COACHING, A FIELD FOR PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISORS?

SUMMARY

Coaching is a rapidly evolving field. Its forms are more diverse than those of professional supervision, which is, in fact, an established approach with the characteristics of ‘coaching’. Although the origins and development of coaching are different from supervision, there is some connection between concepts and practices of both modalities. Professional supervisors need to be fully familiar with the field of coaching, so as to be able to (re)define their position within professional supervision. In order to do this, they should study the developments in coaching. This paper offers an overview of coaching in the English speaking world. It can be used as an informative guide by practitioners and as a basis for further research comparing coaching and professional supervision and more clearly defining their similarities and differences.

1. INTRODUCTION

Coaching as a tool for personal and professional development, established in the late 1980s (Hudson, 1999.), is the fast-
est growing field within consulting (Liljenstrand, 2003:1, referring to Eggers & Clark, 2000. and to Hall et al., 1999.). Many companies have substituted the coaching process for all other sorts of executive training (Judge & Cowell, 1997.). The number of publications on coaching is growing rapidly. An Email-Newsletter in German is sent out to 22,950 recipients. The Internet search engine Google returns over 37,800,000 results for the query ‘Business coaching Personal coaching’. At least four international (scientific) journals on coaching have been established in the past several years. However, like consulting, coaching is a ‘buyer beware’ business (Shuit, 2005.a). It is flourishing without an established theoretical framework. It exists in many different forms and approaches.

People who are professionally connected with the field of supervision as an educational form of coaching (semi-)professionals to handle their professional tasks (and who nowadays increasingly refer to themselves as ‘professional supervisor/coach’) must have at their disposal a solid knowledge base of the rapidly emerging field of coaching (Van Kessel/Fellermann, 2002.; Van Kessel, 2002.a; Van Kessel, 2002.b; Van Kessel, 2002.c; Van Kessel, 2002.d).

What does the term ‘coaching’ represent and what do activities subsumed under the term ‘coaching’ offer their clients and commissioners/sponsors? What are the differences and similarities between coaching and supervision as a method of coaching (semi-)professionals with a tradition of over a hundred years? These questions are the topic of this article. In discussing them we will shed light on the following topics: The world of coaching (section 2); What does the term coaching stand for? (section 3); Domains of coaching (section 4); Types of coaching (section 5); The position and roles of coaches (section 6); The focus and forms of coaching (section 7); Coaching methods and principles (section 8); Methodological approaches to coaching (section 9); Outcomes of coaching (section 10); Competences of coaches (section 11); Coaching as a distinct area of practice and study (section 12); Coaching, mentoring and consultancy (section 13); Coaching and professional supervision (section 14). The article ends with conclusions (section 15).

The aim of this paper is to present an overview of the field, as an aid in finding one’s way in the jungle of coaching. It is based on resources which mainly reflect trends in the Anglo-Saxon world (the USA, Canada, Great Britain, and Australia). It will be clear that

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2  www.coaching-newsletter.de
3  a. International Journal of Coaching in Organizations (established in 2003.).
   c. International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring (A bi-annual e-journal; established in 2003.), (www.brookes.ac.uk/schools/education/ijebcm/home.html)
4  We use the term ‘professional supervision’ to refer to concepts of supervision as developed in helping and educating professions; e.g. as represented by the Association of National Organisations for Supervision in Europe (ANSE) (www.supervision-eu.org). See also section 14.
there are diverse practices, a range of roles, various coaching models and frameworks of practice, and that coaching activities go by many names, not always used in a consistent manner. All this makes it difficult to get a clear picture of coaching. Gradually, coaching has started to shake off some of the bad press it was getting. Now the initial hype and excitement is dying down, and there are more academic endeavors to ensure that coaching does not become another ‘flash-in-the-pan HR activity that fails to fulfill its potential’ (CIPD, 2005.:3).

2. COACHING AS A DISTINCT AREA OF PRACTICE AND STUDY: ORIGINS, DEVELOPMENT, FEATURES

Coaching is usually perceived as a relative newcomer to the market of human resources development (HRD) and life help, and the field of coaching as a distinct area of study seems to be fairly new. The field of sports is often referred to as the source for the development of coaching in non-sporting contexts (Evered & Selman, 1989.). The mid-1970.s saw the appearance of best-selling publications by the successful English tennis coach Gallwey (1974.), who attempted to translate sports coaching into managerial situations. His coaching theory was based on his personal discoveries of what produces ‘peak performances’, which he termed ‘the inner game process’ (Evered & Selman, 1989.).

Although the role of coach has changed over time, some examples of research papers on business coaching show that between the late 1930.s and the late 1960.s, some forms of internal coaching in organizations were already present; i.e. managers (or supervisors) acted as coaches to their staff. Here are some examples (cf. Zeus & Skiffington, 2002.; Grant, 2003.a; 2006.): Gorby (1937.) specified how older employees were trained to coach new employees to reduce wastage; Bigelow (1938.) discussed the benefits of coaching by sales managers as a means of improving sales training; Mold (1951.) reported on a manager-as-coach training program in which priority was given to enhancing the manager’s interpersonal skills (which is, according to Grant (2003.a:10), an example of an early case study which foreshadowed later coaching practices); Hayden (1955.) argued that follow-up coaching was an effective way of improving performance appraisals; Mahler (1964.) described the difficulty in getting managers to become effective coaches; Gershman (1967.), who published the first coach-specific doctoral research, presented an example of internal organizational coaching, evaluating how supervisors (in the sense of foremen) were trained to act as effective coaches to improve employees’ attitude and job performance; and Filippi (1968.), who wrote on coaching as therapy for people who do not seek help. According to Grant (2003.a:10-11), the 1980.s saw the

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5 This can be seen as workplace performance coaching (see also section 4).
emergence of empirical evaluations of the effectiveness of coaching with early doctoral work by Duffy (1984.), Wissbrun (1984.) and Gant (1985.), and at the beginning of the 1990s empirical coaching research in general began to gather momentum. Between 1993 and 2003., there was a threefold increase in the number of published academic empirical and theoretical peer-reviewed papers, and doctoral level research increased annually. In this decade, intertwined with the emergence of professional coaching, we also find a shift in emphasis in the literature: many papers have focused on delineating theoretical frameworks for coaching (Grant, 2003.a:13).

**COACHING: A MAGIC WORLD?**

Coaching is often presented as a ‘feel good’ industry and promoted as a dynamic, future-focused and strengths-based form of human helping (Spence et al. 2006.:79). As such, it has a wide-ranging appeal. When one examines the internet and advertisements, what stands out is that some coaches virtually present coaching like magic. We also find that coaches use different titles that spell out their main focus, ranging from ‘executive coach’, ‘business coach’, ‘management coach’, ‘leadership coach’ and ‘career coach’ to ‘life coach’ and ‘personal coach’. Moreover, we find titles like ‘certified dream coach’, ‘potent growth coach’, ‘identity coach’, ‘body-mind coach’, ‘voice coach’, ‘energy coach’, ‘resonanz coach’, ‘creative coach’, ‘ADHD-coach’, ‘nutrition coach’, ‘weight coach’, ‘relationship coach’, ‘love life coach’, ‘rehabilitation coach’, ‘literacy coach’, etc. They present their services as ‘holistic coaching’, ‘professional empowerment coaching’, ‘spiritual coaching’, ‘leadership development’, ‘group coaching’, ‘presentation skills coaching’, etc.

**THE COACHING ‘INDUSTRY’: IMPRESSIONS AND SOME FACTS**

Authors on coaching usually use the term ‘industry’ when describing their field; and this industry is booming. At present having a personal coach is often highly regarded (Berglas, 2002.). A survey indicates that 45 percent of CEOs report that their senior-level professionals need coaching services (Morris, 2000.). Coaching is seen as more effective and cost efficient than other types of personnel development programs. Although little scientific research has been done, a study of a North-American consultancy firm shows an average return on investment of 5.7 times the costs of the investment in a typical executive coaching assignment (Manchester Inc., 2001.; McGovern et al., 2001.).

We could speak of a ‘coaching business’ with coaches as entrepreneurs. In the United States the annual spending on executive coaching amounts to an estimated $1 billion (Sherman & Freas, 2004.). Recent estimates put its size at $2 billion per year (Fillery-
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Travis & Lane, 2006.:23). However, Grant (2006.:14) assumes that the majority of profits in the coaching industry are made by commercial coach training organizations rather than through actual coaching by coaching practitioners.

In the United Kingdom the number of organizations using coaching between 1998. and 2003. rose to 96% (University of Bristol, 2005.). The Australian Institute of Management says that 70% of its member companies hire coaches (Inside Business Channel, 2005.). The authoritative weekly UK newspaper The Economist (2005.) says that the executive and business coaching industry is growing by about 40% a year. Here are some more specific data on which coaching modes are being used within organizations: 51% of organizations in Great Britain used external coaches, 41% trained internal coaches, and 79% trained manager coaches (Kubicek, 2002.). In 2005, 84% of organizations used a line manager as coach and 64% used external coaches (CIPD, 2005.).

Furthermore the number of people delivering coaching is rapidly growing. The International Coach Federation estimates that there may be as many as 40,000 coaches worldwide, an estimate that includes both individual and business coaches (Shuit, 2005.a). This swiftly growing professional organization - its membership has grown by nearly 400% since 1999 - at present (September 2006.) has over 10,500 members in 80 countries.

As a consequence of all this, coaching seems to be attracting people in established occupations who either seek a more meaningful career (e.g. a management consultant who wants to become an executive coach) or seek to expand their practice (e.g. clinical psychologist and life coach), as Spence et al. (2006.:78) state.

WHY IS COACHING SO POPULAR TODAY?

Several reasons can be listed as to why coaching is expanding so rapidly (Liljenstrand, 2003.:4, Authenticity Consulting, 2006.). People are confronted with more complex chal-

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6 These facts were found at: www.1to1coachingschool.com/ (retrieved: August 2006.)


Other important international professional organisations for coaches are:
• Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (WABC), established in 1997. (www.wabccoaches.com);
• Association for Coaching (AC) (www.associationforcoaching.com), established in 2002.;
• International Association of Coaches (IAC) (www.certifiedcoach.org), established in 2003.;
• European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) (www.emccouncil.org);
• In the UK: Association for Professional Executive Coaching and Supervision (APECs) (www.apecs.org), established in 2005. In this association, seasoned British supervisors are engaged as supervisors of executive coaches.
Challenges and problems in life and work. They frequently get caught up in how they think and feel about themselves or their situations in life and work. Organizations are faced with intense competition, and as a result they must make effective use of human capital. Flatter organizational structures and lean management call for self-regulated and self-directing behavior. Organizations and their employees have to cope with different values, opinions and perspectives and must be continually open and adapt to feedback from the environment, which demands continuous learning. The traditional top-down and autocratic style of leadership is not compatible with being open to feedback and learning. One-shot training sessions (seminars and workshops) are not as effective in helping learners to continually learn from their experiences; development must become more person-centered and tailored to the individual. Given that in today’s working environment change is a constant factor, organizations require training and development services to be much more effective in helping people to ‘learn how to learn’ (continuous learning) and apply what has been learnt in the workplace (action and competence learning). Sometimes there is a mismatch between the employee/manager and the position, and many people struggle in their work.

Coaching is seen as a more effective method of learning than training courses, and is presented as a promising tool to improve individual performance. A UK survey (Sung et al., 2004) showed that only 16% of participants believed training courses to be the most effective way for people to learn at work. However, 96% of respondents thought that coaching was an effective way to promote learning in organizations.

3. WHAT DOES THE TERM “COACHING” REFER TO?

Although coaching is booming, it is not clear what kind of activities the term refers to. There is no agreement on its definition (Jackson, 2005.; Palmer, & Whybrow, 2005.). There are different conceptualizations of coaching and the term ‘coaching’ as such does not refer to a specific activity or methodical approach. Grant (2003:a:6) exemplifies the variety of activities which the term is used for in the literature. It refers to ‘coaching individuals to fake malingering on psychological tests (Suhr & Gunstad, 2000.), peer coaching in educational settings (Scarnati et al., 1993.), cognitive training for learning difficulties and disabilities (Dalton et al., 1997.), resolving relationship difficulties (Jacobson, 1977.), coping with infertility (Scharf & Weinshel, 2000.), premature ejaculation (Maurer et al., 1998.), career coaching (Scandura, 1992.), job coaching to help disadvantaged individuals gain and retain employment (Davis et al., 1983.), improving performance in interviews (Maurer et al., 1998.), executive coaching (Tobias, 1996.) and sales performance (Rich, 1998.).’ This list - although certainly not exhaustive - makes it clear that refinement in the usage of the term ‘coaching’ is necessary, if we want to describe or indicate specific coaching activities.
The Anglo-Saxon term ‘coaching’ means ‘teaching and supervising (someone), acting as a trainer or coach’. The word ‘coach’ comes from the Hungarian village of Kocs, where superior horse-drawn passenger carriages were built, called kocsi székér ‘a wagon from Kocs’ in Hungarian. The design spread throughout Europe in the 15th and 16th centuries. The English borrowed the vehicle and called it a (stage)coach. This meaning continues until today for busses. Hence the root meaning of the verb ‘to coach’: to convey a valued person from where (s)he was to where (s)he wanted to be (Evered & Selman, 1989.:16).

There are different explanations as to how the term started to be used to indicate a coach as a supportive consultant. According to one commonly accepted theory, the word ‘coach’ was first used in the 1840s at Oxford University to refer to a private (vs. university) tutor who guided students through various fields of study or lessons preparing them for an examination. The coach ‘carried’ the student through the course, just like a ‘coach’ might carry an eighteenth-century English family to London. Another interpretation is that wealthy squires had servants read to them as they drove in their coaches on a long trip. A private tutor might come along to assist their children or indeed read aloud to them, and thus they would be ‘coached’ in their studies as they proceeded along country roads. So the term ‘academic coach’ came into use. The third interpretation says that the name allegedly refers to multitasking skills associated with controlling a team of horses pulling a stagecoach. This sense of the term developed in 1880 in sports, where American college sports teams had coaches (in addition to managers) to win a boat race (Evered & Selman, 1989.: 16). Later coaches emerged in non-sporting contexts to enhance the (quality of the) performance of their coachees.

Definitions of coaching vary considerably and have been the subject of much debate. Tobias (1996.:87) states formally that ‘coaching is individually tailored to the person and the current issue or problem, as opposed to the ‘one-size-fits-all’ menu provided by many seminars.’ Some authors emphasize intended effects. Rogers (2004.:8) outlines coaching as follows: ‘The coach works with clients to achieve speedy, increased and sustainable effectiveness in their lives and careers through focused learning. The coach’s sole aim is to work with the client to achieve all of the client’s potential - as defined by the client.’ The influential author Whitmore (2002.:8) describes coaching as ‘unlocking a

8  www.thefreedictionary.com  
9  www.billcasselman.com/wording_room/coach.htm
person’s potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them.’ Recently Grant (2006.:12) described coaching as an ‘enhancement of life experience, work performance and well-being for individuals, groups and organizations that do not have clinically significant mental health issues or abnormal levels of distress.’

Others emphasize the way of working. A prominent author (Gallwey, 2002.:177) describes coaching as ‘the art of creating an environment, through conversation and a way of being, that facilitates the process by which a person can move toward desired goals in a fulfilling manner.’ Mobley (1999.:57, cited in Liljenstrand, 2003.:2) writes: ‘A coaching relationship helps people work out issues and find their own answers through the skilful use of probing questions’. However, in this last respect not all ideas are in line with each other. For example, Parsloe (1995.) represents the instructional approach, conceiving of coaching as directly concerned with the immediate improvement of performance and development of skills by a form of tutoring or instruction, while Downey (1999.) represents the facilitation approach, conceiving of coaching as the art of facilitating the performance, learning and development of another. Jackson (2005.:47) proposes to develop a definition that reflects the breadth of coaching activity and that differentiates effectively between different practices. With a view to this he develops a five-dimensional model, in which there is a range from pragmatic competency coaching, with an emphasis on coaching in relatively specific areas of competency, to facilitative open-scope coaching.

It is frequently suggested that the central feature of coaching is a one-on-one relationship formally contracted between a coach and a management-level client to help achieve goals relating to professional development and/or business performance. However, Grant (2006.:13) broadens this perspective, stressing that contemporary professional coaching is a cross-disciplinary methodology for fostering individual and organizational change, which comprises both personal or ‘life’ coaching and workplace coaching with staff, managers and executives.

Central to most definitions are (Grant, 2006.:13): assumptions of the absence of serious mental health problems in the client (Bluckert, 2005.); the notion that the client is resourceful (Berg et al., 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.). In this way coaches help their coachees enhance aspects of both their personal and professional lives.

**CORE CONSTRUCTS OF COACHING**

Looking more specifically at features that are essential to the core constructs of coaching, despite many differences the following notions stand out (Grant, 2001.a:9;
individualized, collaborative, client-centered, results-oriented; focused on constructing solutions and not on analyzing problems; aimed at goal development and goal setting in collaboration between the coach and the coachee; focused on construction of a systematic goal-directed process to expedite goal attainment. Furthermore, the coach is seen as an expert in facilitating the design of actions which lead to the achievement of these goals and in creating client awareness to promote learning and development. Finally, domain-specific expertise in the coachee’s chosen area of learning is not necessary; coaching is directed at stimulating ongoing self-directed and self-reflective learning, at fostering self-regulated progress to facilitate sustained change and at managing accountability.

4. DOMAINS OF COACHING

As an umbrella notion, coaching refers to so many different activities that the term is actually inflationary, and has no clear meaning. The term cannot be used as a general designation, because it covers different meanings, aims, contents, ways of working and forms. These are in part influenced by the domains in which coaching is applied. In order to be more specific when talking about coaching, it is important to take into account the domains in which coaching is delivered and how these domains influence coaching concepts and practices. The main areas and their characteristics are described below:

SPORTS

In this domain coaching is represented as a very important tool and the number of coaching activities in this field is enormous. The internet search engine Google (September 2006.) returned 35,600,000 results for the query ‘sports coaching’. Sports coaches - often called ‘field managers’ by owners and front office personnel - work with individuals or with teams to improve sporting performance.

EDUCATION

Griffiths (2005.) notices that personal coaching still has little impact in educational contexts, although - in his opinion - it could be a potential model for active, collaborative, authentic and engaging learning. He states that the role of the teacher is moving to-

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10 ‘Coachee’ is the person who is actually the direct client system of the coaching. ‘Sponsor’ refers to the system that is responsible for the commission - if this is not the coachee - to which the coachee as well as the coach are accountable.
wards coaching, because teachers, like coaches, are beginning to help students ‘to learn rather than teaching them’ (Whitmore, 2002.:8).

Coaching fulfills various functions in educational programs. Educational one-to-one tutoring is often termed coaching (Grant, 2003.a:7). Academic coaching (Shapiro, 1999.) is sometimes taken as synonymous with cramming; and the academic coach tutors learning efficiency. Students are helped with their particular needs, including reading, writing, study, and test-taking skills, along with time and stress management. These coaches also provide skills training based on the needs of each individual student, and refer students to subject-matter tutors and other support services when needed. There are regular one-to-one meetings to set goals for the semester and develop the skills to achieve those goals in the most efficient manner. One variant is also dissertation coaching.

Furthermore, coaching is seen as a key way to reduce ‘leakage’ from training courses, and is therefore used as a training tool for transfer or consolidation improving course effectiveness (Olivero et al., 1997.). Sustained behavior change after training can be realized better through monitoring and consolidation activities that continue after the training itself. This type of coaching is usually limited in duration and has a highly constrained agenda defined by the training event or focus.

Joyce & Showers (1980.) were among the first to propose coaching as a valuable tool for staff development in the school system. According to them, the purpose of coaching is twofold: to enhance teachers’ learning after seminars and to refine classroom teaching strategies and practices. In school systems, cognitive coaching is frequently used as a means of clinical supervision, to assist teachers in examining the thinking behind their practices. It encourages self-monitoring, self-analysis and self-evaluation of teaching practices and behavior in order to maximize student learning (Costa & Garmston, 1994.). In these organizations collegial coaching (Garmston, 1987.) or peer coaching (Gordon & Nicely, 1998.:817) is also prevalent. It occurs in two forms (Ackland, 1991.): expert coaching (specially trained teachers with acknowledged expertise observe colleagues and offer them feedback, support and suggestions), and reciprocal coaching (teachers observe, give feedback and support each other to jointly improve instruction). Glickman (1990.) equates the peer coaching process with peer clinical supervision.

**PERSONAL LIFE**

Coaching activities in this domain are called personal and life(style/skills) coaching. This type of coaching focuses on the coachee’s personal life, and according to Rogers (2004.) it is ‘an approach to personal development closely paralleled by the popularity of the many thousands of self-help books’. The motto characterizing this domain may be formulated as: ‘take control of your life’.
Life (skills) coaches (also referred to as personal coaches) concentrate on whole-life dilemmas, i.e. personal relationships, divorce, life transitions, life balance, and on individual goal setting and planning for the future as well as individual improvement. They collaborate with their coachees in a highly interactive working partnership for the purpose of assisting their coachees to clarify what they really want from life, how they can be more successful and can enhance life satisfaction through setting more effective personal goals, taking new strategic actions, and to stay focused and accountable. Moreover, this type of coaching may focus on debt reduction, increasing savings, financial and retirement planning (Spence et al., 2006.:76).

As far as commissions and contracts are concerned, it is the individual requesting the service who hires the coach and commits to taking action to succeed. Accountability is shared between the coach and the coachee. Together they co-design a direction.

Rogers (2004.) states that this type of coaching is developing its own distinct client niches: some life coaches specialize in relationship coaching; and some relationship coaches only deal with widowed or divorced women. Others work with women returning to work after having had children; others still concentrate on health and fitness. Nevertheless, some life coaches successfully blur boundaries, delivering executive coaching for small-business owners or professional service firms.

Life coaching seems to function as a more socially acceptable form of therapy (Grant, 2006., p.14). It attracts individuals who wish to address an array of mental health issues (e.g. depression, social anxiety, self-esteem) without receiving the stigma often associated with therapy and counseling, as two recent coaching studies (Green et al., 2005.; Spence & Grant, 2005.) suggest: between 25% and 50% of individuals receiving life coaching met clinical mental health criteria.

HEALTH COACHING

Health coaching, where the focus is on both physical and psychological well-being, can be seen as a special area of life coaching. It is emerging as the fastest growing area of coaching, and the coaching outcome research published in medical journals tends to be of better quality than outcome research published in psychological or business literature (Grant, 2006.:19). Much of the health related coaching is conducted by dieticians (nutrition coaches), nurses and other health professionals. The issues addressed include (Spence et al., 2006.:76): increasing exercise levels, improved dietary habits, more sleep, weight reduction and more holiday time. Wellness coaching also belongs to this domain.
Coaching provides services to individuals involved in business, industry and (human) service organizations. In this domain we find activities such as business coaching / corporate coaching, executive coaching for managers, as well as coaching in the workplace. This last activity, focusing on the individual’s performance in relation to an organization, is also called employee coaching, supervisory coaching, coaching as a line management activity, coaching as part of management, coaching by superior, and coaching by manager. The following roles are mentioned: leader as coach, manager as mentor, or manager as coach. This type of coaching should not be confused with job coaching, an activity aimed at helping disadvantaged individuals gain and retain employment, which parallels career coaching for those in better positions. Some of these activities are described below more extensively.

**COACHING AS A LINE MANAGEMENT ACTIVITY**

In non-authoritarian societies the ‘telling’ mode has limited effectiveness at the workplace. What is more, offering development is a considerable incentive for employees, and effective development is essential for innovation. Based on these notions, in-house workplace coaching by managers has been developed as an important tool for guiding employees, in stimulating them to improve their current performance, in helping them to develop their skills, and in building their abilities for the future. It has a long history (see section 2). The earliest more systematic efforts to explore coaching as a management function were initiated in the 1950s (Mace & Mahler, 1958.). Coaching was seen as part of the superior’s responsibility to develop subordinates through a sort of master-apprentice relationship. In nearly all cases, the ‘superior’ acts as a coach who ‘directs’ the players (or the team) to higher levels of performance (Evered & Selman 1989.). This modality is seen as a type of performance management, and is connected with the concept of the learning organization. The line manager’s role as developer rather than as controller is emphasized (Evered & Selman, 1989.). The role of the manager (or ‘supervisor’) as coach, is to inspire team members, to offer them encouragement, to give them real-time constructive feedback and to challenge them. More specifically (Graham et al., 1994.), the supervisor as coach communicates clear performance objectives, provides regular performance feedback, considers all relevant information when appraising performance, observes performance with coachees, knows staff well enough to help them develop self-improvement plans, recognizes and rewards high performance, provides help, training and guidance, and builds a warm, friendly relationship. These coaching activities focus on encouraging team members to develop self-confidence, resourceful-
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ness, skills, belief in the value of their own decision making and so on, through a process of accelerated learning (Rogers, 2004.:26).

The agenda for this type of coaching is not open, but is usually solely concerned with the requirements of the organization, and is focused explicitly on the achievement of work goals (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006.:27). It addresses skills and performance levels, focuses on key questions such as what to do, how to proceed and how to build on past experience, and is unsound for goals at a deeper personal development level or personal life level. This is a consequence of the line management responsibility: it is more difficult to promise confidentiality, set aside one's own considerations or remain detached from the possible outcomes.

Working on personal life issues, encouraging or expecting disclosure of personal and intimate information is not compatible with the function of being a formal superior. Line managers also have their own targets to meet, and must make their subordinates accountable. Consequently, the desirability of the combination or separation of roles is discussed (Toll, 2004.). In addition to performance, the focus can also be on career development/progression coaching, or on coaching an individual on retirement issues.

This type of coaching is seen as an ongoing process, and is therefore also called continuous coaching. It can be arranged on one-to-one basis or may be team based, and may be a formal catching-the-moment event ('on the job', 'just in time'), or more formally arranged by appointment ('off the job'). The level of skill and competence required for this type of internal coach is low. On average, they receive only three days of training (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006.:27).

BUSINESS COACHING

The umbrella term business coaching is used to include all types of organizationally related professional coaching, and is sometimes called corporate coaching. Coaches in this domain refer to themselves as business coaches, corporate coaches, executive coaches, leadership coaches, organizational development coaches etc. They work in positions both internal in and external to the organization.

The focus of this activity is either the individual's performance in relation to an organization (also called performance coaching), or his/her professional development (also called development coaching), or typically a combination of these with a different focus on each. Moreover, the focus can be set on cooperation problems, e.g. in the form of conflict coaching (Noble, 2002.).

Business coaching is seen as an intervention strategy that addresses specific issues (values, decisions and performance) inside a specific organization, rather than the personal life of the person being coached, though the issues of business coaching may

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eventually lead to reflections on fundamental life and career issues (Lazar & Bergquist, 2003.). According to WABC (2006.) a business coach assists managers in such diverse activities as rejuvenating business growth, building interpersonal competencies, enhancing organizational capabilities, developing a skills and knowledge base, prioritizing goals and developing strategies to achieve objectives within set timeframes, dealing with conflicts, streamlining business processes and systems, improving morale, directing and supporting organizational change, collaborating to create and execute personal/business development plans, delivering feedback, conducting needs analyses, developing and interpreting performance assessments.

Within business coaching *three types of coaching* can be distinguished (Lazar & Bergquist, 2003.). The first type focuses on decision-making, on strategizing, on ‘thinking through’ a process and its underlying assumptions. The second type focuses on the enactment of a decision or strategy. The third addresses the whole person in context, exploring fundamental issues (‘Why am I ...?’). This last type is called *alignment coaching* (Lazar & Bergquist, 2003.), and it explores which causative factors are at work and in which way. It initiates inquiry into *who we are being* (as distinct from *what we are doing*) at a specific stage in our life and how that fits into some larger plan; and concentrates on underlying values, beliefs, and attitudes. Alignment coaching can be subdivided into (1) *spiritual coaching*, (2) *philosophical coaching*, (3) *ethics coaching* and (4) *life and career coaching*.

In this type of coaching (WABC, 2006.) the *business coach* typically collaborates with his/her coachee in a highly interactive partnership with the purpose of reaching professional/personal goals and objectives within the context of the organization’s goals and objectives. Therefore business coaches see themselves as strategic business partners to facilitate enhanced business results. Accountability is shared between the coach and the coachee.

As to the methodology, the business coach and coachee generally engage in a continuous progression of conversations, observations and practice. Within a well-defined working relationship the coach acts as a change agent, a sounding board for decision-making and as a strategic-thinking partner. Sometimes the coach functions as a counselor, motivator or strategist. The business coach facilitates a structured and safe learning environment for individual development through interventions aimed at clarifying personal values, setting purposeful goals and developing and implementing strategic action plans. Fees for business coaching are generally higher than fees for life coaching.

**EXECUTIVE COACHING**

Executive coaching is a specific type of business coaching realized in one-to-one interaction. It is conceived of as a form of management or leadership development, and
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is therefore sometimes called coaching for leadership. It is one of many interventions organizational consultants offer to their clients in order to improve the organization’s overall effectiveness. It is by far the most dominant form of coaching, and the platform from which personal coaching has evolved (Griffiths, 2005:56). Its origins can be traced to the Anglo-Saxon leadership development programs in the 1980s. Around 1990., human resources consultants largely began adopting executive coaching programs (Judge & Cowell, 1997. in: Liljenstrand, 2003.). Meanwhile, practical literature on executive coaching has been growing fast, but empirical research on this topic has lagged behind, and theoretical work on the processes underlying effective coaching has been limited. The first comprehensive review of executive coaching literature, with a description of seven empirical studies on the effectiveness of executive coaching, was published by Kampakokesch & Anderson (2001.). In their review, Feldman & Lankau (2005.) investigated the construct of executive coaching and examined how coaches’ professional training, client characteristics, and types of coaching impact the effectiveness of this intervention.

Generally, the work of executive coaches concentrates on the most senior executives in large or medium-sized organizations (Rogers, 2004.). This is based on the assumption that, in this way, benefits cascade down through the organization. Clients expect familiarity with management, and a track record in management from the coach. Executive coaching has also been recognized as a leadership and self-preservation tool for school principals (Hogan, 2004.; Killion, 2002.). The shift described by Judge & Cowell, (1997.) is interesting: coaching was originally implemented to save ‘derailed managers’ and today coaches are often hired to boost the performance of an already successful individual. Describing this type of coaching as ‘huddling with the coach’, a critical observer (Shuit, 2005.b) notes that some companies have discovered that what their brilliant but problematic executive really needed was not a coach, but a psychiatrist. Berglas (2002.) says that executive coaches can make a bad situation worse, since, due to their backgrounds, they ignore psychological problems they do not understand.

In Peterson’s view (1996., in: Liljenstrand, 2003.) the assessment of coachees in this type of coaching depends on their needs. Coachees often have a clear goal they want to obtain as a result, and they are usually also the ones who report on the progress to the organizational sponsors. Follow-up and ongoing consultation are also organized in response to the coachee’s request.

With regard to the content, the intervention focuses on the challenges that the coachee faces. The intervention often involves discussions regarding options and effective implications. Sessions are organized as 1-2 hour meetings, either on an as need basis or according to a schedule. According to Rogers (2004.), potential topics include everything in the life-coaching agenda plus any and every aspect of running organizations, e.g. (Spence et al., 2006: 76) career/business issues (career management and transitions,  business generation, time management, professional development and strategic devel-
opment issues; relationship issues (leadership and interpersonal skills development, interpersonal team building and conflict management); work/life balance issues (developing stress reduction strategies, more family time exploring new interests, finding hobbies and reduced hours at the office).

Like in life coaching, in this domain we can also observe the development of more specific niches. Rogers (2004.) lists the following: coaching for new leaders, retirement planning for older leaders, stress and burnout, finance, careers, finding a new job after redundancy, interview preparation, presentation skills, voice, image, strategy, and many others.

5. TYPES OF COACHING

To get a clearer picture of coaching activities, it will be helpful to look more closely at their methodological features. This type of focus shows that there is a variety of different types of coaching. Liljenstrand (2003.:16) mentions the types given below, as identified in Anglo-Saxon coaching literature. They are listed here by degree of intensity, along with some other data. We will be systematically describing their methodological characteristics as follows: involvement of the organizational sponsor; way of assessment; focus; the contract with the coachee; way of working; duration, and follow-up.

TARGETED COACHING

According to Peterson (1996.), who used this term, in this type of coaching organizational sponsors are somewhat involved. After a minimal assessment (by an interview, 360-degree survey, and/or a discussion with the sponsor of the client’s organization) one or two skill areas will be focused on (e.g. team leadership, communication). The coachee under concern is motivated and well aware of the objective of the intervention. The duration will be 4 to 5 half-day sessions during 3 to 4 months, with minimal follow-up.

11 Liljenstrand (2003.) also includes ‘executive coaching’ in this list, but in my opinion this is more of a domain for coaching (coaching for a specific target group) in which several methodological types can be applied. Executive coaching is described in section 4. Kampa-Kokesch et al. (2001.) report the difficulty in distinguishing one type of coaching from another. According to Liljenstrand (2003.:20) the distinction between different types of coaching is based on opinions, narratives and a non-scientific understanding of the field rather than empirically derived information.
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**FEEDBACK COACHING**

This form of coaching is described by Thach & Heinselman (1999). The necessary information is gathered in advance through a 360-degree assessment tool. This information forms the starting point of the engagement of the coachee. The coach provides the coachee with feedback, and helps create a developmental plan focused on specific areas. The usual duration of feedback coaching is between 1 and 6 months.

**CONTENT COACHING / COACHING FOR SKILLS**

The function of content coaching (Thach & Heinselman, 1999) or coaching for skills (Witherspoon & White, 1996) is to help the coachee learn specific skills, abilities and perspectives. In order to do this, the coach provides the coachee with specific knowledge and guidance in a specific skill area, e.g. marketing or finance. In case of an executive as a coachee, it provides him/her with skills to assume new or different responsibilities or to become a ‘manager as coach’.

At the outset clear and specific goals are formulated in terms of ‘How to do!’ The coachee agrees on the purpose of and the need for the intervention, and believes that it is possible to learn such skills. Alternative sources, e.g. books, can be used. This type of coaching has a time span of several weeks or months.

**IN-DEPTH DEVELOPMENTAL COACHING**

This type of coaching (Thach & Heinselman, 1999) is based on extensive data gathering (using 360-degree tools; Myers-Briggs type indicator; Schutz’ Firo-B; interviews with staff, peers, and managers, and in some cases even family members).

The coach and coachee collaboratively create a developmental plan, which is shared with the coachee’s manager. ‘Shadowing’ is a common intervention, during which the coach provides immediate feedback. Meetings take 2 to 4 hours, at least once a month, over a period of 12 months. For Diedrich (1996.), who describes a similar approach, this type of coaching can include 30 sessions lasting up to 36 months (cf. section 8).

**INTENSIVE COACHING**

For Peterson (1996.) this type of coaching is suitable for coachees who need assistance in behavioral and role changes. Their need for change is obvious, but the actual objectives of the engagement may not be spelled out.

The coachee may or may not be motivated to change. Organizational sponsors are involved through ongoing, in-depth consultation. In-depth assessment of the coachee’s
psychological and cognitive abilities, work simulations, interviews and 360-degree survey are usually used.

Intensive coaching covers 5 to 6 full-day sessions during a period of 6 to 9 months. Follow up is usually scheduled within 3 to 6 months in order to make sure that the effected behavioral changes have been sustained.

6. THE POSITION AND ROLES OF COACHES

Coaches deliver their services from different positions. The first position is that of an external coach. The potential functions of this position can be grouped under two main headings (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006.):

1. Coaching of a senior executive according to his/her own agenda, with the following tasks: supporting the induction of the senior manager, supporting particular individuals identified as having considerable potential or as targets for extra support, and acting as a critical friend or sounding board for the senior manager where mentors are not appropriate or practical. However, organizations are becoming increasingly aware of the potential difficulties for the organization of ‘free agenda’ coaching because of the perceived lack of control.

2. Coaching of managers after training to consolidate knowledge acquisition and work with the individual to support and facilitate resulting behavior change in relation to a specific organizational agenda.

The second position is that of in-house or internal coaching, i.e. inside organizations. The so-called workplace coaching by managers (see section 4) belongs to this type. Nevertheless, the title ‘internal coach’ is also used for persons outside line management, e.g. in positions at the HR department. Internal coaches do not always use standard assessment like external coaches often do, because they already know significant background information and have access to the results of organizational assessment. The agenda within this mode can explore the underpinning aspects of the behavior or change required; but still remains heavily focused on organizational objectives, and is to some extent restricted by the organizational framework. Tasks associated with this role are the following (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006.:28): coaching individuals where manager coaches are not fully used; providers of coach training to managers; supervision of manager coaches providing support and further skills as and when required; specialist coaches for senior managers.

DIFFERENT ROLES

A survey of coaching (ICF, 1998.) mentions various roles of the coach: a sounding board and motivator, a mentor, consultant, teacher, taskmaster or spiritual guide.
7. FOCUS AND FORMS OF COACHING

Although specified by domain and type, the focus of coaching activities can be categorized into three generic levels (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004.; Witherspoon & White, 1996.).

- **Skills coaching** can be of short duration and requires the coach to focus on specific behaviors.
- **Performance coaching or coaching for (enhanced) performance** concentrates on the coachee’s effectiveness in his/her current position and focuses on the process by which the coachees can set goals, overcome obstacles, and evaluate and monitor their performance (Bergquist, 2001.; Whitmore, 2002.). It frequently involves coaching for one or more management/leadership competencies, such as communicating vision, team building and delegation.
- **Content-focused coaching** (Staub et al., 2003.) is used in training and professional development programs for teachers to help them to reflect on specific lessons to internalize and be able to independently use specific principles to guide their classroom instruction.
- **Developmental coaching or coaching for development** focuses on exploring and enhancing the competencies and characteristics required for - occasionally a future - job or role. This category is often associated with outplacements, restructuring and reengineering in the organization. Labels include e.g. career coaching ('take control of your career') / outplacement coaching, promotion / transition coaching, leadership coaching. In some approaches it takes a broader and more holistic view, often dealing with more intimate personal and professional questions. This can involve the creation of a personal reflective space.

**FORMS OF COACHING**

Coaching can be realized in various forms. Very often coaching is defined as a one-to-one relationship, but generally this is only the case in executive coaching. Actually, coaching is not always confined to individuals and team coaching has also developed.

Coaching is realized in face-to-face contacts and remotely. The following forms of face-to-face coaching can be distinguished:

- **Individual coaching/one-on-one coaching**: the coach and coachee work in a one-on-one relationship.
- **Group coaching / triadic coaching**: the coach coaches multiple clients in a group and peer members of the group can coach each other.
- **Team-coaching**: the coach works with a team to enhance team performance. Recent research suggests that task-focused and not interpersonally focused interven-
tions mostly impact team performance effectiveness (Hackman & Wageman, 2005.). Some authors (Diedrich, 2001.) argue that team coaching cannot be identified with team building or team development. Whether a team coach can work with the team and also be available for individual team members is a point for discussion (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006.:29).

- **Project (group)-coaching**: the coach coaches a project (-team).
- **Peer coaching**: participants coach each other reciprocally. In formal education settings two forms are common: expert coaching, characterized by an unequal relationship, involving feedback, support, alternatives and suggestions; and reciprocal coaching, characterized by an equal relationship, involving observation, feedback, support and natural learning (Ackland, 1991.:24, in Gordon & Nicely, 1998.:815-817).
- **Coaching of organizations**: coaching as intervention within OD. Thus, e.g. Kralj (2001.) described a case study of an intervention aimed at enabling a company to redesign their organization. All the interventions were made on the systems or team level.

Remote (technologically assisted) **coaching or virtual coaching** includes the following forms:
- **Phone-coaching** (Dean, 1999.): The coach works with the coachee by telephone.
- **E-mail coaching**: Non-verbal cues, which are critical to understanding and interpreting message meaning, are missing. Options for the provision of conceptual information and feedback are possible, but observation, modeling and practice of skills are not (Vail, 2003.:17).
- **Coaching by on-line chat**.
- **Coaching by video-conferencing**.

### 8. COACHING METHODS AND PRINCIPLES

Coaching can be characterized by specific guiding principles. These can be helpful to differentiate coaching from some other apparently similar disciplines and other ‘helping roles’. Although there are remarkable differences depending on the domain, type of coaching and approach, the following principles in coaching can be distinguished (Rogers, 2004.:7, ICF, 2004.):

- Basically, the coachee is seen as resourceful, capable and not dysfunctional, and is therefore conceived of as having the resources to resolve his or her problems. It is the coachee who decides whether or not (s)he will use the information offered.
- The coachee wants something to change and to be more effective. Third party referrals (by organizational sponsors) should be regarded with initial caution.
The focus is on the process. The coaching agenda starts with the coachee and the process holds the client’s agenda.

The working relation between the coach and coachee is collaborative, egalitarian (Grant, 2001.a; Hurd, 2002.). As to the intervention behavior, this means that the coach suspends judgment.

The role of the coach is to assist in the development of the coachee’s performance, letting the coachee be the key to the answers and to spring loose the client’s resourcefulness. As to the intervention behavior of the coach, this means asking penetrating questions instead of giving advice. However, observation and feedback are also seen as core interventions in coaching.

The coach provides structure, guidance and support to help coachees to take a comprehensive look at their current state (including their assumptions and perceptions about their work, themselves and others); to set relevant and realistic goals for themselves, based on their own nature and needs; to take relevant and realistic actions toward achieving their goals; to learn by continuing to reflect on their actions and by sharing feedback with others along the way. The coach uses empowering language.

The coach helps to raise the coachee’s level of awareness, in order to promote learning and development and finally generate self-directed and self-regulated progress of coachees by tracking their progress and managing accountability.

Coaching addresses the whole person: past, present and future, and both the being self (who we are, the inner personality and the total sum of our experiences, attitudes, core values, and roles that we play or have played in our lives) and the doing self (the externally focused person with tasks to accomplish and skills with which to do them). It is usually the latter aspect that the coachee initially presents as the area of coaching (Rogers, 2004.:9).

There is an intended achievement of specific goals and a solid commitment to planned action (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002.).

The coaching process involves several steps (Grant, 2001.a). Goal setting starts the coaching cycle, followed by focused, planned action toward the achievement of goals. Various methods of observation, assessment and analysis are utilized with the aim of monitoring and evaluating situations prevailing in the coachees’ situation. Then, coachees’ realities are expanded towards a future vision. Finally, maintenance, support structures and constructive evaluation and feedback complete the coaching cycle in the achievement of the set goals.

Common elements which have been shown to lead to successful coaching outcomes include the following (Grant, 2001.a): power, trust, confidentiality and communication within a coaching partnership; the coach’s multi-level, active engagement in
deep listening; the coach’s ability to generate powerful questions; feedback (self-generated or coach-generated); self-regulated and self-monitored movement through the coaching cycle; generation of self-evaluation and self-awareness; sustaining the client’s agenda, accountability and responsibility; the development of problem-solving techniques; the provision of a support system for concrete action and practice; and dealing with aspects of self-sabotage, resistance and emotions.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE COACHING PROCESS: SOME EXAMPLES

The following two examples clarify the structure of the coaching process. Diedrich (1996.) illustrates an intensive executive coaching process that consists of two-hour coaching sessions, spread over a period of three years (16 times during the first year, 8 times during the second year, and 6 times during the last year). The initial meetings were spent reviewing the data collected through assessment tools and interviews. Following this, the client’s character, his/her impact on the other workers, and other dominant themes were defined and discussed. Throughout the coaching engagement, additional 360-degree data was collected to document the client’s positive improvements, and the developmental plan was continually updated and shared with the client’s manager. Reading material such as books and articles were provided by the coach and later discussed with the client.

Based on slightly different approaches to (executive) coaching described in the literature (Banning, 1997.; Buzzotta et al., 1977.; Diedrich, 1996.; Kiel, et al., 1996.; Nowack & Wimer, 1997.; Peterson, 1996.; Saporito, 1996.), Liljenstrand (2003.:13) describes some examples and extracts a general model capturing the essence of what a coach does. In this general model the process of executive coaching consists of the following five steps:

1. Setting the foundation, defining the context and establishing the contract with the coachee’s manager. This means setting goals of and plans for the engagement. Part of this step can be the creation of a profile of success, based on the challenges facing the organization, the particular factors necessary for the individual to succeed as well as the necessary personal qualities, based on the organizational context. Information about these aspects is extracted from discussions and interviews with individuals affected by the executive’s success.

2. Assessment of the coachee. This refers to coachee’s competencies (managerial style, more specifically the effect of the individual on the organizational climate, and his/her social and unconscious motives driving his/her behavior), as well as the coachee’s view of current challenges, and how the coachee aligns with the requirements mapped out in the profile of success. The following assessment tools are used: 360° assessment, FIRO-B, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the NEO-PIR, the 16PF, the CPI,
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Strength Deployment Inventory, a Picture Story exercise, and the Adjective Checklist as well as in-depth interview. The gathered information sets the foundation for the Personal Development Guide, which describes the individual and his/her key developmental issues. It also serves as feedback during the actual coaching intervention.

3. Based on this information, the strategy of the coaching engagement is planned with feedback to the coachee, based on the collected data and the coach’s insight into the situation. This step is usually taken in collaboration with the coachees and their supervisor.

4. The actual coaching implementation commences according to plan, during which the coach starts to work closely with the coachee. The intervention is based on the data gathered throughout the previous steps.

5. In some cases there is a final follow-up stage, where the situation is re-evaluated and plans are made to either continue or end the engagement, or basic follow-up consultation is provided regarding the initial coaching engagement.

9. METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES

Various approaches based on different paradigms are used as the basis for coaching practice (Grant, 2003.a:34). For instance, we find the ontological approach (Delgado, 1999.); the integrative model (Orenstein, 2000.); the psychodynamic and systemic approach (Kilburg, 2001.; Sperry, 1997.; Tobias, 1996.; Rotenberg, 2000.); the behavioral approach (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003.); the cognitive-behavioral framework (Anderson, 2002.; Neenan & Dryden, 2002.); the developmental cognitive-behavioral approach (Ducharme, 2004.); the experiential learning model (Kopf & Kreuze, 1991.); Adlerian perspectives (Page, 2003.). Moreover, there are: the use of reality therapy and choice theory (Howatt, 2000.); an adaptation of multimodal therapy on executive coaching (Richard, 1999.); or a developmental approach to coaching derived from constructive-developmental psychology, family therapy and theories of organizational cognition (Laske, 1999.; 2003.), as well as the solution-focused approach (Grant & Greene 2003.). Besides these, Olivero et al. (1997.) sketch the psychoanalytic perspective as mainly focusing on relieving personal problems, and the more directive approach, grounded in goal setting theory, feedback and problem solving. Furthermore, there is cognitive coaching (Costa & Garmston, 1994.) and developmental coaching (Laske, 2003.), two related approaches geared to supporting mental-emotional processes. Finally, there is person-centered coaching (Joseph, 2006.) and evidence based coaching (Laske et al., 2004.).

12 Peltier (2001.) offers a useful overview of a range of theoretical approaches to executive coaching.
A study by Grant (2001.b:111, 2003.b) demonstrated that a combined cognitive-behavioral coaching model had greater impact on goal attainment, metacognition and mental health than the cognitive or behavioral coaching model used individually.

**COACHING AND LEARNING**

A number of authors stress learning as an inherent part of coaching (Griffiths, 2005.:58). Learning is ‘at the heart of coaching’ (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003.:30); coaching is ‘a vehicle and a platform for learning’ (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002.:20); a ‘forum for learning’ (Creane, 2002.); a ‘personal education pathway’ (Duff, 2002.:7); ‘coaching creates the conditions for learning and behaviour change’ (Hurd, 2002.:124), and coaching is characterized as an on-going cycle of deep learning. Similarly, Whitworth et al. (1998.) describe coaching as an on-going cycle of action and learning which combine together to create change, and a major part of the coach’s job is to ‘deepen the learning’ (5). Hargrove (2003.:86) describes learning during coaching as ‘transformational’. In coaching as presented by Skiffington & Zeus (2003.) the ultimate learning outcome of the coaching process is that ‘finally, the learner internalizes the “teaching function” of the coach and becomes his or her own teacher’ (22); in this way coaching creates ‘learning that endures’ (81). ‘Facilitating learning and results’ is also one of four core coach competencies, as defined by the ICF (2004.). Jackson (2004.:57) stresses that coaching is inherently a reflective process.

**10. OUTCOMES OF COACHING**

Looking at the outcomes of coaching can add to our image of coaching. As reported in the coaching literature, outcomes of coaching are wide and varied. A review of the academic literature on the efficacy of coaching published between 1990. and 2004. (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006.) concludes that research into the efficacy of coaching has lagged behind and has only started to develop seriously over the last five years.

In terms of outcomes, the norm seems to be that people like to be coached and that they perceive that they have changed their behavior as a result. In case the coaching agenda is more restricted and organizationally focused, as with internal and manager coaching, significant improvement in bottom-line measures (in terms of productivity) seems to occur after the coaching intervention (Olivero et al., 1997.; Wageman, 2001.).

We can distinguish goal-specific outcomes and universal outcomes, regardless of the content area (Griffiths, 2005.:57). The first category includes effects in the areas of time-management, career, business, relationships/family, physical/wellness, spiritual, personal, goal-setting and financial issues (ICF, 1998.). The second category consists of height-
ened self-awareness, self-acceptance and a sense of well-being; improved goal-setting and goal attainment, life balance and lower stress levels; increased self-discovery, self-confidence and self-expression; better communication and problem-solving skills; enhanced quality of life; and changed and broader perspectives and insight. It also includes better reception and use of feedback, better understanding of consequences of actions, practical application of theory, more effective thinking strategies, changes in behavior, increased awareness of wants, present-focus, the ability to identify challenges and blocks, a deeper sense of self and, generally, functioning as a better person. These outcomes are repeatedly reported by clients in a range of qualitative and quantitative studies (Creane, 2002.; Campbell & Gardner 2003.; Duff, 2002.; Grant, 2001.b, 2003.b; Hurd, 2002.; ICF, 1998.; Paige, 2002.; Quick & Macik-Frey, 2004.). Norlander et al. (2002.) found that, as a result of coaching, individuals’ emotional stability was enhanced, their norms and values were reinforced and their openness to new experiences improved.

11. COMPETENCES OF COACHES

The coach is described as an expert in applying the methodology of coaching and in understanding the clients’ issues and the context. In addition to this, the coach has expert knowledge, and knows how it can be best used within the coaching relationship. This knowledge can be understood as highly specialized or technical knowledge held by the coach, in an area where the coachee has less expertise than the coach and where such knowledge is related to the coachee’s goals. There are various opinions as to the notion of the ‘coach as expert advice-giver’ (Grant, 2006.:19): on the one hand, e.g. Whitmore (2002.) emphasizes a non-directional ask-not-tell approach and the importance of self-discovery; on the other hand the more directive approach of e.g. Goldsmith (2000.) emphasizes robust feedback and advice-giving. The criterion for validity is the approach which is best at helping the particular client reach his/her goals and which is the most suitable to address particular issues in the actual coaching process. It is important to strike the right balance between process facilitation and facilitating self-directed learning as well as content or information delivery. This balance does not only vary at different points in the overall coaching engagement, but also within individual coaching sessions. The proper application of this principle is one of the key competences of a skillful and experienced coach. A competent coach is flexible in working with coachees and is able to synchronize these competences with the needs and the way of functioning of a particular coachee.

Furthermore, the coach needs to have many ‘soft skills’. Based on several authors, Liljenstrand (2003.:14) mentions the following core competencies and qualities of an executive coach: being accessible and approachable (behaviors such as warmth, generosity, acceptance, patience, sensitivity, and the ability to build rapport); structuring a part-
nership and a caring relationship; speaking and listening skills and the balance between
the two are seen as the Achilles’ heel of coaching (Phillips, 1998.); being comfortable
around top management, speaking the language that leaders speak and understanding
how they think. Additionally, the coach should be politically savvy and know how to
relate to a variety of individuals within an organization; must display genuine care and be
able to demonstrate true empathy when working with the coachee; must be creative,
flexible and adaptable in order to formulate unique ideas and be able to view problems
and issues from a new perspective; must be committed to making progress and produc-
ing results in order to meet the set expectations; must be sensitive and open to the
coachee’s responsiveness; intelligent; and must have self-knowledge, in order to under-
stand his/her own strengths, weaknesses, limits and opportunities, all of which is neces-
sary to deal with situations in a healthy way and not to take on responsibilities outside
one’s area of expertise.

QUALIFICATION OF COACHES

Tens of thousands of people worldwide call themselves coaches.\textsuperscript{13} How did they
acquire their qualifications? Coaching is not a simple task. Can a coach recognize if
psychological problems are the cause of work-related issues? To what extent are they
familiar with organizational behavior? And can they help coachees learn to improve their
competencies concerning these aspects? All these questions are related to coaches’ com-
petence.

It is not difficult to become a coach. Like consultants, anyone can call himself/herself a coach. There are no barriers to entry on formal training.\textsuperscript{14} There is no sanctioned
accreditation and there are no regulations of providers. The credibility and professional-
ism of coaching is still tenuous (Grant, 2006.:14). Some executive coaches coach purely
based on their executive experience. The competence of life coaches - who appear to
have the lowest perceived levels of credibility - is questioned increasingly in media re-
ports.

\textsuperscript{13} The International Coach Federation ICF (\url{www.coachfederation.org}), set up in the USA in 1995., claims to be the largest worldwide resource for business and personal coaches. It has over 10,500 members in 80 countries (summer 2006.). In comparison: the number of supervisors repre-
sented by ANSE (\url{www.supervision-eu.org}), an umbrella organisation for professional supervisors in Europe, assembling national supervisor organisations from 15 European countries, amounted to 8,500 organised supervisors.

\textsuperscript{14} An individual’s ability to solicit coaching clients serves as the only barrier to entry (Garman et al., 2000.).
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BACKGROUNDS OF COACHES

Coaches come from various backgrounds. A study of 2529 professional coaches (Grant & Zackon, 2004.) found that coaches had come to coaching from a wide variety of prior professional backgrounds and offer their services under the same occupational title. In order of magnitude: consultants (40.8 per cent), managers (30.8 per cent), executives (30.2 per cent), teachers (15.7 per cent) and salespeople (13.8 per cent). Interestingly, only 4.8% of respondents in the sample had a background in psychology. With regard to this last fact, a survey in Australia (Spence et al., 2006.:78) identified that only 20% of the sample reported any formal training in psychology or the helping professions (e.g. counseling, social work, and nursing). The level of education also varies. A study (Gale et al., 2002.) has shown that 31% of the sample of coaches reported bachelor’s degrees as their highest level of education, and 8% reported ‘some college or high school’ to be their highest level of education.

Until several years ago, there were no standards of training for coaches which would guarantee quality and consistency in the delivery of services (Eggers & Clark, 2000.). Most coach training programs are offered by commercial institutes (‘credentialing mills’, Grant 2006.:13), which deliver a few days’ training based on proprietary models of coaching with little or no theoretical grounding, and finish by granting some kind of coaching ‘certification’, e.g. a ‘Certified Master Life Coach’.15 Therefore, it is no wonder that trained coaches tend to conduct theoretical one-size-fits-all coaching interventions (Grant, 2006.:13, referring to Kauffman & Scoular, 2004.). In contrast to these commercial training programs that dominated the coaching market during the late 1990.s and early 2000.s, now there are a number of universities that offer postgraduate programs in coaching (Grant, 2006.:15): three Australian universities (schools of psychology) offer coach specific education as part of postgraduate degree programs (since 2005.); at least seven UK universities (business schools, faculties of education and to a lesser extent psychology departments) offer coaching degree programs; in the USA seven universities offer coach degree programs and in Canada there are two postgraduate programs in coaching.

The coaching profession is self-regulating. There are some professional associations which were established several years ago. They develop professional standards for their membership, so as to guarantee the quality of coaching. One of these, the International Coach Federation (ICF) sees its credentialing program as the gold standard in the world of coaching. Its credential is based on education, experience and the level of service or of

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15 As an example: Coach University (www.coachinc.com), the largest coach training company in the world, offers a coach training program which reaches individuals throughout the world through technological advances such as the Internet and teleconferencing.
dedication to the profession. All ICF certified coaches have demonstrated significant coach specific training, significant coaching experience and subscribe to the highest ethical standards. Coaches credentialed by the ICF have passed an ICF approved exam, which includes substantial observation of actual coaching skills. The minimum requirements to earn a credential as Master Certified Coach (MCC) include 200 hours of coach specific training and 2500 hours of actual coaching experience. The ICF estimates that it takes a minimum of four years to obtain the coaching experience necessary for this credential. The minimum requirements to earn a credential as a Professional Certified Coach (PCC) - a mid-level credential - include 125 hours of coach specific training and 750 hours of actual coaching experience. The ICF estimates that it takes a minimum of a year and a half to obtain the coaching experience necessary for this credential. ICF coaches come from diverse backgrounds, including lawyers, college professors, psychologists and counselors. They are committed to an ethical code.

Another professional association for coaches is the Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (WABC)\textsuperscript{16}, founded in 1997. WABC declares itself the first international association to represent business coaching. It accepts as full members experienced external and/or internal business coaches who can prove that their competence is based on at least 7 years of experience in/with organizations, and whose business coaching experience consists of at least 15 business coaching clients in the last 3 years (with at least 5 verifiable references and/or testimonials from business coaching clients within the last 12 months). They must continue to meet the qualification standards every year through an annual application process. Members are committed to a business coaching code of ethics.

\textbf{12. COACHING AS A DISTINCT AREA OF PRACTICE AND STUDY}

The field of coaching as a distinct area of practice and study is still quite young. There is still no coherent body of coach-specific knowledge underpinning professional coaching (Grant, 2003.a:6). Many books on coaching seem to add little more than watered-down re-interpretations of counseling theory, so that Rogers (2004.:6) can conclude that ‘[c]oaching is just counseling in disguise’.

The body of evidence-based literature on coaching is still rather small. Nevertheless, we can observe a three-fold surge in peer-reviewed studies of coaching in the last ten years (Grant, 2003.a).

\textsuperscript{16} \url{www.wabccoaches.com}

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Based on a review of 128 publications - all academic peer-reviewed psychological journals published between 1937. and 2003. - Grant (2003.a:6) concludes that there is little empirical research validating the efficacy of executive and life coaching (referring to Kilburg, 1996.), and that to date there has been little work on detailing a theoretical framework (referring to Brotman et al., 1998.). Nevertheless, a theoretical and empirical research knowledge base has been developed, as Grant (2003.a) shows in his review article.

Commissioners of professional coaches demand evidence for the effectiveness of different types of coaching. Consequently, many professional (aspiring) coaches express the need for more clearly articulated competences and higher qualifications and therefore demand better educational programs. They seek theoretically-grounded evidence-based coaching practice. With the adoption of a scientist-practitioner model, coaching can be developed as ‘a cross disciplinary means of facilitating human and organizational change’, as Grant (2003.a, p.2) puts it. The proprietary coaching systems taught in many commercial coach training schools do not offer adequate professional competence. We are witnessing the development of Master’s Degree Programs in Professional Coaching. University psychology departments in Australia (Sidney, since 2000.) and the UK (London, since 2005.) have set up units to focus specifically on coaching psychology (Palmer & Cavanagh, 2006.). They introduce psychological theories and models that underpin and bring depth to the coaching relationship, for example in topics such as understanding mental health; motivation; systems theory; personal and organizational growth; adaptation of therapeutic models to the field of coaching; research into effectiveness, resilience and positive psychology. Nevertheless, taking cognizance of this, we have to realize that there is a difference between coaching and coaching psychology (Palmer & Whybrow, 2006.). The latter is formulated 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 heath issues or abnormal levels of distress’ (Grant, 2006.:1).

13. COACHING, MENTORING AND CONSULTANCY

Coaching appears to draw on sizeable chunks of mentoring theory (Griffiths, 2005.). Mentoring and coaching are often used interchangeably. Moreover, there seem to be overlaps between the roles of coach and mentor (WABC). Therefore it seems relevant to briefly clarify the latter role.

Mentoring is not easy to define (Daloz, 1999.). It can be characterized as an expert-novice relationship: a sustained relationship in which an (older) more experienced or ‘wiser’ person provides support, guidance, ‘corrective’ advice, feedback, counsel and
practical assistance to a less experienced (younger) person for the purpose of personal, professional, spiritual or life development.

In business settings, persons groomed for advancement are often (in)formally mentored by senior executives. The mentor assumes the 'expert' role in order to familiarize new recruits with the organization, to show the less experienced protégées - sometimes also called mentees - ‘the ropes’ or to help them get through a difficult period, face a new challenge and make sense of a new situation.

Although mentoring frequently takes place at the beginning of a person’s career - as in the case of beginning teachers and administrators - and usually tapers off as experience is gained, it is not confined solely to this phase. Mentoring often occurs following a promotion, after assuming new responsibilities or moving from one part of an organization to another. In this sense it is linked with career development coaching.

The focus of mentoring is on the transfer of (domain-specific personalized) knowledge, wisdom, and craft knowledge about the organization (the politics of the organization, communication patterns, norms, values, and culture). Mentoring also tends to develop long-term skills and career prospects.

When it comes to contract relationships, mentoring refers to the relationship between the mentor and the protégé, and is realized in formal and informal structures.

Compared with a coach, a mentor has a more personal and broader commitment to the individual, and is less concerned with how specific results occur on the job. (S)he is more concerned with how the mentee’s career is developing; and advice is not influenced by the responsibility for job outcomes, but is rather motivated by the concern for the overall well-being of the mentee.

There also seem to be overlaps between the roles of coach and consultant (WABC, 2006.). The latter provides advice or expert knowledge to a client in a particular field or discipline. Business consultants are seen as experts, and they advise on business issues. It is predominantly one-way communication, and the consultant is accountable for delivering the outcome. The client is expected to implement the consultant’s recommendations. However, some consultants work according to the principles of process coaching (Schein, 1998.), an approach which is, in my opinion, similar to the principles of coaching. The distinction between coaching and therapy is discussed in some publications (Bluckert, 2005.; Hart et al., 2001.; Sperry, 1993.).

14. COACHING AND PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISION


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Its roots go back to the genesis of professional social work and first steps in the professionalization of school systems in the United States of America in the late 19th century, which is when this activity was termed ‘supervision’. If it had been invented in the last few decades, it would have been labeled using the modernistic term ‘coaching’. We may assume that at the time when the terms ‘supervision’ and ‘supervisor’ came into being, they were borrowed from the field of administrative and industrial organizations, which functioned as organization models for human service organizations, and where the supervisor was the ‘functional foreman’, also having a teaching role (Glanz, 1998: 45; Flinders, 1998).

Nowadays professional supervision is an established complex method of professional ‘coaching’ handled by well-trained professional supervisors. They apply supervision as a method in helping persons charged with handling their professional-selves in human interaction as an important part of their function or professional role. Professional supervision usually takes place in human service professions and leadership functions in various sectors of service and labor, in order to (further) develop a person’s competence in self-reflection while realizing his/her work tasks. The ultimate aim of supervision is better professional functioning by means of enhanced reflective and integrative competence. Professional supervisors, who are primarily facilitators of this type of reflection, do their work in different settings, at different system levels, in internal and external positions in different organizational contexts.

Professional supervision can be conceived of as a form of ‘coaching’, and there is a trend to accept the terms ‘supervisor’ and ‘coach’ as well as ‘supervision’ and ‘coaching’ as synonyms (Badiali, 1998: 958; Schreyögg, 1995; Vail, 2003: 13). But this induces the problem of denying differences (Van Kessel, 2002.a).

Within the framework of this paper we can only give a rough sketch of some differences (see table 1), which may serve as an impetus for further research.
Table 1.
A comparison of coaching and professional supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coaching</th>
<th>Professional supervision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• A dynamic new field, not quite regulated.</td>
<td>• An established method of professional ‘coaching’ for persons charged with handling their professional-selves in human interaction as an important part of their function or professional role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Open practice, not quite professionalized.</td>
<td>• Professionalized (long tradition and theory development; educational programs at a high level with clear entrance criteria, professional associations).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Not always clear distinctions in the literature between:</td>
<td>• A clear distinction between administrative/managerial supervision and clinical supervision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• coaching as part of management and professional coaching;</td>
<td>• Developed in the field of human service organizations, professional groups and educational programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Coaching for life and coaching for professional situations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No restriction to specified target groups and domains. Also applied as a form of life help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Related to the domain of work, developed in the field of business.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Currently (almost) no standards of training.</td>
<td>• Standards of training accepted throughout Europe (ANSE, <a href="http://www.supervision-eu.org">www.supervision-eu.org</a>).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Training programs are (relatively) short.</td>
<td>• Training programs: intensive and long term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Accreditation of trainings programs in the beginning stage.</td>
<td>• Training programs accredited by national professional associations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• An eclectic mix of concepts and methods; starting to develop its own body of knowledge.</td>
<td>• Its own body of methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Theoretical orientations:</td>
<td>• Its own theoretical tradition (although diverse accents and orientations exist).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Some from scratch;</td>
<td>• More research has been conducted in the area of supervision than in coaching (Vail, 2003., p.13).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Some based on counseling;</td>
<td>• Systematically stimulating (learning of) self-reflection in one’s own functioning in the professional role in actual professional situations (e.g. Van Kessel et al., 1993.b).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Some applying NLP etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- In part developing its own concept(s) of of the undertaking coaching and the coaching process.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The number of coaching models is increasing rapidly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Often making use of instruments: 360°, FIRO-B, MBTI, NEO-PIR, 16PF, CPI, Adjective Checklist, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 continued:

| • The importance of skill training (in some types of coaching). | • Never pure skill training. |
| • Personality development often in terms of ‘boosting one’s own potentials’, and not in a way that is integrated with the function, profession, and working methods. | • Personality development as integral part of professional development. |
| • Although seen by some as a reflective method, there seems to be no underpinning in the coaching literature on how to stimulate this. | • Supervision stresses critical in-depth reflection. |
| • Goal-orientated: mostly (but not always) with specification of goals/results in the beginning of the coaching process. | • (Learning) critical self-reflective behavior as the essential part. |
| • Open-ended goal-orientation: professional improvement/development by increase of reflective and integrative competences. |

The world of coaching has found the world of supervision. Several professional vision for their members as part of their registration. Supervision can provide real value to both professional coaches and to managers who use coaching skills in their work. It is presented as a means of underpinning the professional status of coaching, and it also has great potential in maintaining and raising the quality of practice of coaches in general (Butwell, 2006.:43; Carroll, 2006.; Whybrow & Palmer, 2006.:67). We may assume that as more and more coaches receive supervision, this will influence not only the practice but also the conceptualization of coaching.

15. CONCLUSION

The term ‘coaching’ appears to be in use as an umbrella term for activities where a change agent guides an individual, group systems (including teams) and organizational (sub)systems in a facilitating way. Given that the terms ‘(professional) coaching’ and ‘(professional) coach’ are not specific, it seems preferable to use them only as a general notion and not as an indication of a specific methodological modality. It turns out that the very term coaching as well as the outline of its goals and methods need to be specified further. More conceptual and practice-based research seems necessary, in order to develop coaching as a respected cross-disciplinary profession, because empirical research into coaching is in its infancy (Grant, 2003.a:14).

Coaching as a function in business/industry concentrating on the improvement of the performance of the ‘human factor’ is taking over the function that supervision has had earlier in the history of human service professions and organizations.
Supervision can be defined as a specific form of coaching. Practice teaching and administrative/managerial supervision in human service professions and organizations are in fact clear forms of coaching. Nowadays we are witnessing human service professions adopting ‘coaching’ for this kind of activities, and in doing this they disregard their own tradition. Although the concept of coaching is not better than supervision, supervisors can use the development of coaching activities - especially those related to professional functioning in organizational contexts - to further develop their own theory and practice and to distinguish between how they work and what they offer to supervisees and sponsors.

Supervisors can present themselves on the market as 'professional supervisor/professional coach', especially for what has been called in-depth coaching or intensive coaching (see section 5). This form of coaching more or less overlaps with the methods of supervision. They could call this service ‘supervision’, as is the case in supervision practice in European countries. Moreover, if they possess competence and skills, they can also deliver other coaching formats as professional coaches. Finally, professional supervisors can deliver supervision to both professional coaches and to managers who use coaching skills in their work in order to help them enhance their reflective and integrative competences and to improve their interactional behavior in coaching situations.

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Louis van Kessel

STRUČNO VOĐENJE: PODRUČJE RADA PROFESIONALNIH SUPERVIZORA?

SAŽETAK

Stručno vođenje (coaching) je područje koje se vrlo dinamično razvija. Oblici njegove pojavnosti mnogo su raznolikiji od aktivnosti koje se provode u okviru profesionalne supervizije iako ona ima određena obilježja »stručnog vođenja«. Premda se podrijetlo i razvoj stručnog vođenja i supervizije razlikuju, ti su koncepti i njihova primjena međusobno povezani. Profesionalni supervizori moraju imati jasnu sliku o području stručnog vođenja kako bi mogli redefinirati svoju poziciju u okviru današnje supervizije. Zbog toga moraju proučavati razvoj stručnog vođenja. U članku je prikazano kako se pojam stručnog vođenja pojavio u anglosakonskom govornom području. Članak može poslužiti praktičarima kao informativni vodič i kao temelj za daljnja proučavanja radi usporedbe stručnog vođenja i profesionalne supervizije te da bi se moglo točnije odrediti po čemu su te dvije aktivnosti različite i slične.

Ključne riječi: stručno vođenje (coaching), profesionalna supervizija, supervizija za stručnjake koji se bave profesionalnim vođenjem.