Central California Training Academy
Coaching Implementation Literature Review

Authored by
Kristin L. Beasley, PhD
for the
Central California Training Academy
March 19, 2012
Acknowledgment

The Central California Training Academy would like to thank the Fresno County Department of Social Services for its support and collaboration with this project. Funding for this literature review was made possible through a contract provided by Fresno County.
Introduction

The terms coaching, mentoring, and reflective supervision are often used interchangeably; however, while they have some similar characteristics, each term has a distinctly separate definition, function, and purpose. Additionally, coaching, mentoring, and reflective supervision are distinctly different from counseling or therapy. First and foremost, the majority of coaches, mentors, and reflective practice partners/supervisors do not have the extensive education, experience, and training that therapists have, although it is becoming increasingly common for therapists to work as coaches as well.

Another difference between coaching, mentoring, and reflective practice compared to therapy lies in the purposes of these activities. Counseling and therapy seek to resolve deep underlying issues that interfere with an individual’s ongoing relationships and daily activities. These particular issues may also interfere with the goals of coaching, mentoring, and reflective practice; however, it is not the goal of these processes to resolve such issues. Coaches, mentors, and reflective practice partners maintain appropriate professional boundaries between coaching and mentoring and traditional therapies and will refer a client who requires this form of intervention to an appropriate therapeutic professional.

The purpose of this literature review is to define and clarify the terms associated with the coaching and mentoring processes, to provide a detailed description of the purpose of coaching and the coaching process, and to discuss key elements of coaching. Key elements include investing time, understanding roles and challenges, observing people as they work, providing feedback and support, and empowering staff members. This document will also outline the critical components necessary to support teaming and describe the limitations of and barriers to
effective coaching and teaming, including dysfunctional teams and problematic mindsets. Finally, it will identify the critical components necessary to support the transfer of learning and the practical applications of implementation science as it relates to the Child Welfare System.

**Definitions**

The terms coaching, mentoring, and reflective supervision are often used interchangeably; however, while they have some similar characteristics, each term has a distinctly separate definition, function, and purpose. Additionally, coaching, mentoring, and reflective practice are distinctly different from counseling or therapy. First and foremost, the majority of coaches, mentors, and reflective practice partners/supervisors do not have the extensive education, experience, and training that therapists have, although it is becoming increasingly common for therapists to work as coaches as well.

**Coaching**

The term coaching has become a popular catch-all phrase with many meanings; however, the field of coaching is a distinct area of practice with specific training and qualifications required. The practice of coaching is specifically focused on setting goals, creating outcomes, and effecting and managing change. The International Coach Federation defines coaching as “partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximize their personal and professional potential” (http://www.coachfederation.org/about-icf/overview/). According to Haneberg (2006) coaching is “a conversation focused on helping other people (the clients) move forward relative to their goals” (pg. 1). Coaching should focus on helping clients to achieve their goals by facilitating the client’s thinking process. A coach should function as a guide who supports and challenges clients in achieving their objectives through a communication process that connects people to performance. Coaches assist people in clarifying
their objectives and discovering effective ways to accomplish their goals (Crane, 2010; Covey, 1989; 1990; Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2005).

Crane (2010) has identified nine characteristics of the Transformational Coaching Process.

1. It is data-based.
2. It is performance focused.
3. It is relationship focused.
4. It is slower, not faster.
5. It requires dialogue.
6. It requires more heart.
7. It requires humility.
8. It requires balance.

It is important that a coach shares perceptions in an objective, fact-based manner rather than as evaluations or judgments. Additionally, coaches should “focus on behaviors in the context of the effect they have (or do not have) on individual and organizational performance” (Crane, 2010, p. 38) in order to keep the focus on enhancing performance. When a coach is brought into an organization, as opposed to supervisors who function as coaches, the coach should support the differentiation between coaching and supervision.

**Mentoring**

The term mentor originated from ancient Greece. In Homer’s work, The Odyssey, Odysseus asks his most trusted friend, Mentor, to serve as a guardian, educator, and advisor to Odysseus’s son. The term mentor in modern times has come to mean “a trusted counselor or guide” (http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/mentor). According to Crane (2010) mentoring applies to the issues of “inculturation, career growth, political savvy, and personal
network in the organization” (p. 37). Typically a more experienced employee, often a manager, shares his or her wisdom gained through experience with a younger employee. Mentoring generally occurs in a structured one-on-one setting where the mentor helps the mentee to gain exposure to and perspective on the opportunities within and the culture of the organization.

The main difference between mentoring and coaching comes from the focus of the work and the role and relationship of the mentor and mentee. According to M. Starcevich, Ph.D., CEO of the Center for Coaching and Mentoring, Inc. (2009), “the person, their career and support for individual growth and maturity while the coach is job-focused and performance oriented. In summary, the mentor has a deep personal interest, personally involved—a friend who cares about you and your long term development. The coach develops specific skills for the task, challenges and performance expectations at work”.

Mentors also perform on a voluntary basis whereas coaches are hired to accomplish a particular goal. A mentoring relationship is power free, reciprocal and mutually beneficial for both individuals involved. Mentors are often self-selected by the mentee and both parties enter into the relationship willingly and voluntarily whereas a coaching relationship is assigned. Mentoring involves a more reflective process that is led by the mentee while coaching involves a set agenda with a specific goal or outcome in mind (Starcevich, 2009). In Coaching and Mentoring by Maclennen and Newton (1995), the following distinction between coaches and mentors is made, the two roles are worlds apart and overlapping, depending on which dimension they are compared. A mentor can be successful even when the actual mentor is not intentionally or even unwilling to mentor. This occurs when a mentor is chosen as a role model from a distance. However, a professional coach would not participate in a coaching relationship without the knowledge of the client/coachee. Also, the purpose of coaching is a conscious activity and
requires engagement and communication between both parties in the process. If the client/coachee is an unwilling participant then the process won’t work (1995).

A mentor can never be a coach unless the mentor deliberately adopts the skills involved in successful coaching. The coach concentrates on helping the client/coachee learn how to implement and achieve specific goals. The mentor’s aim is to be available for the mentee as a resource. A mentor can fulfill the role quite adequately with basic management, people and training or teaching skills. An effective coach must have the knowledge, techniques and skills that are specific to guiding the coachee towards attaining identified goals and outcomes in a way that is non-directive but with the purpose of sustained success and change (MacLennan & Newton, 1995).

**Similarities and Differences between Mentoring and Coaching**

The critical difference between the two terms is that mentoring is relational and coaching is functional as described below:

**Coaching characteristics:**

- Managers coach their staff as a required part of the job.

- Coaching takes place within the confines of a formal manager-employee relationship.

- The focus is to develop individuals within their current job.

- The interest of the relationship is functional, arising out of the need for individuals to perform the tasks required to the best of their ability.

- Managers tend to initiate and drive the relationship.

- The relationship is finite, ending when an individual has learned what the coach is teaching.
Mentoring characteristics:

- It occurs outside of a line manager-employee relationship, at the mutual consent of a mentor and mentee.
- It is career-focused or focused on professional development that may be outside a mentee's area of work.
- Relationships are personal—a mentor provides both professional and personal support.
- Relationships may be initiated by mentors or created through matches initiated by the organization.
- Relationships cross job boundaries.
- Relationships last for a specific period of time (nine months to a year) in a formal program, at which point the pair may continue in an informal mentoring relationship.

There are some overlapping characteristics of both processes as outlined in the following list:

- both require trust and commitment in the process and substantial interpersonal skills from coach and mentor
- both aim for the individual to increase his or her effectiveness and apply it to the tasks at hand in a positive manner
- both encourage stretch and provide support and challenge in pursuit of this
- both assume some understanding of the director context—the issues and concerns of directors and the purpose and responsibility of directorship
- both focus on learning and development—sometimes defined as nominating coaching from a skill-base and mentoring from an experience-base
- both can include career guidance to review career goals and capabilities or a focus on the future of the business being driven by you
- both involve an exchange of life and career experiences
- both are collaborative alliances between client and mentor or coach


Transfer of Learning

The word transfer comes from the Latin root *trans* which means to “carry over.” Therefore, in the most simplistic terms, transfer of learning means to carry over learning from one area, aspect, or skill to another. However, the process by which transfer of learning actually occurs is much more complicated and often includes parallel process. The concept of parallel process is rooted in psychoanalytic theory. Freud (1923) originally coined the terms *transference* and *countertransference* to describe the phenomena where the problems or emotions in the therapeutic relationship with a client are recreated by the therapist within the relationship with his or her supervisor and then the supervisor responds to the therapist in the same way in which the therapist responds to the client. It is generally agreed that parallel process is a universal occurrence within every supervisory relationship and should therefore be acknowledged and utilized to improve supervisory relationships (Doehrman, 1976).

By capitalizing on the parallel process that occurs within supervisory relationships, transfer of learning can be facilitated, but in order to promote transfer of learning it is important to first understand how adults learn. Kirkpatrick (1993) studied and compiled many views on adult learning throughout history and ultimately categorized adult learning into five main areas which he calls The Five Principles:
1. Adults learn best when they are ready to learn (Prepared)

2. Adults learn best when the information is familiar to their existing base of knowledge (Assimilation/Familiarity)

3. Adults learn best when they are active and involved (Experiential)

4. Adults learn best when the information is delivered to their individual "style" (Learning styles, Intelligences, Personality, etc.)

5. Adults learn best when they experience success

Kirkpatrick (1993) also identified three key players which he calls “The Trainee, The Trainer, and The Environment.” For effective learning to occur each of The Five Principles must be applied to each of the Three Key Players within each training session. Kirkpatrick’s (1993) philosophy also expands on traditional training models and emphasizes the idea of beginning with the end in mind. Berrett-Koehler, (1993) states,

Trainers must begin with desired results and then determine what behavior is needed to accomplish them. Then trainers must determine the attitudes, knowledge, and skills that are necessary to bring about the desired behavior(s). The final challenge is to present the training program in a way that enables the participants not only to learn what they need to know but also to react favorably to the program (pg. 26).
Kirkpatrick (1993) identified four levels of learning that are necessary for true transfer of learning to occur. They are described as:

**Level 1: Reaction**  To what degree participants react favorably to the training

**Level 2: Learning**  To what degree participants acquire the intended knowledge, skills, attitudes, confidence, and commitment based on their participation in a training event

**Level 3: Behavior**  To what degree participants apply what they learned during training when they are back on the job

**Level 4: Results**  To what degree targeted outcomes occur as a result of the training event and subsequent reinforcement (pg. 26).

According to Kirkpatrick (1993) and Berrett-Koehler (1993), typical training events result in approximately 15% actual on-the-job application because they focus primarily on the first two levels (reaction and learning) and ignore the third and fourth levels (behavior and results) which must occur after the training event is over. In order to facilitate effective application or transfer of learning, it is necessary to create business partnerships with trainers and supervisors/managers in advance of the training event and extending past the training event. Coaches can be utilized to facilitate levels three and four. Kirkpatrick (1993) also states,

"Not only is it critical to call upon business partners to help identify what success will look like, but also to design a cooperative effort throughout the learning and performance processes in order to maximize results. Before training, learning professionals need to partner with supervisors and managers to prepare participants for training. Even more critical is the role of the supervisor or manager after the training. They are the key people to reinforce newly learned knowledge and skills through support and accountability. The
degree to which this reinforcement and coaching happens directly correlates to improved performance and positive outcomes (p. 30).

Kirkpatrick’s (1993) model emphasizes the importance of supervisors, managers, and coaches in engaging staff to support the transfer of learning. This concept is reinforced by the findings of the Child Welfare Policy and Practice Group (2011). Their report states,

Crucial as it is, training, no matter how well delivered, *sic* cannot create a family engagement practice culture on its own. It must be followed by effective coaching in the field, where practice specialists, supervisors and practice consultants mentor staff in work with actual families. That translation of skills from the classroom to the family living room is an opportunity for staff to see the skills modeled in actual practice and receive coaching on their own skills. Building internal coaching capacity must be a part of the strategy for strengthening family engagement (Child Welfare Policy & Practice Group, 2011).

As the research from the Child Welfare Policy and Practice Group suggests, utilizing Kirkpatrick’s (1993) model of preparing in advance for training and then supporting implementation through coaching after training with particular emphasis on engagement through a knowledge and understanding of individualized learning styles, effective results can be achieved and that success reinforces continued engagement and additional transfer of learning.

**Reflective Practice**

Reflective practice is defined as, “an ability to reflect on experiences, to employ conceptual frameworks, and to relate these to similar and dissimilar contexts to inform and improve future practice” (Zhao, 2001, p.430). Reflective practice can serve as a key role in
managing any project and its practice has a number of advantages that are conducive to effective education, research, and implementation. In reflective practice, “the first stage is to identify a problematic situation; the second is to reflect on the problem or experience; the third is to consider alternate ways of thinking and acting; and the fourth is to test the re-conceptualized behavior and assumption” (Sullivan and Glanz 2000 p.67).

Reflective practice employs the use of reflection in an explicit and intentional manner and involves critically assessing one’s personal beliefs, which, in turn, leads to asking challenging questions and exploring the answers to those questions. Burnett’s (1999) research on the trial of the Collaborative Cohort Model showed that as a result of engaging in the reflective process students developed a greater breadth of knowledge and a greater variety of skills as well as an increase in the quality of work and the completion of work. These findings support Brockbank and McGill’s previous study (1998) that suggested that reflective practice encouraged deeper levels of learning.

However, the reflective process does not occur in isolation. Successful reflection is more likely to occur in group settings where staff members can share experiences and insights and receive feedback in a safe environment. The process of collaborative reflection encourages the sharing of multiple perspectives (Brockbank; 2008; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; 2006; 2007; Zhao, 2001). Additionally, when supervisors are willing to engage in reflective practice, their example encourages and empowers staff to think more critically in relationship to their own and others’ perspectives.

Supervisors who provide guidance by giving timely feedback and engaging participants in reflecting on their own progress, good or bad, support staff in developing their reflective
skills. Research also indicates that reflective dialogue requires skills like listening, responding, questioning, challenging, and offering empathy (Brockbank; 2008; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; 2006; 2007; Zhao, 2001). Explicit and intentional reflective dialogue enables critical thinking to occur as participants are allowed and encouraged to engage at the edge of their own knowledge and express their sense of self and the world as experienced by them. There is empirical evidence the study first completed by Brockbank and McGill (1998) but supported by other studies that found that structured supervision with emotional warmth was more effective than emotionally distance communication patterns. This is consistent with data that describes reflective practice as a journey (Brockbank; 2008; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; 2006; 2007; Zhao, 2001). It is about getting to know other people, as well as oneself, well enough to accurately assess the expectations necessary for success. Asking reflective questions about oneself in regard to his or her capacity helps a supervisor to make the right decision from the very start of the supervisory journey. Collaborative reflection encourages multiple perspectives to be generated and enables learners to build on their previous experiences and incorporate new learning (Brockbank; 2008; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; 2006; 2007; Zhao, 2001).

According to Brockbank (2008) reflective practice encourages deeper levels of learning. Making reflective practice available and accessible enables staff to be more conscious of how they are learning and thereby promotes critically reflective learning. Consciously engaging in reflective practice enables staff to learn from their practice and to consciously improve their work. By reflecting within a partnership or group, they have the opportunity to uncover and articulate their skills with the intention of learning from the reflection. Therefore, the capacity to engage in reflective practice has become one of the means of enhancing the quality of the engagement process (Brockbank; 2008; Brockbank & McGill, 1998; 2006; 2007; Zhao, 2001).
Solution Focused Practice

The Solution-Focused Approach is based on what was once referred to as solution-focused brief therapy (de Shazer, 1988; 1989; De Jong & Berg, 1998) and which is now used in fields like coaching, management and teaching. It is a process used to support the implementation of change. Solution-focused change can be defined as an approach in which a practitioner, for example a coach or therapist, supports clients by viewing and treating them as unique and competent, being responsive to whatever they say, helping them to visualize the changes they want to achieve and to help them make progress by providing a step-by-step guide that incorporates what they have already been doing that works while meeting non-negotiable demands (Visser, 2010; Visser & Schlundt-Bodien, 2009). Well-known solution-focused techniques are scaling questions (de Shazer, 1986; 1988), the miracle question (de Shazer, 1985; 1986; 1988), coping questions (de Shazer, 1986; 1988; Lipchik, 1988; 2002), exception-seeking questions and past success questions ((de Shazer, 1985; 1986; 1988; Lipchik, 1988; 2002). In order to create positive change one must first understand how to direct change in a solution focused manner. This requires first recognizing how people operate on a human level. Most people prefer to have some control over their own lives. People prefer to be competent and they want to have meaningful relationships. Solution-focused change is a strength based process which supports the client as a competent person by being responsive to his or her needs.

Solution-focused change operates on several basic assumptions beginning with the assumption that there is always fluctuation and change happening. This implies that there are times at which problems are less severe and opportunities for change can be amplified to build progress in the desired direction. Solution-focused assumptions about people are optimistic. It is no coincidence that these assumptions about people resemble the universal basic needs of

Solution-focused practitioners view people as autonomous and competent individuals with a desire to create positive and transformative outcomes and assume that people tend to follow the constructive path as soon as they see it. Another assumption in solution-focused change is that one should not change more than necessary. Small steps are generally preferred to large steps unless a complete overhaul of a system is needed. Visser (2010), states,

... people are more likely to change by taking action, one step at a time, and by reflecting on and responding to the consequences. This eventually creates a new pattern of action. When positive behavior descriptions are present they inadvertently trigger more positive behaviors which lead to more progress toward the desired outcome (p.16).

The best way to generate ideas for steps forward is to elicit vivid pictures of positive behaviors and minimize the negative behaviors that drain energy and reduce momentum. This can be done by asking people to describe desired future behaviors or by asking them about situations in which they have shown positive behaviors in the past. When a vivid visual image of positive behaviors has been created it becomes easier and more attractive for people to begin acting out those new behaviors (Visser, 2012; Visser & Schlundt-Bodien, 2009). Another assumption centers on helping. When the change process is focused on identifying and amplifying what works, the strengths, instead of on personal characteristics or problems, deficits, then change is more tolerable and clients are much more effective at moving forward and sustaining the change. When individuals work within a frame of reference that is familiar, encouraging and cooperative, the level of resistance is minimized. However, positive solutions
can be hijacked by individuals who are afraid of change. If clients are confronted with blame or bombarded with ‘expert’ views the client will most likely shut down and ignore the intervention as just another ‘quick fix’ (Sullivan, 1993; Visser, 2010; Visser & Schlundt-Bodien, 2009). In order for solution-focused change to be successful the client’s preferences and perceptions must be taken very seriously. When clients perceive that their input and ideas are taken seriously, they are much more likely to open up and contribute to the process of change. Solution-focused practitioners work with their client by bringing each individual along at his or her own pace. Coaches are very optimistic about the ability of clients to develop realistic perspectives through transformative conversations and inquiry. Solution-focused coaches focus less on internal states or constructs within the client and more on the way the client effectively interacts with their environment which leads to improved coping skills.

Solution-focused change accepts the assumptions that helping differs substantially from mainstream coaching. Instead of directly offering advice based on experience and scientific evidence, solution-focused change assumes that clients will identify the problems and solutions within their own experience, much like the process of Reflective Practice. A paradox of solution-focused assumptions is that the solution-focused work actually occurs before the solution-focused practice. Effectively practicing this approach requires the coach to work backwards by grasping the solution-focused assumptions. This process again, much like reflective practice, changes how individuals think about change and thus moves in the direction of effectively practicing a more solution-focused approach in the process. This is called a learning loop (Sullivan, 1993; Visser & Schlundt-Bodien, 2009).
Motivational Interviewing

“Motivational Interviewing is a client-centered, directive method for enhancing intrinsic motivation to change by exploring and resolving ambivalence” (Miller & Rollnick, 2002, p.129). The theory behind Motivational Interviewing (MI) is that change is not imposed on anyone; instead it is elicited by the client or employee. If someone does not care or is ambivalent about change then change will not occur and direct persuasion is not effective. Instead a coach supports the client through interpersonal interaction to examine the obstacles that are interfering with the client’s autonomy. MI is respectful, strength based and a genuine way to provide support to a person while at the same time respecting their freedom of choice and consequences in relation to his or her own behavior. When MI is employed as a strategy for change there is no need for confrontational interactions. Instead the clients are encouraged to make their own choices without anyone’s directive or prescribed solutions (Miller & Rollnick, 2002; 2009). This allows for the client to make his or her own choices and accept the consequences of those choices.

When a clinician or a manager takes an expert or authoritative stance the client is left in a passive role. If systematic change is to occur by using MI as one strategy for doing business then the client must be active in the process and not be treated in a punitive or coercive manner (Miller & Rollnick, 2002; 2009). This presents a particular challenge when the coach is also the supervisor.

MI is a conversational approach that addresses ambivalence to change and is designed to support individuals in self-discovery by first figuring out the changes an individual, system or organization wants to implement, then using “change-talk” to make it happen (Miller & Rollnick, 2009). Self-efficacy, self-image, motivation, self-doubt, and core identity are widely recognized as psychosocial dynamics linked to change (Bandura, 2004; Bodenheimer, Lorig,
Holman, & Grumback, 2002; Holahan & Suzuki, 2004; Loeb & Socias, 2004; Miller & Rollnick, 2002; 2009). As described by Prescott & Porter (2011):

... MI views people as complex, driven by competing motives and in conflict with themselves. This complexity is noticeable in motivational conflict (ambivalence) and fluctuating levels of self-efficacy, (both optimism and doubts about being able to change grow and fade (p. 7).

Thus it appears that MI is particularly well-suited for impacting the psychosocial aspects of behavior change. MI is congruent with evidence-based behavior change theories/models such as Becker’s Health Belief Model, Prochaska and DiClemente’s Stages of Change, Bem’s Self-perception Theory and Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory (Butterworth, S., Linden, A., McClay, W., Leo, M. 2006; Miller & Rollnick, 2009). Butterworth et al, (2006) show that there is often ambivalence to change at all levels of an organization during the planning stages which is why using strength-based observations especially in the beginning of the process reflects that the administration is actually committed to implementing the innovation (Butterworth et al, 2006; Miller & Rollnick, 2009; Sullivan, 1993).

According to Miller and Rollnick (2009), there are four core principles of MI:

1. Express empathy
2. Roll with resistance
3. Develop discrepancy
4. Support self-efficacy

MI is a dynamic process and is one of the core components of a variety of interventions used by direct-service providers, supervisors, team leaders, and organizations in a variety of social service areas (Butterworth et al, 2006; Miller & Rollnick, 2009). MI is an evidence based practice (EBP) making it appealing for adoption within social service organizations. However,
ambivalence is a natural state of uncertainty which means that even though MI is a useful tool, it can only work if the infrastructure of the organization is set up for success. Restructuring an organization is an enormous task and each employee will perceive that change differently which is why ambivalence and sometimes resistance occurs. Individuals do not know how to deal with their own conflicting feelings about the outcomes of change because they are often unknown.

The outcomes from one health coaching study showed significant increases in both mental and physical health status when MI was utilized within the coaching process, as compared to a control group who did not receive MI (Butterworth et al., 2006). This directive, client-centered coaching approach is especially helpful with less ready, less motivated individuals, when it is used in conjunction with appropriate assessments that are linked to planning activities. According to Butterworth et al (2006) MI is appropriate to use with the following risk indicators or topics during coaching sessions:

- Compliance to treatment plan
- Excessive absenteeism
- Evidence of substance abuse
- Compliance to safety protocols
- Low mental health indicator
- Activity and nutrition choices
- Depression and anxiety
- Coping and self-care skills

When the service approach is designed to address the ambivalence to change then change is more palatable. The problem is that most service providers are not trained to work with individuals or families who are not active participants from the very beginning to making significant changes. Ironically, these same service providers play out the same scenarios of
ambivalence when the administration directs them to make dramatic change without appropriate preparation. When staff and clients are not involved in the decision making process there is high staff burnout, low morale, confrontation with clients and often those same clients consistently do only the bare minimum required to maintain qualified status (Miller & Rollnick, 2009). If sustainable change is the goal, then the entire culture of an organization needs to understand and buy into the practice of Motivational Interviewing, (Miller & Rollnick, 2009). The benefits of MI increase positive outcomes related to set goals, quality of life for the consumer, increased engagement and retention for clients, staff recruitment, satisfaction and retention.

Group Facilitation

Clutterbuck & Megginson (2005) describe the difference between facilitation and coaching as, “a facilitator manages the dialogue for the team and focuses them on decision-making” (pg. 37). In contrast, “the coach empowers the team to manage the dialogue themselves and focuses on goal achievement” (pg. 37). Group facilitation can be utilized for a variety of reasons. Using professional facilitation to teach organizations how to provide feedback, especially in delivering difficult information, can build confidence by creating a work environment that operates with transparency and openness, rather than one where distrust and fear prevail. Learning how to have difficult conversations through respectful communication is the golden nugget of success when it comes to work productivity. Time is more efficiently utilized when staff members are focused on work rather than wondering about insignificant details that usually add up to what lay people call “gossip.”

McDermott (2003) outlines the various ways in which group work can be used but first she clarifies that the purpose of the group work should be determined by the group. No one can argue that listening, observing and intervening, and responding under pressure are all critical
facilitation skills (McDermott, 2003). However, effective group facilitation requires taking into consideration the entire group’s ideas and ways of thinking. McDermott (2003) also explains the various stages groups go through as they grow together as a group. Even more importantly the group facilitator must handle not only the typical problems that come with group dynamics but also the more complicated and often implicit biases related to issues of power and leadership, and also the influence of gender, sexuality, ethnicity, age and religion.

A facilitator plays a major role in helping the parties prepare and refine these lists in a pre-meeting, (Billikopf, 2002; 2009) or separate meetings with each individual. There are times when supervisors fail to communicate the emotion behind the message or to make it clear that they have listened to an employee’s concern. When this happens the employee often “assumes the worst and worries that their ideas, feelings, and input were disregarded or dismissed—and this triggers a destructive combination of mistrust and a sense of powerlessness and resentment” (Cooper & Sawaf, 1998, p. 60). Lack of communication regarding an employee’s performance leads to mistrust, defensiveness and conflict (Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005; Billikopf, 2002; 2009). Supervisors sometimes think they are communicating or that subordinates should be able to pick up on their subtle hints when in actuality the messages intended by the supervisor are missed entirely by the employee. In part, this problem is born of a desire to avoid confrontation (Kimsey, McKinney, Della Noce & Trobaugh, 2005). The inability to engage in difficult conversations creates an environment that allows avoidance to dictate the silence, which in turn creates an unintended action based on affect, instead of fact. In social service fields this is a lethal communication pattern. In the end, avoidance increases feelings of mistrust and contention (Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Kimsey, McKinney, Della Noce & Trobaugh, 2005; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005; Billikopf, 2002; 2009).
Communication and feedback regarding performance between people in the workplace is a crucial and often challenging area for many organizations because there have not been opportunities for employees to learn how to have difficult conversations within the work environment without the fear of negative consequences. When large organizations use generic formal performance evaluations to determine competence of employees there are holes in the system, especially if the evaluation process is poorly managed. When organizations are willing to use facilitated options, allowing for difficult conversations to occur within the organization without negative consequences, they make a powerful impact on morale and group confidence which has the potential to dramatically improve the organization’s internal culture. When large human services organizations transition to a ‘thinking group’ which is a form of reflective practice, the experiences become much more rich because the ‘group’ is made up of all members; social workers, community workers, youth workers, health care workers, psychologists and a myriad of other human services providers. These types of trans-disciplinary teams create positive change for all members because when many perspectives are considered the lens becomes much broader and the view clearer (Kimsey, McKinney, Della Noce & Trobaugh, 2005; Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005; Billikopf, 2002; 2009).

When group facilitation is used to support organizations it can enhance dialogue between supervisors and subordinates, increase the quality of communication, and improve the effectiveness of the process. By using a third party facilitator the playing field is equalized and each participant can honestly engage in and better understand the principles of interpersonal negotiation. The facilitator supports the team members in framing ideas so they will be given more consideration by the other party and teaches how to communicate in ways that are less
defensive and result in more productive dialogue. For those who have participated in the process, especially when there is a power differential, future communication often feels easier even after the facilitator has left. (Clutterbuck & Megginson, 2005; Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005; Billikopf, 2002; 2009).

There are definite distinctions between the terms coaching, mentoring, transfer of learning, reflective practice, solution focused practice, motivational interviewing, and group facilitation; it is also obvious that there is much overlap within these practices. Elements of Constructivist Learning Theory, Humanistic Psychology, Jungian Psychology, Adult Learning Theory, and Psychoanalytic Theory are evident in all of the practices. The original notions of coaching started in the field of psychology. Now, business managers have harnessed the ideas behind these theories of change and are now using them to drive productivity in their fields as well. As noted by Phillips, J., Pulliam Phillips, P., & Ray, R. (2012) in their book *Measuring Leadership Development: Quantify your Program’s Impact and ROI on Organizational Performance* research studies, “indicate considerable advantages to companies that actively encourage coaching during transition/change phases” and that “ROI (Return on Investment) for coaching is considerably higher than classroom training.” (p. 23).

According to Campbell (2010) in an article for the National Implementation Research Network she states, “the value of on-the-job coaching repeatedly appeared in the overall implementation evaluation literature” (p. 2). In a review of research related to coaching Campbell (2010) also found that “staff training has little impact on staff performance in clinical settings without additional help from a coach. The use of consultants (for feedback, supervision, and support) was found to be necessary for changes in staff performance” (p. 3). More specifically, Campbell, (2010) reported that,
Looking at data from the first 17 years of development and implementation of the Teaching-Family Model, Fixsen & Blase (1993) analyzed the success of implementation attempts before and after systematic consultation and supports were provided to Teaching Parents in Teaching-Family group homes. Only 24% of the attempted group home implementations lasted 6 years or more before and 84% were sustained for 6 years or more after systematic consultation and supports were provided (p. 3).

Based on the research review conducted by Campbell (2010), as well as Phillips et al (2012), it appears that providing coaching following training considerably increases the likelihood of practice change.

**Purpose of Coaching**

According to Blase and Fixsen (2009), “practitioner performance is the main outcome of coaching from an implementation perspective” (Coaching Competency, p. 4 http://www.k12.wa.us/RTI/Implementation/pubdocs/CoachingCompetency_Sept_09NIRN.pdf) Haneberg (2006) surveyed forty experienced coaches and found that the purposes for coaching fall into the following six categories:

1. Coaching should improve client coachability.
2. Coaching should help the client get unstuck.
3. Coaching should enhance client self-awareness.
4. Coaching should facilitate client breakthroughs.
5. Coaching should uncover potential and build client skills.
6. Coaching should help create and implement client plans for action.

(Haneberg, 2006, pg. 4)
Keeping these purposes in mind, the success of the coaching process can be measured by the accomplishment of the goals established at the beginning of the coaching relationship. When managers request coaching for their staff, it is especially important to establish clear goals from the outset because although the managers have requested the coaching, the staff members are the clients. Haneberg states that “even when requested by their managers, the coaching must always serve the needs of your clients” (pg. 7). According Campbell (2010), “a theme running throughout implementation literature is the importance of knowing the current strengths and needs of a community prior to selecting and attempting to implement an innovation” (Setting the Stage: Implementation in the Context of Community). NIRN also emphasizes the importance of “buy in” during every stage of implementation.

**Improve Client Coachability**

According to Haneberg (2006) the first step in coaching is to improve client coachability which is defined as “the degree to which they are open to what the environment can offer or the extent to which they accept and consider input and ideas” (pg. 55). The National Implementation Research Network (NIRN) refers to this as “readiness” and recommends two resources for assessing readiness on an individual practitioner level and on an organizational level. The “Evidence Based Practice Attitudes Scale” was developed by Aarons (2004) for use with individuals and tests for openness to innovations among other things. The “Organizational Readiness to Change” scale measures indicators within an organization such as openness to communication, cohesiveness, and openness to change, that assess an organization’s readiness for change and openness to coaching (Campbell, 2010). Coachability involves a state of mind and a set of behaviors that can be directly observed. Haneberg (2006) outlines the following behaviors as a guide for observing coachability,
• Is not defensive when offered an alternative point of view
• Welcomes ideas and feedback about ways to improve
• Asks for coaching
• Reflects on and uses ideas that others offer
• Looks for development opportunities, whether in the form of reading, classes, new assignments, or coaching from others
• Is open to acknowledging strengths and weaknesses
• Handles failures and setbacks with grace and honesty
• Has confidence and an ownership for results (pg. 57).

In contrast, Haneberg (2006) identifies the following behaviors are displayed when staff members are uncoachable:

• Staunchly defends current decisions, practices, and ideas
• Does not listen to suggestions offered by others
• Appears non-receptive or not interested in coaching
• Does not use the ideas that others offer; may be dismissive of others
• Does not seek self-development nor engage in conversations about self-development
• Believes that asking for input is a sign of weakness; is uncomfortable acknowledging and discussing weaknesses
• Is defensive and looks for someone to blame; may hide mistakes rather than openly discuss them
• Is driven to be right (pg. 57).

Without coachability, coaching is pointless, but through open, honest dialogue it is possible to improve client coachability. However, it should be noted that according to Haneberg’s Basic Rule 13 “You cannot always improve your client’s coachability” (pg. 62). Despite a coach’s best efforts some clients remain uncoachable. Seventy-six percent of coaches surveyed agreed that “it
is not worth their time to coach someone who is being uncoachable” (pg. 61). Fixsen et al (2009) discusses this in the Scaling Up Brief (2009) by stating:

Individuals typically need more information and time to process what the needs are, and what the innovation or change might mean for them. Encouragement, incentives, or demands to “just do it” typically do not lead to the “action” hoped for by the leaders or management team. What is needed is relevant and detailed information so those who are being asked to change are “ready” for change (p. 2).

There are several strategies for improving client coachability or readiness for change. Fixsen et al (2009), recommend using thoughtful activities that provide needed information to support readiness for change. It is important to note that all strategies involve getting to know clients, building strong relationships, and engaging in effective communication. Coaches should get to know their clients in order to understand each client’s personality style and preferred learning and communication styles so that appropriate strategies for communicating and delivering information can be utilized. Also, coaches should assist clients in identifying triggers which lead to becoming uncoachable and support clients in recognizing their own uncoachable behaviors and attitudes. With this awareness, clients can be supported in increasing their levels of coachability (Haneberg, 2006).

**Help the Client Get Unstuck**

A variety of conditions can cause clients to become stuck, or unable to move forward. Coaches must be able to recognize when a client becomes stuck, help the client identify the reason, and find the best solution for the situation (Haneberg, 2006). Sometimes a client feels overwhelmed due to procrastination or over-commitment and need support in organizing and
prioritizing their work. Occasionally clients become stuck in “victim conversations” and need support getting back on track with their goals. Other barriers to moving forward that can be overcome with organization, prioritization, and focus include being disconnected from the goals, having a vague or ill-defined vision, trying to do too much, or being committed to the wrong path.

According to Collins & Arthur (2010a) coaches are encouraged to “review in the moment any changes to the quality of their interaction with the client that may indicate a disruption in the working alliance. Such disruptions have often been framed as ‘resistance’ on the part of the client” (p. 7). By working together collaboratively with the client, coaches can reframe disruptions or resistance in terms of a mismatch between goals or as breakdowns in collaboration (Collins & Arthur, 2010a; Safran & Muran, 2006). By exploring discrepancies and being aware of underlying needs, coaches and clients can revise goals or establish enhanced communication and collaboration and that leads to progress.

Some strategies for helping clients proceed and reach their goals involve organizational strategies. Clearly defining goals, breaking goals into small tasks, brainstorming potential actions, and creating to-do lists can help clients become unstuck. Sometimes clients can benefit from receiving additional training, working in groups, and developing ways to track their progress. Coaches can accelerate progress by recognizing when clients become stuck and providing support (Haneberg, 2006).

Enhance Client Self-Awareness

According to Collins (2010) self-awareness is “an ongoing process of reflection and learning” (p. 1) that leads to personal understanding and insight. Research indicates that having an awareness of one’s values, biases, and personal assumptions is highly important to the
coaching process (APA, 2002; Collins & Arthur, 2007; Pitner & Sakamoto, 2005; Sue, 2001; Sue et al., 1992). Haneberg (2006) states, “One of the purposes of coaching is to help clients become more self-aware, so they can focus learning and growth where it will make the greatest difference” (pg. 68). By supporting clients in becoming aware of their strengths and weaknesses, as well as values and biases, coaching can support the attainment of client goals.

Haneberg (2006) claims one of the most effective tools for increasing self-awareness is the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). This tool has been widely researched, validated, and is accepted as an accurate and reliable method of raising self-awareness among professionals in a variety of fields. The Myers Briggs Type Indicator can be used effectively with individuals and with groups to improve self-awareness, communication, and teaming.

**Facilitate Breakthroughs**

Haneberg (2006) defines a breakthrough as,

- A moment when someone receives an insight, aha, idea, cognitive snap(relative to the preceding period), or epiphany
- Progress experienced by an individual or small group
- A discontinuous, positive change or a leap forward in thinking, action, or results
- A change that can be small or large, but there must be an acceleration of progress or sudden insight (transformative vs. incremental) (pg. 88).

Breakthroughs occur as a result of a breakthrough catalyst which is a condition that precedes and facilitates the breakthrough. Any experience can serve as a breakthrough catalyst and each individual responds uniquely to a particular catalyst; however common breakthrough catalysts include dissonance experiences, taking action, deep thinking, coached nudges, making requests, changing or realigning the context, and incubation or time away (Haneberg, 2006). By recognizing and understanding a client’s Myers Briggs Type Indicator score, coaches can tailor
their efforts to guide clients toward breakthroughs that lead to improved performance and more efficient achievement of goals. For example, if a coach knows that a client is an introvert, then the coach will utilize the breakthrough catalyst strategies of deep thinking and incubation or time away to support a breakthrough. If a coach is working with an extroverted client, then he or she will use the catalyst of taking action knowing that this type of catalyst will be more likely to lead to a breakthrough for an extrovert.

It is also important to recognize and understand breakthrough inhibitors which can reduce the likelihood of breakthroughs occurring. Breakthrough inhibitors include over-analyzing a situation, focusing too heavily on logic, a scarcity mindset that focuses on limitations and ignores creativity, fear, self-fulfilling prophecy, lack of time to consider new possibilities, and lack of diversity within the group. Coaches play an important role in bringing breakthrough inhibitors to their clients’ attention and suggesting strategies to reduce these barriers.

**Uncover Potential and Build Skills**

Haneberg’s (2006) Basic Rule 6 states “adults learn differently than children, and coaches need to understand the adult learning theory to enable their clients to build skills and realize their potential growths” (pg. 29). Haneberg suggests that coaches listen to clients and ask questions that lead to self-discovery in order to tailor strategies and experiences to each individual client’s unique needs and learning style. There may be a variety of reasons why a client’s abilities are hidden or unknown. For example, introverted clients may spend a significant amount of time gathering information and formulating ideas, but may be reluctant to share their insights or abilities without being directly asked. On the other hand, extroverted clients may appear scattered and disorganized as they gather information through conversations and sort out their thoughts by speaking out loud to those around them. A skilled coach can use a variety of
techniques to discover untapped potential within an organization and can use client’s natural talents to build new skills that move toward the accomplishment of the identified goals.

Create and Implement Plans of Action to Facilitate Change

In order to maximize the benefits of coaching there needs to be tools to facilitate the transition from one practice to another. Coaches must have a solid understanding of the nature of change and the difference between change and transition for this process to occur successfully and remain effective and sustainable. Haneberg (2006) describes it this way:

Change is a situation where something transforms. Jobs are added or eliminated. Your clients get promoted or demoted. The company merges with a competitor. Your clients are asked to take on new projects. New processes are put in place. Transition is the inner process through which your clients come to terms with changes. Transition is the path they take to react to and get comfortable with changes. The process includes letting go of the way things used to be and getting comfortable with the way things are now.

Transition is personal. Each individual will transition at a different speed and in a different manner (pp. 29-30).

The coach’s job is to support clients by making transitions as painless as possible. It is helpful to understand that every transition begins with a loss. Change begins with something ending and even if the change is viewed positively, it still requires letting go of the old ways of doing things, moving out of one’s comfort zone, and moving into a new beginning. William Bridges (1991) developed the Bridges Transition Model. Bridges refers to the place between the ending of the old and the beginning of the new as “The Neutral Zone.” This is the place where true transformation occurs. In reality, it may appear ambiguous and confusing, but coaches should recognize that “The Neutral Zone” is critical to facilitating the transition process because
it is where the letting go occurs and creativity can blossom which leads to accepting and even embracing the new beginning. Bridges (1987) states,

> Every time we make a change of any depth or extent, we find ourselves in a confusing no-man’s land between the old way and the new for some time. That time in the wilderness can begin before we actually leave the old way, for as soon as we decide to leave we find that the old way starts to lose its hold on us (Getting Them Through the Wilderness: A Leader’s Guide to Transition, p. 10).

Allowing time for personal transition to occur is crucial for supporting lasting change (Bridges, 1991). Plans of Action should be developed with the concept of “The Neutral Zone” in mind and should allow adequate time for transition to occur within each client as the organization moves forward toward reaching the desired goals. Fixsen, Naoom & Blase (2010) claim that change in practice creates the same kind of awkwardness associated with trying new things. It is these difficulties that are associated with changing old ways of work and pull individuals back to practice as usual.

**Change Models**

These models identify stages of concern that people go through when trying to effect change and reflect the commitment one has toward the innovation. Implementation Science, once known just as the change process, is an attempt at creating order, sequence and purpose into this moving process so desired goals and outcomes can be met and interventions can be replicated (Hord, 1981; Fixsen, Naoom, & Blase, 2010). The first and most critical step in implementing any innovation is securing buy-in and that happens as the constituents move through the Stages of Concern described in Implementation Science literature.
Stages of Concern

**Awareness**  May know or not know about the innovation, but is not ready, even if has access to it.

**Informational**  Aware of the innovation, wants to learn more, and may ask lots of questions before jumping in.

**Personal**  Uses the innovation for personal use and may ask “What’s In It For Me?” and may have general anxiety about using the innovation beyond personal use.

**Management**  Uses the innovation regularly but focuses on the process in which implementation will occur. Primary interest is on managing time, scheduling and organization.

**Consequence**  Looks for visible outcomes of the innovation that will be relevant to their work.

**Collaboration**  Interested in using the innovation to work with colleagues toward implementation.

**Refocusing**  Identifies the benefits of the innovation and redefines it, making changes where necessary. Willing to share and coach others. (adapted from Hord, 1981; Fixsen, Naoom, & Blase, 2010)

The Stages of Concern are related to the individual’s awareness and considerations regarding an innovation. An individual’s progression through the stages is contingent upon prior knowledge and experience with the innovation (Hord, 1981; Sullivan, 1993). Hord explains that stages progress from self-concerns (Stages Zero, One, and Two), to task concerns (Stage Three), followed by concerns for impact (Stages Four, Five, and Six). As individuals become more invested and interested in an innovation or new idea, and as their familiarity with that innovation increases the ability and desire to learn more about and begin implementing that innovation becomes greater. The subsequent elements of change are referred to as the Levels of Use which mark the typical behaviors and/or behavioral changes that accompany the implementation of an innovation.
Levels of Use

**Level 0**  
Nonuse – No action is being taken with respect to the innovation.

**Level 1**  
Orientation – The user is seeking out information about the innovation.

**Level 2**  
Preparation – The user is preparing to use the innovation.

**Level 3**  
Mechanical Use – The user is using the innovation in a poorly coordinated manner and is making user-oriented changes.

**Level 4A**  
Routine – The user is making few or no changes and has an established pattern of use.

**Level 4B**  
Refinement – The user is making changes to increase outcomes.

**Level 5**  
Integration – The user is making deliberate efforts to coordinate with others in using the innovation.

**Level 6**  
Renewal – The user is seeking more effective alternatives to the established use of the innovation (Hord, S. M., 1981).

The Levels of Use can be utilized to measure each individual’s investment in the change process. By understanding where each individual is operating within the Levels of Use, coaches can support individuals in moving to the next level and toward full implementation of an innovation. As explained by Sullivan (1993),

> Change is fluid. It is always occurring and inevitable. The process of change models attempt to place order, sequence and purpose into this process so that the result actually accomplishes the desired goal. Understanding first the road map for change will help us develop a plan for innovation that will enable success to be accomplished (pg.37).

Hord’s Concerned Based Adoption Model (1981) examines and describes the pertinent components of change, and her research supports the notion that not only must innovational change occur, but it must be combined with an interest to bring about that change. Additionally, planned learning activities must be implemented, spread over time, and paced according to the
concerns of the individuals involved in the process. Fixsen, Naoom & Blase (2010) identified the stages of implementation:

**The Six Stages of Implementation**

| Exploration | • Identify the need  
|            | • Acquire information  
|            | • Assess the fit between intervention program and community needs  
|            | • Prepare the organization for change |
| Installation | • Prepare for the delivery of the new practice (before consumer contact)  
|            | • Utilize resources in active preparation  
|            | • Focus attention on funding, human resources and development of policies and procedures |
| Initial Implementation | • Change occurs at multiple levels  
|            | • Change is met with anxiety and resistance  
|            | • Missteps may occur  
|            | • The key to success is a supportive organizational environment |
| Full Implementation | • Integrate new learning into practitioner, organizational, and community practices, policies and procedures  
|            | • Full staffing, full client loads and all realities of doing business  
|            | • The new program should be replicable  
|            | • Typically takes 2-4 years |
| Innovation | • Some adaptations occur  
|            | • Maintains sufficient fidelity to the original model, but adapts to achieve successful implementation |
| Sustainability | • Fidelity is maintained  
|            | • Staff turnover must be addressed  
|            | • Policies support sustainability, governance and funding  
|            | • Remains adaptable to the community |

Awareness of the Stages of Concern, the Levels of Use, and the Stages of Implementation can enable a coach to effectively motivate and support individuals and teams in effectively implementing change. When many motivated people come together and act in a synchronized way to accomplish change the effect can be dramatic (Sullivan, 1993). However, for meaningful change to be implemented and sustained a deep commitment to tolerating the feelings that come
from being uncomfortable and allowing the shift from the status quo to a more equal playing field for all participants is required. “Identifying new strategies for change demands that we examine past habits” (Sullivan, 1993, pg. 40). Haneberg (2006) “if your clients want to change their results, they need to adjust their beliefs so the beliefs are in greater support of their goals….When they practice breakthrough habits, clients will experience more breakthroughs and enjoy greater success” (pg. 97).

**Processes**

Coaches can support clients in implementing change by having a thorough understanding of the change process and the critical stages involved in that process. Securing buy-in through engagement, providing adequate training with follow-up support, and facilitating collaborative teaming efforts are key components to successful implementation. According to the Child Welfare Policy & Practice Group’s 2011 study, staff training was followed by coaching by trained practice experts who could model the new skills and approaches and mentor workers as they developed competency. The coaches also helped develop the skills of supervisors to permit them to lead the coaching effort with the larger workforce. Coaching is a vital and essential element of successful practice change.

**Important Coaching Skills**

Steven Covey, author of *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People* (1990), says very eloquently, “if you want to interact effectively with me, to influence me, you first need to understand me.” Haneberg (2006) describes this as “the skill of being client-focused versus self-focused” (pg.9). Covey’s Fourth Habit (Seek Win/Win) and Sixth Habit (Synergize) are most relevant to the work of coaches. These two practices are by nature reflective and require interpersonal dialogue that values the concept that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts,
which implicitly and explicitly challenges each participant to see the benefits and potential of another person’s contribution, while at the same time requires cooperative and collaborative efforts to achieve success. Win/Win leads to shared success and to group achievement, instead of the more traditionally confrontational win/lose situations. Haneberg (2006) lists four categories with corresponding skills that are critical for an effective coach to possess.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>SKILLS</th>
<th>SKILLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>• Listen</td>
<td>• Be Direct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Provide Feedback</td>
<td>• Provide encouragement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Be empathic</td>
<td>• Generate alternatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Ask the right questions</td>
<td>• Connect information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Be quiet</td>
<td>• Engender trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Relate experience</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client</td>
<td>• Improve motivation for change</td>
<td>• Facilitate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>• Believe in the client’s ability</td>
<td>• Improve Coachability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-</td>
<td>• Be curious</td>
<td>• Have humility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>• Be non-judgmental</td>
<td>• Be self-aware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Put aside personal agenda</td>
<td>• Be fully present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Skill</td>
<td>• Develop theories of motivation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Implement coaching practices and tools</td>
<td>• Develop strategies and plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increase knowledge of the business</td>
<td>• Contract</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Haneberg (2006) Coaching Basics, pg.8)
As evident by the list above, the most important category of skills necessary to the practice of coaching is communication. A coach’s ability to facilitate dialogue by asking provocative questions, listening to responses, and facilitating self-discovery is critical to effective implementation of change.

**Coaching Values**

Steven Covey (1989) defines values as beliefs about “the way things should be” which influence our thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors. Haneberg (2006) lists the following as important values in the practice of coaching:

- Acceptance
- Adventure
- Authenticity
- Courage
- Detachment
- Effectiveness
- Fostering Learning
- Partnership
- Respect
- Service Oriented

**The Nature of Great Coaching**

Great coaching focuses on the client’s goals and measures success by the attainment of those goals. Haneberg (2006) provides this list of critical success factors for great coaches:

- Great coaches are trustworthy.
- Great coaches act with integrity and follow through on agreements.
- Great coaches build positive, collaborative relationships with their clients.
- Great coaches are accessible and available.
- Great coaches know their stuff. They offer ideas that make a difference.
- Great coaches know when to be tough.
Great coaches listen well and seek to understand and employ assistance that their clients need the most.

Great coaches know that coaching is not about them.

Great coaches are catalysts. They are courageous and know that it is important to say what others cannot.

Great coaches are successful in helping clients become more coachable. This opens up many new opportunities.

Great coaches know how to be candid in a manner that will be well received by the client.

Great coaches love facilitating other people’s successes and get a charge out of seeing ‘the aha’ reaction’ (Haneberg, 2006, p.108).

It takes years of experience to develop these attributes and all great coaches were once coached themselves. Effective coaches build strong relationships with their clients, develop trust, and facilitate open dialogue.

**Elements of a Strong Coach-Client Relationship**

According to Haneberg (2006) the most important aspect of coaching is “the strength of the relationship between coach and client” (pg. 15). Haneberg identifies mutual trust, shared purpose, intimacy, and openness as the main elements of a strong relationship. The coaching process can feel threatening in the beginning so it is essential for coaches to establish a relationship built on trust. “Fears about the coach being a corporate spy can get in the way of a client’s trust in the coach” (pg.16). The best way to build trust is to start with ground rules for the coaching process and the relationship.
Coaches also need to demonstrate their willingness to help clients reach their goals by showing interest in and support for the goals. This shared purpose demonstrates respect for and genuine interest in the client. The coach’s job is to support the client in shaping and clarifying goals, but not to redirect their goals. Haneberg (2006) encourages coaches to build deep, connecting relationships with clients that “get beyond superficial talk to explore hopes, dreams, fears, and feelings” (pg. 16). Coaches must be willing and able to develop intimacy with clients by taking risks and talking about things that matter, sharing hopes, dreams, and struggles, and taking the relationship to a deep level. Sharing candidly with clients creates an openness that allows the clients to feel safe enough to reveal sensitive thoughts, feelings, or ideas. Haneberg goes on to say, “be candid and forthcoming with information. Ask provocative and evocative questions that facilitate openness” (pg. 16). In order to be successful, a coach must be able to respond to clients respectfully and non-judgmentally so that clients can develop an open and intimate relationship with the coach (Haneberg, 2006).

Coaching is most effective when the client seeks out the coaching. Clients who request coaching services are more engaged, more open to the process, and therefore, more coachable (Haneberg, 2006). Haneberg emphasizes the difficulty and pitfalls in attempting to coach clients who have had the coaching process imposed on them. This is not an optimal situation because they are more likely to be defensive and uncoachable. If they do not want coaching and are only coming to you because they were told to, the coaching will have little effect. To try to win them over, share the benefits of coaching and ensure them that the coaching sessions will focus on what they deem to be their most important goals. Put their minds at ease that you will not be reporting to their bosses about every conversation (pg. 18). It is not impossible to provide effective coaching to clients who are required by their employers to participate in the coaching.
process, but it does require additional time, especially in the beginning, to develop a clear and
strong relationship with the participants.

Blase and Fixsen (2009) outline specific criteria that must be in place in order to provide
effective coaching services to an organization, especially emphasizing the support of
administration in the process. Coaching must be valued by the organization/system and the
administrators in that system. Coaching is deemed to have value to an organization/system to the
extent that there is:

- A position description for coach (by whatever title)
- Dedicated FTE Based on functional ratios of coaches to practitioners
- Administrative support for coaching and for integrating coaching and the other
  implementation drivers
- Salary scale commensurate with the knowledge, skills, abilities and responsibilities of
  coaches
- Career path to develop as a coach (e.g. from practitioner to trainer to coach) and as a
  supervisor of a cadre of coaches (e.g. Master Coach) (Blase and Fixsen, 2009, pg. 2).

Haneberg (2006) also emphasizes the important role that the administrators play in the
coaching process, stating “forced coaching is often a waste of time, energy, and resources” (pg.
18). This point is so significant that she goes on to stress that the coach needs to “work with
senior leaders to ensure people are not forced into coaching” (p.18). When coaching is imposed
on an organization either by the administration or by funding requirements, the likelihood of
success can be increased by investing time at the very beginning to gain buy-in. “Time spent
building a foundation to your relationship will be well worth the initial effort. . .” (Haneberg,
Steven Covey (1989) clearly states the importance of investing time in building relationships. He says “it simply makes no difference how good the rhetoric is or even how good the intentions are; if there is little or no trust, there is no foundation for permanent success” (pg. 21). Covey compares relationship-building to farming,

Did you ever consider how ridiculous it would be to try to cram on a farm – to forget to plant in the spring, play all summer and then cram in the fall to bring in the harvest? The farm is a natural system. The price must be paid and the process followed. You always reap what you sow; there is not shortcut. This principle is also true, ultimately, in human behavior, in human relationships (pg. 22).

Every coaching resource available emphasizes the importance of building a strong relationship with those receiving the coaching services.

**Key Elements to Coaching**

The importance of investing time and getting to know people was emphasized in the previous section on the elements of client-coach relationships. Haneberg (2006) states that in coaching “one of the most important aspects of coaching is the strength of the relationship between coach and client” (pg. 15). Crane (2010) adds that “establishing rapport is critical to the success of the coaching relationship” (pg. 57). He calls this “connecting” and states that it is “important to share personal aspects of one another’s lives that may be unknown, yet appropriate to know” (pg. 57). By sharing personal motivations and passions about work, establishing expectations for the coaching process and the roles within the coaching relationship, discussing goals and objectives to focus on initially, and learning how each client wants to be coached, the coach and client can build a relationship based on mutual respect and trust (Crane 2010).
Crane (2010) outlines several characteristics of coaches that lead to developing trusting relationships with clients.

- Be approachable and easy to talk to; take the time to be available to listen; be fully present
- Be a “safe” person who does not hold what people say against them and never engage in reprisal
- Acknowledge people when they speak; appreciate that their communication may involve personal risk taking
- Validate their experience through empathic and reflective listening
- Be open and authentic in sharing your thoughts and feelings and the lessons learned from your life experiences
- Build and nurture trust in all you relationships
- Find the common ground – the dreams that excite you and the goals that you share
- Keep all agreements; renegotiate quickly when you see that you can’t keep your end of an agreement
- Be congruent in your thoughts, words, and deeds (pp. 57-58).

In order to establish rapport and a trusting relationship with clients, a coach must invest a significant amount of time into the initial process or the foundational phase of coaching.

**Three Phases of Coaching**

Crane (2010) outlines and describes three phases in which transformational coaching is accomplished. The Foundation Phase comprises establishing a coaching relationship and
preparing for a coaching session. The Learning Loop is the point where balanced feedback is shared, coaches and clients engage in active dialogue including asking learning questions, exploring beliefs, listening reflectively, and establishing accountability. The third phase, the Forwarding-the-Action Phase, is where positive momentum and a commitment to change occur.

The Foundation Phase

In the Foundation Phase, it is important to begin with a group of people who are committed to the coaching process. Fixsen, D., Naoom, S., Blase, K., & Wallace, F. (2008) call this the “selection process.” They warn against forcing implementation through coaching on unwilling clients stating that this method rarely works. “Implementation experts call these ‘conscripted staff’ and avoid them like the plague” Fixsen et al (2008, p.1). According to Fixsen et al (2008), it is better to invest time up front in the process in order to ensure successful implementation. When taking time to carry out the selection process supports implementation and eliminates having to deal with disgruntled employees who will often times end up sabotaging the effort. Fixsen et al (2008; 2010) acknowledge that in the long run this process takes more time but by taking the time to select carefully provides a better a chance of success.

The selection process applies to every level and facet of an organization including line staff, practitioners, coaches, trainers, evaluators, administrators, and purveyors. There are specific characteristics to look for when selecting individuals to participate in an implementation plan. These include “knowledge of the field, common sense, social justice, ethics, willingness to learn, willingness to intervene, and good judgment” (Campbell, 2010). There are several tools that have been developed for the purpose of measuring readiness at every level of implementation. Aaron’s 2004 “Evidence-based Practice Attitude Scale” measures staff attitudes toward adopting new programs that implement evidence-based practices. The “Organizational
Readiness to Change” scale measures an organization’s motivational readiness for implementation of an innovation. The “Community Readiness Model” can be used to assess the readiness of the community-at-large to receive the new program. It is critical to begin the process of coaching for implementation of an innovation with a carefully selected team, and these tools, or others like them, can be utilized to ensure that the implementation has the best chance for success by starting with a group of people who are able, and more importantly, willing to implement change (Campbell, 2010). This can only occur when the groups of individuals are strategically selected to participate in coaching process (Crane, 2010).

Coaches support clients in developing goals that are relevant and meaningful. If the goals are developed at the administrative level, then coaching should focus on how the implementation of the goals can occur. The more investment clients have in developing the goals and the steps for reaching them, the more successful and sustainable the implementation will be (Campbell, 2010; Crane, 2010; Fixsen, Naoom, Blase, & Wallace, 2008). Designating specific assignments to specific individuals with each person’s unique strengths in mind and supporting the identification and access of resources needed to change increases the likelihood of success in reaching the desired outcomes. Use of a tool such as the Myers Briggs Type Indicator can be valuable in helping individuals to recognize and capitalize on their strengths thereby utilizing the natural talents and skills of the individuals involved in the most effective way to accomplish the established goals.

Accountability is crucial to the success of the coaching process. If Fixsen, D., Naoom, S., Blase, K., & Wallace, F. (2008) approach to staff selection is followed and Crane’s (2010) concepts of connecting, setting clear goals, defining individual roles, and identify and accessing resources are implemented, then accountability should fall naturally into place. Through this
process, accountability is assigned through the designation of specific roles within an implementation project. When the implementation team comes together periodically to assess and evaluate progress, the built-in accountability that has been established through the previous steps in the process naturally occurs. Covey (1989) refers to this process as “Win/Win Accountability” where individuals evaluate themselves based on criteria that they helped to create during the goal-setting phase. However, as Covey points out, “for Win/Win to work, the systems have to support it. The training system, the planning system, the communication system, the budgeting system, the information system, the compensations system – all have to be based on the principle of Win/Win” (pg. 231). Covey further states,

Win/Win puts the responsibility on the individual for accomplishing specified results within clear guidelines and available resources. It makes a person accountable to perform and evaluate the results and provides consequences as a natural result of performance.

And Win/Win systems create the environment which supports and reinforces the Win/Win performance agreements (pg. 233).

In order for the accountability system to be successful, the appropriate staff must be selected and the goals, including specific objectives and steps to reaching them as well as consequences for not, must be clearly defined and assigned to specific members of the team. If these steps are skipped or overlooked, they should be revisited and implemented to ensure the best possible outcomes and the least likelihood for failure.

Establishing a realistic timeline is important to maintain the often dictated administrative or funding constraints. Each goal should be placed on the timeline with specific dates for review,
evaluation, and completion or revision. Timelines also support accountability because all members of the implementation team are aware of the timelines for each goal.

There are many components to empowerment. It begins with allowing an individual to take responsibility for a task and trusting him or her to successfully complete the task. However, there are supports that can be provided along the way that increase the likelihood of success. First, the purpose should be clearly stated and the importance of the task should be described in detail. It is also important to provide enough detailed information about the task. However, the amount of information needed will vary from person to person and should be tailored to each individual’s personality preferences as determined by the Myers Briggs Personality Indicator (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998).

It is important to clarify what successful completion of the task will look like and how it will be measured. Questions are also an important component to empowering individuals. Questions should be allowed and answered as thoroughly as possible. Additionally, effective and reflective questions should be posed by the coach to support the individual in thinking reflectively about the task (Crane, 2010).

The next step in the Foundation Phase is to observe the client’s performance and interaction with others in order to be able to provide specific feedback. During observation it is important for a coach to suspend judgment, assume innocence, identify assumptions, become curious, and embrace humility (Crane 2010). It is human nature to make judgments based on our own experiences, but it the coaching process it is necessary to be aware of our judgments and to get clarification from clients. By identifying personal assumptions, a coach can then engage in a reflective dialogue with the client regarding assumptions. By approaching the conversation from
a place of curiosity and humility, the coach can reduce defensiveness and improve the coach-client relationship.

The final step in the Foundation Phase is to prepare. In this context, preparing refers to an individual coach’s process of becoming ready to engage in the coaching relationship on a day-to-day basis. According to Crane (2010), “. . . you will be more effective if you have adjusted your mental and emotional state into being open, receptive, nonjudgmental, compassionate, and willing to learn (pg.65). It is also important for a coach to learn to handle his or her own anger. It is normal to experience anger and it is important to acknowledge anger as an honest response to a situation. However, it is critical that the anger is not expressed as an accusation or a threat directed toward an individual client. An effective coach will “come to the process in a learning mode with the clear intention of helping” (Crane, pg. 66).

Crane (2010) recommends setting aside pre-conceived ideas, asking questions, and listening with an open mind. “When a coach shares at this deeper level, rather than continuing the exhausting dance of ‘image maintenance,’ the relationship becomes safer for both to learn. Vulnerability leads to approachability” (pg. 67). Crane also recommends limiting the amount of words used in order to avoid overwhelming clients with too much information. Questions should be asked in a way that invites the “process of discovery through sharing, growing, and being involved. In this way the coach becomes a Socratic teacher” (pg. 67).

The Learning Loop Phase

Crane’s (2010) Learning Loop Phase encompasses five steps that utilize dialogue to fuel the learning process.
**Step One:** Be Present, State Your Topic, Share Your Positive Intentions, and Do a Permission Check

**Step Two:** Set Context, and Share Perceptions of Behaviors and the Impact on Relationships

**Step Three:** Ask Learning Questions to Explore Beliefs

**Step Four:** Reflectively and Empathetically Listen

**Step Five:** Explore Accountability in Co-creating Outcomes (p. 74).

In the beginning of implementation the coach must temporarily suspend multi-tasking, remove distractions from the environment, and focus on the person being coached by facing him or her directly and maintaining eye contact. Also the coach should listen carefully to what is said and remain emotionally honest. The coach should begin the session with an explicit statement of the topic to be discussed and a clear outline of the coach’s positive intentions. Then the coach should ask for permission to share feedback (Crane, 2010).

Crane (2010) defines feedback as “a process by which people share information and learn about certain aspects of work performance or the working relationship” (p. 73). Crane also clarifies that negative feedback differs from criticism in that criticism is focused on problems rather than solutions, is focused on the past rather than the future, and is often a personal attack (Crane, 2010). Crane also reports that requesting permission to give feedback is “one of the most crucial steps in the Transformational Coaching process. . . .The simple act of asking permission demonstrates respect, which is the foundation for trust” (p.75). Once a coach has received permission to offer feedback, he or she can move to the second step. When step two is initiated by setting the context. This process frames the conversation to follow by explaining the reason for the conversation. Once the context has been set, the coach can move forward with actually offering feedback to the client by beginning with “what is working” and moving to “what is not
“working” in order to identify opportunities for progress. Covey (1989) refers to this process as making deposits in the “Emotional Bank Account.” According to Covey, by first seeking to understand, listening empathically, and honestly affirming your motive you make deposits in an Emotional Bank Account which builds trust. With this trust as a basis for the relationship, a coach can then deliver more difficult feedback and have it be well-received.

Crane (2010) and Covey (1989) also point out the importance of sharing feelings. According to Crane, some mistakenly believe that feelings are to be avoided or denied at work. This widely held assumption is not true. High-performance teams freely exchange information about their feelings, both positive and negative, but they learn not to take it personally. When coached effectively individuals can competently engage in difficult conversations in ways that reflect healthy communication. In high-performance and high stress environments it would be considered abnormal to suppress the feelings that accompany this type of work environment. Covey (1989) and Crane (2010) both state that is appropriate, normal, and healthy to share feelings. Crane goes on to say, that, “the quality of interpersonal communications often is improved when people share explicitly what is happening at a feeling level” (p. 78). Covey (1989) describes the power of empathic listening and the ability to effect true change,

…as you authentically seek to understand, as you rephrase content and reflect feeling, you give him psychological air. You also help him work through his own thoughts and feelings. As he grows in his confidence of your sincere desire to really listen and understand, the barrier between what’s going on inside him and what’s actually being communicated to you disappears. It opens a soul to soul flow. He’s not thinking and feeling one thing and communicating another. He begins to trust you with his innermost tender feelings and thoughts (p. 249).
All feedback given by a coach should be authentic and candid, but should be delivered with compassion. By delivering honest and respectful feedback within the context of a trusting relationship and being willing to learn from one another, the coaching relationship can be an effective way to implement positive change. Crane (2010) states,

…to shade the truth or shield people from hearing what you perceive as the effect of their behavior is doing them a great injustice. The greatest gift you can bring to your coachees is to be true to your innermost thoughts and deliver authentic messages honestly and directly” (pp. 82-83).

Empathic but honest communication between coach and coachee is at the heart of healthy dialogue and leads to more productive relationships and work.

*Step Three* in The Learning Loop involves asking open-ended questions for the purpose of eliciting the client’s point of view in order to understand the client’s perception of a situation. Open-ended questions explore values and test assumptions, intentions and interpretations. Crane (2010) points out that most conflicts begin with differing beliefs. When someone believes that they are right and all others are wrong it is difficult to move forward. Crane says, “during a coaching conversation in which one of its primary objectives is for the parties to learn from one another, it can become deeply valuable to first understand one another’s belief systems” (p. 85).

The step of questioning and exploring beliefs leads to Crane’s (2010) *Step Four* which is to “Reflectively and Empathetically Listen.” Crane emphasizes the importance of this step. “Paying attention and listening deeply demonstrates respect and builds mutual trust by demonstrating your willingness to be sensitive and empathic” (p. 85). Crane and Covey (1989) stress the importance of demonstrating true empathy towards the client by expressing the ability
to understand and relate to the client’s feelings and experience. The act of truly listening leads to further development of trust which leads to Step Five “Exploring Accountability in Co-creating Outcomes.” Issues of accountability can be explored, established, and addressed within the dialogue in The Learning Loop Phase. According to Crane (2010) “those who are willing to become open to feedback and learn how their behaviors and actions contribute to various outcomes, demonstrate their ‘coachability.’ They stand to gain deep awareness in support of their personal and professional growth” (p. 87).

The process of dialogue that occurs during The Learning Loop Phase allows coaches and clients to deepen their relationships, explore their beliefs, assumptions, and interpretations, and acknowledge accountability for their actions and for their own learning process. The Learning Loop process allows clients to slow down, receive compassionate feedback, think critically and deeply, and take responsibility for implementing changes and achieving positive outcomes.

The Forward Action Phase.

According to Crane (2010) the final phase of the coaching process is where the forward focus and momentum are built. This includes six steps:

1. Revisit the Vision for Success
2. Solicit and Suggest Options
3. Request Specific Changes
4. Require Changes and Clarify Consequences
5. Clarify the Action Commitment and Follow-up Plan
6. Reinforce Progress and Offer Support
As the dialogue in *The Learning Loop Phase* moves toward developing action steps based on the feedback received, the natural next step is to revisit or redefine the focus of the project thereby providing a context in which the action steps will occur.

In *Step Two* options and ideas are solicited and suggested. Crane (2010) states that “we empower people by encouraging them to be engaged, think critically, and tap their creative potential. Asking ‘what if’ questions that encourage ‘outside the box’ thinking are effective” (p. 91). It is important to understand that none of the steps in the Forward-the-Action Phase can occur if sufficient trust has not been developed within the group or team in the previous two phases. Cranes states that “An open and trusting coaching relationship provides the forum for the exchange of lots of ideas regarding options, alternatives, and possibilities” (p. 91).

*Step Three* addresses the situation that can occur when a client is resistant to change, despite every effort to build a strong relationship and support implementation. In this case it may be necessary to use what Crane (2010) calls a “Behavioral Change Request.” This is a specific and formal request from a coach to a client to change a behavior or attitude that is disruptive, ineffective, or preventing progress. Crane provides the following example of dialogue for a Behavioral Change Request:

Mary, we have talked previously about your being late to meetings. I noticed that you arrived about ten minutes late again today. Because this continues to be disruptive, I need to ask you to either stop coming in late or to find a replacement to represent your department. How would you like to handle this matter? (p.93).

There are several components of this statement that should be noted. First, it is grounded in recent facts and reminds the client that the issue is not a new one. It clearly states a rational need
without blaming or threatening the client, but it also holds her accountable for the course of action to follow. It empowers the client by providing her with a choice and also keeps responsibility for the problem focused on the client. It is her problem to solve rather than the coach’s (Crane, 2010). According to Crane (2010) Step Four: Require Changes and Clarify Consequences may become necessary if Step Three is unsuccessful. Crane states,

If unacceptable levels of performance continue…you may be left with no alternative but to escalate the coaching intervention to the highest, most intense level. You may have discovered through the coaching process that you are dealing with an employee with problematic behaviors, and need to lay down the law in clear, unmistakable terms and fully document what has become a progressive discipline process (pp. 93-94).

In this type of situation it is important that the coach clarify the behavioral expectations and identify specific organizational consequences if lack of compliance continues. Crane emphasizes the importance of being willing and able to enforce consequences in order to avoid losing credibility. It may be necessary to enlist support from organization administrators in order to properly handle the situation and successfully move forward with project implementation.

Step Five involves clarifying the action commitment and creating a follow-up plan. Despite which of the three previous steps have been utilized it is important to reestablish commitment to the project either verbally or in writing and to make a plan to follow up that includes a specific behavior or performance contract and a timeline for demonstration of the behavior. Crane (2010) acknowledges that not every coaching relationship is successful and states that “if performance fails to improve over time (with lots of ongoing coaching), the appropriate disciplinary steps should be taken to protect the interests of the individual, the
department, and the organization” (pp. 94-95). When the persons being coached are not held accountable for personal behavioral choices and performance, management loses all credibility (Crane, 2010, p.94). According to Crane, when upper management allows individuals to drain the energy of other employees because difficult employees or managers are unwilling to “align with the values” of the organization, the leadership team needs to have a plan for reassigning those employees or risk losing the opportunity to create long-term, successful, sustainable and adaptive change. When difficult employees are moved out of the way of energetic employees, the momentum is tangibly felt by participants who want to do the work they were hired to do that is in alignment with the values-based, culture-strengthening process (Crane, 2010).

Therefore, the final step in the Forward-the-Action Phase is to reinforce progress and offer support. If the Behavior Change Request was successful, then it is critical to acknowledge the progress and offer to provide any support that is reasonably within the coach’s control in order to continue the trusting relationship. If the Behavior Change Request failed to resolve the issues and further and more drastic action was taken, then it is important to reassure other team members that progress toward the stated goals will continue and that the coach will continue to be available for ongoing support.

Covey’s Critical Components that Support Teaming

Team coaching can be an effective and efficient way to deliver coaching services, but it requires collaboration, accountability, and engagement skills. Team coaching often requires spending additional time in the beginning to develop trusting and healthy relationships with the coach and among team members (Haneberg, 2006; Covey, 1989). There are several factors to keep in mind when coaching teams, such as personality styles of team members, cultural implications and biases, generational differences, existing relationships, and team dynamics.
Collaboration

Three of Covey’s (1989) Seven Habits relate to the concept of collaboration. They are Habit Four: Think Win/Win, Habit Five: Seek First to Understand, Then to Be Understood, and Habit Six: Synergize. Covey also addresses the issues of dealing with differences and building cooperation, communication, and trust. In describing the first three Habits, Covey explains how people move from a state of dependence to independence. The following three Habits involve the process of moving from independence to interdependence. Covey states that “effective interdependence can only be built on a foundation of true independence” (p. 185).

Interdependence, the ability to develop “rich, enduring, and highly productive relationships with other people” (p. 187) can only occur after independence, the ability to be “proactive, centered in correct principles, value driven and able to organize and execute around the priorities in our life with integrity” (p. 187), has been attained. It is critical that coaches understand this concept. Without first establishing that members of a team are capable of independence, it will be impossible to develop a collaborative environment in which a team can succeed.

Think Win/Win

Covey’s (1989) first Habit for developing interdependence is Habit Four: Think Win/Win. Covey describes Win/Win as one of six “paradigms of interaction” (p. 206). He states “Win/Win is not a technique; it’s a total philosophy of human interaction” (p. 206). Covey describes this process in detail, stating that,

Win/Win means that agreements or solutions are mutually beneficial, mutually satisfying. With a Win/Win solution, all parties feel good about the decision and feel committed to the action plan. Win/Win sees life as a cooperative, not a competitive arena. . . . Win/Win
is based on the paradigm that there is plenty for everybody, that one person’s success is not achieved at the expense or exclusion of the success of others. (p. 207)

Many organizations and systems are set up to promote competition among staff members. This practice is in direct contradiction to Win/Win Thinking. Covey (1989; 1990) further explains that Win/Win Thinking has five dimensions: character, relationships, agreements, supportive systems, and processes. He explains that three character traits, integrity, maturity, and abundance mentality, are necessary for implementing a Win/Win paradigm. The second dimension of Win/Win relationships is built on the foundation of character. Covey (1989) states that,

The trust, the Emotional Bank Account, is the essence of Win/Win. Without trust, the best we can do is compromise; without trust, we lack the credibility for open, mutual learning and communication and real creativity. But if our Emotional Bank Account is high, credibility is no longer an issue. Enough deposits have been made so that you know and I know that we deeply respect each other. We’re focused on the issues, not on personalities or positions (p. 221).

When people work together the individual character traits of integrity, and maturity allow relationships to develop that are based on genuine courtesy towards, respect for, and appreciation of others. Win/Win Thinking demonstrates a sincere desire to truly invest in relationships in order to support Win/Win agreements which are the third dimension of the Win/Win paradigm (Covey, 1989; 1990).
Accountability

Agreements, also called performance agreements or partnership agreements, provide definition and direction to the process of Win/Win thinking. These agreements encourage self-supervision and partnering and contain five explicit elements, Desired Results, Guidelines, Resources, Accountability, and Consequences. By establishing a clear, mutual understanding through agreements individuals can measure their own success. Covey (1989) states,

…as long as you have an up-front Win/Win agreement and they know exactly what is expected, your role is to be a source of help and to receive their accountability reports. It is much more ennobling to the human spirit to let people judge themselves than to judge them. And in a high trust culture, it’s much more accurate. (p. 224)

Often the individual knows better than anyone else how things are going, and therefore is a much more accurate judge than an observer is. Effective Win/Win performance agreements make use of natural and logical consequences. Essentially there are four types of consequences that can be externally controlled: Psychic consequences such as respect, approval, and recognition, or the lack thereof; Financial consequences such as salaries, bonuses, and stock options, or penalties; Opportunity consequences such as training, increased development, and other perks or benefits; and Responsibility consequences such as increased authority or promotions, or demotions and reduction in scope. There are also natural organizational consequences that should be clearly defined in agreements to handle issues such as tardiness or lack of cooperation with others. By specifying specific positive and negative consequences for performance or lack of performance in the Win/Win agreements, everyone involved is clear regarding expectations from the beginning of the process.
Supportive Systems
The fourth dimension in Win/Win Thinking is a supportive system. This is achieved by first assessing the system to determine exactly what type of behavior is currently being rewarded by the system and then revising policies, procedures, values, and goals to establish a culture that rewards Win/Win Thinking. Covey (1989) emphasizes the importance of implementing a system-wide Win/Win attitude. He states,

... cooperation in the workplace is as important to free enterprise as competition in the marketplace. The spirit of Win/Win cannot survive in an environment of competition and contests. For Win/Win to work, the systems have to support it. The training system, the planning system, the communication system, the budgeting system, the information system, the compensation system – all have to be based on the principle of Win/Win. (pp. 230-231)

The basic premise of establishing a Win/Win system is that you will get what you reward. If the system is setup to appropriately reward the desired behavior, then that behavior will occur. Covey states that “if you put good people in bad systems, you get bad results” (p.232). When systems are aligned to support effective teaming they create cooperative situations rather than competitive ones and have a powerful impact on overall effectiveness.

The fifth dimension of Win/Win implementation focuses on processes. By separating people from problems, focusing on interests rather than positions, creating options for mutual gain, and establishing objective criteria Win/Win processes can be established and Win/Win solutions can be achieved (Covey, 1989). These processes can be implemented by developing Covey’s Habits Five and Six.
Seek First to Understand, Then to Be Understood

Habit Five is *Seek First to Understand, Then to Be Understood* and it is a critical element for reaching interdependence and collaboration. This Habit is based on the principles of empathic communication which is the most important life skill to develop since we spend most of our waking hours communicating (Covey, 1989; 1990). The four basic types of communication are reading, writing, speaking, and listening, and as Covey (1990) points out “the ability to do them well is absolutely critical to your effectiveness” (p. 237). Covey points out that we spend years learning to speak, read, and write, but we rarely obtain training in or practice listening skills. This is the skill he focuses on in the Fifth Habit. Covey (1990) advocates listening for understanding. He goes on to state,

Empathic (from empathy) listening gets inside another person’s frame of reference. You look out through it, you see the world the way they see the world, you understand their paradigm, you understand how they feel. . . .The essence of empathic listening is not that you agree with someone; it’s that you fully, deeply, understand that person, emotionally as well as intellectually (p. 240).

One tool that coaches can use to support their understanding of those with whom they work is the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998). This instrument can support empathic listening by providing insight to the things that are likely to be important to the individual and can be used to begin a conversation in which empathic listening can occur. Covey (1990) points out that it is impossible to know what is important to any particular individual unless time is spent gaining understanding. According to Covey “one person’s mission is another person’s minutia” (p. 190). If a coach takes time to understand and appreciate what an individual values, he or she sends the message that the individual is important.
When an individual feels understood and validated, then an authentic relationship can begin to develop, and once an individual feels understood, then he or she can be available to understand the other. This is an important component in establishing a trusting relationship. According to Covey (1998) seeking to understand requires patience, empathy, and consideration, while seeking to be understood requires the courage to open oneself up to others, and both are critically important to developing a genuine relationship that allows for creative solutions and previously undiscovered alternatives to be developed.

**Synergize**

The next step to developing collaboration is Habit Six: Synergize which fosters the principles of creative cooperation. According to Covey (1989) synergy “catalyzes, unifies, and unleashes the greatest powers within people” (p. 262). Synergy is a creative process that opens up new possibilities, ideas, and alternatives through honest, respectful, and trusting communication.

**Valuing Differences**

The core of synergy comes from valuing differences. Covey (1990) states that “when we’re left to our own experiences, we constantly suffer from a shortage of data” (p 277). It is only by respectfully appreciating what others bring to the equation that synergy can occur and progress can be made. Covey very practically points out that “if two people have the same opinion, one is unnecessary” (p. 278). It is the differences of perception that exist within a team that lead to new perspectives and increased opportunities. By understanding each person’s unique way of perceiving and acting in the world, the team can capitalize on individual strengths for the benefit and the common goals of the group. According to the MBTI Manual (1998) “the MBTI tool and supporting type resources demonstrate the value added by diversity within the
organization or work group. This ethic – the constructive use of differences – is particularly applicable in today’s global and diverse organizations” (p. 326). By seeking to understand each individual’s unique contribution and valuing the differences within the team, it is possible to achieve synergistic communication that effectively supports change (Covey, 1989; 1990; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998).

**Developing Engagement Skills Among Staff**

As described by Covey (1989) and Crane (2010) the development of staff engagement skills can be supported by explicit clarity of expectations. According to the Child Welfare Policy & Practice Group (2011) policies and staff performance expectations should describe expected engagement performance specifically. In the case of performance expectations, behavioral anchors can be used to communicate the performance desired. Additionally, training and coaching of staff are crucial elements in the development process. First, trainers must possess the engagement skills they are teaching. Effective practice training involves the cycle of presenting conceptual information, modeling the skills, practice of skills by participants and feedback by trainers on performance. It is vital that trainers be able to demonstrate the practice skills they are teaching, so training of trainers is likely to be necessary. Participant group size should be small enough to permit small group practice activities and trainer mentoring, which means limiting participant numbers to no more than twenty-five. Skill-focused activities should address the common interviewing skills of exploring, focusing and guiding, using case simulations and role plays to practice interactions essential to engagement.

In training Child Welfare Staff, content should involve activities that press staff to test their values as well as their skills. This correlates with Covey’s (1989) Habit Two: Begin with the End in Mind which involves writing a personal mission statement and identifying core
values. One goal of training for staff engagement is to help staff see the strengths of their families and their commonalities with them. The first step in moving toward this goal is identifying and valuing the strengths within the team. Deficit-based practice is deeply embedded in child welfare systems, so building family engagement competency can’t be accomplished in brief in-service training alone. After the initial training, coaching must occur to support the implementation of new skills and it must be maintained long enough to permit intensive modeling and practice of skills if it is to be effective (Child Welfare Policy & Practice Group, 2011). Training that is also followed by coaching by trained practice experts, who can model the new skills and approaches and mentor workers as they develop competency are the most effective training models. Coaches also help develop the skills of supervisors which permit them to lead the coaching effort with the larger workforce. Coaching is a vital and essential element of successful practice change.

**Critical Components to Support the Transfer of Learning**

Understanding personal behavioral styles has been on the minds of researchers as far back as Carl Jung (1923) who used scientific research methods to try to tease out how and why people act and interact the way they do. Jung’s work culminated in the identification of four specific personality preferences, or ways in which individuals operate; the intuitior, the thinker, the feeler, and the sensor. Each has a compilation of characteristics that make up the behavioral strategies and operational styles that are most comfortable for a particular type. Coaches and coaches who build rapport and understand these differences in operating styles can use this information to their advantage in maximizing the strengths of each person (Crane, 2010, pp.159-166). The most important thing to remember about behavioral styles is that they are neutral. One style is no better than another, what is important is to be able to identify the strengths of each and
work out a plan for implementation based on those strengths so success is both enjoyable but also effective (Crane, 2010).

**Coaching Styles and Generational Differences**

For the first time in history there are four generations in the workforce and this significantly effects communication between supervisors and staff, coaches and coachees, and among employees and clients. Understanding generational differences is critical to effective coaching as well as overall business practices. Each generation, Traditionalists, Baby-Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y (aka Millennials) has been influenced by the social, economic, political and historical perspective of their time. In the practice of coaching, it is important to understand what motivates each generation, as well as what values are important to each generation (Meister & Willyard, 2010). By understanding and appreciating the values and motivating factors that drive each generational group, a supervisor or coach can effectively support the transfer of learning for members of every generation. Coaches can also improve the functioning of a team by helping members of different generations to understand one another and value the diversity that exists within the different generations.

The following table outlines each generation and the specific values and motivating factors that drive that generation’s work (Meister & Willyard, 2010).
### Generation Explanation Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENERATION</th>
<th>PERIOD</th>
<th>MOTIVATION</th>
<th>MANTRA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| TRADITIONALISTS | 1925 to 1945 | • a job well done  
• stability and staying employed  
• Work hard and pay their dues  
• trust authority and hierarchies  
• tend to be more formal at work | “Glad to have a job.” |
| BABY BOOMERS    | 1946 to 1964 | • being recognized for their contribution  
• career success  
• work to build careers and gain recognition for their work  
• tend to be a bit less formal  
• they accept the rules created by their bosses | “Work is my life.” |
| GENERATION XERS | 1965 to 1980 | • learning and development  
• flexibility in their work  
• work life balance  
• expect to be involved and empowered at work  
• sometimes appear irreverent and not very serious  
• openly question authority and at times called skeptics/cynics | “Stop the B.S.” |
| MILLENNIALS     | 1981 to 1999 | • meaning of their work  
• want to contribute  
• work must be interesting and engaging  
• like fun  
• they respect authority but only when it is earned | “I like it or I leave.” |
| Generation Next | 1999 to 2010+ | -                                             |                                              |

Adapted from Meister and Willyerd (2010) and Crane (2010)

Even though there are broad differences within the generations there are also universal values shared. Fundamentally, workers want to feel that their work is valued and that they are engaged in and empowered by the work they do. Gen Xers and Millennials want flexibility in their work lives, as do Traditionalists and Baby-Boomers, but these younger generations are more likely to vocalize this wish at work.
These four generations work side by side but do not share the same value system when it comes to work, which means that it is important to acknowledge and understand the differences as a coach so that individual needs can be specifically addressed for each coachee’s generational value system. Again, this is not a judgment but an observation about the differences in generations. By tapping into the insight of each distinctive group creates opportunities to build rapport and embrace the diversity while appreciating the unique perspectives that each generation brings to work. Understanding these differences allows the strengths of each to be recognized as a lens (Meister & Willyerd, 2010; Crane, 2010).

All four generations rated their top three most desired characteristics as the following, however, generation ranked them in different orders. Each have a strong value system, like the ability to have a work and life balance, appreciate flexible benefits and reward plans and want to develop skills for future work (Hurt, 2011; Meister & Willyerd, 2010). The younger generations, especially in Gen Next are pushing the mark when it comes to making interpersonal connection while maintaining their dedication to speed of networking through what is now termed, Uber-connection. Critical to success for this group is connecting people to people. Learning is a social experience for this group and they expect to discuss ideas and issues relevant to their work and their social political lives at a rate that has never been experienced by a generation before (Hurt, 2011; Meister & Willyerd, 2010).

Another factor that is important to all generations and certainly not lost on the youngest of the bunch is maintaining the personal meaning behind the learning objectives and outcomes. This is critical to the concept that people learn better when they are connected to organizational or educational material in a personal way. Even though traditionally education has been organized around repetition and regurgitation, these younger generations want to intellectually
interact with the educational system and expect to integrate the material in ways that align with their own personal goals and values.

Delivering a message or expressing an idea in a world that is bombarded with advertising means that connecting to the target audience regardless of whether that group is social service employees, foster parents, or high tech computer engineers, *Gen Next* understands the importance of collaborating with and connecting with large groups by way of networking and social media (Hurt, 2011; Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Nothing is a local concept anymore for the youngest generations. They, *Millennials* and soon *Gen Next*, are taking us to the next level or global sharing. They want to connect not only with those doing business where they live, but they view *everything* from a global perspective and want to connect with organizations and individuals who bring ideas close to home for them. Understanding that learning is cumulative and abstract, means that the linear learning model is going out of style faster than a speeding bullet. Hurt (2011) explains that Uber connections strive to solve problems by connecting people to critical content and then figuring out what needs to be done to create solutions. This is, in fact, the wave of the future.

**Practical Applications**

Leaders that have successfully employed their practice framework to drive reform demonstrate its influence in their own management decisions, monitor its use, and hold staff accountable for its application. In addition, they regularly assess its impact on outcomes for children and their families.

The payoff, where systems have fully committed to converting to practice consistent with their framework, has been greater unity of effort, more thoughtful and effective decisions about
change strategies and most important, improved outcomes for children and families. (Child Welfare Policy & Practice Group, 2011). Research conducted at the University of Texas at Austin distinguished four categories that were critical to supporting the change process.

1. Developing supportive organizational arrangements such as ordering appropriate materials, hiring or relocating personnel, and organizing schedules.
2. Providing in-service or other forms of training.
3. Offering individualized, ongoing consultation and assistance, including reinforcement.
4. Monitoring and evaluating performance with the program at regular intervals.

Training is most effective when it is also followed by coaching by trained practice experts, who can model the new skills and approaches and mentor workers as they develop competency. The coaches also help develop the skills of supervisors to permit them to lead the coaching effort with the larger workforce. Coaching is a vital and essential element of successful practice change. Researchers agree that the supervisor’s role is critical to the success or failure of the implementation of an innovation (Cox, French & Loucks-Horsley, 1987). VanDenBerg & Grealish (1998) suggests that the supervisor’s effort is the motivational force that drives staff to implement innovations, but stresses that the innovations must be made meaningful to the staff and other change agents in order to effect lasting change.

Sashkin and Egermeier (1991) described four strategies that support systematic change when attempting to implement a given goal.
Strategy 1  FIX THE PARTS BY TRANSFERRING INNOVATIONS
   - Sets up a support system for supervisors and staff which include adopting a plan to assist in institutionalizing the innovation or change.

Strategy 2  FIX THE PEOPLE BY TRAINING AND DEVELOPING PROFESSIONALS
   - Staff development, when focused on training, improves programs.

Strategy 3  FIX THE ORGANIZATION BY DEVELOPING THE ORGANIZATION’S CAPACITIES TO SOLVE PROBLEMS
   - Use of organizational development models and trained consultants or coaches’ support to facilitate successful on-site problem-solving.

Strategy 4  FIX THE SYSTEM BY COMPREHENSIVE RESTRUCTURING
   - This is a multidimensional strategy which combines the optimum components in the three previous strategies in an attempt to effectively restructure the system.

A coach who is knowledgeable regarding Implementation Science and Reflective Practice can facilitate the transfer of learning across a large social service driven workforce (Campbell, 2010; Blase & Fixsen, 2009).

If we are truly committed to the idea of lasting change then we have to begin by integrating an empirically supported change model along with the implementation of our innovation. It is this combination that leads to sustainability and stability (Sullivan, 1993, pg. 23).

Developing Engagement Skills Among Staff

The process of development of staff engagement skills should begin with clarity of expectations. Policy and staff performance expectations should describe expected engagement performance specifically. In the case of performance expectations, behavioral anchors should be used to communicate the performance desired.
Training and coaching of staff are crucial elements in the development process. Effective practice training involves the cycle of presenting conceptual information, modeling the skills, practice of skills by participants and feedback by trainers on performance. It is vital that trainers be able to demonstrate the practice skills they want implemented and sustained. Participant group size should be small enough to permit small group practice activities and trainer mentoring, which means limiting participant numbers to no more than twenty-five. Skill-focused activities should address the common interviewing skills of exploring, focusing and guiding, using case simulations and role plays to practice interactions essential to engagement.

Content should involve activities that press staff to test their values as well as their skills. A particularly important goal is to help staff see the strengths of the families they work with and the commonalities with them. Deficit-based practice continues to be a challenge in child welfare systems, so building family engagement competency can’t be accomplished in brief in-service training alone. Training must be long enough to permit intensive modeling and practice of skills if it is to be effective (Child Welfare Policy & Practice Group, 2011).

Coaching facilitates effective dialogue in multicultural and multiethnic settings because the emphasis is not about being, right. In contrast, it is about being seen. Each member is viewed as having strengths that are views in safe space which allows members of the team to retain dignity and illuminate respect for differences of opinion or beliefs. This type of engagement reduces embarrassment, defensiveness and allows each member to feel equal even though there might be visible differences within the group.
**The Role of Leadership in Using a Practice Framework**

Leaders that have successfully employed a practice framework to drive reform consistently demonstrate its influence in their own management decisions, monitor its use and hold staff accountable for its application. In addition, they regularly assess its impact on outcomes for children and their families. The payoff, where systems have fully committed to converting to practice consistent with their framework, has been greater unity of effort, more thoughtful and effective decisions about change strategies and most important, improving outcomes for children and families.

Coaching is a skill that is used to create a functional path towards new behaviors or skills. Ideally, professional training followed up by coaching will provide lasting results (Gambetta, 2011). Healthy communication is a part of coaching that is critical to success. Communication sets the stage for coaching, because coaching is contingent on the establishment of healthy, trusting relationships for sustaining long term change to occur. Effective coaches have the ability to listen carefully and watch for the non-verbal messages that are sent by the coachee. However, coaching requires much more than just the ability to listen. Professional coaching also rests on the skills of the coach to build genuine rapport with clients that is foundationally sound. If someone agrees to participate in a coaching relationship then they expect to understand the dynamics of coaching as a process and the rules of engagement. Communication is key and must allow for difficult discussions without requiring one person to give up their position. The bottom line is that communication is much more felt than spoken, so if the words that are said do not match up with the feelings that are felt between the coach and coachee then one of two things will happen. First, if it the coachee who feels the mismatch then s/he will disengage because the signal of trust shut down (Gambetta, 2011). If a relationship is established and the coachee can
have a discussion about this with the coach then the relationship and work can continue. If the coach does not acknowledge those feelings or a healthy dialogue cannot take place then the coaching process is stumped. Ideally, if the same scenario happens in reverse, where the coach feels the mismatch then s/he will be able to acknowledge the issue and the two can begin a healthy conversation about what is going on and what to do about it. It is within these asynchronous moments that the coaching work accomplishes the tasks of clarity and self-awareness but it is also more complicated than straight training on new information (Gambetta, 2011). Communication is primarily non-verbal so being a successful coach requires being in tune with the cues sent by the client, often in a micro-second.

There is no way to side-step the feelings that participants have not only about the process of coaching, but also about the coach. This means that it is critical for the coach to understand not to take personally the initial reactions or responses of the coachee especially if the coaching is not self-initiated. Often in the beginning of coaching relationship there is resistance when the process is not given enough attention to gain buy-in and acceptance from the group or individuals who are expected to participate in this process. Coaches have to be in-touch with their own strengths and weaknesses before they can support participants in examining their professional strengths and potential weaknesses ways that are non-threatening. A professional coach knows that delivering content in a way that is accessible for the client is essential for the transfer of learning process to occur. Professional coaching requires adaptability and flexibility. There is not a template for perfect coaching and no coaching relationship is identical. It is a profession that requires the ability to tolerate change and uncertainty at times. Professional coaches are trained to emotionally manage the tide changes either in the relationship or the environment (Gambetta, 2011). It is at these times when a coach must be able to fine-tune, take
risks and endure the unknown for both client(s) and self. Coaching combined with training is such a powerful combination because it allows for an innovation to become integrated into the work of the coachee. When training is the only option then the expectation is imitation which only yields short term change but more often nothing at all.

According to the International Association of Coaching (IAC) Code of Ethics, when a coach is hired to work with a team of employees many clarifications need to be made. This type of relationship would be congruent with what in the mental health field is a-kin to Third-party Requests for Services. When this type of arrangement is made the nature of the relationship with each participant needs to be defined and clear. This clarification includes the role of the coach (such as organizational consultant), the probable uses of the services provided or the information obtained, and the fact that there may be limits to confidentiality. If there are potential risks for participants or for the coach who may be asked to provide evaluative material or asked to reveal information that would be considered confidential. It is important that the coach clarify responsibilities to the organization and keep all parties involved in the situation appraised of the limits and conditions of ethical coaching.

There are some specials issues that arise when supervisors are expected to coach subordinates. Employees can only be reasonably expected to perform responsibilities that are aligned with the employee’s education, training, and/or experience. When a coach serves as a supervisor as well as then it is important to take reasonable steps to see that the employee is protected from conflicts that can occur when what would be confidential information becomes part of an evaluative relationship in which employment is based.
Conclusion

Like any change strategy, the effectiveness of a practice framework is dependent on the priority given it by system leadership. For a practice framework to reach the capacity to actually change and sustain a new practice, it should be seen as an overarching mandate at the state and local management level as well as by front-line staff.

The first and most critical step to implementing a coaching system into an organizational structure is to clearly define the terms associated with the practice. The language used when discussing coaching, mentoring, and reflective supervision is often interchangeable. In reality, each term has a distinctly separate definition, function, and purpose. Additionally, most professional coaches come from the field of business management, not mental health or education. Coaching is not therapy. Coaching is way of scaffolding education with reflective processing to support self-awareness and increase effectiveness. If an employee of any type is going to implement new information into their work, first the employee needs to fully understand the information or innovation (Sullivan, 1993). Once the material has been shared, then that information needs to be linked to each individual’s personal experience so there is a meaningful reason to change a current practice. This combined with coaching is what creates the sustainability of training.

Although coaching has become a popular catch-all phrase with many meanings, the field of coaching is a distinct area of practice with specific training and qualifications. The practice of coaching is specifically focused on setting goals, creating outcomes, and effecting and managing change. Coaching should focus on helping clients to achieve their goals by facilitating the client’s thinking process as it relates to implementing the innovation or change. The most important concept in coaching is that the professional coach functions as a guide who supports
the challenges faced by a client so that the client can achieve their goals and sustain the outcomes desired by the organization. This is accomplished through a communication process that connects people to performance. Coaching is about creating and sustaining change by gathering information and guiding performance. Implementation requires a solid foundation of trust that includes healthy communication, as well as personal and professional accountability.
**References**


Buckingham: SRHE/Open University Press.
London : Kogan Page.
doi: 10.1037/1076-8998.11.4.358
MBE Center for Bioethics and Humanities Upstate Medical University Syracuse, NY.
London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.


doi: 10.1002/9781119990420.ch19

Robins, V., & Collins, K. (2010). *Implementation Drivers: An initial conversation when planning or reviewing a practice, program, or initiative*. Frankfort, KY: Kentucky Division of Mental Health and Substance Abuse.


