the practice of coaching” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 16).

As cited by Diedrich & Kilburg (2001), “life coaching (Hudson, 1999), has emerged as a counterpart to counseling and psychotherapy, and many psychological practitioners are exploring how these skills and this conceptual approach can be added to their professional portfolios” (p. 203).

Coaching in the 1970s and 1980s was referred to as workplace performance counseling and viewed as a set of skills for managers to use to improve performance. This counseling “influenced the coaching practices of the 360-degree assessment and follow-up coaching. The major differences between the two approaches are that coaching is voluntary and is not necessarily remedial, and that the coachee’s employment is not

dependent on the success of the program” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p.16). “Although some business practitioners include ‘counseling’ in the repertoire of skills used by managers on a day-to-day basis, counseling is reserved for troubled employees with ‘psychological problems.’ Counseling is personal and it is aimed at personal problems. Coaching carries a much more positive implication in the corporate world” (Peltier, 2001, p. xix).

Biological or biopsychological psychology. A renewed focus on the biological perspective has arisen from recent advances of medical science and biochemistry. There are strong relationships between the body, the mind, and human behavior. Rock (2006) introduced a theoretical foundation to coaching based on brain function and believes that “all coaching can be explained from neuroscience” (p. 4). Rock’s brain-based approach to coaching recognizes “first, every event that occurs in coaching is tied to activities in someone’s head and second, a brain-based approach to coaching looks attractive when you think about the other contenders for a foundational discipline, the obvious one being psychology” (p. 2). The four main areas of scientific research that combine to form a central explanation of how coaching impacts the brain are the study of Attention, Reflection, Insight and Action, or “ARIA” for short. According to Rock (2006), “Schwartz has done tremendous work on the science of attention and how it changes the brain, which provides strong evidence for how a self-directed, solutions-focused approach to coaching works” (p. 7). Rock further states that “brain-based approach also helps explain many other domains of study, including change theory, adult learning theory, positive psychology and the study of creativity” (p. 7), among others.

Strozzi-Heckler, with a Ph.D. in psychology and a sixth degree black belt in aikido, “uses somatics with the emotional, physical, linguistic and ontological aspects of individuals. Somatic means the living body in its wholeness and is a discourse that acknowledges the many unique aspects that make up a person’s character and resilience” (Strozzi-Heckler, 2005, p. 116).

Positive psychology. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) state: “the aim of positive psychology is to begin to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from preoccupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities” (p. 10). They describe positive psychology as “a science of positive subjective experience, positive individual traits, and positive institutions promises to improve quality of life and prevent the pathologies that arise when life is barren and meaningless” (p. 10). They go on to state:

The exclusive focus on pathology that has dominated so much of our discipline results in a model of the human being lacking the positive features that make life worth living, and that hope, wisdom, creativity, future mindedness, courage, spirituality, responsibility, and perseverance are ignored or explained as transformations of more authentic negative impulses. (p. 10)

Kauffman (2006) believes:

Positive psychology has the potential to provide a theoretical and empirical underpinning, an internal scaffolding if you will, to the emerging profession of coaching. There is evidence-based support for the utility of attending to a client’s wholeness, fostering hope and helping that client hone his vision of the future. There is a firm base of data that the increases in joy and positive emotion that we

often see in coaching are not a woo-woo phenomenon. It can be reliably and validly measured, and its positive impact on fostering cognitive and social skills is very amenable to the light of scientific scrutiny. (p. 249)

Coaching has the potential to provide positive psychology with practical evidence to add further rigor to coach-specific models and theories.

Coaching psychology. Grant and Stober (2006) describe coaching psychology as being the:

Systematic application of behavioral science to the enhancement of life experience, work performance and well-being for individuals, groups and organizations who do not have clinically significant mental health issues or abnormal levels of distress. Although psychologists have long acted as coaches, coaching psychology has only recently emerged as an applied and academic subdiscipline. (p. 12)

“The term coaching psychology is relatively new and, so far, not well understood” (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006, p. 150), and yet since 2004 formal groups for coaches have been established in the Australian and British Psychological Societies, and appear to be among the fastest growing areas of interest for members. Cavanagh and Grant use an executive coaching example to demonstrate the vast range of services and specialties including “coaching for enhanced strategic planning; presentation skills; anger and stress management; team building and leadership development” (p. 150) that are required for effective coaching. The philosophical assumptions underpinnings identified by Cavanagh and Grant are: “self and others are essentially able; people make the best choice for themselves at any given time; discourses and conversations shape our experience of

reality; and therapy/coaching is a dialogue between therapist/coach and client in which both co-jointly construct the problem and the solution” (p. 152).

Coaches in the forefront of the coaching psychology subdiscipline are Grant and Cavanagh from Australia, and Lane and Palmer from the United Kingdom. Cavanagh and Grant (2006) note that, “coaching psychology uses theories and techniques developed across the breadth of the psychological enterprise . . . hence, the breadth of knowledge-base, rather than its uniqueness, is one of the features that distinguishes coaching psychology from other forms of psychological practice” (p. 150). Palmer and Cavanagh (2006) describe the breadth to include an “understanding of mental health; motivation; systems theory; personal and organisational growth; adaptation of therapeutic models to the field of coaching; research into effectiveness, resilience and positive psychology” (p. 1). Grant (2006) agrees and further states:

Although the links between positive psychology and coaching psychology are clear, coaching psychologists employ a wide range of theoretical perspectives in their work, not just positive psychological frameworks. These include psychodynamic and systematic (Kilburg, 2000), developmental (Laske, 1999), cognitive-behavioural (Ducharme, 2004), solution-focused (Greene & Grant, 2003), and behavioral (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003; also see Peltier (2001) for a useful overview of a range of theoretical approaches to executive coaching. (p. 17)

Cavanagh and Grant (2006) see “the second important distinguishing feature of coaching psychology is its client population. Coaching psychology typically deals with nonclinical or nondistressed populations. . . . With coaching, psychologists may use theories and techniques developed in clinical settings (for example cognitive

restructuring, brief solution-focused interventions), the content, style and tempo with which these techniques are used is often dramatically different in coaching” (p. 150).

Palmer and Whybrow (2006) surveyed the coaching psychology practice of 2004 Coaching Psychology Forum members in the United Kingdom and found that “coaching psychology practice is being applied to both business and personal arenas and many participants work in more than one area” (p. 9). Palmer and Whybrow also found that “psychologists have adapted a number of therapeutic approaches to the field of coaching psychology” (pp. 9–10), such as: facilitation, cognitive, behavioral, goal-focused, solution-focused, person-centered, eclectic, problem-focused, humanistic, and NLP, among others.

Sociology

Sociology is the scientific study of human social behavior and includes human systems theory and culture, among others. Lewin invented applied sociology and proposed the concept of reeducation, that adults learn and keep learning, new ways of thinking and being in three modalities: cognitive change (perception, information, expectation, and beliefs), value modification (beliefs, feelings, and sense of approval and disapproval), and motoric actions (behavioral skills, interpersonal skills.) (Hudson, 1999, pp. 86–87). Hudson further believes that if Lewin were alive today he “would applaud the coaching field for its application of many of his ideas and that studying Lewin would help coaches learn to think like practical theorists, by knowing how to apply the knowledge to the coaching field” (p. 87).

Human systems theory, according to Hudson (1999), contends:

It is system change that triggers personal change, forcing people to adapt to new conditions and meanings for their lives. Adult development occurs when two or more systems (biological, psychological, interpersonal, familial, groups, political entities, economic forces, natural forces, and so on) trigger disequilibrium in a person's life, who in turn evokes new personal and social strategies for managing and balancing life. In human systems theory it is the "timing of events" that leads either to growth and development or to regression and dysfunction. . . . This is a sociological field that, like developmental theory, has not developed an applied wing. (p. 85)

Hudson (1999) acknowledges that, "although much of the writing on human systems is abstract and theoretical, the concepts are essential for coaches to apply to their understanding of clients" (p. 86).

"Rosen and his colleagues have made a significant contribution to the literature on cross-cultural diversity, especially in relation to their construct of 'global literacies.' Coaches working with leaders and individuals on cross-cultural issues assess and develop competencies within this framework of 'global literacies.' These include personal literacy, social literacy, business literacy and cultural literacy" (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 19). Rosinski (2003) links the disciplines of coaching and interculturalism for the benefit of both fields.

Linguistics

Linguistics is the study of language that has the properties of being communicative, arbitrary, dynamic, meaningfully structured, and productive. Flaherty (2006) references linguistics and language in coaching as follows:

Humans swim in language as fish do in water. The horizons of what is possible for us are bound by the way we speak and listen to ourselves and others. Our branch of linguistics flows directly from the work of John Austin, John Searle, and Fernando Flores. These thinkers studied how language coordinates action and brings about our social world. Working at a fundamental level with language allows clients to initiate profound change in identity, meaning, and relationship. . . . In a way, all human change involves being an active speaker and listener of a new language. Integral coaches have learned through their own experience the power of language and invite their clients to share in its mystery and wonder. (Flaherty, 2006)

Semantic coaching (also know as linguistic coaching or linguistic ontology) is a system of conversational analysis and communication design developed by Fernando Flores, who holds that “language does not describe a pre-existing world, but creates the world about which it speaks” (Winograd & Flores, 1986, p. 174). Flores looked at communication as an action in which the speaker makes a commitment to the listener. This approach “opened up new possibilities for helping people to avoid misunderstandings and to work together more effectively” (Caccia, 1996). Coaching involves two or more people who use language to dynamically communicate in a meaningfully structured and productive way for the purpose of awareness, change, and action.

Anthropology

Kott (2004) describes anthropology as the:

Systematic exploration of human biological and cultural diversity. By examining the origins of, and changes in, human biology and culture, anthropology provides explanations for similarities and differences. Concerns with biology, society, culture, and language link anthropology to many other fields – sciences and humanities. Sociologists traditionally study urban and industrial populations whereas anthropologists have focused on rural, nonindustrial peoples. (p. 24)

Kott (2004) identifies four subfields of anthropology: “cultural, archaeological, biological and linguistic” (p. 3). Stagoll (2005) looked at the culture-and-personality anthropology of Bateson which focused on feedback using the tool of the English language with alcoholics” that allows change and acceptance to occur at deeper levels” (p. 1039). Coaching also uses feedback, language, and the concepts of acceptance and change to support deep and lasting change.

Mannion (2005) sees “celebrating diversity [a]s the watchword of modern anthropology” (p. 148). Rosinski (2003) believes “human potential can be unleashed when coaches act as synapses, drawing influx from various disciplines and cultures” (p. xviii) and when coaches “help bring various people into contact, enhancing the quality of communication, fostering the circulation of positive energy, and ultimately enabling human synergy” (p. 254). Anthropology models and tools regarding feedback, language, acceptance, change, and systematic exploration of human biological and cultural diversity have also been adapted to coaching.

Coaching in the Literature of Business

Much coaching takes place in business settings, with both executives and nonexecutive clients. In addition to providing a place for coaching, business provided

models and theories on the development of leaders, the culture and dynamics within groups and organizations, change, assessment, and general systems theory. Existing coaching literature has failed to acknowledge or use the extensive research literature on assessing leadership and developing leaders who perform optimally (Elliott, 2005). Coaching has been viewed as a managerial activity, a leadership competency, a form of consulting, and an organization development intervention. Early applications of coaching in management take place within the control-order-prescription paradigm (Evered & Selman, 1989) and have the attributes of being one-to-one conversations focused on performance or performance-related topics. Coaching appears to also draw on the literature of the business disciplines of training, facilitation, and mentoring as one of the primary models for coaching, and Whitmore said that “whether we label it coaching, advising, counseling, or mentoring, if done well, the underlying principles and methodology remain the same.”¹

Itation, career development, human resources, and mentoring. These integrate models and methods from other fields as well as from each other.

Management

The literature of management contributes to coaching as a cross-disciplinary synthesis of models and techniques for communication, performance improvement, implementation, leader styles, and effective habits. Covey's (1989) seven habits of effective people present a self-coaching approach as a progression from self-awareness to abundance mentality to self-renewal. Management techniques for improving relationships through improved communication, observation, and feedback with the intent to help

¹ Whitmore, 1992, p. 9

others improve effectiveness and performance (Ulrich, 2006) inform the techniques used in coaching. Specific contributions include coaching as a paradigm for communication that encompasses a mutual conversation and predictable process within the context of an ongoing, committed partnership (Evered & Selman, 1989). Models for counseling and coaching conversations between superiors and subordinates showed up in management literature in 1978 in the US and UK with common characteristics being one-to-one conversations focused on performance (Kinlaw, 1989; Megginson & Boydell, 1979) and performance-related topics. Literature suggests that coaching provided within a business environment is most effective when it relies on research literature on assessing leadership and developing leaders who perform optimally (Elliott, 2005).

Early management coaching literature identifies coaching as a form of supervision, a best method of training by immediate superior, an actionable and sequential thinking framework, and a directed discussion and guided activity to learn to solve a problem or perform a task better. Initially, management literature focused on coaching within the control-order-prescription paradigm and shifted to acknowledge-create-empower paradigm in the 1990s (Evered & Selman, 1989). More recent management perspectives on coaching include: an ongoing and committed partnership, a communication style and relationship with facts being secondary, and a communication that transforms or stretches visions-values-abilities and is forward-looking. Coaching from the management perspective can also be education and learning through pointers, observation, and feedback.

Evered and Selman (1989), who viewed coaching not as a subset of the field of management but rather as the heart of management, defined it as “the managerial activity

of creating, by communication only, the climate, environment, and context that empowers individuals and teams to generate results” (p. 4). They note the appearance of coaching in the management literature of the 1950s as a form of supervision. Such articles stressed the benefit of training supervisors to coach staff to improved work performance.

Mace (1950) studied programs for the development of men for executive positions in 25 companies, and one of the findings was that coaching by the immediate superior is the best method of training. “Little other noteworthy literature on coaching is found until Fournies’ book was published in 1978” (Evered & Selman, 1989, p. 18). Between 1978 and 1994 fourteen books were written for managers with *coaching* in their titles, and only one other book title contained coaching that was not sports coaching.

Other books influencing coaching include Drucker’s 1969 book *The Effective Executive*, whose principles were re-presented in Covey’s 1989 book *7 Habits of Highly Effective People* as “an actionable, sequential framework of thinking” (Covey, 2004, p. 60). Covey published *The 8th Habit* focusing on finding your voice and inspiring others to find theirs, which is the tenet of coaching. In 1995 Goleman published *Emotional Intelligence*, which presented four measures of EQ (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management), which are foundations of coaching. M. Goldsmith (2006) provided a step-by-step approach for leaders to use when coaching for behavioral change and encourages the use of executive coaching with peer support.

“In the late 1970s and 1980s, the focus of coaching in the United States was using the coaching process as a technique that helps managers more successfully bring about performance achievements in business that relate directly to the survival of that business”

(Fournies, 1978, p. vii). Kinlaw (1989) further described all forms of coaching as having two common attributes: “1) they are one-to-one conversations and 2) they focus on performance or performance-related topics” (p. 23). In the United Kingdom, coaching was viewed as a “process in which a manager, through direct discussion and guided activity, helps a colleague to learn to solve a problem, or to do a task, better than would otherwise have been the case” (Megginson & Boydell, 1979, p. 5). “Whatever the case, most attempts to translate coaching into managerial applications take place within the control-order-prescription paradigm” (Evered & Selman, 1989).

Evered and Selman (1989) advocated coaching in a:

Paradigm of acknowledge-create-empower. Coaching implies actively attending to a context that allows the communicative process between the player/performer and coach to be effective. In this context, a coach is someone who has an ongoing, committed partnership with a player/performer and who empowers that person, or team, to exceed prior levels of play/performance. (pp. 6–7)

More in line with the 1989 perspective of Evered and Selman, Whitmore (1992) saw coaching as “primarily concerned with the type of relationship between the coach and the coachee, and the means and style of communication used, with the facts’ being secondary . . . the objective of improving performance is paramount, but how that is best achieved is what is in question” (p. 2). Hargrove (1995) called this new style of management “transformational coaching” (p. 1), because it shows people how to transform or stretch their visions, values, and abilities. Recent books still emphasize management and leadership coaching, though the rise of business coaching specific books has increased dramatically since 1995. (See Appendix D.) Overlapping with and

preceding the entry of coaching into management literature in the late 1970s was workplace counseling, describing conversations that take place between boss and subordinate. Kirkpatrick (1982) distinguished coaching from counseling by describing coaching as: “Initiated by manager; done on a regular basis; job-oriented; being positive or corrective with emphasis on telling, training and teaching by the manager; and with the objective to improve job performance” (p. 82). Kirkpatrick (1982) further states:

The effective coaching function is more apt to take the form of working on forward-looking plans and objectives for subordinates in a way that keeps them moving constantly toward new areas of experience, new demands for personal skill development, and application of ingenuity and problem solving. (pp. 82–83)

Elliott (2005) noted that:

Existing coaching literature has so far largely failed to acknowledge and use the extensive research literature on assessing leadership and developing leaders who perform optimally. Moreover, it is suggested that the core assumptions and methodologies of some popular generalist coaching models, which are intended for use in management development and individual and organisational performance enhancement, reduce the likelihood of such coaching accessing this extensive leadership development research base. (pp. 112–113)

Even in 2006 there continued to be widely divergent definitions of coaching in the workplace. Schein (2006) defined it as: “a set of behaviors on the part of the coach (consultant) that helps the client to develop a new way of seeing, feeling about and behaving in situations that are defined by the client as problematic” (p. 19). Ulrich’s definition (2006) is “to help aspiring managers learn what should be done by offering

pointers, learn what is done by observation, and improve what will be done by providing feedback” (p. 145). Coach-specific research from a management perspective has been predominately in the psychology discipline, as pointed out by the consulting psychology subsection above.

Organization Development (Consulting – Organization)

“Organization Development (OD) is more than 50 years old and offers a more holistic view of people and organizations, with an emphasis on humanistic and democratic values” (Jamieson, 2006, ¶ 1), than the “reigning theory of scientific management offered in organizations prior to World War II” (Nevis, 1997, p. 111). In the 1940s Douglas McGregor and Chris Argyris brought a new model that made more sense in a world of complex tasks and a better educated workforce—employees could be trusted, wanted to do good work, and wanted to be treated like adults (pp. 110–130). “Application of Gestalt therapy concepts and methods to OD began in 1959 when Edwin Nevis and Richard Wallen teamed for managerial assessment, sensitivity training and general consultation with executives” (pp. 110–130).

According to French & Bell (1999) “OD focuses on issues related to the ‘human side’ of organizations by finding ways to increase the effectiveness of individuals, teams, and the organization’s human and social processes” (p. xiii). Jamieson (2006) sees OD as a “field of practice” from the perspective of education and a “community of practice” when describing the practitioners, researchers, and professors who affiliate with OD, rather than a profession or discipline. OD and coaching focus on change and learning, though OD comes mainly from the organization perspective and coaching comes mainly from the perspective of the individual. For example, Senge (1990) describes a learning

organization as using systems thinking to build shared vision, mental models, team learning, and personal mastery. The same description can be applied to coaching in the workplace.

Kilburg (2000) saw that:

Modern approaches to organization development and coaching practice are primarily based on the conceptual foundations of general systems theory as it is applied to human organizations and behavior and interventions based on this approach most often include organizational diagnosis, process consultation, sociotechnical and structural changes, team building, coaching, and other training technologies. (p. 21)

“The field of human and organization development informs the coaching practice by providing insight into human systems and their functions. This includes couple and family systems, work systems, community systems, and larger systems” (Hudson, 1999, p. 93). The key contribution of organization development to coaching is in methods of intervention and research: a) action research which “operates on the assumption that people in organizations function within dynamic and interrelated systems, as does coaching” (Abbott & Grant, 2005, p. 23); b) action science from Argyris to foster effective stewardship in organizations; c) appreciative inquiry which focuses on an organization’s capacity for positive change and is comparable to positive psychology in psychology (Whitney & Cooperrider, 1998); and d) process consultation (Schein, 1969). “Research on team building, change models and how to effectively build skills and alter behavior provides a cornerstone for coaches working in organizations” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 18).

Richard Beckhard, one of the founders of organization development, remarked that he typically plays at least four roles . . . (a) expert, providing solutions or action recommendations; (b) consultant, helping the client work a problem, the responsibility remaining with the client; (c) trainer or educator, teaching the client what he or she knows, so the client can apply the learning himself or herself; and (d) coach or counselor, helping the client to learn and teaching the client how to learn. (Witherspoon & White, 1996, p. 126)

Consulting (Management)

Schein (2006) sees coaching as a “subset of consultation and believes the coach should have the ability to move easily between the roles of process consultant, content expert, and diagnostician/prescriber” (p. 17). Block (1999) describes these three models of consultation as collaborative, expert, and pair-of-hands. Consulting literature describes a consultant as a

person who is trying to have some influence over a group or organization but has no direct power to make changes or implement programs with having the primary goals to: establish a collaborative relationship; solve problems so they stay solved; ensure attention is given both to the technical/business problem and the relationships. (Block, 1999, p. 2)

This definition has elements that contribute directly to coaching. The expert consulting model contributes to coaching the techniques of facilitating learning and goal attainment (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003).

Management consulting began in the late 1890s and generally had an engineering or accounting focus. McKenna (2006) states: “Although management consulting may not

yet be a recognized profession, the leading consulting firms have been advising and reshaping the largest organizations in the world since the 1920s” (Book jacket front cover). Schein (1969) distinguishes three models of consultation: purchase or expertise Block (1999) model; doctor-patient model; and process consultation (PC) model. “In 1981, Personnel Decisions International (PDI) became the first management consulting firm to offer a coaching program that was both structured and personally tailored to accelerate individual change and development” (Peterson, 1996, p. 78). These and similar views of consulting are echoed in the literature of consulting psychology by Kilburg (1996), Dierch and Kilburg (2001), and Peterson (1996).

As recent as 2006, Schein also sees coaching as a “subset of consultation and believes that the coach should have the ability to move easily between the roles of process consultant, content expert, and diagnostician/prescriber” (p. 24). He further states the “degree of overlap between coaching and consulting depends on (1) who initiated the request for coaching, (2) who is being coached, (3) in what role he is being coached, and (4) on what issues he is being coached” (p. 18). “Coaches, too, provide consultancy services” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 20) and are “experts in facilitating learning and goal attainment” (Greene & Grant, 2003, pp. 16–17).

Training

Training emerged from apprenticeship and encompasses teaching particular skills and information, job enrichment, career and sales focus, and seminar and workshop delivery. The literature of training focuses on workplace learning to improve performance and “coaching for skills, methods of seminar and workshop delivery and team-building strategies are founded on established training methodologies” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003,

p. 16). Coaching has been described as customized training to individual and organization goals and objectives (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003).

In the middle ages the traditional method of training was a system of apprenticeship to train a new generation of skilled crafts practitioners. Training and development, often called professional development, is the field concerned with workplace learning to improve performance. Green & Grant (2003) describe training as “teaching particular skills often through a fixed process – a certain number of employees are required to learn a specific set of skills” (p. 16).

The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) began publishing articles on coaching in the workplace in their *Training & Development Journal* beginning in 1993. The earliest coaching related articles focused on: one each for career, sales and performance from 1993–1995; four articles on executives and one on training in 1996; one each of performance, coaching and executives from 1997 through 1999, respectively. Two ASTD Info-Line booklets on coaching were also published in the mid to late 1990s: Darragh’s 1997 booklet *Coaching and Feedback* and Gibson’s 1998 booklet *Selecting a Coach*.

Skiffington and Zeus (2003), in referring to the relationship of training to coaching in coaching literature, state that:

Training was initially discussed in terms of its ineffectiveness due to a lack of follow-through and provisions for the transfer of learning. While this remains true in many instances, recent research suggests that training can be effective. The science of training has made considerable advances in developing training theory, understanding training needs analyses and exploring antecedent training

conditions, methods and strategies, as well as post-training conditions. Many trainers therefore are more aware of the need to employ coaching techniques such as individual action plans, follow-up coaching sessions and insuring that the organizational environment supports the acquisition of new learning. (pp.19–20)

Training theory and practice inform coaching in several areas: “Coaching for skills, methods of seminar and workshop delivery and team-building strategies are founded on established training methodologies” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 16).

Carroll (1974) sees “a necessary prerequisite to the implementation process will be the coaching or training of supervisory personnel in job enrichment concepts” (p. 36).

Coaches often perform the role of trainer or teacher. However, the single critical differentiator between training and coaching is that the former is more information-based. In addition, training is more circumscribed and assumes that participants will learn and use the information to a similar degree. The objectives and goals are predetermined and because of the amount of information imparted, there is generally little room for deviation from the prescribed agenda. In contrast, coaching is tailor-made, allowing individuals to learn in various ways and at different rates. It caters more to the individual’s agenda, even when the objectives and goals are organization based. (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 20)

Career Development

In career development theory, and congruent with adult developmental theory and stages of development within an organization, people project themselves into careers that are like themselves. Career development literature contributes entrepreneurial notions and a presumption of continuous change to coaching, as well as specific techniques for

identifying strengths, skills, and interests with the intent to achieve career satisfaction (Hudson, 1999).

“Career development was established by Frank Parsons in the early 1900s to help people achieve job and career satisfaction” (Bench, 2003, p. 3). Key career development theories identified by Hudson (1999) are: John Holland who suggests that people project themselves into careers that are like themselves; Donald Super who has a career theory that is highly congruent with much of adult developmental theory; Gene Dalton, Paul Thompson, and Raymond Price who have created a model of career development around four states of development within an organization; and Edgar H. Schein who has outlined stages and career tasks that adults in general follow within organizations. Hudson also recognizes Richard Bolles, Charles Handy, and Tom Peters for articulating a new approach to career planning. “Since about 1985 career theory has moved away from linear concepts and the presumption of work system stability to entrepreneurial notions and presumption of continuous change” (p. 91).

Coaching for career transition at senior leader levels is also a growing specialty for experienced coaches” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 18), though lines often blur between career coaching and career counseling. According to Bench (2003), “coaching is generally more results oriented, less structured, and more guided by clients’ agenda than is career counseling” (p. 11). Bench notes that, “in forty-seven states, U.S. career counselors are required to have a master’s degree, whereas coaches do not have to have any specific educational requirements” (p. 12).

Facilitation

Facilitation is any activity that makes easy the tasks of others, designing and running successful-productive-impartial meetings, team and group development enabling change, and concern with decision and how it is made. Skiffington and Zeus (2003) suggest that facilitation skills that enable growth and change contribute directly to coaching.

International Association of Facilitators (IAF) incorporated in 1994 and evolved from gatherings of Institute of Cultural Affairs (ICA) facilitators, which began in 1973. According to Bacal (2003):

The term Facilitator is also broadly used to describe any activity which makes easy the tasks of others. Facilitation in organizational development refers to the process of designing and running a successful, productive and impartial meeting.

A facilitation approach is appropriate when the organization is concerned not only with the decision that is made, but also with the way the decision is made. (p. 1)

Skiffington and Zeus (2003) describe facilitation as “team development, working with groups, enabling change” (p.15). Skiffington and Zeus go on to say that “facilitation is sometimes used synonymously with coaching. While there are significant differences, facilitation skills that enable growth and change are essential in team-development coaching, working with groups and coaching for change, both on an organizational and on an individual basis” (p.16).

Human Resources

Human resources, uniquely important in sustained business success, are aimed at recruiting capable, flexible, and committed people, managing and rewarding their

performance, and developing key competencies. Human resources literature focuses on developing management coaching and counseling skills as in Happock's 1958 article, Mahler's 1964 article, and Ponzo's 1980 article.

In the 1890s personnel offices were established in the United Kingdom and the United States. Human resource management (HRM) is a relatively modern label dating from the 1970s for the range of themes and practices involved in managing people. Price (2004) describes HRM as a "philosophy of people management based on the belief that human resources are uniquely important in sustained business success. Influenced by psychology, sociology, philosophy, social science research and management theory, HRM is aimed at recruiting capable, flexible and committed people, managing and rewarding their performance and developing key competencies" (p. 32).

According to Skiffington and Zeus (2003):

In the past decade or so the role of HR personnel has changed dramatically with many former tasks being outsourced, such as recruitment. At the same time, increasing numbers of HR personnel are adopting an internal coaching role. Coaching for leadership at the senior and middle management levels frequently comes under the mantle of HR. HR personnel also work with managers to develop a coaching style and are involved in team coaching and coaching to enhance skills and performance. In general, however, the role of HR personnel remains diffused, so that it is sometimes difficult to clearly delineate their coaching role from their other responsibilities." (pp. 20–21)

Mentoring

Mentoring originates from apprenticeship with passing on knowledge by a more experienced person, peer support, development guidance, career advice, and internal sponsorship. Hudson (1999) sees mentoring as the model for coaching, and Whitmore (1992) says, “whether we label it coaching, advising, counseling, or mentoring, if done well, the underlying principles and methodology remain the same” (p. 9).

“As with training, the concept of mentoring originates in apprenticeship when an older and more experienced individual passed down knowledge of how the task was done and how to operate in the commercial world” (CIPD, 2006, p. 20). According to Clutterbuck (2003) the

US traditional or godfathering mentoring models focus on the mentor’s extensive experience and willingness to exercise power and influence on behalf of the mentee, called a protégé, while the European experience of developmental mentoring emphasizes the mentee’s role in managing the relationship and focuses on the achievement of personal insight, intellectual challenge and increasing self-reliance. (p. 254)

Skiffington and Zeus (2003) see mentoring as peer support, development guidance, career advice, and internal sponsorship (p. 15). Hudson (1999) sees mentoring as the model for coaching (p. 6), and Whitmore (1992) says “whether we label it coaching, advising, counseling, or mentoring, if done well, the underlying principles and methodology remain the same and should take a performer beyond the limitations of the coach or mentor’s own knowledge” (pp. 8–9).

Coaching in the Literature of Adult Education, Learning and Development

The majority of coaching clients are adults. Because the theories and models in adult education, learning, and development are rooted in models of psychology and business, some of the contributions to coaching from these fields are identified in above paragraphs. Since most coaching takes place with adults, I identified some particular aspects of adult learning and development that influence coaching.

Adult education, learning, and development are addressed briefly in both the educational and developmental psychology subsections above and the section on training in the business literature section. According to Grant (2005a), the “knowledge domains of adult education and workplace learning and development are critical and relevant to coaching, as the majority of coaching clients are adults. Thus, coaches need to be able to draw on such established knowledge to inform their coaching practice” (p. 7).

The topic of adult education, as addressed in business, is generally referred to as training and professional development. Adults learn in different ways than younger people do, and Knowles principles of adult learning adapted to coaching include being self-directed, connecting learning to life experiences, being goal oriented, and learning when they have a reason to do so. Adult development it is a relatively recent development that brings together the fields of psychology and education. Theories of adult development are addressed by developmental psychology and influence coaching through life span models, life events and rituals throughout the life cycle, and adult psychological development. Adult development provides a contextual frame for what’s happening in a client’s life.

Adult Education

“In their writings, Egan and Cowan provide the most explicit system perspective that is relevant to adult education with their premise that human development is the effective interaction between people and human systems” (Hudson, 1999, p. 87). The topic of adult education is generally referred to as training and professional development in business and is addressed in the training subsection above, with the exception of: the Saskatchewan NewStart model of Life Skills, developed in the late sixties and early seventies in Prince Albert, Saskatchewan as an initiative of the Canadian Federal Department of Manpower and Immigration. The intent was to design an effective system of delivering adult basic education to disadvantaged populations. This program still exists today and uses a Life Skills Coach, defined as “a trained, caring professional who is able to facilitate groups, model and evaluate skills and support individualized learning. Coaches demonstrat(e) . . . the effective use of the skills that they offer to their participants. Coaches put themselves on the line, human to human” (CALSCA, 2006).

Adult Development

Equally important for effective coaching is an understanding of adult development theories and concepts (Hudson, 1999; Flaherty, 2006). These include models of social theory (Hudson, 1999), psychological development (Axelrod, 2005), Kegan’s complexity of mind (C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006), and Basseches’ dialectical thinking (O. Laske, personal communication, June 6, 2006). The interpersonal, altruistic, mastery, and self-protective commitments that guide adult development as identified by Fiske (cited in Hudson, 1999) suggest opportunities for

coaching focus. Adult development theory also contributes the importance of life events and rituals throughout the life cycle to the coaching field.

Flaherty (2006) and Hudson (1999) agree that understanding adult development theories and concepts is important for effective coaching. Flaherty (2006) says it this way:

Adults learn in different ways than younger people do. . . . Coaches of grown-ups must understand the landscape of adult development so that they have a contextual frame for what's happening in a client's life. These research-based theories point coaches to the most salient topics and fruitful approaches. (¶7)

Hudson (1999) notes that, “coaches are often asked to facilitate group process, team development, organizational planning, and corporate training. Many coaches also function as consultants, enabling them to work with both persons and systems. For those reasons, coaches often look to the major social theories of adult development for insight into their coaching tasks” (pp. 85–86). Axelrod (2005) also believed that the “effectiveness of coaching can be enhanced if it is based on a model of adult development that encompasses both career and personal life. Further, Axelrod states that coaching is guided by an understanding of how the imperatives of psychological development in adulthood play out in the here and now” (p. 118). “Understanding the impact of broader adult developmental factors on the managerial role can be an effective tool for the executive himself to coach and lead others” (Axelrod, 2005, p. 124).

Hudson (1999) identifies anthropologist Van Gennep as emphasizing the “importance of life events and rituals throughout the life cycle” (p. 71). Van Gennep also identified the “importance of rites of passage, and many coaches work with clients

experiencing a rite of passage from one phase of life to the next” (p. 71). Adult development is addressed more fully in the developmental psychology subsection.

According to Hudson (1999) Fiske observes that “as our society becomes more complex and affected by change, there are fewer autonomous, self-generating people, and thus she proposes four commitments to guide adult development: interpersonal, altruistic, mastery and self-protective” (pp. 87–88). The coaches Hudson knew in 1999 stressed “mastery commitment” over the other three commitments and raised the question of the importance of the other three commitments for effective coaching.

Adult Learning

According to Cox (2006), adult learning emerged from psychology as a field of application. Adults learn differently than younger people do. Lovin and Casstevens (1971) describe adult learning as “a modification of behavior through experience” (p. 159). Knowles adult learning principles of being self-directed and goal-oriented guide the learning-based relationship of coaching which “provides the opportunity for custom-designed learning” (Sieler, 2003, p. 2). Other principles of adult learning adapted from Knowles to coaching include connecting learning to life experiences and learning when there is a reason to do so (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 73).

“Adult learning emerged from psychology, not as a distinct discipline, but as a field of application” (Cox, 2006, p. 214). Sieler (2003) reflects that, “continual learning is now recognised as an essential component of the successful functioning of organisations, and that coaching provides the opportunity for custom-designed learning that is not available in training programs” (p. 2). According to Lovin and Casstevens (1971), adult “learning is a modification of behavior through experience” (p. 21). “As a facilitator of

learning the coach generates contexts that produce relevant, practical and potentially powerful learning for the coachee” (pp. 2–3).

“It is widely accepted that adults have different needs and requirements as learners compared with children and teenagers. Despite this, there is not a great deal of research in the area” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 73). The principles of adult learning, adapted from the work of Knowles, are what guide coaches in this area. According to Skiffington and Zeus (2003) these principles include being self-directed, connecting learning to life experiences, being goal orientated and pragmatic, and learning when they have a reason to do so. Megginson and Boydell’s (1979) approach and philosophy of their manager as coach booklet also shares Knowles’ view of the basis of adult learning (p. 42).

Cox (2006) identifies eight learning theories that have a particular relevance to coaching. Each theory has a particular part to play in adult learning and has been identified because of its practical application to the coaching process. Briefly, these eight theories are: Knowles’ andragogy, Mezirow’s transformative learning theory, Boud and Walker’s reflective practice, Kolb’s experiential learning; Kolb’s learning styles, Levinson’s life course development, Maslow’s values and motivation; and Bandura’s self-efficacy. Mink, Owen, and Mink (1993) include Merton’s Pygmalian effect and Brookfield’s qualities of learning-promoting relationships among adults that also have practical application to coaching.

Coaching in the Literature of Sports

The word *coach* was first used in the modern sense of a sports coach in the 1880s when referring specifically to one who trained a team of athletes to win a boat race (Evered & Selman, 1989).

Historically, coaching in sport was not what we would now call coaching, but instead instruction . . . This was based on the dominant system of psychology, that is, behavioral and cognitive psychology. What that assumes is that people don't know much and they have to learn by being told. (Whitmore, 2006, p. 32)

By 1999, Hudson stated that “when used in the athletic sense, *coach* is now widely applied to a person who facilitates experiential learning that results in future-oriented abilities” (p. 6). This supports the assertion of Mink, Owen and Mink that:

Even today, the term coaching often produces a mental image of a football or basketball coach, and depending on what the coach actually does, this analogy may or may not be adequate because the head coach is usually a general manager or chief executive officer responsible for running an entire program. The image of the quarterback coach or the offensive line coach is somewhat more accurate by enabling others to play through teaching. (1993, p. 7)

Gallwey's 1974 inner game approach to sports was based on humanistic and transpersonal psychological principles, and “the concept that the opponent within is more formidable than the one outside” (Whitmore, 1992, pp. 5–6). According to Whitmore, “Gallwey was the first to demonstrate a simple and comprehensive method of coaching that could be readily applied to almost any situation” (p. 7). Trained by Gallwey, Whitmore founded the Inner Game in Britain and states that “all the leading proponents of business coaching in the Britain today, including Alexander, Downey and Whitmore,

graduated from or were profoundly influenced by the Gallwey school of coaching” (p. 7–8).

Athletic coaches rarely take the stance that they can learn something from their players, and perhaps that makes sense given the situation they’re in, but I assure that as coaches elsewhere in life, we must keep ourselves learning as an integral part of our coaching. (Flaherty, 2005, p. 12)

According to Peltier (2001), “executive coaching has its roots in athletic and performance coaching” (p. 170), and the themes of successful athletic coaches align with many of the philosophies underpinning coaching outside the sports arena. Included are: use individual approaches, flexibility and ingenuity; play against yourself; visualize; feedback; learning from defeat; communication, trust, and integrity; clear contract, curiosity, and perpetual change; and awareness is everything.

Kirkpatrick, (1982) surveyed well-known athletic coaches to determine if characteristics of effective coaches would apply to managers as *coaches* in industry, business, and government. Kirkpatrick found the ideal coach has the following personal qualities:

Enthusiasm and dedication, self-control, patience, impartiality, integrity and honesty, friendliness, self-confidence, humility, perseverance, genuine concern for players, warmth, willingness to admit mistakes, optimism, resourcefulness, vision, forcefulness, consistency, being part of the team, open-mindedness, willingness to accept criticism, sense of humor, flexibility, love of the sport, willingness to accept success and failure as part of the game, and strong sense of moral values.” (pp. 79–80)

For the most part, these qualities apply to coaches and managers outside of sports. About the same time, Erhard brought together Gallwey, Wooden, and Auerbach for a similar discussion about coaching (Evered & Selman, 1989).

Blanchard and Shula (1995) established a simple acronym COACH, based on how coaching worked in the field of sports, to describe the qualities of an effective leader: conviction-driven; overlearning; audible-ready; consistency; and honesty-based. According to Peltier (2001):

The main reason that coaching is called ‘coaching’ and not executive counseling or workplace psychotherapy is that hard-charging corporate types, especially men, are likely to be happy to have a coach, but unwilling to enter therapy. Most identify with sport and would love to see themselves as athletes, or at least, high performers. . . . Counseling is associated with weakness and inadequacy, while coaching is identified with successful sports figures and winning teams. (p. 170)

Coaching in the Literature of Philosophy

The word philosophy literally means “love of wisdom or knowledge,” and philosophy probes the nature of human beings, the mind, the physical universe, truth, and moral reasoning. Philosophy, with the aim to make sense of the world, influences all interaction and communication between humans, and forms the basis for various models and approaches to coaching. When we set goals, negotiate life transitions or crises, or examine the beliefs and values that form the basis of our particular lifestyle, we are trying to make sense of our lives” (Merriam & Brockett, 1997, p. 28). “The search for meaning – the desire to make sense of our world and our experiences in it – is a commonplace

motivation in human beings that leads to critical examination, analysis, and philosophizing” (Merriam & Brockett, 1997, p. 27).

Eastern, Western, and other philosophies form the basis for various models and approaches to coaching. Grant (2005a) says it well:

The vast body of philosophical knowledge is an important foundation for evidence-based coaching. Philosophy is at the heart of many coaching issues, such as the nature of good corporate governance, business ethics, questions of self-identity and personal values. Many contemporary coaching texts include discussions of the philosophical foundations of their specific approach (e.g. Hudson, 1999; Whitmore, 1992), as well as addressing issues of ethics and personal values (e.g., Flaherty, 2005). In addition, coaches need to have well-developed critical thinking skills, the ability to analyze and reason from first principles, and the ability to construct arguments and hold robust and well-reasoned discussions. (p. 7)

Stevenson (2000) notes that Western philosophy is traditionally scientific, makes sharp distinctions between things, and tries to understand reality to master and control it, while Eastern philosophy emphasizes oneness, harmony, and adapting to changes. Yet, according to Chang and Page (1991),

There are similarities between Eastern and Western philosophies. Jung’s famous theories of the collective unconscious and synchronicity draw on Eastern philosophy. Maslow, Rogers, Lao Tzu, and Zen Buddhism all assumed that every person has an actualizing tendency that promotes growth, direction, and productivity. The individual in all of these theories is involved in caring and

responsible interpersonal relationships. Possibly the perspectives of Taoism, Zen Buddhism, Rogers, and Maslow have congruent elements because these theories reflect something universal about human experience. The ways that people fully develop their human potential may be seen as a central concern for both Eastern and Western cultures. (p. 2)

Given that philosophy is the foundation upon which all other fields of thought are based, the identification of philosophy as the taproot of the tree of coaching stands. For coaching in the literature of philosophy, the influences that influenced the influencers will be discussed. This section is grouped by the following topics: Eastern philosophy, Western philosophy, and other philosophies.

Eastern Philosophy

Eastern philosophy is concerned with the big picture, sees knowledge as a state of mind and an approach to life, and believes that spirituality and intellect work together. Eastern philosophy contributes the ideas of oneness, harmony, and adapting to change (Aimes, 2005) and sees reality as harmonious and unified with all things interrelated. Coaching principles reflect these ideas: listening to one's heart, balance, taking action and stepping aside, acceptance and nonjudgment. There are many influences on coaching from Eastern philosophy. Hinduism provides an action orientation. Buddhism provides the concept of Karma (cosmos has inherent balance and justice) , originally from Hinduism; flexibility, adaptability and absence of rigid dogma; life of kindness, compassion, and composure; nonharming; and appropriate happiness, spirituality, simplicity, and service. Zen Buddhism concepts of live in present, let go of past, be mindful, and do not be attached to outcomes are foundational to coaching. Taoism

influences coaching through its effortless and harmonious approach to life, inner freedom, simplicity, non-restriction, taking action and stepping aside, and timing. The Golden Rule is adapted by coaching from Confucianism.

Stevenson (2000) suggests the distinction between Eastern and Western thought lies in the idea that reality is harmonious and unified and that all things are interrelated.

Unlike Western thinking, Eastern thought tends not to place itself outside of whatever it is thinking about . . . what is true under one set of circumstances is no longer true in new situations...teachings of philosophy can guide and ultimately the truth must be experienced and practiced to hold any validity . . . concerned. . . with breaking through boundaries that isolate self from the whole...oneness pervades, unites or transcends all things . . . concerned more with the big picture than with sweating the details . . . knowledge is a state of mind and an approach to life. (pp. 18–19)

Therefore spirituality and intellect work well together in Eastern thinking.

“Eastern thought also recognizes many paths to enlightenment, including both personal and communal approaches” (Stevenson, 2000, p. 27). Stevenson states that the four main traditions of Hinduism, Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism “are generally less critical–concerned with measuring ideas–than Western thought . . . and tend to be tolerant and accepting of one another” (p. 21). Chinese philosophy, Taoism, and Confucianism, is concerned with harmony in society and nature, and tends to be more worldly and practical than Indian philosophy and more collectively oriented than Western philosophy (Stevenson 2000). Mannion (2005) writes that Hinduism, the main religion of India, is action oriented in that “it is not so much what you think as what you do” (p. 164), and

holds the “universal theme is Karma, the principle that maintains there is an inherent balance to the cosmos” (p. 166). Coaching is all about action and forward movement. “Buddhism, like Hinduism, also posits karma as a universal force of balance and justice” (p. 170). The goal is achievement of Nirvana through a path of “living a life of kindness, compassion and composure” (p. 170). Buddhism is popular today due to its “flexibility, adaptability and absence of rigid dogma” (p. 171).

Five aspects of Buddhism that directly influence coaching are: Nonharming, appropriate happiness, spirituality, simplicity, and service (adapted from Mannion, 2005, p. 20).

“The influence of Zen philosophy in particular can be seen in the importance coaching places on living in the present, letting go of the past, being mindful and not being attached to outcomes” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 17). The Buddhist axiom “be still and know” can be described as “listen to your heart” (Mannion, 2005, p. 173).

“Taoism is an all-encompassing philosophy providing a point of view on just about everything where balance, harmony, and effortlessness of natural processes provide a model for human action” (Stevenson, 2000, p. 199). According to Stevenson, the key focus of Taoism is “an effortless, harmonious approach to life” (p. 210). Some of the principles deal with inner freedom; being as simple as possible; not restricting self or others; taking action and stepping aside; and timing. Taoism “rejects materialism as a hindrance to enlightenment and advocates acceptance as the path to inner peace” (Mannion, 2005, p. 173). The famous line in the Tao Te Ching is, “A journey of thousands starts with a single step” (p. 173), echoes the step-by-step journey of coaching.

Confucianism is a secular philosophy of social wholeness, based on the philosophy of Confucius (551–479 B.C.). The REN coaching model developed by Wong and Leung (2007) originates from Chinese traditional culture and Confucian teaching and fuses Western management principles emphasizing balanced growth in knowledge and skills and beliefs and attitudes. REN is defined in English as “love” or “virtue” and is the focus of Confucian philosophy. Manion (2005) expresses this focus as “Do unto others as you would have them do unto you . . . the famous ‘Golden Rule’ is also a mainstay of ancient Chinese thought” (p. 177).

Western Philosophy

Western philosophy, in contrast to Eastern philosophy, makes sharp distinctions between things, seeks to understand reality, to master and control it, and is a deep rational, fundamental, and universal form of thought. There are many influences on coaching from Western philosophy. Analytical philosophy contributes a scientific method to study the nature of human beings. Existential philosophical concepts of being, the unpredictability of things, individual freedom, subjectivity, individuality and context, choice, intensity, learning, and self-responsibility have influenced coaching. Stober proposes that humanistic roots from the literature of Western philosophy are “an underlying philosophical foundation of coaching today” (Stober, 2006). From humanistic philosophy coaching integrates the concepts of responsibility, new discovery and knowledge and options, open-endedness, freedom, and capacity for growth and fulfillment. Phenomenological philosophy contributes intentionality, consciousness, and a first-person perspective. Theological philosophy contributes to coaching a special

relationship with followers, empathy and support, positive expectations, alliance contract, rationale, confrontation and learning.

Integral philosophy professes truths of body-mind-soul-spirit and that both science and spirituality are necessary for complete understanding, while incorporating and honoring all perspectives within a balanced, comprehensive, and interconnected whole. A coaching specialty is based on ontological philosophy of holding others as legitimate, identifying breakdown, language as essential, moods and emotion, physiology and body transparency, and that existence occurs in a historical context with social-economic-political dimensions. More recent literature in Western philosophy combines integral theories from Wilber, which adopt a more systemic holistic philosophy, with an ontological understanding of language and communication as proposed by Flores (Sieler, 2003). The contributions of these philosophical principles to coaching are choice, learning, self-responsibility, being, transparency, and holding the coachee as a legitimate other (Flaherty, 2005).

Branches of Western philosophy contribute the following to coaching: nature and sources and limits of knowledge, mechanistic and behavioral worldview, reason, logic, objectivity (Epistemology); study of right or wrong action, system of value and custom, day-to-day choices, values clarification, self-examination, and introspection (Ethics); being, existence, universal, property, relation, causation, space, time, event, reason, what is existence, and what types of things exist (Metaphysics); and what actions are permissible within the bounds of society (Politics).

“In the West, philosophy is an expansive and ambiguous concept. Today what generally distinguishes philosophy from other Western disciplines is the notion that

philosophy is a deeper and more rational, fundamental, and universal form of thought than other disciplines. Originally the term *philosophy* was applied to all intellectual endeavors” (Wiki Project, 2006).

It is important to address some basic Western philosophical assumptions about the world and human nature. “These basic philosophical assumptions profoundly influence the way in which we perceive the world and theorize about it. . . . Each issue is presented here as a bipolar dimension. Some theorists may be seen as agreeing with one or the other extreme. Others are neutral toward the issue or seek a synthesis” (Engler, 2003, p. 8). Most coaches will lie somewhere on the continuum between extremes and the assumptions held will significantly influence the coaching delivered. Table 2.2 below uses information adapted from Engler (p. 12) with the addition of the final category of holism and reductionism.

Table 2.2 Philosophical Assumptions

FREEDOM – People Basically have control over their own behavior and understand the motives behind their behavior	Is neutral or believes in synthesis of both views.	DETERMINISM – The behavior of people is basically determined by internal or external forces over which they have little, if any, control.
HEREDITARY – Inherited and inborn characteristics have the most important influence on a person’s behavior.	✓	ENVIRONMENTAL – Factors in the environment have the most important influence on a person’s behavior.
UNIQUENESS – Each individual is unique and cannot be compared with others.	✓	UNIVERSALITY – People are basically very similar in nature.
PROACTIVE – Human beings primarily act on their own initiative.	✓	REACTIVE – Human beings primarily react to stimuli from the outside world.
OPTIMISTIC – Significant changes in personality and behavior can occur throughout the course of a lifetime.	✓	PESSIMISTIC – A person’s personality and behavior are essentially stable and unchanging.
HOLISM – idea that properties of a system cannot be determined	✓	REDUCTIONISM – Describes a number of related, contentious

or explained by the sum of its components alone.		theories that hold that the nature of complex things can always be reduced to simpler or more fundamental things.
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Echevarria (1997) observes that an element of upheaval in the world of philosophy in the recent century is what he terms “the linguistic turn” (p. 4), with language taking the place formerly occupied by reason, or metaphysics. Flaherty (2005) also sees the impact of language taking a more prominent role in philosophy as a key influence in the emergence of coaching, particularly the ontological and integral coach approaches. Flaherty believes that “language is an essential part of coaching and, in fact, it could be said that the essential job of the coach is to provide a new language for the client” (p. 30).

Coaching is directly influenced by analytic, existential, humanistic, phenomenological, and theological philosophy. Following a look at these areas is a discussion on the five branches of Western philosophy: metaphysics, epistemology, ethics, politics, and aesthetics. Rounding out this section is a look at ontological and integral philosophy.

Analytic philosophy

Influenced by the analytic philosophy movement, 20th century Western philosophy branched off into three social science areas which “began to more aggressively employ the scientific method and apply the practices used to study the natural world to the study of societies, cultures, and the mysterious workings of the human mind: sociology, anthropology and psychology” (Mannion, 2005, p. 141).

Psychology, or philosophy of mind, has “continued to evolve in the Austro-Anglo-American tradition of analytic philosophy” (Smith, 2003), until recently.

Existential philosophy

“Existentialism regards being as a fundamental central concept and highlights the utter unpredictability of things, including the fact that we could die at any moment, and celebrates it” (Peltier, 2001, p. 163). This philosophical movement is characterized by an emphasis on individualism, individual freedom, and subjectivity. It emphasizes the idea that existence preceded essence, i.e. that one must be alive in order to create meaning and that each person is therefore gifted with individual moments to make choices. Peltier (2001) identifies the existentialist values of individuality and context, choice, and intensity as core for the executive coach (pp. 159–161).

Echevarria (1997) identifies Heidegger and Perls as famous existentialists who influenced ontological and Gestalt coaching respectively. Peltier (2001) and Skiffington and Zeus (2003) agree that existential philosophy offers a great deal to the coach through its emphasis on learning, choice, and self-responsibility.

Humanistic philosophy

Arising in the 14th century in Italy, Renaissance humanism was “a cultural movement centered on rhetoric, literature and history – an education based on the Greek and Latin classics” and characterized by “a cycle of five subjects: grammar, rhetoric, poetry, history and moral philosophy (Monfasani, 2005, p. 395). In the 19th century humanism metamorphed into modern scholarly classicism and today has taken on new connotations.

Humanism is, in sum, a philosophy for those in love with life. Humanists take responsibility for their own lives and relish the adventure of being part of new discoveries, seeking new knowledge, exploring new options. Instead of finding solace in prefabricated answers to the great questions of life, Humanists enjoy the open-endedness of a quest and the freedom of discovery that this entails.

(Edwards, 1989, ¶ 48)

Humanism is the precursor to the humanistic worldview that is foundational to the field of coaching. Indeed, Skiffington and Zeus (2003) believe that “coaching is humanistic in that it views the human being as the ultimate measure of all things and recognizes that every individual has a capacity, even yearning, for growth and fulfillment” (p. 17). “Stober proposes that the humanistic perspective is an underlying philosophical foundation of coaching today” (Grant & Stober, 2006, p. 7).

Phenomenological philosophy

Phenomenology as a discipline has been central to the tradition of continental European philosophy throughout the 20th century and it:

Came into its own in the early 20th century in the works of Husserl, Heidegger, Sartre, Merleau-Ponty and others. Phenomenological issues of intentionality, consciousness and first-person perspective have been prominent in recent philosophy of mind . . . Phenomenology studies conscious experience as experienced from the subjective or first person point of view. This field of philosophy is then to be distinguished from, and related to, the other main fields of philosophy: ontology (the study of being or what is), epistemology (the study

of knowledge), logic (the study of valid reasoning), ethics (the study of right and wrong action), etc. (Smith, 2003, ¶ 2)

With regard to coaching, Flaherty (2005) asserts:

Whether ontological or integral, the approach or theory must hold the coachee as a legitimate other while blending “academic rigor and everyday, commonsense experience. Absent this blending, any coaching theory will lack the robustness necessary to actively engage both coach and client. The theory . . . is drawn from phenomenology, a school of modern philosophy centered on the way phenomena actually show up in people’s lives, as distinct from metaphysical schools of philosophy in which events and experiences are categorized by pre-existing distinctions. (pp. 7–8)

Theological philosophy

Most philosophers prior to the twentieth century devoted significant effort to theological questions, and Aristotle considered theology a branch of metaphysics, the central field of philosophy. Mannion (2005) believes that the “three religions forged in ancient Middle East have done more to reshape the face of the world than any Socratic dialogue or ontological conundrum” (p. 183). The religions of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam practice monotheism, where one God is worshipped and this philosophy “shapes our contemporary world at almost every level, both secular and spiritual” (p. 184). “Jerusalem has the distinction of being a holy place in the traditions of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam” (p. 191), and “Yahweh, God and Allah are all names for the same deity that is worshipped in different ways by these religions” (p. 188).

Coaching is a change process based on social interaction and relationship. Lampropoulos (2001) looked at common processes of change in psychotherapy and seven other social interactions, including religion. He likened the relationship between minister or spiritual leader as a “special relationship with their followers – they are by definition God’s chosen or representatives” (p. 24), and their role includes empathy and support/catharsis, positive expectations, alliance contract, provision of rationale, and confrontation and learning. In 1952 Peale applied Christianity principles toward achieving the goal of successful living through: believing in yourself, a peaceful mind generates power, expect the best and get it, and how to create your own happiness (Derloshon & Potter, 1982). More recently, Collins (2001) published a popular book with the coaching model based on a Christian world view with Jesus Christ at the center of the model. Collins indicates that 21st century church leaders will lead through coaching by helping others clarify and implement God’s call in their life.

Ontological philosophy

In the latter part of the 20th century, the integration of significant developments in the fields of philosophy and biology produced the new discipline of Ontology. Sieler (2003) describes this discipline as “providing a new understanding of human beings and human interaction, which is relevant and applicable to everyday living, working, learning, and coaching. . . . The resultant coaching methodology and coaching practice is Ontological Coaching, which is equally applicable to Organisational Coaching and Life Coaching” (p. xii). Seiler sees this communication and deep change as the hallmarks of coaching, and further:

According to Fernando Flores, the originator of an ontological approach to coaching, mastery in any specialist domain of human activity, such as coaching, involves an appreciation and deep understanding of the larger historical circumstances in which excellence in performance occurs. Humans are historical beings...and existence always occurs within a historical context which has social, economic, political and cultural dimensions. Ontological coaches, and the people they coach, live and work within a historical context. (pp. 42–43)

“The philosophical ideas of thinkers such as Heidegger, Gadamer, Maturana, and Austin provided a framework to integrate what we had previously learned through our practical experience. . . . Theories about the nature of biological existence, about language, and about the nature of human action have a profound influence on the shape of what we build and how we use it” (Winograd & Flores, 1986, p. xii).

Sieler (2003) indicates that “two other people who have played a major role in the development of Ontological Coaching are Julio Olalla and Rafael Echevarria” (p. 6), founders of Newfield Network. He further believes that an ontological approach to researching the roots of coaching involves looking at the social, economic, and worldview dimensions within which coaching evolved as each coaching conversation or relationship is historically situated within existing dimensions present.

Key elements of ontological coaching methodology (Flaherty, 2005; Sieler, 2003) have roots in the works of Heidegger, Wittgenstein, Habermas, Gadamer, and Searle and the therapeutic human body modalities of Hatha yoga, Reiki, Lowen, Rolf, among others. These five interrelated elements include: holding the coachee as a legitimate other; identifying the breakdown; language; moods and emotions; and physiology-body.

“Heidegger built on Kierkegaard’s work” (Peltier, 2001, p. 157) and “used ‘transparency’ to refer to what is so familiar that we are not aware of its presence” (Sieler, 2003, p. 317), just as coaches are referred to as *transparent* in the coaching relationship. Wittgenstein was an influential advocate of analytic and linguistic philosophy who said “that language exists as a type of game that exists and makes sense only in the context of the world created by speakers of the language” (Flaherty, 2005, p. 31). According to Sieler (2003), Flores was influenced by Maturana’s

Novel, yet biologically grounded, ideas on perception, cognition, language and communication . . . and was able to integrate the ideas of Maturana, Heidegger and Searle to produce a new understanding of language and communication, and the formation of a new discipline. Flores invented the term ontological coaching and pursued the commercial applications of this new understanding of language and communication in organisational settings, along with two other Chileans, Julio Olalla and Rafael Echevarria. (pp. 6–8)

Integral philosophy

Integral theory is comprised of those philosophies and teachings that seek “to include the truths of body, mind, soul, and spirit” (Wilber, 2000, p. xi). Integral is a new and developing movement that argues that both science and mysticism (or spirituality) are necessary for complete understanding of humans and the universe. Sri Aurobindo (Hindu writer and guru) was the original user of the word *integral* to describe the yoga he taught as it involves the transformation of the entire being. Authors who trace their intellectual heritage to Aurobindo include: Graves, Murphy, Leonard, Wilber, and Kegan. Others who did not use the word integral to refer to their theories, nevertheless are

considered to think or theorize in an integral way, include Habermas, Shell Drake, Emerson, and Gandhi (Wikimedia Project, 2006).

Integral theory refers to the systematic holistic philosophy developed originally by Wilber, which deals with the body, mind, heart, and soul. This all-encompassing, evolutionary theory incorporates and honors all perspectives, while presenting a larger picture. “Based on the work of Wilber, integral theory is the bold project to include everything in human life, leaving out nothing” (Flaherty, 2006).

To Wilber integral “simply means more balanced, comprehensive, interconnected, and whole. By using an Integral approach—whether it’s in business, personal development, art, education, or spirituality (or any of dozens of other fields)—we can include more aspects of reality, and more of our humanity, in order to become more fully awake and effective in anything we do” (Integral Institute, 2006).

Much as integral theory is the bold project to include everything in human life, integral coaching is all-encompassing, evolutionary, and incorporates and honors all perspectives, while keeping a perspective of the larger picture. Flaherty (2006) has clearly described the philosophical foundations of integral coaching as encompassing ontology, pragmatism, linguistics, adult development theory, biology, and integral theory. An integral approach is taken in this study of the roots supporting the field of coaching.

Coaching in the Literature of Other Areas

I also reviewed the literature of performing arts, wellness and leisure, communication, creativity, biology, and systems theory for influence on coaching.

Performing Arts

The literature of performing arts contributes the tradition of mentor actors in the relationship of a trusted facilitator in a supportive environment (Lampropoulos, 2001), which is much like coaching. Performing arts draw on emotions, memories, and experiences to influence portrayal of a character. Coaching in performing arts occurs within a supportive environment where expectations are communicated early and a contract is signed.

One of the earliest known traditions of experienced actors coaching students in small groups was in the early 1900 with the Stanislavsky System in Russia, where the experienced actor was an authority figure and students were to accept what was being handed down to them (Poggi, 1973). In the 1940s the American Strasburg used Stanislavsky's techniques to derive "the Method, which requires an actor to draw on his or her own emotions, memories, and experiences to influence their portrayal of a character" (Wikipedia, 2006b, p. 1).

Voice, acting, dialogue, and other types of coaches have been prevalent in the performing arts for many years. Lampropoulos (2001) sees the role of directors as a relationship between skillful and trusted facilitators with respected and worthy actors/actresses who work within a supportive environment where expectations are communicated very early and a contract has been signed before the alliance has been formed. Coaching reflects all these elements with less emphasis on expectations communication by the coach and more on client responsibility.

Wellness and Leisure

The theoretical foundations of health psychology underpin the wellness and leisure industry, and are a key area of coaching focus on work and life balance. The

literature identifies life planning involving implementation, involvement and re-assessment, and reawareness and reexploration models and tools.

Wellness is a term used to describe one's state of being. Leisure, whether active or passive, came into being late in the industrial revolution when Sunday was the only day off from long hours of factory work. Today, the theoretical foundations of health psychology underpin the wellness and leisure industry. Hudson (1999) notes that "McDaniels has outlined a lifespan approach to work and leisure in his important book on life planning" (p. 92), using adulthood (24–40) as the implementation stage midlife (40–60) as the involvement and reassessment stage, and retirement (60+) as the reawareness and reexploration stage. Wellness and leisure, generally in the form of work-life balance, are key areas of focus for many business and personal coaches.

Communication

Communication addresses the learning and processing of verbal and non-verbal language, how to deliver messages in a more effective way, listening skills, speaking to keep people's attention, and way information is processed. The literature of the field of interpersonal communications focuses on how language is used in communication and has contributed to coaching more effective ways to deliver messages, listen, and process information (Stein, 2003).

Communication is the process of sending information to oneself or another entity, usually via a language. Not linked to any profession, communication delves into the learning and processing of verbal and non-verbal language. According to Stein (2003), "included in this field is interpersonal communication, organizational and team communication, social construction of reality through language, and discourse studies—

the study of how language is used to communication. Through a communication lens, coaching can be seen as a way of talking and interacting that is different than we normally encounter in day-to-day activities” (p. 130). The differences can be summarized as the coach paying attention to self, the relationship between coach and their client, and the current situation.

The growth of coaching has been influenced by communication skills development within the corporate world. Stein (2003) notes: “a lot of research has gone into how to deliver messages in a more effective way, particularly in the model of working within a team environment. The growth of NLP has been driven to an extent by this. There has been a large body of work done on listening skills, on speaking in a way that keeps people’s attention and on the way we process information. All of this has contributed to the development of the coaching world” (p. 130).

Creativity

Literature linking creativity and innovation with coaching contributes models for communication, questioning, brainstorming, and listening (Lewis & Porter, 2005). From creativity, coaching has adapted models for unique ideas or possibilities, reframing, shifting perspective in ways that may seem unconventional, being aware of what brings out the best in us, suspending boundaries and taking chances, synergy, balance of imagination and ideas, requiring steps to convert ideas to realities, and lateral thinking that provokes new patterns.

Lewis & Porter (2005) define creativity as:

Empowering ourselves to tap into the unique ideas or possibilities that we all have within us. . . . Creativity is not limited to just coming up with new ideas or novel

approaches to a situation, it is about reframing a situation and looking at it from a different perspective or in a way that may seem unconventional, being aware of the people and situations that bring out the best in us, suspending for a moment what may be perceived as the boundaries to a situation and taking chances—breaking through these boundaries to a place where the possibilities are endless and extraordinary ideas are realized. Creativity is about synergy, realizing that all ideas begin as divergent thoughts until we begin to focus them in a directed fashion and finding the power to act, taking a chance and finding the energy to move an idea or thought to fruition. (p. 19)

“Models for understanding the creative process have been developed over the years and follow several themes: the creative process is a balance of imagination and ideas, and requires steps to convert ideas into concrete realities; and modern models imply purposeful conscious generation of new ideas while older models imply that creative ideas result from subconscious processes” (Lewis & Porter, 2005, p. 18). De Bono (1973) describes creativity as the result of the process of lateral thinking, “an essential ingredient in change and in progress” (p. 11). He goes on to say that “lateral thinking is concerned with restructuring such patterns (insight) and provoking new ones (creativity)” (p. 11). Literature linking creativity and innovation with coaching exists for quality improvement paradigms (Naveh & Erez, 2004), problem solving (Richard, 2003), education (Garmston & Linder, 1993), and training and development (Roffe, 1999). Coaching is seen as an individualized change process that enhances creativity and innovation through communication, questioning, brainstorming, listening, among other things.

Natural Sciences

The natural sciences of biology and systems theory influence the coaching field. Biology literature demonstrates that sustained change is a pattern of response integrated into the body. This contributes to coaching by suggesting that incorporating the body is critical for long-lasting change (Flaherty, 2006). Systems theory is addressed in the organization development paragraph earlier in this chapter. Coaching has adapted systems theory concepts of feedback and feed-forward loops, and a holistic, interdependent, open, and dynamic equilibrium that elicits creativity and innovation. The systems theory principles of focusing on the present, process over content and orders of change can be applied directly to coaching (Peltier, 2001).

Biology

“Theoretical biology claims that the basic feature which distinguishes the human species from others is human language and Maturana identifies that for a human being to be able to speak certain biological conditions need to be in place” (Echevarria, 1997, p. 4). But according to Echevarria “language is not generated from our biological capabilities, it stems from the social interaction among human beings” (p. 6).

From the integral perspective, Flaherty (2006) states that “Everyone we coach has a body, and our work is based upon what has been learned by the best somatic thinkers, biologists, and cognitive scientists. Only when a pattern of response has been integrated into the body has true long-lasting change taken root. Then someone has been truly coached” (¶ 6).

Systems theory

According to Cavanagh & Grant (2006) general systems theory was developed by the biologist von Bertalanffy “from the 1920s to the 1960s in an attempt to provide a unifying approach to science that overcame many of the limitations of the dominant reductionistic approach to knowledge about the world” (p. 314). This unifying theory sees the systemic nature of the world “in both the natural sciences, such as biology, physics, and chemistry, and the social sciences such as psychology and sociology” (p. 314). This approach holds that systems are holistic, interdependent, open, and marked by a dynamic equilibrium that elicits creativity and innovation. Feedback and feed-forward loops are inherent in amplifying and balancing the characteristics of complexity theory

According to Peltier (2001)

General systems theory and the family therapy approaches that evolved from them have a good deal to offer the executive coach. They provide specific techniques and an overarching, integrative viewpoint that can be extremely useful. . . . Corporate organizations follow the very same general rules that other groups do, and the dynamics of families are usually quite relevant to work groups. (p. 100)

Some operating principles of systems thinking can be applied to coaching: “focus on the present; process over content; problem locus; and first-order and second-order change” (Peltier, 2001, pp. 102–103).

Literature of Coaching

The literature of coaching as a separate field emerged with Whitmore’s 1992 publication. Ten of the 12 books found on coaching between 1971 and 1991 focused on

managers using coaching to improve performance, with 2 books on peer coaching in education. Between 1993 and 1995, 9 books on coaching were published, of which 6 focused on coaching in management, including Blanchard and Shula (1995) and Mink, Owen, and Mink (1993); 1 on clinical supervision in psychology; 1 on sports; and Hargrove's 1995 book in the field of coaching. Between 1996 and 2000 many more books were published. The most well-known included 3 on coaching in management with 1 by Peterson and Hicks in 1996, 1 on training by Kinlaw in 1996, and 14 pioneering books on the coaching field by Landsberg in 1997; Crane in 1998; Hudson in 1999; Flaherty in 1999; Bergquist in 1999; Jay in 1999; Kilburg in 2000; O'Neill in 2000; and Goldsmith, Lyons, Freas, and Witherspoon in 2000 for the business coaching arena, and Leonard in 1998, Whitworth, Kimsey House, and Sandahl in 1998; Berman-Fortgang in 1999, Richardson in 1999, and Miedaner in 2000. The co-active coaching model described by Whitworth, Kimsey-House, and Sandahl (1998) presents coaching principles of people are naturally creative, resourceful, and whole; coach the whole person, hold the client's agenda; discussion, powerful questions, visualization and guided imagery facilitate development of coaching goals fulfillment, balance and process; and each alliance is custom designed.

Since 2000 the trend has been toward more professional coaching books ranging from how to build and market a coaching practice to specialty coaching. The recent publication of edited evidence-based coaching books by Peltier in 2001; Cavanagh, Grant, and Kemp in 2005; Stober and Grant in 2006; Ting and Scisco in 2006; and edited leadership coaching books by Harkins and Goldsmith in 2005 and Goldsmith and Lyons in 2006 link to the root literature in psychology and leadership.

In October 2002, leaders Pam Richardson and Mike Hurley from the UK College of Life Coaching established the first International Coaching Summit (Richardson & Hurley, 2003). At this summit, keynote Dr. Anthony Grant “made the case for education and professionalism leading to evidence based quality assessment. He remarked that Coaches needed to focus on the real issues through basic mental health diagnostics allied with basic training in psychometrics. For the future he urged all coaches and teachers of coaches to ‘never stop learning’” (Richardson & Hurley, 2003, p. 1). From Figure 2.2 that Grant presented, roots of the coaching profession include behavioral science, adult education, philosophy and business.

Figure 2.2. Coaching Profession Components



“By 2005, there were four key areas of best current knowledge directly related to the research and practice of executive, workplace and life coaching. These are (a) the behavioral sciences; (b) business and economic science; (c) adult education, including workplace learning and development; and (d) philosophy” (Cavanagh, Grant, & Kemp, 2005, p. 7).

Coaching synthesizes theories and techniques from other fields, in addition to its capacity for innovation. Through the proliferation of coaching literature and emphasis on evidence-based publication, coaching is developing a focused, research base of its own of what works within the coaching paradigm. Flaherty (2005) supports this in the forward to his second edition of *Coaching: Evoking Excellence in Others* when he writes:

Since I originally wrote this book, the world of coaching has changed and stayed the same. It changed in that more disciplines are being woven into coaching; it is now possible to do somatic work and send clients out with self-observation exercises in a business setting. It stayed the same in that many coaches still have not sufficiently questioned their assumptions about people and themselves to do any powerful interventions. (p. xv)

As for the emergence of coaching as a field (or a profession) and a definition of what constitutes coaching, most books on coaching begin with a chapter exploring about these two topics. For example, Mike Jay states, “coaching is a fairly young professional discipline—appearing formally in business organizations during the 1970s if not before” (1999, p. 19). Alan Sieler (2003) states “before establishing a context by briefly considering the new field of coaching that has emerged since the early 1990s. In recent years, coaching has emerged as a distinct professional activity and career” (p. 2).

Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature within the coaching field and in related professions to position the basic concepts of coaching in a historical perspective. While literature related to coaching was found in a wide spectrum of professions and disciplines, it should be noted that for some areas like economics and the aesthetics

branch of philosophy there was not a substantive connection. Since the study uses a grounded-theory approach, this chapter was revised during the survey and interview process as areas where the literature had not been reviewed were introduced. This summary is organized by the concepts that began to emerge from the literature review as related to the five questions.

Root Discipline Influence

The question here is “What specific influences do each of the relevant root disciplines exert in coaching?” Coaches from a wide range of backgrounds have developed methodologies grounded in the knowledge and theories of the root disciplines.

Social sciences, specifically psychology, have had a major influence on the field of coaching. Numerous psychology theories and models have been adapted to coaching. Stober (2006) proposed that the humanistic perspective, with its growth-oriented view of the person, practitioner-client relationship, holistic view of the person, and choice and responsibility is an underlying philosophical foundation of coaching. Peterson (1996) identifies classical behavioral techniques of modeling, feedback, self-management, rewards and reinforcers, shaping and successive approximation, and behavioral practice as useful in coaching. Auerbach (2006) adapts cognitive techniques, in a humanistic framework, of unraveling common cognitive distortions in thinking to coaching: all-or-nothing thinking, overgeneralization, mental filter, disqualifying the positive, and mind reading, among others. Allcorn (2006) adapted a psychoanalytically informed approach to coaching which includes psychological defense mechanisms, interpersonal world of object relations, and intrapersonal worlds of transference and countertransference. Influences from other social sciences include: re-education, global literacy, and cross-

cultural diversity (Sociology); language as communicative (Linguistics); feedback, acceptance, and change (Anthropology).

The broad category of business offers coaching a tool kit from such areas as organizational development, management, consulting, and others. Coaching practitioners have adapted the following elements of business and incorporated them into their practice: leadership models and competencies, general systems theory, apprenticeship, and workplace learning to improve performance.

Elements adapted from adult education, learning, and development include perspective taking and relationship to authority, life events and rituals throughout the life cycle, interaction between people and human systems, and connecting learning to life experiences, as well as theories of personality, race, class, gender, or cultural difference.

The category of sports offers facilitation of experiential learning that results in future-oriented abilities (Hudson, 1999). Elements adapted from sports include experiential learning, concept of opponent within, and individual approach.

The literature of philosophy suggests contributions to coaching in three areas: ideas of being, consciousness, and spirituality. Coaching practitioners have adapted the following elements of philosophy and incorporated them into their practice: foundation for all fields of thought and seeks to explain and make sense of the world.

From other areas coaching has adapted the following: drawing on emotions and experiences (performing arts); processing of verbal and non-verbal language (communication); unique ideas or possibilities, suspending boundaries and taking chances, and synergy (creativity); body integration (biology); holistic, interdependence,

and systems change triggers personal change (systems theory); self-knowledge and self-awareness (personal development and growth).

Practice Parameters and Boundaries

The question here is, “What are the boundaries of the coaching field that help distinguish it from related practices?” Coaching deals with a normal population from a non-pathological perspective, is proactive and voluntary, deals with growth and change, facilitates learning and goal achievement, and is customized and a peer relationship. Coaches learn from clients and keep learning as an integral part of coaching.

Practitioner Background Diversity

The question here is, “What impact did the backgrounds of pioneer practitioners have on the emergence of the coaching field and coaching practices?” Practitioners rely upon their legacy field for their theoretical grounding and eclectically use various tools and techniques from other disciplines in their coaching practice. Methods and theories developed for use in psychotherapy have been adapted for use in coaching practice without a clear link to the underlying theoretical foundation. Some pioneer practitioners see coaching as a subset, intervention, and competence of their legacy fields.

Emergence and Evolution of a Profession

The question is “What can we learn from the evolution of root disciplines that may be relevant to the evolution of coaching?” Coaching is following an evolutionary process similar to its root disciplines. Initially agreed upon definitions, practices, and boundaries do not exist for an emerging discipline. The definitions, ideals, goals, and purposes of a discipline are shaped by the context in which it evolves.

Influential Contexts

The question is, “What supporting factors contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct field in the late 20th century?” The emergence in psychological understanding of a more optimistic model of humankind (enhancing growth rather than ameliorating dysfunction) contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct field in the late 20th century. Specifically, the contribution came from the humanist movement, the human potential movement, encounter groups and large group awareness trainings, self-help literature, and 12-step support groups.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This study explores the links between existing professions and the emerging field of coaching through five questions: 1) What specific influence does each of the relevant root disciplines exert in coaching? 2) What are the boundaries of the coaching field that help distinguish it from related practices? 3) What impact did the backgrounds of pioneer practitioners have on the emergence of the coaching field and coaching practices? 4) What supporting factors contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct field in the late 20th century? 5) What can we learn from the evolution of root disciplines that may be relevant to the evolution of coaching?

Overview

There is not a great deal known about the evolution and emergence of coaching, and what is known is not well defined. Grounded theory method is particularly useful in this type of qualitative study, according to Strauss and Corbin (1998), where the researcher does not have a preconceived theory in mind and seeks to offer insight and enhance understanding (p. 12). The method is a creative process that uses nonlinear forms of thinking to build theory and provide tools for handling masses of raw data (p. 13), which were present for this study.

Grounded Theory Method

As applied in this study, grounded theory method is an iterative process that uses data from three sources and that has rounds of data rather than separate data sets. I began with the literature review and used the data to develop the survey. Following the survey to identify key influences and influencers, I went back to the literature because there were some unclear areas. I conducted interviews to confirm, extend the data, and get the story behind the literature and survey data, returning to the literature to gather more data and the survey for clarification as needed.

Process of Literature Review

The literature review began with an examination of coaching books, which had coaching in their title and were not talking about sports, published prior to 2001, to understand roots of coaching as identified by the authors. I continued with professional journals published up to 2007 and followed by tracking the original sources from the influencing related professions. I used this data to create the initial categories of key concepts, root disciplines (models, tools, emergence, current status), emergence of a profession, influences on coaching's emergence. This data was used to develop a survey to identify the key influences on the coaching field, be it individuals, professions, or other factors.

Instruments

Survey Design

An Internet-delivered survey in English was distributed to geographically dispersed people and included demographic questions as well as questions on training and background, professional memberships and affiliations, and influencers. The main

purpose of the survey was to identify the key influences on the coaching field as we know it today, be they individuals, professions, or other factors. I developed the design of the questionnaire to make use of the distribution capabilities of SurveyMonkey.TM SurveyMonkey allows creation of single choice, multiple choice, and drop-down menu questions which may be set up to require an answer to a question and control the flow with custom conditional logic to skip nonapplicable questions. I used all these features in the survey development. I chose SurveyMonkey for its ease of use and outreach capacity for geographically dispersed people.

I decided to limit the questions to a minimum to keep the response time to 15 minutes. There were 14 total questions of which 6, listed in Table 3-1, were designed to gather demographic data.

Table 3-1 Survey Demographic Questions

Question	Response Options
* 1. What is your age in years?	Under 20 20–29 30–39 40–49 50–59 60 and over
* 2. In what country do you currently reside?	Fill in blank
* 3. What is your first language?	Fill in blank
* 4. How many years of formal education have you completed?	1–6 (Elementary School) 7–9 (Middle School)

	10–12 (High School) 13–16 (Undergraduate) 17+ (Graduate)
* 5. Have you worked with a professional coach? If so, what is the total length of time you have been coached by a professional coach?	Never worked with a coach Less than 6 months 6 months to 1 year 1 to 2 years 3 to 5 years Over 5 years
* 6. Are you a professional coach?	Yes No

I grouped the eight core questions listed in Table 3-2 by 1) training and background, 2) professional memberships and affiliations, and 3) influencers. The core questions were a mixture of yes/no, multiple-choice, and fill-in-the-blank. I recruited a select group of coaches and researchers to critique all questions before the questions were included in the survey.

Table 3-2 Core Survey Questions

Grouping	Questions
Training and Background	1. What related professional organizations are you a member of? 2. Where have you received your coach training? 3. What are your coaching niche/specialty areas?
Professional	4. What are top five professional coaching associations/service

Memberships and Affiliations	<p>organizations in priority order?</p> <p>5. In priority order, what are top five professions that have influenced and/or contributed the most to the coaching field?</p>
Influencers	<p>6. Who are the most influential professional coaches of all-time?</p> <p>7. What individuals do you see as currently shaping and/or redefining the coaching field?</p> <p>8. What individuals, in a related profession, have contributed the most to establish professional coaching?</p>

To ease the survey time constraints, I provided participants with a list of professional organizations for coaches (question 4), coach-training organizations/programs (question 2), coaching niche/specialty areas (question 3), and professional organizations for related professions (question 1), as well as examples of related professions.

For question 4, I asked respondents to prioritize the influence of professional coaching associations and service organizations. I used a multistep process to create a list of organizations. I began with an initial list from Peer Resources Network and information from the literature review. Next I conducted a Google search using the keywords “coach professional association” and excluding the keywords “sports” and “athlete.” I combined the data from Peer Resources Network and the literature search with the Google results and removed the duplicates. The author examined the organizations on that combined list based on a set of criteria established as parameters for a valid professional organization. The criteria included: 1) confirm the existence, 2) that it was a membership organization and not a trade business, and 3) it was primarily

coaching related. I included the 23 organizations that met the criteria as options in the survey. I told respondents they could select from the choices in Table 3-3 or add their own.

Table 3-3 Survey Professional Coaching Associations/Service Organizations

247 - 247 Coaching
AC - Association for Coaching
AGSEC - The Alliance for Graduate Schools Executive Coaching
AIPC - Australasian Institute of Professional Coaches
APECS - Association for Professional Executive Coaching and Supervision
BCF - The Business Coaching Forum
CALSCA - Canadian Alliance of Life Skills Coaches and Associations
CISPC - CoachLab International Society of Professional Coaches
CMN - The Coaching and Mentoring Network
CU - Coach Universe
CV - Coachville.com
CZ - The Coaching Zone
ECI - European Coaching Institute
EMCC - European Mentoring and Coaching Council
IAC - International Association of Coaches
ICCO - International Consortium of Coaches in Organizations
ICF - International Coach Federation
iCoach
ICS - International Coaching Society

PBCA - Professional Business Coaches Alliance
PCMA - Professional Coaches and Mentors Association
PRN - Peer Resources Network
WABC - Worldwide Association of Business Coaches

For question 2, I used the same process to set up the list of coach-training programs included as choices in the survey. The set of criteria included: 1) that the program did exist, 2) that it was an organized training program and not an individual offering, and 3) that it was primarily a coaching related organization. Based on the criteria, I narrowed the list to 185 different coaching organizations and programs (Appendices E and F) to create a valid list of coaching programs, as well as a place to write in the names of schools not in the original list

For question 5 I provided respondents with examples of 10 profession categories identified from the literature review and told them they could select from the examples or add their own. These 10 professions included: those most often referred to in literature, the professional publications in which the articles appeared, and the categories identified for data grouping. These 10 categories are: consulting, education, human resources, management, organization development, philosophy, psychology, sociology, sports, and training. I asked the respondents to prioritize their responses of “influenced and/or contributed the most to the coaching field.”

The intent of question 1 was to discover in which organizations outside coaching, yet related to coaching, the respondents held membership. Respondents may hold membership in more than one organization. I created 13 related professional organization categories from the literature review and an Internet search. Thirteen professional groups,

appearing in Table 3-4, from the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia were identified and included as choices on the survey, and there was a place to write in the names of organizations not part of the original list.

Table 3-4 Survey-Related Professional Organizations

American Management Association
American Psychological Association (APA)
American Society For Training and Development (ASTD)
Australian Psychological Society
British Association for Counseling
British Confederation of Psychotherapists
British Psychological Society
Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD)
Employee Assistance Professionals Association (EAPA)
International Association of Facilitators
National Wellness Institute
Organization Development Network (ODN)
Society For Human Resource Management (SHRM)

I arrived at niches/specialty areas for question 3 by identifying those appearing most often in the literature and professional publications, followed by an Internet search of coaching using the key word of *coaching* alone and in conjunction with *niche* or *specialty*. From this process, I set up 39 categories as choices (Appendices E and F) on the survey, and a place to write in niches/specialties that were not in the original list

I included 3 added questions in the survey about influencers on coaching, each of which allowed for up to 25 responses per question, in no priority order. Table 3-5 lists these questions as they appeared on the survey.

Table 3-5 Survey Influencer Questions

6. What individuals, in a related profession, have contributed the most to establish professional coaching? Please include name followed by profession and contact information if known. Contact information will be used for follow on interviews with top key influencers.
7. Who are the most influential professional coaches of all-time? Please include name followed by contact information if known.
8. What individuals do you see as currently shaping and/or redefining the coaching field? These may be people who are on the cutting edge of the profession, doing/saying surprising and thought provoking things. Please include name followed by contact information if known. Contact information will be used for follow-on interviews with top key influencers.

The initial survey instrument and e-mail notification were then subjected to a pilot to test ease of use, clarity of language, links, and how long it took to answer. I sent the survey to 10 coaching colleagues for purposes of providing feedback on clarity, ease of use, and duration. Based on the feedback, I enabled the conditional response capability to allow skipping questions, depending on response received.

Appendix E contains screen shots of the survey questionnaire. The logic embedded in the survey required all questions with an “*” to be answered, and depending on the answer, the respondents either skipped over a nonapplicable section or were directed to answer the questions. My decision to use an Internet-based approach allowed for a sort questionnaire, simple direct combination of closed-ended questions to control the question order, and fixed choice with option to add other information.

Interview Design

The purpose of the qualitative research interviews was to confirm, extend, and get the story behind the information from the survey about influencers and influences on the influencers. I was seeking individual historical accounts of how a particular phenomenon developed (Robson, 2002, p. 271), in this case the coaching field. These interviews were exploratory in nature to gather the account of events described from the perspective of the person interviewed and to develop a theory, or integrated framework, to be used to explain phenomena (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 15).

I began with purposive sampling, which is “initial sampling from the survey and from those results extend the sample guided by the emerging theory” (Robson, 2002, p. 265). I immediately shifted into snowball sampling, which is “interviewing individuals of interest and using them as informants to identify other members of the population who are then used as informants, and so on” (pp. 265–266). The semi-structured telephone interviews I used contained three core interview questions on the areas of interviewee background, coaching roots, and names of more interviewees. Each interview followed the lead of the interviewer and the specific information wanted by the author to fill in the research data. The interview content followed Robson’s identified approach: a set of questions with alternative subsequent items depending on the responses obtained, suggestions for prompts, and a proposed sequence for the questions which was subject to change during the course of the interview (p. 274). I used Robson’s sequence of introduction, “warm-up,” main body of interview, “cool-off”, and closure for each semi-structured interview (p. 277). Open questions, which “provide no restrictions on the content or manner of reply other than on the subject area” (p. 275), were used due to their

flexibility, ability to go into depth, or clear up any misunderstandings, “test limits of a respondent’s knowledge, and encourage cooperation and rapport” (pp. 275–276), which is a coach approach to the interview.

The purpose of the three key questions was to extend objectively the data to get multiple perspectives from sources (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 44) to compare against the categories of data created from the literature review and survey. I asked interviewees about personal professional background and experiences to collect further data to discover how this influenced their view of coaching. This transitioned into a question about their opinion on the roots of coaching and then into the why coaching/why now question. The three questions included a series of prompts that may be used depending on how the person answered each question. Table 3-6 contains the interview categories and questions marked with a solid dot used in each interview. I used questions with a hollow dot for follow-up and as prompts if necessary. I used the closing query on added insights into coaching’s evolution as a catchall for anything else the interviewee wanted to share and to gather names of further interviewees.

Table 3.6 Core Interview Questions and Prompts

Getting started in coaching – when, where, how and who

- What was your background?
 - What is your philosophy and philosophical lineage?
 - What are your beliefs about what it is to be human?
 - Who and what influenced and/or supported in becoming a coach? When was this?

Roots of coaching

- What are the roots of coaching in your opinion?
 - By influencing profession
 - By key individuals?
 - By other factors?

Cultural impact

- Why coaching why now?
 - What was missing that allowed for coaching to emerge?
 - What role does the evolution of human thinking play in the rise of coaching?

Insights on other aspects of the evolution of coaching

- What else would you like to share that I haven't asked about?
- Who else would be valuable for me to interview?

Participants

The IUPS Human Subjects Review Committee examined the methods and procedures of this proposal and agreed that this study meets their guidelines for research with human subjects.

Survey

I used a purposive sampling method (Robson, 2002) designed to elicit a minimum of 1,000 responses from a geographically dispersed sample of practitioners in coaching and related fields who may be using coaching. I limited eligibility to complete the survey to the following individuals and groups: established coaching organization; coach-

training school or program; academic or education institution who offers or is considering offering coaching education; significant purchaser or provider of coaching; professional in a related profession such as psychology, organization development, human resources, among others; and professional coach. This purposive sampling method is consistent with grounded theory development. I chose these groups because they represent the practitioners in coaching and related fields who may be using coaching.

Following the initial sampling using a purposive sampling method, I analyzed the results and extended the sample in ways guided by an emerging theory of the roots of the coaching field. I wanted people to have skills, knowledge, and information to provide meaningful answers for the self-administered questionnaire, followed by a viral technique where recipients are asked to share it with their colleagues. I created the participant choice set from the list of organizations, organized coach-training programs, and coaching professional association identified for the survey. I also included individuals selected on the basis of meeting one or more of the following criteria: from MCC and PCC holders whom I knew had extensive networks; individuals who held a key position in a professional organization; or people who had published a book or articles in recognized coaching industry journals. In addition, these individuals were selected from those having a global network. I conducted an Internet Google search to find out accuracy and key contact information from which to send out the first 300 e-mail requests to participate.

I was looking for a minimum of 1,000 responses from a geographically dispersed sample. I made e-mail requests to over 300 individuals, groups, and organizations

selected as identified above for the pilot e-mail. Subsequently, I sought to get responses through organizations representing the root disciplines identified from the survey.

Some organizations announced the research in electronic e-zines and bulletins to members or on their Website, while three groups sent the invitation to members in a bulk e-mail. The research request was a viral approach, and people may have received the notice as many as six or more times. An estimate of direct e-mail requests is 10,000 individuals. The 1,310 responses are approximately a 13% response rate. The data process had a capability built in to ensure that any respondent would respond only once. I made official research requests by the major groups identified in Table 3-7.

Table 3-7 Survey Distribution Channels

Organization	Distribution
Coachville	announced in e-zine to 55,000 members
International Coach Federation	bulk e-mail to 9,300 members
International Association of Coaches	announced in e-zine to 7,100 members
CoachInc	announced in e-zine to 7,000 students/alumni
College of Executive Coaching	bulk e-mail to database of 4,700 individuals
Peer Resources Nnetwork	announced in bulletin to members
Coaching Insider	announced in e-zine to 3,700 subscribers
European Coaching Institute	announced in newsletter
UK Coaching and Mentoring	announced on Website
Landmark Education	bulk e-mail to 350 group leaders

The ICF sent the invitation to take part in the survey to all current members, which eliminated the bias from the first e-mail invitation. I accompanied the e-mail invitations with a request to pass it on to their networks, specifically, “I ask you to enlist your members, colleagues, clients, graduates and/or students to complete this survey and contribute their legacy to the evolution of coaching.”

Interviews

The strategy was to include key influencers from the global community, related professions, and coaches from various backgrounds. I identified a pool of 291 individuals as key influencers and began the interviews with 30 individuals identified from survey and literature review for the purpose of perfecting the interview process. The next 40 interviews were with 40 key influencers identified from the survey results. These initial 70 interviews provided the names of additional key influencers, who in turn provided additional names.

Of the total 291 individuals identified as key influences on the coaching field, 3 were deceased; 3 declined to be interviewed; 23 never answered my e-mails, or we connected and were unable to confirm an interview; 87 were not contacted because of time constraints and acceptable representation of their fields in the interview data; and lastly 175 of them were interviewed for the study (Appendix G).

I identified the first pool of potential interviews (N=40) through preliminary survey results. I used the top 40 influencers from all combined influencer categories (all-time; emerging; related professions) of which I interviewed 22 and did not interview 18. Of those not interviewed: 1 was deceased, 8 did not respond, and 3 were popular figures in related professions. The remaining 6 were leaders within Landmark Education. It is

Landmark Education's practice to have a designated spokesperson for inquiries such as mine. I chose to interview the single appointed contact within Landmark Education in lieu of the 6 individuals. I presumed the designated spokesperson responses are representative of what may be heard from the other Landmark Education leaders.

I chose to add 30 more interviewees to the first group with the intent to perfect the interview process before conducting the interviews with the key influencers. I identified this second potential interviewee pool through: a) preliminary survey results, b) the literature review, or c) the review of professional coaching Websites. Interviews began in February 2006.

I interviewed 123 more individuals. The strategy for conducting these 123 interviews was to include key influencers from the global community, related professions, and coaches from various backgrounds.

In analyzing the survey data I realized that many of the influencer names came from people who had published books, founded coach-training schools, or were popular public figures in related professions. I also identified the first coach-training and professional coaching organizations, and looked to the founders and early students/members to identify interviewees. I made an effort to interview every president of the earliest founded professional coaching associations, which are the Professional and Personal Coaches Association (PPCA) and the International Coach Federation (ICF). These additions resulted in a longer list of potential interviewees. From the literature search I gathered more names of individuals who had published early articles on coaching. I took care to ensure individuals involved with the emergence and recognition of coaching worldwide were added to the interviewee list. I chose this multifaceted

approach to ensure accurate representation of coaching's emergence globally, especially in regions outside North America, Europe, Australia, China, and Japan.

Note that I identified subsequent potential interviewees in these interviews using a viral method, which ensured a wider group of individuals were interviewed. I asked each interviewee to provide names of more interviewees as indicated in Table 3-6 above.

When a key interviewee could not be contacted or was unavailable, I made an effort to interview others who had been present as history was being made or who had personally known the individual.

Data Collection Procedures

Survey

I used SurveyMonkey to administer the survey and e-mail to invite participation. I provided access and context through a Website portal which was a central location for the e-mail instructions, study background, and a direct link to the survey. I published the results at this Website and sent them directly to all respondents who showed an interest in receiving the results. The survey was open for responses between September 1 and December 31, 2005.

The author sent the survey e-mail request beginning September 1, 2005 to individuals and organizations that met the criteria described in the Participant section above. I developed the e-mail request for participation to link people to the Website and subsequently to SurveyMonkey. The e-mail request included the statement:

I appreciate your participation in this survey. The survey should take 15-20 minutes to complete – your input will make a difference in creating an accurate representation of the history of the coaching field. You have the opportunity to

leave your name and contact information at the end of the survey if you would like to receive the aggregate results of this survey. All your answers are anonymous and confidential, used for research purposes only. Your contact information will not be associated with your questionnaire responses. Upon survey completion, you will also have an opportunity to nominate yourself for the “Who’s Who in Coaching.”

Appendix H contains the full text of the survey e-mail requests. I refined e-mail content throughout the process based on input from respondees and researchers in the coaching field. The survey e-mail also requested the receivers “enlist your members, colleagues, clients, graduates or students to complete this survey and contribute their legacy to the evolution of coaching.”

I set up SurveyMonkey to allow only one response per e-mail account. The survey link was also posted on a Website, along with instructions and a copy of the e-mail invitation. I added the core questions to the e-mail and Website in response to respondent’s request, as well as a statement that “this study meets the guidelines for research with human subjects.” I also allowed respondents to leave contact information separate from their responses so they could receive the survey results without compromising their anonymity.

Once the survey was complete, I redirected respondents to a Website that thanked them for their participation and told them that they would receive notice of the survey results soon.

Interviews

The initial contact through e-mail requested a one-hour phone interview and included the preliminary survey results. I asked each interviewee to give permission to be

audio recorded and for the information to be used in the dissertation and future publications. Interviews were conducted February 2006 through November 2007. Each interview was recorded, transcribed, and the transcripts were then coded.

The e-mail to prospective interviewees contained the statements:

Your name has come up several times as an important person for me to interview for my dissertation research into “Who’s Who in Coaching: Who Shaped It, Who’s Shaping It?”. I am particularly interested in your background [in a specific area]. I’m sure there are many more areas that you were involved with and we will end up discussing.

I request permission to record the interview and to use your comments in both my dissertation and a book I plan to publish on “Who’s Who in Coaching: Who Shaped It, Who’s Shaping It”? Please let me know if you are willing to be interviewed, and if so, a date and time that will work for you and the number at which I can reach you. The interview will be up to one hour (unless there is more you want to share).

For the entire e-mail text see Appendix I. I published the preliminary survey results in April 2006 and revised the e-mail to prospective interviewees to include a link or attachment of preliminary survey results, as well as a list of interview questions. The choice of telephone interviews to extend the data was based on the need for a wide geographical sample, control of question order, rapport, and sensitive topics (Robson, 2002, p. 237). I taped the interviews and hired individuals outside the coaching field for transcription to ensure confidentiality. Because of the time lag between the interview and

interview transcription, the author made hand notes during the interview when interviewees identified key influencers and organizations.

I conducted all but one interview by phone at a time agreed on by the interviewer and interviewee. One interview was conducted live with the author taking notes by hand. Also, because of technical issues in the recording, another interviewee agreed the interview data were consistent with an article he provided.

Transcribers transcribed 164 of the 174 taped interviews for review and response. Of the 10 not transcribed, 7 experienced technical problems and 3 were not transcribed because the interviewee did not meet the influencer criteria. I next sent the transcripts to each interviewee for approval. One hundred thirty-nine were either returned with approval or approval was given to use during the interview. Two follow-up e-mails were sent to the 164. The 25 participants who did not respond self-selected out of the process; however, their information was retained in the analysis for completeness. I excluded quotes or attributions to those who did not respond to the final report.

Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis used a consistent set of questions in the literature review, survey and interviews. Interview analysis was based on survey analysis that was based on literature review analysis. Coding is a dynamic and fluid process, and I used open coding to identify concepts, their properties, and dimensions in the data. I created codes based on the questions asked, and these coded concepts were then grouped and regrouped based on response data. I then experienced the moment when, as Strauss and Corbin said, “the analyst realizes that certain concepts can be grouped under a more abstract higher order

concept” (p. 113). These groupings became the initial subcategories I used for source integration.

Survey

I tabulated survey results with like responses grouped and coded to create quantitative and qualitative data sets using SurveyMonkey and Excel. I analyzed general respondent information, root disciplines and associate tools and models, coaching niche and specialty areas, emergence of a profession and influences on coaching’s emergence, influence of specific people on coaching, and coach-training and professional coach organizations. I compared the categories which emerged from the survey data with the categories which emerged from the literature review, altered and refined initial codes and categories, and gained information which directed the next stage of data gathering.

SurveyMonkey allowed for reviewing and analyzing results as collected through graphs and charts as well as the individual responses. I used these charts for top level and filtered analysis and results. I closed the survey was closed on December 31, 2005 and downloaded the raw data into Excel for analysis. I sorted and analyzed the data to determine what type of respondent answered which questions, and the number of responses for each example as well as write-in responses and comments. I compiled preliminary survey results using Excel graphs and charts. I published the preliminary survey results April 2006 (Appendix J).

I used a quantitative approach for respondent demographics (age, location, education, years of practice), professional background and training (affiliation, coach training, coaching specialty area), and category testing from the literature (professional coach association, professions influencing coaching, and influencers on coaching).

Descriptive statistics on the respondent demographics category of data were simply to provide a context for the data that will follow. The focus is on the responses rather than the characteristics of the respondees for geographic, language, educational, and distribution of respondents. Appendix F contains the response choices for each question and the logic applied in the survey. I used a qualitative approach for collecting narrative comments on anything else respondents wanted to share.

General respondent information

I required a response for each demographic question and list response choices in Appendix F. I converted the responses to percentages to determine characteristics of respondents.

To assess dispersion of surveys, I then compared the geographical array of survey responses with the geographical array of membership for the largest two international coach associations, the International Coach Federation and the International Association of Coaches. Both these organizations are predominately English oriented and share the same survey limitation about geographical representation.

Related professional organization membership

An individual may be represented in more than one category, so the total number of responses exceeded the total number of respondents because if an individual indicated membership in more than one category, I included all categories. For write-in responses, I omitted any response that was not a professional organization from a related discipline. For preselected and write-ins, I grouped the responses into 10 categories which each represented at least 1% of the responses. I then grouped the remaining 2.9% of responses that did not fit into the 10 categories into an “other” category.

Coach training

I reviewed and grouped the write-ins with programs in the original list or placed into categories that emerged from the coding process. I grouped the remaining write-in responses into the following new categories: life experience, university education, professional coach, ICF conference or workshop; other training or workshops; other coach training; individual mentor; and NLP. Respondents in many cases had attended more than one organization/program or had other types of experience and training which they considered coach training. I included all responses. I included categories with at least one response in the analysis.

Coaching niche/specialty areas

Respondents usually identified more than one niche/specialty area and I included all for the data analysis. The process for grouping write-in responses was: a) Remove all responses\ not a specialty or niche. b) Group remaining responses within existing or the four new categories which emerged in the coding process: organization or team, cross cultural or diversity, communication and academic/education/student. c) Remove the “other” category, which had 35 or fewer than 0.3% of responses, from the analysis. d) Summarize the remaining 43 categories into the 9 general groupings in the table below. and e) Create percentages for each general category by dividing the number of responses for the general category by the total number of responses for all 43 categories. Table 3-8 contains the grouped categories.

Table 3.8 General Coach Niches and Specialty Areas

Purpose, vision, lifestyle design, motivation, creativity, integrity, authenticity, clarity
Business, entrepreneur, organization and team, professional, practice building, sales,

cross-cultural diversity
Leadership, executive and management
Personal productivity, stress reduction or time management, conflict resolution, financial, mentor, communication, academic/education/student and other
Relationship, family, parenting, teens or children, gay or lesbian, sexuality
Career transitions, planning and development
ADHD, wellness, self-care, addictions
Transitions, divorce, retirement
Christian, spirituality

Professional coaching associations/service organizations

First I removed write-in responses not naming professional organizations (such as coach-training organizations). I then weighted the responses for items receiving more than one vote total by their priority level. A one-priority was weighted five, two-priority weighted four, three-priority weighted three, four-priority weighted two, and five-priority weighted one. To calculate the percentage, I added the priority weighted responses for each category and divided them by the total number of weighted responses for all categories receiving more than one response.

Professions influencing coaching

I analyzed the write-in responses as follows: a) removed all responses than named individuals or organizations; b) grouped remaining responses by existing and new categories; c) weighted responses by their priority level such that a one-priority was weighted five, two-priority weighted four, three-priority weighted three, four-priority

weighted two, and five-priority weighted one; and d) to calculate the percentage, added the priority weighted responses for each category and divided by the total number of weighted responses for all categories receiving more than one response.

Influencers on coaching

Six hundred ninety-one different names were identified as all-time most influential professional coaches, of which 94.5% had fewer than 10 responses. First I removed any response that named other than an individual. I formatted the data to include first and last name, and then sorted. I counted the number of responses for each name and turned this into a percentage based on the total number of individual names.

I defined Emerging Influencers as people who are on the cutting edge of the profession doing and saying surprising and thought provoking things. Five hundred ninety-six different names were identified as emerging influencers in coaching. First I removed any response that named other than an individual. I formatted the data to include first and last name, and then sorted. I counted the number of responses for each name and turned this into a percentage based on the total number of individual names.

Related Profession Influencers on coaching had 893 different names identified as influencers on coaching who came from related professions. First I removed any response that named other than an individual. I formatted the data to include first and last name, and then sorted. I counted the number of responses for each name and turned this into a percentage based on the total number of individual names.

To determine the overall influencers I combined the results for the all-time, emerging, and other professions influencers. I created the percentages by adding the total number of responses for each name in each of the three areas of all-time, emerging, and

other professions, and then dividing that by the number of total responses for each of the same three areas. One thousand three hundred twenty-eight unique influencer names were identified for the combined group of all-time, emerging, and related profession influencers. Only 1.05% of these individuals had more than 1.0% of the total responses.

Interviews

I used a grounded theory approach to consider alternative meanings of phenomena; be systematic and creative simultaneously; and identify, develop, and relate the concepts that are the building blocks of theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 13).

I catalogued approved interviews and separated response data according to question and general topic using a grounded theory approach to build the theory and handle the masses of raw data (p. 13). With most interviews, once the interviewee answered the first one or two questions, the author followed the major points of focus rather than the questions on the script. The words and other data were in nonnumerical form, and thus the data analysis qualitative (Robson, 2002, p. 388). Using flexible design research, the author started “the analysis and interpretation when in the middle of the inquiry” (p. 386). The author used a combination of matrix analysis and grounded theory approaches to the qualitative analysis (458). From the matrix analysis, “descriptive summaries of the text segments were supplemented by matrices, network maps, flow charts and diagrams” (p. 458). From the grounded theory, “codes were based on the researcher’s interpretation of the meanings and patterns in the texts” (p. 458).

The qualitative data analysis contained the recurring features identified by Miles and Humberman (as cited in Robson 2002) that began with giving codes to the initial set of materials obtained from the interviews. I followed by adding comments and reflections

in the form of memos and going through the materials trying to identify patterns, themes, relationships, and differences between the coded groups. I used this information to help focus the next wave of interviews. The elaboration of generalizations covering consistencies was then linked to a formalized body of knowledge in the form of constructs and theories (p. 459). Initial codes included broad categories: coaching root, professional association, coach-training school, key influencer, and miscellaneous. As I conducted more interviews, these categories expanded to accommodate themes, patterns, and large groups of data. The added themes established based on the interviews included: background influence, evolution of a profession, future of coaching, why coaching/why now, and international influence.

I chunked the interviews into the following categories for analysis: key influencers, root disciplines, evolution of coaching, institutions (coach-training organization, professional coach association, among others), and geographical. I drew general inferences from the analyzed interview data merged with the survey data.

With the added data from the interviews, coaching emerged as a synergistic phenomenon resulting from the intersection of disciplines, people, and socioeconomic factors. Patterns of chronology and relationship emerged through the perspectives of the interviewees themselves, specifically the relationships between and among key influencers, the creation of cross-disciplinary models, and the processes of codifying and popularizing coaching, as well as the emergence of a coaching culture.

Source Integration

Integration is an ongoing process that occurs over time (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 144) and is the recognizing of relationships in the data. After coding and creating

categories of data, I combined the initial subcategories of data from the literature review, survey and interviews. I then identified conceptual relationships, and regrouped them across all data sources to come up with four broad categories of data that fit within the central category of “emergence and evolution of coaching.” These uplevel categories are:

1. Influential theories and models (a) alignments, (b) divergences, (c) professional challenges.
2. Practice parameters and boundaries.
3. Evolutionary generations—discrete and interrelated (a) individual), (b) institutional, (c) recent paradigms.
4. Influential contexts (a) socioeconomic, (b) internal.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Introduction

This study examines the links between established disciplines and professions, and the emerging discipline of coaching. I began with the following premises:

1. The current coaching discipline rests on the shoulders of many well-established professions, theories, and models;
2. The current coaching discipline blends and integrates tools and models from established professions with those unique to the coaching discipline;
3. The current coaching discipline branches into an array of specialties, theories, and models created by the pioneers of the coaching discipline; and
4. A better understanding of the root disciplines' emergence into professional status will inform coaching's emergence into professional status.

In looking for where things intersected and digressed across data sources, I asked and answered five questions:

1. What specific influences does each of the relevant root disciplines exert in coaching?
2. What are the boundaries of the coaching discipline that help distinguish it from related practices?

3. What impact did the backgrounds of influencers have on the coaching discipline and coaching practices?
4. What can we learn from the evolution of existing disciplines that may be relevant to the evolution of coaching?
5. What supporting factors contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline in the late 20th century?

General Respondent Information

General respondent information applies only to the survey and interview data sources. The survey gathered respondent information in a series of questions for that purpose. The interview process did not gather this information, as the interviewees were selected on a basis of their influence in a specific geographic region, a specific specialty, or on their background. Interviewees also were recommended by prior interviewees to fill in gaps in the data.

Survey Data

From the general information supplied the following is known:

86% identified themselves as professional coaches.

75% of coaches had coached for over three years.

15% did not have English as their first language.

80% were 40 years and older.

10% were 60 years old and older.

95% received education beyond high school.

69% received graduate-level education.

66% indicated they worked in a profession related to coaching.

64% indicated they had attended some coach-specific training.

18% indicated education and training that supported coaching.

18% indicated no coach-specific training.

Summarizing the general respondent data I found that respondent coaches tend to be well-educated (69% had graduate-level education) and mature (80% were 40 years or older) individuals. These individuals use coaching as one of many methods to support change in individuals and groups (66% indicated they worked in a profession related to coaching). I revised the archival premises based on the survey data as it related to root disciplines, specializations within coaching, and the influence of specific individuals.

The geographical array of the 1,310 survey responses closely aligns with International Coach Federation (ICF) (ICF, 2005) and International Association of Coaches (IAC) (IAC, 2005) membership geographical representation on December 31, 2005. All geographic areas were within $\pm 1.6\%$ (Table 4.1), with the exception of the United States, where participation in the survey was 3.2% less than the membership in the combined ICF and IAC.

Table 4-1 Survey Data by Geographical Regions Compared
with ICF and IAC Membership Data

Geographical Regions	% Survey	ICF/IAC Combined %	Survey Difference
North America	66.4%	69.6%	-3.2%
South and Central America	1.3%	1.5%	-0.2%
Europe	18.3%	17.6%	0.7%
Middle East	0.9%	0.7%	0.2%

Africa	0.8%	0.6%	0.2%
Asia	4.8%	3.2%	1.6%
Oceania	7.5%	6.8%	0.7%
Other	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Sixty-six percent (66%) of the survey responses were from North America, 18% from Europe, and the remaining 16% from the rest of the world. Eighty-five percent (85%) of survey respondents have English as a first language.

Respondents were highly educated with 901 (68.8%) having graduate degrees, 346 (26.4%) having undergraduate degrees, and 62 (4.8%) having high school educations or less. With regard to coach-specific training, 1008 (76.9%) indicated that they had attended coach-specific training, 163 (12.4%) had training that was not specific, 70 (5.3%) had training that supported coaching, and 231 (17.6%) who did not respond to the question.

Interview Data

From the general information supplied in the interviews and other materials:

93% identified themselves as professional coaches.

92% had coached for over three years.

12% did not have English as their first language.

98% were 40 years and older.

32% were not able to confirm education level.

63% received graduate-level education.

41% have published books.

55% indicated they had attended some coach-specific training.

The initial interviewees were identified from the influencers named in the survey results. Of the interviewees, 54 have an unconfirmed education level. Of the remaining 116, 3 have high school diplomas, 7 have undergraduate degrees, and 106 have graduate degrees.

With regard to language, 150 have English as their first language, and 20 have a language other than English as their first language. Nineteen of the 20 who do not have English as their first language are coach pioneers in their own countries. Of the 170 interviewees, 69 have written books; 88 own, had, or have a key role in a coach-training program; 70 have been or are major players in a professional organization; and 29 have been or are major players in service organizations, such as KRW International, RHR International, and the Ken Blanchard Companies. Out of the 5 coaches named by Fortune magazine, 3 were interviewed: Allen, M. Goldsmith, and Leider. Forty-one of the interviewees are on the list of key influencers who appear in the literature, survey, and interview data.

Of the 170 interviewees, the geographical distribution of interviewees was 75% from North America, 18% from Europe, with the remaining 7% from Australia, Asia, Middle East, and South and Central America.

Root Disciplines

Influences on Coaching from Root Disciplines

This section answers the question, “What specific influences do each of the relevant root disciplines exert in coaching?” Data from all sources affirmed psychology and business as the primary influences on coaching, followed by adult learning and

development, sports, and performing arts. Underpinning these influences are philosophy (both Eastern and Western) and systems theory. The strength of influence from a discipline is different depending on whether the focus is on the theories and models, which would place psychology as the most influential, or on the tools and application, which would place business as the most influential. The data also indicated that psychology influenced the theories and models organization development, management, adult learning and development, and sports. Due to the applied nature of business, data from the survey and interviewees tended to focus on the subdisciplines of business, such as organization development, management, and consulting; whereas psychology subdisciplines were grouped under psychology. Appendix K contains the sector, discipline, and subdiscipline contribution to coaching.

Literature review data suggest that the major discipline influences on the current coaching discipline are from psychology (primarily humanistic and clinical), business (organization development, management, and consulting), philosophy (both Eastern and Western), adult learning and development; sports, performing arts, biology, and systems theory. The results of the survey affirmed the literature review data with the exception of performing arts, biology, and systems theory, which were not identified as key influencing disciplines. For the survey the responses were weighted by whether they were identified as first, second, third, fourth, or fifth priority. This resulted in a percentage of weighted influence for each profession. The influence from the business sector was identified as most influential with 44.6%, followed by the psychology sector with 21.9% (Table 4-2).

Table 4.2 Professions Most Influencing Coaching (Survey Data)

Profession	% Influence
Business	44.6%
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Consulting ▪ Organization Development ▪ Management/Leadership ▪ Training ▪ Human Resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ 11% ▪ 10.9% ▪ 8.7% ▪ 7.6% ▪ 6.4%
Psychology	21.9%
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Other Psychology ▪ Human Potential Movement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ 19.4% ▪ 2.5%
Sports/Fitness/Recreation	10.1%
Education/Teaching	8.3%
Philosophy/Ontology	7.6%
Sociology	1.9%
Other	5.6%

An indicator of discipline influence, though we do not know specifically what the influence is, is found in response to survey question 3, asking about membership in

organizations outside of coaching. Respondents indicated membership in 69.7% business sector organizations, 27.4% psychology sector organizations, and 2.9% organizations outside of business and psychology, such as education, music, and women’s associations. The predominant organizations in which respondents indicated membership included the American Society for Training and Development (9%), Society for Human Resource Management (6%), Organization Development Network (5%), and American Psychological Association (5%). The four professional organizations that accounted for 30% of the total responses were based in the United States. As noted in the methodology section, I asked respondents to identify the organizations outside coaching where they held membership.

Of the 12 organizations at the top of the list, each received more than 1.0% of responses for related professional organization membership and totaled 38.3% of all responses (see Table 4-3).

Table 4-3 Survey Related Professional Organization Membership

% total response	Acronym	Organization Name
9.2%	ASTD	American Society for Training and Development
6.3%	SHRM	Society For Human Resource Management
5.2%	ODN	Organization Development Network
5.1%	APA	American Psychological Association
3.1%	AMA	American Management Association
2.0%	CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel Development

1.5%	NSA	National Speakers Association
1.3%	ACA	American Counseling Association
1.2%	BPS	British Psychological Society
1.2%	HRPA	Human Resources and Personnel Association
1.2%	IAF	International Association of Facilitators
1.1%	ADDA	Attention Deficit Disorder Association

Combining the results from related professions influence (survey question number 5) and organization membership (survey question number 4), psychology and organization development appear in the top four of both lists. Four of the top five non-coaching professional organizations of which respondents are members are from the business sectors of training, human resources, management, and organizational development. This agrees with the survey data, which says the sectors identified as most influencing the coaching discipline are business and psychology.

The literature and survey provided a rich overview of the contributing disciplines. Interviewee perception of root disciplines was consistent with the root disciplines identified in the literature and survey data. The interviews provided details that distinguished contributions to theory and models and contributions to practical applications. Appendix L contains added detail from interview data. Several interviewees noted and reinforced the significant contribution of sports and performing arts to coaching. Across all disciplines, I noticed several general themes from the interviewee comments. The first was the foundational nature of a systems perspective for many of the

disciplines, and second was the extensive use of questioning techniques across disciplines.

This combined data from all sources suggest that the theories and models of coaching, as well as business, are heavily influenced by the psychology sector, while the application of coaching occurs primarily in the business sector. For example, “from the 1940s to the early 1960s, one predominant movement in industry was assessments, feedback, and counseling . . . and there are a number of people around who do coaching now who came out of that tradition” (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). Management theories of the 1960s were influenced by humanistic theories that “deal with the development of the individual in effective and cohesive organizations [and] . . . assume that human beings are by nature motivated beings” (Covey, 2004, p. 353). Though the term *organization development* was not coined yet, in the 1970s individuals practicing organization development embraced Gestalt theory from humanistic psychology through their backgrounds from the “therapy and counseling world” (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). According to Nevis, in the mid-1970s the “general area of leadership . . . was formed to some extent more out of an academic, or even sociological, perspective, not just psychology.”

Based on this data, I revised premise number one regarding root disciplines to state:

The application and practice of coaching rests on the shoulders of business first and foremost (organization development, management, and consulting) and the theories and models of coaching are heavily influenced by psychology (mainly humanistic and clinical) second, while sports, followed by adult learning and

development; and philosophy (Eastern, Western, and ontology) are less prominent contributors.

My data hold true consistently in terms of the influencers and influences, however it may change over generations, which add a factor of complexity.

Generational Influences

Throughout the emergence of coaching, the data indicated that specific root disciplines had more influence in certain periods than others. Three reviews of coaching journals and articles (Grant, 2005b, 2005c; Kilburg 1996b) from the period of 1938 through 2005 highlighted the influences of root disciplines. Books on the topic of coaching begin to appear in 1978, when early authors articulated theories and models of coaching for a general audience. Interviewees also contributed to the evolutionary picture of root discipline influence.

The earliest references to coaching in literature appeared in business literature, which corresponds with interviewee data identifying business as a key context for the application of coaching. Many of the strategies used by organizational psychologists directly influenced organizational development and are comparable to what is now called coaching (W. Bergquist, personal communication, June 22, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; D. McNeill, personal communication, May 16, 2006). Nevis described that during the 1970s he and his colleagues “were just psychologists doing consulting in industry” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). Organizational psychology was preliminary to coaching, specifically in the area of counseling, assessment, and feedback (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). The nearest thing we can find to

coaching that far back was organizational psychologists providing the service under the name of counseling (E. Fredericks, personal communication, May 12, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006; J. Sandstrom, personal communication, June 28, 2006). While literature from this period does not refer to coaching per se, there are several examples of organizational psychology that appear to be precursors to coaching (Glaser, 1958; Grant, 2005a; Peltier, 2001). The emphasis of coaching in business continued with psychology business specialties making a strong appearance in literature in the mid-1990s.

Books tended to emphasize coaching tools and processes to support more effective leadership at executive (Megginson & Boydell, 1979; Parson, 1986) and managerial levels (Deegan, 1979; Fournies, 1978; Kinlaw, 1989). The early articles by Clarke in 1971, Huse in 1966 and Kastens in 1971 in journals provided techniques for training and developing managers while articles by Davis in 1958, Kessler in 1977, Fox in 1983 and Finn in 1984 focused on improving the effectiveness of sales managers. This focus continued through the 1980s when psychology journal articles attempted to provide some theoretical models or background on the executive coaching (Diedrich, 1996; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, and Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996a). From the mid-1990s journal articles by Speery in 1997, Laske in 1999, Howatt in 2000 and Rotenberg in 2000, and books (Bergquist, Merritt, & Phillips, 1999; Hudson, 1999; Kilburg, 2000; Peltier 2001) drew more heavily on the root discipline of psychology. Three special editions of the *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, published from 1996 to 2005 and focusing on executive coaching, were mentioned by interviewees (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006; D.

Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006). Hudson's book was mentioned most often by interviewees (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2006) as among those drawing heavily on psychology. During the 1990s books focusing on self-coaching such as Berman-Fortgang in 1998, Richardson in 1999, Whitmore in 1992; the career of coaching by Ellis in 1998; and the field of coaching by Hargrove in 1995, Leonard in 1999, Whitworth, Kimsey-House, & Sandahl in 1998 were published. Interviewees mentioned the self-coaching of Whitmore (R. Bentley, personal communication, July 3, 2006; R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; L. Christian, personal communication, March 10, 2006), and Whitworth, Kimsey-House & Sandahl most often (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; C. Darst, personal communication, April 10, 2006; L. Taylor, personal communication, May 16, 2006).

Prior to 1960

References to coaching were first identified in business literature. Prior to the 1960s, the earliest references to coaching appeared in human resource journals and focused on management development and training. Nine (69.2%) of the 13 earliest references article to coaching appeared between 1937 and 1959 in human resource journals. Three articles (23.1%) appeared in management journals and one article appeared in a psychology journal. The first published peer-reviewed paper on coaching in the business literature was published in 1955 (Grant, 2005b) in the *Harvard Business Review*. Evered and Selman (1989) noted the appearance of coaching in the management literature of the 1950s as a form of supervision. Such articles stressed the benefit of training supervisors to coach staff to improved work performance.

Durosher indicated that in

1930 a group of psychologists were hired by an engineering firm to study the best way to organize an office in corporate America to help people be more effective. A subset of that group, who left in 1944 to start RHR, found a lot of executives and leadership had a need for somebody to talk to as a sounding board that was outside the business. When they founded RHR in September 1944, they were working with corporations to assess new leaders being hired and to counsel, at the time was the term they used, the CEOs and maybe one or two of their direct reports, to act as a sounding board, bounce ideas off, give them another perspective to think about. At the time we called it development, but what we found out over the years is that executive coaching is part of development.

(personal communication, October 5, 2007)

Glaser (1958) identified a shift of clinically oriented industrial psychologists to developmental counseling with key management personnel. One rationale was “that many of the problems in connection with the long-run operational performance of an organization stem from attitudes and actions of the managers” (p. 486). Glaser further states: “The psychological consultant to management is in a position to share with the managers and supervisors of men in our society what psychologists tentatively know about promoting healthy human development and constructive interpersonal relations” (p. 488). Nevis supports the shift Glaser identified and places it “somewhere around 1950, plus or minus three years” (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). The behaviorism or mechanistic movement in psychology and business sectors was also prominent prior to the 1960s (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006).

1960s through 1970s

The 1960s ushered in the humanistic movement based on the belief that if you treat people well they will perform (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006). Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, reference to coaching appeared predominately in business literature. During the decades of the 1960s and 1970s references to coaching appeared less in the human resource journals than earlier (17.4%), and began to appear in training and management journals. Between 1960 and 1979, 15 of the 23 articles (65.2%) on coaching appeared in training journals. Four management books with coaching in their titles and focusing on managers using coaching to improve performance were published during the 1970s.

Prior to the 1970s, the term *counseling*, rather than *executive coaching*, was used predominately in business (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007; R. Leider, personal communication, May 16, 2006) and may have included image, presentation, and speech consultation (D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006).

Counseling executives in the 1970s was about hiring a psychologist to go in and talk one-to-one with managers to help them with work adjustment, be less abrasive, or deal with some of the same things we provide coaching on today (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007). A coaching approach was used by some career counselors in the 1970s (R. Leider, personal communication, May 16, 2006). Overlapping with and preceding the entry of coaching into management literature in the late 1970s was workplace counseling, describing conversations that take place between boss and subordinate. Kirkpatrick (1982) distinguished coaching from counseling by describing coaching as: “Initiated by manager; done on a regular basis; job-oriented; being positive or corrective

with emphasis on telling, training and teaching by the manager; and with the objective to improve job performance” (p. 82). Kirkpatrick further states:

The effective coaching function is more apt to take the form of working on forward-looking plans and objectives for subordinates in a way that keeps them moving constantly toward new areas of experience, new demands for personal skill development, and application of ingenuity and problem solving. (pp. 82–83)

Schein (1969) distinguishes three models of consultation: purchase or expertise model, doctor-patient model, and process consultation (PC) model. The process consultation model contains many of the characteristics of coaching as we know it today, though in most cases, the distinction between giving answers and helping people find their answers was not there (J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006).

Gallwey’s 1974 Inner Game approach to sports was based on humanistic and transpersonal psychological principles, and “the concept that the opponent within is more formidable than the one outside” (Whitmore, 1992, p. 5–6). According to Whitmore, “Gallwey was the first to demonstrate a simple and comprehensive method of coaching that could be readily applied to almost any situation” (p. 7).

1980s

“In the late 1970s and 1980s, the focus of coaching in the United States was using the coaching process as a technique that helps managers more successfully bring about performance achievements in business that relate directly to the survival of that business” (Fournies, 1978, p. vii). Kinlaw (1989) further described all forms of coaching as having two common attributes: “1) they are one-to-one conversations and 2) they focus on performance or performance-related topics” (p. 23). In the United Kingdom, coaching

was viewed as a “process in which a manager, through direct discussion and guided activity, helps a colleague to learn to solve a problem or to do a task, better than would otherwise have been the case” (Megginson & Boydell, 1979, p. 5). “Whatever the case, most attempts to translate coaching into managerial applications take place within the control-order-prescription paradigm” (Evered & Selman, 1989, p. 1). The terms *coaching* and *counseling* are frequently used to describe the on-the-job conversations that take place between boss and subordinate (Kirkpatrick, 1982, p. 81).

From 1980 to 1989 references to coaching appeared predominately in business literature and for the first time a few journal articles appear in psychology literature. During the 1980s references to coaching appeared in more discipline journals than before. Training and management articles were 22% of the total articles, with some representation in human resource, psychology, and organization development journals. Between 1980 and 1989 16 of the 33 articles (48.5%) on coaching appeared in training journals and 6 articles (18.9%) appeared in management journals. The remaining articles appeared in journals from: human resource (3 for 9.1%), psychology (3 for 9.1%), organization development (2 for 6.1%), and 1 each in 3 miscellaneous journals. Six management books, with coaching in their titles and focusing on managers using coaching to improve performance, were published during the 1980s.

During the 1980s, coaching traced back to the leadership development training programs (J. Sandstrom, personal communication, June 28, 2006), and management practice around learning skills and understanding the process (T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2006). Block (1999), like Schein in (1969), described three models of consultation as collaborative, expert, and pair-of-hands. The collaborative

model of consultation has characteristics similar to coaching. The quality movement of plan-do-check-act increased in the 1980s as “Japan was eating our lunch” (P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006), and the check would be personal feedback as an end place. It was called coaching or one-to-one development as a description, with the actual title of quality improvement facilitator. It was during this period the Inner Game methodology from Timothy Gallwey took hold in the United Kingdom through the efforts of Sir John Whitmore, Graham Alexander, and Myles Downey, among others (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Initially used in sports, where anybody including already high performers had a coach (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007), coaching from this perspective was introduced to United Kingdom business by the mid-1980s.

In 1981, Erhard, with Flores and others, created the Forum training. By 1984 Erhard had formed a corporate business division, Transformational Technologies, to bring personal development methodology to business and it promoted coaching from a consulting perspective (S. Klein, personal communication, April 24, 2006). During the mid-1980s “consulting psychologists worked behind closed doors” for managers who were problems, damaged, or broken (M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006). Also around the mid-1980s Richard Strozzi-Heckler began to see “people that were basically highly functional. They were there for therapy and they had questions around meaning, purpose, and different breakdowns they were creating either in their workspace or their personal lives” (personal communication, June 9, 2006). The late 1980s brought performance management processes that included coaching (day-to-day work to get better) and counseling (when there was a gap between expectations and performance) (T.

Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2006). Michael Cavanagh noted that organizational psychology solution-focused approach began in the late 1980s and was “brought into organizations as a change methodology shifting workplace into a coaching modality” (personal communication, May 10, 2006). During this time coaching was like a terminology according to Collins, “do you want coaching on this or that? It wasn’t distinct. It was an activity. Thomas Leonard actually shifted it from an activity” (personal communication, May 1, 2006) beginning in the late 1980s with his life planning courses.

1990s

During the decade of the 1990s, references to coaching increased exponentially in journals and the content expanded to a larger variety of disciplines while encompassing a global nature. Business literature is still the most prevalent source of articles with over 60%, followed by psychology journals at close to 20%, which was a marked increase over the previous decade. Much of the increase in psychology articles is due to the 1996 special issue of *Consulting Psychology Journal* that focused entirely on executive coaching.

Between 1990 and 1999, 129 total articles appeared on coaching, which is almost three times greater than the previous decade. Of these, 35 (27.1%) appeared in management journals; 27 (20.9%) articles appeared in training journals; 24 (18.6%) appeared in psychology journals; and 10 (9.3%) articles appeared in business journals. The remaining 33 (25.6%) articles appeared in various journals including science, organization development, finance, and performance, among others. Grant (2005b) states, “the number of published peer-reviewed papers in the business literature has escalated

since 1996.” He continues by describing that of the 342 peer-reviewed business articles published between 1955 and September 2005, 342 were published since 1996.

The two reviews of existing academic literature on coaching by Grant and Cavanagh show a marked increase in academic literature since 1980. Grant and Cavanagh (2004) state:

The coaching industry has reached a key important point in its maturation. This maturation is being driven by at least three interrelated forces: (1) accumulated coaching experience; (2) the increasing entry of professionals into coaching from a wide variety of prior backgrounds; and (3) the increasing sophistication of management and Human Resource professionals. (p. 1)

Publication of coaching books increased markedly during the 1990s. Between 1991 and 1995 11 books on coaching were published, of which 6 focused on coaching in management; 1 each on coaching in sports, clinical psychology supervision, and peer coaching in education; and 2 on the discipline of coaching. In 1996 and 1998 11 books were published, of which 4 addressed coaching in management, 1 addressed coaching in training, and 6 on the discipline of coaching. During 1999 12 books were published in the discipline of coaching, for a total of 20 books in the coaching discipline during the 1990s. Books in the discipline of coaching focused on performance improvement in business (5), personal success (2), work and personal success (10), new career (3).

By the 1990s, coaching emerged from the personal development movement to enable people to go from a dream, “I want to have an ideal life, business, relationship,” to applying this creativeness in reality, and experiencing it (Z. Todorovic, personal communication, May 9, 2007). Coaching is a way for people to find “some sanity in the

midst of this sometimes insane world—to find ways to carve out personal space and personal boundaries and to be true to ourselves even in the midst of all of the influences that are around us” (M. Bench, personal communication, November 13, 2006).

2000 through 2004

Between 2000 and 2004, journal articles on coaching doubled from the previous decade to 274. These articles appeared in the following disciplines: psychology journals with 62 articles (22.6%), management journals with 59 articles (21.5%), training journals with 55 articles (20.1%), and organization development journals with 35 articles (12.8%). Grant and Cavanagh (2004) identified five broad research trends within coach-specific research:

- (a) discussion articles on internal coaching conducted by managers with direct reports;
- (b) the beginnings of more rigorous academic research on internal coaching and its impact on work performance;
- (c) the extension of research to include external coaching by a professional coach as a means of creating individual and organizational change;
- (d) the beginning of coaching research as a means of investigating psychological mechanisms and processes involved in human and organizational change; and
- (e) emergence of a theoretical literature aimed at the professional coach. (p. 1)

Of the 105 empirical peer-reviewed business studies published between 1955 and September 2005, 78 were published since 2001 (Grant, 2005b, p. 1). The majority of these are uncontrolled group or case studies.

Between 2000 through 2004 39 books were published in the discipline of coaching. Books focusing on a career in coaching made up 38.5% of the total. Business

coaching books made up 35.9%, and books focusing on both work and life made up 17.5%. In addition to the shift to books on coaching careers, for the first time many coaching books had theoretical underpinnings from psychology.

Influential Theories and Models

Coaching has adapted models from multiple root disciplines for use in coaching. Theories and models from the psychology sector underpin many of the specific theories and models of the business sector, sports, and adult-focused disciplines, which in turn have been adapted to the coaching discipline. Theories and models have also been added directly from the psychology sector. Data sources for theories and models are literature and interviews. The survey did not produce any new information about tools and models, as there was no question about the topic in the survey instrument. Appendix L contains a summary of root disciplines, contributions from the disciplines, and contributors.

Social sciences sector

The literature from the social sciences of sociology, linguistics, anthropology, and psychology contribute theories and models about human communication to coaching, with contributions of psychology most prominent and diverse. Interview data confirms the contribution from the social sciences. Psychology contributes theoretical models that influenced the coach-client relationship and offers models about the change process, theories of development, and the assessment process. Individuals such as Rogers, Maslow, and Perls trained in psychology and contributed to the creation of what was known as the Human Potential Movement. Literature and interview data also suggest the personal development and growth movement emerged as part of humanistic psychology and contributed methods and processes to the developing discipline of coaching.

Psychology. Psychology in the late 1800s had a structural and functional philosophical focus. Their contributions to coaching include perceptions and self-observation, along with the consciousness states of thinking, feeling, and knowing to enhance client learning and growth. These concepts were eclipsed by Freud's medical model of psychodynamics and the behavioral and cognitive psychologies of the early to mid-1900s. The structural and functional philosophical concepts lay relatively dormant until humanistic and transpersonal psychology came on the scene in the mid to late 1900s.

Within the literature linking psychology and coaching it would appear that all subdisciplines have some degree of influence on coaching. Humanistic and clinical forms of psychology emerge as most influential, followed by organizational, developmental, and transpersonal, and the less influential forms of health and biological (also known as biopsychological) psychology. Kilburg (2004) applies psychodynamic theory to executive coaching. Skiffington and Zeus (2003) and M. Goldsmith (2006) apply behavioral constructs to business coaching. Peltier (2001) identifies the literature of clinical psychology as relevant to coaching in business, and Stober (2006) proposes the humanistic perspective is the fundamental assumption for coaching. The counseling psychology literature refers to coaching forms and methods as workplace performance counseling, for example using a repertoire of management skills to help troubled employees (Peltier, 2001). Organizational psychology presented coaching strategies and processes as developmental counseling for key management personnel, for example, sharing what psychologists know about promoting healthy human development and constructive interpersonal relations (Glaser, 1958).

Given the evolution of psychology I looked at it in three constellations of related subdisciplines. Each constellation had a frame—a unifying structure, theories, assumptions, models, and protocols. The most influential constellation appeared to be humanistic-transpersonal psychology. The two other constellations of psychology I have identified are psychodynamic and cognitive-behavioral, and they show up with less frequency in the archival data. Interviewees confirmed the primary influence of humanistic-transpersonal psychology, as well as the contributions of psychodynamic and behavioral-cognitive psychology and the human development movement.

In the following paragraphs, I look at the influence of these three psychology constellations, as well as a derivative constellation I call human development. Human development is a cross-discipline synthesis that borrows heavily from psychology and yet, like coaching, plucks pieces out of context from each of the aforementioned groups. Across all four constellations interviewees added detail about the use of assessments to raise self-awareness and for skill development; therapeutic models, skills, and techniques with different language used by psychologists who coach; and feminism’s importance in the world on sacredness, honoring relationship, mutuality, and being collaborative. Several interviewees noted specific elements from biological psychology that contributed to coaching. For example, Rock notes, “there must be a moment of reflection before the moment of insight” (personal communication, June 8, 2006). Boyatzis suggested, “neurological and hormonal processes allow one to sustain or renew self” (personal communication, May 8, 2007). Rock also referred to the work of Schwartz, stating that, “coaching is facilitated, self-directed neuroplasticity for helping people’s minds change their brains” (personal communication, June 8, 2006).

Humanistic transpersonal psychology constellation. The literature of the humanistic transpersonal constellation contributed models of growth and the coach-client relationship; a focus on the whole person; an emphasis on increasing awareness, consciousness, choice, responsibility, and intentionality; personality theory; and an integral perspective.

Stober (2006) identified four key concepts from humanistic approaches that are applied in the coaching discipline: growth-oriented view of the person (self-actualization); practitioner-client relationship (collaboration, directiveness, practitioners' qualities of empathy, unconditional positive regard, authenticity/genuineness/congruence); holistic view of the person (range of human experience, uniqueness of the individual); and choice and responsibility (availability of choice). Stober continues with some guiding principles from humanistic psychology in Table 4-4 that provide a framework for the context of coaching (adapted from Stober, 2006):

Table 4-4 Coaching Framework from Humanistic Psychology

<p>(1) Nature of the coaching relationship is essential.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Listen for understanding. ○ Cultivate acceptance and look for positive points of connection. ○ Give honest feedback in the moment. ○ Establish collaboration as the process of the coaching relationship.
<p>(2) Client is the source and director of change.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Facilitate the client setting the agenda, goals, and direction. ○ Use the self-subject matter expertise of the client as the point of connection.
<p>(3) Client is whole and unique.</p>

- Assess thoroughly and check for accuracy.
- Look for interconnections.
- Facilitate integrating/aligning.

(4) Coach is the facilitator of the client's growth.

- Direct the process, not the content.
- Maintain an attitude of exploration.
- Expand the client's awareness of strengths, resources, challenges.
- Point out choices and help the client make conscious choices.
- Facilitate goal-setting and accountability.

Two key figures in this constellation are Maslow and Rogers (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; M. Blair, personal communication, May 3, 2006; R. Leider, personal communication, May 15, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006). Maslow contributed concepts of personal authenticity, psychology of being, individual self and growth, as well as his well-known needs hierarchy and self-actualization model, which is a growth-oriented view of the person (Auerbach, 2001). The client-centered approach as represented by Rogers informed the coach's approach with the concepts of collaboration, directiveness, empathy, unconditional positive regard, authenticity, genuineness, congruence, and self-disclosure (Hedman, 2001). The client-centered approach is one of a caring and trustworthy professional who has extensive emotional knowledge. According to Blair, at its very base, coaching is all of what Carl thought therapy should be" (personal communication, May 3, 2006). The IFC's core competencies reflect the characteristics of establishing trust and intimacy with the client and coaching presence (IFC, 1999). Whitworth was

involved in the creation of the ICF core competencies and indicated the influence of humanistic-transpersonal psychology on the ICF core competencies as well as CTI's coactive coaching model, which she extended to include awareness, choice, present focus, and trust in the process (personal communication, April 20, 2006). Other key concepts adapted by coaching from this constellation include: values, meanings, and experiences as important; values connection and dialogue; existentialist and phenomenological orientations; and an understanding and promoting of other's welfare. Key coaching views of positive change as a driving force for people, being inclusive and open to alternative viewpoint, and a holistic view of a person, which includes the range of human experience and individual uniqueness, are adapted from this constellation. Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), focused on personal development, creativity enhancement, increased performance, improved communication skills, and accelerated learning, is also included within the humanistic transpersonal constellation.

From the transpersonal perspective, this constellation also contributed an appreciation of spiritual potential and awareness, consciousness, transcendental and transpersonal qualities of existence, an integral perspective, and intentionality, as well as discovering the power of who one is. Whitmore (2006) states, "transpersonal psychology brought in ideas around will and intentionality [to coaching]. . . . The key ideas surrounding transpersonal coaching are about discovering the power of who you really are" (p. 3). Coaching adapted the view of integrating and synthesizing the individual around the personal self from transpersonal psychology.

Transmitter coaches such as L. Whitworth contributed humanistic concepts that people are naturally creative, resourceful, and whole; holding the client's agenda; and

techniques of visualization and guided imagery. Todorvic brought forth evolution of human thinking (personal communication, May 9, 2007); Strozzi-Heckler highlighted attending to the body in conversation (personal communication, June 9, 2006); and Mitsch identified levels of consciousness (personal communication, May 23, 2006) as key areas of contribution for coaching. Coaching from a humanistic transpersonal perspective rests on these principles and values.

Cognitive behavioral psychology constellation. Contributions from the cognitive behavioral constellation include techniques and models to change behavior, as well as the techniques for people to learn consciously to notice and change their own thoughts with powerful emotional and behavioral benefits. Coaches can use these techniques to raise consciousness on style of thinking, patterns of thinking, as well as specific thoughts themselves (Peltier, 2001). Once consciousness is raised, realistic goals can be identified, progress toward goals can be measured, and adjustments made. Techniques of reinforcement and behavior modification are also a benefit to coaches. Interviewees noted that cognitive behavioral psychology added several other concepts for coaching. For example, Moritz suggested that significant behavioral changes occur only in the face of a significant emotional event and that changing thoughts allows behavior to change (personal communication, May 3, 2006). Moritz also talked about coaching as the cognitive-behavioral process of motivation, reinforcement, and transfer. First-generation coaches such as L. Whitworth contributed behavioral coaching goals and accountability to the coaching landscape.

Specifically, coaching adapted from behavioral psychology the concepts of overt behaviors and how they are controlled or conditioned by external stimuli, conscious

thinking, goal orientation, and by checking progress and experimenting, then adjusting based on measured progress. Skiffington and Zeus (2003) and Goldsmith (2006) apply behavioral constructs to business coaching.

From cognitive psychology, coaching adapted tools and models of perception, attention, self-perception, creative imagination, assumptions, and erroneous conclusions. Mental models, unproductive schemas, maladaptive self-talk, and the ability of people to learn to notice and change their own thoughts also have been adapted from cognitive psychology to coaching.

Psychodynamic psychology constellation. The psychodynamic constellation contributes to coaching by providing insight into human nature and the dynamics that occur in a client's life within context (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003). Psychodynamic approaches are effective when working with resistance, though coaches who use them must avoid pathologizing the client or the relationship. Specific tools and models adapted to coaching from psychodynamic psychology include: self-awareness/insight and defense mechanisms, object-relations theory and self-psychology, symbolic thinking, spiritualawakening in second half of life, personal myth, personal self-knowledge, and growth. Austin highlighted instincts and unmet needs as psychodynamic contributions to coaching (personal communication, June 15, 2006). Several interviewees noted the psychodynamic influence on coaching of creating meaning and purpose in one's life and creating a deepening awareness of self. Kilburg (2004) applies psychodynamic theory to executive coaching, which blends the concepts of knowing the organization and knowing the executive, and that coaching dynamics mirror client experiences in the regular world.

Human development derivative psychology constellation. Personal development and growth arose primarily from humanistic psychology, though tools, models, and concepts also came from the motivation movement, the humanist movement, the Human Potential Movement, and large group awareness trainings (LGATs).

The motivation movement of the early 1900s is comprised of individuals such as Carnegie, Hill, Peale, and Nightingale. These models and concepts include positive thinking, self-assuredness, power of thought, possibility thinking, self-knowledge, ability to recognize opportunity, and the importance of attitude. In 1937, Hill (1988) developed the mastermind concept which contributed elements to coaching such as a safe and nonjudgmental environment where one is listened to, supported, and encouraged to develop and reach identified goals. Later motivation gurus like Robbins focused on personal action and responsibility for choices. Concepts of self-knowledge and self-awareness; power of thought to bring fame-fortune-happiness, imagination, organized planning, persistence, sixth sense as door to wisdom, learning by doing, self-assuredness and self-acceptance through understanding, attitude, recognizing opportunity, setting worthy goals, and self-management also came directly from the motivation movement. Twelve-step programs, the forerunner to self-help and support groups, arose in the late 1930s and contributed to coaching the principles of positive psychological and spiritual attitude adjustment as well as the idea of a sponsor as a mentor.

The humanist movement contributed the concepts of individual self and growth; people as free and creative with a natural drive to healthiness and self-fulfillment; the search for meaning, authenticity, and transcendence in a frame of responsibility and choice; and the value of subjective experience. Coaching adapted from the humanist

movement the concepts of: being in the present, being mindful, remaining unattached to outcomes, and enjoying the process.

Early practitioners in the Human Potential Movement such as Rogers, Perls, and Maslow, drew on their training in traditional psychotherapy to create models and processes that then became a part of the coaching repertoire. The basic principles of human consciousness, change, and development are applied in the Human Potential Movement differently than they were in the original discipline of psychology. For example, Rogers coined the term encounter group in the 1950s, which was preceded by group psychotherapy, to explore new models of interpersonal communication and intensification of psychological experience (Weigel, 2002). This became the chief focus of the human development movement in the 1960s and 1970s, according to Smith (1990). Esalen developed, practiced, and taught the principles and methods of the human development movement, which was established in 1962 as an educational center for the exploration of unrealized human capacities. The concepts of being in the here and now, taking responsibility for choices, inward search of meaning and truth, individual will, and search for personal well-being-health-psyche security from the Human Potential Movement have been adapted to coaching.

Erhard transformed these principles into a commercialized strand of the encounter group movement known as LGAT called the est training (Weigel, 2002). Hallmark concepts, tools, and models of LGATs are personal responsibility, integrity, commitment, growth experiences for those already successful-healthy-accomplished, effectiveness, decision-making, control over one's destiny, increased awareness of present experience

with satisfaction and aliveness, enrollment, breakthrough, empowerment, way of being, make a difference, and reinvention.

Many interviewees confirmed and extended the human development contribution to coaching. As S. Anderson noted, “the work of Werner Erhard and other thinkers of the time as an interesting blend of philosophy, psychology, sociology, spirituality, and life-affirming wisdom” (personal communication, May 22, 2006). Examples shared by interviewees included: individuals share issues, problems, challenges, and opportunities as part of being human; understanding can be changed by transforming perspective; and universal laws underpin life. Christian (personal communication, March 10, 2006) and Ellis (personal communication, May 11, 2007), among others, identified the hundredth monkey phenomenon, about how ideas emerge simultaneously all over, contributes to the archival data on coaching’s evolution.

Specialties-based psychology constellations. Psychology contains numerous subdisciplines that adapt the tools and models of the three psychology constellations to specialty areas. Literature and interviewee data from twelve of these specialty areas provide evidence of direct adaptation by and influence on coaching. What I observed about the data is that the subdisciplines of psychology that contributed the most to coaching were primarily those subdisciplines of psychology that were applied rather than research or theoretically oriented. The applied psychology specialties of clinical, organizational, consulting, and counseling are the most influential on the coaching discipline, followed by sports psychology. Contributions from the research and theoretical specialties of educational and developmental psychology are at a secondary

level, as are health and biological psychology. The recently recognized specialties of positive and coaching psychology appear to have interface with the coaching discipline.

The applied discipline of clinical psychology is the psychology specialty with the strongest influence on coaching. Coaching adapted the solution-focused brief therapy approach to coaching (Berg & Szabo, 2005) which includes the concepts of: self and others as able, people make best choice for self at any given time, discourses and conversations shape reality, and dialogue cojointly construct problem and solution. Other contributions to coaching from clinical psychology such as active listening and empathy, self-awareness, process observation, giving and receiving feedback, and effective use of reinforcement, are direct application of the tools and models from the psychology constellations.

The applied discipline of organizational psychology presented coaching strategies and processes as developmental counseling for key management personnel; for example, using 360-degree assessment and follow-up (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003). Coaching also adapted tests and assessment (multipoint or 360-degree feedback, interview, direct behavioral observation, objective assessment), action science (understanding and producing action), and action research (making action more effective) from organizational psychology. The applied discipline of consulting psychology blends organization development, management consulting and training, adult education, and psychology in a framework of humanistic, existential, behavioral, and psychodynamic psychology.

The counseling psychology literature refers to coaching forms and methods as workplace performance counseling, for example, using a repertoire of management skills

to help troubled employees (Peltier, 2001). Coaching adapts from counseling psychology techniques and models such as facilitating personal and interpersonal functioning across the life span; communication models, active-listening models, questioning techniques, empathic responding, reflection, challenging, exploring issues; and gaining insight.

Gallwey was among the first to represent sports psychology from Esalen during the early 1970s through his description of the Inner Game. Coaching has adapted concepts and models such as awareness and responsibility, daily practice and skill acquisition, goal setting, focus, being in the flow, motivation, and commitment from sports psychology. Skiffington and Zeus (2003) believe:

The contribution of sports psychology is underappreciated [and] issues such as trust, personal best and the idea of coaching top performers derive from sports psychology . . . [and] research from the field includes . . . goal setting, motivation, focus, accelerated learning techniques, planning and assessing a coachee's preferred style of learning. (p. 1)

At a secondary level are the contributions from the research and theoretical specialties of educational and developmental, with influence from the health (relationship between thoughts, feelings, and actions and physical health) and biological (relationship between body, mind, and human behavior) specialties on the current coaching discipline increasing with the focus on wellness and brain-based coaching.

The specialties of positive and coaching psychology, recognized in 1998 and 2000 respectively, appear to have interface with the coaching discipline. Positive psychology is “a science of positive subjective experience, positive individual traits, and positive institutions promises to improve quality of life and prevent the pathologies that arise

when life is barren and meaningless” (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 10). Some believe that positive psychology has the potential to provide a theoretical and empirical underpinning to the emerging discipline of coaching (Biswas-Diener & Dean, 2007; Kauffman, 2006; Stober & Grant, 2006, p. 249). Grant and Stober (2006) describe coaching psychology as:

[The] systematic application of behavioral science to the enhancement of life experience, work performance, and well-being for individuals, groups and organizations who do not have clinically significant mental health issues or abnormal levels of distress. Although psychologists have long acted as coaches, coaching psychology has only recently emerged as an applied and academic subdiscipline. (p. 12)

Whybrow and Palmer (2006) found that “psychologists have adapted a number of therapeutic approaches to the field of coaching psychology” (pp. 9–10), such as, facilitation, cognitive, behavioral, goal-focused, solution-focused, person-centered, eclectic, problem-focused, humanistic, and NLP, among others. Did the more recent specialties of psychology (positive and coaching) arise in response to the existence of coaching, emerge out of the same socioeconomic influences from which coaching emerged, or is there some growing interdependence or interface between coaching and psychology that is changing both disciplines? Of interest is the fact that “the Australian Psychological Society Interest Group in Coaching Psychology defines coaching psychology as an applied positive psychology, which draws on and develops established psychological approaches” (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006, p. 150).

Other social sciences. The contributions of sociology, linguistics, and anthropology are minor. Briefly, coaching adapted the concept that system change triggers personal change, putting aside biases and assumptions (L. Page, personal communication, March 18, 2006) and in-depth interviewing techniques (M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006) from sociology. Linguistics view of language as communicative with the power to coordinate action (Flaherty, 2006) also provided a model of a “two-person communication that could be applied to coaching” (L. Page, personal communication, March 18, 2006). Coaching adapted concepts and techniques of feedback, acceptance, and change from anthropology.

Business sector

For this study, business is comprised of the major areas of management, organization development, and consulting, and the minor areas of training, career development, facilitation, human resources, and mentoring. Much of the late 1970s literature of coaching focused on coaching as a form of supervision or training by management within an organization for the purpose of improving performance. Later it became identified with a style of consulting and an organization development intervention. Some literature describes coaching as synonymous with mentoring, a role of human resource staff, a skill of facilitation, and an approach to career development.

Management. The literature of management contributes to coaching as a cross-disciplinary synthesis of models and techniques for communication, performance improvement, implementation, leader styles, and effective habits. In the leadership literature there are extensive examples of articles, models, and competencies about coaching. “Executive and business coaches work with these competencies to enhance

leader's existing skills and to develop future leaders" (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 18).

"Much of the non-peer-reviewed literature on coaching is published in the trade and professional management press . . . [and] offers many contributions to both business and non-business-related coaching" (Grant, 2005a, p. 8). This early literature published in training journals and management books focused on using the coaching process as a technique to help managers more successfully bring about performance achievements in business that relate directly to the survival of the business (Fournies, 1978, p. vii).

Management techniques for improving relationships through improved communication, observation, and feedback with the intent to help others improve effectiveness and performance (Ulrich, 2006) inform the techniques used in coaching. Interviewees contributed various perspectives from management and leadership theory and practice, ranging across a continuum from developing people to providing information to being a referral source. Also reflected by interviewees was how, when, and to what extent coaching is a part of a leader's primary role. Fitzgerald sees that much "leadership is about helping to contain anxiety and encourage hope" (personal communication, July 7, 2006), which is a coaching role. Bergquist described "management as tending to be stable and positional, while 21st century leadership can occur at any point in the organization at particular times and is very much a precursor foundation for coaching" (personal communication, June 22, 2006).

Organization development (consulting – organization). Similar to management, the literature of organization development suggests a cross-disciplinary synthesis of related disciplines. Organization development contributes a holistic view of people and organizations based on humanistic and democratic values to coaching and seeks to

increase the effectiveness of the system and all parts within the system. Concepts such as employees could be trusted, wanted to do good work, and wanted to be treated like adults have been adapted to coaching from organization development. Organization development has also contributed tools and models adapted from other areas to coaching. These include sensitivity training, Gestalt therapy concepts and methods, focus on change and learning, organization diagnosis, process consultation, and insight into human systems and their functions (couple and family systems, work systems, community systems, and larger systems).

Organization development offered a more holistic view of people and organizations, with an emphasis on humanistic and democratic values (Jamieson, 2006). Coaching and organization development focus on change and learning, though organization development's perspective is primarily that of the organization and coaching's perspective is mainly that of the individual. Organization development informs coaching practice by providing insight into human systems and their functions.

Contributions to coaching from organization development expressed by interviewees confirmed archival data that suggests organization development is a cross-disciplinary synthesis of related disciplines focusing on change within organizations. Bergquist sees that "Mary Beth O'Neill represents the classic organization development field applied toward coaching." Bergquist also notes that "the work of Chris Argyris, Don Schon, and their student Peter Senge, with their distinction between espoused theory and theory in use, has slipped into the back door into coaching, along with appreciative inquiry" (personal communication, June 22, 2006).

Consulting (management). Primary management consulting roles consist of collaborative, expert, and pair-of-hands. The degree of overlap between coaching and consulting depends on who initiated the coaching request, who is being coached, in what role he is being coached, and on what issues he is being coached. Interviewees confirmed the three roles of consultants as expert, pair-of-hands, and process consultant. M. Goldsmith (personal communication, April 29, 2006) and Fredericks (personal communication, May 12, 2006), among others, pointed out the delivery of 360-degree customized feedback was one avenue consultants used to enter the discipline of coaching as early as 1980. Interviewees also described consulting with management as a one-to-one relationship that predates coaching. In the early 1970s the term organization development was not yet coined and according to Nevis, “we were just psychologists doing consulting in industry” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). Storjohann stated that:

I was unaware of how much directive or telling work I have been accustomed to doing, until one of my coaching supervisors said “you are going to flunk your exam if you don’t quit doing that. You’re doing great consulting and it’s not really coaching” (personal communication, May 29, 2006).

Storjohann also made the hypothesis that “a lot of other consultants might be unaware of how much directive and telling work they were doing” (personal communication, May 29, 2006).

Other business disciplines. Coaching appears to also draw on the literature of the business disciplines of training, facilitation, career development, human resources, and

mentoring. These integrate models and methods from other disciplines as well as from each other.

Other business focus areas influence coaching through their similarity in purpose: career development, to help people achieve job and career satisfaction; facilitation, to make easy the tasks of others; human resources, aimed at recruiting capable, flexible, and committed people, managing and rewarding their performance, and developing key competencies; and mentoring, which may include peer support, development guidance, career advice, and internal sponsorship.

Several interviewees identified finance as contributing life planning processes to the discipline of coaching. As a tax consultant, C. Richardson “actually met with clients and had in-depth interviews with clients where a lot of life planning questions and issues would come up as a result of that work” (personal communication, May 9, 2006). Interviewees confirmed the other business disciplines of training, facilitation, career development, human resources, and mentoring with significant detail added from the interviews.

Adult education, learning, and development sector

The “knowledge domains of adult education and workplace learning and development are critical and relevant to coaching, as the majority of coaching clients are adults” (Grant, 2005a, p. 7). Because the theories and models in adult education, learning, and development are rooted in models of psychology and business, some of the contributions to coaching from these disciplines are identified in above paragraphs. Adult education sees human development as the effective interaction between people and human systems. Within business, adult education takes the form of training and

professional development. Adult education shares with coaching the characteristic of spanning the spectrum of directive to nondirective (P. Richarde, personal communication, June 29, 2006).

Adults learn in different ways than younger people do. Lovin and Casstevens (1971) describe adult learning as “a modification of behavior through experience.” Knowles’ adult learning principles of being self-directed and goal-oriented guide the learning-based relationship of coaching that “provides the opportunity for custom-designed learning” (Sieler, 2003). “Adult learning emerged from psychology, not as a distinct discipline, but as a discipline of application” (Cox, 2006, p. 214). Cox identifies eight learning theories that have a particular relevance to coaching. Each theory has a particular part to play in adult learning and has been identified because of its practical application to the coaching process. Briefly, these eight theories are: “Knowles’ andragogy; Mezirow’s transformative learning theory; Boud et al.’s reflective practice; Kolb’s experiential learning; Kolb’s learning styles; Levinson’s life course development; Maslow’s values and motivation; and Bandura’s self-efficacy” (pp. 194–195). Mink, Owen, & Mink (1993) include Merton’s Pygmalion effect and Brookfield’s qualities of learning-promoting relationships among adults as relevant theories that also have practical application to coaching. Interviewees provided example of adult learning’s influence on coaching, such as “working in pairs and asking each other questions, and listening to the answers and getting people’s feedback” (P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006) is part of adult learning as well as coaching.

Adult development it is a relatively recent development that brings together the disciplines of psychology and education. Theories of adult development are addressed by

developmental psychology and influence coaching through life-span models, life events and rituals throughout the life cycle, and adult psychological development. Adult development provides a contextual frame for what's happening in a client's life. Flaherty (2006) and Hudson (1999) agree that understanding adult development theories and concepts is important for effective coaching. Flaherty says it this way:

Adults learn in different ways than younger people do. . . . Coaches of grown-ups must understand the landscape of adult development so that they have a contextual frame for what's happening in a client's life. These research-based theories point coaches to the most salient topics and fruitful approaches (Flaherty, 2006, ¶ 7).

Interviewees support the importance of adult development theories and concepts for coaches, such as “the same skills and expertise result in different levels of impact in accordance with developmental level” (O. Laske, personal communication, June 6, 2006).

A new category was created when interviewees identified general education as contributing to coaching. “Skills and perspectives from parent effectiveness training apply directly to coaching” (L. Page, personal communication, March 18, 2006). “Since the 1970s, peer assistance or counseling in schools has effectively used techniques similar to coaching” (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006).

Sports sector

Whitmore (2006) and others suggest the coaching approach in sports was originally instruction in the manner of behavioral and cognitive psychology, which resulted in future-oriented abilities. Interviewees confirmed the significant contribution of

sports to the discipline of coaching, though coaching in sports tends to a more directive rather than facilitative style (C. Morgan, personal communication, April 19, 2007). Similarly, Staggs talks about “the sports metaphors were focusing on goals and performing . . . and the cheerleading approach” (personal communication, June 8, 2006). Sports coaching facilitates experiential learning with an individual approach through visualization, video feedback, communication, a genuine concern for players, being part of a team, and love of the sport. A willingness to accept criticism, to admit mistakes, and to accept success and failure as part of the game is critical in sports coaching. Sports coaching also contributes to coaching the skill of dancing between the large and small perspective (K. Cannon, personal communication, 2006).

That said, themes from sports books include innocence, clear contracting, curiosity, continuous change, fun, and awareness (Kirkpatrick, 1982), which directly align to many of the philosophies underlying coaching outside the sports arena. Personal qualities of sports coaches that apply to coaches outside the sports arena include: enthusiasm and dedication, neutrality, integrity, optimism, open-mindedness, sense of humor, flexibility, and authenticity. Sports coaches contribute to coaching the “ability to dance between the big picture and small pieces” (K. Cannon, personal communication, May 12, 2006) and “holding the vision for who they [athletes] can be and what they [athletes] can accomplish” (T. Belf, personal communication, March 30, 2006).

In 1974, Gallwey introduced the idea that the player within is more formidable than the one on the outside. This approach, based on humanistic and transpersonal psychological principles, focuses on awareness and responsibility. It can be, and is, directly applied in coaching inside and outside the sports arena today. The distinctions of

coaching, regardless of the subject being coached, developed in the mid-1980s by Erhard and a group of well-known sports coaches that included Gallwey (J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006; W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006).

Philosophy sector

The focus of philosophy is to explain and make sense of the world. This includes the nature of human beings, the mind, the physical universe, truth and moral reasoning, and the search for meaning. Philosophy influences all interaction and communication between humans and is the foundation for all fields of thought. Tools and models of philosophy adapted to coaching include critical thinking skills, the ability to analyze and reason, and the ability to construct arguments and hold robust and well-reasoned discussions (Grant, 2005a). Some of the many contributions to coaching from the literature of philosophy are concerned with language (Echevarria, 1997) and growth and fulfillment (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003), as well as the ideas of collectiveness, synchronicity, and consciousness (Chang & Page, 1991).

Coaching is directly influenced by Eastern philosophy and Western philosophy (Analytic, Existential, Humanistic, Phenomenological, and Theological). Analytical philosophy influenced the emergence of sociology, anthropology, and psychology, which use scientific method and practices to study societies, cultures, and the workings of the human mind. Existentialists Heidegger and Perls influenced ontological and Gestalt coaching respectively. Stober proposes that the humanistic perspective is an underlying philosophical foundation of coaching today (Grant & Stober, 2006). The phenomenological issues of intentionality, consciousness, and first-person perspective have been adapted to coaching, as have theological principles toward achieving the goal

of successful living. Coaching pioneers Flores, Olalla, and Flaherty, among others, were influenced by the philosophical ideas of thinkers such as Heidegger, Maturana, and Wittgenstein.

Skiffington and Zeus (2003) add that:

Coaching inevitably addresses a coachee's view of the world and her or his guiding philosophical or moral principles which surface when meaning, values and vision are explored. . . . Phenomenology, or arriving at the truth through subjectivity, underpins behavioral coaching's exploration of the individual's subjective experiences in addition to objective behavioral measurement." (p. 17)

Philosophy influences not just behavioral coaching and the coachee, it influences coaches, coaching, and all interaction and communication between humans.

Interviewees confirmed the influence of Eastern and Western philosophy on coaching and its related disciplines and provided additional emphasis and detail on philosophy of language and the religious, spiritual, and 12-step philosophies. Key contributions from the philosophy of language include the idea that language is: descriptive and generative; the house of being; and the vehicle through which understanding is created (J. Olalla, personal communication, March 22, 2006).

Religious philosophies, specifically Christian, contributed to coaching. According to Creswell,

Coaching is a tool that Jesus used. And that he was a master at knowing what was the right tool for the right person. And that when a coaching question or discovery question was the right tool, he preferred it. He was a master at using metaphor and

parables to create awareness. . . . He also did a lot of laser messaging, concise messages.” (personal communication, December 13, 2006)

Creswell and Miller found that there are “150 unique questions that Jesus asked that are recorded in scripture” (J. Creswell, personal communication, December 13, 2006). Examples of religious philosophy influence on coaching also include “Christian spiritual formation that focuses on recognizing who we are, what our roots are, and moving forward with this information (L. Miller, personal communication, May 9, 2006) and Quaker clearness meetings that include presenting and resolving a problem through group questioning (B. Dean, personal communication, April 3, 2007). Spiritual philosophy focused on the rise of wisdom traditions simultaneously, synchronicity without any connection, and the responsibility to make the world a better place (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006).

Interviewees also identified the philosophy and practice of 12-step programs as an influence on coaching: systematic application of principles, sponsor facilitates process, mastery of declaration; inner vision; change, connection; growing, and learning. As Steinhorn said, “Alcoholics Anonymous and all of the 12-step programs that came after that is another underpinning of coaching, because even, remember, Thomas did a lot of work with restoratives” (personal communication, March 24, 2006). Leonard (1999) defined a restorative as a “client who has moved beyond 12-step recovery, healing or the need for therapy” (p. 3). At least 15 interviewees linked their knowledge of 12-step programs with influencing their coaching.

Other areas

Coaching is influenced by the literature of other areas ranging from performing arts, communication, and creativity to the natural sciences. Interviewees added significant detail and importance to the influence of performing arts, wellness, and systems theory on coaching. Interviewees did not add significant detail to the understanding the contributions of processing of verbal and non-verbal language from communications, unique ideas or possibilities, suspending boundaries and taking chances, synergy from creativity, and body integration from biology.

The literature of performing arts contributes the tradition of mentor actors in the relationship of a trusted facilitator in a supportive environment (Lampropoulos, 2001), which is much like coaching. Performing arts draw on emotions, memories, and experiences to influence portrayal of a character, which coaching has adapted. Coaching in performing arts occurs within a supportive environment where expectations are communicated early and a contract is signed. Performing arts allow for contribution and connection, support being in the moment and naturally responding, and using emotion and imagination to create perspective (H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006). Kimsey-House went on to add that presence and commitment levels, the three-level listening technique, personal foundation, and use of the body can also be attributed to the performing arts. Stanford Meisner is the key contributor of the philosophies and practices identified by Kimsey-House (R. Britten, personal communication, April 23, 2007). The goal of performing arts, much as in coaching, was to create work that evokes an emotional experience, which often results in a shift or change.

The wellness and leisure industry is underpinned by the theoretical foundations of health psychology, and are a key area of coaching focus on work and life balance. The

literature identifies life planning involving implementation, involvement and assessment, and awareness and exploration models and tools. Wellness coaching is an expanding niche. The Prochaska Model for Readiness to Change, which identifies the contemplation stage, precontemplation stage, and readiness for action stages (Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006) is one example of coaching adapting a model from health psychology.

According to Cavanagh and Grant (2006) general systems theory was developed by the biologist von Bertalanffy “from the 1920s to the 1960s in an attempt to provide a unifying approach to science that overcame many of the limitations of the dominant reductionistic approach to knowledge about the world” (p. 314). This approach holds that systems are holistic, interdependent, open, and marked by a dynamic equilibrium that elicits creativity and innovation. Feedback and feed-forward loops are inherent in amplifying and balancing the characteristics of complexity theory (p. 320). Systems theory is a “multi-interdisciplinary field which studies relationships systems as a whole . . . where they’re merging, the principles of ontology and science and physics and biology and engineering into cybernetics” (M. Moritz, personal communication, 2006).

Human systems theory, according to Hudson (1999), contends:

It is system change that triggers personal change, forcing people to adapt to new conditions and meanings for their lives. Adult development occurs when two or more systems (biological, psychological, interpersonal, familial, groups, political entities, economic forces, natural forces, and so on) trigger disequilibrium in a person’s life, who in turn evokes new personal and social strategies for managing and balancing life. (p. 85)

Kilburg (2000) saw that:

Modern approaches to organization development and coaching practice are primarily based on the conceptual foundations of general systems theory as it is applied to human organizations and behavior and interventions based on this approach most often include organizational diagnosis, process consultation, sociotechnical and structural changes, team building, coaching, and other training technologies. (p. 21)

Said another way, M. Goldsmith describes coaching from a systems perspective as “instead of moving the tree in the forest, and fixing it, and putting it back in the forest, you’re actually making the whole forest better” (personal communication, April 29 2006). Smith talked about:

The biggest thread of influence for me was learning about systems behavior because we don’t live in a vacuum. And when you start to coach someone and you just hear their direct response to things and their view of the world, you hear a very minor part of actually what’s going on with them, because perceptions of all those around a person are what is really going on. (personal communication, July 3, 2006)

According to Peltier (2001):

Some of the operating principles of systems thinking, applied to the task of executive coaching [are]

Concept 1: Focus on the Present – versus the past since it is the relationships and dynamics of the present organizational system that control and maintain the behavior of individual members.

Concept 2: Process Over Content – which is the actual content of a message (details) is of less interest than how it is communicated (way that it all happens).

Concept 3: Problem Locus – leads the coach to examine the system when an “identified client” is having individual difficulties. Human behavior can only be properly understood in its social context.

Concept 4: First-Order and Second-Order Change – occurs when an individual member of a group makes a change in behavior that does not influence the way that others function (first-order) and when the organization cannot accommodate a change made by an individual and must, therefore, make an adjustment in its structure (second-order).

(pp. 102–103)

Argyris’s action research assumption that people in organizations function within dynamic and interrelated systems also applies to coaching. Storjohann states, “[the] 360 [degree] process of coaching is a close relative to the Action Research that is at the roots of OD consulting since the 50s and 60s” (personal communication, May 29, 2006). Other interviewees support the contributions of systems theory to coaching. New York University’s coaching program is informed by five disciplines, of which one is systems theory (M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006). Other coach-training programs that address systems theory include New Ventures West (Flaherty, 2006), Fielding Graduate Institute (L. Wildflower, personal communication, June 30, 2006), and the Gestalt Institute of Cleveland (D. Siminovitch, personal communication, May 11, 2006; G. Storjohann, personal communication, May 29, 2006), among others.

“Since family therapy’s methods approximate those of organizational development, translation of therapy methods into business coaching is relatively easy. Some of the pioneers of family therapy even thought of themselves as family coaches rather than therapists” (Peltier, 2001, p. 100). Interview data agreed with the applicability of family therapy to coaching in organizations (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006; F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; L. Smith, personal communication, July 3, 2006).

Consistencies in Disciplines Influence

Across all data sources the business and psychology sectors, which have many cross-discipline theories and models, were identified as having the strongest influence on the coaching discipline. As Sinclair stated, “so much of the fields are also influencing each other” (personal communication, June 21, 2006). The humanistic perspective, whether from psychology, business, or philosophy, was emphasized in literature and interviews as dominant, along with a systems perspective.

The first theme identified was the foundational nature of a humanist perspective, which underpins coaching by providing information about the role of coach and client from a philosophy of inclusiveness and openness to alternate points of view (Bohart, 2001) and the idea that positive change is a driving force for humans. Key concepts from humanistic approaches (Stober, 2006; Auerbach, 2001) include: growth-oriented view of the person (S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006; D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006); practitioner-client relationship (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; M.

Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006; P. Szabo, personal communication, June 30, 2006); and holistic view of the person (T. Belf, personal communication, 2006; D. Siminovitch, personal communication, May 11, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006); choice and responsibility (Whitmore, 2006; D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006).

The second theme is general systems theory as applied to human and organization behaviors. Coaching clients are established and functioning in systems (A. Cardon, personal communication, June 9, 2006; C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006; E. Nevis, personal communication, 2006), including organization and family systems (F. Hudson, personal communication, June 28, 2006; F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007; P. McLean, personal communication, June 28, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006). Peltier (2001) identified four operating principles of systems thinking that applied to executive coaching: focus on the present, process over content, problem locus, and first-order and second-order change.

A third theme is the use of a questioning to create awareness and change within the client. If the starting point is seeking to raise people's awareness, this can be done quickly through asking a good question (J. Creswell, personal communication, December 13, 2006; J. Elflin, personal communication, July 3, 2006; M. Nicholas, personal communication, March 27, 2007). Whitney and Cooperrider's (1998) appreciative inquiry model contributes to coaching by providing focus on capacity for positive change through questions about what is working well and working toward a future state. Coaches with a background in consulting may use the questioning model of process consultation (Schein, 1969) or collaborative (Block, 1999) consultation, while some coaches learned

the art of questioning from sociology (M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006; L. Page, personal communication, March 18, 2006). Coaches generally eclectically blend questioning approaches (A. Cardon, personal communication, June 9, 2006; S. Emery, personal communication, May 11, 2007; C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006; R. Leider, personal communication, May 16, 2006; S. Straus, personal communication, March 2, 2006). Additionally, some coaches subscribe to the philosophy that the coach has the question and the client has the answers (H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; L. Yort, personal communication, May 5, 2006). Philosophers such as Buddha and Jesus (J. Creswell, personal communication, December 13, 2006; J. Elflin, personal communication, July 3, 2006) and Socrates (J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006; P. Rosinski, personal communication, May 22, 2006) typically ask questions rather than giving answers. Creswell and Miller “sorted the 150 questions of Jesus [from the scriptures] into topical categories. No surprise, they turned out to be the types of categories that are the top hitters of coaching sessions” (J. Creswell, personal communication, December 13, 2006). Interviewees emphasized the importance of asking questions that followed the client’s learning and thinking or were based on intuition, yet agreed that new coaches generally rely on specific questions in their practices (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; J. Elflin, personal communication, July 3, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006; E. Wong, personal communication, June 17, 2006). Several interviewees raised the point that when a question is asked, you communicate a position and also bring out what is inside the

person (J. Goldrich, personal communication, April 7, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006).

Linked with the theme of asking questions is the theme of listening on all levels. Active listening is a model of psychology (Peltier, 2001) and communication (Stein, 2003), as well as a core competency of the coaching discipline. The coactive coaching model identifies three levels of listening, adapted from the Sanford Meisner Technique in performing arts (H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006) as important for coaches (Whitworth, H. Kimsey-House, & Sandahl, 1998). As Dean described his first coach, “She asked me good questions and listened with a detached air, and I left with six things to do” (personal communication, April 3, 2007). Several interviewees included assessment and feedback as critical components for coaches (L. Page, personal communication, March 18, 2006; K. Tulpa, personal communication, June 28, 2006) in addition to questions and listening. Smith described it this way:

It is not just asking questions and listening. It’s assessing and feedback. It’s certainly asking not only one question, [it’s asking] at least a three-level deep question that drives deeper into what the person is really meaning, so they can understand. (personal communication, July 3, 2006)

Shifts in the Disciplines Influence

Three key shifts in disciplines influence are: 1) the influence has evolved from being unidirectional to being bidirectional, 2) from mechanistic training and performance to development and a new paradigm of communication, and 3) from a pure psychology theory and practice model to a mostly psychology theory and multidisciplinary model.

Divergences exist across the data sources in level of detail, emphasis, and contribution over time. Tools, models, and contributions from root disciplines were attributed to various disciplines that had adapted them for use in their own discipline, much as coaching adapted the best practices from many disciplines. Disciplines identified in the early literature were affirmed through the survey and interviews, however, in some instances the root disciplines identified in the early literature did not show up equally weighted and important in later literature and my interviews.

One set of different directions has to do with changes over time. Prior to the 1980s, reference to coaching appeared predominately in business literature. However, up through the 1970s, organizational psychologists were counseling, assessing, and providing feedback (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006) in industry under the name of counseling (E. Fredericks, personal communication, May 12, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006; J. Sandstrom, personal communication, June 28, 2006). The practice in business aligned with the behavioral psychology theory and models of the time because they were being applied by psychologists. By the 1980s, business literature emphasized coaching tools and processes to support more effective leadership (Fournes, 1978; Megginson & Boydell, 1979; Kinlaw, 1989) and non-psychologists were entering the emerging discipline of coaching through organization development (M. O'Neill, personal communication, July 7, 2006; G. Storjohann, personal communication, May 29, 2006) and transformational consulting work (A. Collins, personal communication, May 1, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). During this period the theory shifted from behavioral to primarily the humanistic psychology orientation. Practices within the

business and sports sectors also began to influence what was becoming coaching to a greater extent than they influenced the theory. Within the business sector consulting saw coaching as the process-consultation approach (Schein, 1969), while organization development viewed coaching as an organization-development intervention (A. Mura, personal communication, May 29, 2006; G. Storjohann, personal communication, May 29, 2006), and management saw coaching as the heart of management (Evered & Selman, 1989; Hargrove, 1995). From the 1990s, literature drew more heavily on the psychology sector to provide some theoretical models on executive coaching (Diedrich, 1996; Kiel & Rimmer et al., 1996; Kilburg, 1996a), while at the same time literature focusing on self-coaching (Berman-Fortgang, 1998; Richardson, 1999; Whitmore, 1992) and the career of coaching (Hargrove, 1995; Leonard, 1999; Whitworth, Kimsey-House, & Sandahl, 1998) were published. Sports and performing arts also directly influenced the practice of what was becoming coaching (H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). The practical applications showed up as disciplines of psychology, such as consulting psychology, at the same time adult development and learning models moved into business and away from psychology. By the mid-1990s, the unidirectional influence from psychology and business sectors to coaching had shifted to a bidirectional influence. For example, though coaching is seen as an organization development intervention (A. Mura, personal communication, May 29, 2006; G. Storjohann, personal communication, May 29, 2006) and a part of consulting (Schein, 1969, 2000), coaching has influenced practitioners in both disciplines by raising awareness of the power of open-ended questions and active listening. Storjohann shares that coaching helped her to see “how much telling I was doing and even when I quit

telling, my next step back was leading questions” (personal communication, May 29, 2006). Consulting psychology targeted executive coaching in business as a domain of consulting psychologists (Kilburg, 1996a; D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006). The strongest bidirectional influence came in 2002 when coaching psychology was identified as a specialty subdiscipline within psychology (T. Bates, personal communication, June 5, 2006; M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006; A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006). Another example of two-way influence is mental health professionals acquiring coaching skills to broaden their practice opportunities (Auerbach, 2001) in the environment of managed health care.

The second shift was from the mechanistic approach prior to the 1960s to a humanistic or holistic perspective from the 1960s (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006). The early literature focused on coaching in the training of supervisors as related to performance improvement of their employees, with the later emphasis on leadership and executive development within a whole person perspective. Early applications of coaching in management take place within the control-order-prescription paradigm (Evered & Selman, 1989) and have the attributes of being one-to-one conversations focused on performance or performance-related topics. Models for coaching conversations between superiors and subordinates showed up in management literature in 1978 in the United States and United Kingdom with common characteristics being one-to-one conversations focused on performance (Kinlaw, 1989; Megginson & Boydell, 1979) and performance-related topics. “In the late 1970s and 1980s, the focus of coaching in the United States was using the coaching process as a technique that helps managers more successfully bring about performance achievements in business that relate

directly to the survival of that business” (Fournies, 1978, p. vii). Over time this evolved into the development of the supervisor and a whole different paradigm of communication. Interview data confirmed this shift to a developmental system and relationship context in business, as well as sports and psychology (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006; A. Hurley, personal communication, November 9, 2006; F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007; C. Martin, personal communication, July 15, 2006; S. Vilas, personal communication, March 31, 2006). Specific contributions include coaching as a paradigm for communication that encompasses a mutual conversation and predictable process within the context of an ongoing, committed partnership (Evered & Selman, 1989). More in line with the 1989 perspective of Evered and Selman, Whitmore (1992) saw coaching as “primarily concerned with the type of relationship between the coach and the coachee, and the means and style of communication used, with the facts’ being secondary . . . the objective of improving performance is paramount, but how that is best achieved is what is in question” (p. 2).

The third shift is from a pure psychology theory and practice model to a mostly psychology theory and multidisciplinary practice model. At the outset, the prime source of business practices came from psychological models, as business practices did not have their own robust literature. Prior to the 1970s, organizational psychologists were practicing *counseling* in organizations, with executives using the models and theories of psychology along with the psychological tools of assessment and feedback (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; J. Durosher, personal communication, October 5, 2007; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). Siminovitch describes the application of Gestalt theory from the mid-1950s, in what later became organization

development, “for people wanting to make their life better” (personal communication, May 11, 2006). The data indicated that from the 1970s psychology, primarily humanistic, influenced the theories and models of organization development (B. Dean, personal communication, April 3, 2007; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006), management (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006), adult learning and development (D. Megginson, personal communication, June 29, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006), and sports (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Nevis describes the humanistic model as one “focused on health [rather] than illness . . . consciousness and awareness and living in the present moment” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). Austin describes the 1970s humanistic management concept of “treat people well and they will perform” (personal communication, June 15, 2006). Bergquist describes this “whole movement towards collaborative models of management, empowerment, worker involvement, workplace democracy” as postmodern (personal communication, June 22, 2006). By the 1970s, organization development, management, and leadership, and adult learning and development each began to develop its own robust literature and models in the postmodern perspective (W. Bergquist, personal communication, June 22, 2006). Megginson states that “studies of adult learning and adult development come more from education than psychology” (personal communication, June 29, 2006) and are the place where business and psychology meet. Recent literature and interview data draw cross-disciplinary links and adaptations of best-practice models from psychology and business sector disciplines to coaching.

Professional Challenge

One professional challenge facing the coaching discipline is how the adaptation of models and theories from multiple different disciplines can be effectively, ethically, and professionally applied by individuals who do not have a background in that discipline. Survey data identified the disciplines most influencing the coaching discipline as business at 44.6%, followed by psychology at 19.4%. This corresponds with 63.3% of respondents aligning themselves with a professional organization from business and 27.5% from psychology. Interview data identified coaching practitioner backgrounds ranging from psychology and business to performing and liberal arts. While many had received training in coaching skills and models, during the training the link to the source disciplines was not always apparent. In an effort to remedy this, the Association for Coach Training Organizations (ACTO) began an informational survey of its members to “identify the major theoretical and philosophical underpinnings of their school or program” (L. Page, personal communication, December 31, 2006). Conversely, some who practice coaching have received no coach-specific training (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007). In fact, Kiel, a clinical psychologist, received no coach-specific training, though “by the middle 80s . . . [he] was consistently working with senior executives and Fortune 500 companies” (personal communication, April 24, 2007) as a coach. Similar examples include M. Goldsmith (personal communication, April 29, 2006), Grant (personal communication, May 15, 2006), and Megginson (personal communication, June 29, 2006). As Mark said, “I got involved with the local chapter of the International Coach Federation in San Francisco . . . then I became the president of that . . . I had still not taken coach training, because I’d always been doing it” (personal communication, May 9, 2006).

Practice Parameters and Boundaries

This section answers the question “What are the boundaries of the coaching field that help distinguish it from related practices?” For this section I am going to present my data that supports this evolution or changeover from a fully connected psychology-oriented theory and practice to a multidisciplinary practice that still rests predominately on psychology theory, yet is influenced by theories and models from other disciplines.

Speaking about executive coaching, Levinson (1996) stated, “I think it is impossible to coach someone about role behavior unless one has a comprehensive understanding of organizations.” (p. 115). Dedrich and Kilburg (2001) agree when they say, “psychologists who coach executives need not necessarily be executives themselves, but they must have an in-depth feel for the lives that these . . . people lead” (p. 203). Their point is, what is competency? This is the challenge for the practice parameters section. If you have a psychology, or any other, background, are you competent to be a coach or not, and, if so, where?

As with most emerging disciplines, practice parameters and boundaries are fuzzy between coaching and its related root disciplines. This is due in part to the variety of backgrounds and disciplines from which coaches come, ranging from leadership to performing arts and including psychology, organization development, and consulting (T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2006; D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006). Peterson also notes:

There are a wide range of existing techniques and approaches for learning, behavior change, and improving effectiveness. And we’ve done a disservice by blurring them all into this [coaching] category. People now talk about coaching in

a way that includes a lot of what I would call consulting, team facilitation, training, group workshops. (personal communication, May 1, 2006)

Peterson's view of what coaching is offers one way of starting to create boundaries around the discipline. However, Bergquist sees that "one of the signs that coaching is truly emerging as a profession has to do with the beginnings of subcultures. These polarities have emerged in almost every profession I've looked at" (personal communication, June 22, 2006). These polarities can and do lead to turf wars, such as the one Willis sees between psychology and coaching. "It has been at the bottom it all and my belief is that a lot of the distinction between the two and the confusions are around fears that if it's recognized that psychology has such a huge influence on that profession then people won't be able to do it. People who aren't qualified in that area won't be able to coach, distinctly a lot of fear. They'll be regulated heavily by psychology, not by coaching" (P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006). In the year 2000 Grant and Cavanagh formalized the term "coaching psychology" in a degree program at the University of Sydney, Australia (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006; A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006). According to Goldrich, "This debate is going on among the academic branch of the profession. It's not going on in the business community" (personal communication, April 7, 2006).

Changes are occurring in the coaching discipline: "coaching is becoming legitimate as a professional endeavor . . . the public is legitimizing it . . . and the theoretical underpinnings are being named" (D. Prior, personal communication, February 28, 2006). The status of the coaching discipline reflects the normal process for the emergence of a new profession or discipline. Nine professional organizations with one or

more of the following exist: ethics, competencies, and credentialing. Over 270 coach-training schools now exist and include 43 academic institutions (Carr, 2007). Market awareness of the value and benefit of the discipline include popularization of the term coaching in business, media, and across professions. According to the ICF, coverage of their members in newspapers, on radio and television increased from 2 in 1993 to 290 in 2000 (ICF, 2002a). During the 1998 and 1999, 16 books were published on coaching, and in 2007 there were 37 published. References to coaching are found in sources as diverse as the *Thaindian* in Thailand and the *Wall Street Journal* in New York (Ballew, 2007).

The following section looks at practice boundaries and practitioner boundaries in an effort to distinguish coaching from related practices.

Practice Boundaries

In any newly established or emerging discipline, agreed upon definitions, practices, and boundaries do not exist. (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003) According to Downey (2003), “the shared understanding of the distinctions between coaching and its siblings: managing, consulting, leadership, and teaching are anything but crisp” (p. vii). Over time, as the emerging discipline becomes established and related or root disciplines are influenced by the emerging discipline, boundaries may either become more blurred or become clearer. For example, tools and models from root disciplines have been adapted to coaching, which blurs the boundaries between related professions and coaching (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006; A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006); yet academic programs teach a structured curriculum to train coaches, which may clarify the boundaries (L. Wildflower, personal communication, June 30, 2006). I

am presenting the data on the five factors of discipline boundaries: purpose, practitioner role, clientele, standards of ethics, and body of knowledge.

Discipline purpose

In this section I present the study results to define the purposes of coaching practice, the purposes of psychology practice, and the purposes of business practice, using specialties within each sector as examples.

Coaching is a non-pathological model that helps people develop new capabilities, new horizons, and new opportunities for themselves and those around them. In this study the following definition of coaching was used: “a goal-directed, results-oriented, systematic process in which one person facilitates sustained change in another individual or group through fostering the self-directed learning and personal growth of the coachee” (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006, p. 147). Grant shortened this definition to “applied behavioral science to enhance performance and well-being for people from non-clinical populations” (personal communication, May 15, 2006). Maltbia added that “part of the way they define coaching is an interactive process that helps individuals and organizations develop more rapidly and produce more satisfying results” (personal communication, October 27, 2007).

The continuum attributes adapted from the CIPD (2006) Coaching and Buying Coaching Services Guide (Table 4-5), offers a framework for subsequent definitions of coaching that appeared in the literature and interview results.

Table 4-5 Coach Definition Continuum Attributes

Directive	Facilitative (Non-directive)
Holistic	Specific
Short-term	Long-term
Individual leads agenda	Others lead the agenda
High personal content	Low personal content
High business content	Low business content
Developmental	Remedial

This continuum framework can be displayed by using three overlapping bell curves of therapy, coaching, and consulting, where there is some overlap between the tails depending on the coach (S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006). For example, “for someone that has a background in therapy or psychology, they can recognize what those tails are and they can know if they are going to more of that therapeutic background and know when to put a stop to it” (S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006). Cavanagh and Grant (2006) used a single bell curve to distinguish between clinical and non-clinical issues, though they admit that, “the distinction between clinical and non-clinical issues is often a difficult one to make in practice” (p. 150).

According to P. Richardson:

I put together a spectrum of directive/non-directive, and at the non-directive end is the listening, the questioning, the gaining clarity, the creative thinking [and] maybe, solution thinking. Then if you move across the whole spectrum, then that represents the directive or coaching and mentoring style. You move across the

solution seeking into giving advice, training, teaching, telling. (personal communication, July 4, 2006)

According to C. Morgan, Whitmore “brought over [to England] the concept of really what might now be called non-directive or facilitative coaching, which he had really borrowed from Tim Gallwey and *The Inner Game*” (personal communication, April 19, 2007). Goldrich described a more directive style of coaching that he says is “more similar to Marshall Goldsmith coaching . . . highly behavioral and . . . highly systems oriented” (personal communication, April 29, 2006).

Psychology. There are differences, connections, and similarities between the purposes of coaching and the purposes of psychology. Neeman and Palmer (2001) described how “cognitive behavioral approaches emphasize that how we react to events is largely determined by our views of them, not the events themselves [and] we call CBT [cognitive behavioral therapy] when used with non-clinical groups cognitive behavioral coaching (CBC)” (p. 1). Interviewees most often identified the similarity of cognitive behavioral psychology to coaching (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006; T. Bates, personal communication, June 5, 2006; J. Goldrich, personal communication, April 7, 2006; A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006; K. Sloan, personal communication, April 13, 2007; L. Wildflower, personal communication, June 30, 2006). Dean stated, “virtually, everything that is done in coaching, some people can frame as being directly out of the cognitive behavioral era” (personal communication, April 3, 2007). Other overlaps include: “brief therapy . . . was more *partnership* or client focused and future focused at the same time” (S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006). “Gestalt is about creating a great relationship, and from that everything else

emerges” (J. Joyce, personal communication, June 6, 2006); “behavioral coaching adopts a scientific approach to coaching to bring about measurable, sustained learning acquisition and change” (Skiffington, 2003 & Zeus, p. 12). One example of a difference is that “psychology is a paradigm to explain human behavior [and] coaching is a paradigm to generate human behavior” (Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). As Cavanagh describes it, “one of the ways I think about the difference a little bit is in therapy often what you’re doing is comforting the disturbed. In coaching, you are more often disturbing the comfortable (personal communication, May 10, 2006). Another difference is “that psychotherapy usually focuses on resolving illness or trauma, whereas coaching focuses on enhancing achievement and fulfillment” (Auerbach, 2001).

Sandstrom said it this way:

From a psychological standpoint of “this is broken, you need to fix it,” rather from [a coaching standpoint of] “here’s what have been identified, here’s the gaps, let’s uncover in a discovery methodology your choice of what you want to do in the here and now and future.” (personal communication, June 28, 2006)

Psychodynamic psychology can pathologize the client and relationship, while coaching looks forward and is proactive behavior and “the trick is to integrate ‘analytic’ or ‘dynamic’ thinking into coaching without pathologizing the client or relationship” (Auerbach, 2001). Behavioral psychology has a goal orientation with progress check and adjustment as does coaching, yet “behavioral [psychology] approaches that reduce complex human behavior to mechanistic stimulus-and-response chains will not succeed” (Peterson, 2006, p. 51) in coaching. More recent orientations in psychology have more similarities than differences with coaching. They are humanistic psychology, which is “a

model focused on health rather than illness . . . that really brought back an interest in consciousness and awareness and living in the present moment” (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006), and transpersonal psychology, which “is at that level the will, the human will comes in, so it becomes directional and purposeful” (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Whitmore “brought in these two principles [to coaching]: awareness and responsibility. And awareness is humanistic and responsibility is transpersonal” (personal communication, March 22, 2006).

Applied psychology specialties blend tools and techniques of the four psychology orientations noted above (psychodynamic, behavioral, humanistic, and transpersonal) within the area of specialty. For example, in clinical psychology, an applied psychology specialty,

Focuses on exploring the origins of current emotional and/or psychological problems, often drawing on the past and trying to better understand it to resolve current issues. Coaching, in contrast, begins in the present and focuses on moving clients forward to get more of what they want in the future. It is action oriented and results focused. Another distinction is that therapy often seeks to remedy pathology, whereas coaching focuses on developing possibilities, leveraging clients’ strengths, and helping clients achieve their goals. Coaching is not a substitute for therapy and, in fact, can be used together with therapy when the client’s situation warrants it—for example, when a client is clinically depressed or suffers from some other form of mental illness. (Bench, 2003, pp. 12–13)

Some coaching, such as developmental and educational psychology, looks at age-related changes in behavior over the life span, and is “guided by an understanding of how

the imperatives of psychological development in adulthood play out in the here and now” (Axelrod, 2005). Sports psychology, as with some coaching, looks at how activities “may enhance personal development and well-being throughout the life span (AAASP & APA, 2003, p. 1). Health psychology, as with some coaching, addresses how thoughts, feelings, and actions relate to physical health (APA Division 38, 2008). Counseling psychology and psychotherapy focus attention both to normal developmental issues and to problems associated with physical, emotional, and mental disorders (Feltham, 2006). Coaching can be viewed as a counterpart to counseling and psychotherapy; it is voluntary and not necessarily remedial, and employment is not dependent on the coaching outcome (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006). In fact, according to Carr, “many people trained in counseling are realizing that counseling is not seen as desirable as coaching, perhaps, and, therefore, quite a lot of people who are previously counselors are shifting over and becoming coaches” (personal communication, June 13, 2006).

The applied specialty of coaching psychology is relatively new and does not seem to fit neatly into other areas of psychological practice. According to Cavanagh and Grant (2006), “one reason for this may be that each of the established areas of applied psychology (clinical, counseling, organizational, health, and sports) rightly identifies significant similarities between what they do and coaching” (p. 150). The APS (2007) defines coaching psychology as “the systematic application of behavioral science to the enhancement of life experience, work performance and well-being for individuals, groups and organizations who do not have clinically significant mental health issues or levels of distress that could be regarded as abnormal” (§ 3). Coaching psychology “deals with non-clinical and non-distressed populations,” and “may use theories and techniques

developed in clinical settings” (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006, p. 150), while content, style, and tempo is often dramatically different than coaching.

Business. Much coaching is conducted in a business environment, and there are many connections and similarities as well as differences between coaching and the specialties in the business sector. Since the 1970s, some management models have viewed coaching as a form or competency of supervision for the purpose of improving performance. Today, management uses the knowledge, skills, and abilities of coaching, yet, in contrast to coaching, has responsibility, authority, and accountability for the person being coached (Jay, 1999).

The simplest way to distinguish coaching from consulting is this: Coaching focuses on asking the right questions, while consulting focuses on solving problems through providing the right answers. Coaching and consulting can overlap, but they are not synonymous (Bench, 2003; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006). Yet coaching can also be seen as the same as consulting (O. Laske, personal communication, June 6, 2006; Schein, 2006) or as complementary (Grodzki & Allen, 2005). “The coach should have the ability to move easily between the roles of process consultant, content expert, and diagnostician/prescriber. The ultimate skill of the coach, then, is to assess the moment-to-moment reality what will enable him or her to be in the appropriate role” (Schein, 2006, p. 24). Viewing the roles as complementary allows one to see coaching both in service-oriented positions with coaching supporting implementation of the consultant’s solution to a problem (Grodzki & Allen, 2005).

Organization development’s desired outcomes include improved organization performance organization improvement), improved organization capacity for future

change (transfer of knowledge), and individual development (skills, knowledge, potential) (Jamieson, 2006). Coaching can be viewed as an organization development intervention that may be helpful to clients in certain circumstances. Similarities between coaching and organization development are that both have to do with change, though organization development generally focuses on the larger system and coaching on the individual. In organization development the premise that organization change requires individual change is accepted, hence the consultant often consults with change leaders on their role in leading the change process (Scott, Murrell, Zintz, Gallagher, 2006).

When looking at coaching within a larger organization development intervention, a consultative coaching approach may be used by an organization-development specialist to achieve specific measurable business results (Scott, et al., 2006). The organization development consultant may use inquiry and discovery to raise a leader's level of awareness and responsibility while advising and educating on the larger change effort (Bennett & Craig, 2005, p. 52). Organization development, as with business coaching, is about getting results in a business context; yet coaching can also be focused on personal development that may or may not be linked to business success.

Many organization development practitioners meet with clients one-on-one to provide support and guidance on leadership role as part of their consulting responsibilities. According to Scott et al. (2006), for those who have been involved in team and leadership development, seeking client perspectives, assessing competencies, personal style, and providing feedback is included in the consulting function.

Clientele

The clientele for coaching are primarily from a non-clinical population, and typically individual or small group and focused on growth and results (A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; W. Bergquist, personal communication, June 22, 2006). Regardless of the population, coaches work only on non-clinical issues. A coach can work with people in a clinical population, and typically the intervention would be about finding better ways to experience life balance or better relationships. For example, a coach can work with someone who has anxiety, depression, or attention deficit disorder (ADD). However, if a coach is working with someone specifically to reduce their anxiety, depression, or ADD symptoms without the appropriate training and license, then they are crossing professional boundaries (A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006).

Psychology. The feature most distinguishing psychology from coaching and coaching psychology is the client population. Coaching and coaching psychology “typically deal with non-clinical or non-distressed populations. This makes the context of coaching quite different to other clinical and counseling interventions” (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006, p. 150).

Psychology typically works with a clinical population, though humanistic, clinical, and counseling psychology techniques are also used with non-clinical populations. The primary difference with coaching and these psychology specialties is in the assumptions and expectations of the client (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006). One exception to this is restorative coaching, defined by Leonard in the mid-1990s as “someone who is emotionally healing, is a 12-stepper, or who is learning basic life skills for whatever reason” (Leonard & Larson, 1998), which fits

closer to psychological training by working with remedial individuals. Many times the word coaching was used with these non-clinical populations, “because the metaphor is so acceptable in the business world and in the non-business world as a way of not saying *therapy is therapy*” (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007).

Business. The specialties within the business sector and coaching work primarily with a non-clinical population. The defining characteristic is who the client is and who initiated the request for services—an individual or an organization (Grodzki & Allen, 2005).

Using a client continuum from the individual to the organization, much of coaching focuses on the individual client (C. Hayden, personal communication, April 6, 2006; D. Lane, personal communication, June 16, 2006), yet some employ a systems approach and focus on the people around the client (M. Goldsmith, personal communication, April 29, 2006; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006; G. Storjohann, personal communication, May 29, 2006). While the client for coaching is predominantly individual work, management and consulting clients may be the individual or an entire organization (Schein, 2000). According to Storjohann, “organization development’s primary client is the organization, though there may be interventions on an individual basis within the context of an organization intervention” (personal communication, May 29, 2006).

Standards of ethics

Generally, coaching ethics and standards are values based and address competence, integrity, professionalism, respect for people’s rights and dignity. Ethics codes can provide a clear set of guidelines to direct the conduct of those who practice in

the discipline and to minimize the potential for abuse of clients. Sork and Welock (1992) argue that the discipline is obliged to develop a code and that such a code can offer several benefits. An ethics code may be a tool that can steer practitioners away from borderline ethical practices or contribute to policymaking within oversight agencies, and a code may provide limited protection from unethical practices for clients or be used in the professional preparation of practitioners by communicating shared values. A code can also make the moral dimension of practice more visible and, when used by oversight agencies, differentiate them from those providers who do not subscribe to such a code.

Law (2005) says, “ethical thinking and its principles are usually embedded in many professional bodies in the form of self-regulation . . . [and] the main aim is to protect clients and the public from dangerous practice with the objectives to: benefit clients; ensure safety; protect clients; manage boundaries; and manage conflict” (p. 19). Translating this into a code of practice for coaching psychologists, Law continues by saying that coaching psychologists are required to:

Do no harm, act in the best interest of our clients and their organization, observe confidentiality, respect differences in culture, apply effectively the best practice in everything we do, help our clients make informed choices and take responsibility to improve their performance and well-being, and recognize our role as a coaching psychologist. (p. 19)

From 1994, the International Association of Professional and Personal Coaches (IAPPC) recognized the importance of ethics and standards by having a standing committee to oversee this area (C. Hayden, personal communication, April 6, 2006). From its start in 1995, the Personal Professional Coaches Association (PPCA) required

its members to agree to abide by a code of ethics (C. Hayden, personal communication, April 6, 2006; D. Prior, personal communication, February 28, 2006), which contained the following categories: client protection, conflicts of interest, personal gain, confidentiality, accurate representation, access to coaching, when we cannot serve a client, respect for all coaches, and ethical violations. As Carlile said, “We’re not into reinventing the wheel . . . we went to those places [Society of Human Resources Management and other successful personal human organizations] and examined ethics and standards” (personal communication, April 19, 2006). In 1997, the ICF Ethics Pledge was created (ICF, personal communication, 1997) and contained the categories of: honor the coach-client agreement, respect my limits, conflicts of interest, confidentiality, be respectful and constructive, be coachable, be professional, maintain professional distance, and be a model. By the late 1990s, ICF helped to regulate the profession and establish ethics (F. Fisher, personal communication, June 23, 2006; H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; S. Lowry, personal communication, May 4, 2006; P. Richarde, personal communication, June 29, 2006) with materials developed by the Professional and Personal Coaches Association (PPCA) prior to the merger with ICF in 1998 (C. Darst, personal communication, April 10, 2006; J. Raim, personal communication, May 1, 2006; J. Staggs, personal communication, 2006). Raim said “There are other things that the PPCA does . . . that are much better than ours [ICFs] . . . the whole ethics and certification process” (personal communication, May 1, 2006). Hayden agreed and stated that, “ICF got the majority of their ethics and standards material from PPCA” (personal communication, April 6, 2006). The ICF ethical guidelines, approved August, 1998, contained the categories of coaching relationship and contract, client

protection, confidentiality, conflicts of interest, referrals and terminations, and ethical violations. Published in early 2000, ICFs ethics code included sections on philosophy and definition of coaching, a pledge of ethics, and 18 standards of conduct, in addition to a set of core competencies that were separate from the ethics code, yet contained as the first competency a requirement for compliance with ethical standards (ICF, 2000).

Between 2001 and 2003, the state of Colorado in the United States attempted to say that coaching met their “broad definition of psychotherapy” (Williams, 2006a, p. 15). Williams goes on to say that a grass-roots effort by Colorado Coalition of Coaches, with support from the major North American professional coach associations, successfully changed the law 18 months later to exempt coaching from the legislatures’ oversight (p. 26).

It was during the period between 2002 and 2003 that many professional coach associations either released their ethics code or revised their existing code. ICF revised their code in July 2002 for “further clarification of our philosophy and definition of coaching, the pledge we take as ICF members . . . and the ethical standards we agree to uphold as coaches” (ICF, 2002a). The ICF revised their ethics code again in March 2003 to group the standards of ethical conduct into four major areas: professional conduct at large, professional conduct with clients, confidentiality/privacy, and conflicts of interest. The Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (WABC) predecessor released a “voluntary Member Code of Ethics and Conduct” in November 1999, which WABC rereleased in October 2003 after revisions by an advisory task force (WABC, 2007). The International Association of Coaches (IAC) released their ethics principles and code in February, 2003. According to Mark, “the foundation for the actual ethics code itself . . .

was based pretty much on the APA's [American Psychological Association's] code" (personal communication, May 9, 2006). In June 2006 the IAC code was revised and more closely aligns with ethics codes from other coach associations. The Association for Coaching (AC) code of ethics and practice was first released in April 2003 in much the same format as it is today. The European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) adopted their code of ethics in September, 2003, which was:

Developed following a series of consultations with a wide range of coaching and mentoring organizations, and has drawn heavily on the work of the Employment National Training Organization (ENTO), the International Coach Federation and the UK-based Association for Coaching. (EMCC, 2005, ¶ 1)

The European Coaching Institute (ECI) released their code in March 2005, and the Association for Professional Executive Coaches and Supervision (APECS) released their code in January 2006.

The data are presented for the current standards and ethics governing practice for coaches as described by professional coaching associations of the AC, APECS, ECI, and EMCC in Europe and the IAC, ICF, and WABC in North America. The Professional Coaches and Mentors Association (PCMA) has a six-point values statement rather than a code of ethics (A. Mura, personal communication, May 29, 2006) and is not included in this analysis.

For the seven professional coaching associations that have an ethical code, each one has detailed complaint procedures for dealing with ethical complaints and violations. Though the code structures differ, there are many similarities and differences among the seven ethical codes (Table 4-6).

Table 4-6 Professional Coach Associations Ethical Code Comparison as of February 11, 2008

Code Item Description	AC	APECS	ECI	EMCC	IAC	ICF	WABC
Introduction/Purpose/Principles/ Philosophy/Values	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Definition of Coaching	X					X	X
Terminology		X		X			
Pledge						X	
Fairness and Justice		X					
High quality, healthy relationships		X					
Competence		X		X	X		
- Accuracy in Qualifications	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
- Professional Limitations	X		X	X	X		
- Personal Limitations	X	X	X		X	X	
- Monitor work quality and request feedback	X		X				
- Aware of legal requirements that may affect work	X		X		X		
- Openness to further work quality		X					
Professional Development	X	X	X	X	X		
Supervision	X	X		X*			

Boundary Management		X	X	X			
- Conflict of Interest			X	X	X	X	
- Consider impact of Dual Relationships	X						
- Providing Coaching Services to Those Working with Mental Health Professionals					X		
Context		X		X			
Client Interests		X	X	X	X		X
- Not Misuse of Influence		X		X	X	X	
- No Sexual Involvement			X	X	X	X	X
- Inform of and Honor Client Agreements	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
- Respect Client Right to Terminate	X		X		X	X	
- Notify Authorities of Intention to Harm		X	X	X	X	X	
- Develop autonomy in clients		X					
- Respond Openly to Information Requests About Methods and Techniques of Coaching Process	X				X		
- Making Progress			X	X	X	X	

- Interruption of Services					X		
- Communicate Ethics Code Existence		X	X	X			
- Environment for Learning				X			
- Barter					X	X	
- Referrals and Fees					X	X	
Confidentiality	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
- Non-Disclosure of Client or Company Name		X				X	X
Respect for Rights and Dignity		X	X	X	X	X	X
- Avoid Discrimination (Respect diversity, promote equal opportunity)	X	X	X	X	X		X
Reflect Positively on Profession	X		X	X	X	X	X
- Respect Professional Contributions				X	X	X	X
- Comply with Applicable Laws		X	X	X	X	X	
- Refer to Other Professionals	X		X	X	X	X	
- Professional/Personal Responsibility			X	X	X		
- Professional Relationship					X	X	
- Advertising and Public Statements			X		X	X	X

- Use Information About Members						X	X
Coach Training					X		
Coaching Research and Publishing					X	X	
Trainer or Supervisor Role						X	
Delegation to and Supervision of Subordinates					X		
Maintain Records	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Professional Liability Insurance	X	X	X				
Professional Responsibilities Continue Beyond Termination of Relationship				X			

Similarities across the codes of ethics, in varying levels of detail, include: principles and philosophy, accuracy in qualifications, client interests, inform of and honor client agreements, confidentiality, and non-discrimination (Table 4-6). Respect for rights and dignity, reflect positively on the profession, and maintain records are specifically identified in six of the seven codes. Though the topics are similar, the approaches are slightly different. For example, with regard to diversity and non-discrimination APECS uses “awareness of and sensitivity to difference” (APECS, 2006, p. 2). The ECI code states, “being aware of cultural, regional and linguistic differences” (ECI, 2008, p. 1) as well as “not knowingly participate in or condone unfair discriminatory practices” (p. 2). The EMCC code talks about “respects diversity and promotes equal opportunities” (p. 2).

The AC code says “be sensitive to issues of culture, religion, gender, and race” (AC, 2006, p. 1); while the IAC code addresses being “aware of cultural, individual, and role differences” (IAC, 2003, p. 1). The WABC code notes “avoiding all conduct that amounts to sexual, racial or other forms of discrimination, harassment or inappropriate relations with clients or their colleagues or superiors” (WABC, 2007, p. 3), and the ICF code states coaches must “treat people with dignity as independent and equal human beings” (ICF, 2008, p. 2). Prohibiting sexual conduct with clients is directly addressed in the WABC, ICF, IAC, ECI, and EMCC codes. APECS addresses not taking advantage of the client. AC requires coaches to “consider the impact of any dual relationships they may hold” (AC, 2006, p. 2).

There are several differences in the ethical codes of the European and North American professional coach associations. The European professional coaching associations each have a requirement for supervision, with EMCC and APECS requiring supervisory reports back to the professional organization and AC expecting coaches “to have regular consultative support for their work” (AC, 2006, p. 1). While the ECI code does not directly address supervision, it does address that “coaches will monitor the quality of their work and seek feedback from clients and other professionals” (ECI, 2008, p. 2). The North American associations do not have this requirement. The IAC code addresses supervision of subordinates, the ICF code requires conduct in accordance with the ICF Code of Ethics when a coach is a trainer or supervisor of current and potential coaches, and the WABC does not address the supervision or anything related to it in their code. Another difference is the topic of continuing professional development that is addressed in all three European ethics codes, and not directly by the North American

codes. The AC ethics code is unique in specifying that “the aim is to undertake a minimum amount of 30 hours of continuing professional development in the theory and practice of coaching on an annual basis” (AC, 2006, p. 2). The APECS code talks about, “continue to learn and grow in their professional knowledge and expertise” (APECS, 2006, p. 3), while the EMCC code requires coaches to “develop and then enhance their level of competence by participating in relevant training and appropriate Continuing Professional Development activities” (EMCC, 2008, p. 2). The ECI code also addresses “relevant training and appropriate Continuing Professional Development” (ECI, 2008, p. 2). In contrast, while IAC requires coaches to “undertake ongoing efforts to maintain competence in the skills they use” (IAC, 2003, p. 2), WABC and ICF ethic codes do not address this topic.

Another area of similarity and difference is in the personal limitations of the coach. The APECS ethical code addresses “caring for self” (APECS, 2006, p. 2), the AC code talks about “maintaining their own good health and fitness to practice” (AC, 2006, p. 1), and the ECI code states “coaches have a responsibility to monitor and maintain their fitness to practice at a level that enables them to provide an effective service” (ECI, 2008, p. 2). IAC talks about “being cognizant of their particular competencies and limitations” and “recognize that they [coach] too may experience personal problems which may exert an adverse effect upon the coach-client relationship” (IAC, 2003, p. 1). The ICF code includes “I will at all times strive to recognize personal issues that may impair, conflict or interfere with my coaching performance” (ICF, 2008, p. 1). Neither the WABC nor the EMCC address this topic.

Unique to the APECS ethics code is the inclusion of fairness and justice, adherence to “foundation principles underpinning ethical thinking and behavior” (APECS, 2006, p. 2), and the fact that the code is written from a proactive rather than a reactive approach. For example, the coach will “be prepared to disclose to the sponsor or the competent authorities . . . [and] the client should be given the first opportunity to disclose” (p. 4). EMCC, ICF, and IAC address the same circumstance by talking only about the coach notifying the authorities. Another example is the APECS code does not address conflict of interest, which is addressed by the EMCC, ECI, IAC, and ICF codes. Instead, the APECS approach is to address “fairness and justice” (APECS, 2006, p. 2), “commitment to establishing high quality and high level healthy relationships” (p. 2), “to do what benefits the well being of all” (p. 2), and “to avoid whatever might harm others” (p. 2). AC talks about “consider the impact of dual relationships” (AC, 2006, p. 2), and WABC does not address the topic.

Psychology. Psychology ethics and standards differ from those of the coaching discipline primarily because the clientele are different and the client in therapy really is not at his/her] full functioning (D. Siminovitch, personal communication, May 11, 2006). Law (2005) agrees and states, “coaching psychology is a different practice from counseling and therapy, it requires us to have different attitudes, knowledge, skills, and ethical thinking as part of our professional competence” (p. 20).

A review of writing by Law (2005) on ethical principles in coaching psychology highlights some of the differences between coaching and coaching psychology, and the rest of psychology. Law (2005) states that a code of ethical practice for coaching psychologists includes: do no harm, act in the best interest of our clients and their

organization, observe confidentiality, respect differences in culture, apply effectively the best practice in everything we do, help our clients make informed choices and take responsibility to improve their performance and well-being, and recognize our role as a coaching psychologist (p. 19). These ethical practice areas are similar to the areas for professional coach associations.

Business. Ethical codes for human resources, training, and organization development guidelines for working with healthy and responsible individuals, as are the codes for coaching. At the international level, the organization development (OD) profession has a credo that was adopted in July 1996, a set of ten values, and ethical guidelines that are grouped: responsibility to self, responsibility for professional development and competence, responsibility to clients and significant others, responsibility to the profession, and social responsibility. The OD ethical guidelines are shared by the coaching ethical codes: six of seven coaching ethical codes include responsibility to self, responsibility for professional development and competence; seven of seven address responsibility to clients and significant others and responsibility to the profession. Though the coaching ethic codes talked about cultural awareness, they did not directly address the OD guideline for social responsibility. Similar to coaching, OD standards disallow or prohibit: misrepresentation of the consultant's skills, professional/technical ineptness, misuse of data, collusion, coercion, promising unrealistic outcomes, and deception and conflict of values. They go on to describe the values underlying ethical organization development practice as honesty, openness, voluntarism, integrity, confidentiality, the development of people, and the development of consultant expertise, high standards, and self-awareness (French & Bell, 1999).

The Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM) has a code of ethical and professional standards that are organized by core principle, intent, and guidelines. The 6 code provisions are: professional responsibility, professional development, ethical leadership, fairness and justice, conflicts of interest, and use of information. Across the coaching ethics code, 3 of 7 include professional responsibility, 5 of 7 include professional development, none of 7 includes ethical leadership, and 1 of 7 includes fairness and justice, 4 of 7 address conflicts of information, and 2 of 7 address use of information. The American Society of Training and Development has a code of ethics that consists of 11 statements of professional obligations. Each of these 11 statements is addressed by at least 1 of the coaching ethics codes and generally more. For example, confidentiality is addressed by all 7, accuracy in qualifications is addressed by all 7, and rights and dignities are addressed by 6 of 7 coaching ethics codes.

Body of knowledge

The theories and methodologies that comprise a body of knowledge do not typically exist when a discipline emerges. This was the case for coaching practitioners who have adapted tools and models from other disciplines such as psychology, personal growth, organization development, and leadership, to the practice of coaching (Grodzki & Allen, 2005). In fact, the body of knowledge for the coaching specialty of executive coaching has been said to include “traditional organization development methods, adult education, management training, industrial-organizational psychology, and generic consultation skills” (Kilburg, 1996a, p. 60).

This propensity for adapting theories and methods from other disciplines is not unique to coaching. Organization development “relies most heavily (but not exclusively)

on behavioral science knowledge and technology (Jamieson, 2006), and many methods developed for use in psychotherapy have been adapted to organization development (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006; D. Siminovitch, personal communication, May 11, 2006).

Looking at coaching psychology in relation to the rest of psychology highlights what can be said about the coaching discipline itself. For example:

The breadth of knowledge-base, rather than its uniqueness, is one of the features that distinguishes coaching psychology from other forms of psychological practice . . . While coaching psychologists may use theories and techniques developed in clinical settings (e.g. cognitive restructuring, brief solution-focused interventions), the content, style and tempo with which these techniques are used is often dramatically different in coaching. (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006, p. 150)

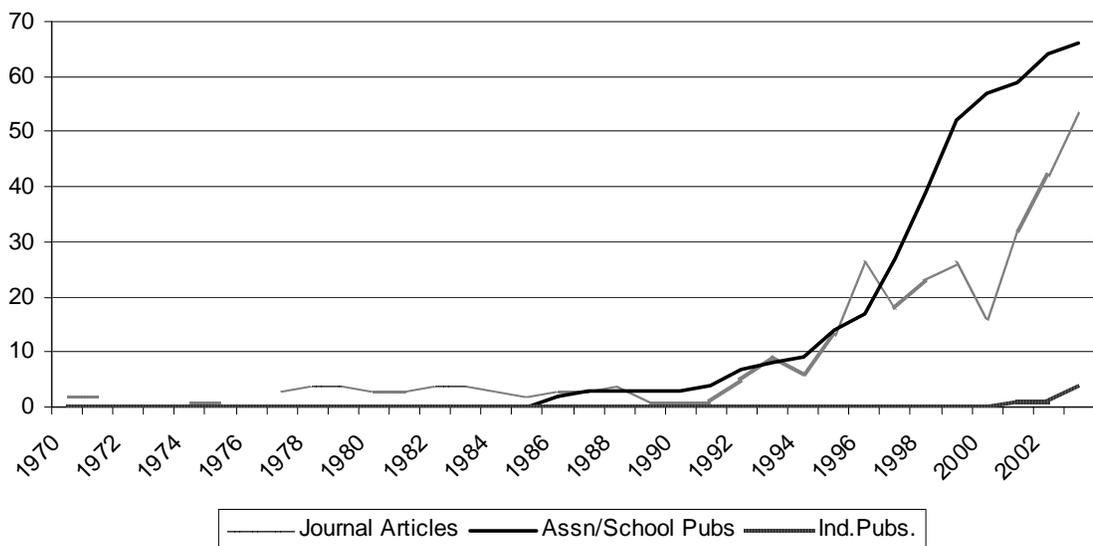
Though the process of developing a coaching-specific scientific literature is evolving, “the lack of detailed, empirically validated and easily accessible coaching-specific studies has forced coaching psychologists to adapt theories and techniques drawn from across the wider behavioral science literature” (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006, p. 146). Additionally, some believe the “behavioral sciences are possibly the key body of knowledge for coaching because coaching is essentially about implementing and maintaining human and organizational change – one of the core foci of the behavioral sciences” (Cavanagh, Grant, & Kemp, 2005, p. 8).

Professional literature in coaching. The professional literature represents the formal body of knowledge in a discipline. It is important “not only because it contains the information that makes the field unique – thus separating it from other disciplines – but

also because it demonstrates what is known about the field of practice” (Imel, 2001, p. 134).

Prior to the 1990s little was written on coaching or the professional discipline of coaching. Academic and journal writing in the 1990s began focusing on professional coaches (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004). The coaching journal articles, association and training, and industry publications increased exponentially during the 1990s and beyond (Figure 4.-1). The following data presents first the professional publications in the discipline of coaching, followed by other publications. The data are presented in this way although the categories are not necessary distinct.

Figure 4-1 Coaching Literature 1970 through 2002



For coaching, the professional literature addresses professional development of a coach’s business or his/her coaching. The professional literature in coaching includes professional journals, academic papers (doctoral and masters), and books for coaching practitioners.

According to Grant and Cavanagh (2004), journal articles discussing coaching appeared as early as 1935 and ranged between 0 to 8 in each of the five-year increments, until 1985–1989, when they increased to 12. In the next two five-year increments, journal articles increased from 12 in 1990–1994 to 29 from 1995–1999, and to 49 from 2000 through November 2003. The first evidence-based special edition on executive coaching appeared in spring 1996 from the American Psychological Association’s *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*. The first professional coaching journals appeared in 2003 and included the *International Journal of Coaching in Organizations*, the *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, and the *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching*.

Coach-specific doctoral papers emerged in the late 1960s, and by “the 1990s coach-specific doctoral papers began to reflect the emergence of professional external coaches” (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004, p. 8). Though coaching research is in its infancy, Grant and Cavanagh identified:

Three overlapping broad key research trends of phases which have developed over time and which are evident in the above coach-specific research: a) reports on internal coaching conducted by managers; b) the beginnings of more rigorous academic research on internal coaching and its impact on work performance; and c) research which reflects on and examines external coaching by a professional coach as a means of creating individual and organizational change and the beginning of coaching research as a means of investigating psychological mechanisms and processes involved in human and organizational change. (p. 7)

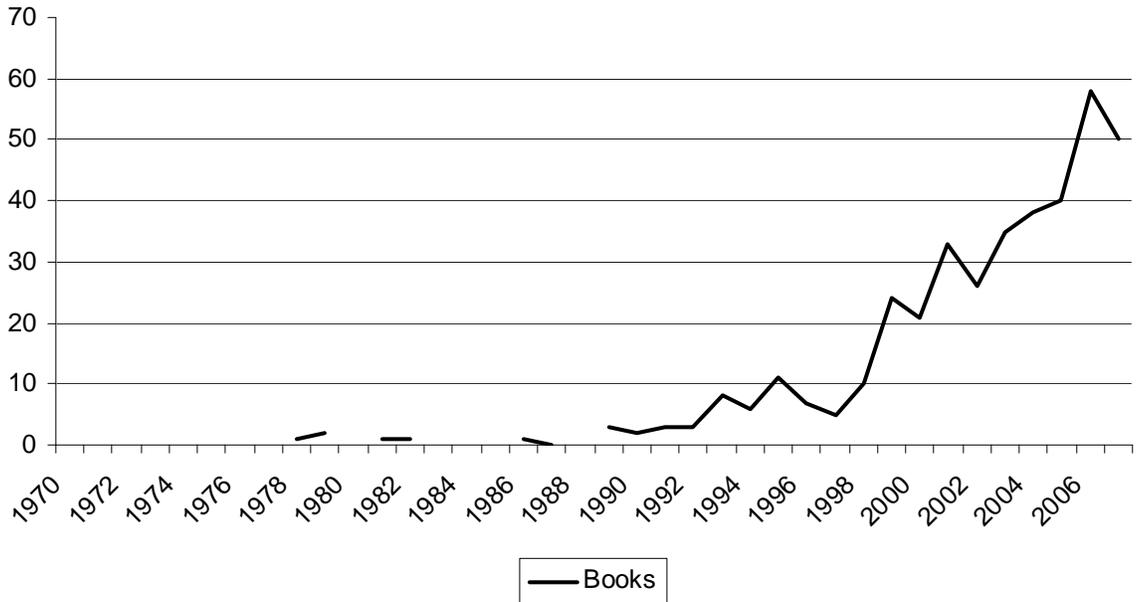
Coach publications. From literature and interview data I recognized the increase in coaching-specific publications since 1995. The first publication was a monthly newsletter published from July 1994 to November 1995 by the International Association of Personal Professional Coaches (IAPPC). This was superseded by a paper journal for the Professional and Personal Coaches Association (PPCA). This journal stopped publication in 1997, when the PPCA merged with the ICF. On April 11, 1996 the ICF began publishing its newsletter *The Coaching News*, which was superseded around July 2001 by *Coaching World* for its members. An online newsletter for American Coaching Association also began in 1995 and stopped publication in 1997. The Nordic Coach Federation began publishing *Coaching in Action* for their members in September 2000, and Peer Resources Network published the first issue of *Compass* in 2001. Until 2003, all coaching publications were for members only.

In 2003 *Choice Magazine* began publication. Three peer-reviewed journals also began publication in 2003, one each from Australia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The Association for Coaching (AC) began publishing its quarterly bulletin in 2003 also. Both the European Coaching Institute (ECI) and International Association of Coaches newsletters began publication in January 2004. From February 2005 to February 2006, Susan Austin published *The Coaching Insider*, a provocative e-zine for the coaching community. In July 2005 the British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology (BPS-SGCP) published a peer-reviewed journal called *The Coaching Psychologist*. This was replaced in April 2006 by the *International Coaching Psychology Review*, a joint venture of the Australian Psychological Society Coaching Psychology Group and BPS-SGCP.

Appendix M contains the details for each publication. Of the 20 publications, only 4 were independent of a coaching organization, 6 were peer-reviewed, 9 were for members only, and 4 were for purchase. Fourteen publications are still being published, of which 1 began in 2000, 2 in 2001, 5 in 2003, 2 in 2004, 2 in 2005, and 1 in 2006. Of the 6 peer-reviewed journals, 1 began in 2001, 3 in 2003, 1 in 2005, and 1 in 2006.

Books and journals remain central to the literature of the coaching discipline. Prior to 1992 books on coaching primarily addressed coaching used by supervisors to improve performance. The first book for professional coaches was written by Whitmore (1992), followed by Hargrove’s book in 1995. By the late 1990s, trade books making coaching accessible to the public began to appear. Berman-Fortgang and C. Richardson authored popular self-coaching books in 1998 and 1999 respectively. Figure 4.2 tracks the growth of coach-specific books from 1970 through 2007.

Figure 4-2 Coach-Specific Books Published in English Annually 1970 through 2007



Today coaching has a much broader range of information on which to draw. Periodicals (which include regularly published journals, magazines, and newsletters) provide more up-to-date and peer-reviewed material than is possible to find in books. Documents, which may not be easily accessible beyond a limited scope, such as project reports, brochures, regional or statewide publications, and conference proceedings are also available. Computer networks abound, including electronic mail discussion groups, e-zines, and Websites.

Other coaching related publications that fit into professional literature and trade literature include Websites, newsletters from individual practitioners, and, more recently, blogs. In 2002 ICF reported that their members published 36 electronic newsletters, had 20 regular columns in newspapers, and appeared regularly 41 times on radio and television or in newspaper publicity (ICF, 2003). In 2001 Leonard launched Coachville.com as a Web portal around the tagline “Everyone’s a Coach” (D. Buck, personal communication, June 29, 2006). In 2008 a blog-based portal called *The Coaching Commons* was launched with the tagline “Where Radical Possibilities are Explored & Pursued.”

Practitioner Boundaries

Practitioner boundaries in the discipline of coaching are fuzzy in relation to practitioners’ legacy disciplines and coaching’s root disciplines, and depend to some extent on who is doing the coaching and how coaching is defined. For example, “the degree of overlap between coaching and consulting depends on (1) who initiated the request for coaching, (2) who is being coached, (3) in what role he is being coached, and (4) on what issues he is being coached” (Schein, 2006, p. 18). In addition to these four

items, the data presented in the sections on coaching purpose and coaches' role, defined as who is doing the coaching and for what purpose, suggest that other factors come into play. For example, "executive coaching appears to be an eclectic mix of concepts and methods that are being applied by a variety of consultants who have accepted assignments to work with individual executives" (Kilburg, 1996, p. 59). The boundaries become even fuzzier depending on what coaching niche or specialty is being practiced. Coaching is a methodology that is used in multiple professions. For example, Sloan states:

There are people using a tool or methodology of one-on-one development work that looks so different when you are a life coach and executive coach, a singing coach, or a whatever coach. I actually think it's a methodology that we use in multiple professions. My profession is leadership development, consulting, and I use coaching as a method within that. (personal communication, April 13, 2007)

Similarly, Laske says:

I wouldn't define professional coaching out of context with professional process consultation, because I think the focus on coaching as a field standing by itself is mistaken. Coaching is an integral part of the many, many disciplines that try to assist people or help people by talking . . . In fact, coaching should be informed by all the disciplines, and should learn from these other disciplines, especially psychology. (personal communication, June 6, 2006)

With or without specific training or certification, anyone can call himself or herself a coach. According to Downey (2003) in the "early stage in the evolution of the profession some people will call themselves . . . coaches simply by self-declaration" (p.

vii). Of the 1310 survey respondents 18% indicated they had no training, 18% indicated they had related training, and 64% indicated they had coach-specific training. The results are presented below which define practitioner role, qualifications, preparation, membership, and self-description of coaching practitioners as a way to understand what and where practitioner boundaries exist.

Practitioner role

The data in this section is presented to compare the practitioner's role in coaching and compare it with the practitioner's role in psychology, specifically therapy, and the business sector, specifically management, consulting, and organization development. The role of the coach practitioner depends on the coach, the client, the context, and the situation. It varies along a continuum from directive to facilitative, from client leading the agenda to others leading the agenda, from content to process, from internal to external, among others (M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006; T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 17, 2007). The different roles of a coach have been variously described as "a trusted role model, adviser, wise person, friend, mensch, steward, or guide" (Hudson, 1999, p. 6) and "a sounding board, a facilitator, a counselor, an awareness raiser" (Whitmore, 1992, p. 33). Consistent with most practitioner roles in psychology, business, and coaching is the ability to develop a relationship, understand the client's needs, and be outcome oriented. Coaching is described as a peer partnership where the coach has some specific tools to work with the client on growth and results (P. McLean, personal communication, June 28, 2006; J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006; I. Parlett, personal communication, June 27, 2006; L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). Similarly, coaching is described as "a process

of eliciting from an individual their own wishes, desires, and intentions as well as reinforcing those by having that person design for themselves specific actions steps, plans, etc” (C. Hayden, personal communication, April 6, 2006). Said another way, “great coaching is about leaving people with more power, more freedom, and more peace of mind” (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006). Key to the practitioner role is the contracting element that clarifies the purpose and intention of the relationship along with understanding of the roles of that relationship (G. Storjohann, personal communication, May 29, 2006; K. Tulpa, personal communication, June 28, 2006).

Psychology. There are many connections and similarities as well as differences between the roles of coaching and psychology practitioners. The roles of both vary along a continuum according to several variables: from construct problem to identify focus, from develop solution to discover possibilities, and from individual to organization/group. As with coaching, generally the therapist and client dialogue in a joint discovery process (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007), however, the purpose of the therapist is generally to construct the problem and solution, or as Sinnestera says, “diagnose and recommend” (personal communication, July 10, 2006), while the coach seeks to identify the focus and discover possibilities. As with coaching, counseling psychologists are trained to deal with the individual (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007; D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006; J. Seiffer, personal communication, June 7, 2006) and organizational psychologists are trained to deal with the system and organization (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006; W. Vogelauer, personal communication, June 29, 2006). Kiel describes this situation:

Coaching has really come into this territory and it's taken it over, which is fine.

But it wasn't something that was brought new to the field of counseling psychology. It was something that grew out of counseling psychology and out of the Human Potential Movement. They generally all came together in one big area, and then got labeled as coaching. (personal communication, April 24, 2007)

Business. Coaching and the business sector (management, organization development, and consulting) share many similarities. Similarities include that all may work with individuals and groups, and all roles may involve some education, development, or training. Specifically, coaching and organization development share a similarity in the value-base of humanism, participation, choice, and development that is incorporated into their practice and outcomes (Jamieson, 2006). Coaching and consulting include agenda-setting, feedback, structural suggestions, and coaching or counseling for individuals (French & Bell, 1999).

Using a business lens, the data suggest a key difference in that the coaching roles in business vary according to the job responsibilities of the coach. The coach role may be an extension of a supervisory position, the core of an organization development practitioner role, or an approach used by a consultant. For example, the coaching role for the manager includes having responsibility, authority, and accountability for the person being coached (Jay, 1999), the coaching role for the organization development practitioner includes being responsible to the organization (G. Storjohann, personal communication, May 29, 2006), and the coaching role for the consultant includes using "a coaching approach as well as a consulting approach" (J. Sandstrom, personal communication, June 28, 2006). The coach in one of these business roles may or may not

have responsibility, authority, or accountability over the client, may be responsible to the client and the organization, and may or may not be there to facilitate change and learning with the client (Jay, 1999). These examples may be in the extreme, because coaching on the part of a consultant or coach can help “the client to develop a new way of seeing, feeling about, and behaving in situations that are defined by the client as problematic” (Schein, 2006, p. 19). On the part of the organization development practitioner, the relationship itself is a tool of change, and learning based on the behaviors of trust, openness, honesty, authenticity, collaboration, and inquiry (Jamieson, 2006). According to Klein, one significant difference between coaching and consulting is that coaches have to “walk the talk,” meaning live it rather than just talk about it (personal communication, April 3, 2006).

Generally, when consultants serve as experts or analysts they have specialized knowledge and are paid to provide advice and make recommendations within their subject area (Bench, 2003; Schein, 2000). Coaches need not have experienced the client’s business and are paid to strategize, overcome obstacles, fine-tune the change process, and observe progress until the clients achieve their identified goals (Bench, 2003). Many coaches combine consulting with coaching, where they may conduct assessments, or shadow the executive, then provide feedback and recommendations for behavior improvement.

Different coaching roles can be placed on a continuum from exclusively coaching to coaching more as a generalist of other human and organizational helping profession (T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 17, 2007). Some companies have identified coaching as a leadership competency and train their managers in coaching skills, such as

active listening and powerful questions, and leadership models, such as situational leadership (S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; L. Yort, personal communication, May 5, 2006). Organization development practitioners increasingly have coaching as part of their responsibilities. Consultants view coaching as a subset of consultation and believe that the coach should move easily between process consultant, content expert, and diagnostician/prescriber roles. The degree of overlap between coaching and consulting depends on who initiated the coaching, who is being coached, in what role he or she is being coached, and on what issues (Schein, 2006).

Qualifications

The study failed to identify a single qualifying organization in the disciplines of coaching, consulting, organization development, or management. By qualifying organization I mean country requirements similar to those for certified public accountants and organizations such as the American Psychological Association for psychologists. Though there is “no agreement on training and academic standards, requisite competencies, a code of ethics or ongoing professional development” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 230), the discipline of coaching does have some qualifying standards in common. For example, both the ICF and IAC standards include competencies, requisite number of practice hours, and coach-specific training. The ICF certification process came about both as a desire for professionalism and as a reaction to attempts to regulate the discipline. The desire for professionalism came from the PPCA who “had actually been doing a lot of work in the credentialing area” (J. Seiffer, personal communication, June 7, 2006) in 1996–1997. Seiffer goes on to say that during this time “the only people that cared were journalists who . . . don’t have to do a *Sixty Minutes* exposé type of article” on

coaching. As Heiler states, “the state of Washington wanted to regulate coaches and therapists around the 1997–1998 timeframe, so . . . [ICF] people got together to come up with the credentialing of the accreditation process, because otherwise it would have been mandated state to state” (personal communication, May 7, 2006). In 1998, when ICF rolled out their credentialing program, in addition to ensuring minimum standards for coaches and coach-training agencies and assuring the public that minimum standards are met, the purpose was to “reinforce professional coaching as a distinct and self-regulating profession” (ICF, 2000).

Credentialing of coaches has traditionally been with the professional associations, namely the ICF and more recently the IAC, the WABC, and the ECI. Galbraith and Gilley (1985) define professional certification as “a voluntary process by which a professional association or organization measures the competencies of individual practitioners” (p. 12).

Credentialing standards typically include experience, training, mentoring (sometimes called supervision), and competence requirements. The ECI provides coach accreditation for individuals “to demonstrate their training and experience . . . [and] to attract more clients” (ECI, 2008). The EMCC does not provide individual credentialing as of February 2008. The IAC seeks to “inspire the on-going evolution and application of universal coaching standards” (IAC, 2008). The ICF has a three-fold purpose for their credentialing program:

1. Establish and administer minimum standards for credentialing professional coaches and coach-training agencies.

2. Assure the public that participating coaches and coach-training agencies meet or exceed these minimum standards.
 3. Reinforce professional coaching as a distinct and self-regulating profession.
- (ICF, 2008)

The purpose of credentialing for the WABC is to set “the highest international standards of ethics, integrity and professional responsibility for members by engaging in self-regulatory activities that build and maintain public trust” (WABC, 2007). A comparison of the credentialing standards across professional coach associations is displayed in 4-7.

Table 4-7 Professional Coach Associations Credentialing Standards

	ECI	EMCC	IAC	ICF	WABC
Individual Credentialing Level	WECI PECI CECI SECI MECI FECI	No	IAC-CC	ACC PCC MCC	CMBC RCC
Written Exam	No		Yes	Yes	No
Oral Exam	Yes		Yes	Yes	No
Competencies	No		9	11	15
Experience	Yes		??	Yes	Yes
Training	Yes		??	Yes	Yes
References	Yes		??	Yes	Yes

Program Accreditation	Workshop Short course Program	Foundation Intermediate Practitioner Master	No	Hours Program	2008
Ethics-Standards	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Certification is different from both licensure, which is a mandatory legal requirement in some professions, and accreditation, which is based on an evaluation of instructional programs. Williams (2006a) stated, “there are no licensing requirements for coaches at this time” (p. 19). He goes on to say that counseling legislation passed in Colorado USA in 2005 specifically does “not apply to professional coaches who have had coach-specific training and who serve clients exclusively in the capacity of coaches” (p. 19). In contrast, psychologists have strict qualification requirements and licensure for practice. Even career development professionals are required to have a master’s degree to practice in most states in the United States (M. Bench, personal communication, November 13, 2006).

There are conflicting opinions about credentialing and certification, as well as whether coaching is or is not a profession. As Bergquist states:

In the emergence of every profession, there is the pull by those who want this to become a profession: We need credentialing, and we need to say, “Here’s what it is and here’s what it isn’t.” This is the classic Professional Culture. And over against that, the stronger the Professional Culture gets, the stronger becomes the counterculture, which is the Alternative Culture. That’s the kind of pull that you

can expect in the profession called Coaching as it emerges. (personal communication, June 22, 2006)

Miller states that, “it may be we’re strictly at the stage right now where there’s a lot of different credentialing, accreditation schemes, before there’s a fallout” (personal communication, May 9, 2006).

Preparation

In coaching and its related disciplines of consulting, training, human resources, organization development, and leadership training and preparation options vary widely and none are required by law. Coaching services have been added to many consulting and outplacement firms, and managers are being called coaches, whether or not coach training has been provided (M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006; L. Miller, personal communication, May 9, 2006; Skiffington & Zeus, 2003). Bentley sees “natural people to be coaches or have a coaching style within organizations . . . [and] we should be training the managers to be coaching mangers” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). Conversely, many believe that the coach has to have some basic knowledge of psychology (S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; C. Rando, personal communication, April 13, 2007; Skiffington and Zeus, 2003), because “you need to know your boundaries when you are coaching and where you shouldn’t tread” (F. Hudson, personal communication, June 28, 2006). Establishing minimum requirements to become qualified to coach, according to McLean, includes “four essential ingredients in good coach training. There is theory and concept; there is understanding self as coach; there is understanding the coaching process; and there is coaching practice” (P. McLean, personal communication, June 28, 2006).

Some interviewees (K. Abrams, personal communication, May 11, 2007; J. Feld, personal communication, June 12, 2006) believe there needs to some barriers of entry. As Feld says, it is “not exclusionary. It has to do with standards of quality . . . I believe universities are the place where serious professionals will now go for their education, not training, in coaching . . . there still remains a place for the excellent commercial schools” (personal communication, June 12, 2006).

Non-coach-specific knowledge requirements. Literature and interview data identified a variety of ways to determine specific knowledge requirements, in addition to coaching specific knowledge. Interviewees were split on the importance of being familiar or having expertise in the area in which one is coaching. Some thought the context in which you choose to coach was one where you may have experience or expertise and that this familiarity makes for an efficient and time-saving relationship with the client (K. Cannon, personal communication, May 12, 2006; J. Feld, personal communication, June 12, 2006). Others thought it important that a coach had experience in the area in which they chose to specialize (M. Goldsmith, personal communication, April 29, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006; D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006). Goldrich talks about how “large organizations . . . are putting out criteria of what they want in a coach . . . [and] want you to be a master’s level person in some related field” (personal communication, April 7, 2006). The results are presented according to three different coaching approaches, looking at the requirements for non-coach-specific knowledge: 1) insight, content, and process; 2) outcome focus; and 3) foundation of beliefs or evidence. Coaches from an insight, content, and process approach need to have knowledge about the area in which they are coaching and skills in

facilitation. Outcome-focused coaches need to be aware of and skilled with goal-oriented models and techniques. Belief-or evidence-based approaches range from a mix of personal experiences, coaching practice knowledge, and personal development for a belief-based to data from research, theory, and practice for an evidence-based approach.

The first way to address the question of what is required to practice in a specific niche or specialization area is through the lens of insight, content, or process (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006). Insight coaches share the fundamental belief that the client has the answer and focus on helping people clarify what they want. Examples of insight coaching are M. Goldsmith and the Center for Creative Leadership with their 360 degree assessments and feedback. Content coaches bring in their expertise in particular content areas, such as education, business, or psychology. Content coaches may focus on specific skills such as business, presentation, or influencing skills. Process coaching focuses on helping people clarify what they want to do, get it done, and follow through. Examples of process coaching include The Coaches Training Institute coactive coaching model, the work done by psychologists who are experts in the process of behavior change, and life coaches who are experts in helping people clarify goals and achieve them.

A second way to look at coaching is through an outcome lens. One well known goal-oriented business coaching categorization scheme is results (skills and present job focus on basic ideas, strategies, methods, behaviors, attitudes, and perspectives associated with success of the organization), solution-focused (performance and problem behavior correction focus before it jeopardizes productivity or derails a career), self-directed (development and preparation for career move focus, often as part of succession

planning), and evolution (or fulfillment and learning in largest sense to reach a higher level of functioning, as confidant, sounding board, feedback, personal meaning, balanced life) (Witherspoon & White, 1996). Another scheme of categorization is developmental (or growth) and behavioral (or results or performance) change (Laske, 2004; C. Hayden, personal communication, April 6, 2006). Developmental change and behavioral change can occur separately, which may be unsustainable, or together, which is generally sustainable (Laske, 2004). The purpose of coaching as identified by the Academy of Coach Training (ACT) is characterized by “deepening the learning and forwarding the action” (F. Fisher, personal communication, June 23, 2006), which characterizes the growth and results lens. Growth-oriented coaching has been described as “a means to an end” and results coaching as “having the end in mind” (C. Hayden, personal communication, April 6, 2006).

A third way of looking at coaching is through the foundation of belief-based or evidence-based as proposed by Rushall (2003). Belief-based coaching is viewed as the common and traditional form of coaching where practices are guided by a mix of personal experiences, select knowledge of current coaching practices, and self-belief that coaching is conducted right (Rushall, 2003). Belief-based coaching was the foundation of most early coaching development schemes with the exception of Newfield Network, New Ventures West, and Hudson Institute. Adapted from the medical context, the term *evidence-based* refers to the intelligent and conscientious use of the best current knowledge in making decisions about how to deliver coaching to clients. *Best current knowledge* is up-to-date information from relevant, valid research, theory, and practice (Grant & Stober, 2006). Knowledge areas forming the foundation of evidence-based

coaching include the behavioral sciences, business and economic science, adult education (learning and development), and philosophy. Since 2003 the case for evidence-based coaching has been growing in popularity through the efforts of coaching psychologists Grant, Stober, Cavanaugh, and Kemp.

Coach-specific training. Literature, survey, and interview data supported the assertion that the coaching discipline has a plentiful supply of coach training available for practitioners. Survey respondents indicated that 845 (64.6%) had attended coach-specific training, 234 (17.8%) had education and training that supported coaching, and 231 (17.6%) identified no coach-specific training. Of the interviewees, 55% indicated they had attended some coach-specific training.

From the survey, 177 (72.8%) of organizations/programs had at least one response. The top 14 schools had 59% of total responses (Table 4-8), the next 16 had 10%, and the 6 categories of other experience/training had 11%. These 3 groups represent 20% of the total organizations/categories and have 81% of the responses. Of those in the *other* category (16% of total responses), the majority indicated Neuro-Linguistic Programming training, academic education, coaching service-provider training, ICF local chapter meetings, or self-teaching as the source of their coach training.

Table 4-8 identifies the most influential coach-training schools. The Coachville percentage includes the Graduate School of Coaching, the Thomas Leonard School of Coaching, and the Graduate School of Corporate Coaching, as well as all other Coachville schools and programs. The top 14 schools (8.5% of total schools/categories) received 70% of the responses and are included in Table 4-8.

Table 4-8 Influential Coach-training Schools from Survey Data

13.7% – CoachInc (includes Coach U and Corporate Coach U programs)
12.2% – Landmark Education
7.3% – Coachville (all schools)
6.8% – Coach Training Institute (CTI)
2.8% – A Program for Coaches
2.6% – Newfield Network
2.2% – Abundant Life
1.9% – College of Executive Coaching
1.7% – 1 and 1 Coaching School
1.4% – Coach Training Alliance
1.2% – Hudson Institute
1.2% – New Ventures West
1.1% – Academy for Coach Training (ACT)
1.1% – Institute for Life Coach Training (ILCT)

The top four coach-training organizations rated most influential received their philosophical foundation from the Human Potential Movement through Leonard, Whitworth, and Erhard.

Education and training programs can be grouped according to their worldview. Goldrich (personal communication, April 7, 2006) proposed four coaching paradigms based on worldview and change methodology: 1) the developmental/empirical paradigm (belief in models and techniques proven by the scientific method); 2) the human potential paradigm (world as integrated whole, law of attraction, people are inherently

magnificent); 3) the ontological paradigm (we create reality through language and can choose our reality); and 4) the mentoring or content paradigm (similar to apprenticeship). The mentoring paradigm appears less clearly in coaching organizations and schools. Though practitioners and programs may contain a mixture of the three major paradigms, I have chosen to group some earlier programs based on their strongest paradigm. Using Goldrich's definition, Performance Consultants, The Coaches Training Institute (CTI), Coach for Life, and the Academy for Coach Training (ACT) are classified as human potential paradigm. The CTI approach and the Coach for Life (P. Reding, personal communication, March 21, 2006) and ACT (F. Fisher, personal communication, June 23, 2006) programs founded by CTI graduates are based on the belief in the potential of each human being (H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; K. Kimsey-House, personal communication, March 14, 2006; L. Whitworth, personal communication, 2006). Performance Consultants in the United Kingdom was heavily influenced by Gallwey and both humanistic and transpersonal psychology. New Ventures West (NVW) and Newfield Network are from the ontological paradigm. Founders of both programs, Flaherty and Olalla, were mentored by Flores, a proponent of ontological coaching (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; J. Olalla, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Coach U is based on a mixture of the ontological and human potential paradigms, with some mentoring or content added to the mix. Leonard, who founded Coach U, was heavily influenced by Erhard and Flores in the design of the program (S. Anderson, personal communication, May 22, 2006; D. McNeill, personal communication, May 16, 2006; J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006). Hudson Institute and later coach-training programs, such as College for Executive

Coaching and programs in academia, are classified as developmental/empirical. Their programs rest on systems models and psychological models and theories from psychodynamic, behavioral/cognitive, and humanistic approaches (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; F. Hudson, personal communication, June 28, 2006; L. Wildflower, personal communication, June 30, 2006).

Evolution of coach-specific training. Looking at how coach-training programs evolved, interviewees indicated the first coach-training programs, from the 1980s, were small-scale with the purpose of training people within a service company to deliver coaching to clients. Ditzler founded Results Unlimited in the United Kingdom in 1980 and trained her business partner Alexander one-on-one to deliver her process (personal communication, December 19, 2006). Around the same time Whitmore and Alexander were training people through Performance Consultants to be sports coaches using the Inner Game techniques (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). By the mid to late-1980s they had evolved to using Inner Game techniques in business. McGhee described this United Kingdom contingent as “a tribe or a network of people that were exceptionally interested in making the contribution and doing it really well” (personal communication, April 2, 2007). This tribe included Buzan, who created mind mapping; Bishop of Insight Seminar Trainings; and Erhard of est; among others.

A proliferation of early coach-training programs sprang up in the United States in the early 1980s. Ellis stated that, “the first time I ever offered a coach training was 1983 and that was to my own employees. And in 1986 was the first time we officially used the word *coach* in a public way, and we called it Effectiveness Coaching” (personal communication, May 11, 2007). Flaherty founded New Ventures West, based on

ontological and integral principles, to deliver his course called Coaching: Evoking Excellence in Others (personal communication, May 5, 2006). In New York, Perry, founder of the Actors Information Project (AIP), with H. Kimsey-House, “introduced a primitive form of coach training into their program” (J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006), which provided career and life development for actors. Their trained coaches included: Homan, who works for Ken Blanchard Companies; Prior, ICF board member; and Tamlin, from the Bigger Game, among others. In 1989, Belf attended and purchased an offshoot of Results Unlimited, reopening it as Success Unlimited Network (SUN), a spiritual-based program, to train coaches (T. Belf, personal communication, March 30, 2006).

Five interviewees distinguished between the masculine (defined as practical, logical, and tangible) and feminine (defined as insightful, feeling, and creative) (Hirsh & Kise, 1996). In this framework, Leonard’s Coach University is perceived as a masculine model based partly on Erhard’s materials (P. Reding, personal communication, March 21, 2006; L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). The Coaches Training Institute, founded by L. Whitworth, H. Kimsey-House, and K. Kimsey-House, is perceived as a feminine or intuitive model based on Erhard’s, Gallwey’s, and many other materials (P. Reding, personal communication, March 21, 2006; L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). Sloan described Leonard as “marketing and technology” and Whitworth as “heart and soul” (personal communication, April 13, 2007). The Newfield Network, founded by Olalla and Echevarria, is perceived as a being model based on the ontological work of Flores. During the same period, yet from a separate lineage, Hudson and McLean’s Hudson Institute shifted focus to coaching.

These were the first training companies whose sole purpose was to train large numbers of coaches to deliver coaching services. Second-generation coaches joined later and included Reding, Coach for Life, and Fisher, Academy for Coach Training. Except for Ellis, these eight schools collaborated on the ICF certification committee work in 1998, which came up with the core competencies (F. Fisher, personal communication, June 23, 2006; W. Lindberg, personal communication, June 20, 2006). Because of this collaboration they founded the Alliance for Coach Training Organizations (ACTO).

Coach-specific graduate education. Graduate study includes formal academic preparation of those who practice in the discipline. As Cervero (1992) notes, the university-based model of research and training within most professions unites “the production of knowledge and the production of practitioners” into the same structure (p. 46). Until the early 2000s, when peer-reviewed journals were launched and graduate-level degrees were created for coaching, private coach-training organizations, academic certificate programs, and individual practitioners produced much of coaching’s knowledge base. Since then, there has been a growing movement toward evidence-based coaching (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006; A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006; Stober & Grant, 2006; Grant, Cavanagh, & Kemp, 2005) and toward a scholarly practitioner foundation for the profession (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006). [Not in RL] This is evidenced by increased research, two evidence-based coaching books, five peer-reviewed coaching journals, and research conferences beginning in 2003.

Exploring the value of graduate study as a professional development experience, Zeph (1991) makes the following observation: “To graduate from a degree program

certifies that an individual has learned a body of knowledge, possesses certain skills, and is qualified to practice a chosen profession; completion of graduate school is often thought of as a major step in the professionalization process” (p. 79). The Graduate School Alliance of Executive Coaching is identifying the knowledge and skill areas most relevant to graduate study for coaches.

Membership

Literature, survey, and interview data confirmed that numerous professional associations and service organizations exist within the coaching discipline. ICF, the largest professional association, has over 10,000 members (ICF, 2008), and membership in the British Psychological Society and Australian Psychological Society coaching psychology subgroups are the fastest growing in both societies (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006; P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006). Service organizations include large consulting companies such as RHR International, Personal Decisions International, and KRW International, as well as organizations offering blended coaching and training such as The Ken Blanchard Companies and Performance Consultants.

Professional associations and service organizations. Professional associations can be distinguished according to the roles they perform (Brockett, 1989, p. 122). Some professional associations perform one of two roles: (1 to help unify divergent segments of the discipline (umbrella function) or (2 to provide a home for specialized interests (specific segment). Associations are also defined by the geographical range of audiences they serve—by their scope. Five such levels include local, state-provincial, regional, national, and international. It is common for practitioners to belong to several

associations that can help practitioners meet different sets of professional development needs. Houle wrote in 1980 that “professional associations play a variety of roles, including addressing ‘a need for status, a sense of commitment or calling, a desire to share in policy formation and implementation . . . a feeling of duty, a wish for fellowship and community, and a zest for adult education’” (as cited in Merriam and Brockett 1997, p. 224).

Professional associations have had an impact in professional development and socialization for coaches over the years. Of the 74 conferences held since 1996, 65 (83.8%) have been sponsored by professional coach associations and 12 (16.2%) by non-professional coach associations. The 12 conferences not sponsored by a professional coaching organization have been sponsored by Linkage (58%) from 1999 to 2002 and The Conference Board (42%) from 2003 to 2007. Similarly, most of the past and current publications would not have existed were it not for the professional coach associations. Five former publications were launched by professional coach associations and one was independent. Of the 14 existing publications, 9 (64.5%) are by professional coach associations and 5 (35.5%) are independent of a professional coach association.

The survey data included information about professional and service organizations within the global coaching discipline. The top 5 professional coaching organizations identified by respondents as the most influential received 79.4% of the responses. They were International Coach Federation (ICF) (47.0%), Coachville (14.5%), International Association of Coaches (IAC) (8.1%), Professional Coaches and Mentors Association (PCMA) (4.6%), and Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (WABC) (4.3%). In total, 13 professional coaching and service organizations received at least 1%

of the responses and represent 94.5% of the total responses. Forty point three percent (40.3%) of respondents did not respond to this question.

Six point two percent (6.2%) of the respondents selected Canadian-based organizations, 9.3% selected European-based organizations, and 81.4% selected United States-based organizations. The remaining 3.1% were outside Canada, the United States or Europe. The four organizations receiving the largest percentage of responses are United States based. Table 4-9 displays the most influential professional coaching organizations.

Table 4-9 Influential Professional Coaching Organizations from Survey Data

47.0%	ICF – International Coach Federation
15.4%	CV – Coachville.com
8.1%	IAC – International Association of Coaches
4.6%	PCMA – Professional Coaches and Mentors Association
4.3%	WABC – Worldwide Association of Business Coaches
2.8%	EMCC – European Mentoring and Coaching Council
2.7%	CU – Coach Universe
2.2%	ECI – European Coaching Institute
1.8%	PRN – Peer Resources Network
1.7%	AC – Association for Coaching
1.6%	247 – 247 Coaching
1.3%	ICCO – International Consortium of Coaches in Organizations
1.0%	PBCA – Professional Business Coaches Alliance

Evolution of professional associations and organizations. Interviewees offered significant details and print media about the primary professional coach associations, which until 1999 were all based in the United States, as shown in Appendix N. Though there was mention of a 1992 National Association of Professional Coaches (NAPC), founded by Leonard for people who had attended his courses (D. Theune, personal communication, August 18, 2006), the earliest professional associations began with the International Association of Professional and Personal Coaches (IAPPC) in 1994, which morphed into the Professional and Personal Coaches Association (PPCA) in 1995. According to Hayden, “if it weren’t for Laura [Whitworth] I don’t think that IAPPC would have been born. I don’t think PPCA would have been born, because she was the one who was waving the flag and saying, follow me. That’s what she did is serve as a catalyst . . . both times” (personal communication, April 6, 2006). Carlile, the first president of the PPCA, stated that Whitworth’s “vision was huge and it was inclusive and collaborative” (personal communication, April 19, 2006). Whitworth initiated both organizations with the intent to represent coaches from various backgrounds and training schools (L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). In 1995, Leonard founded the ICF as an alumni group for the graduates of Coach University. According to Whitworth, “Thomas saw ownership of the association as a business move, and I saw the development of the association as a community move” (personal communication, April 20, 2006). A key difference in the two organizations was that “you had to join PPCA, to actually pay and choose to be a member” (B. Carlile, personal communication, April 19, 2006). By being a student or graduate of Coach U one automatically became a member of ICF, which did not have dues.

According to B. Anderson, “Jeff Raim [the second ICF president] was the man to see the vision associated with a need to have a truly independent professional organization, independent of the training companies. I give him a lot of credit for providing the vision, the leadership” (personal communication, May 16, 2006). This independence and a financial challenge within PPCA, paved the way for the merger of PPCA and ICF in 1998, retaining the ICF name. The process of identifying core competencies and credentialing criteria began that same year and included representatives from the eight coach-training schools who founded ACTO in 1999 (W. Lindberg, personal communication, June 20, 2006). Appendix O shows these links as well as Coachville, founded in 2001, and the International Association of Coaches (IAC), founded in 2002, both by Leonard.

The Professional Mentors and Coaches Association (PCMA) was “founded by Vance Caesar, Ph.D. with senior executive coaches in southern California” to serve business coaches and mentors in southern California (A. Mura, personal communication, May 29, 2006). “In 1997 Lanning of Maryland, United States, and Wright of Chicago, United States, founded the National Association of Business Coaches (NABC) as a for-profit Association for business coaches. On May 31, 2002, Johnson assumed the full rights to and ownership of specified NABC assets. These assets were rolled into a new federally incorporated limited liability company in Canada. WABC Coaches Inc. conducts business as the Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (WABC) and serves and develops the United States, Canadian and overseas business coaching markets” (WABC, 2007). The first non-United States-based association was founded in

Japan in 1999 by the key players in Coach 21, a franchisee of Coach U (K. Hirano, personal communication, May 28, 2006).

The year 2002 saw an increase of professional coach associations in the United Kingdom and one in Australia. The European Mentoring Council reconstituted itself to include coaching, becoming the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) (D. Megginson, personal communication, June 29, 2006). Though the EMCC was mainly in the United Kingdom at the time, in 2005 it went Europe-wide. The Association for Coaching (AC) launched in 2002 to become the United Kingdom's first independent professional body for professional coaches (K. Tulpa, personal communication, June 28, 2006). This same year also saw the launch of coaching psychology special interest groups within the BPS (P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006) and the APS (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006).

In 2003 Wong launched the China Coaches Association and in 2004 attendees of the Executive Coaching Summit launched the North America-based International Consortium of Coaches in Organizations (ICCO). The year 2005 heralded both the Association for Professional Executive Coaching and Supervision (APECS) in the United Kingdom (J. Joyce, personal communication, June 5, 2006) and the Graduate School Alliance of Executive Coaching (GSAEC) in the United States (J. Feld, personal communication, June 12, 2006). These groups were special-interest coaching groups with membership limited to executive coaches and accredited graduate schools with coaching programs, respectively.

Evolution of service organizations. Service providers emerged before the coach education and training organizations. For example, in the 1940s and 1950s, psychology-

based RHR International was counseling executives (J. Durosher, personal communication, October 5, 2007; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006;). In 1981 Personnel Decisions International (PDI) began offering executive coaching services (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006), and in 1987, KRW International was founded to “help senior people change by empowering and bringing them data” (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007). Peterson, from PDI, says much of the early work was “helping people be less abrasive and deal with some of the same things we provide coaching on today” (personal communication, May 1, 2006). PDI also launched a significant research project on coaching in 1987 that tracked the progress of 370 coaching participants with the intent of creating a thorough picture of their coaching process.

During the 1980s, individuals with a background in large group awareness trainings or Inner Game technology emerged as service providers from the human development perspective. These would include Gallwey’s Inner Game organization (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006), Whitmore’s Performance Consultants with Alexander and Downey (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; M. Downey, personal communication, June 27, 2006; J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006), and Ditzler’s Results Unlimited with Alexander, Prosser, and McGhee (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; J. Ditzer, personal communication, December 19, 2006; S. McGhee, personal communication, April 2, 2007; I. Prosser, personal communication, March 21, 2007). In the mid-1980s Transformational Technologies was formed to deliver services in major corporations (J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). McNeill formed the McNeill Group in

the early 1990s to provide services to Fortune 500 companies (personal communication, May 16, 2006).

In the early years, these service providers trained their employees in the use of specific models and tools. As coach-training companies formed during the 1990s many more service providers formed, hiring coach-training graduates to deliver their services.

Self-definition

This category introduces the topic of self-definition, or how coaches define themselves and conduct their practice of coaching. Across all data sources, individuals identified themselves by their coaching specialty or niche, whether or not they have the formal qualifications or preparation to practice coaching.

A side effect of how coaches define themselves is fragmentation within the coaching discipline. “Today, many different professional associations, groups, and networks around the world represent or provide formal or informal ‘communities’ for business coaches, corporate coaches, executive coaches, organizational development coaches, etc.” (Johnson, 2005, p. 1) This fragmentation is from within and without, and incites the personal-business coaching debate.

For the category of self-definition I address coaching niches and specialties, the personal-business coaching debate, and role blending.

Coaching niches and specialties. Primarily a marketing tool, many niches and specialties arise from practitioner’s legacy disciplines. The current coaching discipline branches into a diverse array of specialties, theoretical frameworks, and practices based on the theoretical grounding from pioneer’s legacy disciplines. These range from

ontological coaching (Flores, Olalla, Echevarria) to performance coaching (Gallwey, Whitmore, Alexander), from executive coaching (Kilburg) to life coaching (Whitworth, Leonard), and all areas around and between. I created the list of 43 niche or specialty areas in Table 4-10 by grouping titles and content of literature data and survey responses.

From the survey, the average number of responses was 7 for each respondent. No one coaching niche/specialty area counted for more than 6.5% of the over 10,000 total responses to this question.

Table 4-10 Coaching Niches and Specializations

Business	Business and Personal	Personal
Business	Academic/Education/Student	Addictions
Career Planning & Development	ADHD	Authenticity
Career Transitions	Conflict Resolution	Christian
Cross-Cultural / Diversity	Communication	Clarity
Entrepreneur	Financial	Creativity
Executive	Mentor	Divorce
Leadership	Personal Productivity	Family
Management	Stress Reduction/Time Management	Gay/Lesbian
Organization/Team		Integrity
Practice Building		Life (transform, empower, self-express)
Professional		Life Purpose

Sales		Life Transitions
		Lifestyle Design
		Motivation
		Parenting
		Relationship
		Retirement
		Self-Care
		Sexuality
		Spiritual
		Teens/Children
		Vision
		Wellness

The business specialties were categorized by the clientele, the client’s role, the situation being coached, and focus of the coaching. Business specialties represented 40.5% of the total responses. Three main subgroups are: 1) business, entrepreneur, organization and team, professional, practice building, sales, cross-cultural diversity (16.5% of the total); 2) leadership, executive, and management (16.3% of the total); and 3) career transitions, planning, and development (7.7% of the total).

The personal-related specialties related to either non-work issues and situations and meaning or quality of life. Personal-related specialties represented 46.7% of the total responses. Five main subgroups are: 1) 26.9% life, purpose, vision, lifestyle design, motivation, creativity, integrity, authenticity, clarity; 2) 7.9% relationship, family,

parenting, teens/children, gay/lesbian, sexuality; 3) 4.7% transitions, divorce, retirement; 4) 4.5% ADHD, wellness, self-care, addictions; and 5) 2.5% spiritual, Christian.

The remaining categories apply to both work and personal, and I chose to group them together due to this characteristic. Responses that fell into both work and personal categories represent the remaining 12.9% of total responses. These included personal productivity, stress reduction and time management, conflict resolution, financial, mentor, communication, academic/education /student, and other.

The interview responses were consistent with literature and survey data. They were in particular agreement that coaching niches are mainly a marketing differentiation tool and a way to connect with clients (C. Barrow, personal communication, April 19, 2007; J. Feld, personal communication, June 12, 2006; T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2006).

Personal and business coaching distinctions. Heiler suggests there is a “need to consider the individual [being coached] in a variety of contexts rather than just the individual without any context” (personal communication, May 7, 2006). The contexts that have received the most attention are the personal and business contexts for coaching. Respondents offered two perspectives of the distinctions between personal and business coaching. For example, some 10% of the interviewees see not much difference between personal and life coaching (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006; C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006). Lane talks about “somewhere in the middle, business issues and personal issues overlap. That piece in the middle is primarily where coaching is happening” (personal communication, June 16, 2006). Boyatzis says it even more strongly”

As a psychologist, if a person says to me, “I keep my work and my personal life separate,” I know that that’s a form of pathology. We’ve known that since pre-Freud, when people compartmentalize, they actually segment their personality. At mild forms it’s dissociation. At major forms it’s called psychosis. It’s unhealthy. It’s one of the things I say in my talks, in my classes, all the time. If somebody says, “It’s not personal” they obviously are a fool, because there isn’t anything in life that isn’t personal. (personal communication, May 8, 2007)

While Lane sees a continuum of business and personal coaching (personal communication, June 16, 2006), other interviewees see a strong distinction between business and personal (or life) coaching (C. Barrow, personal communication, April 19, 2007; W. Johnson, personal communication, July 25, 2006). Bergquist sees the distinction as “personal coaching is working with someone who’s going through some major life or career transition, and organizational coaching is when you are working with someone who wants to stay where they are and be more effective in the current work they are doing” (personal communication, June 22, 2006).

Role blending. Coaching niches and specialties, and discipline integration may result in role blending. This means that practitioners use skills from other disciplines along with coaching skills when the client, situation, or context requires skills in addition to coaching. Role blending may also occur when practitioners within other disciplines add coaching skills to their practice. In this section I look at role blending from the perspective of niches and specialties where the disciplines inform the coaching, like executive coaching, and the opposite, where coaching informs another discipline’s

practice, like coaching psychology. Table 4-11 contains some examples of influence on and influence by coaching.

Table 4-11 Examples of Influence on and Influence by Coaching

Discipline → Coaching	Coaching → Discipline
Mentor Coaching	Coaching Psychology
Executive Coaching	Blended Training
Consultative Coaching	Manager as Coach
Peer Coaching	Teacher as Coach
Christian Coaching	Financial Advisor as Coach
Career Coaching	Fitness Trainer as Coach
ADHD Coaching	
Retirement Coaching	

From the survey data, 66% of the respondents indicated they worked in a profession related to coaching as well as in coaching. With 9.2% of the survey respondents belonging to ASTD, 6.3% to SHRM, 5.2% to ODN, and 5.1% to APA, the probability of role blending to and from coaching is high.

Several specific coaching niches and specialties are role blending from other disciplines to coaching, such as executive coaching, peer coaching, consultative coaching, and mentor coaching. For example, Kilburg (1996b) states that “traditional

organization development methods, adult education, management training, industrial-organizational psychology, and generic consultation skills are being blended together to define a subdiscipline” of executive coaching (p. 59). Peterson (1996) defined executive coaching as a “consultative, relationship-based service provided by seasoned consultants who serve as advisors and objective sounding boards to senior executives” (p. 85). At the same time Kilburg was questioning “whether executive coaching is simply the newest label practitioners are putting on a specific focus of consultation and set of techniques that they use in their work with executives.” (1996b, p. 137). Five years later, Diedrich and Kilburg (2001) stated, “when a consulting psychologist is hired by an individual or by an organization . . . for a person who has managerial authority and responsibility, he or she has moved directly into the realm of executive coaching” (p. 203). By 2006 more definitions of executive coaching existed, ranging from specific to general, yet each contained an element of role blending. Mura said:

90% of PCMA members were members of ODN and/or ASTD when they first started out [in 1996 and] in the professional executive coaching community, nobody just woke up one day and became a coach without having some other background either in training or HR or facilitation or some other discipline.

(personal communication, May 29, 2006)

Consultative coaching is a specific example of consulting influencing coaching. Belles (2000) asserted that few business situations require either pure consulting or pure coaching, and advocated looking at the optimum blend of coaching and consulting for added value. Durand says, “executive coaching is more of a consultative coach; its more around consulting and mentoring, and you need knowledge of OD or a good business

background to be able to relate to the type of people that you're going to coach" (personal communication, 2006). Sandstrom also noted that "you have a blended more like consulting model [and] PDI, Personnel Decisions Int'l, and then CCL [Center for Creative Leadership] probably had a blend" (personal communication, June 28, 2006).

Coaching has influenced disciplines through the integration of disciplines, roles, and delivery methods, for example coaching psychology, blended training, or identifying managers as coaches. While some of the same skills are used across professions, it is the intent and focus that is different within professions. Coaching psychology is a formal blending of the disciplines of coaching and psychology and Grant (2006) states that, "coaching psychology sits at the intersection of sports, counseling, clinical, and organizational and health psychology" (p. 16). Bates states that coaching psychologists "all have to be qualified psychologists" (personal communication, June 5, 2006). The recent service offering of *blended training* links training with follow-up coaching (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006; L. Miller, personal communication, May 9, 2006; M. O'Neill, personal communication, July 7, 2006).

Intersections in Practice Parameters and Boundaries

Practice boundaries between coaching and of its root disciplines share similarities (all require people to change and grow) and differences based on the purpose, practitioner role, and clientele. The "number one purpose of business is to make a profit" (C. Barrow, personal communication, April 19, 2007), while the purpose of coaching, according to ICF, "inspires them [clients] to maximize their personal and professional potential (ICF, 2006). The practitioner role varies with the leader having multiple shareholders to satisfy, human resources seeking to increase productivity and effectiveness in the generation of

revenue, and psychology to help individuals be more fully functioning individuals. In contrast, the practitioner role in coaching is to help human beings maximize their potential. Clientele for coaches in business often consists of multiple clients, including the person the coach works with, the sponsor, and the organization as a whole (G. Storjohann, personal communication, May 29, 2006; M. Heiler, personal communication, 2006).

Practitioner boundaries between coaching and its root disciplines are fuzzy and will likely remain fuzzy, which is due in part to the lack of qualifications and preparation requirements to practice, and the self-definition by coaches, which includes role blending through niche definition and specialization as well as the creation of blended subdisciplines such as coaching psychology.

Standards and ethics are common to the coaching discipline through the many global coaching associations and, in some cases, through coach-training programs and service organizations. The similarities among the coaching ethics codes include accuracy in qualifications, client interests, confidentiality, and non-discrimination. The primary difference between coaching ethics codes was the emphasis in the European professional associations on requiring supervision, while the North American codes had no such requirement.

Shifts in Practice Parameters and Boundaries

Up through the 1980s, psychologists were coaching executives in organizations under the name of counseling (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006), organization development practitioners were using coaching as an intervention (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006), and consultants included working one-on-one

with executives as part of their roles (Schein, 1969; Block, 1999). During this period the manager was encouraged to use coaching skills to improve performance of individuals working for them (Fournies, 1978; Megginson & Boydell, 1979). From the mid-1990s, everything changed with the emergence of the external professional coach and the popularization of coaching. Olalla describes the emergence of coaching “as a new practice in the discipline of learning . . . we invent new practices when old practices are not addressing emerging concerns” (personal communication, March 22, 2006).

The coach role from a psychology perspective is an alliance between coach and client that is consistent and facilitating growth. In contrast, the coach role from a business perspective is defined in part by the coach’s responsibilities. For example, managers are being trained as coaches and their role as coach may be an extension of their supervisory position (M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006; J. Seiffer, personal communication, June 7, 2006). Bentley describes it as “The managers are charged to do some coaching alongside their other managing functions” (personal communication, July 3, 2006).

Other significant changes in practice parameters include the formation of professional coach associations from the mid-1990s and increasing membership in the over fifteen professional coach associations. These associations bring with them ethics codes, various credentialing and certification schemes, and competence requirements, due in part to the increasing public requirement for a consistent and professional level of coaching practice. Similarly, theoretical foundations are being named, and since 2000 a coach-specific body of knowledge has been emerging through the focus on evidence-based coaching, graduate education programs, and research.

Professional Challenge

Role blending across disciplines blurs the practice and practitioner boundaries between the different disciplines, which makes it difficult for clear coach preparation, training and qualification requirements. Evidence-based coaching was intended to connect a solid knowledge base and help coaches make informed choices of when to use which model. However, in the postmodern era, an essential challenge for the profession is reconciling the need for clear boundaries and specific knowledge.

As coaching matures there is the beginning of distinct rivers of coaching practice and theory emerging. Coaching practice in psychology, business, and other areas focuses on non-clinical clientele and change, though the purposes are different and range from human growth to business profitability. Roles differ in business depending on who is the client, what is the context, and what outcome is desired. The coaching role outside of business is an alliance between coach and client focusing on client-specified outcomes. In both business and psychology sectors there is an expectation that the coach has certain skills and expertise, while some practitioners believe that competence in coaching is enough to coach anyone.

The rivers of coaching practice and theory appear to be intersecting into a desire for clarity and empirical foundations, both conditions that are rooted in the modern socioeconomic era. For example, in July 2008, a Global Convention on Coaching (GCC) will be held in Dublin, Ireland.

The GCC is a year long process in which all the key stakeholders in coaching (consumers, practitioners, educators and industry bodies) will be gathering together to discuss the difficult issues facing us in professionalizing coaching. It is

a world-wide collaborative dialogue that seeks to understand the needs of coaching consumers, practitioners and educators in order to develop commonly agreed understandings, guidelines and frameworks for the practice of coaching and the training of coaches. (GCC, 2008, p. 1)

The GCC may help shift the mindset within coaching from an either/or to a both/and, or said another way, from better/worse to similar/different. What does remain as a challenge is that the GCC is loosely based on the 1949 Boulder Conference, which solidified the clinical psychology discipline. In 1949, the socioeconomic climate was distinctly modern, as it was when coaching's root disciplines emerged. The current socioeconomic environment is postmodern—a time of rapid change, information abundance, and technological innovation. It was in this postmodern environment that coaching emerged, and what worked in the past, like the 1949 Boulder Conference, may not work in today's environment. The professional challenge for coaching is how to bridge and encompass the expectations that the coach has certain roles, skills, and expertise to practice in specialized areas of coaching with the desire for a unified set of core competencies for all coach practitioners.

Practitioner Background Diversity

This section addresses the question of what impact the backgrounds of influencers had on the coaching discipline and coaching practices.

During the 1990s when the coaching movement first gained a foothold, the individuals who provided leadership to the discipline came from a wide range of disciplines. Since the concept of professional coaching did not exist during the early years, leadership and inspiration came to the coaching discipline through people who saw

the potential in coaching. Early practitioners relied upon their legacy discipline for their theoretical grounding, for example: sports (Whitmore and United Kingdom coaching pioneers); business, large group awareness training (LGAT) and personal development (Leonard, Whitworth); performing arts (Kimsey-House, Berman-Fortgang, among others); and psychology (Peterson, Hudson, Kiel, Auerbach).

Individuals currently working as coaches have a wide variety of backgrounds, which include management, training, consulting, psychology, organizational development, and sports. These disciplines have both a theoretical knowledge and practice base. According to Grant (2005a), “to date there appears to be little communication between these occupational groups and their foundational bodies of knowledge, and there is a tendency for each group to claim ownership of coaching” (p. 1). At this point, none of the disciplines identified above dominates the theoretical knowledge or practice base of coaching.

Contemporary professional coaching is a cross-disciplinary methodology for fostering individual and organizational change, and comprises both personal or *life* coaching, and workplace coaching with staff, managers, and executives. In a study of 2529 professional coaches Grant and Zackon (2004) found that coaches had come to coaching from a wide variety of prior professional backgrounds (in order of magnitude) consultants (40.8 percent), managers (30.8 percent), executives (30.2 percent), teachers (15.7 percent), and salespeople (13.8 percent). Interestingly, in that sample only 4.8 percent of respondents had a background in psychology. (Note: percentages are not cumulative). Such diversity is both strength and a liability. The diversity of prior professional backgrounds means that the coaching industry draws on a wide range of

methodological approaches to coaching, and a wide range of educational disciplines inform coaching practice. On the other hand, because of the diversity and sheer number of individuals offering coaching services, there is a lack of clarity as to what professional coaching really is and what makes for an effective or reputable coach (Sherman & Freas, 2004). This diversity also means that there may be a wide range of perspectives about what constitutes best ethical and professional practice, and what is the proper focus of coaching” (Grant, 2006, p. 13).

Similar to coaching, organization development lacks a unified definition of or approach to the central nature of OD, which “is due in large part to the diversity of backgrounds of those who engage in OD practice—from forestry, to law, to history, to the social sciences. Because one of the values of the discipline is inclusivity, relatively little attention has been paid historically to maintaining boundaries around the practice or labeling of OD” (Waclawski & Church, 2001, p. xx).

Influence of Specific People on Coaching

This section looks at the individual influencers from a macro level for trends across literature, survey, and interview data. The literature review generated a list of 366 influencers. Of these, 192 (52.5%) published a coaching book between 1970 and 2007 and were not referred to in the research, 136 (37.1%) percent were referred to in research only, and 38 (10.4%) were in both. With the addition of survey and interview data, the total number of key influencers identified swelled to 621. Of these, 85 (13.7%) appeared across all sources. Of the remaining, 129 (20.8%) were referred to in two of the three data sources, and 407 (65.5%) appeared in only one data source. I removed Oprah Winfrey from the key influencers, because her contribution was informing the public about

coaching by having coaches on her television program. As Patrick Williams (2006a) says, “one could argue that Socrates is the earliest recorded model of life and business coaching through his process of inquiry” (p. 5), and yet, since there are no known sources of writings by Socrates, I have removed him from the list of key influencers. I applied this same rationale when I removed Jesus Christ from the list of key influencers, though Creswell stated, “I realized in my own Bible study that Jesus spent more of his time on earth asking questions than he did telling” (personal communication, December 13, 2006). Table 4-12 contains the names of the remaining 82 key influencers across all data sources.

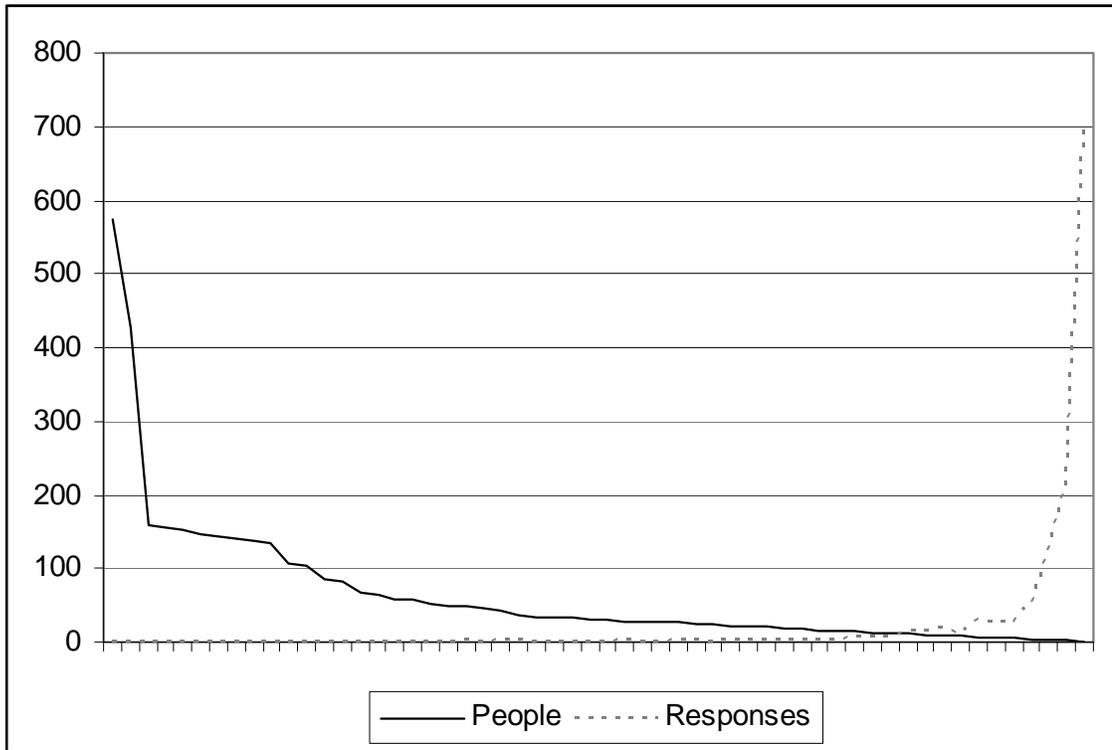
Table 4-12 Key Influencers from All Data Sources

Abraham Maslow	Frederic Hudson	Napoleon Hill
Alain Cardon	Fritz Perls	Otto Laske
Alan Sieler	Gary Collins	Patrick Williams
Albert Ellis	Graham Alexander	Peter Drucker
Alfred Adler	Henry Kimsey-House	Peter Block
Anthony Grant	Ian McDermott	Peter Senge
Anthony Robbins	James Flaherty	Phil Sandahl
Brian Tracy	Jane Creswell	Rafael Echevarria
C.J. Hayden	Jeannine Sandstrom	Red Auerbach
Carl Jung	Jeffrey Auerbach	Richard Bandler
Carl Rogers	John Grinder	Richard Kilburg
Cheryl Richardson	John Whitmore	Richard Strozzi-Heckler
Chris Argyris	John Wooden	Robert Dilts

Dale Carnegie	Julio Olalla	Robert Hargrove
Daniel Goleman	Ken Blanchard	Sandy Vilas
Dave Buck	Ken Wilber	Stephen Covey
David B. Peterson	Laura Berman-Fortgang	Suzanne Skiffington
David Clutterbuck	Laura Whitworth	Teri E Belf
David Cooperrider	Lee Smith	Thomas Leonard
David Lane	Linda Miller	Timothy Gallwey
David Megginson	Marshall Goldsmith	Tom Peters
David Rock	Martin Heidegger	Vincent Lenhardt
Dianne Stober	Martin Seligman	Wayne Dyer
Don Shula	Mary Beth O'Neill	Werner Erhard
Earl Nightingale	Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi	William Bergquist
Edgar Schein	Mike Jay	Zig Ziglar
Eva Wong	Milton Erickson	
Fernando Flores	Myles Downey	

The results of the survey show an unexpected large distribution of perceived influencers, with 696 receiving only one response. The 2 names that received a high number of responses are Leonard and Erhard, who received 575 (8.0%) and 427 (5.9%) of total responses, respectively. Only 10 other influencers received between 1.4% and 2.2% of the responses. Figure 4-13 displays the survey responses for each identified influencer.

Figure 4.3 Survey Responses per Identified Influencer



Grouping the 82 remaining key influencers into constellations based on their background, I found 32 from business (39.0% of total responses), 29 from psychology (35.4% of total responses), 7 from sports (8.5% of total responses), 7 from motivation (8.5% of total responses), 4 from philosophy (4.9% of total responses), 2 from performing arts (2.4%) and 1 from liberal arts (1.2% of total responses respectively).

Eighteen of the key influencers were also identified as emerging influencers on the survey (Table 4-13). For the survey, I defined emerging influencers as people who are on the cutting edge of the profession, doing and saying surprising and thought-provoking

things. Six of the 18 influencers (33.3%) had an equal or greater number of responses indicating he or she was also an influencer from a related discipline. Eleven (61.1%) of the emerging influencers have a background in psychology, and 7 (38.9%) have a background in business.

Table 4-13 Emerging Key Influencers from Survey Data

Alain Cardon	Dianne Stober	Mike Jay
Anthony Grant	Eva Wong	Otto Laske
Dave Buck	Gary Collins	Patrick Williams
David Megginson	Jane Creswell	Richard Kilburg
David Peterson	Jeffrey Auerbach	Richard Strozzi-Heckler
David Rock	Linda Miller	Vincent Lenhardt

Generational Influences

The current coaching discipline blends and integrates tools and models primarily from the established professions identified in item 1 above, for use with normal populations and from a humanistic approach, resulting in tools and models unique to the coaching discipline. I began this study with the influencers who influenced coaching, and one of the shifts that occurred is that some of these influencers were coaches and some were not. Looking at the list of 82 key influencers on the discipline of coaching, I distinguished three distinct categories of individuals who played a role of transmitting the models from root disciplines into coaching models. The first category, which I termed originator (35 for 42.7%), consists of those individuals who created the theories and models in the root disciplines that became incorporated into coaching. The second category of influencers I termed transmitters (17 for 20.7%), that is individuals who

applied theories and models from the root disciplines in a practice they called coaching. The third category is the second and later generations (30 or 36.6%) who actually practiced coaching based on the work of the transmitter generation.

Assignment to a category was how an individual self-identified in the literature or how the interviewees identified the individual. Two individuals, Flores and Gallwey, were borderline between the originator and transmitter categories. I made the choice to include Flores in the originator category because interviewees (F. Fisher, personal communication, June 23, 2006; J. Flaherty, personal communication May 5, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006) spoke of him as a content and workshop leader, not as a coach. McNeill talked about Flores as one of “five people who were key in the design of the Forum” (personal communication, May 16, 2006), which was followed Erhard’s est training. I made the choice to include Gallwey in the transmitter generation because the interviewees identified him as a coach (April 19, 2007; H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; C. Morgan, personal communication, April 19, 2007; J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). L. Whitworth stated that “Tim [Gallwey] was my coach for a while when I was I was looking for a coach (personal communication, April 20, 2006).

For influencers borderline between the transmitter and second generation I chose to identify anyone whose influence on coaching began from the late 1990s as second generation. These influencers included four from psychology and four from business, who evolved into coaching through their primary discipline rather than through attending a coach-training program. The influencers from psychology include Lane, Skiffington (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003), Grant (personal communication, May 15, 2006) and Strozzi-

Heckler (personal communication, June 9, 2006). From business the influencers are Clutterbuck (personal communication, June 28, 2006), McDermott (McDermott & Jago, 2001), M. Goldsmith and Robbins (C. Freeman, personal communication, May 23, 2006).

Originators

The 35 (42.2%) of the 83 key influencers from the originator generation are identified by name, discipline, and decade influence began in Table 4-14. The decade influence began relates to their identified discipline.

Table 4-14 Key Influencers on Coaching from Originator Generation

Name	Discipline	Decade Influence Began
Alfred Adler	Psychology	1920s
Martin Heidegger	Philosophy	1930s
Napoleon Hill	Motivation	1930s late
Dale Carnegie	Motivation	1940s
Abraham Maslow	Psychology	1950s
Albert Ellis	Psychology	1950s
Carl Jung	Psychology	1950s
Carl Rogers	Psychology	1950s
John Wooden	Sports	1950s
Milton Erickson	Psychology	1950s
Peter Drucker	Business	1950s
Red Auerbach	Sports	1950s
Earl Nightingale	Motivation	1950s late
Chris Argyris	Psychology	1960s

Edgar Schein	Business	1960s
Fritz Perls	Psychology	1960s
Ken Blanchard	Business	1960s
Don Shula	Sports	1970s
Fernando Flores	Philosophy	1970s
John Grinder	Liberal Arts	1970s
Peter Block	Business	1970s
Richard Bandler	Psychology	1970s
Werner Erhard	Business	1970s
Zig Ziglar	Motivation	1970s
Wayne Dyer	Motivation	1970s late
Brian Tracy	Motivation	1980s
Robert Dilts	Psychology	1980s
Stephen Covey	Business	1980s
Tom Peters	Business	1980s
Daniel Goleman	Psychology	1990s
David Cooperrider	Business	1990s
Ken Wilber	Psychology	1990s
Martin Seligman	Psychology	1990s
Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi	Psychology	1990s
Peter Senge	Business	1990s

The 35 originators of models and theories outside coaching included 14 (40.0%) from psychology, 9 (25.7%) from business, 6 (17.1%) from motivation, 3 (8.6%) from sports, 2 (5.7%) from philosophy, and 1 (2.9%) from liberal arts.

Psychology. I looked at the contributions (theories, concepts, models, or processes from the individuals discipline or field) incorporated into coaching from the 14 psychology originators. Adler (7.1%) influenced from the 1920s, followed by Maslow, A. Ellis, Jung, Rogers, and Erickson (29.4%) from the 1950s. The 1960s brought Argyris and Perls (14.3%), followed by Bandler (7.1%) in the 1970s, and Dilts (7.1%) in the 1980s. More recent influencers from the 1990s include Goleman, Wilber, Seligman, and Csikszentmihalyi (28.6%).

Adler, Freud's colleague, and Jung, a student who broke with Freud (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006) were early proponents of a well-balanced, individual holistic view (Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006) and important precursors for humanistic psychology (Krippner, 1977). Adler contributed the concepts of creating meaning and purpose in ones life (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006), looking for what makes people right, and people coming up with their own solutions (L. Page, personal communication, March 18, 2006). Adler, who created the individual psychology approach, was a man who philosophically spoke about the nature of being human from principles that are similar to Erickson's (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006). Jung's emphasis was on spiritual awakening in the second half of life, the value of dreams, archetypes (B. Mark, personal communication, May 9, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006), and collective unconscious and synchronicity, which draw on Eastern

philosophy (Chang & Page, 1991). Using his analytical psychology approach, Jung had people do life reviews, and even examined Wilson, co-founder of 12-step programs, in an effort to explore human consciousness (Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006).

Erickson was the father of hypnotherapy and his work was about asking, rather than telling, which provided a huge opportunity for coaching to develop. He “showed how people were part of a system, and when the system changed, the people changed also” (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006). His work was the precursor to Neuro-Linguistic Programming, human and family systems theory, and solution-focused therapy (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006).

Maslow, a student of Adler (L. Page, personal communication, March 18, 2006), was the father of humanistic and transpersonal psychology. He had a theory of human motivations with a hierarchy of needs, including the need for self-actualization (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006). “Self-actualization . . . was really about being effective in the world and expressing one’s passion in ways that are ultimately of service to the world and to the individual” (S. Emery, personal communication, May 11, 2007). “Coaching in the West started with Maslow, who said psychology can be more about what’s people’s potentially” (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006).

“People like Abraham Maslow provided the crucible in which Tim Gallwey could do what he did” (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006).

Humanist psychologists Perls, Rogers, and Ellis described the importance of the therapist-client fit (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; D. Ellis, personal communication, May 11, 2007) over the technique used.

Rogers developed the client-centered approach where the focus was on the client’s goals with the client leading much of the process, and not about treating mental illness or seeing clients as having problems (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; M. Blair, personal communication, May 3, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006). Rogers’ philosophy that the “client is the only one that can heal themselves—love, support, and unconditional positive regard in an environment of total acceptance, without judgment, allow them to speak, and we listen more than we talk” (P. Reding, personal communication, March 21, 2006) is foundational for the ICF core competencies and coactive coaching approach.

Perls developed Gestalt therapy, for the normal person, with two streams: one for therapists and one for people wanting to make their life better (D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006). His empty chair technique, conversing with different parts of self, paying attention to body and somatic expressions, has been adapted to coaching (Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006).

A. Ellis was a “key figure in the development of cognitive therapy . . . who broke with Freudian tradition in the 1960s to forge his own psychotherapy based upon the relationship between conscious thought, emotions and happiness” (Peltier, 2001, p. 82). His rational emotive therapy said we can change our thinking by how we speak to

ourselves. This relates directly to reframing and “relinguaging” in coaching (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006).

“In 1957, Chris Argyris . . . was one of the first to conduct team building sessions with a CEO and the top executive team [and] interacted with many of the early leaders in the T-group and OD fields” (French & Bell, 1999, pp. 35–36). According to Berquist, Argyris’s and Schon’s influence on coaching has been indirect and is the “distinction between espoused theory and theory in use [and] . . . there’s a fair amount of people in coaching that are working with individuals about the discrepancy between what they say and what they do” (personal communication, June 22, 2006).

More recent originators from psychology include Goleman, Seligman, Csikszentmihalyi, and Wilber. Goleman popularized emotional intelligence from Howard Gardner’s work in the late 1990s, on the heels of studies conducted by Peter Salovey and Jack Mayer at Columbia University (M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006). His model contains the four elements of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (M. Nicholas, personal communication, March 27, 2007). Goleman’s work made it “OK for senior business leaders to talk about soft areas and their impact on performance” (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007). Seligman fathered positive psychology, which focuses on optimism and happiness and requires an understanding of emotional intelligence (J. Auerbach, personal communication, April 12, 2006; B. Dean, personal communication, April 3, 2007; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006). “The heart of positive psychology, like coaching, lies in the practitioner’s choice to shift attention away from pathology and pain

and direct it toward a clear-eyed concentration on strength, vision, and dreams” (Kauffman, 2006, p. 220). Kauffman goes on to say that “positive psychology theory and research will provide the scientific legs upon which the field of coaching can firmly stand” (p. 221). Since 1966, Csikszentmihalyi “has studied the capacity to be a full participant in life . . . [and identified that] the experience of flow is when you are able to be completely caught up in what you are doing and time flies” (p. 227). Bergquist states that, “psychology is going through a revolution with positive psychology movement and . . . [the] general shift in the zeitgeist of psychology has had an indirect influence on coaching” (personal communication, June 22, 2006). Wilber developed a transpersonal, systemic, holistic, and integral philosophy that is comprised of those philosophies and teachings that seek “to include the truths of body, mind, soul, and spirit” (Wilber, 2000, p. xi). Integral thinking is included in the teaching of Newfield Network, New Ventures West (T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006), B-Coach (M. Jay, personal communication, June 8, 2006), and the Gestalt Institute of Cleveland (D. Siminovitch, personal communication May 11, 2006).

Bandler and Grinder (from linguistics) were creators of NLP who modeled and imitated the intuitive language of Erickson, Satir, and Perls (J. Elflin, personal communication, July 3, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006). Their basic premise was that language is linked to our neurology, and it reflects the internal structures. If you can look at the different ways we structure language and relationships they can indicate how we structure reality (J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006). Some contributions of NLP to coaching (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006; J. Elflin, personal communication, July 3, 2006; J. Staggs, personal

communication, June 8, 2006) include visualization, repetition, modeling, and methods of asking great questions.

An NLP trainer who studied under Bandler and Grinder, “Dilts interpreted Gregory Bateson’s work with logical levels and this introduced the power of systemic thinking as a framework for asking great questions” (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006). Aubrey actually “started in an NLP training program in California with Robert Dilts in 1997” (personal communication, June 6, 2006) when a classmate introduced her to coaching.

Business. Originators from the business sector include Drucker, Blanchard, Covey, and Peters from leadership; Block and Schein from consulting; Cooperrider and Senge from organization development; and Erhard from sales and large group awareness training.

Interviewees credit Erhard with popularizing personal development (R. Britten, personal communication, April 23, 2007; R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; A. Collins, personal communication, May 1, 2006). As Whitmore said, “I wouldn’t say Werner Erhard was a coach—but his training had such a big impact at the time, and the important thing about his training was that he reached a lot of people who never thought of doing a lot of growth and personal development stuff” (personal communication, March 22, 2006). While Erhard never wrote any books specifically on coaching, it would appear from some sources that he trained 750,000 people between 1971 and 1981, and 1.4 million people were exposed to his materials (WEA, 2007). Two of Erhard’s lasting contributions are his position on self-responsibility and the ability to teach transformational ideas to large groups of people (J. Whitmore, personal

communication, March 22, 2006). Twenty-seven (15.9%) of interviewees had something significant to say about Erhard's influence on them and on Flores. Erhard's process of creation was "you synthesize something from another perspective, you take those ideas and synthesize something from another perspective so that you come up with something new that has a value for people that the ideas by themselves don't have" (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006). Erhard began in 1971 with est, Erhard Sensitivity Training (D. Ellis, personal communication, May 11, 2007). One of the main contributions he made was to demonstrate how the particular techniques he was using to help people grow and develop could be used on a large scale (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006). Erhard created a language, technology, and a vocabulary (R. Britten, personal communication, April 23, 2007; D. McNeill, personal communication, May 16, 2006) in concepts such as breakthrough thinking, winning formulas, and how people have winning formulas and need to get beyond them (J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006). In the mid-1970s Erhard teamed his network with Flores content, and it was under Flores influence that est training became the Forum (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006). Echevarria stated that, "Flores brought to Erhard's circle the philosophies of Heidegger and Searle" (personal communication, April 21, 2006). In 1980 Erhard focused his personal transformation technology on business through Transformational Technologies, the business division of Werner Erhard & Associates. These franchise consultancies were licensed to use Landmark material with CEOs and training in communication techniques and breakthrough thinking (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006; H. Kimsey-

House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006). Evered and Selman (1989) described Erhard as:

The sometimes controversial founder of ‘est,’ [who] focused much of his work in the past decade on coaching, both as a coach and as one being coached. His research and studies into coaching have included thousands of hours of being formally coached in a variety of disciplines, culminating in a comprehensive theory and technology for implementing principles of coaching in the workplace. (p. 12)

Erhard’s work, along with other thinkers of the time, was “an interesting blend of philosophy, psychology, sociology, spirituality, and life affirming wisdom—which perfectly prepared me for becoming a coach” (S. Anderson, personal communication, May 22, 2006).

Blanchard, with Hersey, developed the situational leadership model in the 1960s and followed up in 1995 with a book co-authored with Shula applying sports coaching into business practice (R. Echevarria, personal communication, April 21, 2006; M. Homan, personal communication, March 6, 2006; A. Hurley, personal communication, November 9, 2006). This book presented:

A simple acronym that describes the qualities of an effective leader.

Conviction-driven *Never compromise your beliefs.*

Overlearning *Practice until it’s perfect.*

Audible-ready *Know when to change.*

Consistency *Respond predictably to performance.*

Honesty-based *Walk your talk* (Shula & Blanchard, 1995, back cover).

In 2001, The Ken Blanchard Companies spun off a coaching company to provide coaching services to business (M. Homan, personal communication, March 6, 2006).

Appreciative inquiry (AI) was proposed by originator Cooperrider and his colleague Srivastva as a variation of action research. That theory “contends that organizations do not present a problem to be solved but a miracle to be embraced . . . Appreciative inquiry advocated four principles for research on organizations: research should begin with appreciation, should be applicable, should be provocative, and should be collaborative” (French & Bell, 1999, p. 139). Appreciative inquiry uses the same kinds of skills as coaching and has been an influence (W. Bergquist, personal communication, June 22, 2006; R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; M. Sinclair, personal communication, June 21, 2006). Auerbach says, “with AI, we ask, what’s going really well around here and what’s the dream of how you want it to be? And let’s collect best stories of how we’re really at our best and then let’s create more of that . . . you can use it in individual coaching from the first coaching session” (personal communication, April 12, 2006).

Senge was a student of Argyris and Schon (W. Bergquist, personal communication, June 22, 2006), who “writes extensively about the importance of systems thinking (‘the fifth discipline’) in organizations, and about the learning disabilities that plague organizations” (French & Bell, 1999, p. 47). According to Selman, “Peter Senge, Werner Erhard, and I were pals back in the ’70s . . . [and Peter’s] firm was highly successful and popularizing some of the transformational ideas” (personal communication, July 7, 2006). Interviewees commented on Senge’s influence on coaching (M. Homan, personal communication, March 6, 2006; D. Lane, personal

communication, June 16, 2006; J. Tandburg, personal communication, April 25, 2006). Moritz described Senge's work as "looking at how a system itself can change and learn from what it has done, as opposed to not learn from it" (personal communication, May 3, 2006), which is similar to what coaching does with individuals.

Schein coined the term "process consultation" in the late 1960s where "the consultant's role is more nondirective and questioning as he or she gets the groups to solve their own problems" (French & Bell, 1999, p. 163). Blair says that "if you take a look at Ed Schein's process consultation, in many ways he talks about coaching in there. . . [It is] a coaching mechanism; it's a case of observation and feedback to the client" (personal communication, May 3, 2006). Carr stated, "Edgar Schein . . . used the term *process consultation*, which is identical to executive coaching" (personal communication, June 13, 2006), and Maltbia sees process consultation as very similar to executive coaching (personal communication, October 27, 2006). Laske sees process consultation as foundational to the interdevelopmental coaching approach (O. Laske, personal communication, June 6, 2006).

Block (1999) was a student of Argyris in the 1960s who described a consulting approach based on "valuing the relationship between consultant and client and defining how to manage that relationship" (p. xvii) and "being as authentic as you can be at all times with the client" (p. xxiii). Block's *collaborative role* for consultants is based on Schein's *process consultation* role and "the basic concepts on contracting are drawn from Gestalt psychology" (p. xxvi). O'Neill describes Block's approach as "you are in a partnership with the client . . . you are avoiding two extremes. On the one hand, you are not telling them what to do, and on the other hand, you are not just a pair of hands doing

what they want you to do” (personal communication, July 7, 2006). Storjohann stated, “coaches could benefit from reading *Flawless Consulting* by Peter Block” (personal communication, May 29, 2006) regarding the contracting piece of their work.

Drucker is described by Bergquist as “the last of the modern guru’s of management” (personal communication, June 22, 2006) and by Byrne (2005) as having the ability to focus on opportunities rather than problems . . . [and] frame questions that could uncover the larger issues standing in the way of performance” (paragraph 1), rather than providing answers. Drucker identified five ways executives did their work: planning, organizing, controlling, motivating, and coordinating (Minahan, 2006). The principles presented in Drucker’s 1969 book were re-presented in Covey’s (1989) book as “an actionable, sequential framework of thinking” (Covey, 2004, p. 60).

Covey’s (1989) seven habits of effective people present a self-coaching approach as a progression from self-awareness to abundance mentality to self-renewal. As Jay stated:

I don’t think many people called Covey a coach, but if you go back and look at principle-centered leadership, when he talks about how to create win-win agreements, which we call performance agreements . . . that’s probably part of the first formal systems that I could place in my performance coaching framework.
(personal communication, June 8, 2006)

Covey (2004) talked about focusing on finding your voice and inspiring others to find theirs, which is the tenet of coaching.

Peters is known for his excellence theories of the 1970s (A. Hurley, personal communication, November 9, 2006) and as a motivational speaker (A. Durand, personal communication, June 21, 2006). According to Sharpe (1997):

Nancy Austin and Tom Peters in *A Passion for Excellence* define coaching as “face-to-face leadership that pulls together people with diverse backgrounds, talents, experiences, and interests; encourages them to step up to responsibility and continued achievement, and treats them as full-scale partners and contributors.” It is the process used by managers to empower individual employees to put forth their best efforts, that is, to reach the limits of their abilities. (p. 1)

Hudson (1999) also recognized Peters, among others, for articulating a new approach to career planning. Echevarria (2004) asserted that “Tom Peters reiterated that listening is perhaps the most important skill of today’s manager . . . he who knows how to listen is able to trace paths of learning” (p. 8).

Other. Originators from other disciplines include: Tracy, Carnegie, Nightingale, Hill, Dyer, and Zigler from motivation; Flores, Heidegger, Shula, Wooden, and Auerbach from sports; and Grinder from linguistics.

An important minister in the Allende government, Flores came to the United States through Amnesty International after the September 11, 1973 coup in Chile and completed his dissertation at Berkley with Erhard’s sponsorship (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006; J. Olalla, personal communication, March 22, 2006; D. Siminovitch, personal communication, May 11, 2006). Flores contributed to coaching the concept of the power

of language to coordinate action (Flaherty, 2006). Semantic coaching (also known as linguistic coaching or linguistic ontology) is a system of conversational analysis and communication design developed by Flores, who holds that, “language does not describe a pre-existing world, but creates the world about which it speaks” (Winograd & Flores, 1986, p. 174). Flores looked at communication as an action in which the speaker makes a commitment to the listener. This approach “opened up new possibilities for helping people to avoid misunderstandings and to work together more effectively” (Caccia, 1996). Sieler sees this communication and deep change as the hallmarks of coaching, and:

According to Fernando Flores, the originator of an ontological approach to coaching, mastery in any specialist domain of human activity, such as coaching, involves an appreciation and deep understanding of the larger historical circumstances in which excellence in performance occurs. Humans are historical beings . . . and existence always occurs within a historical context which has social, economic, political and cultural dimensions. Ontological coaches, and the people they coach, live and work within a historical context. (pp. 42–43)

Interviewees highlighted Flores grounding in the philosophy of Austin, Heidegger, and Searle (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). An existentialist philosopher, Heidegger’s theories about the nature of biological existence, language, and human action (Winograd & Flores, 1986) influenced Flores and ontological coaching (Echevarria, 1997; J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006; J. Selman, personal

communication, July 7, 2006; J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006).

“Heidegger built on Kierkegaard’s work” (Peltier, 2001, p. 157) and “used ‘transparency’ to refer to what is so familiar that we are not aware of its presence” (Sieler, 2003, p. 317), just as coaches are referred to as transparent in the coaching relationship. According to Sieler, Flores was influenced by Maturana’s:

Novel, yet biologically grounded, ideas on perception, cognition, language and communication . . . and was able to integrate the ideas of Maturana, Heidegger and Searle to produce a new understanding of language and communication, and the formation of a new discipline. Flores invented the term ontological coaching and pursued the commercial applications of this new understanding of language and communication in organizational settings, along with two other Chileans, Julio Olalla and Rafael Echevarria. (pp. 6–8)

Flores’ intellect substantially affected Erhard’s thinking and more or less framed the development of the Forum (J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). Flores contributed a particular vocabulary to coaching that included the following phrases: declaring the future, declaring what’s possible, taking a stand for yourself, making promises, making requests, making assertions and assessments, and different ways of listening to the Forum and coaching (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006). Focusing on language, distinctions, and specificity with how we use language (J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006), Flores was the first person who talked about coaching not as the world of sports (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006). Flores content and Erhard’s network came together in a program called Communication for Action in the early 1980s. Several

interviewees attended this program (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; S. Klein, personal communication, April 3, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006) and one described “in the last day of the program when you brought someone to enroll, he set up something he called coaching. We were all taught snippets of how to coach legitimately, compared to nowadays” (T. Belf, personal communication, March 30, 2006). In the mid-1980s Flores split from Erhard and created Business Design Associates (BDA), a consulting business using Echevarria, Ollala, and people from Erhard’s world. Flores had evolved past communications to a theory of business processes, learning, and emotions, with a rich body of knowledge (R. Echevarria, personal communication, April 21, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). Flores major contribution to coaching is an understanding of the generative power of language and that we create our realities, given how we use language (F. Fisher, personal communication, June 23, 2006; T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006). Twenty-one (12.4%) interviewees had something significant to say about Flores contribution to coaching.

Grinder, from linguistics, is addressed in the psychology section above along with Bandler.

According to Evered and Selman (1989), R. Auerbach participated, along with Wooden, in Erhard’s October 1987 session and was:

A legendary figure in the field of professional basketball who became coach of the Boston Celtics at the age of 24. He subsequently was their general manager and president. When Red retired, he had accumulated the extraordinary record of 1,037 wins for the Celtics, and he won the NBA Championship in nine out of his

last ten coaching seasons. He is credited with building both the Celtics team and their remarkable organization. He has the unique distinction of being named Coach-of-the-Year and Executive-of-the-Year in the same season. (p. 11)

Evered and Selman (1989) said that Wooden's:

Career as a college basketball coach is unparalleled. His record with the UCLA Bruins is unequalled, having achieved ten NCAA Championships (seven of which were consecutive). His Bruin teams also won 88 consecutive games, a still unbroken record for any collegiate sport. He continuously turned raw freshman talent into championship teams. His entire college record over 29 years is a staggering 81% (677-161). John was college Coach-of-the-Year six times, and is the only person inducted into the National Basketball Hall of Fame as both a player and a coach. (p. 12)

Shula "led the Miami Dolphins to five Super Bowl appearances and the Baltimore Colts to one—more than any other head coach in the NFL. *Sports Illustrated* magazine named Shula its 1993 Sportsman of the Year in honor of his becoming the winningest coach in NFL history" (Shula & Blanchard, 1995, back cover). This book was an inspiration to Hurley (personal communication, 2006) in developing a workshop in 1996 titled *Counselors as Coaches: Championing Change for Our Clients*. Shula (Shula & Blanchard, 1995) described the bottom-line of coaching as "motivating people to work hard and prepare to play as a team" (p. 12).

Carnegie, Nightingale, and Hill were identified as another ingredient in the roots of coaching by Carr, who described them as "very strong on how to lift yourself up using what's inside your own inner wisdom . . . to unlock the potential inside you" (personal

communication, June 13, 2006). Rando said, “they didn’t call it coaching back then, they called it motivational speaking [and] Hill, who was *Think and Grow Rich*, was the predecessor to all these” (personal communication, April 13, 2007). Bentley described it as “interesting how Dale Carnegie’s *How to Win Friends and Influence People*, some of the principles in that were coming home to roost again, even some 70 years later as core principles of organizations . . . [and] these are values and approaches, which are, to me, coaching” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). Jay described Hill and Nightingale’s materials “as a primary part of coaching literature that exists that probably started back in the 1920s and ‘30s” (personal communication, June 8, 2006).

Tracy and Zigler began as sales trainers, though they are most well known as motivational speakers (C. Rando, personal communication, April 13, 2007). In Rando’s words “everyone equates Zig Zigler as a motivational speaker, which of course he’s an outstanding motivational speaker, but the point is he came in as a sales trainer” (personal communication, April 13, 2007). Tracy has a personal or business type of coaching program, with “a method, a goal, that’s based in the teaching of the person . . . a lot of those high-end business speakers have coaching programs” (E. Hulbert, personal communication, June 19, 2006).

Dyer was a protégé of Maslow and said, “we are not separate from that which created us; we are about reconnecting to the source . . . and when we get into distress or lack direction, it’s because we have lost connection with the source” (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006).

Transmitter or first generation

The transmitter generation is composed of those influencers who took the originators' theories and models and adapted them to the emerging discipline of coaching. The earliest literature reference to these influencers was in the 1980s (Table 4-15). Of the 17 transmitter-generation influencers on coaching, 8 (41.2%) were from business, 4 (23.5%) were from psychology, 3 (17.6%) were from sports, and 2 (11.8%) from philosophy.

Table 4-15 Key Influencers on Coaching from Transmitter Generation

Name	Discipline	Decade Influence Began
David Megginson	Business	1980s
Eva Wong	Business	1990s
Laura Whitworth	Business	1990s
Mary Beth O'Neill	Business	1990s
Mike Jay	Business	1990s
Robert Hargrove	Business	1980s
Thomas Leonard	Business	1990s
James Flaherty	Philosophy	1980s
Julio Olalla	Business	1990s
Rafael Echevarria	Philosophy	1990s
David Peterson	Psychology	1980s
Frederic Hudson	Psychology	1980s late
Richard Kilburg	Psychology	1990s
Vincent Lenhardt	Psychology?	1990s

Graham Alexander	Sports	1980s
John Whitmore	Sports	1980s
Timothy Gallwey	Sports	1980s

Those with business backgrounds include: Whitworth, O’Neill, Jay, Hargrove, and Leonard from the United States; Olalla from Chile; Megginson from the United Kingdom; and Wong from China. The influencers from a psychology background include Peterson, Hudson, and Kilburg from the United States and Lenhardt from France. The three sports influencers are Whitmore and Alexander from the United Kingdom and Gallwey from the United States. Philosophy is the background for Echevarria from Chile and Flaherty from the United States.

Psychology. Hudson, Kilburg, and Peterson from the United States and Leonhardt from France are the four transmitters identified from the psychology sector.

Hudson (1999) sees mentoring as a model for coaching and believes that understanding adult development theories and concepts is important for effective coaching. Hudson’s 1999 book is grounded in developmental psychology (T. Maltbia, personal communication, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, 2006; J. Staggs, personal communication, 2006) and he brought models and theories from organizational behavior, action learning, and systems thinking into coaching (F. Hudson, personal communication, 2006; P. McLean, personal communication, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, 2006). He exemplifies an intentional line directly into traditional psychology (J. Staggs, personal communication, 2006). In the 1980s, Hudson and McLean were doing life map strategy seminars and included mentoring in the program, which organically and thoughtfully shifted in 1990 to use the word *coaching* to house the

concepts of dealing with core values and how to employ them (F. Hudson, personal communication, 2006; P. McLean, personal communication, June 28, 2006).

Kilburg (2004) applies psychodynamic theory to executive coaching and believes that: “events, feelings, thoughts, and patterns of behavior that are outside of the conscious awareness of executives can significantly influence what they decide and how they act” (p. 246) and “many methods developed largely for use in psychotherapy are transferable to coaching situations” (p. 266). He created a table that “demonstrates that there are a wide variety of situations in which coaches can profitably use psychodynamic concepts and methods” (p. 253). Active in the APA Division 13, Society of Consulting Psychology, and former president of the Society of Psychologists in Management (D. Peterson, personal communication, 2006), Kilburg was guest editor for three consulting psychology journals focusing on executive coaching as an emerging competency in the practice of consultation where “traditional organization development methods, adult education, management training, industrial-organizational psychology, and generic consultation skills are being blended together to define a subdiscipline” (Kilburg, 1996b, p. 59). Kilburg (2000) saw that

Modern approaches to organization development and coaching practice are primarily based on the conceptual foundations of general systems theory as it is applied to human organizations and behavior and interventions based on this approach most often include organizational diagnosis, process consultation, sociotechnical and structural changes, team building, coaching, and other training technologies. (p. 21)

Kilburg (2000) integrates “both systems and psychodynamic approaches by the practicing coach or consultant in real-world applications” (p. 22).

Peterson began doing his dissertation in coaching in 1987 and attended the Coaching Caucus hosted by the precursor organization to PPCA in San Francisco in March 1994 (personal communication, May 1, 2006). With Hicks, Peterson developed a coaching paradigm and built an approach around it. In Peterson’s words: “We drew from training, therapy, behavior modification, developmental psychology, social psychology, sports psychology—any domain we could think of. We made a road map of what we know about individual behavior, change, and learning. *Leader As Coach* and *Development First* were written as that paradigm” (personal communication, May 1, 2006). “In 1981, Personnel Decisions International (PDI) became the first management consulting firm to offer a coaching program that was both structured and personally tailored to accelerate individual change and development” (Peterson, 1996, p. 78). Actively involved with APA Division 13 Society of Consulting Psychology and Division 14 Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP), Peterson (1996) talks about building trust and understanding so people want to work with you. He identifies classical behavioral techniques of modeling, feedback, self-management, rewards and reinforcers, shaping and successive approximation, and behavioral practice as useful in coaching.

Leonhardt was a psychologist who introduced Transactional Analysis in Europe (M. Lorenzen, personal communication, 2006) and was one of the pioneers of coaching in France (H. Aubrey, personal communication, 2006). According to Lorenzen,

Leonhardt “published a coaching book for managers at the end of 1992 that was not translated into English” (personal communication, June 16, 2006).

Business. Individuals from the transmitter generation with a background in business include Leonard and Whitworth from finance, Hargrove from management, Jay from consulting, O’Neill from organization development, Olalla from law, and Megginson and Wong from general business.

Leonard’s contribution as a transmitter was codifying, popularizing, and globalizing the discipline of coaching. Leonard’s background is business, specifically finance, where he was working for Erhard and doing life planning on the side. Leonard, and others such as Whitworth and Whitmore, took some basic ideas and applied their business background to creating an industry that is called coaching. Vilas stated that Leonard noticed his personal financial clients wanted advice and ideas about every facet of their lives (personal communication, March 31, 2006). Whitworth said that, “in 1988, my friend Thomas Leonard created what he called a Life Planning Workshop pilot” (personal communication, April 20, 2006) and used a matrix from his financial planning of 1-3-5-15-20 years across the top and relationships, goals, careers, among others, down the side. With these and other tools, Leonard is credited with codifying coaching into a curriculum to teach people how to be a coach and that could be taught globally, taught telephonically, in the early days of coaching. As with Hargrove, “what Leonard did was articulate, simplify, commodify, and make accessible the principles of Landmark” (A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006). Buck describes Leonard as a synthesizer working with “hundreds, thousands of people to create. But while he was collaborating he also had in his vision, a vision of himself being highly impactful, being a leader, being

competitive against other companies doing similar things. He was intensely competitive and intensely collaborative at the same time” (personal communication, June 29, 2006). In addition to codifying coaching, he launched Coach U and the ICF (Appendix O).

Interviewees credit Leonard with popularizing coaching (S. Cluney, personal communication May 9, 2006; D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006), much as they credit Erhard with popularizing personal development (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; A. Collins, personal communication, May 1, 2006; D. McNeill, personal communication, May 16, 2006). Grant says, “and if you had to say who was the one person who commercialized and marketed coaching it would have to be Thomas Leonard” (personal communication, May 15, 2006). Erhard agrees that Leonard has “done a great job of putting coaching out there in the world and I respect what he’s done” (personal communication, May 23, 2006). Leonard (2006) had a publicity machine that he described:

In early 1996, the media discovered Coach University and I got to be on the major TV networks and large daily newspapers, Donahue and received coverage in a number of other countries. . . . Over 250 stories worldwide were published from February 1996 to December 1999. (p. 33)

D. Goldsmith describes expecting a *Newsweek* article’s publication by “organizing teams of people just to respond to all the phone calls coming in. It created much attention in other media for doing stories on coaching, whether it was just an enormous amount of newspaper, radio, or TV, it came out of from the *Newsweek* article” (personal communication, May 4, 2006). Leonard wrote *The Portable Coach* in 1998,

which reached number nine at Amazon.com. Peterson said in his interview, “it was Thomas who popularized coaching and helped with the market perception of executive coaching. And if he hadn’t been doing that, executive coaching never really would have taken off like it did” (personal communication, May 1, 2006). “Leonard didn’t only have books, when you talk about popularizing, that’s where you talk about creating these professional organizations and the “Ask The Coach” column in the *London Times* and the *Newsweek* article” (D. Goldsmith, personal communication, May 4, 2006). Over 50% of the interviewees specifically discussed the influence of Thomas Leonard, including the impact of his personal traits and preferences on the coaching models he developed and promoted. Because of his introverted nature and personality that “influenced the field, there would probably not have been a phone-coaching model if it had not been for him” (L. Miller, personal communication, May 9, 2006). This points out how the personal characteristics of a transmitter can have a deep impact on the discipline.

L. Whitworth contributed the concepts of humanistic principles, professionalization, and inclusion to the discipline of coaching. Her background was finance, as with Leonard’s, and mixed with an eclectic background of personal development. As Whitworth said, “I think I thought that I discovered it [coaching] and Thomas thought that he discovered it [coaching] and both of us had been influenced by Werner Erhard” (personal communication, April 20, 2006). L. Whitworth came into coaching from doing a Leonard life planning course called “Life Creates Your Life” in 1988 (J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006; L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006) and was sharing an office with Leonard by the end of that year. According to L. Whitworth:

Tim [Gallwey] was my coach for a while when I was I was looking for a coach . . . [and] when I started my coaching, they did use the terminology *coaching* at Landmark and they also had a very strong forceful approach and I wanted to back away from that . . . I did everything I could to make sure that everything I did didn't look like, sound like, Werner Erhard & Associates. (personal communication, 2006)

“In March 1992, I and H. Kimsey-House conducted The Coaches Training Institute (CTI) first workshop” (L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). CTI's coactive coaching model is humanistic and presents coaching principles of: people are naturally creative, resourceful, and whole; coach whole person, hold the client's agenda; discussion, powerful questions, visualization, and guided imagery facilitate development of coaching goals fulfillment, balance, and process; and each alliance is custom designed. (Whitworth, Kimsey-House, & Sandahl, 1998) Focused on the professionalization of coaching through inclusion and collaboration, Whitworth initiated a coaching caucus in 1994 to explore the need for a professional association, from which the Professional and Personal Coaches Association (PPCA) was launched in 1995 (Appendix O). In 1998 L. Whitworth saw an evolutionary branching between coaching and executive coaching, and to address this branching initiated the Executive Coaching Summit event, which first took place in 1999.

Hargrove's background in management and personal development with Erhard goes back to 1975 where he was involved in many of the programs (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006). According to Selman, “Robert Hargrove, who wrote *Masterful Coaching*, is another one of the early people that took Werner's ideas and went

on to do his own thing with them” (personal communication, July 7, 2006). Believing human possibility and motivation are foundational for coaching, Hargrove (1995) states, “masterful coaching is about empowering people to create a future they truly desire based on unearthing what they passionately care about” (p. 20). Hargrove called this new style of management “transformational coaching” (p. 1), because it shows people how to transform or stretch their visions, values, and abilities.

Jay’s background is consulting and as he said:

I was working as an independent consultant at the time though in 1988 when I felt like I tipped into coaching . . . [when approached by a man wanting] the practical information that he felt like he needed and he had heard that I was a person that could do that and he wanted to know if I would help him. So that’s what really started my coaching career at that time, generally speaking, mostly as a consultant. (personal communication, June 8, 2006)

Jay (1999) stated that:

A more correct term to describe the current phenomena around coaching would be to state that everyone should be coaching—using the KSAs [knowledge, skills, abilities] to promote personal and organizational effectiveness . . . [and that] any kind of coaching has in common at least one, and more often than not, all four critical outcomes of coaching. . . . an improvement in well-being, purposeful behavior, higher levels of competence, [and] increased awareness. (pp. 20–21)

Jay’s contribution to coaching is stirring the pot, identifying what is missing, and innovating (M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 8, 2006; K. Sloan, personal communication, April 13, 2007).

O'Neill applies elements of classic organization development to executive coaching, including coach self-management, organization behavior, and family and organization systems (W. Bergquist, personal communication, June 22, 2006; L. Smith, personal communication, July 3, 2006). Her approach is based on having a results orientation to a leader's problem, partnership, the ability to engage the executive in the specific leadership challenges he faces, and linking team behaviors to the bottom-line goals while pointing out the need for executives to set specific expectations with their teams (O'Neill, 2000). As O'Neill says, it was "the Human Potential Movement that influenced the field of process consulting . . . the process consulting model and value is that the people know what is best (personal communication, July 7, 2006), which aligns with coaching.

Olalla, who was affiliated with Flores, cofounded Newfield Network with Echevarria in 1990 to provide coach training to individuals for their personal growth (T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006). According to Olalla, "their philosophical approach to coaching was based on the principle that emotions are the way human beings are compelled to act and that language cannot be comprehended if you don't consider the emotional dimensions of it" (personal communication, March 22, 2006). Interviewees stated that Olalla is really the force for coaching in South America (M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006; S. Sinnestera, personal communication, July 10, 2006). According to Mitsch, Olalla "adopted some philosophies of Carolyn Myss and the archetypal behavior we engage in and Wilber's work about the levels of consciousness" (personal communication, May 23, 2006) and is "very

connected to Margaret Wheatley [and her] applied systems theory to organizations” (M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006).

Megginson published one of the first coaching books in 1979 and defined coaching as “a process in which a manager, through direct discussion and guided activity, helps a colleague to learn to solve a problem, or to do a task, better than would otherwise have been the case” (Megginson & Boydell, 1979, p. 5). Megginson, along with Clutterbuck, founded the European Mentoring Council in 1991 and refocused it in 2002 to include coaching. According to Rosinski, Megginson played a “role in really bringing coaching into academia” (personal communication, June 29, 2006).

Wong pioneered coaching in China in the mid-1990s when it was “viewed as Western [and] mixed Eastern culture with this Western management tool” (C. Ng, personal communication, June 20, 2006). According to Wong, at Top Human “we have a vision that is very clear—we want to help China . . . [by] extending the boundary or the possibility and that people will then communicate differently within the culture” (personal communication, June 17, 2006).

Other. Transmitter influencers who are not from a background in psychology or business include Whitmore and Alexander from the United Kingdom, Flaherty and Gallwey from the United States, and Echevarria from Chile.

“Gallwey was the first to demonstrate a simple and comprehensive method of coaching that could be readily applied to almost any situation” (Whitmore, 1992, p. 7). Gallwey’s athletic model was about “stilling the mind, observing the self, and learning from the self” (L. Wildflower, personal communication, April 20, 2006). The coach’s role was to remove interferences through focusing attention in the moment (P. Goldman,

personal communication, April 24, 2007). Gallwey's crossover book in 1974 "coincided with the emergence in psychological understanding of a more optimistic model of humankind that the old behaviorist view that we are little more than empty vessels into which everything has to be poured" (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). In his book Gallwey took principles of Rogers and Maslow and applied them to tennis. This combination of humanistic and transpersonal, along with spirituality, provided a facilitative Inner Game approach that was applied first in sport and later in business (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Though Gallwey was converting the Inner Game principles into application in the workplace at the same time Whitmore was (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006), Gallwey is included in the transmitter generation because, though he actually applied psychological principles to sport, he went on to apply them to coaching in business. Twenty (11.8%) interviewees had something significant to say about Gallwey's contribution to coaching.

Whitmore was a successful professional race driver and business person before he was exposed to the Human Potential Movement through Esalen in 1970. In 1975 he made a BBC film with Gallwey about sports and how that changes consciousness (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Trained by Gallwey, Whitmore and Alexander brought the Inner Game approach to Britain in 1981 and called it coaching (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). He states that, "all the leading proponents of business coaching in Britain today, including Alexander, Downey and Whitmore, graduated from or were profoundly influenced by the Gallwey school of coaching" (J. Whitmore, 1992, p. 7). The literature of coaching as a separate discipline emerged with Whitmore's 1992 publication, which saw coaching as "primarily concerned

with the type of relationship between the coach and the coachee, and the means and style of communication used, with the facts being secondary . . . the objective of improving performance is paramount, but how that is best achieved is what is in question” (p. 2). Whitmore’s 1992 book offered tools and techniques on coaching for performance from a non-invasive and non-directive perspective (M. Nicholas, personal communication, March 27, 2007) based on awareness and responsibility. Whitmore (1992) says, “the only truly effective motivation is internal or self-motivation, which is where the coach first comes in . . . [and] whether we label it coaching, advising, counseling, or mentoring, if done well, the underlying principles and methodology remain the same” (p. 12).

Alexander, a Wimbledon junior tennis player and personal friend of Whitmore, “worked for IBM in the late 1960s and became passionate about bringing out the best in people” (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007). This led him to Erhard’s trainings and Gallwey’s Inner Game, among other approaches to human performance. He developed the GROW model in 1985 with a client (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; J. Joyce, personal communication, June 5, 2006). He set up Alexander Corporation in 1988 to employ people and scale his performance-oriented or performance-enhancement approach to coaching (J. Joyce, personal communication, June 5, 2006; C. Morgan, personal communication, April 19, 2007).

Flaherty, Olalla, and Echevarria were students of Flores who took his work and influence, merged it with their own work, and created New Ventures West in 1986 and Newfield Network in 1990 respectively. Each played a major role in the development of ontological coaching (Sieler, 2003; J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006).

Ontological coaching believes “language is an essential part of coaching and, in fact, it could be said that the essential job of the coach is to provide a new language for the client” (Flaherty, 2005, p. 30).

Flaherty and Olalla are very much aligned in their philosophy and have a lot of the same lineage and “work with clients from an integral and holistic perspective of language, body, and emotions” (T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006). Staggs believes that “James Flaherty has the strongest intellectual understanding and grounding in those philosophical positions of those [Maturana, Heidegger, Wittgenstein] philosophers underpinning his work” (personal communication, June 8, 2006). According to Bell, in the forward, Flaherty (2005) writes from the interpretations of: “1) Human beings create themselves in language, continuously shaping and re-shaping the narratives in which they make sense of their worlds . . . 2) Human beings are biological creatures all the way down . . . and 3) Human beings are paradoxical, at once far more creatures of habit than most of us like to think, and at the same time far more malleable” (p. xii). Flaherty sees the impact of language taking a more prominent role in philosophy as a key influence in the emergence of coaching, particularly the ontological and integral coach approaches. In addition to Flores philosophical knowledge, Flaherty “used Wilber’s frameworks to organize ideas and principles and ways of understanding what was going on . . . [and] the body stuff from Heckler and my background as a Rolfer . . . [and] Zen Buddhism, which is totally practice-based . . . [and] how we are living” (personal communication, May 5, 2006). According to Selman, “Flaherty is much more into the process and the how of it [coaching] than the quality of being that one needs to have in order to be in coaching (personal communication, July 7, 2006).

Echevarria and Olalla were both protégé's of Flores and had been forced into exile from Chile in 1973 (Echevarria, personal communication, April 21, 2006). According to Echevarria, "I'm a sociologist by training and did my Ph.D. thesis on dialectical thinking . . . I worked from 1988–1990 with Fernando Flores [and] that got me in touch with what coaching was" (personal communication, April 21, 2006). He states that:

Ontological coaching, therefore, is a practice that comes from a new theoretical discourse about human beings . . . [and] the very specific understanding of what it means to be human . . . we base our coaching interventions on a platform of mutual respect and positivity, on a caring disposition towards the coachee that becomes pervasive all along the coaching process.

After cofounding The Newfield Group in 1990, Echevarria left in the mid-1990s "to work more with organizations" (T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006) and in 2004 was offering business coach-training programs in Spain, South America, and North America (Echevarria, 2004, p. 10)

Second and later generations

Thirty individuals comprise the second and later generations, with their influence beginning in the 1990s (Table 4-16). Fifteen (50.0%) have a business background, 11 (36.7%) have a psychology background, 2 (6.7%) are from performing arts, and 1 each (3.3%) from sports and motivation.

Table 4-16 Key Influencers on Coaching from Second and Later Generations

Name	Discipline	Decade Influence Began
C.J. Hayden	Business	1990s
Cheryl Richardson	Business	1990s
Henry Kimsey-House	Performing Arts	1990s
Jeannine Sandstrom	Business	1990s
Laura Berman-Fortgang	Performing Arts	1990s
Lee Smith	Business	1990s
Myles Downey	Sports	1990s
Sandy Vilas	Business	1990s
Teri E Belf	Business	1990s
Anthony Grant	Psychology	1990s late
Anthony Robbins	Motivation	1990s late
David Clutterbuck	Business	1990s late
Jeffrey Auerbach	Psychology	1990s late
Linda Miller	Psychology	1990s late
Marshall Goldsmith	Business	1990s late
Patrick Williams	Psychology	1990s late
Phil Sandahl	Business	1990s late
Richard Strozzi-Heckler	Psychology	1990s late
Suzanne Skiffington	Psychology	1990s late
Dave Buck	Business	2000s
David Lane	Psychology	2000s

David Rock	Business	2000s
Dianne Stober	Psychology	2000s
Gary Collins	Psychology	2000s
Ian McDermott	Business	2000s
Jane Creswell	Business	2000s
Otto Laske	Psychology	2000s
William Bergquist	Psychology	2000s
Alain Cardon	Business	2000s late
Alan Sieler	Business	2000s late

Fifty percent (50%) of the second- and later-generation influencers were introduced to coaching through an originator or a transmitter (Appendix P). These include: C. Richardson, Vilas, Berman-Fortgang, Auerbach, Smith, Sandstrom, Williams, Miller, Buck, and Creswell directly or indirectly from Leonard; Hayden, Sandahl, and H. Kimsey-House from Whitworth; Downey from Whitmore; Belf indirectly from Erhard; and Strozzi-Heckler from Flores. Data suggested that the other 15 second-generation influencers were not trained or linked with an influencer from the originator or transmitter generation. These 15 include: Cardon, Sieler, Clutterbuck, Rock, McDermott, and M. Goldsmith from business; Grant, Lane, Stober, Collins, Laske, Skiffington, and Bergquist from psychology; Robbins from motivation; and P. Richardson from education.

Psychology. Eleven of the second-generation influencers have a background in psychology. They include Lane from the United Kingdom, and Grant and Skiffington from Australia. The remaining eight influencers are from the United States and include: Stober, Collins, Auerbach, Miller, Laske, Williams, Strozzi-Heckler, and Bergquist.

Grant has an extensive background in personal growth and development as well as a background in cognitive psychology, he coined the term “coaching psychology” and completed his Ph.D. in coaching psychology called *Towards A Psychology of Coaching* in 1999 (A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006). Cavanagh and Grant (2006) note that “coaching psychology uses theories and techniques developed across the breadth of the psychological enterprise . . . hence, the breadth of knowledge-base, rather than its uniqueness, is one of the features that distinguishes coaching psychology from other forms of psychological practice” (p. 150). Grant started the coaching psychology program at the University of Sydney in 2000 and is a prolific coaching researcher and writer, with 3 books and over 10 chapters and articles.

Skiffington, a Ph.D. clinical psychologist, founded AAA Coaching Partners in 1997 to provide coaching services to organizations and is a proponent of behavioral coaching, which she says, “integrates research from many disciplines . . . [and] focuses on knowledge, skills, experiences and behaviors (values, emotions, attitude, feelings etc.) that are *work related*” (1 To 1 Coaching School, 2006, p. 1). As Grant said, “she’s written some very good book . . . [and] uses the terms coaching psychology and evidence-based coaching (personal communication, May 15, 2006).

According to Lane, a Ph.D. clinical psychologist, “I first came into coaching indirectly . . . [in] the 1970s when I was working in the education system . . . to help them [head teachers] think thorough the changes they would make in their organizations to make them more effective” (personal communication, June 16, 2006). Lane’s contributions to coaching are in the areas of Codes of Conduct and Standards through the EMCC, and developing the WABC accreditation program (WABC, 2007).

Stober, a Ph.D. in clinical psychology, “as a contributor to the development of coaching as a profession . . . has presented and published her work in a variety of scholarly and professional venues such as the American Psychological Association, the International Coach Federation, and the Professional Coach and Mentor Association, [and] the Australian Evidence-Based Coaching Conference” (Grant & Stober, 2006, p. xvii). Identified as an emerging influencer, she, along with Lane, Cavanaugh, and Bennett, form the steering committee for the 2008 Global Convention on Coaching (GCC, 2008).

Auerbach, a Ph.D. psychologist, is the founder of the College of Executive Coaching. As he said, “it was around 1988 that I began to do some work over the phone that was coaching-like work, but I wasn’t calling it coaching at the time but focusing on helping people—often in career transition” (personal communication, April 12, 2006). Auerbach (2001) wrote his book for therapists who are interested in making the transition to coaching. He describes coaching as “a helping path that builds on therapists’ communication skills and knowledge of human behavior . . . [that] provides a framework for working with high-functioning clients” (p. 28).

Laske, a Ph.D. psychologist, says, “my background came initially from philosophy . . . out of the Frankfurt school . . . [and] I’m combining philosophy and psychology, but I’m strongly, empirically orientated toward assessment” (personal communication, June 6, 2006). He founded the Interdevelopmental Institute (IDM) in the late 1990s for developmental coaches. Laske (2005) “teaches assessments as a tool for engaging in, or bringing about, self transformation” (p. 13).

Bergquist describes his background as follows: “I’m a psychologist . . . [and] got involved with that [organization development] early on working with the NTL Institute” (personal communication, June 22, 2006). According to Bergquist, in 1986 he became owner and president of a graduate school. Sloan attended Bergquist’s William James Institute—Professional School of Psychology in Sacramento, which was an executive coaching program for psychologists, a year long program in 1997–1998” (personal communication, April 13, 2007). Bergquist and several other individuals wrote an executive coaching book in 1999 from an appreciative approach. In 2003, Bergquist and Lazar launched the *International Journal of Coaching in Organizations* (IJCO) and were involved in the founding of the International Consortium of Coaching in Organizations (ICCO) in 2004.

According to Miller, “I was at a National Mental Health Board retreat that I was serving on, and one of the women on the board started to tell me about coaching in Spring 1995 . . . [and] I came home from that retreat and hired a coach the next day” (personal communication, May 9, 2006). Miller and Brock started the Puget Sound Coaching chapter in 1996. Miller helped launch Corporate Coach U in 1997, which was the first corporate coaching program in the world, she then went on to help launch Coaching.com in 2000 as part of The Ken Blanchard Companies. Miller does coaching from a Christian perspective (J. Creswell, personal communication, December 13, 2006). As Smith said, Miller is involved “with coaching within churches, with people of faith” (personal correspondence, 2006). Miller said, “coaching has actually taken off in the denominational arena . . . Western Seminary launched a [coaching] program two years ago [2004]” (personal communication, May 9, 2006).

Collins is a counselor and according to Miller, “he is a friend and wrote the first Christian book called *Christian Coaching* in 2001 . . . he wrote this book because he got really intrigued by coaching” (personal communication, May 9, 2006). Collin’s book is described as “help[ing] others realize their maximum potential with a God-centered approach to coaching” (Collins, 2008, p.1).

Strozzi-Heckler is described by interviewees as doing body-oriented work and deals with Gestalt movement (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006; K. Sloan, personal communication, April 13, 2007). Olalla described what Strozzi-Heckler does as somatic learning—he specializes in the biological aspect . . . he’s really good at the body side” (personal communication, May 9, 2006). According to Strozzi-Heckler, somatics is the unity of language, action, and meaning, and:

For many years I worked with people in a body-oriented psychotherapy . . . [and] around the mid-‘80s . . . I was seeing people that were basically highly functional . . . and they had questions around meaning, purpose, and different breakdowns they were creating either in their workspace or their personal lives . . . and that was probably how the whole notion of coaching began. (personal communication, June 9, 2006)

Strozzi-Heckler went on to say that he started calling it coaching in the early 1990s when Flores brought him in to Business Design Associates, because Flores “saw that people were not shifting just through the linguistic work [and] the body had to come in” (personal communication, June 9, 2006). Strozzi-Heckler has a Ph.D. in Psychology and is a sixth degree black belt in the martial art of Aikido (Strozzi Institute, 2008).

Patrick Williams' background is humanistic and transpersonal psychology and "in 1990 as part of my therapy practice . . . I was working ten hours a week as an Executive Coach . . . and in 1996 I read about Thomas Leonard in *Newsweek*" (personal communication, March 6, 2006). Williams goes on to say that he attended and taught at Coach U. According to McNeill, Williams "first school's [Therapist U] purpose was to train psychologists to be coaches because they needed to let go of whatever they had as a psychologist in order to become a coach" (personal communication, May 16, 2006). Williams renamed his school the Institute for Life Coach Training (ILCT) and has included tracks on wellness and Christian coaching, among others.

Business. Fifteen second-generation coaches have a background in business. They include McDermott and Clutterbuck from the United Kingdom, Sieler and Rock from Australia, and Cardon from France. Those ten from the United States include C. Richardson, Vilas, Buck, M. Goldsmith, Hayden, Creswell, Smith, Sandstrom, Sandahl, and Belf.

According to C. Richardson, in the late 1980s, "I had been working as a tax consultant [and] . . . specialized in small business development and certainly discovered in doing tax work with people that a lot of life planning questions and issues would come up as a result of that work (personal communication, May 9, 2006). C. Richardson joined Coach U in 1992 and began calling herself a coach. The first president of the ICF in 1996, she also appeared in the December 1996 *New Age* magazine story, along with a few handpicked experienced coaches who would speak authentically about the profession (C. Richardson, personal communication, May 9, 2006). She authored a life-coaching book in December 1998 that appeared on the New York Times best seller list. As

Richardson said, “I wanted to bring coaching to the personal development arena because I knew that’s where the people were who would be most open to it in their lives” (personal communication, May 9, 2006).

Vilas, an entrepreneur and business person with a background in Erhard seminars, met Leonard at a 1989 training Leonard gave on life planning (S. Vilas, personal communication, March 31, 2006). According to Vilas, “Thomas [Leonard] was coaching me to become a full-time coach [and] March 1st of 1994 I became a coach full time . . . and then Thomas and I made a deal on the 4th of July, 1996 to buy the company [Coach U]” (personal communication, March 31, 2006). Vilas made Coach U into a bonafide business of training successful coaches (D. Mitsch, personal communication, May 23, 2006) and according to Buck, “I think that without Sandy [Vilas] coach U wouldn’t have been the force that it was” (personal communication, March 31, 2006).

M. Goldsmith, a Buddhist who follows the principle of help more and judge less (M. Goldsmith, personal communication, 2006), approached coaching through management consulting (L. Christian, personal communication, March 10, 2006; M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006). A pioneer in the area of 360-degree customized feedback in 1978, he was on the board of the Peter Drucker Foundation for 10 years (M. Goldsmith, personal communication, April 29, 2006). According to Goldrich and Moritz, M. Goldsmith calls himself a behavioral coach, yet what he does is a family systems intervention within an organization, focused on behavioral issues and conflict resolution (J. Goldrich, personal communication, April 7, 2006); M. Moritz, personal communication, May 3, 2006). M. Goldsmith describes his work as “coaching

successful leaders to achieve” (personal communication, April 29, 2006) by changing their behavior.

Buck, an entrepreneur with a background in sports coaching, attended the Erhard training seminars in the middle to late 1980s (J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006) and trained with Landmark Education in 1992–1993. In 1996 he began doing coaching after attending the Introduction to the Forum Leader Program, where he had a coach. He started Coach U in January 1997 (D. Buck, personal communication, June 29, 2006). Buck collaborated with Leonard on the Attraction program in 1997, followed by Personal Evolution and A Perfect Life, among others. A protégé of Leonard, he helped start Coachville with Leonard in 2001 and inherited it in February 2003, when Leonard died. In 2004 Buck, an ICF Master Certified Coach, was awarded the first annual ICF Peace Maker award for bringing Coachville and the ICF together. According to Buck, “Coachville is fascinating, and the biggest problem I have is all of Thomas’ [Leonard] creativity . . . I spent three years trying to organize what it took him one and a half years to write” (personal communication, June 29, 2006).

According to Cardon, “I started in the training field in 1976 . . . [and by 1990] got into what I would call today, team coaching, without even knowing what it was” (personal communication, June 9, 2006). In March 2003, Cardon published a coaching book in French that covers the basics of organizational team coaching. Today, Cardon says that in addition to real-time team coaching, “I offer a lot of supervision for systems coaches, team coaches, and organization coaches . . . [and] there is a lot of supervision tradition in France . . . very often in group settings with a lot of peer work on issues” (personal communication, June 9, 2006).

Sieler is an Australian ontological coach whose influence began after 2000 with the publishing of “a pretty good book on the philosophical foundations for ontological coaching” (J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). According to Christian, “in Sieler’s *Caring for the Human Soul*, the human spirit, he talks about how it started out matriarchy, then we turned into a patriarchy, but before that it was the whole female matriarchal government. And what his premise is now we’re seeing a variety of movements on an equal status, talking about harmony and promoting global peace” (personal communication, March 10, 2006).

According to Hayden in “September of 1992 I was working as a productivity consultant . . . and I began calling myself a coach/consultant . . . specializing in working with women . . . who wanted an alternative career” (personal communication, April 6, 2006). By 1992, Hayden was on the steering committee of the International Association of Personal and Professional Coaches (IAPPC) and the newsletter editor. She was also on the steering committee of the Professional and Personal Coaches Association (PPCA) (D. Prior, personal communication, February 28, 2006). Hayden goes on to say, “I was heavily influenced by CTI . . . [and] I do serve as a mentor . . . because I know about marketing” (personal communication, April 6, 2006). In February 1999 Hayden published a marketing book that is a 28-day program to get clients.

Clutterbuck and Megginson founded the European Mentoring Council in the United Kingdom in 1991, which expanded to include coaching in 2002 (D. Megginson, personal communication, June 29, 2006). With Megginson in the UK, they are really the two leaders of the EMCC, which has an interesting feel of what is more academic, but I think in their way they have contributed to promoting coaching (P. Rosinski, personal

communication, May 22, 2006). According to Clutterbuck “coaching is focused on helping somebody to improve their performance [and] . . . mentoring is much more about helping somebody to grow to achieve their broader objectives” (personal communication, June 28, 2006). In December 2004 Clutterbuck and Megginson published a book on coaching and mentoring techniques, followed in January 2005 by one on creating a coaching culture.

Rock began coaching in Australia in 1996, and according to him, “in 1997 I had quite a few of those people starting to pester me about teaching them to do what I was doing [and] I spent a whole year just mapping out what it is that I do with people and trying it on them, and getting them to try it on me” (personal communication, June 8, 2006). By 2000 Rock’s company Results Coaching had branched into New Zealand, by 2001 to the United States, by 2002 to the United Kingdom and Singapore, and by 2004 to South Africa. In 2003 the New York University (NYU) program started, and according to Moritz, “I give a lot of credit to David Rock and Elizabeth Guilday who founded the certificate program in coaching at NYU . . . [and] pulled together these five disciplines that inform our model, which is the thinking model of coaching, brain-based learning” (personal communication, May 3, 2006). Since then Rock has introduced the concept of brain-based coaching at several international conferences. Siminovitch speaks of “Varela, who said if we can understand the biological events of consciousness and we understand how to discipline ourselves around consciousness, we can influence the world” and says this is where “Richard Boyatzis and David Rock meet Maturana and Varela conceptually” (personal communication, May 11, 2006).

McDermott has a background in NLP and, according to Elflin, who created the International Teaching Seminar (ITS) coaching program with him, he “has written *The NLP Coach*, which is really about coaching yourself using the background and the theories and strategies of NLP” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). Richarde asserts “the other person who’s got seven or eight books and has been in this [coaching in relation to sports and performance] conversation is Ian McDermott . . . he runs ITS in the UK and his background is NLP” (personal communication, date).

“Creswell started with IBM so she has that organizational even . . . [and is] coaching within churches with people of faith” (L. Smith, personal communication, July 3, 2006). In 1998 she “brought coaching into IBM and started the Internal Process Network at IBM” (L. Miller, personal communication, May 9, 2006). According to Creswell, by 2002 she was teaching coaching in and “impacting the organizational systems of denominations . . . I really became very thirsty to read the Bible over again, looking for support for coaching throughout scripture” (personal communication, December 13, 2006).

Smith has a Ph.D. in organizational behavior and a minor in psychology. According to Smith, “I learned about coaching in 1994 and . . . realized that when I talked as a consultant, as I talked to people I’d often said I’m your coach” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). She went on to say that, “the biggest thread of influence for me was learning about systems behavior, because we don’t live in a vacuum.” Smith and Sandstrom met at Coach U and “were writing the Coaching Clinic in 1994–1997 . . . [and] looking to build those distinctions of coaching [and] bringing the methodology

from psychology, social science, education, human development literature” (J. Sandstrom, personal communication, June 28, 2006).

According to Sandstrom, “I realized that I was using the phrase *coaching* in the late 1980s . . . when I was with a career transition company in Dallas . . . they had begun to use it within the Human Resource Development (HRD) environment to distinguish from teaching, training, and consulting” (personal communication, June 28, 2006). Along with Smith, Sandstrom was involved in creating the Coaching Clinic for CoachInc and starting the Executive Coach Summit in 1998. Smith has been in business with Sandstrom since 1996, and they base their “Legacy Leadership work . . . on our concept of the relationship building . . . besides accomplishing good business results, you have to build good relationships” (L. Smith, personal communication, July 3, 2006).

According to Sandahl, “I was a freelance writer for 16 to 17 years working primarily in business communication . . . and a fair amount of executive speech writing” (personal communication, November 20, 2006). While attending CTI, Sandahl, along with Whitworth and H. Kimsey-House, wrote and published the *Co-Active Coaching* book in November 1998 (L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). When Enomoto took the CTI training to Japan in 2000, Sandahl spent 18 months training and certifying coaches alongside Enomoto.

In 1987 Belf, a middle manager in the human resources or training and development fields, became a coaching client of Hedges (now McGhee) from Results Unlimited in the United Kingdom, and by 1988 became a certified coach. As McGhee described it, “I was doing coaching under Success Unlimited and sold it to Teri-E Belf . . . it was a long term coaching program . . . integrated approach to your increasing your

ability to see results and be successful in the world” (personal communication, April 24, 2007), which Belf renamed Success Unlimited Network (SUN). One of Belf’s greatest contributions to the coaching industry, as described by Lowry, is:

We have a credentials program because of Teri-E [Belf]. . . we would never have had any of it, a rating system, a rationale . . . she got the number one credential . . . we gave that to her, honorary, she earned it, but that’s also an honor because we wanted her to have the first credential that was ever given because she was the godmother of it. (personal communication, May 4, 2006)

Other. The remaining identified second-generation coaches include Berman-Fortgang and H. Kimsey-House from the performing arts, as well as motivational guru Robbins and Downey from sports.

Berman-Fortgang was an actor and student of the *Course of Miracles* who came to coaching in 1990 through being a client. As Vilas described it, “she was in the first Coach U class in September 1992 (personal communication, March 31, 2006). Berman-Fortgang authored a career-coaching book in June 1998 and in January 1999 was the first to appear on the Oprah show (C. Richardson, personal communication, May 9, 2006). As Berman-Fortgang said, “I can see in hindsight that the acting was completely part of some greater plan because it gave me complete comfort to be a spokesperson for coaching” (personal communication, May 19, 2006).

An entrepreneur and actor, H. Kimsey-House was trained as an actor in the Meisner technique, which used emotion and imagination to create perspective that would evoke a shift or change in someone. He noted that Gestalt therapy and acting are quite closely related, “Gestalt therapy is very much you occupy the other person’s chair. You

do a lot of perspective shifting and feeling into the other character” (personal communication, April 25, 2006). Steeped in personal growth experiences, he met Whitworth in 1988 when he was working at the Actors Information Project doing career coaching and became founder with Whitworth and K. Kimsey-House of The Coaches Training Institute in late 1992. In 1998 he coauthored *Co-Active Coaching* with L. Whitworth and Sandahl, which is one of the most influential books on coaching for people wanting to learn coaching skills and processes to use as a coaching practitioner or in other roles.

Robbins was influenced largely by NLP founders Bandler and Grinder (C. Freeman, personal communication, May 23, 2006) and did other personal growth activities, including Erhard seminars (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). He delivers his motivational program through large workshops, tapes, and products that are about finding the giant within and living with passion (K. Abrams, personal communication, May 11, 2007; I. Parlett, personal communication, June 27, 2006; J. Raim, personal communication, May 1, 2006; G. Stickney, personal communication, June 22, 2006). Though he has called himself a coach since the early 1990s, he formally started a coaching program in 1999 (C. Freeman, personal communication, May 23, 2006). According to Todorovic, “Anthony Robbins was pioneering coaching at that [empowerment and power] level because he stepped out on the stage by saying, ‘You are powerful enough, you can break through your limiting beliefs, you can have whatever you want to have,’ and it was all about empowering people to step into their personal power” (personal communication, May 9, 2007).

According to Downey, a practicing architect, his introduction to coaching was in 1984, “I met Graham Alexander and within a year of that had given up my job and was training as an Inner Game coach . . . I went from tennis player to tennis coach to sports coach to business coach” (personal communication, June 27, 2006). Joyce describes Downey as “one of the three most influential people in coaching . . . in bringing forward a more performance enhancement approach [in the United Kingdom]” (personal communication, June 5, 2006). Joyce goes on to say that Downey “runs the School of Coaching . . . it’s probably the first coaching school in the U.K.” dedicated to the development of coaching skills in leadership and independent business coaches.

Consistencies in Practitioner Background Diversity

For the originator generation, with the exception of Erhard, every originator has written a book in their respective discipline. Regardless of their background, every influencer in the transmitter generation and second generation has published a coaching book. This suggests a key to identification as an influencer is having authored a book.

Influencing practitioners in the transmitter and second generations share a background in personal growth and development. At least 9 of 17 (52.9%) influencers in the transmitter generation attended Erhard’s or a similar type of personal growth seminar. It appears that none of the four transmitters from psychology and the remaining four transmitters from business have participated in personal growth and development activities outside their respective disciplines. This suggests that personal growth seminars were an influence on the transmitter generation.

Shifts in Practitioner Background Diversity

Across influencer generations, as shown in Table 4-17, the backgrounds shifted from predominant psychology and non-business backgrounds in the originators to predominant business backgrounds in the transmitters, followed closely by non-psychology backgrounds. Backgrounds of the second and later generations continued with the predominance of business, followed by psychology, and less than 15% from backgrounds other than business and psychology.

Table 4-17 Influencer Summaries by Generation and Background

	Originator	Transmitter	Second & Later
Psychology	40.0%	23.5%	36.7%
Business	25.7%	41.2%	50.0%
Other	34.3%	35.3%	13.3%
▪ Motivation	▪ 17.1%	▪ 0	▪ 3.3%
▪ Sports	▪ 8.6%	▪ 17.6%	▪ 3.3%
▪ Philosophy	▪ 5.7%	▪ 11.8%	▪ 0
▪ Other	▪ 2.9%	▪ 0	▪ 6.7%

This supports the root discipline influence, which was predominately from psychology, for the theories and models (the originator generation) and the practical application from business (the transmitter and second generations). Worth noting is the resurgence of the psychology discipline influence in the second generation and the entry of performing arts as an influencing discipline.

As coaching builds its body of knowledge, there are many more disciplines represented and being adapted to coaching through interdisciplinary approaches. In many

cases, the relationships from the disciplinary models and theories are no longer clear with the second generation. Initially, everybody knew everybody. As people broke away from their original teachers and as the second-generation people came in from different disciplines, such as performing arts, now we have a body of people who are practicing something with the same name and doing it differently. The challenge is that boundaries between and among the disciplines themselves are no longer clear. The influence of the originators has been diluted and been changed in some parts of the discipline, in response to the addition of new influencers from later generations,

Professional Challenge

How can a uniform body of coaching knowledge that allows for the creativity and innovation that comes from practitioner background diversity be developed without blurring the boundaries with root disciplines? For example, the models and practices coaching has adapted from the psychodynamic and clinical areas of psychology become disconnected from the context in which they were developed when used in the practice of coaching. Psychodynamic and clinical psychology practices were intended for use with a challenged population by trained therapists whose training gave them insights into the origins of psychodynamic dysfunctions. Whereas in coaching we may have coaches using psychodynamic practices who do not necessarily have the theoretical understanding of where these psychodynamic disorders originate, and, therefore, how to use these interventions skillfully. As Kilberg (2000) states, “the average consultant who is working closely in coaching individuals, dyads, or management teams can benefit greatly from an increased knowledge of the unconscious dimensions and processes that influence behavior regardless of the setting” (p. 17). Another example is the adaptation of cognitive

psychology practices to coaching, which, according to J. Auerbach (2006), include the therapist helping the client to “unravel distortions in thinking and learn alternative, more realistic ways to approach the world” (p. 105). Auerbach points out that coaches using these techniques “need to know when to refer a coaching client to a therapist for treatment of mental disorders” (p. 107). The challenge of adaptation and use of psychological theories and models by persons who are not trained psychologists may have been lessened with the publication of books by Kilburg (2000), Peltier (2001), Grant, Cavanagh, and Kemp (2005), and Stober and Grant (2006) that have presented evidence-based psychological models and theories for application by coaches.

With the influences of psychology, business, and other disciplines and the adaptation of models by coaching for use by coaches, who may not be trained in these theories and models, the challenges may come more from not being clear about how these pieces fit together. This includes becoming aware of where there might be contradictions from borrowing from other disciplines or where the context in which the model was originally developed might not cleanly fit into coaching. The pattern is that coaching appears to adapt whatever works from any area that deals with the relationship and how to create change, such as improving performance, satisfaction, and action. The adaptation becomes a problem, because at times it is regardless of the context, population, and desired outcome. One part of the challenge is because pieces of the theories and models are adapted and taught without context, making it difficult for coaches to know what to apply, when, and where. For example, when you are trained as a Gestalt therapist or in Gestalt techniques as part of organizational development curriculum, part of your training is understanding the theories behind the application of

Gestalt techniques: with whom are they most suitable and with whom are they not; what type of environment is created in order to safely use Gestalt techniques, and what is the role in a Gestalt interaction? Answers to these questions form the context for the application of techniques and coaches do not necessarily have the background to understand the when and how of applying models.

To balance this challenge, some coaches do not believe it is necessary to understand the context and background envisioned when the originators developed the theories and models. The fact that there is not agreement within the coach community itself may be the real challenge. Originators came from a specific theoretical point of view. The transmitters took pieces from various points of view and created their own version of coaching. To a great extent, the transmitters merged only one or two disciplines. For example, they took pieces from humanistic psychology and sports to create a hybrid of a limited number of theoretical models such as Inner Game. What has happened with the second generations, and even some of the transmitters, is they have brought in additional disciplinary influences that are loosely connected and have adapted them to coaching.

Emergence and Evolution of Root Disciplines

This section addresses the question, “What can we learn from the evolution of root disciplines that may be relevant to the evolution of coaching?”

The literature suggests that at the beginning, any new profession lacks the “theoretical and philosophical foundations similar to those that have been formulated for the older fields” (Spurgeon & Moore, 1994). This identifies the value in understanding root disciplines emergence, and a typical formation process for a new discipline or

profession emergence. A new profession generally develops around a set of new concepts combined with some techniques for studying these concepts. During this emergence agreed upon definitions, practices, and boundaries do not exist. The emergence process includes establishing professional definitions, boundaries, ethics, and core theories (Downey, 2003). The results in this section are drawn from the literature and interviews. A graphical representation of the grouped emergence of disciplines is presented in Appendix R.

The emergence and evolution of every discipline is influenced by socioeconomic and other external factors such as related disciplines. Thus, data representing socioeconomic and generational influences are presented separately. This is followed by data on the current status of the root disciplines and indicators of emergence into professional status.

Socioeconomic Influences

Socioeconomic data are presented in two chronological areas identified as modern and postmodern. Alternating periods of conservatism and liberalism in the United States are also indicated.

Overall, the first half of the 20th century saw a transition from relatively isolated local communities to a more integrated large-scale society, and was defined by a scientific emphasis on evidence, logical thinking, and rational analysis, and what it could produce (Nevis, 1997). Nevis goes on to say that during the industrial revolution people were viewed as economic units, separated work and family, and changed the nature of occupations. From 1950 to the present the shift from an industrial to service society allowed for reintegration of family and work by changing the nature of work. Sandstrom

talked about the “1950s with Sputnik, the scientific approach of having to go through A–Z through these 13 points was the way we [United States] was going to win the world economy . . . what we have run into is it’s limitations in a world that is much more global, much more flexible, and demands real-time changes for people being at their peak . . . as a way of being” (personal communication, 2006). Nevis (1997) went on to describe the resistance to sacrifice in the name of progress as demonstrated by an environmental, anti-war, civil rights, equal opportunity, feminist, and multicultural focus. Interviewees stated that social, economic, and political changes occur more frequently as mass media, rapid technological change, migration, and globalization become the norm (T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2007; P. Richarde, personal communication, June 29, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006).

The modern era is from 1890 to 1949 and is described as including an obsession with evidence, visuality, and visibility demonstrated through discoveries in science and the transition from relatively isolated local community to a large-scale society (Nevis, 1997). The first half of the twentieth century witnessed “assaults on cultural tradition and convention, two world wars, intellectual movements that saw into and through the social construction of reality” (Anderson, 1990, p. 43). Berquist (1993) described the modern organization as “large and complex; growth was a primary criterion of success” (p. xii). Nevis continues by stating that, “in 1910 society experienced the emergence of Freud’s theories, the collective consciousness of Jung and increased industrialization (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). He states the next 20 years ushered in the Russian Revolution, World War I, the jazz age, and science rationality and that this

period from 1890 through 1930 is described as a conservative period. A liberalization period began in 1930 and continued through 1965 as daily life adopted the objects of modern production. Carnegie and other motivation gurus appeared, Rogers developed client-centered counseling, Maslow created his theory of motivation, Perls created Gestalt therapy, and National Training Laboratories (NTL) was formed (Nevis, 1997).

The postmodern period is defined as from 1950 to the present. Bergquist (1993) states, “we define everything by what is used to be (postindustrial, post capitalist, post-Marxist, post-cold war) but we do not yet know what it will become” (p. xi). Several paradigm shifts during this period disrupted the conditions of everyday life. These include paradigm shifts in physics and philosophy that challenge the rationality mindset; mass media and production; global economic arrangements; the shift from manufacturing to service economies; consumerism becoming inexpensive, while social connection and community becomes more expensive. From 1950 to 1965 the work of Skinner, Heidegger, and Maslow surged along with encounter groups, the Human Potential Movement, a proliferation of management schools, desegregation, the hippy movement, and family therapy becoming a mature discipline (Nevis, 1997). As Anderson (1990) stated, “the 1960s were the true beginning of the post modern era . . . [and] characterized events of the time as a revolt against the established culture” (p. 45), “with Leary, Watts, Laing, Zen, and acid represent[ing] one wing of what was sometimes called ‘the movement’” (p. 47). Prosser describes it as “coming out of the whole hippy idealistic culture during the 60s and the whole thing during the 70s, where everything was going on . . . about exploration . . . an enquiry was taking place and I think that was happening globally” (personal communication, March 21, 2007). In 1965 the United States entered a

conservative period that continues through today. The period from 1965 to 1980 saw manned spaceflight, antiestablishment rebellion, growth of external consultants, and focus on individual change through structural change (Nevis, 1997). Ditzler describes it “as personal transformation and personal development . . . it became safe to be a human being and to admit faults” (personal communication, December 19, 2006).

Table 4.18 summarizes literature and interview data to describe the shifts from the modern period (1890–1950) to the postmodern period (1950–present).

Table 4-18 Summary of Shifts from Modern to Postmodern Period

(Adapted from Nevis, 1997)

Modern	Postmodern
Scientific (logical, rational, objective, analytical)	Humanistic (human bonding, networking, subjective, community, collaborative)
Industrial and manufacturing society	Service and information society
Mass urban society	Mobile society (pluralist and cosmopolitan societies, migration)
Progress mentality (achieve progress through economic and technical growth and sacrifice in isolation from environmental and other contexts)	Social Responsibility (resistance to make sacrifices in name of progress, part of a larger whole, environmental)
Social fabric reliable (religion, family, school, and government trusted institutions for social values & acceptable behavior)	Social fabric crumbling (traditional institutions no longer working to convey social values and acceptable behavior)
Religion (organized and directing)	Spirituality (collective global consciousness, values, flow)
Conformist (humans are interchangeable economic units and dissociated parts)	Individualism and human potential (think for self, holistic perspective, develop all of self, personal values, authenticity)
Corporate security (retirement, job for life)	Personal responsibility (customized learning, ethics, manage careers and ability to perform, personal branding)
Linear progression (right and wrong)	Complexity (choice, options, diverse norms, demands)
Nationalistic (closed, homogenized, hierarchical, structured)	Globalization (global, multicultural, matrixed and complex, diversity; for example, multinational economies and global economic arrangements)
Mechanization	Technology (provide information access)

	and keeps us separate, and yet provides for social networking)
Rate of change predictable (orderly, natural laws)	Rate of change increasing (uncertainty, ambiguity, confusion, paradox; increasing disruptiveness and uncertainty in daily living, accelerated life cycles, learn fast, be nimble and agile)
Separation (clear boundaries, distinctions, for example, social separation of work and family life)	Reintegration (boundaries and distinctions collapsing, for example, work and family life reintegrated through virtual work and telecommuting)
Competitive (struggle for existence, work ethic)	Strive and drive culture (materialistic, consumerism, success, image, status, growth)
Pursuit of economic wealth	Pursuit of meaning, happiness, and purpose (people living longer in economic comfort)
Stability	Pressure (for performance, satisfaction, need to keep growing, changing, and/or improving)
Information controlled	Information availability (information accessibility and manipulation by all, mass media and telecommunications)
Physical and social connection	Virtual and media connection (social connection and community more expensive, Internet and media substitute for social connection)
Bureaucracy	Grass roots (ordinary people involvement in decisions; participatory culture, digital convergence)
Hierarchical, authority, command, control	Collaboration, participation and influence

Anderson (1990) believes “one reason it is so hard to tell when true cultural revolutions have occurred is that societies are terribly good at co-opting their opponents; something that starts out to destroy the prevailing social construction of reality ends up being a part of it” (p. 49). Thus, looking at what changed and what stayed the same is a moving target.

Generational Influences

I chose to group the emergence and evolution of root disciplines generationally from the perspective of psychology, business, and other.

Prior to 1900

Between the 17th and 18th centuries the natural sciences (for example biology and geology) and physical sciences (for example chemistry and physics) emerged from philosophy as separate disciplines. The end of the 18th century and into the 19th centuries saw the emergence from philosophy of the social sciences (economics, psychology, sociology, linguistics, and anthropology), which deal with aspects of human society and the individual. These social sciences began to more aggressively employ the scientific method and apply the practices used to study the natural world to the study of societies, cultures, and the mysterious workings of the human mind (Mannion, 2005). According to the Washington State University Website:

The history of the social sciences is especially rooted in the major events of the 18th century – the industrial revolution and the French Revolution. Ideas derived from theology and deductive reasoning colored the social sciences until the 19th century, when the struggle to define and research society in scientific, empirical terms developed momentum. The era of Darwin and Marx ushered the application of more positivistic (scientific) approaches to the development of the social sciences. (WSU, 2007, ¶ 4)

Psychology. Psychology began as the investigation of consciousness and mental functions such as sensation and perception (Williams, 2006b). In 1879 psychology was recognized as a separate discipline through the work of Wundt and James, who came from the philosophical tradition. Wundt used introspection to explore the structure of

thought and James examined functions and purpose of consciousness. “Consciousness and mental functioning were difficult to study objectively. Psychology was experiencing growing pains then, much as coaching is today” (p. 50).

Concurrently Freud “broke ranks with philosophers and physicians in his day by insisting that reason could be used to fearlessly explore determining forces motivating human behavior. He believed that behavior could be understood, if only we looked closely enough” (Peltier, 2001, p. 24). Trained as a neurologist, Freud developed psychoanalysis, which provided in-depth insight into human nature by hypnosis or simply talking about it. Behavior “was considered to be the result of internal drives, instincts, and conflicts. For instance, Freud believed that in order to change or remove unwanted behaviors it was necessary to explore and resolve childhood conflicts around sexuality and aggression” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 78). Freud brought us the unconscious, transference, counter transference, defense mechanisms, and resistance. His theories, although strongly pathology-based, did allow awareness of unconscious desires and subconscious mechanisms that influence behavior (Williams, 2006b).

Business. Modern management emerged as an offshoot of economics in the 19th century. By the middle of the 19th century, the human element with theories of worker training, motivation, organizational structure, and span of control had been introduced in response to needs brought on by the industrial revolution. Organization theory prior to 1900 emphasized the division of labor and the importance of machinery to facilitate labor (Wertheim, 2007). Personnel management began around the end of the 19th century, when welfare officers were established in the United Kingdom. “Their creation was a reaction to the harshness of industrial conditions, coupled with pressures arising from the

extension of the franchise, the influence of trade unions and the labor movement, and the campaigning of enlightened employers, often Quakers, for what was called 'industrial betterment'" (CIPD, 2006).

Consulting also got its start at the end of the 19th century in response to the specialization and complexity brought on by the industrial revolution. From the 1880s to the 1950s, the earliest management consultants served as subcontractors to business. "Outside advisors brought specialized knowledge, not otherwise available, into organizations that faced problems that internal staff members could not easily resolve" (McKenna, 2006, p. 11). The first independent consulting firm was an engineering firm established at the turn of the century by engineers at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (M.I.T.) (McKenna, 2006).

Other. Prior to 1900 there were few significant changes in the disciplines of sports, performing arts, or education.

1900 through 1920s

During this period there was much enthusiasm for technological advances and a science perspective prevailed, even in the root disciplines of coaching. The theory of relativity was identified in physics, and there was increasing integration of the internal combustion engine and industrialization (Nevis, 1997). The Russian revolution and World War I impacted the world, which also experienced the Roaring Twenties. Goldman described it as, "a shift from a mechanical model of the world to an organic model of the world. And when you have a mechanical model, you are looking to fix things that are broken and we get pathology-oriented approaches to working with humans

. . . so this whole zeitgeist, this is being called into existence from the early 1900s”
(personal communication, April 24, 2007).

Psychology. Freud’s psychoanalytic interpretation of personal life, which rests on the concept of making the unconscious conscious, became the first force and a benchmark for interpretation for all psychotherapy from about 1900 on. “Exploring our thoughts, feelings and fantasies is a pathway to a more truthful and enriched idea of who we are and what we want” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 35).

By the turn of the century psychology had matured such that five specialty subdisciplines were created, each with its own bodies of knowledge, tools, and methods: industrial-organizational, clinical, counseling, social, developmental, and educational psychology. Sports psychology became a separate subdiscipline in 1918 and social psychology in the 1930s (APA, 2007).

Each of these subdisciplines used theories from Freud and changed them according to the specialization.

Although Freud’s theories had a great impact and continue to be associated with literature and the arts, his emphasis on personal self-knowledge and growth was eclipsed in mainstream psychology by behaviorist theory. In the second decade of the twentieth century, behaviorism, which is associated primarily with Pavlov, Watson and Skinner, proposed that we study only overt behaviors and the way in which they are controlled, or conditioned, by external stimuli. (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 35)

Business. By 1900 managers were placing their theories on a scientific basis, which, in response to the large factories of the industrial revolution, called for

specialization of work, unity of command, hierarchical chain of command, and coordination of activities. During the 1910s there were two predominant management perspectives: scientific and classical. Scientific management described management as a science with employers having specific, but different, responsibilities, and encouraged the scientific selection, training, and development of workers and the equal division of work between workers and management. The classical approach listed the duties of a manager as planning, organizing, commanding employees, coordinating activities, and controlling performance (Wertheim, 2007). By the 1910s the personnel function was well established in the United Kingdom and the Welfare Workers' Association was formed (CIPD, 2006).

In the 1920s the human relations movement emerged and focused on the importance of the attitudes and feelings of workers; informal roles and norms influenced performance. The first comprehensive management theories from a psychological and sociological perspective were developed in the 1920s, including the famous Hawthorne Studies that found workers did not respond to classical motivational approaches as suggested by the scientific management approach and were, instead, a social system (Wertheim, 2007). Business theories and practices adapted psychological theories and models to run the business, for example, trait theories, psychoanalysis theories, and great-man theories for leadership and management (Covey, 2004).

During this time, consulting shifted from an engineering focus to a cost accounting focus. Over time the "American cost accountants of the 1920s, academics like Arthur Anderson and James McKinsey . . . shifted their professional jurisdiction from

monitoring costs as accountants to lowering costs as consultants” (McKenna, 2006, p. 28).

Other. The Russian Stanislavski revolutionized acting in the early 20th century by introducing a holistic approach that included the psychological, physical, and spiritual exploration of character and action from the “inside out” and the “outside in” (PBS, 2008).

1930s through 1950s

Technological developments continued and objects of modern production were adopted into daily life such as the telephone, electricity, and the automobile (Nevis, 1997). According to Nevis, leading scientists and psychologists, such as van Braun and Lewin, came to the United States from Europe fleeing the effects of World War II. Management, education, consulting, and development embraced the military models of command and control.

Psychology. “The ideas and the forces unleashed during this period ignited the imagination of many people and produced energy that led to the creation of a widespread discipline of psychological practice, starting in the United States and gradually spreading to Europe” (Nevis, 1997), From the turn of the century psychologists began to challenge Freudian theories as “another non-verifiable, subjective pseudo-science of the mind” (Williams, 2006b, p. 50). Behaviorism, the second force in psychology, rejected Freud and favored an empirical approach that could be observed, studied, and confirmed through a scientific method (Mannion, 2005). Proponents of behaviorism, such as Watson and Skinner, “emphasized the study of observable events and believed that psychology should eschew any reference to internal events (e.g. ideas, goals) and focus on observable

and measurable behaviors” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 78). Behaviorism, the dominant influence in psychology from the 1910s into the 1950s, “arose, in part, as a reaction to Freudian theories, and as a stance of American Psychology to become an accepted discipline” (Williams, 1980, p. 4).

Clinical psychology evolved with the heightened demand for psychologists and counselors to treat soldiers returning from World War II. In 1949 the historical Boulder Conference was held to discuss standards of graduate training in psychology as they applied to a systemized, integrated approach to the application of clinical psychology (Williams & Davis, 2002).

In the 1950s Maslow and Rogers developed a humanistic approach that became the third force in psychology. Humanistic psychology “focused on the personal, ontological, and phenomenological aspects of human experience, as opposed to the reductionist and mechanistic theories of Freudianism and Behaviorism” (Williams, 2006b, p. 50). With roots in ancient philosophy, the humanist movement was also influenced by Zen Buddhist teachings that became available in the West during this period (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003). “Although it arose as a reaction to behaviorism, humanistic psychology was not meant to negate all the theories and assumptions inherent in behaviorist and psychoanalytic psychologies, but instead to expand the parameters and to offer new values and assumptions about the nature of man” (Williams 1980, p. 6).

Gestalt therapy was a humanistic therapy popularized by Perls in the 1950s and 1960s, which focused on responsibility for choices and being in the present moment, two tenets of personal growth and development movement of the 1970s and beyond.

Perls developed experiential methods of observing consciousness whereby individuals gained powerful insights into their emotions and behavior. The Esalen Institute, T-Groups and various other workshops developed mechanisms for public self-disclosure, discussion and feedback about others, as well as mutual honesty and truthfulness. (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 36)

Cognitive psychology also emerged as a separate discipline in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Unlike its predecessors, psychoanalysis and behaviorism, cognitive psychology examined internal mental processes such as mental distortions and devised techniques to eliminate them (Auerbach, 2006).

Business. Before the 1940s, organizations typically operated on principles of mechanistic and bureaucratic systems, including authority-obedience, division of labor, hierarchical supervision, formalized procedures and rules, and impersonality. Operations research, also known as management science, was born in the 1940s and takes a scientific approach to solving management problems.

In contrast, from the 1930s an awareness of the importance of helping groups and group leaders focus on group and leadership processes was growing in adult education and group therapy. The 1940s saw an increase in group dynamics, which encouraged individual participation in decision-making and noted the impact of the work group on performance (Wertheim, 2007). According to Wertheim, Lewin, a social psychologist who specialized in studying group dynamics, asserted that individual and organizational transformation is best described as a three-stage process of unfreezing, movement, and refreezing. Carr stated that, “in the 1950s, maybe even a little bit earlier than that, as people started to look at productivity and efficiency within organizations, and there was

organizational psychology, those became specialized fields of management, consulting and organization development” (personal communication, June 13, 2006).

Organization development emerged from a reaction against scientific management (work breakdown structure when the workforce was cheap and illiterate who could learn small tasks easily) during the first third of the 20th century (Nevis, 1997). As Nevis said, “I traced the history of the OD field from 1930 up to 1999, because I got so upset that younger people thought everything started in the 1960s, and I wanted to show them that most of the major ideas were already developed in the 1930s and 1940s (personal communication, July 3, 2006). The discipline’s early focus on group and personal development dominated methods through the 1940s and 1950s, with the National Training Laboratory (NTL) Institute as the center of gravity for this new philosophy about individuals and groups (Minahan, 2006). Early pioneers in organization development came from a multidisciplinary background, including psychology, sociology, and the theater, among others. In the 1940s McGregor and Argyris developed a “new model that made more sense in a world of complex tasks and a better educated workforce – employees could be trusted, wanted to do good work, and wanted to be treated like adults” (Nevis, 1997).

By the 1950s leadership theory was heavily influenced by behaviorism in psychology. Drucker wrote among the first book on applied management in the late 1940s and Sloan commissioned a study of organizations in the 1950s. Systems theory and Drucker’s management by objectives were present from the 1950s along with Deming’s and Feigenbaum’s writings on quality.

As a result of management consulting's eclectic background and influence in boardrooms across America, the regulatory change in the early 1930s resulted in unprecedented growth for the discipline. In the post-war period consultants' influence increased as they reshaped business into efficient organizational forms, and by the 1950s consulting firms expanded overseas (McKenna, 2006). The 1950s also saw a doctoral thesis on the historical evolution of consulting that "analyzed the extent to which consultants had achieved professional status" (p. 246).

Other. The discipline of adult development, the study of normal growth and development of adults, arose in the late 1950s as an outgrowth of developmental psychology, which until then had only studied children and adolescents (Hudson, 1999).

In performing arts, Meisner, a student of Stanislavski, developed method acting, which is a technique where the actor draws on his/her emotions and memories for portrayal of a character (H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, 2006). This exclusively psychological approach was in contrast to Stanislavski's holistic approach.

In 1935 Alcoholics Anonymous (A.A.) was founded as the first approach to supporting the sustained recovery of the alcoholic, regardless of his/her financial standing. A.A.'s cofounder Wilson credited A.A.'s ideas of self-examination, acknowledgement of character defects, restitution for harm done, and working with others to the influence of the Oxford Group (Hartigan, 2000). As in the tradition of mentorship, A. A. includes the sponsor role, a person who is in recovery who works with the newcomer. A.A.'s "positive philosophy of psychological and spiritual attitude adjustment is one of the most successful action plans for self-improvement" (Mannion,

2005). By 1953 Narcotics Anonymous had formed as the second of many 12-step programs.

1960s through 1970s

The Human Potential Movement was born, along with the hippie movement that came out of the anti-Viet Nam war effort. Many people blamed the establishment for all that was not working and legislation regarding civil rights and abortion was enacted. Non-traditional models regarding alternative medicine and spiritual practices were plentiful as the East met the West through media such as music (Nevis, 1997). The United States landed a man on the moon. This was also the decade of the counterculture (Anderson, 1990) and the Beatles. The New Age movement melded spiritual traditions and alternative medicine from the East and West. Esalen was founded to explore human potential and “bringing in people who were Eastern thinkers” (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). According to Whitmore, “there was this community up at Findhorn in Scotland that was a spiritual organization” (personal communication, March 33, 2006) that was founded during this period. Everett founded the first large group awareness training (LGAT) called Mind Dynamics, which was followed by Erhard’s est, Lifespring, and others (D. Ellis, personal communication, May 11, 2007). Personal success literature ranged from *Psycho-Cybernetics* by Maltz (D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006) to others books by Gardner in 1964, Bolles in 1972, Cameron in 1972, Harris in 1973, Sheehy in 1976, Leider in 1978, Silva in 1978, and Sher in 1979. The Weight Watchers movement was founded, complete with self-help and group support, and alternative spirituality like the Course of Miracles became popular.

Psychology. Psychology began the shift from a medical to a human-growth model in the 1960s and 1970s with the rise of the humanist reaction against psychoanalysis and behaviorism. The humanistic model focused on health rather than illness, and brought back an interest in consciousness, awareness, and living in the present moment (Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006), as well as a more holistic view of human life. “In the academic world, however, humanistic psychology's rejection of quantitative research in favor of qualitative methods caused its reputation to suffer and its adherents to be marginalized (Clay, 2002). In a move toward professionalism, the first journal and association for humanistic psychology began in the early 1960s (Williams & Davis, 2002). From the mid-1960s to the mid-1970s, humanistic psychology's ideas informed the civil rights, women's liberation, and antiwar movements and gained widespread popularity in the wider culture (Clay, 2002).

Growth centers such as Esalen, the hub of the Human Potential Movement, emerged in the 1960s and attracted humanistic psychologists such as Rogers, Maslow, and Perls, as well as non-psychologists such as Whitmore and Gallwey, who were seeking to grow and evolve. In the 1970s, “after an era of political turmoil, there was a growing awareness that radical politics had not addressed personal or existential issues” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p. 36). The personal growth movement, emphasizing personal responsibility and choice, grew exponentially as it was popularized in music, self-help literature, and through LGATs, such as est, and techniques, such as Transactional Analysis (TA).

In the 1970s, solution-focused approaches emerged, partially a response to managed-care systems and people who did not need long-term psychoanalysis, and

emphasized less focus on the problem and more energy in discovering what works (Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006). By the mid-1970s, Bandler and Grinder developed NLP, which focused on use of language, question asking, and client outcomes (Williams & Davis, 2002).

Transpersonal psychology grew out of humanistic psychology, and by the mid-1970s was identified as the fourth force in psychology. Transpersonal psychology studies the “integration of the whole person, including the intellectual, emotional, physical, and spiritual nature of man. The inclusion of the spiritual or higher nature of man is a major difference between humanistic and transpersonal psychology” (Williams, 1980, p. 14). “It delved into altered states of consciousness that were both naturally induced by esoteric practices and drug-induced by LSD and other hallucinogens as a way to explore the transpersonal realm” (Williams, 2006b, p. 50).

Business. During the 1960s the focus on organizational development and leadership in business was reflected in the development of the McGregor’s 1960 Theory X-Theory Y model, Schein’s 1969 process consultation, Blake and Mouton’s 1964 management grid, and the situational leadership model (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969), as well as the publications by Drucker in 1967 and Beckhard in 1969. NTL and Tavistock were also doing sensitivity training during this period. As Nevis said, “in the 1960s to the early 1970s, with group dynamics and sensitivity training—that was the heyday of NTL [National Training Laboratories]” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). Carr said the Tavistock group “in the U.K. was focusing more on confrontation, [and] it was the psychoanalytic group . . . if you go into the group and nothing would happen, there was a

leader who didn't do anything other than just remain quiet . . . eventually various things would happen in the group” (personal communication, June 13, 2006).

Beginning in the early 1960s, motivation theories about leadership in the form of McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y popularized the human relations approach (Wertheim, 2007). Task-oriented behavior, relationship-oriented behavior, and participative leadership were explored by the Michigan leadership studies (Minahan, 2006). In the 1970s, Peters put forth his excellence theories. Leadership was delineated from management, and Porter's strengths-weaknesses-opportunities-threats (SWOT) analysis, value chain, and strategic management developed. “During the 1960s, many people were excited and optimistic as they became involved in programs to broaden their awareness about themselves as well as their organizational existence” (Nevis, 1997).

Application of Gestalt therapy concepts and methods to organization development began in 1959, when Nevis and Wallen teamed for managerial assessment, sensitivity training, and general consultation with executives (Nevis, 1997). By the 1960s the application of group approaches had also expanded to organizations, and people became involved in programs for their own personal and professional growth. Schein (1969) introduced the concept of process consultation to describe one of three roles of the organizational consultant. From the 1970s organizational theories were proposed by Mackenzie and Argyris on learning systems. In the late 1970s, M. Goldsmith helped pioneer the area of customized 360 feedback, “which might be called coaching people in a lot of large corporations many, many years ago” (personal communication, April 29, 2006). Storjohann described 360 processes as “close relatives to the Action Research that is at the roots of OD consulting” (personal communication, May 29, 2006).

By 1960, “management consultants had successfully established, institutionalized, and defended management consulting from other professional competitors” (McKenna, 2006, p. 126).

As the Humanist movement started to gain traction in the 1960s there is a parallel emergence of coaching in the business world (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003). The big breakthrough for coaching came when the leader’s role in change was viewed from the intersection of OD and psychology. From the early 1970s, Beckhard, one of the pioneers in organization development, required a five-year organization commitment, regular senior management off-sites, and a personal relationship, now called coaching relationship, with the leader (Minahan, 2006).

Other. The 1970s brought the influence of humanistic psychology to sports and Gallwey’s 1974 book “coincided with this emergence in psychological understanding of a more optimistic model of humankind than the behaviorist view” (Whitmore, 1992) and integrated humanistic-transpersonal psychology with the performance focus of sports.

The decades of the 1960s and 1970s saw the growth of twelve step programs with the formation Overeaters Anonymous in 1965, Gamblers Anonymous in 1970, and Cocaine Anonymous in 1979.

1980s

The 1980s began a period of uncertainty, ambiguity, paradox and discontinuity that continued through the mid 1990s. Social, economic and cultural changes occurred more frequently. The Berlin Wall came down, civic rights and other 1960s legislation were dismantled, and Japanese and Europeans gained in industrial strength (Nevis, 1997).

Psychology. “By 1980 psychotherapy attained institutional prominence” (Hudson, 1999, p. 4). From the 1980s, contemporary mainstream psychology emphasized the studying of cognitive processes (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003). “Therapy was moved from being something that people didn’t admit to, to being really mainstream, the whole psychology movement” (J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006). Some therapists found themselves working with successful people seeking to better themselves and maintain life balance (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007; B. Mark, personal communication, May 9, 2006; R. Strozzi-Heckler, personal communication, June 9, 2006). During the 1980s, cocounseling (like cotherapy and peer counseling) brought counseling to the masses and out of the elitist-expert model (K. Sloan, personal communication, April 13, 2007).

By the 1980s, with the emergence of transpersonal psychology, psychology returned to the study of consciousness begun by James and Wundt a century earlier, with a distinct difference. Rather than:

Compartmentalizing and fractionalizing us into behaviors, mental functions, instincts, emotions, sensations, and so on, transpersonal psychology seeks to understand the person holistically, seeing the person as a balanced individual, intellectually, emotionally, psychically, spiritually, and socially. (Williams, 1980, pp. 15–16)

Erhard’s directive approach was developed in reaction to the Human Potential Movement, or as Erhard described it:

In order to get through the human potential thought you had to be . . . very straight with people, and confrontational even . . . It was very, very difficult in the early

'70s to get people to take an honest look at themselves, and it took that kind of intrusive methodology to break through that thought, so it was possible for people to take a look at themselves and see that there was a possibility beyond what they already realized about themselves. (personal communication, May 23, 2006)

There is a dynamic tension here, because Erhard was so influential in the development of coaching. On one branch of the family tree there is the client-centered, humanistic Rogerian perspective, and on another branch are more directive techniques (F. Fisher, personal communication, 2006; M. Atkinson, personal communication, 2006). For example, there is Erhard, who said, "take responsibility" (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006) and Flores who was "fierce" (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006). Just as four approaches emerged from psychology, different approaches and theoretical bases are now emerging from coaching. Somehow, as a service discipline, psychology has sorted itself out as to which model is being used and who provides what service (F. Campone, personal communication, January 25, 2008).

Business. In the 1980s Luthans translated the work of behavioral psychologists into management models and language, which he termed Organization Behavior Modification (Peltier, 2001). The practice encouraging human potential became more prevalent and supported in business than it had been prior to the 1980s (P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006), there was a corresponding shift in the axis of power from manager authority to employee commitment. Management theory post-modernity is a movement towards collaboration, participation, and influence, and away from the prior postwar movement of authority, command, and control (W. Bergquist,

personal communication, June 22, 2006). Prahalad's core competency theory, Camps benchmarking, Boyatzis's competency-based leadership, and Covey's principle-based leadership are also products of the 1980s.

Human resources emerged from personnel in the 1980s as Employee Assistance Programs (EAP) in business were created to provide counseling for employees who may be experiencing personal or workplace problems (A. Hurley, personal communication, November 9, 2006). During the next decades "HR professionals addressed 'work and family' issues and started looking at how we could go about introducing family-friendly policies. Then, in the mid-1990s concern about stress in organizations and the effects of the long-hours widened the debate to 'work-life balance' issues. . . . So the focus of attention has moved on to 'personal productivity,' which is about giving people scope to organize themselves, their time and their lives, and giving them control over what they do at work and how they do it, while at the same time providing the tools and the boundaries that will enable them to reach their potential" (Caplan, 2003, p. 156–157). Amidst the shift to a humanistic perspective came the shift from business fix-it cases to the career development of high potentials (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007).

The 1980s quality movement was about process improvement and incorporated the *check* step into the former *plan-do-act* model in business. Gallwey's Inner Game approach to sports was adapted to business in the United Kingdom and United States through the emerging discipline of coaching. Management consultants codified and commodified their professional culture and achieved internal stability for their firms and sustainable demand for their services, even though they had not yet attained professional status within society (McKenna, 2006).

Other. In performing arts the method actor training continued to evolve to include psychology tools such as the use of human archetypes, which has its roots in Jungian psychology (Bennett, 2007).

1990s through 2004

The 1990s were characterized by: uncertainty and discontinuity of downsizing, the proliferation of total quality and culture change, a widening of the economic gap between rich and poor, the fall of Soviet Union, the proliferation of personal computers, the decline of hierarchical authority, and an increasing concern with health and fitness (Nevis, 1997). Bergquist noted that, “it’s really not until the 1990s that alternative medicine comes back” (personal communication, June 22, 2006). By the turn of the century one of the major themes that influenced disciplines was an integral and systems approach to deal with the complexity and rate of change present in the world.

Psychology. The two new specialty subdisciplines of positive psychology and coaching psychology emerged during this period. Both reflected a multidisciplinary and integral approach to working with a normal population that was based on a humanistic perspective. Coaching psychology will be addressed as part of the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline.

According to Dean, “Ed Diener . . . founded the field, the study of happiness back before it was respectable, back in 1981” (personal communication, April 3, 2007). Dean goes on to say that, “positive psychology is the scientific study of the optimum functioning of human beings.” Moritz noted that “when Seligman became president of the American Psychological Association [1998] and makes it his mission to stop focus on the pathologies but focus on optimism and happiness” that was a large refocusing for

psychology (personal communication, April 3, 2006). Sinclair sees that “coaching is really the therapy of positive psychology” (personal communication, June 21, 2006).

Carlile reminds us that back in 1990 and 1991 Robbins, Landmark Education, and others were “enrolling people into personal growth workshops and what . . . [they] did was they helped create a market for coaches, because what happened is that people would . . . walk out of Landmark with all these intentions and desires and stuff and there was no network, no support to keep you in action” (personal communication, April 19, 2006).

Business. Cross-discipline approaches and theories in business became the norm during the 1990s. Leadership theories brought forth during this time included Hammer on reengineering, Kaplan on balanced scorecard, Bennis on leadership and management distinction, Wheatley on complexity theory and leadership science, and Goleman on emotional intelligence (Minahan, 2006).

In organization development Senge combined organizational learning and systems thinking to create a framework for learning and growth within an organization (Minahan, 2006), while Cooperrider put forth appreciative inquiry as a method for effecting change in organizations (Orem, Clancy, & Binkert, 2006). Large-scale organization interventions became popular, with coaching being an intervention at the individual level of the organization (Minahan, 2006).

By the 1990s “neither academic scholars nor journalists worried about the professional credentials of consultants, but instead presumed that they responded to market forces like any other occupational group” (McKenna, 2006, p. 163).

Other. Within the social sciences, the 1990s brought an increasingly multidisciplinary nature.

Research in any of these disciplines often touches on aspects of another. For example, one might incorporate the study of societal dynamics into research focusing on the economy. One would classify such a project within the realm of socio-economics, rather than sociology or economics. (WSU, 2007, ¶ 2)

Recognition as a Profession

Three types of evidence can be used to show movement toward professionalization (Merriam & Brockett, 1997): professional associations, professional literature and information resources (including core theories and models, agreed on definitions, practices, and boundaries), and graduate study. Based on the literature research there are differing opinions about whether each of the root disciplines meets the criteria established for a profession. Many appear to still be evolving as formal disciplines with core theories. Some of these root disciplines have the status of professions and still face challenges within the discipline and as a discipline. For example, sociology still contains multiple core theories (Sociology Wiki Project, 2006), though graduate study programs exist. Training lacks an articulated philosophical and theoretical foundation (Spurgeon & Moore, 1994), yet has several professional organizations representing the discipline. Communication integrated with other disciplines and borrowed theories from other social sciences, yet graduate study programs in communication do exist. The practice of adult education is amorphous and its context shaped by the changing values and beliefs of individuals and society (Merriam & Brockett, 1997), and it also has academic programs addressing adult education.

What are the indications that a discipline is moving toward professional status? There is a process that professions go through that is influenced by socioeconomic

factors, as well as the stages of growth of a profession, much like corporate lifecycles. Interviewees offer several clues about when a field of practice may be moving toward professional status. Bergquist, in discussion medicine, noted there was a time when there were disparate standards. A commission was forced to make recommendations, and every medical school that served African Americans, women, or alternative medical was shut down and “American medicine became homogenized” (personal communication, June 22, 2006). Then Boyatzis raised the issue of licensing and its role in the professional process by sharing, “back in the 1970s I was an avid critic of any attempt at licensing because . . . what almost every licensing movement does is institutionalize mediocrity, and exclude groups” (personal communication, May 8, 2007). This exclusion can be in terms of the people who do the coaching. Bergquist talks about “the concerns that are beginning to emerge now about diversity in coaching—accusations that the field tends to be lily white” (personal communication, June 22, 2006). As we become more mature, we also become more rigid. Sandstrom used the term *commodity approach* to describe the standardization of the discipline (personal communication, June 28, 2006).

From the perspective of his activities in support of professionalizing management consulting, Selman identifies the desire to *control* and *own or capture position* as a force within the movement to professionalize. He further states:

I definitely am a supporter of standards, criteria, and ways of assessing competencies. If that’s enough to make it a profession, then I guess I do want a profession. On the other hand, if we start talking about nomenclatures and objective tests and various other things, I think what you start to do is kill the space of it. For example, you could try to imagine codifying leadership. What you

end up doing is killing the essence of what leadership is, which is the creative lack of boundaries. (personal communication, July 7, 2006)

Bergquist, Boyatzis, Sandstrom, and Selman point out challenges of professionalizing. Crouch states, “I don’t care if you’re 5 years old, 15 years old, or 50 years old, the profession is still going to have to educate itself and the public on what it is that it does” (E. Crouch, personal communication, December 14, 2006).

According to Bergquist, “in the emergence of every profession, there is the pull by those who want this to become a profession: we need credentialing, and we need to say. ‘Here’s what it is, and here’s what it isn’t’” (W. Bergquist, personal communication, June 22, 2006).

Though many of the interviewees argued against professionalization, some respondents made an equally strong case for professionalization based on market perception, quality of coaching, skills, models, and theoretical underpinnings. Many respondents noted the ICF has done a job in highlighting competencies and ethics, and yet this is only part of the picture. Feld said “There’s got to be more on top of those competencies that I predict will define a professional, masterful coach . . . perhaps back to academic underpinnings” (personal communication, June, 12, 2006).

Also on the positive side for a licensed and regulated profession is Abrams, among others, who believe “when we get rid of the phonies it’ll be a whole lot easier for our profession. I think the model, as an insurance agent and financial professional, I had to get registered with the state, maintain my continuing education, and maintain my professional degree” (K. Abrams, personal communication, May 11, 2007). Bentley sees, “we’ve got the beginnings of an emergence of a differential between coaches who are

committed to it being a profession and coaches who think it's a damn good way of earning money; between life coaching and other forms of coaching; and in the methodology behind coaching" (R. Bentley, personal communication, July 3, 2006).

Interviewees raised the ideas about standards for entry, being inclusive versus exclusive, and the resulting impact on the profession. Barriers to entry included licensing, certification, professional memberships, and education. Britten asks, "how are we really going to be inclusive if there are all these organizations that all of us can join based on which one fits us but they all have different rules?" (personal communication, April 23, 2007). Strozzi-Heckler talked about a solution to this that would involve an:

Umbrella organization in which people identify the things that we can look at to make this high quality. There is oversight with it, which requires coaching schools to have a curriculum set and to listen deeply to the needs of the culture and how the society is changing within the historical times in which we live. (personal communication, June, 9, 2006)

When the market claims coaching as a recognized profession, according to Maltbia, "the market wants consolidation and some degree of clarity about what coaching is, how do you certify, how do you know when you are getting a quality coach and so on" (personal communication, October 27, 2006). Goldrich sees coaching becoming more regulated as it becomes more recognized, though "the regulation is that in organizations, particularly large organizations, the purchasing departments are determining the criteria for selecting coaches for their workforce" (personal communication, April 7, 2006).

Drake identified the challenge for coaching: to build "a new type of profession that draws on historical precedence" (p. 4), while evolving within an integral perspective

that allows for innovation, creativity, flexibility, collaboration, and inclusiveness. Drake goes on to say that, “coaches must realize that the historical and cultural context has changed significantly from these earlier periods and, as a result, many of the demands and opportunities for building a profession and a field of study are unique to this time”

(p. 4). One opportunity identified by Drake and Stober (2006) is that:

Coaching can become a successful post professional practice—creating a new but effective integration of science and service and building a new type of profession that draws on historical precedence but seeks out new metaphors for its identity.

(p. 3)

No matter what the consensus is, interview data highlighted that evolution of a new profession is messy and somewhat predictable. The debate regarding professionalization, what it means, and the pros and cons for coaches emphasize this.

Consistencies in Root Discipline Evolution

I identified three themes in the evolution of root disciplines: emergence is chaotic, fluid, creative, and dynamic; the movement toward professionalism is natural; and psychology influences other root disciplines.

The first theme is that the evolution of most disciplines is chaotic, fluid, creative, and dynamic in the beginning, and we normalize this state. Evolution is influenced by socioeconomic factors, as well as stages of growth and the predominant worldview of the times. Stages of growth refer to life cycle stages, which may be defined as startup (fun, idealistic phase), growth (exciting time of increasing demand), expansion (add knowledge, resources, and services to keep up with demand), and decline (institutionalization, control, commoditization) (Harper, 2008). A worldview is the set of

beliefs or lens through which we see and interpret the world (Goldrich, 2005). According to Wilber (2000) the predominant worldviews in recent times have been the conformist (life has meaning, direction, and purpose with an enforced code of conduct based on right and wrong), scientific achievement (seeks truth and meaning in experimental, objective, mechanistic, operational terms) and sensitive self (humanistic, networking, ecological sensitivity, human bonding). In 2000, the conformists included 40% of the population with 50% of the power; scientific achievement included 50% of the population and 30% of the power; and sensitive self included 10% of the population with 15% of the power (figures do not add to 100%). New disciplines may emerge in response to changing needs, new opportunities, and changes in understanding about the human experience or scientific discoveries. Psychology, sociology, and anthropology all emerged as separate disciplines as they developed their own distinctive bodies of knowledge. When a discipline is birthed there are competing perspectives, definitions, and theories, many of which are rooted in and adapted from the legacy disciplines of the practitioners. As time goes on, core theories and models are developed and boundaries with related disciplines are clarified.

The second theme is that at some point in time, most disciplines begin moving toward professionalization with the establishment of professional associations, professional literature and information resources (including core theories and models, agreed on definitions, practices, and boundaries), and graduate study. Psychology fulfills the criteria of a profession today. From the beginning of its status as a separate discipline, psychology employed scientific method requiring observation, measurement, and objectivity of data (Mannion, 2005). After more than 50 years, the discipline of

organization development, with a diversity of practitioner backgrounds, still struggles with its fundamental nature and unique contribution (Waclawski & Church, 2001), though it does have at least one major professional organization, Organization Development Network (ODN), and many academic programs. Consulting has been advising and reshaping worldwide organizations since the 1920s and has assumed the outward appearance of a profession, while avoiding the confining elements of a profession (McKenna, 2006). According to McKenna:

Instead of focusing on the intrinsic professional standing of management consulting, the individual consultants, their firms, and the professional association emphasized the metaphorical similarity between consulting and the established professions . . . consultants dismissed concerns about whether management consulting would ever achieve full professional status, stressing instead their own professional bearing and ethical standards . . . professionalism ultimately became a characteristic of individual firms, not management consulting as a field. (pp. 200–203)

Despite these challenges, these disciplines have achieved the status of a profession because of public legitimization, academic curriculum, professional associations, and credentialing. Although some of these root disciplines are not on the mark for meeting all of the criteria, the public considers them legitimate professions.

The third theme is that for many coaching's root disciplines, the predominant psychology approach of the period influenced the theories and models of those disciplines. In psychology prior to 1900, the discipline focused on the mind, consciousness, and introspection. The focus shifted to science and behavior from the

1930s to the 1950s, and continued to focus on behavior during the 1960s. The 1970s to 1980s brought a focus on behavior combined with experience, which by the turn of the century became mental and behavioral science and practice. These shifts over time influenced corresponding shifts in the social science disciplines. For example, during the early 1900s the scientific approach predominant in psychodynamic psychology was also predominant in management and consulting theories of that time. When humanistic psychology became dominant in the mid-20th century, organization development emerged with its humanistic perspectives and management theories reflected the shift to humanism.

Shifts in Root Discipline Evolution

I identified two divergent themes in the evolution of root disciplines. First, the evolution of psychology evolved with time appropriateness and second, coalescence of thought happens in ever shortening cycles.

Psychology's four approaches of psychoanalysis, behavior, humanistic, and transpersonal thought have apparently evolved with time appropriateness and an image of human nature that was reflected in the cultural and social evolution (Williams 1980). Psychoanalysis, which viewed humans as having an animal nature and believed motivation for behavior came from unconscious internal processes, was the predominant thought from the late 19th century to about 1910. Behaviorism, which viewed humans as an object or machine and studied behavior objectively, followed and was the predominant force from about 1910 to about 1950. Next came humanistic psychology, which believed individuals were responsible and behaved from their own reality and perceptions. The predominant force until the latter part of 20th century, humanistic psychology included

parts of psychoanalysis and behaviorism on a foundation of health and human growth. Transpersonal psychology emerged from humanistic psychology and a spiritual element, while retaining aspects of the three forces that preceded it.

The second theme is that coalescence of thought happens in ever shortening cycles. Around 1800, curiosity about nature led to specialization in the natural sciences and emergence of disciplines such as biology, geology, chemistry, and physics. Shortly thereafter, curiosity about people led to specialization in the social sciences and emergence of the disciplines of anthropology, sociology, psychology, and linguistics. Just after 1900 psychology split into specialization subdisciplines of industrial, clinical, counseling, behavioral, social, developmental, educational, and sports. Consulting, vocational guidance, and personnel also emerged immediately after the turn of the century. Just 50 years later saw the emergence of systems theory, organization development, adult development, and adult learning, as well as humanistic, cognitive, and biological psychology and the Human Potential Movement. During the 1970s transpersonal and health psychology, career development, the New Age movement, the human development movement, which included LGATs and the business areas of human resources, leadership, and facilitation emerged as separate disciplines. Less than 25 years later saw the emergence of coaching, positive psychology, and coaching psychology. Appendix R graphically displays the cycles of discipline emergence, which correspond to cultural and economic shifts.

Professional Challenge

The emergence of coaching faced similar struggles with competition, contradictory theories, poor public understanding, and wide variances in practice and

qualifications as its root disciplines did in the same emerging stage. However, my data suggest that the socioeconomic conditions in which coaching emerged are rapidly changing, in part due to technology, socioeconomic upheaval, and environmental crisis. The root disciplines continue to evolve with new subdisciplines emerging in response to changes in socioeconomic conditions. The norm is now change. The difference for coaching in relation to the root disciplines is that the root disciplines had a stable starting point of a rational, scientific, positivist perspective. Their basic principles, bodies of knowledge, and literature were fairly well established before the rapid change faced since the 1990s started to happen. The professional challenge for the coaching discipline is that it emerged and is evolving without a stable foundation. Coaching's foundation is multidisciplinary and not stable at all. Coaching emerged in the 1990s within a constantly shifting environment, and unlike psychology and business coaching, does not have a centering point.

Drake and Stober (2006) identified the “rise of evidence-based practices (EBPs) in the 1990s . . . as one marker for the emergence of a post professional era [which] is a period of accelerated technological change, a globalized economy and culture, and an awakening to urgent social and environmental needs” (p. 3). The challenge for the coaching discipline is how it can evolve in the postmodern socioeconomic era when, unlike the root disciplines, it lacks a stable starting point and consistent core principles and theories that apply foundationally to all of coaching.

Emergence of Coaching as a Distinct Discipline

This section answers the question, “What supporting factors contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline in the late 20th century?” There is

agreement that coaching has been around for a long time (D. Buck, personal communication, June 29, 2006; S. Cluney, personal communication, May 9, 2006; Grodzki & Allen, 2005). Literature and interview data suggest that coaching as a discipline was developing in several arenas almost simultaneously, without people knowing one another or being in conversation (B. Anderson, personal communication, May 16, 2006; M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006; J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006; B. Carlile, personal communication, 2006; P. McLean, personal communication, June 28, 2006) to meet an emerging societal need for growth, change, and improvement (R. Boyatzis, personal communication, May 8, 2007; R. Long, personal communication, July 24, 2007; M. Sinclair, personal communication, June 21, 2006). Some interviewee data support the concept of a *zeitgeist* (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006; T. Belf, personal communication, March 30, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006), which means “the spirit of the age” or something that bubbles up because the time is right, just as there was a *zeitgeist* calling psychology into existence from the early 1900s (W. Bergquist, personal communication, June 22, 2006; P. Sandahl, personal communication, November 20, 2006).

The literature suggests two factors which influenced the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline: global socioeconomic characteristics and the work of individuals whom I characterized as originators and transmitters. Interview data agree with the influence of socioeconomic factors and focus on convergence factors, of which the originator and transmitter individuals are a part, such as the counterculture of the 1960s

and the humanistic models and theories of Maslow, Perls, and Rogers that influenced the Human Potential Movement.

The data are structured in a timeline of coaching's emergence and are grouped by socioeconomic influences contributing to the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline and by convergence factors.

Timeline of Coaching's Emergence

Coaching emerged along with social indicators that normalized an interest in and popularized personal development in the corporate and private sector. Prior to 1960, the socioeconomic focus was on the Cold War, and it was the beginning of the shift from the scientific perspective to a humanist perspective. The 1960s and 1970s brought the counterculture, rise of the Human Potential Movement and humanistic psychology, spread of personal development in the private sector, and civil rights and feminism. The 1980s saw the birth of coaching emerge from leadership development programs and the entry of transformational technologies into business. The 1990s witnessed the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline. Appendix T contains a table of key socioeconomic events, and psychology, business, and coaching events over time.

Prior to 1960

The first trend in literature:

Involves reports of internal coaching in organizations, with managers or supervisors acting as coaches to their subordinates and staff. This trend is most clearly evident in the literature between 1937 and the late-1960s although it continues through to the present day. (Grant, 2004, p. 7)

According to Grant (2004), the first case study presentation appeared in 1951 and focused on establishing a coaching culture. By 1955, four articles appeared on coaching and performance improvement and management development, and in 1957 and 1958 four articles were published focusing on coaching by management (2), psychological consultation with executives (1), and appraisal counseling (1).

During the late 1930s through the 1950s personal success and motivation literature was published, including the landmark books by Carnegie in 1937, Hill in 1937, and Peale in 1952. In addition, Nightingale recorded his messages about recognizing opportunity, setting worthy goals, self-knowledge, and self-management. In 1950 Hubbard's *Dianetics* was published, followed in by 1960 Maltz's *Psycho-Cybernetics*. Hubbard's Dianetics and Scientology techniques flourished during this period (Derloshon & Potter, 1982). Jay states that, "there is a whole literature that to me has not been discussed as a primary part of coaching literature that exists and probably started back in the 1920s and '30s when Eduard Spranger wrote *Types of Men*" (personal communication, June 8, 2006). Scientology:

Established a pastoral counseling procedure which they call *auditing* . . . the auditor, *one who listens* . . . utilizes interpersonal communication and carefully devised questions and drills which enable the person audited . . . to discover and thereby remove his self-imposed spiritual limitations. (Derloshon & Potter, 1982, p. 88)

According to Reinhardt, "*Science of the Mind* was written in the '30s by Ernest Holmes . . . [and] it's like the mystical, spiritual description of ontological coaching . . .

and practice is actually a very big thing in *Science of the Mind*' (personal communication, November 6, 2006).

In business during the 1930s Mayo conducted the Hawthorne Studies, which found that workers formed a social system rather than being individually responsive to classical motivation theories (J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006). During the 1940s and 1950s, counselors, therapists, and organizational psychologists were *counseling* executives (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006).

Developmental counseling practiced since the 1940s by RHR International was similar to coaching (J. Durosher, personal communication, October 15, 2007; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). Tobias (1996) argued that coaching by psychologists is a mere repackaging of practices once done under the umbrella of consultation and counseling. In the 1950s Argyris created action science, also known as action inquiry, action research, or organizational learning, as a strategy for increasing the skills and confidence of individuals in groups to create any kind of organization and to foster long-term individual and group effectiveness (Action Science Network, 2007). From 1950 and 1979 a few professionals used a blend of organizational development and psychological techniques in working with executives (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). Also in the 1950s, companies began to define management competencies:

Which led very directly to coaching, because there is no point in defining competencies and finding their use somewhere, and then leave him alone and eventually introduce some sort of process to help people improve. Coaching emerging directly out of assessments centers was very big and it really took on the

sense of its origins from here. Quite a lot of work coming out of strange places like the CIA and similarly military groups in the U.K., because you need to train your spies effectively and so there was quite a lot of coaching going on there. (D. Lane, personal communication, June 16, 2006)

Prior to 1960, publications, training programs, academic programs, and professional associations did not exist for the coaching discipline.

1960s through 1970s

Four articles referring to coaching and management were published during the 1960s (Grant, 2004), and “in the first coach specific doctoral research, Gershman (1967) evaluated how supervisors who acted as effective coaches could improve a subordinate’s attitude and job performance” (Grant, 2004, p. 7). During the 1970s, 17 articles on coaching were published, including 7 on management, 3 on self-development, 3 on training, and 4 others on single topics of change, counseling, selling, and controversy (Grant, 2004). “Carrol (1975) marked the emergence of research that positioned coaching as being part of the role of human resource practitioners” (Grant, 2004, p. 7).

The 1970s saw the emergence of four books on coaching by management: Lovin and Casstevens (1971), Fournies (1978), Deegan (1979), and Megginson and Boydell (1979). Gallwey (1974) influenced the growth of coaching in the United Kingdom during the 1980s with his Inner Game approach (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; M. Downey, personal communication, June 27, 2006; C. Morgan, personal communication, April 19, 2007; J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006).

The first Erhard Seminars Training (est, always in lower-case) was conducted in San Francisco, California in October 1971 (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23,

2006). Life Skills Coach Training was first offered in 1971 by Holland College in Charlottetown, Canada for disadvantaged career seekers (R. Paytner, personal communication, May 5, 2006). During the 1970s Hudson started Fielding Graduate Institute in Santa Barbara, California, which used a strong learning technology based on human systems thinking (P. McLean, personal communication, June 28, 2006). The Actors Information Project (AIP) was a membership organization that was started in New York City by Jay Perry and David Rosen in 1979 as a resource, information, training and community center with a focus on the business and career side of acting (H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006). AIP offered business counseling, informed by Erhard concepts and work, which was really a form of coaching (H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006). As Perry described it:

We later on recognized that what we were doing was some primitive form of coaching and it became so popular that we had to develop a training program to train the people who were going to be doing this. And so it was very much making it up as we went. Certainly there were some roots and inspirations from what had been the Werner Erhard work, est training, and later the Forum.

(personal communication, March 29, 2006)

Original members included individuals such as Homan of Coach U and Ken Blanchard Companies, Prior of ICF, and H. Kimsey-House of CTI (M. Homan, personal communication, March 6, 2006; H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006; D. Prior, personal communication, February 28, 2006).

In 1979, Flores completed work on his dissertation, "Communication and Management in the Office of the Future" (Landmark Education, 2006), which set forth his principles that influenced est's shift to the Forum as well as the development of ontological coaching (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006; J. Olalla, personal communication, March 22, 2006). After the dissertation was done, Erhard incorporated Flores's ideas into est and invested in Flores's first company, Hermet Inc., a communications-consulting and software firm (Landmark Education, 2006).

During the 1960s through the 1970s, training programs, academic programs, and professional associations did not yet exist for the coaching discipline. Counselors, therapists, and organizational psychologists continued "counseling" executives during this period (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006; E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006).

1980s

During the 1980s, mentoring, seen as a precursor to coaching, was strong in Australia (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006) and the United Kingdom in community and education (J. Joyce, personal communication, June 5, 2006). The influence of the self-help industry, including 12-step programs, expanded during the 1980s.

Coaching in the United Kingdom was jump-started through the efforts of Whitmore, Alexander, Ditzler, and a core group of other individuals. In 1980, Whitmore, along with Alexander, brought Gallwey's Inner Game technology to the United Kingdom and Europe and called it the more generic term of *coaching*, because at that time it was

“quite difficult to sell American ideas in Europe” (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Colleagues involved with Whitmore and Alexander included Fine, Cannon, C. Morgan, and Downey (Whitmore, 1992, p. v). Alexander described the work of the Inner Game as:

A very awareness-based way of coaching. The proposition is if you help someone to help raise the awareness about different aspects of themselves and their lives and so on, they can advance . . . [and] move forward. As the name *The Inner Game* implies, I also looked at the mental [or] inner side, of success . . . Things like attitudes and inner obstacles were a big part of *The Inner Game*. (personal communication, May 31, 2007)

In 1981, Ditzler founded Results Unlimited in the United Kingdom to provide services to individuals and business. Several interviewees (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; S. McGhee, personal communication, April 2, 2007, I. Prosser, personal communication, March 21, 2007) and even Ditzler stated, “I remember I never heard the word *coach*, because it wasn’t a UK word (personal communication, December 19, 2006). Ditzler first brought in Alexander as her business partner, and then Prosser, who had a background in est and Inner Game (I. Prosser, personal communication, March 21, 2007). Soon after, they were joined by McGhee, who was director of Erhard’s Hunger Project, and Cannon, who went on to be responsible for professional development at Goldman Sachs (I. Prosser, personal communication, March 21, 2007). The Results Unlimited program provided a facilitative, “you light the candle and you keep it lit and hopefully they take it” (J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006) and “integrated approach to you increasing your ability to see results

and be successful in the world” (S. McGhee, personal communication, April 2, 2007). As Prosser said, “I suppose in those early days what we were doing is now called life coaching” (personal communication, March 21, 2007). By the mid-1980s, Results Unlimited began providing their services in the business environment (J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006; I. Prosser, personal communication, March 21, 2007). Alexander described the Results Unlimited work as “strong on turning hopes and dreams into tangible actions . . . helping people grow their will, their determination, and their confidence” (personal communication, May 31, 2007).

In 1975 Peer Resources was founded by Rey Carr, Greg Saunders, and David de Rosenroll in Victoria BC, Canada to work with peer mentoring in education and in “1985 Peer Resources incorporated to establish a Canada-wide network of peer coaches and trainers. We wanted to build on natural skills and to increase the likelihood that everyone would have access to a peer coach” (Peer Resources, 1999, p. 1). By 1999, Peer Resources’ stated: “Our mission today is to support the development of a variety of coaches and coaching resources while at the same time working to prevent the factors or conditions that interfere with natural coaching” (p. 1).

The birth of executive and business coaching emerged from leadership programs in the 1980s (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003), to which Nevis agrees when he says, “the origins of business and executive coaching can be traced to the leadership development programs in the 1980s” (personal communication, July 3, 2006). Sandstrom (personal communication, June 28, 2006), Kiel (personal communication, April 24, 2007), and Reynolds (personal communication, May 2, 2006) were some of the interviewees providing leadership development services during this period. The term executive

coaching may have been used because coaching sounded less threatening than other types of interventions (Tobias, 1996).

“In 1981, Personnel Decisions International (PDI) became the first management consulting firm to offer a coaching program that was both structured and personally tailored to accelerate individual change and development (Hellervik, Hazucha, & Schneider, 1992)” (Peterson, 1996, p. 78).

In 1984, Transformational Technologies, a consulting and training franchise operation, was created as the corporate division of Werner Erhard & Associates, with Selman as its first president, to bring Erhard’s technology into corporations (N. Bylik, personal communication, 2006). According to Perry, Erhard:

Had a powerful impact on the business world, because they developed an arm of consultancies that when out, that were licensed to use Landmark style material. It was huge, and coaching CEO’s in some of the biggest companies in the world and training them in these techniques, communication techniques and breakthrough thinking. Tracy Goss’s book, *The Last Word on Power: Executive Reinvention for Leader’s Who Must Make the Impossible Happen*, is one of the early coaching books that reflected that about winning formulas. (personal communication, March 29, 2006)

That same year Flores broke with Erhard to found Action Technologies to develop software that could track the fulfillment of promises and commitments in day-to-day work operations (Landmark Education, 2006).

In October 1987, Erhard, along with Selman, hosted a Saturday satellite seminar with Red Auerbach, George Allen, John Wooden, and Tim Gallwey to explore whether

there were uniform characteristics of coaching regardless of the subject being coached (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). Evered and Selman (1989) abstracted 12 key coaching principles:

1. Coaching is a comprehensive and distinctive way of being related to others in an enterprise.
2. Coaching provides a player/performer or team with the possibility of dealing with what is not seen, or even seeable, from the prevailing paradigm.
3. Coaching as a way of being and relating at work can provide managers with a way of developing themselves and others in what has customarily been explained away as the 'art' of management.
4. Coaching is 'missing' as a way of being and relating in most organizations.
5. Coaching is 'missing' by virtue of our cultural blind spots or paradigm that we have termed our control-and-order structure of thinking.
6. Coaching is a two-way process, which suggests that being a great coach also includes being a great coachee.
7. Coaching produces results solely through a medium of communication.
8. Coaching is driven by commitment, both the commitment of the coach and the commitment of the players.
9. Coaching is a dyad, like leader/follower or director/actor.
10. Unlike other types of supportive relationships (counselor, friend, instructor, trainer, mentor, etc.), coaching calls for a high degree of interpersonal risk and trust on the part of both the coach and the person who is coached.

11. Coaching generates new possibilities for action and allows for breakthroughs in performance.

12. Coaching calls for rethinking and transforming our traditional models of management, organization, work, and society. (pp. 13–14)

The year 1986 brought two training companies in the United States and a service organization in the United States and the United Kingdom. Flaherty founded New Ventures West in San Francisco to deliver his Coaching to Excellence program in corporations (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006) and Hudson founded the Hudson Institute of Santa Barbara to deliver the Life Map strategies program, which was based on a mentoring model (F. Hudson, personal communication, June 28, 2006; P. McLean, personal communication, June 28, 2006). Both of these companies evolved into early coach-training companies. Alexander opened the Alexander Corporation with Downey and C. Morgan to deliver coaching services to corporations. As Alexander described it:

Those [Inner Game and Results Unlimited] influences remain in my work today. . . . They were both complimentary to each other and merged into the Alexander Corporation. But then I needed to develop how we were going to actually use them in the business world in a way that was both very useful and valuable and, in many ways, essential to individuals, but that was also seen as valuable to that business. (personal communication, May 31, 2007)

KRW International was formed in 1986 in Minneapolis, Minnesota (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007) by 16 psychologists to deliver executive coaching services in corporations (J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006).

That same year Kaplan of the Center for Creative Leadership connected with Kiel, because both “had come to the same idea about how you help senior people change by empowering and bringing them data, the same concept but they approached it differently” (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007). As Kiel described it, “I had the clinical approach, and you can’t get that far ahead of them [the executive], and you’ve got to have this as a joint discovery process rather than one that is coming from on high to deliver to them [the executive]” (personal communication, April 24, 2007). A strategic alliance was formed that lasted into the early 1990s (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007).

By the mid-1980s, coaching was moving into corporations in German-speaking countries. Szabo believes that “Wolfgang Looss, for the German speaking countries, was one of the key pioneers in making coaching acceptable for top executives in a business community.” According to Szabo, what Looss did was “like building a Trojan Horse, packing a lot of psychologists into it, but wrapping it with something that came from the U.S. and the U.K. and it was called coaching, and it was purposely okayed for a business setting” (personal communication, June 30, 2006). Another pioneer in the German speaking countries was Vogelauer, who stated:

I started using the term coaching about 1987 or 1988 [and] started then in 1992 with the first coaching workshop in Austria . . . about 24 days. . . . It’s a good starting point, and we developed our own process, our own kind of holistic coaching approach, and integrated then our OD work as well as our psychological work with Gestalt and NLP. (personal communication, June, 29, 2006)

According to Szabo, there was “a guy called Werner Herren in Switzerland, and I signed up to take classes from him. He ran the first coach training in Switzerland” (personal communication, June 30, 2006). Herren was training coaches and therapists based on the practices of Neuro-Linguistic Programming and therapy in the late 1980s (P. Szabo, personal communication, June 30, 2006).

By 1987, coaching pioneers such as Homan, Belf, Cluney, and Straus were professionally calling themselves *coach* (T. Belf, personal communication, March 3, 2006; S. Cluney, personal communication, May 9, 2006; M. Homan, personal communication, March 6, 2006; S. Straus, personal communication, March 2, 2006). Belf owned Success Unlimited Network (SUN) (personal communication, March 3, 2006). Whitworth and Leonard were accounting colleagues at Werner Erhard and Associates (L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). By 1988 Leonard created the College of Life Planning to train life planners (D. Theune, personal communication, August 18, 2006; L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006) and Echevarria left Chile to go work for Flores in California (R. Echevarria, personal communication, April 21, 2006). Whitmore and others established Performance Consultants in the United Kingdom in 1989 to deliver Inner Game technology to business (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006).

In 1989, New Ventures West began publishing the quarterly coaching newsletter *Distinctions* and offered the first quarterly *Coaching Roundtable* in San Francisco (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006). That same year, Whitworth and K. Kimsey-House conducted their first workshop called Design Your Life (K. Kimsey-

House, personal communication, March 14, 2006). Belf, who had owned SUN since 1987, said

At the end of 1988, the beginning of 1989, my son got a job which involved setting things up on the Internet. . . . He punched in the equivalent of what would have been Google in those days, “coaching.” 22 hits, not sports coaching of course, but professional and life coaching . . . and almost all of them were Thomas Leonard or some of his students. I connected with Thomas. I said, ‘Oh, wow. It sounds like you’re doing what I’m doing.’ (personal communication, March 30, 2006)

Coaching literature expanded during the 1980s. “The 1980s saw the emergence of empirical evaluations of the effectiveness of coaching with early doctoral work from Duffy (1984), Wissbrun (1984), and Grant (1985)” (Grant, 2004, p. 7). Of the 29 articles published, 15 dealt with management and development; 6 with performance improvement; 3 with training; and 6 on aspects of coaching in business, such as career development and teams (Grant, 2004). The article “Coaching – personal counseling of leaders,” was published in Germany by Fraz Biehal in summer 1986. According to Vogelauer it contained the following:

Example with a 33-year-old head of a department in five sessions follows:

What are the aims of the coaching-sessions?

- * To work for a clear orientation to the problem and its parts.
- * To establish a process for the further steps and solutions.
- * To create a larger view and combinations i.e. to career planning.
- * To talk about according activities like literature, special seminars, etc.

You contract maybe by telephone a coaching talk with a date, and we run a first session to bring in your situation. This first session is without cost. (personal communication, June 29, 2006)

Five books were published on coaching and one videotape series focused on management: Kirkpatrick (1982), Parson (1986), Stowell and Starcevich (1987), Hunter and Russell (1989), Kinlaw (1989), and Selman (1989).

During the 1980s, service organizations specializing in coaching in business were established, coaching literature increased, and training programs in effectiveness were developed. Formal coach-training programs, academic programs, and professional associations did not yet exist for the coaching discipline. Counselors, therapists, and organizational psychologists continued *counseling* executives during this period.

1990s through 2004

This period is characterized by exponential growth of coaching, exponential growth in coaching's visibility in the public sector, and by increasing complexity in the socioeconomic factors. The 1990s saw the emergence of coach-training programs, coach professional associations, coach-specific publications, and the concept of a coaching culture.

Whitmore's (1992) GROW model was developed during this time from interaction between early Inner Gamers, Alexander Corporation, and McKenzie (M. Downey, personal communication, 2006; G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; C. Morgan, personal communication, April 19, 2007). The McNeill Group was formed in 1994 to deliver Coach U technology to Fortune 1000 companies as an integral

part of corporate executive development programs (D. McNeill, personal communication, 2006).

Interviewees identified the first internal coaching assignments with management occurred in the 1990s. Durand received her first internal coaching assignment in 1990 when:

We hired a forward thinking consultant . . . and he said, the CEO needed a Coach. The CEO decided he didn't want . . . Human Resources, so he asked me to be his Coach. I started coaching him, while being coached by the consultant, because I didn't have a clue what we were doing. How can we change his behavior so that the change would happen from the top down? (personal communication, June 21, 2006)

In 1998, Creswell received her first official assignment as internal coach with IBM when she proposed: "I can give you a greater return on my salary as a coach than I am currently giving you as a boss" (personal communication, December 13, 2006). Within 48 hours she had signed up for the first Corporate Coach U International class being taught and written her job description (J. Creswell, personal communication, December 13, 2006).

Literature and interview data reported that coach-training organizations grew exponentially during the 1990s from two to eight in 1995. Newfield Network was founded by Olalla and Echevarria in 1991, and the Hudson Institute "shifts from a notion of mentoring as a way to help people sustain change to coaching" (F. Hudson, personal communication, June 28, 2006). In 1991, Erhard closed his companies that offered his programs to the public, and in January his former employees formed "Landmark

Education” (Landmark Education, 2006). In February 1992, The Coaches Training Institute was founded by Laura Whitworth, and Henry and Karen Kimsey-House in San Rafael, California as a non-profit (L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006; H. Kimsey-House, personal communication, April 25, 2006; K. Kimsey-House, personal communication, March 14, 2006; B. Carlile, personal communication, April 19, 2006), and Coach University was founded by Leonard as a virtual coach-training program (S. Vilas, personal communication, March 31, 2006; C. Richardson, personal communication, May 9, 2006). By 1996 Vilas had purchased Coach University from Leonard. The Optimal Functioning Institute was founded by Griffith-Haynie in 1994 to train coaches to work with people who had attention deficit disorder (ADD). In 1995, Top Human was formed by Wong and Leung in China, while Fisher and Roesler founded the Academy for Coach Training (ACT) to deliver the Living Your Vision program. In 1996, Newfield Network held its first annual Nature of Coaching professional development conference. In 1997, nine additional coach-training programs were established, including the School of Coaching in London (M. Downey, personal communication, June 27, 2006) and Coach 21 as a Coach U licensee in Japan (D. Goldsmith, personal communication, May 4, 2006; K. Hirano, personal communication, May 28, 2006). During 1998 and 1999 at least eight more coach-training programs were created each year. In 1998, the first academic coaching and leadership university degree program was created by Selman and accredited by the Argentina government (J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006) and Coach U licensed its materials to Phillips in Singapore and T. Fitzgerald in Australia (J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006).

During the 1990s, the first coach-specific professional coaching associations appeared (see Appendix N), beginning with the short-lived National Association of Professional Coaches (NAPC), established in 1992 by Leonard with Theune (D. Theune, personal communication, August 18, 2006). In November 1993 the first coaching professional association, International Association of Professional and Personal Coaches (IAPPC), was founded in San Francisco with Carlile as its first president (B. Carlile, personal communication, April 19, 2006; C. Hayden, personal communication, April 6, 2006). According to the IAPPC newsletter, *The Coaches Agenda*, coaching was defined as “a professional relationship that enhances a client’s ability to effectively focus on learning, making changes, achieving desired goals, and experiencing fulfillment” (IAPPC, 1994). Following a Coaching Caucus in May 1995, the Professional & Personal Coaches Association (PPCA) was birthed in October 1995 (C. Hayden, personal communication, April 6, 2006; D. Prior, personal communication, February 28, 2006; L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). The ICF was founded and funded that same year by Leonard as a community for Coach University graduates (D. Buck, personal communication, June 29, 2006), with C. Richardson as its first president. Interviewees had differing ideas on the reason for the start of ICF, ranging from a direct response to the creation of PPCA to a desire for a community for graduates and a federation where leaders were appointed and chapters had hosts. According to Klein, for a while “Thomas was the head of both Coach U and the head of ICF . . . [so] we had a combination Coach U and ICF board meeting and had the same people” (personal communication, April 3, 2006). The New York Coaches Alliance was also launched in 1995 (though whether it was an ICF chapter, a Coach U chapter, or separate is unknown)

and the Puget Sound Coaches Association as an independent group in 1996 (L. Miller, personal communication, May 9, 2006). In Switzerland in 1996, former students of Werner Herren, including Peter Szabo, unsuccessfully tried to establish the Swiss Coaching Association (P. Szabo, personal communication, June 30, 2006). The Professional Coaches and Mentors Association (PCMA) was founded by Vance Caesar in Southern California in 1996. During 1996 the PPCA and ICF each held their first conference. The National Association of Business Coaches (NABC) was founded as a for-profit organization. PCMA held its first conference in 1997, which was the second and last year for the PPCA conference. The PPCA and ICF merged and the first joint conference was held in 1998. The Alliance of Coach Training Organizations (ACTO) was organized in May 1999 and the first Executive Coaching Summit was held in conjunction with the ICF conference in November 1999. During 1999 coaching in Europe moved forward with the launch of the Coaching and Mentoring Network in the United Kingdom by Willis and Richardson, the creation of the European Coaching Institute (ECI) as an independent accreditation body, the establishment of the Nordic Coach Association by Tandberg and others, and the launch of ICF Australia by McDougall and others. Global expansion of professional coach associations occurred around the 2000s, with the establishment of the Japan Coach Association in 1999, the Association for Coaching in the United Kingdom in 2002, and the inclusion of coaching in the European Mentoring Council in 2002. In 2002 the BPS and APS established coaching psychology interest groups and the Canadian-based Worldwide Association of Business Coaches replaced the United States-based National Association of Business

Coaches. The China Coach Association was founded in 2004, along with the United States-based International Consortium of Coaches in Organizations.

In addition to the professional coach associations, the 1994 OD Network conference hosted a two-day preconference on coaching by Whitworth and K. Kimsey-House. Linkage Incorporated, a special events group, began hosting annual coaching and mentoring conferences in 1998.

Coach-specific literature increased exponentially during the 1990s. At least 52 coach-training programs and professional coaching associations had newsletters. During the 1990s, 79 books were published on coaching, which ranged from management to peer coaching and included the discipline of coaching. Sixty-two percent of these books were published in 1998 and 1999. Whitmore's (1992) book was the first focused on the emerging discipline of coaching. This was followed by Hargrove's (1995) coaching book. In addition, coaching articles in business and psychological journals numbered 132 (Grant, 2004). Grant identified a third research trend "at the beginning of the 1990s, in that levels of doctoral research accelerated and empirical coaching research in general, at last, began to gather momentum" (Grant, 2004, p. 7).

Popular coaching articles in other magazines and newspapers also grew markedly during the 1990s, from business to alternative publications. In 1993, *Fortune* magazine published an article titled "The Executive's New Coach," which featured KRW International and Kiel (Smith, 1993). Leonard's February 1996 article in *Newsweek* (Hamilton, 1996) increased public recognition of the coaching discipline. The *New Age Journal* article (Rigoglioso, 1996), featuring Richardson further expanded the public knowledge of coaching. In 2002, the ICF presented a list that identified media coverage

in newspapers and on radio and television for its members since 1993. This list also identified 11 periodicals by coach associations and training schools, 36 electronic newsletters by members, 20 regular columns by members, and 24 books as of 2002 by members. ICF publicity 1993–2002 in newspapers, on radio and television: 41 January through October 2002, 60 in 2001, 290 in 2000, 176 in 1999, 129 in 1998, 61 in 1997, 101 in 1996, 7 in 1995, 4 in 1994, and 20 in 1993. This media coverage list does not contain articles by coaches who were not ICF members.

The first literature on establishing a coaching culture appeared in 1951 as a case study presentation (Grant, 2006), yet it was only in the 1990s that coaching culture became identified with coaching as we know it today. Interview data contained a pattern of comments about the topic of coaching culture within the discipline of coaching (J. Creswell, personal communication, December 13, 2006; A. Hurley, personal communication, November 9, 2006; D. Lane, personal communication, June 16, 2006; P. Rosinski, personal communication, May 22, 2006) and within organizations (A. Durand, personal communication, June 21, 2006; I. Prosser, personal communication, March 21, 2007). Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005):

Define a coaching culture in organizations as one where: *Coaching is the predominant style of managing and working together, and where a commitment to grow the organization is embedded in a parallel commitment to grow the people of the organization.* (p. 19)

Rock describes working with companies to “embed the principles and practice the skills of coaching into their [company] culture” (personal communication, June 8, 2006). Creswell describes churches wishing to create a coaching culture in their denomination

(personal communication, December 13, 2006), while Lane describes businesses looking to have a culture that is supported by coaching (personal communication, June 16, 2006).

Influencers contributed to creating what we think of as a coaching culture by highlighting factors that distinguish coaches from consultants and psychotherapists (Passmore, 2006; D. Clutterbuck, personal communication, June 28, 2006; W. Vogelauer, personal communication, June 29, 2006). Thus, the coaching culture was originally defined by what coaching is not, which is consistent with most emerging disciplines.

Interview data suggest that within the coaching world there is culture of collaboration and partnership (J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006; K. Whitworth, personal communication, November 10, 2006) as well as independence and self-direction (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006; J. Sandstrom, personal communication, June 28, 2006). Interview data also described the coaching culture characteristics of collaboration and partnership as feminine characteristics (T. Belf, personal communication, March 30, 2006; K. Sloan, personal communication, April 13, 2006; D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006). For example, Sloan states that “coaching is about honoring relationship and honoring mutuality and being collaborative and honoring values and all the stuff that’s associated with the feminine” (personal communication, April 13, 2006). According to the ICF, member renewals are 66% female, 34% male, with 14% not responding, and new members are 55% female and 28% male, with 20% not responding (M. Mook, personal communication, February 11, 2008). Of the individuals named in the literature, individuals named in the survey, and individuals named in the interviews 90.8% were male and 9.2% were female, which is unbalanced when compared to the gender distribution in the coaching discipline.

Interviewees were 48.2% male, which roughly resembles the 50-50 gender balance of the coaching profession in the United Kingdom (D. Clutterbuck, personal communication, June 28, 2006).

Socioeconomic Factors

Social uncertainty, ambiguity, alienation, rootlessness, confusion, and paradox supported coaching's emergence in the late 20th century. These reasons were in turn fueled by technological change, mass media and production, shift from manufacturing to service, rise of globalism, complexity, and the waning influence of institutions for conveying values and behavior.

Personal and business coaching services appeared during the period from 1980 to 1995. This period was characterized by: uncertainty and discontinuity of downsizing, the proliferation of total quality and culture change, dismantling 1960s civil rights and other legislation, a widening of the economic gap between rich and poor, the fall of the Soviet Union, the proliferation of personal computers, the decline of hierarchical authority, and an increasing concern with health and fitness (Nevis, 1997). Naisbett, (1980) in his book *Megatrends*, talked about the need for high tech and high touch evolving simultaneously.

Coaching blossomed from 1995 to present. During that time, we see an increasing power of personal and digital means of communication, which include the Internet and personal desk assistants. Globally, this period saw the Soviet Union dismantled and China liberalized. The shift from an industrial to an information society brings individual manipulation of media environment, personal branding, and the possibility for work/life balance through technology for working at home. Complexity and rapid change is the backdrop for migration and globalization.

Interviewee data addressed several relevant factors during this period. Some, for example, discussed the complexity and rate of change (H. Aubry, personal communication, June 6, 2006; C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006; J. Sandstrom, personal communication, June 28, 2006; M. Sinclair, personal communication, June 21, 2006). Representative would be Clutterbuck's statement to the effect of "the rate of change is such that people no longer have the stable community and support structure around them that they used to" (personal communication, June 28, 2006). Interviewees also discussed information and technology availability (S. Anderson, personal communication, May 22, 2006; T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2006; M. Sinclair, personal communication, June 21, 2006), as indicated in Grant's statement, "in terms of technology, the biggest influence has been the Internet . . . coaching would never have become the global industry that it is without the Internet" (personal communication, May 15, 2006). Globalization and migration were also discussed by the interviewees (T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2006; K. Sloan, personal communication, April 14, 2007). Representative is Emery's statement that "with the breakdown of traditional lifetime employment and the emergence of globalization, people actually are getting their brain and their heart around the idea that they need to be responsible" (personal communication, May 11, 2007). The affluence of the 1980s and 1990s (M. Sinclair, personal communication, June 21, 2006; J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006) was discussed as another key socioeconomic factor that supported coaching's emergence, as indicated by Seiffer's statement, "and then in the '90s, the money piece was definitely a part of it . . . and there's a generation now fifty years old [where] for the most part, poverty is not an option" (personal

communication, June 7, 2006). Also mentioned were the rise of the service economy (C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006), change in the employment contract and rise of entrepreneurship (K. Abrams, personal communication, May 11, 2007; J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006; C. Barrow, personal communication, April 19, 2007; M. Bench, personal communication, November 13, 2006, S. Emery, personal communication, May 11, 2007), and extension of the *me* generation (K. Abrams, personal communication, May 11, 2007; J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006; D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006).

The data from both literature and interviews were grouped to generate four socioeconomic patterns, which appeared to be linked directly to coaching. For example, both the literature (Nevis, 1997) and several interviewees (see last paragraph) discussed global consciousness and the global shift. First is the complexity of the postmodern society, second is the emergence of global consciousness and spiritual paradigm shift, third is the humanistic worldview of humankind; and the fourth is the trend toward individualism.

I regrouped the interview data around four socioeconomic patterns that emerged as linked directly to coaching. Through these groupings the layers of interplay of the social factors and the coaching discipline can begin to be seen. For example, the global consciousness and spiritual shift, and the trend toward individualism, mirror the dynamic tension that I see in coaching with collaboration and independence. These areas also mirror the dynamic tension between the humanistic psychology roots and the scientific psychology, scientific social sciences, and data-oriented business roots of coaching. When I look at the disciplines from which coaching emerges, at one end of the root

spectrum there is the humanistic psychology and on the other end is the business side.

Looking at the socioeconomic factors, the global consciousness/spiritual paradigm shift is aligned with the humanistic movement, and the individualism trend is more aligned with the business bottom-line, data-driven, success model.

Complexity of the postmodern society

The postmodern society, from the 1950s to the present, saw increased complexity in the form of technology advances, pressure to do more with less, and increased globalization. Complexity has hit a threshold in the Western world (C. Barrow, personal communication, April 19, 2007), and in doing so has opened the way for coaching to emerge.

Rapid technological advances that support the current state of evolution and collective consciousness drive what we define as normal. “The emergence of the Internet . . . provided an instantaneous, affordable information and communication system that exponentially increased our ability to connect one-to-one that transformed learning” (S. Anderson, personal communication, May 22, 2006). Smith describes it as “we are in an age where there’s so much information that you can’t know everything, so you have to surround yourself with good people who can help you know what you need to know, and that requires good relationship building” (personal communication, July 3, 2006).

The rate of change in reduced and accelerated life cycles, with” traditional models not moving fast enough,” make it impossible for people to keep up, be present, and be healthy (J. Sandstrom, personal communication, June 28, 2006). We see a mobile society without stable community and support structure, social fabric crumbling with 24/7 shopping and Internet, and loss of connection of family and tribe. Cavanagh describes

this as “the social fabric of society in many ways is crumbling . . . we don’t have the social connections and interactions at the same level and the same depth that we had” (personal communication, May 10, 2006).

Globally, people are pressured to do more with less, look for immediate solutions that are technologically based, and be “flawless in execution, while also being very innovative and scanning the environment” (C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006). According to Lorenzen, “people are more isolated, even though there are more ways to communicate. In Europe 20 years ago people would stay in one company for life, and now they fire people right and left” (personal communication, June 16, 2006). Homma (personal communication, May 15, 2006) concurs for Japan, while Bentley (personal communication, July 3, 2006) agrees for Europe. The same is true in the United States, according to Fitzgerald, who asserts, “the higher up they [leaders] go . . . they can get isolated” (personal communication, July 11, 2006), and Sandstrom, who says “it has to do with flexibility, executive challenges, competitive challenges in organizations, so much is thrown at them so quickly that any one rigid pattern of learning, thinking, or behaving simply didn’t get the number that they were required to do” (personal communication, June 28, 2006).

“By the 1990s we have a drive-up window society and conversations follow suit” (Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006). Several interviewees observed that there is a shortage of listening and the loss of meaningful contacts (R. Boyatzis, personal communication, May 8, 2007; C. McDougall, personal communication, May 9, 2007; L. Smith, personal communication, July 3, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006). Several more also noted that people

are getting to the point of economic comfort, are living longer, and are looking for meaning and purpose, for example, to get actualization needs met (T. Belf; personal communication, March 30, 2006; R. Bentley, personal communication; July 3, 2006; D. Buck, personal communication, June 29, 2006; C. Reinhardt, personal communication, November 6, 2006).

Global consciousness and spiritual paradigms

Interviewees identified three specific areas that contributed to the emergence of global consciousness and shift in spiritual paradigms. To summarize, these were: invasion of Tibet by China in 1959; generational shift in the 1960s through the music of the Beatles and other popular groups; and societal shift during the 1970s in the rise of the sacred feminine.

A key event in human consciousness evolution occurred in 1959 when China invaded Tibet and as a result of exodus from Tibet many spiritual writings became available through translation to the masses (C. McDougall, personal communication, May 9, 2007). According to McDougall, the availability of Eastern spiritual works prompted the availability of “spiritual works of the [Western] church . . . to the masses [which] means that everyone has access to some of the great spiritual texts and teachings.” Several interviewees commented on how the music of the Beatles and other popular groups of the time reflected this spiritual and consciousness emphasis (P. Goldman, personal communication, April 24, 2007; M. Nicholas, personal communication, March 27, 2007). This generational shift in consciousness spawned the hippy idealistic perspective that talked about love, peace, and freedom (I. Prosser,

personal communication, March 21, 2007; J. Elflin, personal communication, July 3, 2006; J. Seiffer, personal communication, June 7, 2006). As Schwartz (1995) states:

Among all the seekers who emerged from the counterculture ferment of the 1960s, perhaps no one more than Richard Alpert [Ram Dass] so dramatically turned his back on a traditional American success story, embraced such a radically different path, and still managed to make his new perspective seem both accessible and appealing. (p. 24)

Up to the 1970s, males dominated in our culture, until feminism brought more of honoring relationship, mutuality, and being collaborative into the world (K. Sloan, personal communication, April 13, 2007; D. Steinhorn, personal communication, March 24, 2006). According to Belf, “in order to continue our evolution, we must bring in more of the feminine, which looks holistically at who you are, the androgynous self, which is what coaching does” (personal communication, March 30, 2006).

Several interviewees observed that we are in an era of higher human consciousness, which is both integrative and holistic (T. Lupberger, personal communication, 2006; D. Steinhorn, personal communication, 2006; D. Mitsch, personal communication, 2006). Some interviewees (S. Sinnestera, personal communication, July 10, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, 2006) voiced sentiments similar to Ditzler who said, “individuals are more aware of what’s important for them, what life they want, and what is the contribution they want to make to make things better” (personal communication, December 19, 2006). “When life conditions reach a point that they can’t be solved, there is a leap forward in human consciousness to solve the problems, and I think coaching is a facilitator of that” (C. Reinhardt, personal

communication, November 16, 2006). Several interviewees agreed with Reinhardt (B. Anderson, personal communication, May 16, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006). According to Mitsch, quoting Margaret Wheatley from a presentation at the ICF annual conference in 2001, “Coaching has been called forth from us at this point in human evolution because it is coaching’s time to serve the universe” (personal communication, May 23, 2006). This sentiment was echoed by several respondents (T. Belf, personal communication, March 30, 2006; S. Leduc, personal communication, November 14, 2006; J. Seiffer, personal communication, June 7, 2006).

Humanistic worldview of humankind

The emergence of coaching coincided with the emergence in psychological understanding of a more optimistic model of humankind. This model focused on enhancing growth rather than eliminating dysfunction. Interview data suggest the areas of personal growth, personal evolution, and personal development were most contributory in preparing society and informing the early days of coaching (B. Anderson, personal communication, May 16, 2006; R. Britten, personal communication, April 23, 2007; I. Prosser, personal communication, March 21, 2007; P. Sandahl, personal communication, November 20, 2006). Regarding personal development, Buck said that, “there is a cumulative effect of all the human development work that’s been happening” (personal communication, June 29, 2006). B. Anderson identified it as being “an iteration of the Human Potential Movement . . . the third or fourth iteration of that an emphasis on spirituality and personal development is part of the deal, most definitely” (personal communication, May 16, 2006). Steinhorn talked about the “understanding of human nature, of human consciousness, and human evolution . . . [and] it’s only natural that at

some point it would become structured and woven into the fabric of life” (personal communication, March 24, 2006), while Christian indicated that, “the entire process of human development is based on human empowerment” (personal communication, March 10, 2006).

The 1950s humanist movement, influenced by Eastern philosophy (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003), focused on individual self and growth. The encounter group movement, for normal adults, emerged with the popularization of humanistic psychology in the 1960s (Weigel, 2002). The Human Potential Movement, born in the counterculture climate of the 1960s, focused on exploration of unrealized human capacities and spawned Gestalt, psychosynthesis, Rolfing, and bioenergetics, among others (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006). Various interviewees described the Human Potential Movement as containing “a lot of competing viewpoints” (R. Carr, personal communication, June 13, 2006), “training in Oriental philosophy and the whole mindfulness movement” (J. Goldrich, personal communication, April 27, 2006), and as being “a huge infusion of energy into the organizational development consulting field” (M. O’Neill, personal communication, July 7, 2006). LGATs of the 1970s–1980s were designed as growth experiences for successful, healthy, and accomplished people, and created an ideal environment for coaching’s acceptance in a wider community. Self-help literature and 12-step support groups increased exponentially in the 1980s and have influenced the development of coaching. Staggs referred to it as “a whole psychologicalization of our society in the late ‘70s, ‘80s, and ‘90s” (personal communication, June 8, 2006). Currently, many psychologists have shifted to or added coaching because of their frustration with politics and economics of traditional mental

health care (Auerbach, 2001; J. Austin, personal communication, June 15, 2006; K. Sloan, personal communication, April 13, 2007).

The data suggest that today's society as a whole is focusing on respecting the individual and human connection (R. Bentley, personal communication, July 3, 2006; M. O'Neill, personal communication, July 7, 2006; S. Sinnestera, personal communication, July 10, 2006). Austin (personal communication, June 15, 2006) describes this as a shift from humanistic (understanding the individual at a deeper level) to individualistic (focus on individual potential and ability to contribute).

Trend toward individualism

Interviewees noted a continuation and growth in the trend toward individualism (S. Anderson, personal communication, May 22, 2006; T. Belf, personal communication, March 30, 2006; C. Reinhardt, personal communication, November 6, 2006; Z. Todorovic, personal communication, May 9, 2007). With the emphasis on self-responsibility and accountability from the human development movement (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006), the increased mobility with accompanying loss of support and connection (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006), and the direct access to information (L. Smith, personal communication, July 3, 2006), people are more self-sufficient and contained than ever before in history.

Equally influential is the changing workforce (C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006; Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006). "The younger generation coming up thinks a lot for themselves and they are like free agents all the time" (L. Smith, personal communication, July 3, 2006). The rise of entrepreneurs and the shift from mechanistic industrial work to knowledge and services

work requires a different workforce (K. Abrams, personal communication, May 11, 2007; B. Mark, personal communication, May 9, 2006). Equally important is the change in psychological contract between employer and employee in a shift from traditional lifetime employment to individual productivity and employability, and exploring leadership versus management (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006).

Convergence Factors

O'Neill (personal communication, July 7, 2006) discusses convergence:

There is something in the way the culture or the professions are developing such that a lot of people are primed to start thinking of something in a similar way. So, it's almost like the roots are pretty distributed, but then they wind up creating one tree. But you would not guess at first that the roots extend in all different directions, leading to a central trunk.

The data on convergence factors are grouped into interdisciplinary connections, socioeconomic influences, and global expansion.

Interdisciplinary connections

Interdisciplinary connections address first the area of cross-disciplinary influences. These influences range from models to influencers' backgrounds. The second area addresses the key institutions where the discipline crossover phenomenon began to take place. The third area looks at the lineage and relationships of key influencers with regard to the connections that contributed to the emergence of coaching.

Cross-disciplinary models. The data showed more complexity in the disciplines of psychology, business, and other root disciplines. Interviewees talked about looking at coaching through an integral lens to really understand the coaching discipline. According

to B. Anderson, “the whole developmental piece in understanding where people are and at their stage of development, whether you’re looking at Beck, Kegan, or Wilber, is very, very helpful for a coach” (personal communication, May 16, 2006). Leduc’s view is “everything builds upon everything else, so there are no new ideas” (personal communication, November 14, 2006), and Jay noted that, “coaching itself exists because it has this huge range that is required because of the differentiated uniqueness around the world of people (personal communication, June 8, 2006). Similarly, McDougall said that Wilber’s integral approach “takes into account multiple dimensions and perspectives of development . . . [and] coaching is the only conversation that lives in the four quadrants of Wilber’s model” (personal communication, May 9, 2007). Drake and Stober (2006) wrote about creating “stronger and clearer ties to the disciplines on which coaching is built and to begin defining a new path for the post professional era” (p 3), which he defines as the period after 1990, when coaching emerged as a distinct discipline.

Cross-disciplinary models formed the foundation for the key influencers of coaching, specifically from the human development movement. Erhard described this process as:

You take those ideas and synthesize something from another perspective, so that you come up with something new that has a value for people the ideas by themselves don’t have, or at least the way the ideas from which they’re drawn have. Not that those ideas didn’t shape and influence people’s thinking, but they’ve never been put in a way or developed in a way that left people different than they had been. (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006)

Whitmore and others took the therapeutic techniques used at Esalen and used them for personal development. However, “it was Tim Gallwey who first took those principles and used them for performance, thus taking it away from pathology into potential” (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006).

According to interview data, key influencers such as Leonard and Whitworth were influenced by their backgrounds in finance, as well as by Erhard, Flores, and various growth workshops and written materials, which led to creating cross-disciplinary models in coaching (C. Freeman, personal communication, May 23, 2006; A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006; M. Panet-Raymond, personal communication, October 22, 2006). The nature and degree of this influence, however, is unclear in Leonard’s case, with interviewees offering contradictory views. In his writing and several interviews, Leonard indicated that, “he never read books or other people’s materials, because this would influence his thinking and would interfere with his creativity” (S. Straus, personal communication, March 2, 2006). Cooper concurred (personal communication, May 5, 2006). However, Straus and other interviewees noted that from the 1990s on, Leonard used individuals and written materials as sounding boards and mentors to help him process and synthesize (S. Vilas, personal communication, March 31, 2006; L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). Buck pointed out that “Thomas [Leonard] did not read self-help books . . . the only time he read a book was if it was fiction . . . he created this thing almost out of his experience . . . [and] he loved reading magazines” (personal communication, June 29, 2006). In fact, Leonard’s Website states: “The work I do and the projects with which I am part of couldn’t happen without the hundreds of coaches at Coach U, my personal R&D Team, and the tens of thousands

of subscribers of my various e-broadcasts who are FULL of wonderful of ideas which they generously share” (Leonard, 2006, p. 34).

Erhard stated, “I did every discipline I could find, and I got value out of every one of them. I learned something from every one of them, but in the final analysis you have to have your own experience of transformation in order to be able to get something new out of the great dialogue of ideas down through the ages” (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006). A lifelong learner, Erhard studied his tennis coach Gallwey, became involved with Flores in 1977, and experienced breakthrough racing in 1978, where he was named rookie of the year (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006). Already successful with the est training, in the late 1970s Erhard opened his network and himself to Flores intellect and philosophical perspective. (J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). Various interviewees stated that Flores was influenced by the biologist Humberto Maturana and philosophers Heidegger, Searle, and Wittgenstein (R. Echevarria, personal communication, April 21, 2006; J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006).

Whitmore’s coaching model reflects his multidisciplinary influences, which included race car driving, business, Esalen, and, ultimately, Gallwey’s Inner Game principles. In his 2005 revision to his *Coaching for Performance* book Whitmore includes transpersonal psychology and psychosynthesis as key foundations for coaches (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006).

Multidisciplinary institutions. The second element of connections addresses those key institutions (professional organizations, training institutions, or service delivery

companies) where the intersections began to take place and cross-disciplinary models propagated. These are the environments or communities where some of the originators and transmitters mingled, or where the folks from psychology and business came together. As Goldrich notes, it is here that we highlight the “distinction between where somebody came from and what they’re using in practice” (personal communication, April 7, 2006).

A few interviewees revealed a critical point in coaching’s emergence as a development of the Human Potential Movement. Kiel stated that, “it was something that grew out of counseling psychology and out of the Human Potential movement” (personal communication, April 4, 2007), while Patrick Williams stated that coaching “has borrowed blatantly, and it should, from the Human Potential Movement” (personal communication, March 6, 2006). Similarly, Nevis suggested a critical point occurred “when organization development borrowed Perls Gestalt therapy techniques in the 1960s” (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006).

“In the 1950s, maybe even a little bit earlier than that, as people started to look at productivity and efficiency within organizations, and there was organizational psychology, those became specialized disciplines of management, consulting, and organizational development” (R. Carr, personal communication June 13, 2006). Management education, consulting and development came from military models of command and control. According to Nevis, “we started applying these Gestalt methods in organizations in the 1960s” (E. Nevis, personal communication, July 3, 2006). The solution-focused approach was brought into organizations in the 1990s as a change methodology, shifting the workplace into a coaching modality (Greene & Grant, 2003).

The discipline crossover phenomenon speaks to boundaries for the coaching discipline, as well as for the root disciplines of psychology, organization development, management, and others.

Interviewees noted that institutions such as Esalen and National Training Laboratories in the United States and Tavistock and Findhorn in the United Kingdom played a role in coaching's emergence. "Esalen was the father in many ways of putting the Human Potential Movement out into the public" (W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006). According to Nevis:

Esalen Institute was bringing in people who were Eastern thinkers . . . then, Fritz Perls went out to live there, and . . . Alan Watts became very popular. They were really trying to look at the whole person in the combination of Eastern and Western thinking. It was a reaction against the two dominant modes in psychology: psychoanalysis and behaviorism. The group . . . formed the Association for Humanistic Psychology . . . a model focused on health rather than illness . . . that really brought back an interest in consciousness and awareness and living in the present moment. (personal communication, July 3, 2006)

Emery described his experience at Esalen as "being totally immersed in this environment, trying to find out what are the origins of human mastery and what is the human potential" (personal communication, May 11, 2007). Whitmore, Alexander, Erhard, and Gallwey, among others, frequented Esalen.

Carr talked about the counterpart to Esalen, "the East coast sensitivity training at NTL (National Training Laboratories) in Bethell, Maine" (personal communication, June, 13, 2006). Both groups were attracting business executives to take part in their group and

individual activities. In the United Kingdom there was Tavistock, which, according to Carr, focused more on setting up confrontation with leaderless groups. Bates, from the United Kingdom, said that, “Tavistock was more specifically clinically oriented, whereas Esalen covers a number of approaches” (personal communication, June 5, 2006). Bates also talked about a spin-off of Tavistock, a psychoanalytically oriented Christian-based organization called the Grubb Institute. The Institute developed organizational role analysis (ORA) in the 1970s, which was “one-to-one sessions with senior executives, which were analytically based” (personal communication, June 5, 2006). Another community in Scotland, called Findhorn, was described by Whitmore as a spiritual organization that was “scared of the psychological stuff.”

A significant crossover event took place in London in May 1974, called the May Lectures, which was hosted by Whitmore and Nick Hart Williams. This weeklong personal development event reached 5,000 people. According to Whitmore, the purpose was to bring together the “left-leaning psychological group in California [Esalen] and in Britain we had right-leaning spiritual group [Findhorn], and they were actually talking the same language” (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). As he describes it:

Trying to get these two together was great fun, and I’ve watched these—they’ve totally merged now, they’re part of the same thing, but at that time they were a long way apart; they didn’t trust each other. They were each doing the same thing coming from totally different perspectives. But it was wonderful just watching it gradually come together. (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006)

H. Kimsey-House described an “Esalen type experience out East in a place called the Omega Center in New York, which is like the East coast version of Esalen. . . . Some of the leading scientific thinkers of the time Rupert Shelldrake, John Naisbett, Fritjof Capra, a lot of those type of guys were there at Omega” (personal communication, April 25, 2006).

The three organizations of Erhard’s Transformational Technologies, John-Roger’s MSIA, and Hanley’s Lifespring, dominated the Human Potential Movement in the 1970s and moved deeper into the corporate world in the 1980s (Main, 1987). According to Main, “their goals and methods were vague, expressed in words such as alignment, commitment, breakthrough, breakdown, and coaching” (§ 2). In 1984 Erhard also brought together sports coaches Gallwey, Wooden, and Auerbach for a taped and broadcast discussion about uniform distinctions of coaching, regardless of the subject being coached.

Professional associations from related disciplines also provided an influence on coaching, as coaching has recently influenced them. For example, the Organization Development Network (ODN) conference in 1994 had a preconference session on coaching (M. Heiler, personal communication, May 7, 2006; D. Siminovitch, personal communication, May 11, 2006) presented by Whitworth and K. Kimsey-House (L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006). According to Mura, in 1996 when PCMA started “90% of PCMA members were members of ODN and/or ASTD” (personal communication, May 29, 2006).

For the cross-fertilization to continue, Blair wants “those doing coaching and [coaching] organizations [to know] that there’s an OD coach journal that they ought to

subscribe to and consider being members of OD . . . so that we get more of this cross-fertilization” (personal communication, May 3, 2006).

Interviewees agreed (P. Rosinski, personal communication, May 22, 2006; J. Seiffer, personal communication, June 7, 2006; J. Staggs, personal communication, June 8, 2006) with Peterson that prior to 1980 “a lot of industrial psychologists [and] . . . management consultants were doing coaching, they just never called it coaching” (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006). In Spring 1996 the *Consulting Psychology Journal* published a special issue on executive coaching, edited by Kilburg, that defined executive coaching “as an emerging competency in the practice of consultation” (Kilburg, 1996b, p. 59). Several interviewees concurred (C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006; M. O’Neill, personal communication, July 7, 2006; T. Maltbia, personal communication, October 27, 2006) with Durand that an executive coach is “more of a consultative coach” (A. Durand, personal communication, June 21, 2006). C. Morgan concurs for executive coaching in the United States, yet states that in the United Kingdom,

As executive coaching entered the vernacular in the business language and the business person’s mind, it was associated with this sort of [Inner Game] facilitative approach, whereas coaching in the U.S. was already preshaded, as somewhat directive and expert. (personal communication, April 19, 2007)

The BPS and the APS began looking at coaching psychology in the early 2000s (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006; A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006; D. Lane, personal communication, June 16, 2006; P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006) at about the same time coach-specific

professional associations such as AC, APECS, EMCC, CCA, and others were being founded outside of North America. An example of coaching influence on psychology is represented by Elliott, the Founding National Convenor of the APS Interest Group in Coaching Psychology (APS-IGCP), when he said:

An important part of the professional-coach repertoire for psychologists involves a new orientation to client relationships. This is about forms of professional service delivery which are proactive in following up clients and working with clients as active learners in helping them to achieve their own defined goals and solutions. (APS, 2005)

The BPS Special Group in Coaching Psychology (BPS-SGCP) focus is “on the elements of psychology drawn from across the profession together into one subsystem, one network where members who deliver coaching services in their identity as a coaching psychologist, which means a psychologist who focuses on coaching as opposed to a psychologist who coaches using one method drawn from one subdomain of the profession. [It’s] the psychology that relates to coaching practice” (P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006).

The Chartered Institute of Professional Development (CIPD) in the United Kingdom has become a key force in the coaching discipline (E. Ferguson, personal communication, May 15, 2006; D. Lane, personal communication, June 16, 2006; D. Megginson, personal communication, June 29, 2006; J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). CIPD publishes the magazine *Coaching at Work* (J. Whitmore, personal communication, 2006); publishes coaching books, such as *Making Coaching Work: Creating a Coaching Culture* (D. Megginson, personal communication,

June 29, 2006); sponsors guides, such as the *Coaching and Buying Coaching Services Guide*; conducts research (G. Schwenk, personal communication, June 5, 2006); and delivers coach training (E. Ferguson, personal communication, May 15, 2006). Appendix S contains details on professional organizations from disciplines related to coaching.

Influencer lineage and relationships. In this section I address the concept of lineage as a convergence factor. Lineage is defined by the names of the influencers, rather than by the discipline It looks at who trained whom, where people got their information, and how they got into the practice of coaching. There are four primary groupings of individuals who were the predominant influencers; however, the distinctions are not as clear as I had anticipated. With the exception of the psychologists and business professionals, individuals in the transmitter and later generations were at some point trained by or influenced by the other groups, predominately the Erhard/Flores lineage. With the exception of Downey, all individuals in the Gallwey/Whitmore group were at some time trained by or connected with Erhard/Flores.

These four lineages are interdisciplinary, meaning many people from different disciplines were influencing each other. I will look at the connections across lineages and by generations, for example, partnerships, relationships, and who studied with whom.

According to Miller, “coaching is about meaningful, deep, intense, positive relationships and . . . the benefit and value of coaching is not so much about what is happening as it is how the relationship is developing and how the relationship grows” (personal communication, May 9, 2006). Within that framework data were grouped to examine the relationships between and among those identified as key influencers. An exploration of these relationships led me to blend the influencer data with the originator,

transmitter, and second- and later-generation categories to create a genealogy chart to help identify the lineages that influenced coaching. The interplay of chronology and relationships are displayed in the genealogy charts in Appendix P; however, they do not reflect the total span of influence for any individual. Interview data connected at least 24 (29.3%) of the 82 key influencers with Erhard. This is displayed in Appendix Q.

A primary coaching lineage emerged from the Erhard/Flores large group awareness trainings (LGAT) and psychology, with a second lineage from Gallwey/Whitmore through sports. The LGAT group was heavily influenced by Erhard for the delivery mechanism and Flores for the content (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). This lineage is characterized by “a tribe or a network of people” (S. McGhee, personal communication, April 2, 2007) with many connections and cross-sharing (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006; J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006; J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006). Leonard, an Erhard/Flores descendent, founded the ICF in 1995 (D. Buck, personal communication, June 29, 2006; C. Richardson, personal communication, May 9, 2006; S. Vilas, personal communication, March 31, 2006) and the IAC in 2002 (D. Buck, personal communication, June 29, 2006; M. Cooper, personal communication, May 5, 2006; B. Mark, personal communication, May 9, 2006), the two largest global coaching professional organizations in membership, according to ICF (2007) and IAC (2005). Four of the largest and oldest coach-training programs also emerged from decendents of the Erhard/Flores lineage: New Ventures West (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006), Newfield Network (T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006; J. Olalla, personal communication,

March 22, 2006), Coach U (B. Anderson, personal communication, May 16, 2006; S. Anderson, personal communication, May 22, 2006; S. Vilas, personal communication, March 31, 2006), and The Coaches Training Institute (L. Whitworth, personal communication, April 20, 2006).

In the late 1970s, the Erhard/Flores lineage, and Selman, “introduced the concept in the context of business and organization” (J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006) as the notion of organizational culture changed. This culminated in the birth of Transformational Technologies in 1984 and increased the use of the word “coaching” in business.

While the Gallwey/Whitmore group took principles from psychology into the sports arena and then into business in the 1980s, there was a connection to Erhard through Esalen and personal relationships. There was cross-sharing between the Erhard/Flores personal development lineage and the Gallwey/Whitmore sports lineage, predominately in the United Kingdom through Whitmore, Alexander, and Ditzler (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006; J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). According to Erhard, “Tim was one of the coaches that I studied . . . and I really learned a lot working with him . . . [as a tennis coach and] . . . John [Whitmore] came to visit and gave me some support coaching [in race car driving]” (personal communication, May 23, 2006). Whitmore also brought Erhard to the United Kingdom in 1974 to present the first est training in Europe (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). The Inner Game coaches in the United Kingdom include the three most influential United

Kingdom coaches of Whitmore, Alexander, and Downey (J. Joyce, personal communication, June 5, 2006).

The psychology lineage comprises psychologists who provide services and established specific coach-training organizations that drew heavily on the theories and models of psychology. In some cases there is a cross-link with the Erhard/Flores lineage; however, as a whole, this lineage is more independent and displays less cross-sharing than the Erhard/Flores and Gallwey/Whitmore lineages. Peterson describes the psychology lineage as:

Very independent, and, for the most part, are competing with each other. There hasn't been nearly as much drive, and they don't feel a need quite so much for training and certification. They're already licensed psychologists, for the most part, if they want to be. (personal communication, May 1, 2006)

From the interview data, the psychologist lineage contains the consulting firms of KRW International (F. Kiel, personal communication, April 24, 2007), RHR International (J. Durosher, personal communication, October 5, 2007), and the Center for Creative Leadership (C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006), among others, who provide executive coaching. However, individuals from these firms were not identified as key influencers for the reasons described by Peterson.

There are companies in which the founder or a key executive has been identified as a key influencer. These include the Hudson Institute (F. Hudson, personal communication, June 28, 2006; R. Leider, personal communication, May 16, 2006; P. McLean, personal communication, June 28, 2006); Strozzi Institute (J. Selman, personal communication, July 7, 2006; R. Strozzi-Heckler, personal communication, June 9,

2006), which trains coaches; and Personnel Decisions International (D. Peterson, personal communication, May 1, 2006), which provides both executive coaching and coach training in organizations. Appendix Q contains the detailed genealogy charts. One example of global cross-sharing is Hudson's influence in 1991 on Turner, who founded Le Dojo in France (J. Turner, personal communication, June 17, 2006).

The fourth lineage is the business lineage, which includes the psychologists who came to coaching from consulting, as well as people from a business background. Influencers such as Drucker, Blanchard, Schein, Argyris, Block, Peters, Covey, Goleman, Cooperrider, and Senge are included in this group.

Socioeconomic factors

Socioeconomic factors at the time appeared to have greatly influenced the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline. These factors include information technology, personal transformation technology, global politics, and humanist centers.

During the 1990s, technology advances allowed for virtual training through the availability of the Internet and inexpensive phone teleconference lines (D. Goldsmith, personal communication, May 4, 2006; M. Homan, personal communication, March 6, 2006). Several interviewees attributed the offering of virtual teleclass training to Leonard's fascination with technology. From the early 1990s Coach U was able to offer virtual teleclass training globally to people who had access to the technology (J. Cook, personal communication, April 2, 2006; J. Perry, personal communication, March 29, 2006; S. Straus, personal communication, March 2, 2006). To further extend coaching, Coach U offered scholarships to the first five students from each country who enrolled (J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006; J. Tandberg, personal communication,

April 25, 2006). In many cases it was these students, for example Holm and Tandberg (J. Tandberg, personal communication, April 25, 2006) and McDougall (C. McDougall, personal communication, May 9, 2007), who “ended up really taking the lead in coaching in their respective communities” (J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006).

Interviewees identified several factors that supported the availability of the principles and practices of coaching outside of English-speaking countries. One factor was the global spread of the personal transformation technology of Erhard and others (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006; P. Willis, personal communication, June 29, 2006). Another factor was the opportunity for international students to study in the United States. Homma reported that “Ito invited me to study coaching while I was doing my Ph.D. study at the University of Minnesota in 1997” (personal communication, May 15, 2006), while in 1994 Enomoto “went to the States to go through a graduate study, through a school called California Institute of Integral Studies” (personal communication, May 2, 2006). Itoh, Homma, and Enomoto from Japan were all doing graduate work in the United States, while they were students of Coach University (Itoh and Homma) and CTI (Enomoto) (H. Enomoto, personal communication, May 2, 2006; M. Homma, personal communication, May 15, 2006). A third factor was the technology (D. Goldsmith, personal communication, May 4, 2006; J. Tandberg, personal communication, April 25, 2006) of the Internet and telephones, which provided the opportunity for virtual coach training. Bench describes the “need for high tech and high touch evolving simultaneously” (personal communication, November 13, 2006).

In the 1970s, Flores and Olalla emigrated to the United States where they became involved with Erhard and est (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006; J. Olalla, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Eventually Flores returned to Chile and became reinvolved with politics, while Olalla introduced ontological coaching in Chile and the United States from the early 1990s (T. Lupberger, personal communication, March 30, 2006; J. Olalla, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Echevarria, also exiled from Chile in the 1970s, worked from 1988 to 1990 with Fernando Flores and founded The Newfield Group with Julio Olalla in 1990 (personal communication, April 21, 2006).

The final convergence factor is that of the humanist centers that sprung up on the West Coast of the United States (Esalen), the East Coast of the United States (NTL and Omega), and in the United Kingdom (Findhorn and Tavistock). These centers attracted many of the originator generation, including Rogers, Perls, Maslow, Schein, Gallwey, Erhard, along with Whitmore and Alexander of the transmitter generation (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; W. Erhard, personal communication, May 23, 2006; Esalen, 2006; J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006).

The interconnections between the factors of information technology, personal transformation technology, global politics, and humanist centers collectively interacted to influence the emergence of coaching. Buck described coaching as a phenomenon resulting from a big economic shift from blue collar work to white collar work, an accumulative effect of all the human development work, more people getting to a place of economic comfort, and people are living longer (personal communication, 2006). Fitzgerald indicated that as “leadership jobs were getting more and more challenging . . .

the expectations for interpersonal skills goes up substantially . . . [and] this is becoming more of a service economy” (personal communication, July 11, 2006).

Global expansion

The data suggest that while the training of coaches and founding of professional associations occurred in the US in the early 1990s, coaching was a service offering in many different countries from the 1980s. The data also suggest that coaching emerged concurrently and separately from several different countries, as well as from different groups within a country (M. Atkinson, personal communication, September 19, 2006; M. Downey, personal communication, June 27, 2006; H. Entz, personal communication, May 7, 2006). Sinclair stated that “every coaching approach is culturally influenced” and the “link between the cultural soup they are swimming in and what they are doing in coaching” (personal communication, 2006) is not always apparent. Vogelauer stated that:

I think the development of coaching in Europe is also different enough. There’s no similarity between the new European countries, the central east European countries. There’s a difference between these countries and also the German-speaking part, as well as the Nordic part, and as well as the rest of European part. (personal communication, June 29, 2006)

Entz stated that, “coaching developed in various places parallel to what happened in the United States” (personal communication, May 7, 2006). Interviewees genially agreed with Entz’s statement (T. Bates, personal communication, June 5, 2006; M. Downey, personal communication, June 27, 2006; F. Hudson, personal communication, June 28, 2006), yet often thought their home country was ahead of the other countries in coaching development (G. Alexander, personal communication, May 31, 2007; H. Entz,

personal communication, May 7, 2006; W. Vogelauer, personal communication, June 29, 2006). For example, Whitmore said 1980 “was really the birth of coaching in business in England” (personal communication, March 22, 2006), and Peterson said, “In 1981, PDI, the company that I worked for, was the first company to formally offer executive coaching services [in the United States]. And there was a company in 1981 there [London] that started marketing themselves as coaches” (personal communication, May 1, 2006). Other interviewees gave examples of coaching being practiced in Germany and Austria during this time (H. Entz, personal communication, May 7, 2006; W. Vogelauer, personal communication, June 29, 2006).

The data suggest that a key influence on the spread of coaching globally was the Coach U 1997 scholarship program and the virtual nature of its training (J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006; C. McDougall, personal communication, May 9, 2007; J. Tandberg, personal communication, 2006). Several other influences on the geographic spread of coaching were training programs, such as CTI (A. Gabel, personal communication, November 28, 2006; L. Shook, personal communication, May 3, 2006) and Erickson College (M. Atkinson, personal communication, 2006; M. Krigbaum, personal communication, 2006); opening the markets; and multinational companies bringing in coaching as part of their corporate culture (M. Lorenzen, personal communication, June 16, 2006; E. Wong, personal communication, June 17, 2006). Training companies include Coach U, which licensed their materials (D. Goldsmith, personal communication, May 4, 2006; S. Vilas, personal communication, March 31, 2006) in 1997 to Japan, in 1998 to Australia and New Zealand and to Singapore, in 2002 to Italy; and to Korea in 2003 (J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006). CTI

trained coaches in the United Kingdom in 1999, in Japan in 2000, and in Norway in 2001 (A. Gabel, personal communication, November 28, 2006; L. Shook, personal communication, May 3, 2006). Results Coaching trained coaches in the United States in 2001, in the United Kingdom and Singapore in 2002, and in South Africa in 2004 (D. Rock, personal communication, June 8, 2006). Newfield Network delivered coach training in the United States, Canada, and Mexico from the early 1990s (J. Olalla, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Other training companies such as New Ventures West (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006), B-Coach (M. Jay, personal communication, June 8, 2006), and International Life Coach Training (ILCT) (Patrick Williams, personal communication, March 6, 2006) deliver coach trainings in many global markets.

As coaching spread country by country, region by region, like most new disciplines, the data suggest that it has gone through a phase of being “derided by many other professions and not paid attention to” (M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006). Several interviewees agreed (R. Bentley, personal communication, July 3, 2006; S. Sinnestera, personal communication, 2006), including Cardon, who asserts/ “they haven't changed anything, but put coaching on their business card” (personal communication, June 9, 2006). This cycle of emergence is addressed in subsection Generational influences. Here I look at the emergence from a lineage and influence perspective.

United Kingdom. In the late 1970s there was a wave of interest in managers as coaches, because corporations “wanted their managers to coach rather than to use

command and control” (D. Megginson, personal communication, June 29, 2006). In 1977, Megginson and Boydell defined coaching at that time as:

A skill set to be used by a manager . . . we say that coaching is a process in which a manager, through direct discussion and guided activity, helps a colleague to learn to solve a problem or do a task better than would otherwise have been the case. (Megginson & Boydell, 1979, p. 1)

In 1980 Whitmore brought technology from the United States to England and it was delivered by individual practitioners “with the result that it spread around more broadly” (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006). The same year Ditzler, who formerly worked for Erhard, started Results Unlimited to deliver personal counseling, or life coaching as we call it today, through a Personal Effectiveness Plan (J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006). Several interviewees from the United Kingdom said the British thought *coach* referred to a bus or was sport related, so they used the term *consultant* or *counselor* instead (J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006; E. Ferguson, personal communication, May 15, 2006). By 1984, Inner Game and Results Unlimited consultants were delivering coaching services in business (J. Whitmore, personal communication, March 22, 2006; J. Ditzler, personal communication, December 19, 2006). As with much of Europe, NLP has been a pretty significant influence to a lot of coaching in the United Kingdom (M. Lorenzen, personal communication, June 16, 2006; G. Schwenk, personal communication, June 5, 2006). In the 1980s, Downey was doing management development “using a training film that was made in Britain, which was talking about coaching in the job context” as development

coaching (personal communication, June 27, 2006). According to Whitmore, coaching in England:

Was a little earlier in terms of the humanistic therapy than it was on the continent, because we had the same language as Americans. I think it just got to England first. I don't think England was ahead. (personal communication, March 22, 2006) Bentley indicated.

The rise of coaching in England was influenced by a number of different influences . . . one of which was the downsizing of many of the large corporations, shedding people, particularly those getting older. (personal communication, July 3, 2006)

By 1997 Downey, also an Inner Game coach, founded the School of Coaching in London. This was the first United Kingdom-based coaching school “utterly devoted to the development of coaching skills in leadership populations and also for aspiring professional coaches” (personal communication, June 27, 2006). Joyce, in his research on executive coaching in the United Kingdom, concurred (personal communication, June 5, 2006).

Europe. Interviewees offered diverse views on the style and spread of coaching in Europe (A. Cardon, personal communication, June 9, 2006; H. Entz, personal communication, May 7, 2006; M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006; W. Vogeclair, personal communication, June 29, 2006), which many see as different in Northern, Central, Eastern, Southern Europe and in the United Kingdom. Entz sees “Germany, France, and Austria as developing concurrently, yet separately [and] the German-speaking countries, the German part of Germany, Switzerland, and Austria, as

developing at the same time together.” Entz also sees coaching developing at approximately the same time in Europe and the U.S. and “originating out of organizational development and corporate psychology” (personal communication, May 7, 2006). Vogelauer describes the organization development roots as:

Between the Tavistock work in England (more group dynamic work and structural/logical development) and the Netherlands Pedagogic Institute in Holland (a more anthroposophic institute, founded in the mid-1950s), I think the basis of our work is a systemic approach. (personal communication, June 29, 2006)

Lorenzen also sees that in most of continental Europe coaching was largely NLP or Transactional Analysis (personal communication, June 16, 2006). Sandstrom states:

Europeans were truly much further ahead of us [United States] from the psychological standpoint, being comfortable using that, transitioning it in to “Here is who you are” from the expert of their psychology, but then more in a coach approach to “Here’s the way you are and options for what you can do about this knowledge now.” (personal communication, 2006)

Todorovic adds the influence of Landmark and Robbins into the mix (personal communication, May 5, 2007).

Krigbaum reported that “the evolution [of coaching] in Europe was clearly more of a corporate business evolution. . . . And still remains more of a corporate evolution than a life coaching evolution” (personal communication, August 6, 2006).

According to Whitmore, the humanistic and performance-based coaching from England spread to Holland, Scandinavia, particularly the Swedes and the Danes, and then

into the Latin countries like Italy and Spain (personal communication, March 22, 2006). In Belgium, Rosinski developed a one-year program in the early 1990s for individual and team facilitation helping people to find their own solutions. It was in 1995 when Rosinski was working for the Center for Creative Leadership and speaking at conferences about coaching, that he started to think of himself as a coach (P. Rosinski, personal communication, 2006).

Entz sees coaching in Germany as developing:

In and around the same time as it did in the U.S, if not actually even a little earlier . . . out of organizational development and workplace psychology . . . around the late 80s, early 90s. (personal communication, May 7, 2006)

A 1986 article described a five-session process of personal counseling, which was very similar to the coaching processes of 2008, even to coaching by telephone with a complimentary first session (W. Vogelauer, personal communication, June 29, 2006). According to Entz, people providing coaching services in Germany were “a lot of very established people that came out of the psychological realm, rather than people development . . . out of the NLP area.” Entz goes on to say:

The paradox[ical] thing about Germany is that Germany has the biggest NLP association in the world. And, in Germany, there is the biggest hesitation against NLP, because a lot of people say it’s manipulative. (personal communication, May 7, 2006)

A characteristic of German-speaking countries is “somewhere around 180 coach-training programs in Germany, Switzerland, Australia,” many of which are conducted only in German and are a bit exclusive (H. Entz, personal communication, May 7, 2006).

Entz says the “ICF chapter leaders are in conversation with 11 other associations in Germany, trying to get more oomph with regard to regulation issues.” Another characteristic described by Vogelauer and Szabo is the active role of supervision in German-speaking countries, which is “like bringing a person with his learning to a new way of learning . . . focused on daily work, focused on educational things, like psychological learning” (personal communication, June 30, 2006). Vogelauer has had discussions in the German-speaking countries concerning whether “coaching [is] a part of supervision, or in which way supervision and coaching are identified?” (personal communication, June 29, 2006).

Vogelauer describes in Austria a licensing and “legal situation where there are two groups, one group is the life and social counseling, and the other is business consulting. They both are legal. A coach is not legal” (personal communication, June 29, 2006). Attempts to found the Swiss Coaching Association in 1995 did not work out because it was so little known at the time. Szabo goes on to say:

It’s a general tendency in Switzerland right now to get more regulation and order into the different professions. . . . Getting things properly and orderly regulated is an important factor in a German-thinking set of mind and culture. Having academic titles for coaching is very big right now, and having bodies that officially recognize a profession as a profession and define with security and [the] regulation side of a profession is something that is very comfortable for German cultural mindsets. And Switzerland is part of that mindset. (personal communication, June 30, 2006)

Coaching in France began with Transactional Analysis, then Neuro-Linguistic Programming (A. Cardon, personal communication, June 9, 2006; M. Lorenzen personal communication, June 16, 2006). Cardon also described the French tradition as analytical, “a mental approach of what went wrong . . . a lot of times questions are asked to understand what is going on . . . to find solutions that are analytical” (personal communication, June 9, 2006). Turner identified that coach training existed in France in 1993 and she founded the French Society for Coaching (SF Coach) in 1995 (personal communication, June 17, 2006). She also “founded Le Dojo in 1990 to train in human relations, Neuro-Linguistic Programming, Transactional Analysis, and General Semantics. Coach training was included in 1993 and became a full-blown coaching certification in 1995” (personal communication, June 17, 2006). Lorenzen identified Leonhardt as another early pioneer of coaching in France who “introduced Transactional Analysis in Europe, [and] was talking coaching before Thomas Leonard. Leonhardt’s first coaching book was published in 1992” (personal communication, June 16, 2006).

One lineage of coaching in Scandinavia began in 1997 when Tandberg received a scholarship to attend Coach U, attended the 1998 ICF conference, and became a member of the ICF board in 1999 (J. Tandberg, personal communication, April 25, 2006). Tandberg takes credit for creating the nucleus of the Nordic Coach Federation, which was launched in 2000, and took several actions to promote coaching throughout the Scandinavian countries (personal communication, April 25, 2006). In 2001 CTI brought its training to Norway and in 2006 started using Scandinavian coaches as trainers (L. Shook, personal communication, May 3, 2006).

Lorenzen indicated that in Spain and Italy coaching is less important in business and there are fewer schools and fewer coaches (personal communication, June 16, 2006), though this may be changing with CTI entering Spain in September 2004 (L. Shook, personal communication, May 3, 2006) and ICF accrediting several coach-training programs from the early 2000s (ICF, 2007). According to Lorenzen, in Central Europe many of the early coaches went to the United Kingdom or other countries for training, and “the different countries are in various states of development” (personal communication, June 16, 2006). Vogelauer reports that in Central Europe “there is more psychological work in the direct talking to the person and it’s also more focused on the Gestalt” (personal communication, June 29, 2006).

Canada. Some coaching firsts came from Canada: New Start Life Coaching Skills group training began in 1971 for disadvantaged job seekers (R. Paytner, personal communication, May 5, 2006), and Sullivan started Strategic Coach in 1988 with a lifetime-focusing structure and process for entrepreneurs (Strategic Coach, 2007). Olalla began training coaches in Canada in 1990 (J. Olalla, personal communication, March 22, 2006). Despite these firsts, Canada was “further behind the curve in terms of general knowledge about coaching or just awareness about coaching” (M. Sinclair, personal communication, June 21, 2006). While the spread of coaching in Canada is closely tied to the spread of coaching in the United States, “it is a separate culture, a separate identity . . . [and it] has evolved in a fairly pure form” (M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006). According to Krigbaum, the five or six coach-training schools in Canada “have done a much better job of blending the academics with the private” and of not being as competitive with one another (personal communication, August 6, 2006).

Japan, China, and South East Asia. Unlike China, the coaching tradition in Japan and Korea grew out of the North American tradition (J. Cook, personal communication, April 2, 2006; J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006). According to Krigbaum, “the forces are being driven by licensing of U.S.-based programs and by people who are going through those programs and then bringing that human technology back to their countries” (personal communication, August 6, 2006).

The key Japanese players are Itoh, Homma, and Enomoto. According to Homma, who attended the training in 1985, Itoh ran a human awareness seminar company based on Lifespring called *It's a Beautiful Day* and published a best-selling book by the same name (personal communication, May 15, 2006). In 1997, Itoh started the first coach-training company in Japan, called Coach 21, to provide Coach U programs in Japan (D. Goldsmith, personal communication, May 4, 2006; K. Hirano, personal communication, May 28, 2006; M. Homma, personal communication, May 15, 2006). According to Hirano, who translated many of the materials, they asked D. Goldsmith to come to Japan to do a workshop for them in June 1997 (personal communication, May 28, 2006). Hirano also said that most of the “people who came to this training were housewives . . . but now it is more executive people, especially men” (personal communication, May 28, 2006). By 1999 coaching became a trend in Japan. Enomoto published a coaching book called *Stretch Your People by Coaching* in 1999, which sold more than a hundred thousand copies by 2006 (personal communication, May 2, 2006). The response was so great, Enomoto became serious about bringing CTI to Japan, which he did in May 2000, when H. Kimsey-House and Enomoto himself presented the first workshop. According to Enomoto, “I thought we might have to change how we present our programs, but it

turned out that I was wrong. Japanese people loved the way it was” (personal communication, May 2, 2006). PHP Institute, which stands for “peace and happiness through prosperity,” offered coaching in Japan in 1999. The organization was started by Matsushita, the founder of Panasonic (H. Enomoto, personal communication, May 2, 2006). In 2001, Homma published two books: *Introduction to Business Coaching* and *Coaching Scenarios*. Both Enomoto and Homma conducted coach training for a time with PHP Institute (H. Enomoto, personal communication, May 2, 2006; M. Homma, personal communication, May 15, 2006). According to Enomoto, there are three kinds of coaching businesses in Japan; one is to train people to become professional coaches, another is training coaching skills for corporate managers, and, lastly, offering individual coaching for corporate managers and executives (personal communication, May 2, 2006). Japan Coach Association (JCA) started in 1999 with graduates of Coach 21 and “has the license or affiliation for ministry of education to certify coaches in Japan and are affiliated with ICF” (D. Goldsmith, personal communication, May 5, 2006).

Coaching in China evolved separately from other coaching traditions. Wong and Lueng founded Top Human in Hong Kong in 1996 “by applying a fusion of Western management principles and ancient Eastern philosophies to a Chinese Environment” (Wong & Leung, 2007, front cover). Wong and Leung took the training, based on Taoist principles, to China in 1997 (E. Wong, personal communication, May 17, 2006).

According to Wong:

Some of the methodology, perspective, and theories coming from the West that some local Chinese are having difficulties with that type of training. Coaching is very cultural based. You need to be able to appreciate the culture before you can

coach the others. How people are operating here—some of the behavior is coming from 5,000 years ago. (personal communication, May 17, 2006)

Ng talks about Top Human’s “focus on skill . . . and [on] people to improve their management style and improve the company, and remind them of their social responsibility” (personal communication, June 20, 2006).

Wong formed China Coach Association in 2003. It is the only official association for coaches, because in China the legal system is such that any organization is initiated by the government (personal communication, May 17, 2006).

Gimm is a pioneer in coaching from South Korea. Besides bringing Stephen Covey’s work to Korea, in 2003 he brought the Coach U program to Korea (J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006). According to Corbin, in 1998 Phillips in Singapore licensed Coach U materials and trained many coaches.

Australia and New Zealand. Coaching in Australia spontaneously arose from several different traditions around the same time. One was a Coach U license for Australia and New Zealand by Fitzgerald in 1998 (J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006). Another was Results Coaching founded by Rock in 1998 (J. Corbin, personal communication, June 8, 2006; D. Rock, personal communication, June 8, 2006). The third was the Coaching Psychology program at the University of Sydney, established by Grant in 2000 (M. Cavanagh, personal communication, May 10, 2006; A. Grant, personal communication, May 15, 2006). Another key player in the rise of coaching in Australia was McDougall, who trained at Coach U in 1997, became a member of the ICF board in 1998, and launched the ICFA in Australia in 1999 (C. McDougall, personal communication, May 9, 2007). According to McDougall, when she started coaching in

1997 there were only “five other people coaching in Australia, and one of them was John Mathews, who had been doing it for four years” (personal communication, May 9, 2007).

Latin America. Coaching in Latin America got its start in the late 1980s from the Flores/Erhard lineage. According to Olalla, who was originally from Chile, in 1990 “I began doing three-day coach trainings in Canada, United States, and Mexico, and people wanted more” (personal communication, March 22, 2006). In 1998, Selman “started a government-accredited university degree program in coaching and leadership” (personal communication, July 7, 2006). Selman goes on to say that, “the ontological school [of Flores and Olalla] has had a more formal grounding of people in South America than the States until more recently.” Krigbaum says that, “Julio is really the force in South America and yet a lot of it is still unseen to us because of language . . . but he is not the only force in South America as he once was” (personal communication, August 6, 2006). Sonia Sinnestera of Columbia agrees: “The sense of the first movement along coaching, it was in Chile, ontological coaching through Julio Olalla” (personal communication, July 10, 2006). Sinnestera, trained by CTI, founded Coaching Hall International in Bogota Columbia in 2003 (K. Kimsey-House, personal communication, March 14, 2006; S. Sinnestera, personal communication, July 10, 2006). According to K. Kimsey-House, “Sonia is doing work based in the coactive coaching model, but has really gone and created her own thing” (personal communication, March 14, 2006). Sinnestera has primarily done work in the northern part of South America and touching countries in Central America and sees:

The trend in Central, South America has been a great deal of work in OD, with a great focus and strength in all kinds of training. . . . [Businesses] have a strong

tradition of hierarchical management. . . . [It's] about finding how you as a manager can really help others evolve . . . this paradigm shift is what coaches are bringing to South America and Central America. (personal communication, March 14, 2006)

Lupberger, Olalla's business partner in Newfield Network, shares that:

We have our sister company in South America, Chile, and coaching is just so different the way it's used. People go to Newfield in Chile, not because they want to hang a shingle called coach. That has changed over the last three years. Some people are starting to go to Newfield because, at the end, what they're looking for is that certification. But, most people are still going because of what coaching allows for, what powerful way of communicating, coordinating action, being with other people, as opposed to what I want is certification. (personal communication, March 30, 2006)

In 2001, Krausz of Brazil hosted an international conference and talked about executive coaching. By 2003 she was training people in executive coaching with a 120-hour program (personal communication, May 20, 2007).

Russia. Krigbaum stated that coaching in Russia "began to evolve out of the work of both Coach U and Erickson College. It's harder to build a coaching tradition, [as] Russia is in a survival mode, and people always have an agenda" (personal communication, August 6, 2006). Atkinson, founder of Erickson College in Canada, has been working strongly in Russia since 1991. She first taught NLP to groups of 200 to 300 people, and later helped develop the coaching discipline in Russia (M. Atkinson, personal

communication, 2006). In November 2002 the first ICF conference was held in Russia, with 120 attendees in St. Petersburg and 250 in Moscow (ICF, 2002b).

Africa. The evolution of the coaching tradition in South Africa seems to be driven by European- and U.S.-trained coaches” (A. Cardon, personal communication, June 9, 2006; M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006). New Ventures West and Results Coaching, among others, are training coaches in the South African market (J. Flaherty, personal communication, May 5, 2006; D. Rock, personal communication, June 8, 2006). The Pat Grove Coach Academy in South Africa is from the Flores/Erhard lineage and adheres to an ontological coaching foundation (Grove, 2006). In 2003, Steinberg (2007) brought the Creative Consciousness International (CCI) coach academy to South Africa.

Middle East. “The Middle East is a much smaller coaching tradition, as they are busy worrying about things like war” (M. Krigbaum, personal communication, August 6, 2006). Arbel, who graduated from Coach U in 2001 and was the first coach in Israel, agrees and says, “there is a sense of urgency to live the life we have, because we may be dead tomorrow” (personal communication, November 3, 2007). This is reflected in her coaching style, which is to hold the truth and get to the heart of the matter. According to Lorenzen, “Dubai, Emirates is the only place of contact for coaching where most are formal British citizens and have done United Kingdom coach training” (personal communication, June 16, 2006).

Intersections in Coaching’s Emergence as a Distinct Discipline

Interviewees identified four socioeconomic influences that intersected to create an environment that was ripe for coaching. These four influences are: the complexity of the

post-modern society, the evolution of global consciousness and spiritual paradigms, the humanistic worldview of humankind, and the trend toward individualism.

Among the aspects of the increasingly complex modern society, interviewees reported that the environment in which the shifts occurred included: the economic shift to knowledge work, the accumulated effect of human development work, people living longer and in more economic comfort (D. Buck, personal communication, June 29, 2006). Wildflower notes that, “where the desire for growth comes for most people is when they’ve got enough to eat” (personal communication, June 30, 2006). As Boyatzis said:

The reason that coaching is so popular now is a multiple thing. One, we’ve had this tremendous set of forces on us to separate us from the people that we used to be able to just sit and talk about a lot of things with. Secondly, I think that the pressure for performance, deliverable satisfaction, being good in bed, all the different performance pressures that we’re under at different ages and stages, have conspired to make people feel this really unbelievable need to keep growing or changing or improving. And on top of that, there is a real quest for novelty and learning in a lot of people, and that’s a very healthy quest. (personal communication, May 8, 2007)

In business, leadership is more challenged by diversity, changing values, and expectations for interpersonal skills (C. Fitzgerald, personal communication, July 11, 2006). Naisbitt (1980) talked about the need for high tech and high touch evolving simultaneously. Technology “provides access to information as well as access to individuals without the physical contact—[it] allows us to have dialogue which enhances

connection” (C. McDougall, personal communication, May 29, 2007). Coaching is the high touch part of the equation—listening, meaningful connection, and a trusting relationship.

The data highlighted the influence of the evolution of global consciousness and spiritual paradigms. Steinhorn paraphrases Wilber when she says, “we’re at a time and place in the world where just about all cultures, all societies, all forms of human thought and religions are available to us in one way or another” (personal communication, March 24, 2006). Atkinson said, “Well I think coaching is something growing through us . . . something that just burst out in all of us at the right time, as if something had an aim to grow” (personal communication, 2006). As Kiel described it, “It’s interesting how ideas emerge simultaneously all over. Have you ever heard that fable of the hundredth monkey? That type of an idea” (personal communication, April 24, 2007). As the evolution of human consciousness raises, the technology moves right along with it to support it. For example, “we now have wireless Internet . . . our consciousness and the level of connectivity, to life, to levels of connectivity, to experience; it’s out there. Anybody can create anything, because technology simply supports our current state of evolution” (Z. Todorovic, personal communication, May 9, 2007).

The humanistic worldview of humankind prompted expansion in the areas of personal growth, evolution, and development and prepared society for the emergence of coaching. Interview data indicated that coaching emerged simultaneously in the United Kingdom, United States, and Germany, due in part to the integral perspective of humanistic and transpersonal theories and models, connections between influencers, and the rise of multidisciplinary solutions to socioeconomic conditions.

Data suggests that the trend toward individualism is supported by the emphasis on self-responsibility and accountability from the human development movement, the complexity of the postmodern world, the shift to knowledge and service work, and the demise of traditional lifetime employment. S. Anderson describes how coaching supports this trend toward individualism:

Each new approach to thinking creates another avenue to endorse the individual human being and to increase awareness of expanded choices in understanding ourselves and others. Coaches are in a unique position to synthesize this information and present it when it's most useful. Coaches champion thinking without sacrificing action. (personal communication, May 22, 2006)

Predictions for Coaching's Future Purposes and Processes

Coaching will become more mainstream and organically change the world in a very natural process (D. Prior, personal communication, February 28, 2006). H. Kimsey-House believes:

The goal of coaching is to have people being fully vital, fully alive, and fully authentic and fully present, and . . . moving in the direction they want to be heading . . . coaching is the first step on that journey, and I think the more people that are doing coaching and involved in that objective, the more the world will start becoming the world that we all want to live in. (personal communication, April 25, 2006)

Kiel suggested that the next future of coaching is people such as managers, educators, and parents who want to have coaching skills to be more effective in their roles (personal communication, April 24, 2007). Today “coaching can be added to most

any of other process interventions which would allow people to get support for the changes they are trying to put into place from doing these other processes” (M. O’Neill, personal communication, July 7, 2006). Cooper believes “we owe it to humanity to allow everyone to learn these skills if they want them” (personal communication, May 5, 2006).

Coaching is about connection and customized change. According to Jay:

Coaching itself exists because it has this huge range, which is required because the differentiated uniqueness around the world of people. One of the things in coaching is that there must be at least an infinite number of ways to help a person. . . . So we need something that doesn’t fall into a system to where you get an accounting approach to where you get somebody checking off a list. . . . Most of the coaching approaches that we will need in the next five years have not been invented yet. (personal communication, June 8, 2006)

Leider is “seeing coaching is way beyond the boundaries of what we normally think about coaching . . . people have to figure out who they want to be or what they want to do before they can figure out what to do with their money” (personal communication, May 16, 2006) or time or energy.

Professional Challenge

The data suggest that socioeconomic influences intersected to create an environment that was ripe for coaching, and that coaching emerged in different places simultaneously. The practice of coaching is influenced by cultural factors. The increased complexity resulting from coaching’s multiple birthplaces, each with a different culture, is a challenge in trying to create a global profession. Sinclair states, “every coaching approach is culturally influenced [and] the same is true, for instance, for counseling and

psychotherapy” (personal communication, June 21, 2006). The implicit challenges are that coaching may continue to evolve and innovate with increasingly blurred boundaries and difficulty in arriving at a global agreement on the models, theories, and practice characteristics of coaching.

The challenge is how will coaching become a global discipline with a uniquely distinct discipline of practice and a body of knowledge in a socioeconomic environment that calls for an integral perspective of innovation, creativity, flexibility, collaboration, and inclusiveness?

Summary

In this chapter I have presented data from three sources (literature, survey, and interview). I categorized these data by disciplines, people contributions, and emergence factors. Appendix U displays the research trajectory from these three areas that set the foundation for the present state of coaching. When I looked across all three sets of data from the literature, survey, and interviews, the information about the disciplines and roots was consistent.

What Specific Influences Do Each of the Relevant Root Disciplines Exert in Coaching?

The greatest influence is psychology as a discipline, primarily humanistic and clinical, for the theories and models. Business, in the form of organization development, management, and consulting provides the second greatest influence, followed by sports, and adult learning and development. The originators of the models and theories of coaching and the transmitters and subsequent generations also adapted or borrowed certain theories and principles from Eastern and Western philosophy.

The current coaching paradigm adapts, blends, and integrates tools and models primarily from the established professions for use with a non-clinical population, from a humanistic orientation, and with a focus on change, resulting in tools and models unique to the coaching discipline.

I discovered that humanistic psychology specifically contributed the concepts of potential, consciousness, awareness and living in the present moment, and being non-directive. Specifically, from Gestalt theory coaching derives the concepts of focusing on the present and creating relationship. NLP contributed to coaching the concepts of what we tell ourselves becomes real, repetition, belief, intuition, and language patterns. Clinical psychology contributed the concepts of gaining rapport with clients, the joint discovery process, to lead gently and not push, gathering a life history, listening, and asking questions.

From organization development, coaching gained the concepts appreciative inquiry, client partnership, that people solve their own problems, to address the whole person, and treat people with respect, among others. Management provided the concepts of influence, performance, and dealing with people differently depending on who they are and their experience level. Consulting contributed the concepts listening, asking questions, assessing, feedback, metaphors, and sharing resources and mistakes. Sports provided concepts of performance, motivation, being the best one can be, flow, accessing intuition, and the Inner Game model. Adult learning contributed the concepts working in pairs, asking questions, listening, and getting feedback, while adult development brought enhancing performance and well-being, personality differences and type development,

and the first versus second half of life. Appendix L contains a table of contributions to the coaching discipline from the root disciplines and subdisciplines.

One challenge faced in determining contributions from related disciplines is that many disciplines are interconnected and influence each other in the natural, social, and behavioral sciences. Thus, crediting a specific contribution to a specific discipline used the data from literature, survey, and interviews. The data indicate that the root disciplines contain the elements of coaching and that what is distinct about coaching is the way in which the elements are combined.

What are the Boundaries of the Coaching Discipline that Help to Distinguish it From Related Practices?

While coaching is seeking to define itself as a separate and independent discipline, it is also regarded by some of the root disciplines as an integral part of those disciplines and practices. For example, consultants see coaching as process consultation, and organization development practitioners see coaching as an organization development intervention. Industrial psychologists see coaching as an evolution of industrial psychology and coaching as a tool in the practice of industrial psychology. Interviewees were clear that coaching did not emerge as a fully fledged discipline, and they are about evenly divided as to whether coaching is a fully distinct discipline today. Interviewees were consistent in saying that what the related disciplines are doing is using the knowledge, skills, and abilities of coaching.

One theme that emerged in the interview data was that the socioeconomic factors that emerged, and the creation of the transmitter category, place the issue and debate of professionalization in the context of growing pains.

What Impact Did the Backgrounds of Influencers Have on the Coaching Discipline and Coaching Practices?

The groups of individuals who influenced the emergence and evolution of coaching can be categorized as originators, transmitters, and the second and later generations. Originators are those who created the theories and models within related professions, and transmitters are those who took the originators theories and models and adapted them to the practice of coaching. Looking at the emergence and evolution of coaching through the groups of individuals that were at each stage of the life cycle, I noticed that each generation contributes something unique and different.

Originators were identified from the human development movement and psychology, with transmitters creating the practice of coaching from the cross-disciplinary theories, tools, and models developed by the originator influencers.

Most of the key originators were pioneers and innovators in their own disciplines, and the theories and models they pioneered laid the groundwork for the theories and models of the coaching discipline. From the originators in the field of philosophy, coaching acquired models of introspection, higher states of consciousness, and theories of the collective unconscious and synchronicity. Originators in psychology provided coaching with a variety of models. Humanistic psychology provided models of personal growth, human potential, and client-centered focus. Cognitive psychology contributed models of memory, problem solving, decision-making, and impact of the way we think about ourselves on our emotions and behavior. Psychodynamic psychology contained models of optimal functioning, unconscious mind, and collective unconscious. Behavioral psychology contributed models of goal specification, collaborative strategies,

and action orientation. From sociology coaching acquired concepts of lifelong learning, cognitive change, value modification, and motoric actions. From management coaching adapted the concept of situational leadership and from organization development the concept of process consultation. Sports contributed to coaching the concepts of performance, motivation and goals, in addition to the Inner Game approach, which combined sports concepts with humanistic and transpersonal psychology models.

The transmitter generation customized models and concepts from root disciplines to a non-clinical population for use in achieving growth, development, learning, and success. The customization and specialization included originator disciplines, and added models and concepts from finance. The transmitter generation can be credited with coaching's emergence as a separate discipline.

The second and later generations refined the transmitter theories and models through specialization and the blending of various models and concepts from their backgrounds and experiences. Models and concepts from the performing arts, consulting, and general business were introduced by the second generation, as was the subdiscipline of coaching psychology. The role of the second and third generations in the continuing evolution of coaching is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

The current coaching discipline branches into a diverse array of life and business specialties, frameworks, and practices based on the theoretical grounding from pioneers' legacy disciplines. These range from ontological coaching (Flores, Olalla, Echevarria) to performance coaching (Gallwey, Whitmore, Alexander), and from executive coaching (Kilburg, Kiel, Peterson) to life coaching (Whitworth, Leonard). On average, survey respondents identified six or more specialties for their practices. The perspective of the

interviewees is that much of this differentiation is market driven and an element of branding to attract business. It would also appear that some of it is driven by what is familiar to those practicing coaching or bringing their former training and experience into a practice they now call coaching.

Coaching is an integral part of the many disciplines that assist or help people by talking. People use coaching for one-on-one development in many professions and occupations. A person's occupational background influences how they define and use coaching. For example, executive coaches use consultative coaching techniques when working one-on-one with executives, and often the boundaries between coaching and consulting are blurred. There is also the belief in many coaches that to practice coaching in a specialty area one must have the contextual background to be successful.

What Can We Learn From the Evolution of Existing Disciplines that May be Relevant to the Evolution of Coaching?

Coaching's emergence follows a pattern similar to the emergence of its root disciplines, which were influenced by socioeconomic factors, institutions both within and outside the coaching discipline, and individual worldviews.

Emergence of most professions is messy in the beginning and influenced by social, economic, and growth stages, much like life cycles. Chaos is the raw material for a new order. In terms of evolution, coaching is at this messy stage and is following the pattern of its root disciplines into professional status.

Coaching has emerged as an identifiable practice and has some of the elements of achieving professional status. While there is no agreed on definition, practice, and boundary with root disciplines, coaching does have professional organizations, graduate

programs, and there is a small but growing body of coaching-specific literature. In Chapter 5 I will consider what factors are necessary for coaching to evolve.

Professions develop so people are primed to start thinking of something in a similar way. However, because of the socioeconomic characteristics of globalization, rapid change, and interconnection, the evolution lifecycle of a profession has shortened and compressed, so we are able to talk about coaching's evolution after fewer than 20 years into the discipline.

What Supporting Factors Contributed to the Emergence of Coaching as a Distinct Discipline in the Late 20th Century?

Coaching's emergence in the 1990s was supported by socioeconomic uncertainty and global conditions of ambiguity, alienation, powerlessness, disenfranchisement, rootlessness, confusion, and paradox. These in turn were fueled by technological change, mass media and production, shift from manufacturing to service, rise of globalism, complexity, and the waning influence of institutions for conveying values and behavior. Coaching arose as an intuitive response to what was missing. One interviewee described coaching as an inquiry process that is a missing link in adult learning and behavior change (L. Christian, personal communication, 2006). Data indicated that personal growth, evolution, and development were significantly influential in preparing society and informing coaching in its early days. Four socioeconomic patterns emerged as directly linked to coaching: complexity of the postmodern society, global consciousness and spiritual paradigms, humanistic worldview of humankind, and the trend toward individualism. Coaching evolved quickly from a buzz in the 1980s to the millennium, when it began to be legitimized by the public. The theoretical underpinnings of coaching

are now being documented, and coaching concepts and education have expanded from management to call centers. Coaching concepts are being taken into leadership, politics, education, and most interactions among people (D. Prior, personal communication, 2006).

Professional Challenges for Coaching

The data gathered in response to each question suggest five professional challenges for the evolution of a distinct and unique coaching discipline. These challenges are:

1. How can the adaptation of models and theories from multiple different disciplines be effectively, ethically, and professionally applied by individuals who do not have a background in that discipline?
2. How can the expectations that the coach has certain roles, skills, and expertise to practice in specialized areas of coaching be balanced with the desire for a unified set of core competencies for all coach practitioners?
3. How can a uniform body of coaching knowledge that allows for the creativity and innovation that comes from practitioner background diversity be developed without blurring the boundaries with existing disciplines?
4. How can coaching evolve in the postmodern socioeconomic era, when, unlike the root disciplines, it lacks a stable starting point and consistent core principles and theories that apply foundationally to all of coaching?
5. How will coaching become a global discipline with a uniquely distinct set of practices and body of knowledge in a socioeconomic environment that call for

an integral perspective of innovation, creativity, flexibility, collaboration, and inclusiveness?

In Chapter 5 I address these challenges and take each one a step further by introducing the diffusion of innovation model and the tipping-point concept as they relate to the emergence and evolution of coaching.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND GROUNDED THEORY

Introduction

I began this study with seeking descriptive information about the people, theories, and models that influence coaching. The nature of the data that was presented and the process of analyzing the data led me to shift from a purely descriptive study to the development of a grounded theory. What was emerging was so complex it was clear that simple description would not suffice to capture the complexity. The data were too dynamic and interrelated for a simple description to suffice. The influencers differed generationally and the root fields are themselves evolving in response to socioeconomic factors. The interaction, intersection, and cross-disciplinary development between and among the root disciplines added a further level of complexity.

Over the course of the investigation shifts in research perspective and understanding of the topic entered into the inquiry, emphasis shifted and factors were dropped from the inquiry. The inquiry shifted from documenting the roots of coaching for the purpose of reducing confusion about what constitutes coaching to identifying the influences each of the relevant root disciplines have on coaching, documenting the impact the backgrounds of influencers had on the discipline and its practices, looking at what coaching can learn from the evolution of root disciplines that may be relevant to the

evolution of coaching, and identifying what supporting factors contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline in the late 20th century. New factors included the distinction between practice/tools and theories/models, the multidisciplinary influences on coaching's root disciplines, the evolutionary nature of socioeconomic influences, the impact of connections between influencers, the concept of postmodernism as a backdrop to coaching's emergence, and what the future holds for coaching. Shifts in research perspective that dropped out were determining a unified voice within the global coaching discipline and using the metaphor of a tree to describe the genealogy of coaching.

This chapter is structured in three parts. I begin by summarizing observations within the data. Second, I present a conceptual model to support a grounded theory on the emergence and evolution of coaching. Third, I conclude with a grounded theory of the emergence and evolution of coaching.

Summary of Observations

This is my summary of consolidated descriptive data, explored through five initial questions:

1. What specific influences does each of the relevant root disciplines exert in coaching?
2. What are the boundaries of the coaching discipline that help distinguish it from related practices?
3. What impact did the backgrounds of influencers have on the coaching discipline and coaching practices?
4. What can we learn from the evolution of existing disciplines that may be relevant to the evolution of coaching?

5. What supporting factors contributed to the emergence of coaching as a distinct discipline in the late 20th century?

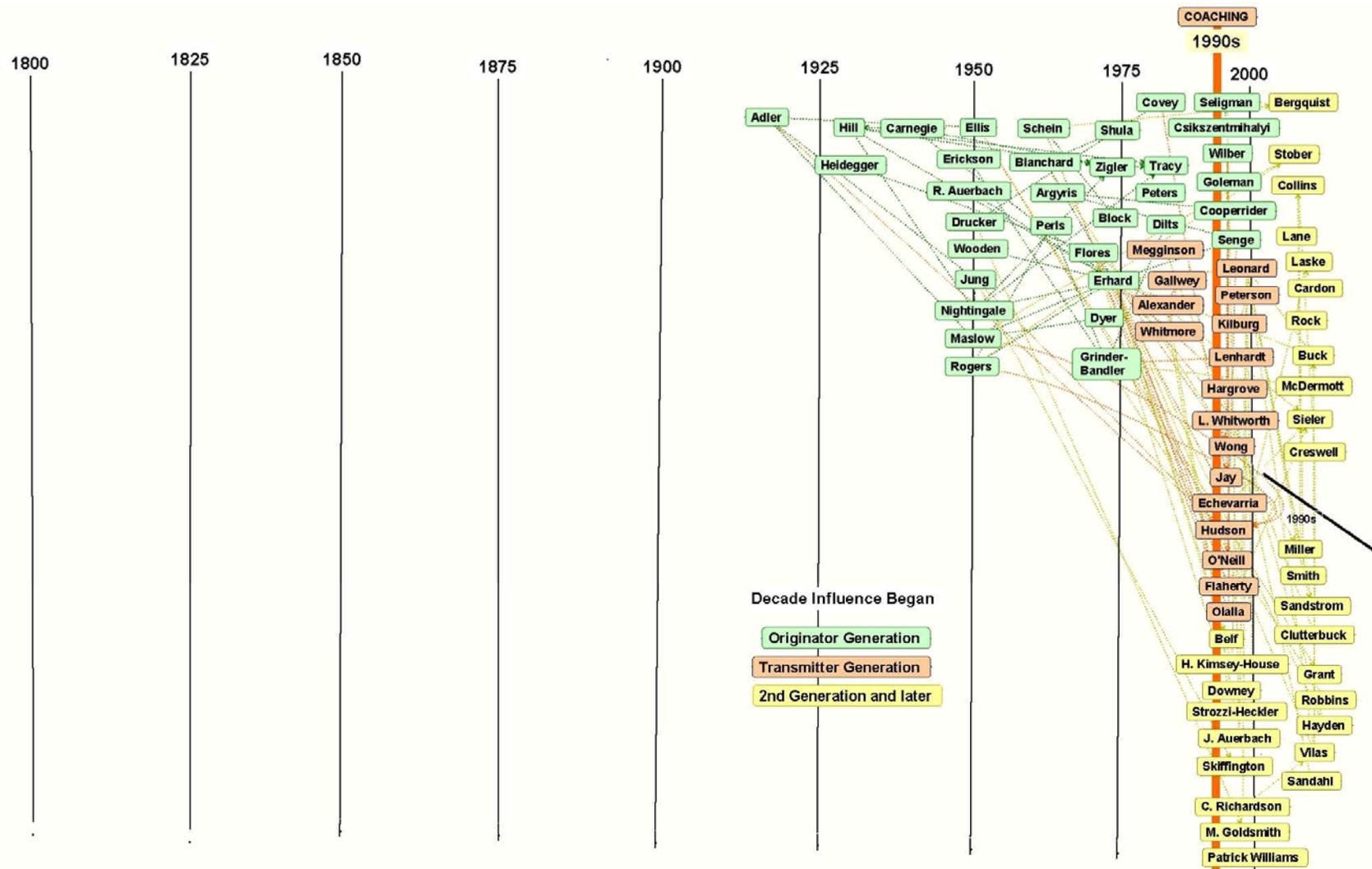
In looking at the data grouped in response to the five questions it became clear that the patterns of influence on disciplines and influencers were generational and linked. The figures in this section lay the groundwork for the conceptual model introduced in the following section by taking the descriptive information and arranging it into complex information through overlays.

Influences on Coaching from Disciplines and Individuals

When looking at question 1, which dealt with discipline influences, and question 3, which dealt with the influence of influencers backgrounds, I consolidated the analysis in light of the interconnections between disciplines and influencers. Different root disciplines exerted different influence in each generation. The influencers (Figure 5-1) from the originator generation created the theories and models in the root disciplines that became incorporated into coaching. The transmitter generation consists of individuals who applied the theories and models from the root disciplines in a practice they called coaching. The second and later generations are those individuals who actually practiced coaching based on the work of the transmitter generation. The shift of focus in each generation introduced a dynamic tension in the discipline of coaching, which subsequently shifted the focus of coaching and coaches.

The impact of the originators on coaching is articulating theories and models from psychology for application with non-clinical populations. The literature of coaching

Figure 5-1 Influencers by Generation and Decade Influence Began



from this period reflects a focus on the coaching relationships. Because coaching is about people and relationships, it seems reasonable that the initial discipline influences came from psychology, the study of people and their interaction in the world. Coaching was a practice for psychologists with extensive training, education, and certification requirements. Coaching had a coach-client relationship that came out of a helping human and personal development orientation, and the primary purpose of coaching for the originator generation was to help people. In business, during the originator generation, coaches, also known as counselors, worked behind closed doors and were available only to executives in the form of workplace counseling to deal with problems.

The impact of the transmitters on coaching was that they took the theories and models from the originator generation and focused on the application of coaching in the profit-making business environment and the wider application in life. This, along with creating the specific process and curriculum of coaching, resulted in the proliferation of coaching techniques and practices. The transmitter generation is also responsible for media exposure and popularization of coaching. The transmitter generation added the factors of profit and organizational systems along with the shift from viewing people in business as a commodity to people to be developed. Coaches were no longer behind the scenes as counselors and psychologists—a coach could be anybody with a business background. Coaching could expand exponentially and more quickly because there were less training and education requirements than for psychology. As corporations were downsizing during the 1990s, many educated, knowledgeable, and talented business people became coaches and moved into doing work that focused on helping others. What this means to coaching as a field of practice is that it moved away from a single-source

foundation in psychology and a link with the concept that something is wrong or somebody needs help, into the realm of potential and growth. Coaching became an enterprise/business and means of making money as much as it is a helping profession.

The transmitter generation received strong media coverage, which was positive in that people became aware of coaching and negative in that many people saw coaching as an ideal way to make money quickly with very little training. Another less than positive impact of this shift was that the link between the underlying theories and models were lost.

The influence of the second and later generations was that they further popularized and expanded the scope and influence of coaching beyond a business and personal into the defined specializations. Once coaching expanded beyond the business people who were being downsized, a large number of people in the second and later generations moved into the life/personal coaching arena that leveraged the popularity of the growth and Human Potential Movement. With the field opening up to non-psychologists through business, another implication from the second and later generations is the opening for other coaching specializations, like wellness and spirituality.

The shifts in discipline and individual influence on coaching across generations resulted in the shift from purely helping people in the originator generation to making money along with developing people in the transmitter, second, and later generations. These shifts brought extensive media exposure that opened the discipline to non-psychologists and resulted in the loss of the link to theories and models from psychology.

Practice and Practitioner Boundaries

From the data, I analyzed boundaries with related disciplines with regard to practice and practitioner boundaries. Practice boundaries include purpose, clientele, standards of ethics, and body of knowledge. Practitioner boundaries include role, qualifications, preparation, membership, and self-description. I found that there were just a few solid line and many dotted line boundaries with related disciplines, which suggests that coaching is both a part of related disciplines and separate on its own. The primary differences between coaching and its related disciplines are in the areas of professional preparation, body of knowledge, and qualifications.

Analysis of data revealed that coaching practice boundaries of purpose, clientele, and standards of ethics are similar to and a subset of related disciplines. Psychology has the primary purpose of healing people and is less about making money. Business has the primary purpose of making money and less about developing people. Coaching has the primary purpose of coaching to make money and to develop people. Practice parameters and boundaries were less clear until the mid-1990s, when professional organizations and training programs were created, theoretical foundations began to be named, and a coach-specific body of knowledge began to emerge from the focus on evidence-based coaching, graduate education programs, and research. Standards of ethics are similar across coaching, psychotherapy, and business. Coaches who are members in a professional organization are bound by standards of ethics that require them to acknowledge their own limitations and work within the confines of their knowledge and skills. However, coaches are not required to hold membership in a professional organization or be bound by a standard of ethics. With only the beginning of a standardized body of knowledge for

coaching, the ethical standard to work within the confines of knowledge and skills is imperative. With the exception of consulting, related disciplines have a standard body of knowledge across the discipline. The clarification is that practice boundaries are contextual and dependent on the purpose of the relationship and client characteristics.

Practitioner boundaries deal with the practitioner knowledge qualifications from governing bodies or sponsors, and how the practitioner describes himself or herself. Significant boundaries exist in practitioner role, professional preparation, qualifications, membership, and self-description between coaching and psychotherapy, and less with other related disciplines. With regard to role, psychology has the role of helping people be more fully functioning and business has multiple shareholders to satisfy. Bringing in professional preparation and qualifications, a coach, or any business professional, cannot practice psychotherapy unless he or she is professionally prepared, educated, and meets strict qualifications. This is the crux of the boundary issue with respect to psychotherapy, where the boundary is a solid line. Anyone can practice as a coach, or business professional, without preparation or qualifications, which means the boundary is a permeable dotted line. People can practice coaching without really knowing anything about it as a separate discipline, and the result is practitioners who practice coaching differently from professional coaches and in conjunction with a primary role that is not professional coaching. In fact, each business discipline of consulting, management, and organization development sees coaching as a subset of its respective discipline and practices coaching as a part of its primary discipline. The dotted line boundaries between coaching and related professions other than psychotherapy, present a challenge for clients, the public, and practitioners to identify coaching as a distinct set of practices.

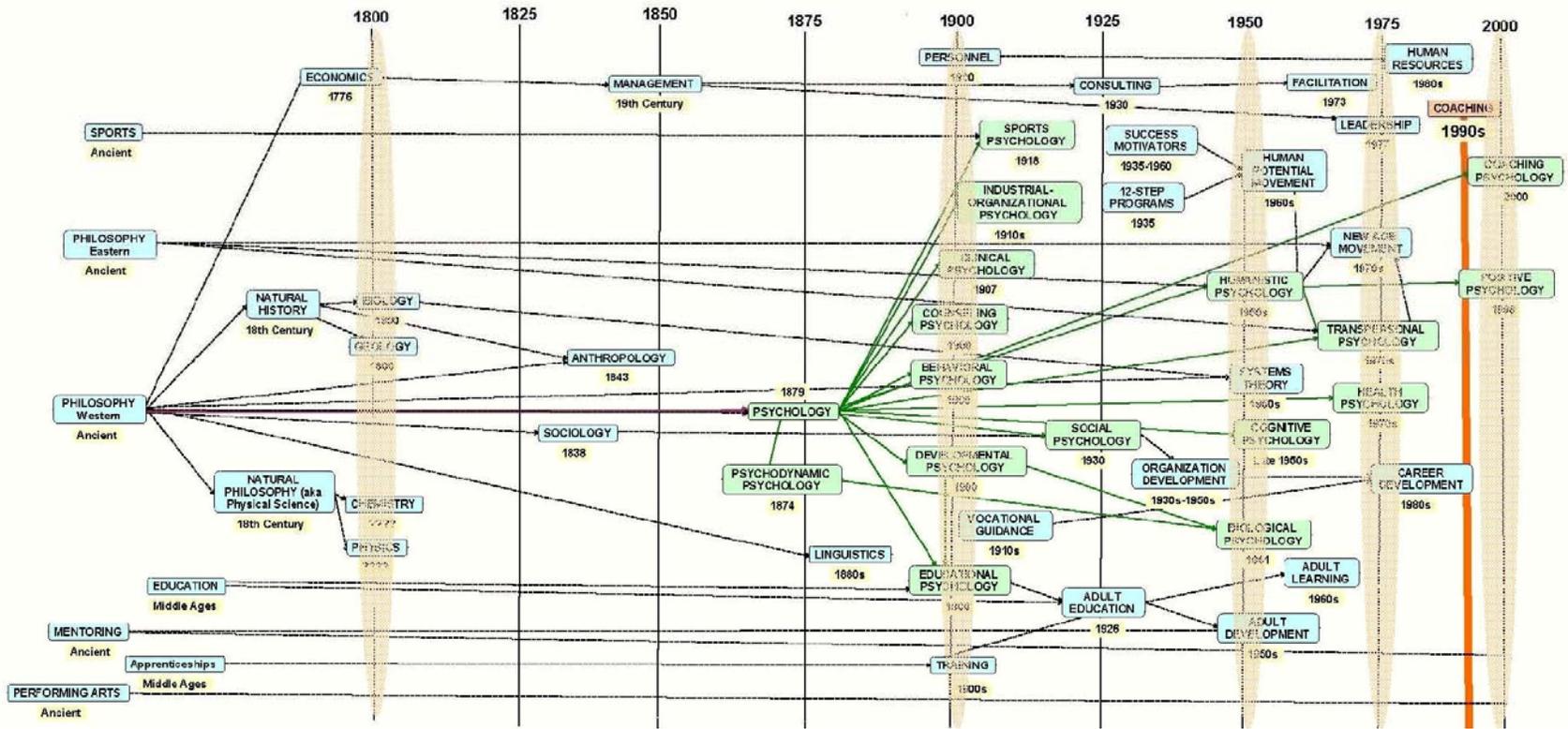
Evolution of Coaching and its Root Disciplines

Evolution of most disciplines is chaotic, fluid, creative, and dynamic from the beginning, and this state is normalized. For coaching's root disciplines, the predominant psychology approach of the period influenced the theories and models of these root disciplines. Coaching and its root disciplines evolved in response to socioeconomic influences. I thus chose to combine the fourth question about lessons learned from existing disciplines with the fifth question about factors contributing to the emergence of coaching and look at the parallels in the evolutionary curves. The socioeconomic influences that were present when coaching evolved and when the root disciplines evolved are different, which impacts each evolutionary curve.

Over centuries philosophy evolved into separate disciplines. Philosophical investigation led to the creation of the natural and social sciences, which focus on diverse topics ranging from understanding the environment in which we live to understanding ourselves as physical beings. When looking at the more modern fields, such as psychology, it developed into a variety of subdisciplines in response to socioeconomic factors over a period of 50 years. Over a period of 25 years, the business disciplines of adult education, organization development, and consulting appeared. Looking at the parallel evolutionary tracks, it seems like the splitting is happening in ever shortening cycles as displayed in Figure 5-2.

Each new subdiscipline, instead of being more narrowly focused, is more multidisciplinary and integrated. Subdisciplines split and encompass more discipline applications at the same time. Coaching is the last trajectory, and yet it is close in time to the point where psychology split into positive psychology and coaching psychology. s

Figure 5-2 Grouped Emergence of Root Disciplines



While coaching and psychology are still two separate disciplines, some of the areas are intertwining, which is why we have coaching psychology.

The integration can be described by looking at the creation of models and theories. In the past, when a model or theory was created, it would stay within the discipline, be tested, and codified, which took a period of years. It would then become integrated into a body of knowledge for that discipline. Today, models and theories appear and are disseminated and integrated with other practices much more quickly, and at the same time they are being tested.

Reflections on the Descriptive Data

The descriptive data, while responding to the initial questions, does not fully represent the complexity of the data. In order to take that to the next step, I formulated five professional challenge questions suggested by the descriptive data. One professional challenge for coaching today is how the adaptation of models and theories from multiple disciplines can be effectively, ethically, and professionally applied by individuals who do not have a background in the discipline. A second professional challenge for coaching is how can a uniform body of coaching knowledge that allows for the creativity and innovation that comes from practitioner background diversity be developed without blurring the boundaries with root disciplines? A third challenge for coaching is how to balance the expectations that the coach has distinguishable roles, skills, and expertise to practice in specialized areas of coaching with the reality that professional preparation, qualifications, and coaching body of knowledge do not exist.

The evolutionary potential here is that the parameter of what is possible for coaching and its related disciplines has changed as practitioners have figured out how to

work with all people, rather than just a part of the population. Coaching is influencing psychology and business. Psychology and business are influencing coaching again in turn. The postmodern environment consists of rapidly changing socioeconomic conditions in part due to complexity, technology, globalization, and environmental crisis. The fifth challenge is for coaching to become a global discipline with a uniquely distinct field of practice and body of knowledge in a socioeconomic environment that calls for an integral perspective of innovation, creativity, flexibility, collaboration, and inclusiveness.

Conceptual Model Leading to a Grounded Theory

“One of the main goals for all theorizing, regardless of specifics of problem and perspective, is the creation of a mental model of the phenomenon to be understood and/or explained” (Hanneman, 1988, p. 16). As I went through the process and the data analysis, I started to ask different questions, and in asking different questions, what I looked at changed. In this section I will introduce and apply consecutively the conceptual models used to derive my grounded theory.

I base my conceptual model on the ideas of: 1) social network analysis (Freeman, 2004; Scott, 1991), including six degrees of separation (Gladwell, 2002; Stephens, 2004); 2) memes (Brodie, 1996; Gladwell, 2002) and tipping point (Gladwell, 2002); and 3) diffusion of innovation (Gladwell, 2002; Orr, 2003). I describe each of these models below with an explanation of how they fit into my mental model on the roots and emergence of coaching.

Social Network Analysis

According to Freeman (2004), social network analysis is motivated by a structural intuition based on ties linking social actors. It is grounded in systematic empirical data,

draws heavily on graphic imagery, and relies on the use of mathematical and/or computational models. In my analysis, I apply the social network theory concepts of centralization, six degrees of separation, and proximity to coaching.

Social network analysis views social relationships as nodes and ties (or points and lines) of graph theory (Scott, 1991, p. 64). Nodes “represent individual persons, their goals, or their actions,” while the ties “represent the interactional or causal sequences that connect them” (p. 11). In its simplest form, a social network is a map of all relevant ties between the nodes being studied. The network can also be used to determine the social capital of individual nodes, which is the advantage created by a person’s or discipline’s location in a structure of relationships. These ideas are often displayed in a social network diagram, where nodes are the points and ties are the lines.

“Social network analysis is also defined by an extremely wide and ever-growing range of applications” (Freeman, 2004, p. 5) and because of this generality, it “cuts across the boundaries of traditional disciplines” (p. 5) much like the coaching discipline. “Social network analysis is one of the few social science endeavors in which people influence one another in such a way that they all work together to build a cumulative body of knowledge” (p. 6). The opportunity to similarly collaborate is available to coaching as it defines and creates a cumulative body of knowledge for the field.

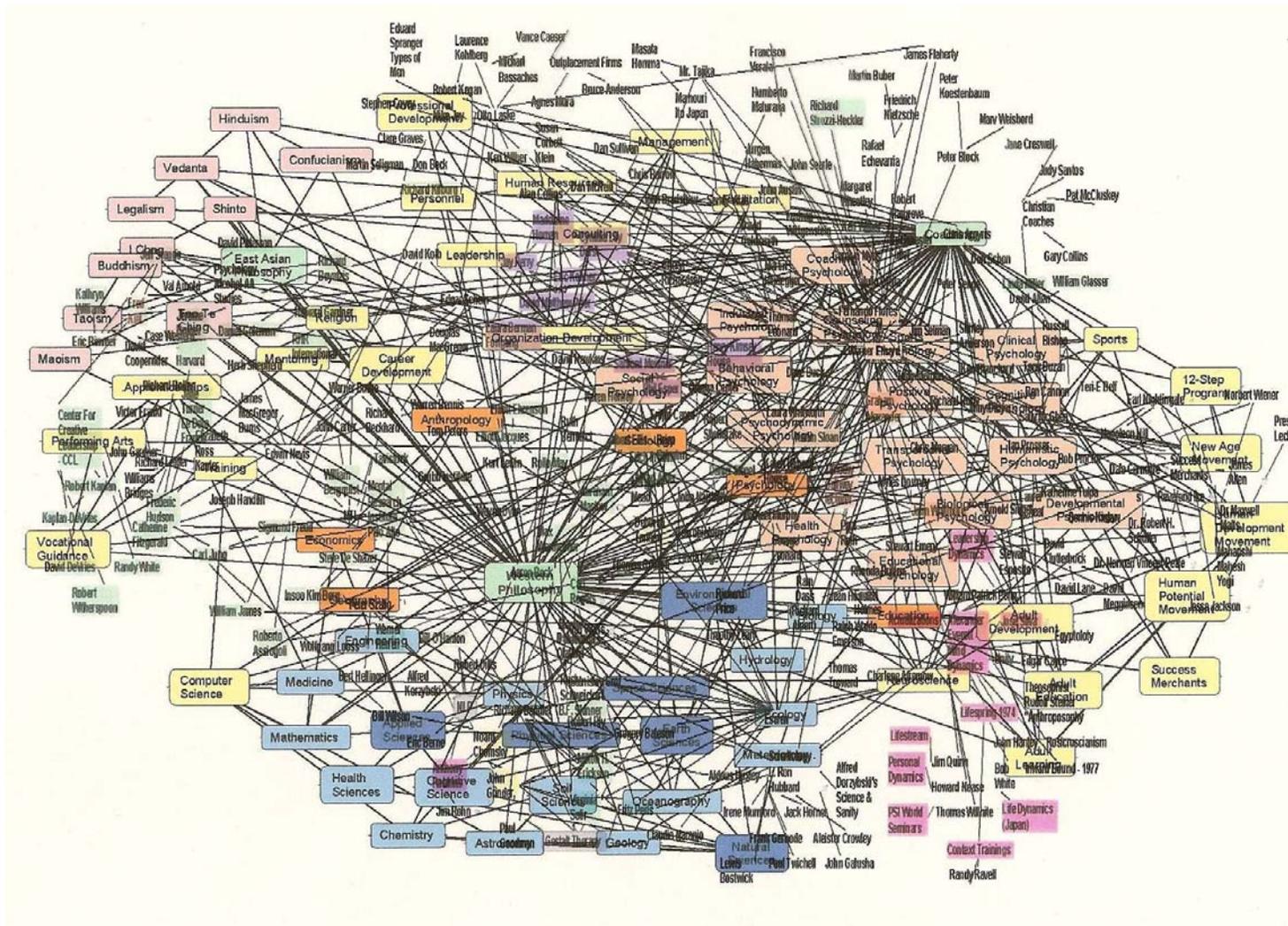
Graph theory concerns sets of elements (points or nodes) and relations (lines or ties) among these (Scott, 1991). For the application of social network analysis to the coaching discipline, nodes may be the influencers (originators, transmitters, and later generations) or disciplines, while ties are the relationships or connections between the nodes. A basic assumption of social network theory is that the whole is greater than the

sum of its parts. Social network theory is an integral theory in that it encompasses reductionist (scientific) and holistic (humanistic) perspectives simultaneously. The reductionist model holds that any behavior can be explained by reducing it to behavior at a lower level, for example looking at the network of neurons to understand consciousness. Thinking holistically and reductionistically at the same time yields the view of consciousness as an emergent phenomenon with a reality beyond the network of neurons on which it depends (adapted from Booker, 2004). One way to analyze graphs uses the concept of centrality and centralization, which describe the social capital or prominence of a node in the network. Local centrality concerns the relative prominence of a focal point in its neighborhood, while global centrality concerns prominence within the whole network (Scott, 1991). Local centrality is not valuable for this study because I am talking about a loose social network with innovation and what is important is the fact that there are many local centrality nodes, not the characteristics of each local node.

For this analysis I apply social-network theory and the first concept of global centrality. When I graph the nodes and ties elements of social network analysis to the influencers and disciplines within an evolutionary time frame (5-3), as well as separate from the evolutionary time frame (Figure 5-4), two central nodes, the humanistic-relational model and systems-theory model, of these blended graphs emerge.

The humanistic-relational model begins with the originator generation establishing the model for how coach-client relationships take place and encompasses both the humanistic theory and the individuals who promulgated them. The system-theory model looks at everything in relation to its environment, rather than in isolation

Figure 5-4 Social Network of Influencers and Disciplines

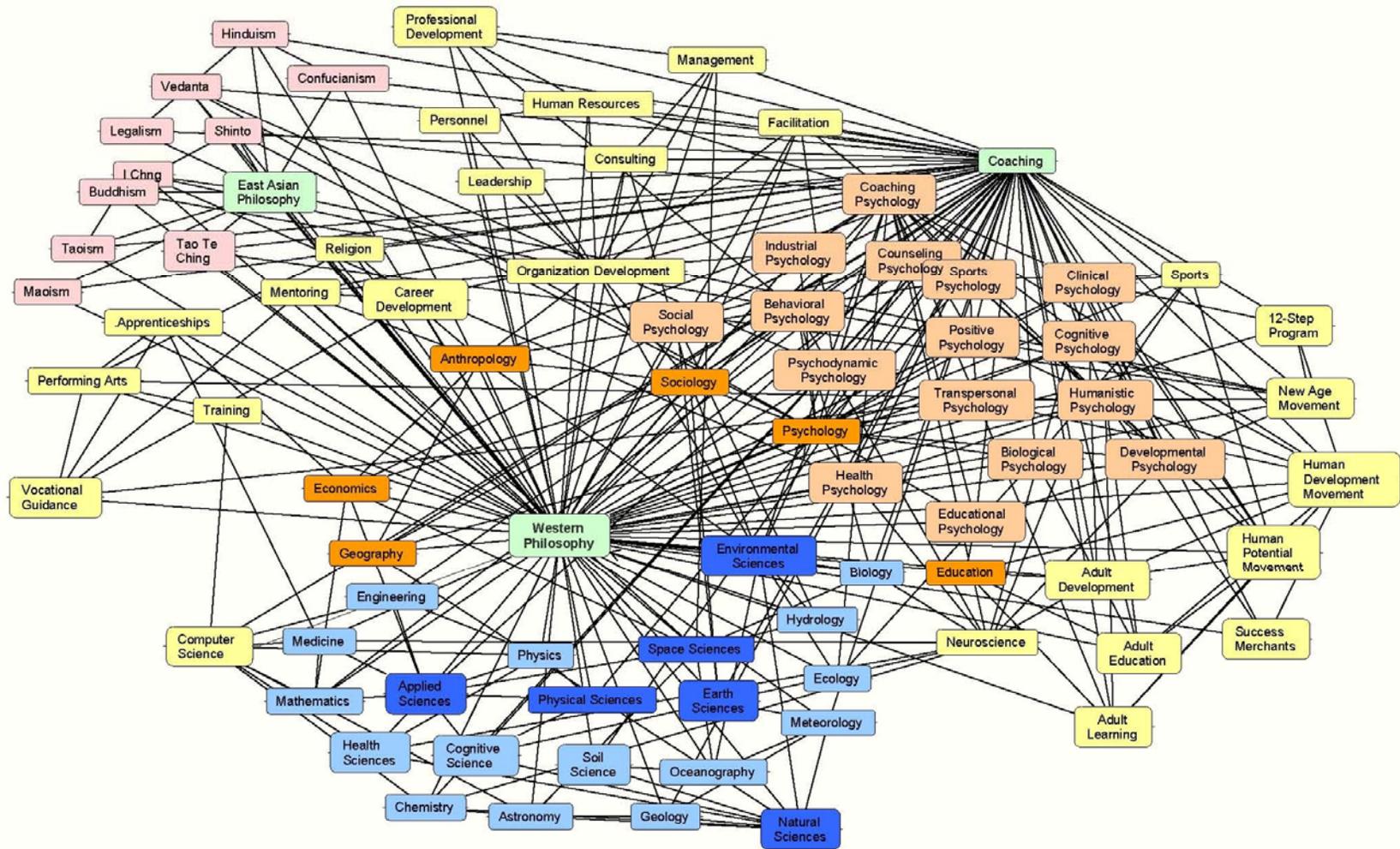


from surroundings and context. This view of things in context corresponds to coaching's holistic approach.

In 1967, psychologist Milgram coined the phrase six degrees of separation to describe the world-shrinking effects of social networks (Saxbe, 2006). Six degrees of separation is the theory that anyone on the planet can be connected to any other person on the planet through a chain of acquaintances that has no more than five intermediaries (Stephens, 2004). Though the six degrees of separation theory has its advocates and detractors, by applying the social network analysis concept of centrality, we know that “a very small number of people are linked to everyone else in a few steps, and the rest of us are linked to the world through those special few” (Gladwell, 2002, p. 37). These special few, called connectors, have a “special gift for bringing the world together” (p. 38). Social network analysis and six degrees of separation concept are applied to the influencers and the root disciplines of coaching in Figures 5-5 and 5-6, respectively.

According to Gladwell (2002), “not all degrees are equal” (p. 36) and “proximity overpowered similarity” (p. 35). I interpreted this to mean that relationship ties may be weak or strong, and that proximity is more indicative of relationship strength than similarity. The implication for the coaching discipline is this: the closer the interactions and connections, even with a high degree of dissimilarity, the stronger the relationship tie. This suggests that linking seemingly dissimilar ideas, like evidence and practice, within the coaching vocabulary may result in a strong foundational base. An evidence-based practice may serve all the bases for coach training and academic programs, literature, and actual practice.

Figure 5-6: Root Disciplines Representative Social Network



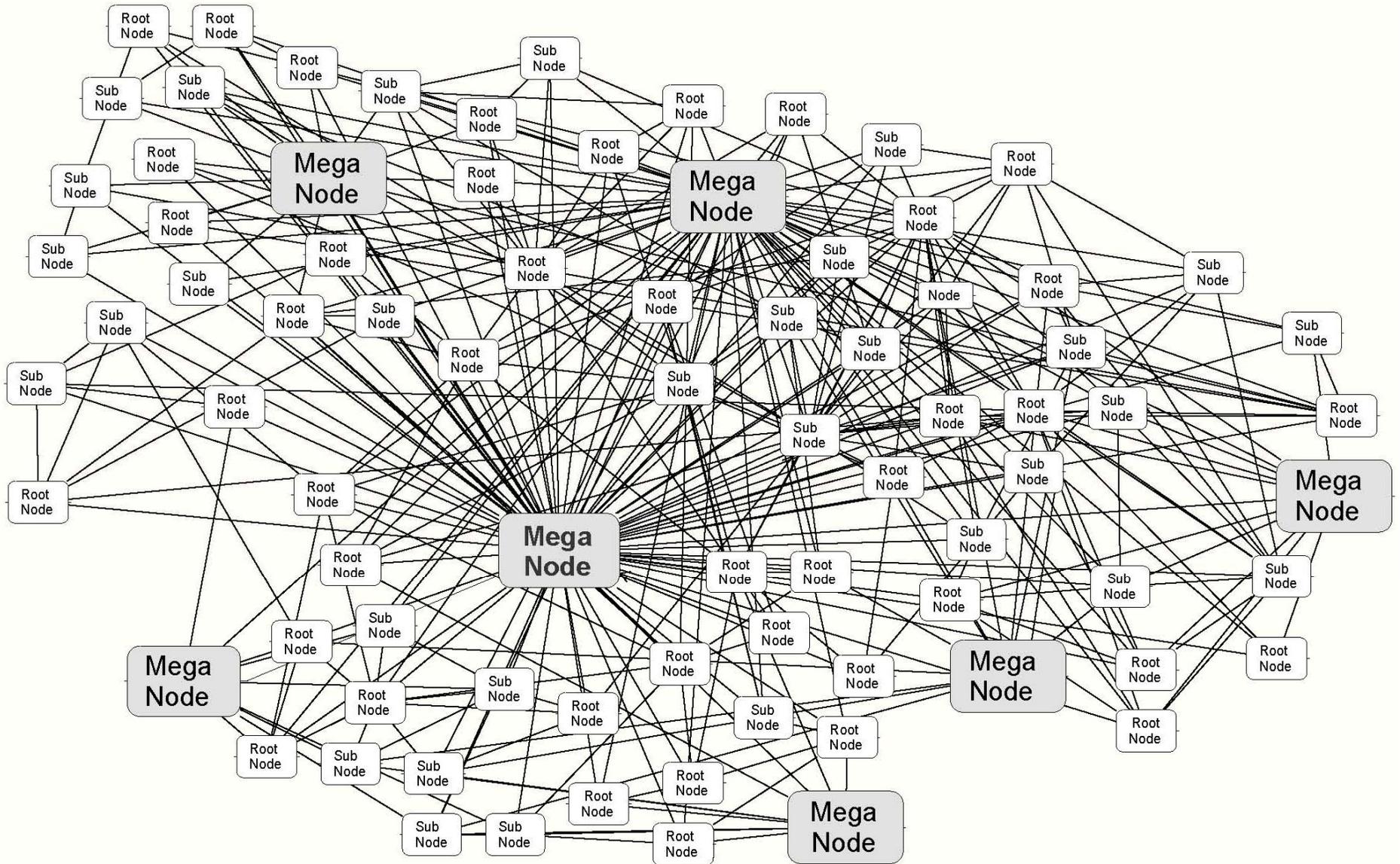
Knowledge comes from traditional research and scholarship as well as experience and practice. Thus, it includes popular literature, alternative media, and folk wisdom not coded into the traditional research and peer-reviewed literature. The global knowledge base must encompass both traditional literature and the broader non-traditional forms of knowing and sharing of knowledge. I am suggesting a more inclusive use of knowledge for practice and practitioners. Two points here are: 1) the value of an interdisciplinary perspective; and 2) the place informal knowledge and popular culture can play in informing the practice, field, and profession of coaching. There is value for an interdisciplinary perspective that informal knowledge has a place here and that the knowledge transfer, both formal and informal, needs to be more unrestricted and mutually influencing two-way.

The shape of a social network helps determine a network's usefulness to its constituent parts. A smaller tighter network with few connections to other networks can be less useful to its constituents than a network with many loose connections to components outside the main network. More open networks with many weak ties and social connections, are more likely to introduce new ideas and opportunities to their constituents than closed networks with many redundant ties. For example, a loose theoretical network might take multidisciplinary theories and models and apply them to coaching integrally. A network of multidisciplinary nodes that combine several different disciplines into a single node, called a mega node, might include a systems-theory—adult-learning mega node, a humanistic-spirituality—performing arts mega node, a coaching-psychology mega node, and a neuroscience mega node. This loose network, instead of looking at distinct disciplines, suggests a postmodern look at the next

generation of multidisciplinary roots that also have coaching as a part of them. The way these mega nodes communicate and connect with their root nodes and each other is through an individual or practitioner who might belong to more than one root node and more than one mega node. Since the shape of the social network helps determine a network's usefulness to its constituents, the idea is to construct these mega nodes that are loosely connected to their various root and subroot nodes. The mega nodes have a characteristic of permeability, which means they allow models and theories to pass through in different directions. Figure 5-7 graphically displays these concepts.

With the creation of mega nodes, access to the depth of a theory or model may be lost when the connection between the mega and root nodes is loose. Mega nodes work at a more macro level, and it is not practical or possible to have a mega node that encompasses the nuance and specialization that the smaller contributing nodes can offer. By the mid-1990s coaching had reached mega node position and had loose connections and weak ties to the depth and subtleties of its root disciplines. While it is desirable for the connections to be loose, there needs to be some maintenance of connections between the mega nodes and their root nodes. The intent of the evidence-based coaching movement is to bring some of the foundational detail into the mega-node level of coaching practice, so the connections are maintained, even when both the mega nodes and root nodes are constantly shifting.

Figure 5-7 Postmodern Social Network of Mega, Root, and Subroot Nodes



Applying social network analysis to the emergence of disciplines and key influencers across three generations, and introducing the postmodern concept of mega nodes is the first part of my conceptual model.

Mememes and Tipping Point

The concept of mememes and tipping point is the second part of my conceptual model. Examples of the application of these concepts are included here, and their full impact is realized when discussed in conjunction with the diffusion of innovation model that follows. Gladwell linked the concept of tipping point and mememes with the diffusion of innovation model, which I apply directly to the emergence, present state, and future of coaching.

Gladwell (2002) describes the tipping point as “that one dramatic moment in an epidemic when everything can change all at once” (p. 9). For example, most of the major ideas of Gestalt theory were already developed in the 1930s and 1940s, and became common in the 1960s as they became popular. Somewhere between the 1930s and the 1960s Gestalt theory reached its tipping point, just as coaching reached its tipping point around the year 2000. Gladwell talks first about contagiousness as an unexpected property of all kinds of phenomena. Ideas, such as coaching, can be contagious in the same way that a virus is. Brodie (1996) wrote about mememes as a “virus of the mind . . . [that] gains a life independent of its creator and evolves quickly to infect as many people as possible” (p. 17). As a virus, or mememe, coaching is a function of the people who transmit it (coaches), the infectious agent itself (knowledge, skills, and abilities of coaching), and the environment in which the infectious agent is operating (society and organizations). Gladwell described epidemics, which are little changes that somehow

have big effects, as both positive and negative. He wanted to show people how to start positive epidemics of their own. Coaching can be viewed as a positive epidemic, because its purposes are to develop and value people, increase productivity, and strengthen connection.

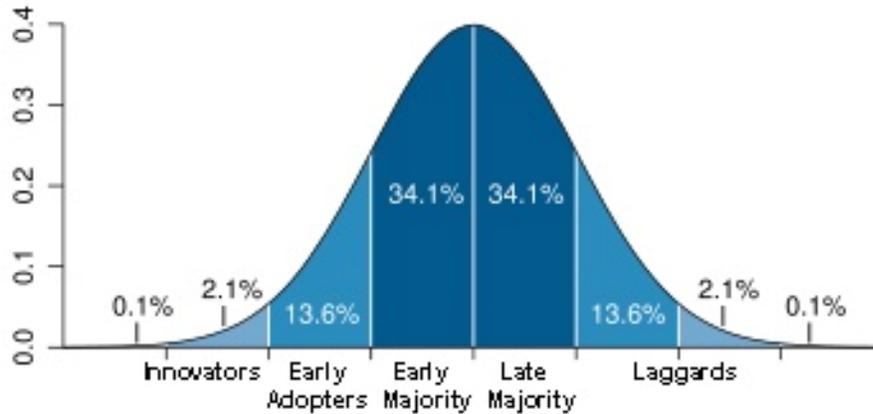
The concept of stickiness from Gladwell (2002) also applies to coaching's emergence. This concept states that "there is a simple way to package information that, under the right circumstances, can make it irresistible" (p. 132). An example of stickiness is the promise of coaching to unlock your personal and professional potential and realize extraordinary results, along with references to coaching as "a secret weapon" (Lindstrom, 2008, ¶2) for success.

The concepts of tipping point and memes, epidemics and stickiness, when applied with the diffusion of innovation model, will complete my conceptual model.

Diffusion of Innovation

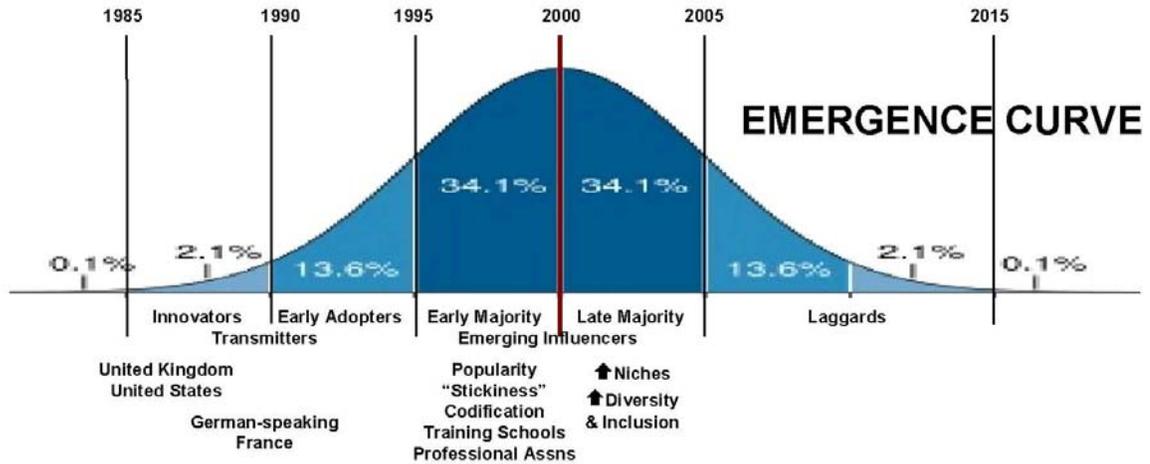
The diffusion of innovation model illustrates adaptation to a new phenomenon through the use of a bell curve (Figure 5-8) and the categories of Innovators or adventurous ones; Early Adopters or opinion leaders in the community; Early Majority and Late Majority, who were the deliberate and skeptical mass; and Laggards, who were the most traditional of all. According to Gladwell (2002) this is a "perfect epidemic curve – starting slowly, tipping just as the Early Adopters start . . . then rising sharply as the Majority catches on, and falling away at the end when the Laggards come straggling in" (p. 197).

Figure 5-8: Diffusion of Innovation Curve



It is important to know that this model does not exist in isolation from other adaptations to new phenomena. Looking at coaching's emergence (Figure 5-9), the originators do not appear in the categories defined above.

Figure 5-9: Emergence Curve for Coaching



In my analysis, the Innovators are the transmitters and the Early Adopters are the second-generation coaches who learned directly from the transmitters. The Early Majority are the companies and or individuals that arose to provide the services or shifted their services to include coaching, with the goal of making an incremental, percentage improvement. During the time of the Early and Late Majorities, the coaching service

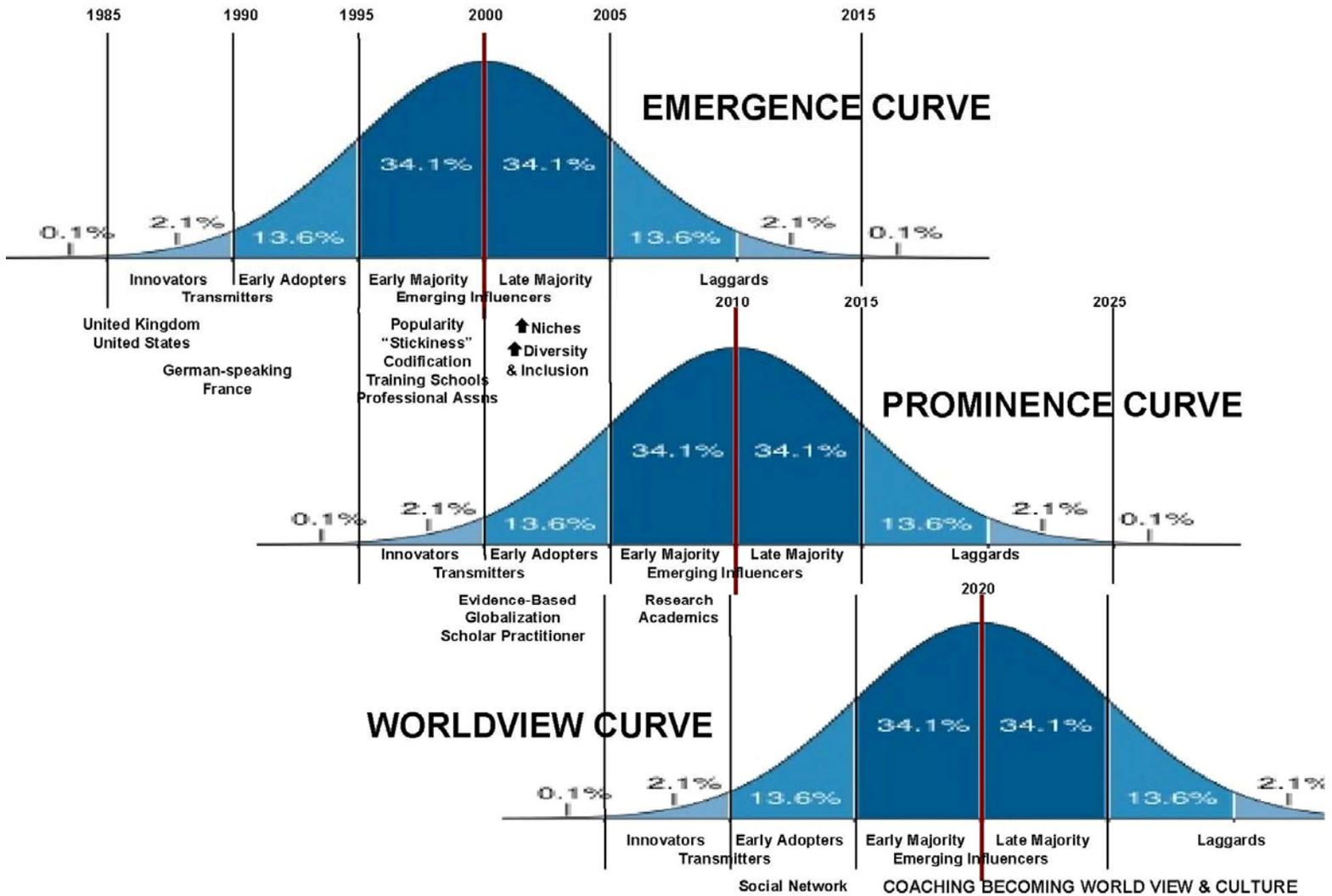
becomes commodified and institutionalized. When the Laggards arrive, coaching must have either reinvented itself or be eclipsed by a new innovation.

Innovation Curves

Coaching emerged within the frame of the postmodern period, and data suggest that external socioeconomic factors will continue to support coaching's evolution. It is the internal factors that are keys to the growth or demise of coaching. I use the diffusion of innovation model for looking at the internal factors. Using the diffusion of innovation model, I created a series of innovation curves for coaching, as displayed in Figure 5-10, to track the internal changes in coaching over time. There is a thirty-year time span during which these innovation curves begin, peak, and drop off. This time span is getting ever shorter. The Emergence Curve begins in 1985, the Prominence Curve in 1995, and the Worldview Curve in 2005. Around the year 2000 there was a tipping point in the Emergence Curve, where coaching became well-known and moved toward commodification. At the same time a new innovative spurt took place with the evidence-based and globalization focus into the research and academic, which started the Prominence Curve. I am predicting another curve, called the Worldview Curve, starting where coaching moves into the social network and the global worldview, extending beyond coaching.

The coaching discipline has an opportunity to cultivate diversity within the discipline through larger looser networks or to narrow the field through cultivating smaller and tighter networks. Inclusion can be represented by the continuum attributes that are presented as part of the coaching definition used for this study, while narrowing

Figure 5-10 Coaching Innovation Curves



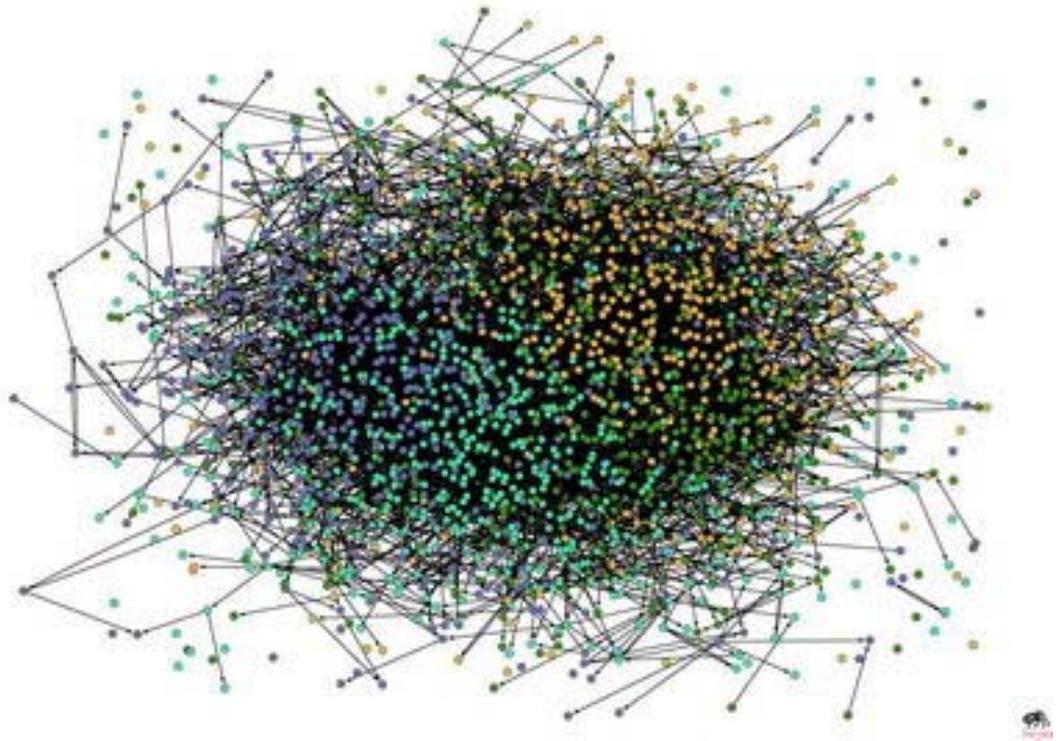
the field can be represented by the proliferation of specialized coaching definitions unique to coaching styles, types, and focus. This choice will impact the coaching curves that follow.

Mememes and tipping points are in support of the innovation at the top of each curve, at which point coaching needs to innovate or risk becoming institutionalized and having some other group come along with a new curve, just like coaching did with psychology in response to socioeconomic factors. The next coaching curve needs to be starting up well before the prior curve reaches the tipping point.

The Worldview Curve begins in 2005 and represents the social network framework, where coaching moves from being one of the ways people interact with one another to being the dominant worldview. As with philosophy and psychology, I predict that coaching will be woven into the fabric of living. The vision of the Professional and Personal Coaches Association in 1997 was that in 20 years coaching would cease to exist as we know it today and it would be the way we interact with each other. My analysis suggests that coaching is taking the first small steps to becoming the dominant worldview when it reaches the tipping point of the Worldview Curve in 2025. These include coaching increasingly becoming a global phenomenon with international Web-based networks, the coach approach becoming an integral part of human development in a variety of organizations and non-organizational contexts, and coaching vocabulary is showing up in popular media, business and professional journals, and the news media. My analysis also suggest that coaching as we know it today may continue to exist along with evolved forms of coaching. Figure 5-11 could be representative of the social network of coaching in the 21st century, where the six degrees of separation is reduced as

the effective distance between nodes declines, and where the loose, open network encompasses interactions between most individuals and disciplines.

Figure 5-11: Social Network of Coaching in 21st Century



While several socioeconomic factors may influence whether coaching becomes the worldview and global culture, there are two factors within the coaching field that will enhance or degrade the possibility of coaching becoming the dominant worldview. The first internal factor is whether coaching maintains an open network. This means a network with many loose connections (weak ties) to individuals and disciplines outside the main network. The more open the network, the more it is likely to introduce new ideas and opportunities to the members. Also, the more open and loose the network for coaching remains, the more likely it is to be agile and nimble in responding to the socioeconomic factors of the current environment. The second internal factor is the willingness and commitment of coaches to promote diversity with inclusion, which

means to be coach-like in their business as well as their interactions within and external to the coaching field. I define coach-like as coming from a space of collaboration and inclusion, valuing people for their contributions, and facilitating change through self-directed learning and personal growth. The choice to be or not be coach-like in all dealings may affect the public perception of coaching, either positively or negatively. For example, if it happens that only credentialed coaches are coach-like in all their dealings, then the demand for credentialed coaches may increase dramatically. If it happens that only coaches from specific training programs or service companies are coach-like in all their dealings, then this may increase the demand for graduates of the specific training programs or coaches from specific service companies, respectively. By modeling and living coaching moment by moment, a positive epidemic may be sustained beyond the tipping point. The six degrees of separation concept applies here in that the more coach practitioner's model coaching in all their interactions, the more people they will influence, and the more these people will influence others. Once the tipping point is reached people not connected with individuals who model coaching in all interactions will spontaneously begin exhibiting coach-like behavior.

Grounded Theory on the Emergence and Evolution of Coaching

Above, I presented how the lessons I took away from this exploration of coaching's emergence might be applied to coaching's evolution. The social network analysis and the diffusion of innovation curve underscore the complexity of both the coaching discipline and the environment in which it operates. I propose that, in order to address the challenges that emerged from the analysis of the data and that respond to the questions, a postmodern grounded theory of coaching is needed. Following a discussion

of summary research findings and professional challenges facing coaching I will present my grounded theory.

Summary Research Findings

The analysis of literature, survey and interview data suggest that coaching emerged from the intersection of people, disciplines, and socioeconomic factors.

1. Coaching sprang from several independent sources and birthplaces at the same time and spread through relationships. The Human Potential Movement of the 1960s, from which emerged Esalen, National Training Laboratories, Tavistock, and Findhorn, among others, were part of what gave rise to coaching. The 1960s were an era of exploration and growth in the root disciplines of coaching. The spread of coaching was fueled through interdisciplinary mingling in venues available at the above locations. The key figures in these movements connected through face-to-face conferences, workshops, and forums. This spread took place in a pretechnology period. Since 1995 the spread of coaching has been boosted by conferences, workshops, and forums held live and in a virtual environment.
2. Coaching has a broad intellectual framework that draws on the synergy, cross-fertilization, and practices of many disciplines. Individuals drawn to coaching came from a broad spectrum of disciplines and a rich heritage of life experience. The collaborative nature of coaching supports the cross-fertilization of ideas and practices customized to the coach, person being coached, their environment, and specific situation. The relationships and cross-fertilization from the backgrounds of people who came to coaching may

now be less, as there are not many, perhaps not any, forums where people of different backgrounds can get together and cross-fertilize.

3. Modern patterns and practices of coaching are dynamic and contextual.

Coaching is customized to the coach, the person being coached, the context, and the specific situation. The focus on coaching is on what the client wants and how he/she can best accomplish it, which requires the coach to have well developed intuition, creativity, and flexibility, as well as a solid base of foundational knowledge.

4. Coaching came into existence to fill an unmet need in an interactive, fluid world of rapid change and complexity. The unmet need was a wellness model and an integral postmodern perspective. At the time that coaching emerged, traditional disciplines, such as psychology, were just beginning to shift from the scientific medical illness model, as the world became more complex and ambiguous. While movements such as humanistic psychology were evidence of that shift, it was still practiced within the limitations of clinical practice. Coaching emerged and added complementary practices from other fields and without the constraint of traditional clinical practices became more interactive, client-driven, and fluid. Coaching provided a wellness model that was interactive, client driven, and fluid.

5. Coaching came into being in an open, integral social network from a perspective of diversity and inclusion. The first phase of coaching was one of exploration that focused on inclusion, building relationships, and mutual adaptation. Practices were diverse, sharing and collaboration were evident,

and the social network was open and loose. The period of exploration is characterized by curiosity, discovery, and collaboration to reach a common goal. For the United States in the 1960s, this was to put a man on the moon. For coaching the common goal was to contribute to the wellness and success of others.

Professional Challenges

Looking to the five professional challenges stated earlier in this chapter, they are challenges only when viewed from a modern perspective because the modern world divides and differentiates between things. The postmodern world integrates things and needs an integrated, fluid, accessible, postmodern solution to these challenges; so I will look at these challenges in conjunction with each other.

The first three challenges are centralized around a body of knowledge and how to ensure the person has the understanding and competence to practice. The first challenge is to ensure coaches effectively, ethically, and professionally apply the theories and models, even though they have not been through professional-track training in those theories and models. The second challenge is how to develop a uniform body of coaching knowledge without blurring boundaries with root disciplines. The third challenge for coaching is how to balance the expectations that the coach has distinguishable roles, skills, and expertise to practice in specialized areas of coaching with the reality that professional preparation, qualifications, and coaching body of knowledge do not exist. The modern era developed a credentialing and professional track for the purpose of ensuring that everyone had a uniform and objective body of knowledge before they began to practice. The postmodern perspective says there are many too many tracks and too

many people coming from too many different directions to be able to follow that process, therefore, there is a need is to rethink what is quality assurance for people in practice. How do we ensure practitioners are, at a minimum, exposed to the theories and models that underpin their practice? How do we provide practitioners with opportunities to continually refine and hone their own learning and practice outside of the traditional professional preparation track? The issue in the modern era limited access to knowledge and specified that a professional track and uniform knowledge base are required to practice. The modern credentialing process is arbitrary and not customized. The postmodern views says a single track no longer applies, so a different way of ensuring people get the grounding and are competent in their practice is required. The postmodern makes the knowledge available, and it provides people with an accessible way of testing their own skills and competencies, as well as a way of improving those skills and competencies customized to their own situations and needs. The postmodern era supports innovation, creativity, flexibility, collaboration, and inclusiveness and encourages a mingling of roles, skills, and expertise such that the client, context, and situation are best served. As such, from the postmodern perspective, the background diversity and blurring of boundaries with existing disciplines is natural and welcomed.

The remaining two professional challenges look at how coaching can become a unique global discipline of practice and body of knowledge in a postmodern socioeconomic environment. The modern era sought unique distinctions and segmented divisions to maintain structure and order. The modern issue of how to be distinct and unique is supported by marketplace conditions that usually demand distinctions. The postmodern environment consists of chaos in the midst of rapidly changing

socioeconomic conditions in part due to complexity, technology, globalization, and environmental crisis. The postmodern era is one of increased integration and connection, where remaining distinct is less valued. With the integral perspective of the postmodern era, the first challenge is for coaching to maintain its unique lens on the client as it integrates with these other practices and disciplines. The second challenge is for coaching, as an integral part of these other disciplines in practice, to respond to the demands for distinctiveness in the marketplace. One possible scenario is for coaching to become a global language. As a global language, coaching would manifest in psychology, organizational development, education, and other disciplines where it influences not just a sector of disciplines, it permeates their whole practice in a way that maintains its distinctiveness and uniqueness.

Filtering the descriptive data through the lenses of postmodern reframing has led to the development of a grounded theory for coaching.

Grounded Theory

My grounded theory seeks to address a model for the continuing evolution of coaching in a postmodern era. I reject three implicit assumptions underlying the initial questions in the study:

1. Coaching is a static and bounded field of practice. When I asked who influenced coaching and what the influencing disciplines were, it implied that coaching as a field and as a practice was narrowly defined.
2. The models, patterns, and practices of coaching can be traced to specific individuals and specific disciplines.

3. The field of coaching is following the route of its precedents to establish coaching as a credible profession by coming up with a unified theory of coaching.

I created a grounded theory about the emergence and evolution of coaching as a multidisciplinary field of practice in the context of postmodern socioeconomic factors.

This theory is:

1. Coaching is an open, fluid social movement that spreads virally through human relationships and interactions and will become woven into the fabric of life as the process and style of communication in which people interact with each other.
2. Modern patterns and practices of coaching are dynamic and contextual, awareness- and choice-focused, and delivered across a continuum of attributes customized to the person being coached, the coach, the context, and the specific situation.
3. Coaching is a social phenomenon and multidisciplinary field that, to be sustainable, must continue rapid innovation encompassing diversity and inclusion, while maintaining an integral balance within a loose open social network.

Principles for Coaching's Evolution as the Dominant Worldview and Global Culture

From the three elements of my grounded theory about coaching, here are the principles I would apply to contribute to coaching's evolution as the dominant worldview and global culture.

1. Understand and value the influences on and contributions to coaching.

2. Embrace a definition of coaching that is inclusive and values diversity.
3. Promote diversity and inclusion through an integral open social network framework.
4. Support every human being to effectively use the knowledge, skills, and abilities of coaching.
5. Model and live coaching moment by moment in every interaction.
6. Champion coaching as a social phenomenon for the 21st century and beyond.

1. Understand and value the influences on and contributions to coaching

Though coaching focuses on the present and future, it is important to know where we came from and to value the contributions of those that came before. Coaching did not emerge, and does not exist, in a vacuum. Clients are not coached in isolation from their context or environment, yet I was one of the many who practiced coaching in isolation from its context. Understanding and valuing the influences on and contributions to coaching is key to the professional and personal development of a coach.

2. Embrace a definition of coaching that is inclusive and values diversity

The coaching definition I propose is broad and encompassing: Coaching is a dynamic and contextual mutual-learning process that fosters self- and behavioral awareness, personal growth, and conscious choice for the highest good. There is room within this definition for inclusion of the many existing definitions for coaching as well as the future cross-fertilization that will occur.

3. Promote diversity and inclusion through an integral open social network framework

It is imperative that coaching transcend the competitive framework. The premise of postmodernism is that dichotomies are arbitrary and everything is fluid. Coaching

needs a framework to include the objectivist-based (the meaning of things are fixed and what they are) and constructivist-based (the meaning of something is constructed through an interaction between the individual and phenomenon) perspectives. The social network I propose is integral and open. It is integral in that it encompasses reductionist (scientific) and holistic (humanistic) perspectives simultaneously. It is open in that it has a multitude of connections to individuals within and outside the main network to ensure coaching remains agile, nimble, and proactive over time in relation to internal and external factors.

4. Support every human being to effectively use the knowledge, skills, and abilities of coaching

For coaching to thrive and become the dominant worldview, the knowledge, skills, and abilities used in coaching must become the preferred method of interacting for every person. This means that coaches must know that using the knowledge, skills, and abilities of coaching is the right of every human being, not limited to those identified as coaching practitioners.

5. Model and live coaching moment by moment in each interaction

This requires willingness and commitment by each coach, and cannot be legislated by a code of ethics or a standard of conduct. It is critical to be coach-like in interactions with others internal and external to the coaching field.

6. Champion coaching as a social phenomenon for the 21st century and beyond

This requires a shift from viewing coaching as a set of practices to seeing it as a social phenomenon. Holding a coaching worldview and contributing to the spread of this positive epidemic sums up what is possible for coaching and the world. Notice that this principle is not dependent on whether coaching is a profession or not, nor on whether it is

clearly distinguished from related disciplines or not. What is in front of us is the opportunity to contribute to the wellness of the planet, the flora, the fauna, and the human race. As Sir John Whitmore said, “I feel not that it’s fun to do it as much as it’s a responsibility to do it, to try to help other people to be the best coaches they can be. Because, by God, we need it. I mean, the planet’s in a mess; we need people to be more aware and more responsible” (personal communication, March 22, 2006).

Limitations of My Study

There are limitations of this study that include the survey and interviews being conducted only in English, which precluded getting the insider perspective of people who speak a language other than English. The survey was distributed only through the Internet and networks with which I am familiar. The people I interviewed came from the survey responses or were referred by other people I interviewed, so there may be some bias in those whom I interviewed. The interview data reflect only the perspective of the interviewees and not necessarily the researcher’s view, nor is the interview data necessarily supported by references in the literature. The richness of the data would have permitted multiple methods of analysis; however, because of limitations of time and other resources, I restricted my method of analysis to the approach described earlier in this paper.

Avenues to Explore

In this paper I have opened some avenues that some other researchers may want to explore. The grounded theory I offered contains several provocative propositions: a) coaching is an open, fluid social movement that spreads virally through human relationships and interactions; b) modern patterns and practices of coaching are dynamic

and contextual, delivered across a continuum of attributes and customized to the person being coached, the coach, the context, and the specific situation; and c) coaching is a social phenomenon and unique multidisciplinary field that, to be sustainable, must continue rapid innovation encompassing diversity and inclusion, while maintaining an integral balance within a loose open social network. I now invite other researchers to examine these propositions further. Ways in which this might be done are to examine how coaching spreads through human relationships and interactions; research these propositions cross-culturally, socioeconomically, and/or geographically; or study the training and/or service organizations, professional and/or network associations, or academic and/or non-profit institutions to ascertain the extent to which they are a container for inclusion and diversity. Beyond these, there are other questions researchers may want to pursue: What is the state of diversity and inclusion in the coaching field today? What does professionalization look like in the postmodern period? Is modeling and living coaching moment by moment possible? How might the coaching worldview evolve? What constitutes the tipping point for the worldview curve?

Coaching is an emerging and evolving field, complex and dynamic. This paper is offered as a contribution to the continuing evolution of coaching as a profession and a social movement.