PROFILING COACHING IN SOUTH AFRICA

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At times our own light goes out and is rekindled by a spark from another person. Each of us has cause to think with deep gratitude of those who have lighted the flame within us.

Albert Schweitzer

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SOLI DEO GLORIA
ABSTRACT

Orientation: The coaching industry globally has experienced unprecedented growth with various professional bodies representing a diversity of coaches, application domains, methodologies, training and, continuous professional development, but the industry is not yet regulated and does not meet the criteria for the professionalisation thereof. Very little is known about the composition of the coaching industry in South Africa.

Research purpose: The purpose of this study was to explore and describe the profile of coaches in South Africa.

Motivation for the study: The exploration and description of the currently practising coaches in South Africa was necessitated by the lack of basic information regarding the nature and extent of coaches currently practising in South Africa.

Research design: A quantitative, cross-sectional design was adopted to obtain a snapshot (at a fixed point in time) of the current coaching profile. The researcher conducted a survey, using a web-based questionnaire that was adapted from similar studies conducted in the United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. This research method fitted the aim of the study as the profile of South African coaches currently practising was explored. The sample consisted of coaches who were voluntary members of professional coaching bodies in South Africa.

Main findings: From 229 respondents, it was evident that South African coaches are mostly from a human resources, a consulting, or a psychology background, and have between 1 and 5 years’ coaching experience. Most of these coaches have a non-specified Master’s degree with only a certificate in coaching. Coaches in South Africa seem to practise on a part-time basis, spending less than five hours per day coaching clients. An average coaching session lasts between 60 and 90 minutes, fortnightly, with the coaching engagement lasting between
3 to 12 months. Coaches prefer face-to-face coaching. Areas of specialisation are leadership coaching, life coaching, and business coaching. Coaches make use of psychometric instruments in profiling their clients. Most of the coaches are of the opinion that the adherence to a code of ethics is very important. Supervision and continuous professional development are seen as an important part of training to become a coach.

**Implications:** This study cannot be extrapolated to the future, as changes in the social processes could not be captured, and the industry is bound to change. Furthermore, no up to date database exist of practising coaches in South Africa. This is the first study to be conducted in South Africa across different professional bodies and practice domains in an endeavour to develop a detailed profile of the South African coaching industry. The outcome of this survey has highlighted important areas for further research and will assist both the consumer of coaching services, coach training providers and coaches with a better understanding of the profile of the coaching industry by identifying where critical training needs exist.

**Contribution and value-add:** The present study contributes an in-depth investigation into the characteristics and practices of coaches in South Africa, and provides voluntary professional associations with information regarding the qualifications, training, and experience of coaches currently practising.

**Key Words:** Coaching, coaching skills, training and qualifications, coaching practices, coaching ethics, coaching as a profession
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“Quite frankly, everybody can benefit from coaching, since it provides a safe, non-threatening opportunity to access within yourself the resources and solutions that you need to create a successful future...” (Anonymous)

1.1 Introduction

The coaching industry is experiencing unprecedented growth, both locally and internationally, as is evident in considerable media coverage as well as the formation of various professional bodies that represent a diversity of coaches, coaching application domains, coaching methodologies, and training and continuous professional development opportunities (Grant, Passmore, Cavanagh, & Parker, 2010; International Coaching Federation, 2012). Although South Africa has been participating in the development of coaching globally, very little is known about the composition of the coaching industry in South Africa. The unregulated nature of coaching globally has further prompted diverse recommendations relating to the accreditation, training and standards of competence in South Africa.

Against the huge demand for coaching as a means of enhancing personal and professional development, coaching is seen as an attractive career opportunity and, therefore, individuals with a wide range of prior professional backgrounds are practising as coaches. These backgrounds include business consultancy, management, teaching, workplace training, learning and development, as well as clinical, organisational, and sport psychology, amongst
others. Each of these disciplines contribute a specific knowledge base as well as practical experience to the emerging professional discipline of coaching (Grant & Zackon, 2004). The demand for coaching and the entry from various professional backgrounds are also observed in South Africa, however, to date, has been limited published academic research (cf. ICF Survey 2012 that includes respondents from South Africa) about specific coaching practices, the coaches themselves, and the coaching industry.

Organisational and individual needs have further contributed to the popularity of and increasing demand for coaching as a means of enhancing personal and professional development (Grant & Zackon, 2004). The International Coaching Federation (ICF), a leading global organisation for coaches, has more than 4500 members in Europe and nearly 16 000 members in more than 100 countries (ICF, 2011a). “The popularity of coaching is furthermore evidenced in the array of international coaching conferences, burgeoning coach training and education programmes, and the emergent professional bodies for practitioners” (Stout-Rostron, 2009a, p.76). South Africa is no exception; coaches have a range of different bodies with which to affiliate, such as COMENSA (Coaching and Mentoring South Africa), SIOPSA (Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology), ICF, and SABPP (South African Board for People Practices). Several coaching training opportunities are also offered by different tertiary education institutions, private training providers, individual practitioners, and professional bodies.

Several international studies have reported a growing demand for coaching as a means of increasing performance, achieving results, and optimising personal effectiveness (Bachkirova, Cox & Clutterbuck, 2010). Grant and Zackon (2004) reported that coaching is also seen as an attractive career opportunity for individuals from a wide range of professional backgrounds on either a full-time or a part-time basis. In the study by Grant and Zackon (2004), these prior professional backgrounds included business consultancy (40.8%),
management (30.8%), teaching (15.7%), as well as clinical, organisational, and sport psychology (4.8%), amongst others. Spence, Cavanagh, and Grant (2006) reported that the Australian coaching industry has coaches from various backgrounds, both professional and non-professional. The position is much the same in South Africa, and it is evident that a wide range of methodological approaches and educational disciplines could potentially inform the practice of coaching.

The key focus of this study is therefore to obtain a snapshot of the current demographic and biographical profile of coaching practitioners in South Africa. In addition, the aim will be to provide a description of current coaching practices, followed by recommendations for further research to contribute to the debate on the professionalisation of coaching in South Africa.

The introductory chapter covers the background to the problem, followed by the problem statement, the aims and objectives of the study, and the proposed contribution of the study. The chapter concludes with a brief summary of the remaining chapters.

1.2. Background to the problem

Definitions of coaching vary, but are underpinned by a general view of coaching as “a collaborative relationship formed between coach and coachee for the purpose of attaining professional or personal development outcomes which are valued by the coachee” (Grant et al., 2010, p. 3). Hamlin, Ellinger, and Beattie (2009) define coaching as a helping and facilitative process that enables individuals, groups/teams, and organisations to acquire new skills, to improve existing skills, competence, and performance, and to enhance their personal effectiveness or personal development and growth. (For a detailed discussion on the knowledge base, applied context, and theoretical approaches, refer to 2.2 in Chapter 2.)
Coaching is seen as a powerful vehicle for increasing performance, achieving results, and optimising personal effectiveness (Bachkirova et al., 2010; Cavanagh & Grant, 2004; Sherman & Freas, 2004). As alluded to previously, coaching practitioners come from a wide range of professions and often from multi-theory backgrounds (Cavanagh & Grant, 2004; Grant & Zackon, 2004). Coaching is furthermore seen by several researchers as an applied field of practice that has its intellectual roots in a range of disciplines such as social psychology, learning theory, theories of human and organisational development, as well as existential and phenomenological philosophies (Bachkirova et al., 2010). Within each of these established fields of knowledge, there are various schools, traditions, and approaches containing sets of assumptions about human nature, how people grow and change, as well as how this process should be facilitated. The multiplicity of the approaches therefore enriches the knowledge base of coaching (Bachkirova, 2010; Grant & Zackon, 2004).

Several researchers refer to the popularity of coaching and that, across economic sectors, an increasing number of organisations are acquiring coaches to support their staff at different stages in their careers (cf. Cox et al., 2010).

There is, however, limited empirical evidence providing information on the composition of, as well as approaches utilised by, coaches in South Africa. In addition, the training opportunities available to coaches vary, as indicated by studies conducted by the University of Canterbury (Brooks & Wright, 2007) in New Zealand and by Whybrow and Palmer (2006) in the United Kingdom. These studies indicate that coaching training can be anything from a short course or a certificate programme to tertiary and postgraduate degrees (see 2.3 in Chapter 2 for a detailed discussion of the respective survey results).

Brennan and Prior (2005) state that several questions have been raised about the competencies and standards accepted by many in the coaching community as well as across different coaching bodies and associations. It is against this background that the current
study will obtain information across different coaching bodies and associations. Furthermore, several surveys conducted in Australia, the United Kingdom and New Zealand (Brooks & Wright, 2007; Grant & Cavanagh, 2004; Grant & Zackon, 2004; ICF, 2012; Spence et al., 2006) provide a picture of the current practices, including coaching domains and frameworks; however, there is currently limited information regarding the practices and characteristics of coaches in South Africa and informs the empirical objectives of this study.

It is further evident from the literature study (see 2.4 in Chapter 2) that coaching as a practice has been accepted, although recognition thereof as a profession still remains contentious (Lane, Stelter, & Stout Rostron, 2010). Some coaching organisations are already referring to coaching as an established profession in their attempt to define coaching. The International Coaching Federation (ICF, 2011b) describes professional coaching as partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires clients to maximise their personal and professional potential. The coach honours the client (coachee) as the expert in his/her own life and work, and believes that every client is creative, resourceful, and whole.

In reviewing the research on coaching, it is evident that the coach has the responsibility to discover, clarify, and align with what the clients wants to achieve, to encourage the clients through self-discovery, to elicit client-generated solutions and strategies, and to hold the clients responsible and accountable for their own actions (Grant et.al., 2010; ICF, 2011b). Coaches are therefore trained to listen, to observe, to advise, and to customise their approach to individual client needs. Voluntary professional bodies in the field of coaching have, furthermore, placed tremendous emphasis on the fact that coaches endeavour to elicit solutions and strategies from the client; the coach should believe that the client is naturally creative and resourceful, and that coaches should provide support to enhance the skills, resources, and creativity of the clients (ICF, 2011b; Williams, 2003).
therefore evident that a coach needs various skills in order to assist and support clients in their journey to achieving their goals (Bachkirova, 2011; Starr, 2008).

Regarding the growing popularity of coaching in South Africa, reference to an internal study by COMENSA in 2011 (COMENSA, 2012) on the position of coaching in South Africa was found; however, the research report has not yet been finalised and published, and no results are therefore in the public domain. Other international studies, such as that conducted by the ICF (2008, 2012), had participants from South Africa. The profile of South African coaches has not yet been identified, and little is known about the practices and experiences of South African coaches. The lack of empirical evidence regarding the coaching industry in South Africa is disconcerting in view of the fact that there are international calls for universal standards and the professionalisation of the coaching industry (Grant & Zackon, 2004; Grant et al., 2010; Gray, 2011).

1.3 Problem Statement

It is evident that very little is known about the identity and practices of coaches in South Africa. For the purposes of the present study, the main research question is: “What is the profile of coaches in South Africa?” In this regard, the educational background, coaching experiences, practices, and perspectives, as well as the professional affiliations and adherence to ethical codes of coaches will be explored and described.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The purpose of this study is to obtain a profile of the South African coaching industry by focusing on the characteristics and practices of South African coaches. To address the main research problem, non-empirical and empirical literature objectives were formulated for the study.
1.4.1 Literature review objectives. The primary objective of the literature review is to critically evaluate the theory and scope of research on the characteristics and practices of coaches. In addition, the literature study will address the contextual influences on the study, such as the current debate regarding the professionalisation of the coaching industry as well as the need for regulation. The following are the literature objectives (LO) of the study:

LO 1: To define coaching, and to provide an overview of the knowledge base, applied context and theoretical approaches in coaching.

LO 2: An overview of the current skills, experience, and training of coaches.

LO 3: Describing coaching practices, modes of coaching, and the use of psychometrics in coaching.

LO 4: To describe professional practice issues and the future of coaching as a profession.

1.4.2 Empirical objectives. The empirical objectives, with respective sub-objectives, of the study are:

1. To describe the current skills, experience, and training of coaches in South Africa. Specifically, this objective aims to describe:

1.1 Biographical and demographic characteristics of coaches;

1.2 Prior and current industry involvement of coaches;

1.3 Coaching experience of practising coaches;

1.4 Highest academic qualifications and highest coaching-specific qualifications;

1.5 Attendance of coaching conferences, seminars, and workshops in the past two years;

1.6 Service providers in coaching; and

1.7 Total hours of coaching training received in the past two years.
2. To explore the current coaching practices, including coaching domains and frameworks. Specifically, this objective aims to describe:

2.1 Total number of clients;
2.2 Frequency and duration of coaching sessions;
2.3 Modes of coaching;
2.4 Approaches and frameworks of coaching;
2.5 Areas of coaching specialisation;
2.6 Frequency of the utilisation of psychometric instruments; and
2.7 Main reasons for clients seeking coaching.

3. To explore the ethical and professional affiliations of coaches currently practising in South Africa. Specifically, this objective aims to describe:

3.1 Membership of professional bodies;
3.2 Importance of adherence to ethical codes;
3.3 Codes of ethics being adhered to; and
3.4 Importance of supervision and continuous professional and self-development.

In order to achieve the empirical objectives, a quantitative, cross-sectional design will be adopted, utilising a web-based survey based on a questionnaire that has been adapted from international surveys (see Chapter 3 for a detailed discussion of the research design, the sample, as well as the survey instrument utilised).

In the following section, the proposed theoretical and practical contributions of the study will be discussed.
1.5 Theoretical and practical contributions of the study

The theoretical contribution of the present study lies in the fact that it is the first reported in-depth investigation of the characteristics and practices of coaches in South Africa across different professional bodies. This survey will be undertaken regularly to track trends over time. In addition, the study will contribute to the current body of knowledge on proposed competencies and standards, and will furthermore facilitate the comparison of the profile of coaching professionals in South Africa with those in other countries.

The practical contribution of this study is that it will provide voluntary professional associations with information regarding the qualifications, training, and experience of practising coaches in South Africa, which will inform their continuous development activities and professional standards. Furthermore, it will inform the debate on the call for universal standards and best practice guidelines. Finally, it is expected that the survey will make a contribution to the current debate informing the development of a regulatory framework in South Africa.

1.6 Conclusion

Chapter 1 provided the background of the study, the research question, as well as the empirical and non-empirical literature objectives of the study, followed by the anticipated contribution of this study to the theory and practice of coaching in South Africa. The study will primarily explore and describe the profile of coaches in South Africa. The following section will provide a brief outline of the different chapters to follow.
1.7 An Outline of the Structure of the Manuscript

A literature review, provided in Chapter 2, will be conducted to give more detail and meaning to current coaching practices reported globally, with specific reference to the debates regarding coaching as profession in general. How these factors influence coaching in South Africa will be highlighted and thereafter unpacked and investigated. A description of the research design, research approach, and research methodology will be discussed in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, the research results will be presented, followed by an in-depth discussion of the findings in collaboration with existing literature, in Chapter 5. In Chapter 6, limitations of the current study and recommendations for future research will be considered.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE STUDY

Coaching is going through the birth pangs of becoming a recognised profession and as such is tussling with questions of definition, competency requirements, ethics and regulation.

(Maxwell, 2009, p. 159)

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 provided the background, research questions, and the literature and empirical research objectives of the study. Chapter 1 alluded to the fact that the coaching industry is experiencing unprecedented growth, both locally and internationally, but that little is known about the coaching industry in South Africa. The main objective of this study is therefore to obtain a profile of coaches in South Africa. The purpose of Chapter 2 is to provide a theoretical framework with which to address the empirical research objectives stated in Chapter 1 (exploring the literature objectives posed in 1.4.2). Chapter 2 is concluded with a synthesis of the chapter and a brief indication of the main focus of Chapter 3.

2.2 LO 1: To define coaching and provide an overview of the knowledge base and applied context of, as well as the theoretical approaches to coaching

Literature Objective 1 is aimed at exploring and explaining the development of coaching, the different approaches to coaching, as well as the differences between managing, leading, mentoring, coaching, counselling, and therapy. Furthermore, the concept of coaching psychology will be introduced, as well as the reason why people seek coaching.
The development of coaching

Tracing the history of coaching, Bachkirova, et al. (2010, p. 2) indicate that “the meaning of a coach as an instructor was purportedly used in the 1830s, when it was a slang term at the Oxford University for a tutor who ‘carried’ a student through the exam.” The term was also applied in the 1800s to describe a person who improved the performance of athletes. In the twentieth century, coaching found its way into the workplace, where it was associated with a specific process of education for young recruits. The concept of coaching has since grown into many models and approaches based upon a foundation of research and different theories (Bachkirova et al., 2010; Grant et al., 2000). Thus, the meaning of the term ‘coaching’ has changed over time, although the focus has remained on the support and guidance of the individual.

Like many other emerging disciplines, coaching has struggled with problems of definition. Drake (2008) describes coaching as a discipline at a developmental cross-road, flourishing, yet somehow restless about its next step. Grant et al. (2010) explain the coaching process as facilitating goal attainment by helping individuals to identify desired outcomes, establish specific goals, enhance motivation by identifying strengths and building self-efficacy, identifying resources and formulating specific action plans, monitoring and evaluating progress towards goals, as well as modifying action plans based on feedback. Coaching can therefore be seen as a broadly applied human change methodology. In this regard, Grant and Zackon (2004, p. 13) assert that professional coaching is “a dynamic and vibrant emerging discipline with a distinct flavour and methodologies of its own.” The creation of a unique identity for coaching is still unresolved, but to describe coaching as “a human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate tools, techniques and strategies to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and potentially other stakeholders” can be seen as a good definition.
in progress (Bachkirova et al., 2010). Grey (2011) refers to coaching as an emerging occupation. Coaching is thus an intentional process of applying various skills, tools, strategies, and techniques to address specifically identified objectives in order to enhance the general function and performance of the individual.

* Differences between coaching, managing, training, mentoring, counselling, and therapy *

Given the variety of definitions of coaching, confusion exists amongst the use of coaching services and the boundaries between coaching, managing, training, mentoring, counselling, and therapy can sometimes become blurred. Booysen (2009) refers to managing as a process to bring order and consistency to daily operations, consisting of implementing the vision and strategy provided by leaders. Training refers to “the structured teaching of skills, processes and competencies. This is usually done in small groups” (Standards Australia, n.d., p.12). Mentoring is often associated with ‘expert’ knowledge sharing and advice giving that is strongly job-related (Garvey, 2010), and shares many of the same practices, applications, and values of coaching. Differentiation between mentoring and coaching is therefore difficult, and will ultimately rely on sector- or organisation-specific preferences, rather than a differentiation between the goals or tasks.

The differentiation between therapy/counselling and coaching is important as there appears to be an increasing use of psychological models and approaches in coaching interventions. In this regard, Maxwell (2009) refers to counselling and therapy as the provision of supportive psychological services in response to personal or performance difficulties or crises. The focus is on the restoration of health (personal healing), wellbeing, and the capacity to perform. One of the key differences between coaching and therapy is that coaching deals with non-clinical populations, whereas therapy is designed to address the needs of people suffering from a diagnosable clinical disorder such as depression and anxiety. Developmental and remedial issues are also addressed through therapy. Therapists and
counsellors are typically highly trained and regulated by codes of ethics and professional bodies, and practise continuous professional development based on underlying theory (Maxwell, 2009). It can therefore be concluded that coaching focuses on the enhancement and well-being of individuals and thereby functioning on the opposite end of the wellness continuum and there will therefore be nuance differences between the focus of each of the above-mentioned terminologies.

Also found in the literature review are several references to coaching psychology, which can be defined as “the systematic application of behavioural science to the enhancement of life experience, work performance, and well-being for individuals, groups and organisations who do not have clinically significant mental health issues or abnormal levels of distress” (Grant, 2006, p. 12). In South Africa, the drive to professionalise coaching was largely initiated by the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology of South Africa (SIOPSA) and, specifically, the Interest Group of Coaching and Consulting Psychology South Africa (IGCCP SA). Coaching psychology is defined in South Africa as the conversational process of creating enhanced functioning, optimising potential, and effecting change in work and life domains. This process is action-orientated and measureable, and uses established and positive psychological principles and theory at an individual, group, organisational, and community level within a multi-cultural context (Odendaal & Le Roux, 2011). To this end, coaching psychology deals fundamentally with the well-being and enhancement of individuals and organisations, and is grounded in psychology principles.

2.2.1 Theoretical approaches to coaching. There are various theories and approaches to coaching, and each of these approaches is distinct and offers a unique possibility for the coach. Examples of coaching approaches are: humanist, behaviourist, adult development, cognitive, goal-focused, positive-psychology, adventure, adult learning,
and systematic coaching (Bachkirova et al., 2010; Ives, 2008; Standards Australia, (n.d.); Whybrow & Palmer, 2006).

Ives (2008, p.103) states that, with a few exceptions, the following features are common to a range of coaching approaches: “It is a systematic process designed to facilitate development (change), whether cognitive, emotional or behavioural which is individualised and tailor-made and aims to encourage coachees to assume change in their lives.” He adds that coaching is designed to access the knowledge, experiences, and intuition of the client, and to focus on the achievement of a clearly stated goal, rather than problem analysis. Thus, theoretical approaches in coaching appear to be eclectic in nature, allowing the coach to draw from an array of approaches, with the objective of empowering the individual holistically.

Knowledge and competencies related to coaching

Competencies refer to the set of abilities needed by a coach to meet the various demands of the coaching engagement in a satisfactory manner, and include both knowledge and skills. Competencies also involve the life experience, broad contextual knowledge, and personal maturity needed to effectively shape the application of that knowledge and skill in the service of the clients within their specific context (Standards Australia, n.d.). Knowledge is required to understand the task at hand and structure an appropriate response or action plan. Skills are required to effectively implement the course of action. In terms of the coaching competencies needed, Stober (2010, p. 411) states that the ICF, EMCC (European Mentoring and Coaching Council), and WABC (Worldwide Association of Business Coaches) have listed competencies that are linked to their credentialing criteria. Commonalities among the various competency descriptions are as follows:

- Ethical standards that promote “do no harm” and respect for the coachee;
- Effective establishment of the coaching relationship and its boundaries, including building trust, rapport, and effective communication;
Effective promotion of growth and change for the coachee including awareness, reaching goals, and leveraging strengths; and

Continuing education and skills development by the coach linked to the area of practice within coaching (e.g., life, business, or executive coaching).

Currently, no clear coaching standards exist, and coaching is still unregulated. The critical coaching competencies and skills will be determined by the type of coaching.

Bachkirova et al. (2010, p. 5) state that four dimensions exist to illustrate how the “different theoretical approaches and traditions are utilised in coaching, and that these dimensions are essential perspectives and important to take into account if any phenomenon or event that involves human change is to be understood.” Figure 2.1 shows into which quadrant the various theoretical traditions applied to coaching are placed, as well as their main influence (Bachkirova et al., 2010).

![Diagram of four dimensions of coaching](image)

*Figure 2.1* Four dimensions of coaching

(Wilber, 2000, as adapted by Bachkirova et al., 2010)
As can be seen from Figure 2.1, Bachkirova et al. (2010) refer to the first quadrant as ‘I,’ representing a first person perspective on the coaching process, where the coach and coachee describe individual experiences, events, or processes of both parties involved. The psychodynamic, cognitive behavioural, and person-centred approaches are typical in this quadrant. The second quadrant refers to the ‘We,’ which represents a second person perspective that emphasises the relationship between the coach and the coachee – how events and experiences are interpreted, the role of language, and the historical and cultural perspectives that have an impact on their interactions. The third quadrant, ‘It,’ refers to more tangible elements in the coaching process that can be observed by a third party and even measured, if necessary. Coaching approaches in this quadrant tend to rely on outcomes studies of coaching, and include effective techniques that can be reliably used in coaching interactions. ‘Its’ refers to the systems that are present as a background and an influencing force on the coaching process, such as sponsoring organisations and other social and professional groups. Armstrong, Matthews, and McFarlane (2006) are of the view that Wilber’s model describes the coaching endeavour as a holistic, integrated, and multi-dimensional activity; it is a map of the landscape that conveys the complexity of the coaching endeavour. The global popularity and application of the different approaches were discussed in par. 2.2.1.

**Major types of coaching outcomes**

Grant and Cavanagh (2004), Grant et al. (2010), Hawkins and Smith (2010), Standards Australia (n.d.), as well as Witherspoon and White (1998), distinguish between four major types of coaching: skills, performance, developmental, and transformational coaching. These types of coaching are displayed as the coaching continuum in Figure 2.2.
Skills coaching refer to coaching that is aimed at developing or improving basic work-related skills. The use of this method is usually determined by identified skills requirements of an organisation (Grant et al., 2010). The purpose of skills coaching is to build capacity, rather than to achieve particular work-related targets, and may be conducted as a stand-alone intervention or as a sub-set of a wider coaching intervention. According to Witherspoon and White (1998), performance coaching refers to competencies and characteristics that contribute to a current job or role. It usually takes place over an extended period. Coaching sessions often address one or more core competencies for an executive’s current success. Grant et al. (2010) and Whitmore (2009) add that coaching is aimed at improving the coachee’s ability to achieve work-related goals, such as specific metric-based organisational outcomes within a specific time frame. Therefore, performance coaching is often driven by the output needs of the person’s role within the organisation. It typically involves the articulation of desired levels of performance and pathways to achieve these goals, and also addresses cognitive, behavioural, and environmental blocks to performance (Standards Australia, n.d.).

Developmental coaching is aimed at developing increasingly complex levels of self-awareness, emotional regulation, and the cognitive understanding as the foundation of decision-making and action, i.e. the individual’s personal and professional development (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004). It is aimed at enhancing the coachee’s ability to meet current and future challenges more effectively via the development of a more complex understanding of the self, others, and the systems in which the coachee is involved (Standards Australia, n.d.).
Transformational coaching “enables coachees to create fundamental shifts in their capacity through their way of thinking, feeling and behaving in relation to others” (Hawkins & Smith, 2010, p. 231). It requires the coachee to have an active agenda of transformation and an active need to change. Therefore, transformational coaching is an attitude based on a core belief that change starts within oneself, in the here and now.

To link these outcomes to theoretical approaches in coaching is complicated by the multi-disciplinary roots of coaching, but, overall, skills coaching and performance coaching “draw heavily upon the work of adult-learning theorists and growth-fostering psychologists” (Tschannen-Moran, 201, p. 212). Developmental coaching is “multi-theoretically grounded, e.g. person-centred, cognitive-behavioural, narrative and cognitive-developmental” (Cox & Jackson, 2010, p. 226), but “it is however limiting not to have an over-arching theory to guide its practice” (Cox & Jackson, 2010, p. 228). Transformational coaching draws on a number of key theories and methodologies, namely psychodrama, gestalt psychology, Gendlin’s focusing, systemic family therapy, and levels of learning (Hawkins & Smith, 2010).

One of the most appealing features of coaching, both for coaches and those who use coaching, is its ability to adapt to the needs of the present moment and develop creative and innovative client-focused solutions (Standards Australia, n.d.). The purpose of the intervention will influence the approach utilised, as well the process of implementation. Furthermore, the main competency needed to be a good coach seems to be a positive attitude towards the enhancement of the coachee.

As mentioned previously, many theoretical approaches exist in the coaching fraternity, due to the multi-disciplinary roots of coaching. In order to provide some structure, Cavanagh and Grant (2006) differentiate between the different types of coaching in terms of the context in which the coaching takes place, the content of the coaching conversation, the
The consequences of success or failure of the coaching engagement, and the client. Table 2.1 provides an example of the application of context, content, consequences, and the client.

Table 2.1

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<th>Context</th>
<th>Business Coaching</th>
<th>Workplace Coaching</th>
<th>Life Coaching</th>
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<td>Business Coaching</td>
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<td>Workplace Coaching</td>
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<td>Guided by client’s</td>
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<td>and organisation’s</td>
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(Cavanagh & Grant, 2006; Cox et al., 2010; Palmer & Whybrow, 2006; Whitmore, 2009)

The consequences of failure within the different coaching contexts can be: loss of income and job security, and even relationship deterioration. The contents of the different types of coaching can be similar, i.e. work, life, or relationship issues. With regard to context, workplace and executive coaching tend to take place within a work-related context.

2.2.2 Why do people obtain the service of a coach? Clients have different reasons for seeking coaching. The most common reasons, as found by Spence et al. (2006), are related to career or business, relationships or interpersonal, life directing or goal setting, work/life balance, mental health, and financial and health and fitness issues. Whybrow and
Palmer (2006) found similar results in their research; clients seek guidance in terms of their role as executives, their personal life, business, performance, leadership, career, teamwork, mentoring, health, and sports. Starr (2008) states that people obtain the services of a coach because they want to improve their situation and achieve certain goals; they want to learn new ways of thinking and alternative approaches in order to get better results. On the other hand, irrespective of the reason for seeking coaching, for any change or development to be achieved, the client needs to have a desire to achieve the set goals, and to stretch and develop his/her current capacity or performance. In South Africa, there is no literature or research studies available on why people seek the services of coaches.

In addition to seeking coaching for their own personal development, employees are often required by their employing organisations to seek coaching. In this regard, Hawkins (2008) explored one of the challenges facing the growing coaching industry: ensuring that the coach meets not only the needs of the employing organisation, but also those of the coachee. Furthermore, Hawkins (2008) adds that organisational executives are increasingly asking for evidence that the coaching investment is not only serving the development and improved performance of the individual, but also that it has an identifiable benefit for the organisation.

To conclude, it seems that coaching has a long and interesting history, and that individuals seek coaching when they have a desire to change and become a better developed individual. There are different types of knowledge and competencies that a coach should acquire in order to be successful. The differences between managing, mentoring, counselling, therapy, and coaching psychology as different tools for assistance were highlighted. Examples of different approaches to coaching were also mentioned to highlight the different outcomes of coaching. Literature objective 1 was hereby achieved. The current skills, experience, and training of coaches in Literature Objective 2 will be further expanded to enable the researcher to achieve the objectives of the study.
2.3 LO 2: To provide an overview of the current skills, experience, and training of coaches

In the following section, research conducted on coaching by the Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) of the British Psychological Society (BPS) (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006), The Interest Group in Coaching Psychology (IGCP) of the Australian Psychological Society (APS) (Spence et al., 2006), the University of Canterbury (UC) in New Zealand (Brooks & Wright, 2007), as well as the results from the South African sample of the ICF Global Study 2012 (ICF, 2012) will be reviewed, as it informed the proposed South African study, and will be discussed under the following headings: Coaching demographics and qualifications (current skills and experience), and coaching training and qualifications: registration, regulation, accreditation.

Other studies that informed the South African study include the Sherpa Executive Coaching: 2011 Executive Coaching Survey, which focused mainly on executive coaching (Sherpa Coaching, 2011), and the Frank Bresser Consulting Report: Global Coaching Survey 2008/2009 (2009), which focused on business coaching. These different surveys focused on the industry sectors represented in coaching, the percentage of time spent working as a coach, the focus of the coaching practice, training requirements of coaches, experience required of coaches, professional and ethical affiliations, views on supervision of coaches, the different coaching approaches used, as well as activities for continuous professional development (CPD).

Coach demographics and qualifications (current skills and experience)

Demographically, the ratio of male (52.5%) to female (47.5%) respondents in New Zealand was almost 1:1 (Brooks & Wright, 2007), whereas the Australian sample consisted of 110 women (74%) and 38 men (26%) (Spence et al., 2006). According to the ICF Global Coaching Study (2012), South African coaches are distributed 64.1% women and 35.9%
men, with 39.7% being in the 36 to 45 years age group, and 37.5% in the 46 to 55 years age group (ICF, 2012). The New Zealand study found that coaches were, on average, 48 years old, and none were under 25 years of age (Brooks & Wright, 2007). The Australian sample had a mean age of 43.5 years (Spence et al., 2006). From the above, it can be concluded that, internationally, the majority of coaches are in their mid-40s, but are at least 25 years of age, and that more women than men practise as coaches. It is evident from the demographics that the South African sample is similar in differentiation between male and female as the Australian sample.

According to Brooks and Wright (2007), most of the coaches in New Zealand have a university qualification (81.4%), although mostly in commerce. Only 33.9% of the sample had a master’s degree in business or social sciences and 3.4% had a doctoral degree. Furthermore, it was found that 78% of respondents had completed some form of coaching-related training in the form of short courses, certificates, in-house training, or Internet courses in professional development or coaching (Brooks & Wright, 2007). According to Whybrow and Palmer (2006), respondents in the UK were of the opinion that coaches should be equipped with at least a degree. They were further of the view that academic qualifications were not sufficient, but that experiential and practice-focused qualifications were also necessary.

The Australian study revealed that over 90% of the coaches had completed some form of training, including training with a coach training school (62%) and tertiary studies (20%) in a coaching related field, such as psychology or social work (Spence et al., 2006). Only 5% reported having no coaching-specific qualification. Respondents reported on their background experience that could broadly be defined as ‘coaching,’ as these experiences either developed or broadened core coaching skills. These included training (57%), consulting 41%, and counselling (48%) (Spence et al., 2006). In addition, the ICF Global
coaching study (2012) indicated that 40.8% of coaches held a qualification equivalent to a Bachelor’s degree, and 44.0% held a qualification equivalent to a Master's degree or PhD. The study did not indicate the specialisation fields of the qualifications. Therefore, it can be concluded that coaches have some form of coaching training, as well as a university qualification. It is interesting to note that the UK study reported that academic qualifications are not to be considered sufficient, and that experiential and practically focused qualifications are also necessary.

Coaching training and qualifications: regulation, certification, accreditation

The most prominent current debate is whether coach training should be accredited, regulated, and certified in order to protect the purchaser of coaching against exploitation. This forms part of the “do not harm” principle that many coaches voluntarily adhere to.

According to Sherpa (2011), privately owned schools were traditionally favoured by executive coaches who wished to be trained and certified; however, as university programmes became part of the coaching education, the majority of new coaches seek university training, as university qualifications are regulated and accredited. Although coaching qualifications are not nationally or internationally regulated, 70% of coaches view training and certification as an absolute necessity (Sherpa, 2011).

The South African Qualifications Authority is the body responsible for overseeing the development and implementation of the National Qualifications Framework. Within the South African context, all qualifications should be registered in terms of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) – a comprehensive system approved by the Minister of Higher Education and Training for the classification, registration, publication, and articulation of quality-assured national qualifications. The NQF was established under the South African Quality Assurance Act (Act 58 of 1995) and continues under the NQF Act (Act 67 of 2008), which came into effect on 1 June 2009. Although the type of regulation,
accreditation, and certification of coaching qualifications are not the focus of the present study, the roles of SAQA and the NQF are mentioned, as these bodies ensure desirable qualifications standards in South Africa, which are regulated by law. This is an area that requires further exploration in future research.

According to SAQA (2011), accreditation means “the certification, usually for a particular period of time, of a person, a body or an institution as having the capacity to fulfil a particular function within the quality assurance system set up by SAQA, in terms of the SAQA Act (Act 58 of 1995),” while registration refers to qualifications that are officially recorded in terms of the National Qualifications Framework (SAQA, 2011).

In the South African context, a professional body means “a statutory body registered in terms of the legislation applicable to such bodies, or a voluntary body performing the functions contemplated in the legislation for such bodies but not registered as such” (SAQA, 2011). The most prominent voluntary coaching bodies operating in South Africa are COMENSA, SIOPSA, and the SABPP.

Globally, accreditation of coaches is controversial, as much of the coaching training industry appears to strive for credibility, status, and accreditation (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004). Some coach training organisations seem to be no more than ‘credentialing mills,’ and the true value of these certifications is questionable. Furthermore, the public is not well informed about the value of psychology qualifications, let alone coaching qualifications and the different certifications attached to these qualifications, such as a ‘master coach,’ and may therefore rely on impressive titles to guide them in selecting a coach. On the other hand, trainee coaches may be led to believe that certificates awarded by self-appointed ‘certification boards’ are a guarantee of solid professional training. It seems that any training institution or body can underwrite and lend credence to a qualification due to the unregulated nature of the coaching industry. This has led to some of the larger coaching organisations, such as the
EMCC and the ICF, putting significant effort into establishing credentialing processes and specifying required coaching competencies, both for individuals and the industry (Grant et al., 2010).

Literature Objective 2 provided background on the current skills, experience, and training of coaches by specifically referring to studies conducted in the United Kingdom (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006), Australia (Spence et al., 2006), New Zealand (Brooks & Wright, 2007), as well as the South African sample of the 2012 ICF Global Coaching Study (ICF, 2012).

From the above it can be concluded that, internationally, coaches are in their mid-40s, and that there are more female than male coaches. Coaches have some form of coaching training, as well as a university qualification. The UK study reported that academic qualifications are not sufficient, and that experiential and practically-focused qualifications are also necessary. The current debate on whether coach training should be registered, accredited, and certified in order to protect the purchaser of coaching against exploitation was mentioned. In the South African context, SAQA is responsible for overseeing the development and implementation of the NQF. Globally, accreditation of coaches is controversial, as the coaching training industry appears to have a need for credibility, status, and accreditation. It was also noted that coaching is currently reliant on self-regulation through various professional bodies (e.g., SIOPSA, ICF, EMCC, COMENSA, and WABC). Literature Objective 2 was hereby achieved.

2.4 LO 3: To describe coaching practices, modes of coaching, and the use of psychometrics in coaching

This section explores the current coaching processes and practices (reported combined), as well as the modes of coaching, as reported by the different studies mentioned
in 2.3. Psychometrics in coaching will also be discussed in order to shed light on the use of such instruments in coaching.

**2.4.1 Coaching practices.** In terms of current coaching practices, the New Zealand study found that coaches typically operate within the city in which they are located (only 5.1% reported working in multiple locations), with word-of-mouth as the primary source of marketing for most respondents (Brooks & Wright, 2007). The Australian study found that 56% of coaches coach from home, 16% coach from work, 13% operate from a rented office, and 15% coach from the clients' offices. The sample of this study was located mainly on Australia’s eastern seaboard, and can therefore not be viewed as representative of all coaches in Australia (Spence et al., 2006).

On average, New Zealand coaches see their clients 2.7 times per month, with only 5.1% providing more than 40 coaching sessions per month. This indicates that, for the vast majority, coaching is not a full-time activity. The duration of each coaching session is between 50 and 60 minutes, and 32.25% of coaches work with a client for between one to three months (Brooks & Wright, 2007). The Australian research showed that 26% of coaches coach a total of more than 50 clients, and 38% reported that their total coaching experience amounts to more than 200 hours, but 70% reported that they coach for less than 10 hours per week (Spence et al., 2006). The average length of a coaching engagement in the South African sample of the 2012 ICF Global Coaching Study is between 7 and 12 months (ICF, 2012). The study did not specify the number of sessions, but the number of coaching sessions had increased by 53.5% in the past 12 month, and 83.4% of coaches expected that the number of clients would increase in the next 12 months (ICF 2012).

*Career development and stages*

Another important factor in a coaching practice is the career- or life stage from which the coach operates. According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2006, p. 154), a life- and career
stage can be defined as the “typical physical, cognitive, psychosocial development and psychological needs, life tasks and challenges particular to an individual in the early-life/early-career stage (25 – 45 age group), the mid-life/mid-career stage (45 – 65 age group) and late-life/late-career stage (65 years and older).” In this regard, the 2012 Global ICF study revealed that 39.7% of coaches are between 36 and 45 years of age, and 37.5% are between 46 to 55 years and are therefore almost equally distributed between the early-career/life and mid-career life stages. While 23.9% of these coaches had been practising for 3 to 4 years, 41.3% had been coaching for only 5 to 10. Only 17.9% revealed that they are new to the field, and had been coaching for 1 to 2 years.

*Industries represented in coaching, including full-time vs. part-time coaching*

According to the Australian study, the industry most represented was Consulting (24%), followed by Human Resources and Counselling/Psychology (both 14%) (Spence et al., 2006). In the New Zealand study, the majority of respondents had backgrounds in management roles (67.8%), followed by professional services/consultancy (28.8%) and human services (15.3%) (Brooks & Wright, 2007). These respondents included former or current directors, CEOs, HR practitioners, psychologists, counsellors, and lawyers, to mention but a few. The richness of this variety of occupations can be a strength, but it can still be argued that additional, good quality training of sufficient duration and intensity in order to create competent coaches is needed. In New Zealand, the preferred path to coaching is through management and consulting, which might be problematic as these individuals lack comprehensive training in micro-skills coaching and the theories of human behaviour that underpin coaching (Brooks & Wright, 2007). It could be argued that many managers/consultants left the corporate environment for a career in coaching in order to change their lifestyle. The obvious attractions of a career in coaching are: very little capital investment is needed, no formal qualifications are required, coaches can draw on previous
experience, and because work is available incrementally, one’s workload can be managed more easily than is possible in a large, project-based consultancy practice.

Brooks and Wright (2007) reported that 58% of coaches in New Zealand view coaching as their main occupation. The New Zealand study found that the majority of coaches are in full-time self-employment (66.1%), with the balance in full-time employment, part-time or mixed employment/self-employment (Brooks & Wright, 2007). According to the UK study, 13.9% of coaching psychologists spend up to 50% of their time coaching, while 11.9% work as a full-time coach, and 48.6% work as a part-time coach. Furthermore, it was reported that interest in coaching psychology across other areas of applied psychology was evident and increasing (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). Although the specific number of active clients was not stated, the ICF Global Coaching Study (ICF, 2012) reported an increase of 59.7% in the number of clients in South Africa.

2.4.2 Modes of coaching. In Australia, the most popular form of coaching is face-to-face coaching (36%), with only 12% of respondents reporting coaching via telephone (Spence et al., 2006). Brooks and Wright (2007) report that coaching in New Zealand is primarily done in person (67.8%), with meetings taking place either at the coaches’ offices or the coachees' premises, 57.6% takes place telephonically, and 22% of respondents reported coaching via e-mail. The South African 2012 ICF Global Coaching study showed that 90.8% of respondents practise face-to-face coaching, while 4.9% make use of Internet/audio-video platforms to coach (ICF, 2012).

Areas of specialisation in coaching

Various coaches reported having areas of specialisation in their coaching practices. In the Australian study, 55% coaches confirmed having a specific area of specialisation; of these, 71% reported an interest in executive and corporate coaching, with the remaining 29% reporting that they prefer a life/personal orientation. 45% of the respondents did not report an
area of specialisation, and viewed themselves as generalists, i.e. coaching in multiple domains across a broad range of issues (Spence et al., 2006). According to the New Zealand study, the majority of coaches (88.1%) are involved in leadership development coaching, followed by business strategy coaching (59.3%), and business start-up coaching (50.8%); other areas include marketing, sales, finance, life coaching, career coaching, sports coaching, and team development coaching. About two-thirds of the respondents reported coaching actively in two or more areas (Brooks & Wright, 2007). The South African participants in the 2012 ICF Global Coaching Study (ICF, 2012) offer mainly the following services: consulting (59.6%), mentoring (45.9%), and training (55.2%); 31.1% focus on leadership development, 17.5% offer coaching related to business or organisations, 16.9% focus on executive coaching, and 10.9% focus on coaching related to life vision and enhancement.

2.4.3 Psychometric assessments in coaching. “Psychometrics can make an effective contribution to any coaching relationship, if, like a good seasoning, they are used sparingly and with care” (McDowall & Kurz, 2007, p. 299). In the literature on the use of psychometrics in coaching, several references are made to the use of psychology tools (cf. Palmer & Whybrow, 2008). It is therefore important to define what is meant by a psychometric instrument versus a psychological measure. In this regard, Foxcroft and Roodt (2009) state that a psychometric instrument is developed according to psychometric test theory, follows specific procedures during development, and adheres to specific quality standards such as:

- **Reliability**: whether a measure is consistent across time, people, and different applications. (Reliability is a pre-requisite for validity.)
- **Validity**: whether a measure actually measures what is says it does.
- “Reliability is about getting the test right; validity is about getting the right test” (Allworth & Passmore, 2009).
- Freedom from bias: a test should produce consistent results for everyone.
- Standardisation: the test is administered and used under standardised conditions and interpreted in a standardised way. Standardisation also refers to standardised procedures when administering, scoring, and interpreting a test, and that the same procedure should be applied in each and every situation and for every test taker, in order to minimise human error and situational influences.

A psychological test is therefore a psychometric test that measures a psychological construct. In the South African context, “…the use of a psychometric measuring device, test, questionnaire, technique or instrument that assesses intellectual or cognitive ability or functioning, aptitude, interest, personality is constituted as being a psychological act,” and only registered categories of psychology practitioners are permitted to perform such an act (Health Professions Act 56 of 1974, Section 37, repealed and replaced by Regulation 2 (a) to (i) - R993/31433). The classification of psychological measures in South Africa is conducted by the Psychometrics committee of the Professional Board of Psychology of the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA). There are, furthermore, clear regulatory, ethical, and professional best practice guidelines regarding the use of psychological measures.

For the purposes of the present study, is it important to indicate that coaches have an expanding range of psychological assessment tools from which they can choose to assist coachees in building the self-awareness that is necessary to identify new career and life goals, and to ensure performance at work (Allworth & Passmore, 2009). Psychological tests used appropriately can therefore be useful for coaches to support their clients in building awareness through understanding and self-awareness. International literature further emphasises the importance of coaches being aware of the legal and ethical requirements that have an impact on the use of tests in coaching in different parts of the world (Allworth &
Passmore, 2009; Grant et al., 2006; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007). Test users should therefore ensure that they are knowledgeable about the legal and ethical requirements for administering, scoring, and interpreting tests, and should adhere to those requirements. (For a detailed discussion regarding the challenges and misconceptions regarding the use of psychometrics in coaching, see McDowall & Kurz, 2007.)

According to Allworth and Passmore (2009) and Palmer and Whybrow (2007), the attributes of an individual that are most commonly of interest in the coaching context are: personality, career interests, values, motivational needs, and cognitive ability. In this regard, the Sherpa Executive Coaching Survey (2011) reported that over 95% of coaches make use of assessments to measure opinions, personality, communication styles, and leadership strengths and weaknesses. Depending on the context, purpose and referral question, psychological tests can typically be used in two ways in coaching, namely to measure an individual attribute or set of attributes in a person (a profiling approach where the emphasis is on building awareness and understanding), and to predict a certain outcome (a criterion-orientated approach where consideration is given to the job and the organisational context). There is currently no empirical evidence available regarding the application and use of psychometrics in coaching in South Africa, and further research is therefore required.

In terms of Literature Objective 3 (Exploring the current coaching practices), it is evident that, although coaching practices differ across the world, there are also clear similarities. These similarities include that coaching practitioners come from professional backgrounds, and face-to-face coaching is still the most popular, although the practice of telephonic coaching is rapidly gaining popularity. Some coaches have niche areas of specialisation, such as leadership, executive, or life coaching, while other coaches are generalists. The utilisation of psychometric instruments in coaching seems to be beneficial, if applied correctly, although a lot of uncertainty and misconceptions still exist regarding the
use of these instruments. It can therefore be concluded that coaching practices and processes are not yet standardised, and that a lot of dialogue is necessary to create a format that is acceptable to all coaches. Literature Objective 3 was hereby achieved.

2.5 LO 4: To describe professional practice issues and the future of coaching as a profession

In the following section, the definitions and descriptions of a profession, ethics, CPD, and supervision will be explored. The mental health challenge posed to coaches will be discussed and, where applicable, reference will be made to research conducted (refer to 2.3) to illustrate where coaching currently stands in terms of all these concepts.

2.5.1 What is a profession? The escalating demand for coaching has motivated coaching practitioners, consumers, and educators of coaches to advocate the professionalisation of the industry to ensure the quality, effectiveness, and ethical integrity of coaching services (Rostron, 2009). Coaching as an occupation is now widely accepted, although its recognition as a profession remains contentious (Lane et al., 2010).

Gray (2011) states that a profession is based upon a common body of knowledge, theory, and skills that is not generally known to the public, and is based on scientific research that is unique to that profession. Therefore, a professional is someone who possesses knowledge (theoretical and practical) about a particular field, usually based upon specialised intellectual study and training. According to Gray (2011), knowledge does not have to be based upon one discipline – professionals tend to be quite eclectic; however, having a broad knowledge base, though necessary, is not sufficient to being a professional. In light of this, in the traditional sense, it might be a never-ending path to establish coaching as a profession. It might be more fruitful to state that coaching has some of its roots in different disciplines and professions, for example psychology, organisational systems, social work, education, and
counselling (Gray, 2011), and that coaching expertise is further enhanced by vocational training and further education in the field of coaching through institutions of higher education, coaching training bodies, and in-house courses that ensure that the training received is based on research and a high degree of theoretical and empirical evidence (Lane et al., 2010). A growing awareness of the potential benefits of obtaining professional status to the coaching industry has led to participation in international dialogues, such as the Global Convention on Coaching (GCC) and the International Coaching Research Forum (ICRF) (GCC, 2008).

Criteria for professional status

Grant and Cavanagh, (2004) are of the view that the coaching industry is far from meeting the basic requirements of a true profession; they do, however, not deny that coaches are operating in a professional manner (refer to the discussion regarding coaching as profession or an occupation). Bennett (2006, p. 241-242) is of the view that the advantage of any discipline being considered a profession is legitimacy and recognition of the quality of the work performed by those practising the trade. Bennet (2006) reviewed the literature and summarised the criteria that will enable coaching to be considered a profession. The following criteria are in agreement with those stated by Grant and Cavanagh (2004), Spence (2007), as well as Gray (2011):

1. Identifiable and distinct skills – i.e. skills that are widely accepted as required for the performance of skilled coaching;

2. Education and training required – e.g., the minimum initial and on-going training required to coach, generally accepted competencies required for coaches, and means of assessing competence;

3. Recognition from outside the coaching community as a profession – i.e., recognition by other, established professions, including government classification as a profession;
4. A code of ethics for coaches that is defined, implemented, monitored, and effectively enforced by a governing body, making coaching a self-disciplined industry;

5. Public service by coaches that is motivated by altruism rather than financial gain;

6. Formalised organisation, i.e. a widely accepted and established professional association(s) representing the profession and those practising coaching;

7. Evaluation of merit (credentialing) and self-regulation of service – for example, the definition of accepted requirements for coaches, systems for assessing competence, systems for monitoring and regulating service delivery by coaches, and mechanisms for encouraging thought and discussion about the practice of coaching;

8. An established community of practitioners – e.g., different forums where coaches can network and exchange ideas on coaching, as well as publications supporting the community of practitioners;

9. Status of membership in the profession, which entails recognition of coaches by their clients and the general public as members of a profession;

10. Public recognition that coaching is a distinct and established profession; and

11. A knowledge base that is founded in theoretical and factual research and knowledge, with a defined body of knowledge, a defined theoretical foundation, and on-going, evidence-based theoretical and practical research.

Adding to the above criteria of a profession, the Dublin meeting of the GCC (GCC, 2008, p. 6) concluded that:

“Coaching is an emerging profession draws on multiple disciplines, which in combination creates its own knowledge base and professional practice. These multiple disciplines and knowledge bases include learning theories, adult development, behavioural or social sciences, leadership, management sciences and
communication techniques. Coaching in its broadest form is also a process or technique increasingly used by different types of people in many environments, but may not always be formally recognised as such. The quality of the coaching engagement is dependent on the standard, consistency and rigour of the education development, ethics and core competencies of the emerging profession.”

Hawkins (2008) is of the view that coaching is a profession that is still in its infancy, and states that buyers of coaching frequently comment on the confusion in terminology and definitions. This is further exacerbated by the current professional fragmentation that includes: (i) a number of competing professional bodies with different standards and approaches, (ii) a proliferation of terms and their usage, (iii) a wide variety of routes to becoming an accredited practitioner, as well as (iv) a wide variety of training programmes, from very short courses to a PHD.

The Sherpa Executive Coaching Survey (2011, p. 23) found that “coaching can be called a profession, but not an organised profession,” as there is neither a single governing professional body, nor are there any licensing requirements. According to Drake (2008), it is time for a new understanding of what it means to be a professional and to participate in a profession, and that coaches can learn a lot from their colleagues in medicine and psychology. This will assist them to create stronger and clearer ties to the disciplines on which coaching is built, and to define a new path. Drake (2008) adds that, in order to be accountable and remain credible in a fast-changing world, coaches would be well served by a strong, inclusive, and generative stance on evidence.

The ICF Global Coaching Study (2008), as part of their recommendations, is of the view that coaching organisations need to work more closely with regulatory bodies in order to increase awareness and understanding of the profession, and that, by continuing their dedication to self-regulation of the industry, coaches will be able to maintain the absolute
highest of standards. These efforts can also be enhanced if coaches continue to invest in their professional development, adhere to a strong code of ethics, and pursue their individual coaching credentials. Rostron (2009) adds that the ability to let go of control and allow others to also have a voice will continue to be the biggest challenge for the global coaching community – will professional bodies ultimately agree to collaborate and share? The continuation of concerted dialogue between professional bodies will begin to shift the status quo and move coaching to become a more rigorous field.

Bennett (2007), Grant and Cavanagh (2004, p. 3), Griffith and Campbell (2008), and Spence (2007) identified the following three (3) challenges or tasks that need to be completed in order to develop a coherent body of coaching knowledge:

1. Define and delineate coaching: Due to the rapid and unregulated emergence of the coaching industry, the focus on the development of standards and accreditation is only now coming to the fore. Due to the multitude of training organisations, competing professional associations, and the increasing number of universities offering coaching degrees, there is a need for a combined code of practice and the development of shared standards.

2. Elaborate on the theoretically grounded approaches to coaching: The promise and potential of innovative practices can easily be lost when its practitioners (coaches) become disconnected from theoretically sound rationales and solid research. The longevity of the coaching industry will be dependent upon the degree to which it embraces an evidence-based practice ethos.

3. Develop an empirical research base: Research is viewed as a way to support the establishment of coaching as a field of study and practice. It can serve to inform practitioner training, and also establish the credibility of the practice and training
organisations. It is a means of developing theories specifically associated with coaching, and can support the establishment of coaching as a profession.

Stout-Rostron (2009a) re-iterates the criteria of a profession, and states that coaching is a fair distance from becoming a profession. There is doubt as to whether coaching will meet the requirements to become a profession, due to the fact that there is a lack of defined theory on which coaches base their practice. An additional barrier to becoming a profession is expressed by Bennett (2006), who is of the view that the general population and related professions do not recognise coaching as a profession.

The above challenges clearly show that there is still a lot to be done before coaching can be defined as a profession. Bennett (2006) identifies the following critical gaps:

- There are currently no generally accepted, identifiable, and distinct skills for coaches;
- Training and education are not required before a person can practise as a coach, although various coach training programmes are available;
- The general public and related professions do not recognise coaching as a profession;
- There is not an established community of practitioners. Less than half the estimated number of coaches in the world belong to representative bodies such as the International Coach Federation (ICF); and
- There is a lack of defined theory on which coaches base their practice.

The New Zealand study (Brooks & Wright, 2007) found that, in terms of coaching as an occupation, there are no barriers to entry, no shared common body of knowledge, no required formal university-level qualifications, coaching is not governed by any regulatory bodies, there is no shared, enforceable body of ethics, and no state-sanctioned licensing of coaches in New Zealand. These findings are similar to the critical gaps identified by Bennett (2006) mentioned previously.
The 2012 ICF Global Coaching Study revealed that the biggest obstacles for coaching over the next 12 months will be untrained individuals calling themselves coaches, as well as confusion in the marketplace regarding the benefits of coaching (27.2%). Furthermore the study revealed that the biggest opportunity for coaching over the next 12 months will be an increased awareness of the benefits of coaching (41.6%), as well as the availability of credible data on return of investment (ROI) and meeting expectations (ROE) (32.9%). It should be noted that 77.7% of respondents viewed coaching as a profession.

Brooks and Wright (2007) are of the view that, until coaching becomes a profession, there will be no way of ensuring that minimum standards of competence and ethical behaviour are rigorously managed. Coaches' service quality and coaching outcomes are unpredictable, and users of coaching services should be cautious about the quality and ethics of coaches.

Coaching has, however, taken some important steps towards professionalisation. It is service-orientated, like most professions, and is an occupation that has attracted large numbers of enthusiastic new entrants, which can be seen from the growing membership numbers of various coaching associations. The move towards professionalisation is also supported by the emergence of coaching qualifications and frameworks for accreditation, as well as the quality assurance of such qualifications. Despite these positive developments, one fundamental challenge is the fragmentation of the profession into rival coaching associations, each competing to offer different types and levels of qualifications. There needs to be more evidence of a unified strategy and tangible collaborative outcomes (Grey, 2011). It is therefore incorrect to refer to a ‘coaching profession’ or to coaches as professionals; rather, coaches should conduct themselves in a professional manner.
Membership of professional bodies

The coaches in all the mentioned studies see the benefit of being members of professional bodies. Due to the fact that no coaching body exists in New Zealand, professional membership is sought elsewhere, with 84.7% of New Zealand coaches belonging to a relevant professional body (ICF – 50.8%, NZ Psychologists Society/Board – 11.9%, Human Resources Institute NZ – 15.3%, just to mention a few). The ICF is the closest to a credentialing body, with over five hundred members in Australasia.

Of the coaches in Australia, 23% reported having no professional affiliation, while 57% were affiliated with the ICF. Coaches also reported affiliations with Coachville (30%) and the Australian Psychology Society (12%) (Spence et al., 2006). The study by Whybrow and Palmer (2006) revealed that coaches in the UK reported membership of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (36.2%) (this organisation is the equivalent of the South African Board of People Practitioners) and the Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy (19.1%). Respondents also indicated belonging to a diverse range of other professional associations. Respondents to the study wanted to see the SGCP "strive to be the UK body at the forefront for coaching theory, research and practice and to work toward being the ‘Gold Standard’ for professional coaches in the UK" (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006, p.76).

It is important to note that there exists some synthesis between the professional coaching bodies, educational institutions developing coaching programmes, and the organisations buying coaching interventions. The successful professional development of coaching is going to take commitment, perseverance, and a willingness to let go of control, power, territory, and ego (Lane, et. al., 2011).

It can therefore be concluded that, as stated by Lane et al. (2010), coaching is currently reliant on self-regulation through various professional bodies (e.g., ICF, EMCC, COMENSA, SIOPSA, and WABC), which is supported by their underlying principles and
values, voluntary codes of ethics, recommended standards of competence, complaints procedures, and other guidelines.

*Coaching as profession or an occupation?*

Coaching draws on multiple disciplines and is used by many types of people in many environments, and it is not necessarily the case that everyone in the coaching community wants to see the creation of a profession. An occupation can be defined as an activity that serves one’s regular source of livelihood or vocation, and the principle activity that one practises to earn money (Lane et al., 2010).

An occupation does not by definition require a special education to be able to perform the relevant vocational tasks, while, on the other hand, if the status of a profession is deemed desirable, a number of specific educational criteria, such as those outlined in 2.5.1, have to be met. Although coaching bodies share some minimal commitment to standards, some bodies go beyond these standards. They have voluntarily committed to professional standards and code of ethics, as well as vocational training in coaching (competence- or skills-based, rather than based on an agreed knowledge base). Furthermore, some organisations have voluntarily made a minimal degree of commitment to safeguard the interests of the field, including protection of coaches and clients (Lane, et al., (2010).

Participants at the GCC (2008) had concerns about whether coaching should become a profession or remain an occupation, as not all coaching is facilitated by a ‘professional coach.’ The coach might be engaged in another profession, e.g., a nurse coaching a trainee or a line manager coaching an employee. Thus, coaching might be seen as a dialogical tool for CPD, rather than a professional area of practice (Lane et al., 2010). At present, coaching does not meet the criteria of a profession as stated by Grant and Cavanagh (2004). The lack of empirical evidence on the profile of coaches in South Africa, together with the paucity of
evidence on emerging trends in the South African coaching industry, makes it difficult to
determine the current status of coaching in South Africa.

Ongoing global dialogue about the future of coaching is necessary, and therefore the
GCC (2008) states the following conversation points: Firstly, a common understanding of the
profession should be established through the creation of a shared, core code of ethics,
standards of practice, and educational guidelines that will ensure the quality and integrity of
the competencies that lie at the heart of the coaching practice. Secondly, the multi-
disciplinary roots and nature of coaching as a unique synthesis of a range of disciplines,
which creates a new and distinctive value to individuals, organisations, and society, must be
acknowledged and affirmed. To accomplish this, the body of coaching knowledge should be
grown by conducting continuous research into the processes, practices, and outcomes of
coaching, thereby strengthening its practical impact and theoretical underpinnings.

2.5.2 Continuous professional development (CPD). An important characteristic of
professionalism is that professionals, once fully qualified, engage in learning or training as
part of what is now termed continuous professional development (Gray, 2011). According to
the ICF Global Coaching Study (2008), ongoing coach-specific training and development
may be highly correlated with the future success of the coaching industry, and that it is
encouraging to note that even highly educated coaches are dedicated to continuing and
improving their professional development. Continuous training or CPD can therefore be
defined as all those activities of use to coaches in maintaining and extending their skills,
knowledge, and proficiency (Standards Australia, n.d.).

While a high proportion of coaches in New Zealand engage in ongoing professional
development such as workshops or seminars (83.1%), the initial training is less intense and
much shorter than university courses, with some courses lasting mere days (Brooks &
Wright, 2007). New Zealand does not offer any recognised professional accreditation for
coaches, and the relatively high proportion of untrained coaches is cause for concern (Brooks & Wright, 2007).

The study conducted by Whybrow and Palmer (2006) found that shorter, focused, and more flexible CPD activities such as workshops, conferences, short certificate courses, seminars, and distance learning are the most popular in the UK. These activities are adding to an existing, relevant skills base, enabling coaches and keep abreast of theoretical and practical developments.

It is therefore evident that CPD is seen as an important and integral part of the development of the coach as individual, as well as the development and expansion of the profession.

There are many challenges in coaches’ professional development going forward, especially the lack of consensus in the coaching community, due to the complexity of the cross-disciplinary nature of coaching (Grant & Zackon, 2004). Developments have occurred in terms of options in education and training, and it has been suggested that an evidence-based practice philosophy should be adopted as a guideline for professional development (Stober, 2010). This development means that there is a multitude of simultaneous challenges to a coherent view of professional development. The Dublin meeting of the GCC (2008) is of the view that the education and development of coaches is not just about obtaining a qualification, but also about being competent as a coach. Coaches should also be continuous learners – learning does not end at the end of a training programme.

The criteria for a profession stated in 2.5.1. relate directly to the challenges faced by professional development in coaching. CPD provides a vehicle for professionals to acquire new knowledge and skills, and also to maintain a core level of competence in their respective fields (HPCSA, 2012). The education and training required for practice, the competencies
needed, and the grounding in the bodies of knowledge that constitute the profession all have direct ties to professional development (Stober, 2010).

Stakeholders in coaching view professional development differently – they perceive their way as the right way and dismiss other approaches as 'non-coachlike' or ineffective (Grant & Zackon, 2004). Recognised professions have established structures for development through continuous training and education, supervision, and also have outlets such as peer-reviewed journals and conferences that serve as forums for discussions of new areas of practice, like coaching. As a result of the varied approaches to coaching, at this point in time, a chaotic and uneven landscape of professional development exists, as the different approaches have resulted in different opinions of what a coaching professional needs in terms of development (Stober, 2010).

2.5.3 Supervision for coaching. At the core of CPD is continuous personal development, where the individual’s development is woven through every aspect of their practice (Hawkins, 2010). Passmore and McGoldrick (2009), state that supervision is a formal process of professional support that ensures the continuous professional development of coaches and effectiveness of their coaching practices through interactive reflection, interpretative evaluation, and the sharing of expertise. Standards Australia (n.d.) agrees with this definition by stating that supervision provides coaches with a regular forum (protected space) where they can reflect on their experiences and practice, as well as develop strategies for improvement. This supervision is also designed to provide an external perspective on the dilemmas and issues faced by coaches (Standards Australia, n.d.). Coach supervision benefits the coachee, the client organisation, and the coach's professional practice (Hawkins, 2010). Coaches see supervision as a way to deal with challenges that they experience in their coaching, and are of the opinion that both one-on-one and group supervision offer potential benefits (Passmore & McGoldrick, 2009).
There has been a great deal of debate over the last few years regarding the place of supervision in coaching. According to Standards Australia (n.d., p. 11), supervision typically has three major functions: (i) the professional development of the practitioner, (ii) practical and psychological support for the coaches in carrying out their role, and (iii) the promotion and maintenance of acceptable standards of work and good practice.

Gray (2011) states that supervision is recommended by some of the coaching associations, and quotes a study by Hawkins and Schwenk (2006), which found that 88% of coaches believe they should receive continuous and regular supervision. Although organisations that hire coaches believe that supervision is important, they are unsure what form that supervision should take. Supervision is a key element in both the training process for coaches and their CPD. Supervision provides the reflective container within which trainees can turn their competencies into capabilities and develop their personal and coaching capabilities (Hawkins, 2010).

From the above, it is evident that supervision forms an integral part of coaches’ continuous personal and professional development, and can no longer be ignored. It is recommended as a best practice for coaches to receive supervision for every 35 hours of coaching (Passmore, 2007). The UK study found that supervision was regarded as a key element of good coaching practice by respondents – more than 60% of respondents recommended supervision during training and more than 50% recommended post-training supervision (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). No evidence of coaching supervision could be found in the South African coaching community, as it is a voluntary process.

2.5.4 The mental health challenge of coaching. Coaching is seen as an activity to enhance performance and achievement of goals in clients without significant levels of psychopathology or emotional distress. Mental health issues are extremely common among the entire population, and therefore the recognition and managing of boundaries surrounding
mental health issues are key skills for all coaches. Coaches need to have the ability to judge when not to coach. Coaching cannot help everyone, and recognising the signs and knowing what to do is part of good coaching practice (Buckley, 2011).

Life coaching may attract individuals who wish to address an array of mental health issues, e.g., depression and social anxiety, without the stigma often associated with therapy or counselling. Life coaching is generally perceived as a socially acceptable form of therapy (Spence et al., 2006).

An important guideline in coaching is that “coaching is not therapy,” although coaching and therapy share some ground and techniques (Cavanagh & Grant, 2004). Coaches recognise that the boundaries between coaching and therapy are not easily drawn, and that most coaches are not trained to identify and address the impact of the person’s inner psychological processes on their personal and professional lives. It is, furthermore, difficult to determine the boundaries between psychopathology and the normal range of human functioning, e.g., sadness vs. depression (Cavanagh, 2005).

Coaches face the challenges of making judgements about the nature of the client’s issues and the limits of their own competence. They should therefore familiarise themselves with the key features of the most common mental disorders that could arise in their practices. Their concerns should be presented to the client and referred appropriately, where necessary. This illustrates the coach’s duty of care, and demonstrates to clients that the coach offers a specialised service to ensure that the most appropriate interventions is selected. By developing an informed and professional strategy for dealing with mental health issues, coaches discharge a legal and ethical duty of care owed to their clients (Cavanagh, 2005; Spence et al., 2006).

To be able to manage clients in an ethical, professional, and effective manner, Buckley (2011) suggests the following as a guideline for the coach: (i) recognition that some
people will have mental health problems that make coaching inappropriate, (ii) an understanding of the signs and symptoms of mental health and the ability to question further, when needed, (iii) an ability to reflect on the wider circumstances of ethics, the law, professional standards, and practicalities, and (iv) to ask “What next? Should coaching continue, be stopped, or should the coachee be referred medical help?”

From the above, it can be concluded that coaching is socially more acceptable than therapy, although coaching may not be as effective in cases where mental illness is present. The coach's ability to recognise symptoms of mental illness and knowing when to refer a client to a medical practitioner or psychotherapist is essential for the wellbeing of the client. To include mental health issues as part of coaching training can prevent ineffective, inappropriate, and potentially harmful outcomes of inappropriate coaching.

**2.5.5. Exploring the current status of ethics in coaching.** Ethics is concerned with morality (or moral philosophy), as it tries to distinguish right from wrong. Each and every person develops a personal sense of morality from many sources. To be part of a specific society, an individual should learn the rules of such a society. Ethics can also be referred to as values or beliefs, which may be based on religious faith, and it lies at the root of our behaviour and attitude as well as how we view the world. There is, however, one basic principle that seems to be common everywhere, namely the ethic of reciprocity or ‘The Golden Rule.’ This ‘Golden Rule’ refers to treating others as you would like to be treated yourself (Pardey, 2007).

The term ‘ethics' (rofehik in Ancient English or ethique in Old French) has Indo-European roots, and originated from the Greek ethikos (ethical), as in ethos (Law, 2010, p. 183). Within the coaching context, ethical practice is defined as applying the rules to which coaches are committed because they see these rules as embodying their values and justifying their moral judgement (Law, 2006).
Ethics in coaching

The issue of ethical standards is critical in any profession, with coaching being no exception. The increasing global success of coaching since 1995 has prompted a rapid growth of coaching programmes and coaches entering the field worldwide. Coaching has grown widely in acceptance in business and professional organisations, and there are few barriers to individuals wishing to establish themselves as coaches – coaching operates independently of oversight by any one professional body or government. However, various professional bodies have established standards of ethical practice for their members. In addition to the various coaching bodies, the British Psychological Society (BPS) and Australian Psychological Association (APA) have established special interest groups in coaching psychology (Brennan & Wildflower, 2010). These bodies work independently, but have commonalities across their codes. Each provides a code of ethics and a complaints process to encourage compliance with professional standards and ethical practice among their member. The opportunity to join and be held accountable for ethical conduct builds public confidence in practitioners in this relatively young emerging profession (Brennan & Wildflower, 2010).

Ethical codes and professional affiliation

According to Gray (2011) members of a profession are bound by ethical codes that define both ethical and unethical conduct. A profession's association strictly enforce its rules, and breaches of rules can lead to disciplinary action, which may include expulsion. He adds (2011) that, in coaching, similar codes of conduct have been laid down by most of the coaching associations. Passmore, (2009) is also of the view that common themes exist within codes of ethics. These themes have a built-in element of respect for the coachee, and need to be adhered to at all times; namely:
• Utility – placing the needs of the coachee first, which can become problematic if a
  balance between the interests of the coachee and his manager needs to be found;
• Autonomy – encouraging the self-determination of coaches and allowing them to
  make mistakes;
• Truth and confidentiality – while sessions are confidential, the circumstances in which
  the coach has the right to breach this confidentiality have to be identified. The same
  applies to illegalities; and
• Avoiding harm – this might be seen as a way to override confidentiality, but harm can
  also be a result of the coach's actions. The coach needs to have specific training to
  identify, for example, the warning signs of mental health.

The New Zealand study reflects the almost universal adoption by coaches of a
recognised code of ethics (96.9%), which is very reassuring, including those of the ICF, the
NZ Psychologist Board, the HR Institute of NZ, company ethics, or other membership
bodies. This is seen as very important in the absence of a professional accreditation body
with its own code of ethics in New Zealand (Brooks & Wright, 2007). In the BPS, the
Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) has become the defining body for standards
of practice (both professionally and ethically) in the coaching field (Whybrow & Palmer,
2006). In the Australian study, 89% of the coaches confirmed that they provide their clients
with some form of ethical instruction – 40% do so verbally, 11% through written hand-outs,
while 49% used both methods, with 11% of the coaches providing no ethical instruction
(Spence et al., 2006).

Literature Objective 4 (Exploring the ethical and professional affiliations of coaches
currently practising in South Africa) firstly provided definitions of a profession, CPD,
supervision, and ethics, and also stated the relevance of each of these concepts to coaching.
The mental health issue – whether coaches should get involved in mental health issues or not – was discussed, and it seems that coaches need specific skills to manage in such issues as well as the insight to refer such coachees when necessary. Thereafter, the criteria for obtaining professional status and the differences between a profession and an occupation were highlighted. The importance of CPD and supervision of the coach were emphasised. The adherence to ethical codes of practice and being affiliated with a professional body were also investigated. The information obtained was thereafter utilised to paint a picture of the current state of the professionalisation of coaching globally, together with several examples. It is evident from the literature consulted that coaching has not yet reached professional status, but that a strong drive exists to obtain same. On the other hand, some are of the view that coaching should remain an occupation. Literature Objective 4 has therefore been achieved.

2.6 Conclusion

To conclude, Chapter 2 gave an overview of the existing literature on coaching as per the stated literature objectives. The history of coaching and explanations of terms relevant to coaching were discussed in Literature Objective 1. The skills, experience, and training that coaches currently have and the criteria that they should aspire to were explained as part of Literature Objective 2. The lack of a specific profile of coaches in South Africa became evident. With Literature Objective 3, it was established that coaches come from different backgrounds; some specialise in niche coaching areas, while others are generalists. The most popular methods of coaching were identified, and the growth in technology being utilised as method of coaching was mentioned. It is clear that coaching practices and procedures are not yet standardised. In Literature Objective 4, the ethical and professional affiliations of coaches currently practising were investigated. Different related terms were defined to
provide clarity on these issues. The mental health challenge that coaches face was also discussed. Although different ethical codes are followed by coaches, the lack of standard criteria for coaches to practise in an ethical and professional manner became evident from the literature reviewed. The current status is that coaches become members of coaching organisations on a voluntary basis, and adhere to these organisations' code of ethics as a means to honour their legal and ethical obligations towards the coachees. Although the literature reviewed provided valuable information on coaching internationally, very little information is available on the profile of coaches in South Africa.

In order to obtain a profile of the South African coaching industry, a quantitative research approach was deemed appropriate. The following chapter describes the research design that was utilised to facilitate the exploration and description of a profile of South African coaches in order to meet the objectives of the present study.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 provided an overview of literature currently available on the coaching industry, and it is evident that very little research has been conducted on the coaching industry in South Africa. In this chapter, the research design utilised in addressing the key research question regarding the profile of coaches in South Africa is discussed in detail. Chapter 3 explains the research paradigm, approach, and methodology followed in order to answer the stated research purpose and objectives.

3.2 Research paradigm

When undertaking research, researchers are guided by a philosophical paradigm. Philosophy is defined as “the search for knowledge and the understanding of nature and the meaning of the universe and of human life” (Hornsby, 1995, p. 867). This search for knowledge and understanding is shaped by paradigms, which are general ways of thinking about how the world works and how we gain knowledge about the world. Paradigms are therefore fundamental orientations, perspectives, or world views that often are not questioned or subjected to empirical tests (Monette, Sullivan & De Jong, 2011). The main objective of this research study was to increase understanding and knowledge regarding a phenomenon, which, in this case, is the profile of coaching practitioners in South Africa.

In this regard, Newman (1997) states that descriptive research presents a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting, or relationship being explored. Descriptive and exploratory research therefore share many similarities in practice. In descriptive research, the researcher begins with a well-defined subject and conducts research to describe it accurately.
The outcome is a detailed picture of the subject. Zikmund (2003, p. 54) adds that the characteristics of a population or phenomenon are described by answering the questions of “Who?,” "What?,” "Where?,” "When?,” and "Why?,” which is discussed next.

3.3. Research approach

The current research problem necessitated the utilisation of a quantitative approach, due to the fact that the nature and extent of coaching practices required to be explored and described quantitatively (cf. Fouche & De Vos, 2010). Quantitative research involves measurement of phenomena using numbers and counts (Monette et al, 2011). It is also referred to as a process that is systematic and objective in its ways of using numerical data from only a select subgroup of a population to generalise the findings to the population being studied (Maree & Pietersen, 2007). A qualitative approach to the present research study was thus not considered appropriate, as it would not have addressed the research problem, due to qualitative techniques being aimed at describing the meaning rather than the frequency of certain phenomena (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

For the purpose of this study, a quantitative, cross-sectional research design was adopted in order to obtain a snapshot at a fixed point in time (the current profile of coaching practitioners), which was then described (Neuman, 1997). This research method fitted the aim of the study, as the current profile of South African coaches was explored and described by focusing on their biographical background and qualifications, their coaching practices, and their ethical and professional affiliations.

The disadvantage of adopting a cross-sectional survey is that it only provides a “snapshot at a specific point in time and cannot capture social processes or change” (Newman, 1997, p. 28). As such, the results of a survey cannot be extrapolated to the future – the profile and practices of coaches in South Africa are bound to change.
The research method will be discussed in the subsequent section.

3.4 Research method

The research methodology adopted in the present study is presented under the following headings: sample and sampling procedure, measuring instrument, research procedure, and data analysis method utilised.

3.4.1 Sample and sampling procedure. A target population is a collection of objects, events, or individuals with some common characteristic that the researcher is interested in studying (Mouton, 1998). Zikmund (2003, p. 369) defines sampling as “the process of using a small number of items or parts of a larger population to draw conclusions about the whole population.” This definition is similar to the definition proposed by Wagenaar and Babbie (1997), who state that sampling affords the social scientist the capability of describing a larger population based on only a select portion of the population through probability sampling, where each member of the population has a known and non-zero probability of being included in the sample, while the same does not hold for a non-probability sample.

In the present study, the target population was defined as all practising coaches in South Africa. Due to the current lack of regulation in the coaching industry in South Africa, it was impossible to obtain a complete list of all coaches currently in practice in South Africa. The most appropriate way to gain access to the coaching industry of South Africa was to approach the coaches affiliated with the various professional coaching bodies in SA. The sampling population, that is the population from which the sample for this study was selected, consisted of coaches who were members of four professional bodies representing coaches in South Africa that will subsequently be listed. The sample was therefore a non-probability sample.
The following key professional bodies in South Africa participated in the study. (Consent for participation was provided, and the professional bodies circulated the link to the survey to their respective members):

- Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology of South Africa (SIOPSA);
- Interest Group of Coaching and Consulting Psychology South Africa (IGCCP SA);
- Coaches and Mentors of South Africa (COMENSA);
- South African Board for People Practices (SABPP); and
- Institute of Management Consultants of South Africa (IMCSA).

These professional bodies, as alluded to in Chapter 1, represent coaches in different fields of specialisation, such as coaching psychology, executive coaching, business coaching, leadership coaching, career coaching, performance coaching, and life coaching, to mention but a few, and the sampling frame was considered appropriate for the purpose of the present study.

All the coaches in the sampling population were included in the survey in the sense that they were all invited to participate in the study. In accordance with ethical requirements, coaches voluntarily participated in the survey. The resulting sample constituted a non-probability sample, since the probability of being included in the sample was not known; through their participation, the coaches themselves determined whether they were selected (Mouton, 1998). A total of 289 responses were received. Of these only 229 met the inclusion criteria in the sense that the respondents should have indicated the length of their coaching experience in years, furthermore they should currently be coaching as well as should have coached clients in the past 2 years.

The disadvantage of a non-probability sample is the fact that there are no appropriate statistical techniques for measuring random sampling error for a non-probability sample, and, therefore, the projecting of data beyond the sample is statistically inappropriate (Zikmund,
The use of a non-probability sample was, however, necessitated in the present study, due to the fact that participation in the survey was voluntary.

**Description of biographical and demographic characteristics of the sample**

The biographical and demographic characteristics obtained from the sample included gender, age group, the province in which the coach practises, prior industry involvement of the coach, years' experience as a coach, highest academic qualification and highest coaching-specific qualification, attendance of coaching conferences, seminars and workshops in the past two years, service providers of the coaching training undergone, as well as the total number of hours of coaching training received in the past two years. Other characteristics, including the qualifications and experience of the coaches that participated in this study are discussed in Chapter 4, as it has a definite impact on the coaches' practices. Table 3.1 indicates the gender distribution of practising coaches.

**Table 3.1**

**Gender Distribution of Practising Coaches**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not answered</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.1 provides insight into the gender distribution of the respondents: 124 (54.1%) of the 229 respondents were female, with the remaining 105 (45.9%) respondents being male. Table 3.2 illustrates the different age groups of coaches currently practising.

Table 3.2

**Age Groups of Practising Coaches**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current age group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30 or younger</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>92.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 or older</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not answered</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2, the different age groups of respondents are reflected. From the data received, 69 (30.1%) of the 229 respondents were in the age group of between 41 and 50 years, while 72 (31.4%) of the 229 respondents were in the age group of between 51 and 60 years. According to the life and career stages model of Schreuder and Coetzee (2006), coaches in South Africa are in their mid- to mature career phase.

Table 3.3 provides an overview of the provincial distribution of practising coaches in South Africa.
Table 3.3

**Provincial Distribution of Practising Coaches**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coaches per provinces</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gauteng</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West Province</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mpumalanga</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limpopo</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>56.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free State</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>57.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kwa-Zulu Natal</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Cape</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>67.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>97.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>225</strong></td>
<td><strong>98.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not answered</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>229</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 3.3, it is evident that coaching takes place mainly in Gauteng (52.4%), Western Cape (29.7%), and Kwa-Zulu Natal (8.7%). It seems that coaching as a 'practice' has not yet been established in the other provinces, where a cumulative total of only 16.1% of coaching takes place. Four (1.7%) of the respondents did not answer this question.

To conclude, the sample was mainly between the ages of 31 and 60. Currently, more women than men are practising as coaches. Coaches are predominantly practising in Gauteng, Western Cape, and Kwa-Zulu Natal. In the next section, the survey as a research instrument will be introduced.
3.4.2 Utilising a questionnaire as a research instrument. In the present study, the research instrument was a structured questionnaire consisting of mainly closed-ended questions. The questions included in the questionnaire were informed by the available literature on coaching and by questionnaires utilised by the following international coaching organisations: British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) in 2005 (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006) and The Interest Group of Coaching Psychology of the Australian Psychological Society (Spence et al., 2006). Additional questions pertaining specifically to coaching practices in South Africa, as highlighted by the literature research, were also included.

A major decision area in question design is the degree and form of structure imposed on the participant; in other words, the strategy surrounding the questions. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), there are various response strategy options, including an unstructured response (also referred to as the open-ended response or free choice of words response) and the structured or closed response, also referred to as the specified alternative response provided.

- Open-ended questions / Free response questions:

This type of question is a measurement question in which the participant chooses the words to frame the answer (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). One of the primary reasons for using open-ended questions is that insufficient information may prohibit preparing response categories in advance. Analysing enormous volumes of open-ended questions slows the analysis process and increases the opportunity for error (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Strydom, 2010). 12 open-ended questions were included in the present study to obtain additional information.
• Closed Questions:

This type of question is a measurement question that presents the participant with a fixed set of choices (nominal, ordinal, or interval data) (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Monette et al., 2011). Closed responses are typically categorised, and are favoured by researchers for their efficiency and specificity. These questions are also easier to code, record, and analyse. With computerised survey design and computer-assisted, computer-administered, or online-collection of data, pre-coding is necessary, as the software calculates the data as they are collected. Pre-coding is particularly helpful in manual data entry. When pre-coding is used, editing precedes data processing. The code will then be transferred to an input medium for analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Newman, 1997; Strydom, 2010). In the present research study, closed questions with fixed sets of choices were used to obtain the information needed on the profile of coaches in South Africa.

A Likert scale, as well as answers in checklist format, was utilised as the response format for the survey. The Likert scale (developed by Rensis Likert in 1932) is the most frequently used variation of the summated rating scale. Summated rating scales consist of statements that express either a favourable or an unfavourable attitude toward the object of interest (Cooper & Schindler, 2008, Monette et al., 2011). The participant is asked to agree or disagree with each statement. Each response is given a numerical score to reflect its degree of attitudinal favourableness, and the scores may be summed to measure the participant’s overall attitude (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Monette et al., 2011; Newman, 1997).

The advantages of the Likert scale, which account for its popularity, are that it is easy and quick to construct, and is probably more reliable and provides a greater volume of data than many other scales (Cooper & Schindler, 2008, Monette et al., 2008).
The questionnaire, attached as Annexure A, was subdivided into three sections: Section 1 focused on the background information of the coach, the biographical, academic, and coaching qualifications, as well as the experience of the coach. This was to determine the coach's gender, age group, location of practice, highest qualification obtained, highest coaching qualification obtained, number of coaching workshops, seminars, and workshops attended, service providers of training undergone, completed years practising as a coach, as well as prior industry involvement. Section 1 included both open- and closed-ended questions.

Section 2 focused on current coaching practices and level of experience as a coach, as well as an opinion regarding coaching. Open-ended questions as well as close-ended questions with a fixed number of response alternatives were included. The opinion-type questions were close-ended, but with a Likert-type response alternative. Questions in Section 3 were aimed at exploring affiliation with professional bodies, and also obtained an opinion regarding the training and development of coaches. Adherences to ethical codes were also included in this section. Most questions in Section 3 were posed by means of checklists. The respondent therefore had the opportunity to choose more than one option.

To obtain valid and reliable information, one must ensure, before conducting a research study, that the measurement procedures and measurement instruments to be used have acceptable levels of reliability and validity (Delport, 2010).

3.4.2.1 Validity of the measuring instrument. Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflect the real meaning of the concept it is intended to measure (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Delport, 2010). In terms of the validity of a measuring instrument, two aspects must be considered: firstly, that the instrument actually measures the concept in question and, secondly, that the concept is measured accurately. Although there are various forms of validity, the following two were applicable to the current study:
1. Content validity

Babbie and Mouton (2011) describe content validity as how much a measure covers the range of meanings included within a concept. Monette et al. (2011) add to this by stating that it has to do with whether a measuring device covers the full range of meanings that are included in a variable to measure – thus, a valid measuring device measures what it is supposed to measure, and content validity involves a detailed analysis of the breadth of the measured concept and its relationship to the measuring device. In other words, content validity concerns the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content of an instrument (Delport, 2010). The content of the current survey was determined by previous studies, mentioned in 2.3, as well as information specifically aimed at the South African coaching industry. In addition, the survey was reviewed by subject matter experts to ensure that the items measured the specific topics in question (see 3.4.3 for a detailed discussion of the role of the subject matter experts).

2. Face validity

Face validity is concerned with whether the measuring instrument measures the variable that it claims to measure (Delport, 2010). Babbie and Mouton (2011, p. 122) describe face validity as “particular empirical measures that may or may not conform to our common agreements and our mental images concerning a particular concept.” According to Monette et al. (2011), face validity is subjective in nature, as all the researcher has to go on is logic and common sense as arguments for the validity of a measure. Refer to 3.4.3 regarding the utilisation of subject matter experts to determine the content and face validity of the current survey.

3.4.2.2 Reliability of the measuring instrument. Reliability refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument yields similar results with repeated application of the research
instrument. The information is reliable due to the voluntary participation and anonymity of the participants. The results of the survey will also be compared with the results obtained from other countries (see 3.4.2) to identify trends and determine the current status of coaching in South Africa.

3.4.3 Research procedure. The present study explored the profile, including the biographical characteristics, practices, and perspectives, of coaches currently practising in South Africa, utilising a survey. The survey was conducted using a web-based questionnaire. The term 'survey' denotes a specific way of collecting data from individuals, referred to as respondents, and identifies a broad research strategy (Monette et al., 2011). Survey research is the most frequently used mode of gathering data in the social sciences, and can be descriptive, explanatory, or exploratory. Survey research consists of selecting a sample of respondents and administering a questionnaire. In some respects, surveys are quite flexible, and the use of standardised questions enhances reliability, but standardisation often results in overlooking other appropriate responses, and may generate inflexibility in modifying questions (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Monette et al. 2011; Wagenaar & Babbie, 1997). The strength of surveys is their potential for generalisation, and, in this regard, Wagenaar and Babbie (1997) explain that all surveys involve presenting respondents with a series of questions to answer. These questions may tap matters of fact, attitudes, opinions, or future expectations. For the purpose of the present study, the current demographic and biographical profile, as well as practices, of coaches were explored and described.

The emergence of the Internet has led to surveys being conducted online, rather than person, by mail or telephonically (Monette et al., 2011). The Internet provides the opportunity to conduct surveys more efficiently and effectively than by traditional means (Zang, 1999). Web technology makes it possible to publish surveys to a very large target
audience. As with any measuring instrument, advantages and disadvantages exist in the use of such an instrument, which are discussed below.

According to Gaiser and Schreiner (2009) and Monette et al. (2011), the following are two advantages of web-based surveys:

1. Web-based surveys reduce the time and costs of data-collection, reduce transcription errors, and offer the possibility of more sophisticated interactions. The speed, low cost, and ability to reach respondents anywhere in the world makes it much easier to conduct research and get responses, which are also returned quicker. Technology offers versatility and flexibility – the questionnaire text can be supplemented with a variety of visual and auditory elements, such as colour, graphics, images, and sounds. Technology can also provide randomised ordering of questions for each respondent, error checking, and automatic skip patterns, so that respondents can move easily through the interview.

2. The data can be entered directly into a database once the respondent submits it, and the anonymity and impersonal nature of the online interaction ensures that there is no bias from the researcher. The absence of an interviewer reduces the impact of social desirability; the respondents' concern about how their responses will appear to others is not a factor. People seem to be more likely to admit their involvement in undesirable activities in online surveys compared to other types of surveys.

The disadvantages, potential problems, and concerns unique to Internet-based surveys will be discussed, with a clear indication of how these were addressed in the present study. According to Zang (1999), the following five disadvantages to Internet-based surveys exist:

1. Biased sample and biased return: respondents may most likely be those who have the skills to use the survey tools, and also accept and feel comfortable with Internet
surveys. Although access to the Internet and therefore to a survey could be problematic due to participants not having equal access to the Internet, members of the different professional bodies participating in the present study generally had some sort of tertiary training that would have familiarised them with the Internet and the World Wide Web. The participants therefore had access to e-mail, they received the link to the questionnaire electronically, and completed the questionnaire online (see 3.4.1 for list of participating professional bodies).

2. Comfort with the Internet survey format: whenever researchers offer multiple options for receiving and/or replying to surveys, some respondents choose to use the conventional method of completing a survey on paper. If researchers use the Internet as the only means for collecting data, the representativeness of respondents may be questionable because the technological background of intended respondents and their access to and use of the Internet may vary widely. The professional bodies utilised in the present study had an electronic database of their members and regularly communicate electronically with their members. Therefore, utilising an online survey did not hinder the current study, as participants were familiar with the Internet.

3. Most internet-based surveys depend on self-selected respondents. However, to what extent these respondents represent the target population is usually unknown. Survey messages are also very likely to reach unintended individuals. In the current research project, the respondents were chosen on the basis of membership of the mentioned professional bodies, and were therefore within the intended target audience. These mentioned professional bodies informed their members about the specific survey in advance. It was therefore most unlikely that the survey would be sent to unintended individuals.
4. Another disadvantage of this method of data collection is that participants could potentially submit multiple responses, consequently making the overall results over-representative. To address this limitation in the present study, the professional bodies received a cover letter indicating the purpose of the study as well as the importance of obtaining a true reflection of current coaching practices in South Africa. In obtaining consent to participate, reference was also made to ethical research practices.

5. Internet-based surveys are usually self-administered, and it is therefore easy for respondents discontinue the process before completing the survey. In the present study, the participants were contacted via email before the survey was distributed, in order to make them aware of the intended study as well as the aims and objectives of the study, in an attempt to motivate them to participate and complete the survey. The researcher also undertook to provide the participating professional bodies with a copy of the final research report for circulation amongst their members.

The procedure followed to obtain data on the profile of coaching in South Africa will be discussed next. Firstly, the draft questionnaire was scrutinised by three experienced research professionals from both academic and coaching industry backgrounds, in order to evaluate the questions for relevance, conciseness, and clarity as well as to obtain an indication of the time it took to complete the survey. Secondly, the subject matter experts completed the online survey, which served as a pilot study. The pilot study was conducted over a period of two weeks. A pilot study can be described as trying out the measuring instrument on a small number of people that have characteristics similar to those of the target population. The research design for the prospective study is thereby tested, and possible deficiencies of the measuring instrument are identified (Strydom, 2010a). The experts in the present study further determined if the questions elicited meaningful responses from the
participants and whether the order of the questions was correct. In addition, the pilot study ensured that the website was operational and error-free. Based on the feedback received from the experts, the questionnaire was revised and finalised into a format that would facilitate the best responses.

Thirdly, the finalised research instrument was converted to a web-based questionnaire, using an open source software platform called Lime Survey. A description of the advantages and disadvantages of web-based surveys was previously provided. Fourthly, an Internet link to the questionnaire was distributed via email to the identified professional bodies, who then distributed it to their respective members. The email invited the members to voluntarily participate in the survey, and also explained the broad aims of the study, clarified the procedure, and ensured them of anonymity and confidentiality. The survey was operational from 24 March 2011 to 4 May 2011. Lastly, based on the response rate, follow-up emails were sent to members to remind them of the survey, as it is known that survey research usually has a low response rate. The final questionnaire took ten to fifteen minutes to complete, and consisted of 36 questions.

3.4.4 Data analysis. Due to the fact that the purpose of this survey was exploratory and descriptive, the data analysis was done by means of descriptive statistics, percentages, and frequencies. Descriptive statistics describe or summarise information about a population or sample (Zikmund, 2003) or, as Stangor (1998) states, numbers summarise the pattern of scores observed on a measured variable. In the present study, the questionnaire items were inspected by describing the frequency distribution of the scores (the valid percentages, cumulative percentages, and totals) and were augmented by graphical displays and tables, where applicable. Frequency distribution is described by Zikmund (2003) as a set of data organised by summarising the number of times a particular value of a variable occurs or, as stated by Monette et al. (2010), the range of values for each variable.
Once a respondent electronically submitted the completed questionnaire, the information was automatically captured into an Excel® file for analysis purposes. The data were then analysed using appropriate statistical techniques—frequency tables, cumulative percentages, and total percentages. It was thereafter graphically displayed and reported. A total of 289 coaches responded to the questionnaire. Of the 289 respondents, only 229 or 79.2% met the following inclusion criteria for statistical analysis: Respondents should have indicated (1) the length of their coaching experience in years, (2) they had to be currently coaching, and (3) they had to have coached clients in the past 2 years.

Due to the fact that the professional bodies did not indicate how many coaches the email was sent to, the response rate could not be determined. However, the number of respondents (289) was considered sufficient to warrant further analysis of the results.

3.5 Ethical issues to be considered

According to Strydom, (2010b, p. 57), ethics can be defined as “a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students. Ethical guidelines also serve as standards, and a basis upon which each researcher ought to evaluate his own conduct.”

A number of ethical issues were taken into consideration in conducting the present study, namely informed consent and voluntary participation, as well as the violation of privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality. Netiquette will also be mentioned, although it was not particularly relevant to the present study (Monette et al., 2011; Mouton, 2004).

Informed consent refers to informing potential research participants about all the aspects of the research study that might reasonably influence their decision to participate (Monette et al., 2011). By providing consent, respondents agree to answer questions, but
may discontinue participation at any time. By agreeing to participate, respondents volunteer participation in a specific research study. Informed consent and voluntary participation ensures full knowledge and cooperation of subjects, while also resolving, or at least relieving, any possible tension, aggression, resistance, or insecurity experienced by the subjects (Strydom, 2010b). In the current study, professional bodies were contacted and requested to electronically send the link to the survey to their members, which protected members' anonymity. Respondents to the survey also received background information on the purpose and objectives of the study, which was included in the invitation (an email message) to participate in the survey. Their participation was voluntarily, as they could decide if they wanted to participate in the study by reacting to the email. They will also have access to the research report via their membership of the various professional bodies.

Violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality: As with all social research, surveys can be conducted in ethical or unethical ways. A major ethical issue in survey research is the invasion of privacy (Neuman, 1997). Privacy implies the element of personal privacy, while confidentiality indicates the handling of information in a confidential matter (Strydom, 2010b). Information given anonymously ensures the privacy of subjects. The ethical issue becomes relevant when subjects are assured of anonymity while the researcher knows that this will not be the case (Strydom, 2010b).

Babbie and Mouton (2011) define anonymity and confidentiality with reference to net-ethics as follows: the researcher cannot link an anonymous response to a specific respondent, while the researcher can identify the person providing confidential responses, but promises not make this information public. The development of the Internet and the World Wide Web and the subsequent research undertaken have also brought new ethical concerns, e.g., what is considered public or private on the Internet. This is referred to as ‘net-ethics.’
Due to the fact that the link to the current survey was sent to the different professional bodies for distribution to their members, these members could decide to volunteer their participation or not. The researcher did not have access to any personal information of the respondents, as there was no access to the various professional bodies’ distribution lists. The respondents' answers were captured directly into a web-based database, thereby assuring respondents' anonymity and that their responses would remain confidential. The respondents' privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality were therefore guaranteed.

3.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, the research paradigm, approach, and methodology utilised to answer the stated research purpose and objectives were explained. In the next chapter, the results of the research conducted will be presented.
CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 described the research approach and research methodology utilised to address the main research question. In this chapter, the results of the survey are presented. The results provide a description of the current profile of the coaching industry in South Africa. The results are presented in the format of the empirical objectives stated in Chapter 1. Firstly, the training, coaching domains, and frameworks utilised by coaches in South Africa are presented. Secondly, current practices, as well as the main reasons why clients seek coaching are provided, and, thirdly, the professional affiliation of South African coaches, together with their core requirements to practise as a coach, are presented.

4.2 Empirical Objective 1: To describe the current skills, experience, and training of coaches in South Africa

The data obtained from the sample included prior industry involvement of the coach, years' experience as a coach, highest academic qualification, highest coaching-specific qualification, attendance of coaching conferences, seminars, and workshops in the last two years, the service provider of the coaching training undergone, as well as the total hours of coaching training received in the past two years. The results are discussed separately for each of the sub-objectives posed (see Chapter 1, par. 1.4.1).

4.2.1 Prior and current industry involvement in coaching. In Figure 4.1, the coaches' prior industries of employment before becoming a coach will be presented.
Coaches in South Africa, prior to entering the coaching industry, were employed mainly in the consulting industry (29.7%) and from Human Resources (29.7%), followed by psychology (25.3%). Psychologists could indicate their registration category, and the results were as follows: industrial (14%), clinical (3.9%), counselling (5.7%), and research (0.9%). It is further evident from Figure 4.1 that industries such as training, education, finance, and marketing were not as well represented, with very little representation from natural therapies, sport, and social work.

Figure 4.2 displays the current occupations of respondents.
Besides practising as a coach, respondents also reported that they have another occupation, such as consultant (61.1%), mentor (53.3%), and psychologist (23.6%). This was followed by academic (19.7%), counsellor (17.9%), and psychometrics expert (16.6%). The other 19.7% were a combination of business owners and line managers, educational trainers, facilitators, recruiters, religious practitioners, and speakers. It is therefore evident that the majority of coaches in South Africa practise coaching on a part-time basis.

### 4.2.2 Coaching experience of practising coaches.

Figure 4.3 reports the coaches’ experience in years of practice.
Of the 229 respondents, 39.7% had less than two years' experience as a coach, and only 10.5% had more than ten years' experience as a coach. More than half (73.8%) of the respondents had between 1 and 5 years' experience as a coach, with only 15.7% having between 6 and 10 years’ experience.

4.2.3 Highest academic and coaching-specific qualifications. It is important to differentiate between coaching-specific qualifications and other qualifications. Figure 4.4 displays the coaches’ highest academic qualifications.

![Figure 4.4. Coaches' highest academic qualifications](image)

Of the 229 respondents, only 1 indicated having less than a Grade 12 qualification, and 5 respondents indicated that they have only a Grade 12 qualification. In terms of any university qualifications: 20 coaches (8.7%) had a bachelor’s degree, 50 (21.8%) had an honours degree, 94 (41%) had a master’s degree, 16 (6.9%) had a doctorate, and 2 respondents had a post-doctorate degree. The majority of respondents (70.7%) therefore had
a postgraduate qualification. Figure 4.4 merely indicates whether or not respondents had any academic qualifications and does not reflect coaching-related academic qualifications.

The coaches' highest coaching-specific qualifications are displayed in Figure 4.5.

![Figure 4.5. Coaches' highest coaching-specific qualifications](image)

In terms of the highest coaching-specific qualifications, 70 (30.6%) respondents indicated that they did not have a coaching-specific qualification, with 73 (31.9%) claiming that they had a certificate in coaching and 38 (16.6%) indicated that they had a diploma in coaching. Only 8 (2.2%) had a Master's degree in coaching, with 5 (2.1%) indicating that they had been exposed to coaching modules in their postgraduate studies. It is also interesting that 26 (11.4%) of the respondents did not answer the question.

**4.2.4 Attendance of coaching conferences, seminars, and workshops in the past two years.** Figure 4.6 illustrates coaches’ attendance of coaching conferences, seminars, and workshops in the past two years.
Figure 4.6. Attendance of coaching conferences, seminars, and workshops in the past two years

Attending coaching workshops seems to be the most popular amongst coaches (83.4%), followed by coaching seminars (52.8%) in developing coaching competencies. Coaching conferences are not well attended, with 39.7% of respondents indicating that they had not attended a coaching conference, and 25.8% indicating some attendance.

4.2.5 Service providers in coaching. Figure 4.7 indicates the different options of service providers where coaches received their training.

Figure 4.7. Service providers of training received

55.5% of the training received by the coaches is via a coach training provider, while universities are the least participating in coach training with only 22.7%. Private coaching
practitioners are responsible for 38.9% of the training and professional bodies are responsible for 41% of the training.

4.2.6 Total hours of coaching training received in the past two years. The number of hours of coaching training received by coaches over the past two years is displayed in Figure 4.8.

![Figure 4.8. Total number of hours of coaching training received in the past two years.](image)

Of the 229 respondents, 47 (20.5%) reported that they had received between 10 and 29 hours of coaching training in the past two years, whilst 45 (19.6%) had received 30 to 59 hours of coaching training. 41 (17.9%) respondents had received 60 to 124 hours of coaching training, and 40 (17.4%) of the respondents had received 125 hours or more.

To conclude, Empirical Objective 1 was to describe the current skills, experience, and training of coaches in South Africa. It seems that coaches were primarily in consulting and human resources occupations prior to becoming coaches, and most had between 3 and 5 years' coaching experience. It is further evident that the majority of coaches have postgraduate qualifications, although a coaching certificate appears to be the main coaching-specific qualification. Some coaches reported exposure to coaching modules as part of their
postgraduate qualifications. It is further evident that there are also many coaches with no coach-specific qualification. Coaching workshops are the most popular activity for personal development, with private coaching providers the most frequently used service provider. The majority of coaches reported between 10 and 29 hours of training in the past 2 years. Empirical objective 1 was herewith achieved.

4.3 Empirical Objective 2: To explore the current coaching practices, including coaching domains and frameworks

The results on the current practices, coaching domains, and frameworks are discussed in the following section, with specific reference to the total number of clients, the hours per week spent on coaching, the total number of clients coached in the past two years, the typical duration and frequency of coaching sessions, the period of time spent coaching a client, the utilisation of different modes of coaching, specific frameworks or approaches used in coaching, coaches’ niche areas of specialisation, the frequency of using psychometric instruments with the areas measured, as well as other instruments used in assessments. Furthermore, the main reasons why clients seek coaching are also reported; this includes the area of assistance as well as the most important reasons for sourcing coaching services.

4.3.1 Total number of clients. The total number of clients includes the hours per week spent on coaching and the total number of clients coached in the past two years is displayed in Figure 4.9.
The majority of respondents had between 10 and 25 clients (29%), 24% had more than 50 clients, and 28% had less than 10 clients. 18% of the coaches had between 26 and 50 clients, and 1% did not answer this question.

The total number of clients coached over the past two years is displayed in Figure 4.10.

34% of the respondents had less than 10 clients in the past two years, while 11% saw more than 50 clients during the same period. The majority of coaches had between 10 and 25 (38%) clients over the past two years. Therefore, regarding the hours spent coaching per week; the majority of coaches in South Africa do not practise coaching on a full-time basis.
4.3.2 Frequency and length of coaching sessions. The frequency and duration of coaching sessions include the typical length of coaching sessions, the frequency of coaching sessions, the length of the coaching engagement, as well as the amount of hours per week spent on coaching.

The typical duration of a coaching session is displayed in Figure 4.11

![Figure 4.11. Typical duration of coaching sessions](image)

A coaching session lasts for 60 to 90 minutes, according to 68% of the respondents, while 10% reported coaching sessions of between 91 and 120 minutes. The need of the client determines 10% of the respondents' coaching time per session. A total of 3% did not answer this question.

In Figure 4.12, the frequency of coaching sessions is displayed.
50% of the respondents see their clients every fortnight, while 26% see their clients as per the client’s request, and 22% of respondents see their clients on a weekly basis. 2% of the coaches that did not respond to this question.

Figure 4.13 illustrates the duration of a coaching engagement.

In 49% of the cases, a coaching engagement lasts between 3 and 12 months, and 20% last between 1 and 3 months, with only 2% of engagements exceeding 1 year. It is further
evident that 27% of coaches allow their client’s needs to determine the duration of the coaching engagement.

In Figure 4.14, the hours per week spent coaching are displayed.

![Hours per week spent coaching](chart.png)

*Figure 4.14: Hours per week spent coaching*

Only 1% (2 respondents) of coaches in South Africa spend more than 40 hours per week on coaching (that is, more than 8 hours per day), with the majority (54%) spending less than 5 hours per week on coaching (123 respondents). It is therefore evident that the majority of coaches in South Africa coach on a part-time basis.

### 4.3.3 Modes of coaching

Table 4.1 illustrates the different modes that coaches utilise to coach their clients.
Table 4.1

*Modes of Coaching*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Not answered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Telephonic coaching</strong></td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coaching via e-mail</strong></td>
<td>43.2%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Face-to-face (personal) coaching</strong></td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>59.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Face-to-face (personal) coaching as a mode of coaching was found to be the most popular (59%). 43% of the respondents reported that they never or rarely (20.1%) coach via e-mail, with 14.8% indicating that they sometimes or often (8.7%) coach via e-mail. 25.8% of the respondents indicated that they never or rarely (28.8%) coach via telephone. 24% said they sometimes or often (10.5%) make use of telephonic coaching. It is evident from the results that there is a move towards making use of technology as a mode of coaching.

**4.3.4 Approaches and frameworks of coaching.** In figure 4.15, the main approaches used to coach clients are displayed.
Figure 4.15. Framework or approaches used

Frameworks or approaches used (% of n=229)

- Goal-focused: 59.4%
- Person-centred: 46.7%
- Transformational: 42.8%
- Facilitational: 42.4%
- Behavioural: 41.5%
- Solution-focused: 40.2%
- Integrative: 31.4%
- Cognitive Behavioural: 31.0%
- Systemic: 24.0%
- Neuro Linguistic Program: 23.6%
- Action: 22.3%
- Cognitive: 21.4%
- Narrative: 18.3%
- Humanistic: 17.9%
- Problem-focused: 16.6%
- Transactional: 14.8%
- Other: 13.5%
- Psychodynamic: 13.1%
- Eclectic: 12.2%
- Cross-cultural: 11.8%
- Existential: 11.4%
- Instructional: 10.5%
- Gestalt: 8.3%
- Multimodal: 7.4%
- Inner Game: 6.6%
- Transpersonal: 5.7%
- REBT: 5.7%
Figure 4.15 indicates that there are in excess of 27 different approaches used by coaches, with the top cluster being a goal-focused facilitative approach within a cognitive-behavioural or solution-focused framework. The most frequently used coaching approaches are: goal-focused (59.4%), person-centred (46.7%), transformational (42.8%), facilitational (42.4%), behavioural (41.5), and solution-focused (40.2%). The approaches that are reportedly used less are: gestalt (8.3%), multi-modal (7.4%), inner-game (6.6%), and transpersonal (5.7%).

**4.3.5 Areas of coaching specialisation.** The areas in which coaches specialise are displayed in Figure 4.16.

![Figure 4.16. Areas of coaching specialisation](image)

All the coaches who participated in the survey confirmed that they had areas of specialisation. The areas of specialisation that emerged from the data are leadership coaching
(49.8%), life coaching (38.4%), and business coaching (38.4%). Specialisation in personal coaching was reported by 36.2%, executive coaching by 33.2%. 20.1% of coaches indicated that they specialised in mentoring. Health (3.5%) coaching is currently not a popular area of specialisation. There is some focus on stress management (13.5%) and team coaching (18.3%). It is important to note that respondents could select all areas applicable to them, as well as add their own area of specialisation (8.7%).

4.3.6 Frequency of utilisation of psychometric instruments. Figure 4.17 offers insight into the frequency with which coaches make use of psychometric instruments.

As alluded to in Chapter 2, the use of psychological assessments is regulated in South Africa, and it was therefore important to survey the use of psychometric instruments within a coaching engagement. Psychometric instruments are always used by 11% of the respondents, followed by 20% who reported that they use psychometrics often, and 28% indicating using it sometimes. 24% reported that they never make use of such instruments, and 16% reported that they rarely make use of psychometric instruments.
Figure 4.18 illustrates the areas measured by coaches through psychometric assessments.

From the 59% that reported that they make use of psychometric assessments to obtain additional information on the profile of their clients, 60.7% reported the use of personality inventories. This was followed by 46.7% who reported that they assess emotional intelligence, and 44.1% who assessed the client’s value system. Obtaining information on leadership abilities is the reason for 43.2% of the assessments, and 27.5% are performed to determine cognitive capability. 23.1% of coaches reported that they use psychometrics to assess attitude.

Different instruments are utilised during assessments, as displayed in Figure 4.19.
Standardised questionnaires are utilised by 60.3% of the coaches who participated in the study, while 51.1% make use of the 360° method. Furthermore, 44.1% reported that they utilise self-developed tools and/or instruments, and 31.4% reported using psychological test classified by the HPCSA. In addition, 17.5% coaches reported that they make use of other instruments that are not standardised, self-developed, or classified by the HPCSA.

**4.3.7 Main reasons why clients seek coaching.** The respondents were requested to indicate the three most important reasons why clients seek coaching. In Figure 4.20, the most important reasons are displayed.
The results show that 75.5% of respondents indicated that relationship or interpersonal skill development motivate their clients to seek coaching, with life directing or goal setting the second most important reason (68.1%). Other reasons are career or business-related issues (66.4%), work/life balance (49.3%), mental health (17.5%), health and fitness (7.4%), and financial issues (4.4%).

Table 4.2 displays how often clients seek coaching for the different reasons listed.

Table 4.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Reasons / Purpose Why Clients Seek Coaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coaching issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career / Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship / Interpersonal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life Direction / Goal-Setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work/Life Balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health &amp; Fitness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. \( n = 229; \) 1 = Never/Rarely, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Often to Very Often, 4 = Not answered

From the above results, it is evident that 65.9% of clients seek coaching for career- and business-related issues, followed by 58.5% seeking coaching for relationship and interpersonal skill development, team building, and conflict management. In 53% of the cases, clients seek coaching for life direction and goal clarification, and in 45% of the cases they seek a work/life balance. The respondents also reported that 17% of clients often seek coaching for mental health issues, and 41% reported that coaching is sometimes required for health-related issues. Clients do not seem to seek coaching for financial or health and fitness issues.

Empirical Objective 2 was aimed at exploring the current coaching practices, as well as the coaching domains and frameworks. It is evident that the majority of respondents had
10 to 25 clients, and spent less than 5 hours per week coaching. A typical coaching session lasts for 60 to 90 minutes, once every two weeks. The majority of coaches see their clients for a 3 to 12 month period. Face-to-face coaching is still the most popular mode of coaching in South Africa, while a facilitative, goal-focused approach within a cognitive-behavioural framework is the most utilised approach in coaching. Furthermore, coaches specialise in leadership, life, and business coaching. Psychometric instruments are a popular method to use to get to know clients, with the focus being on personality and values. Coaches prefer to make use of standardised questionnaires. Respondents also reported that the three most important issues they encounter in coaching are issues related to career/business-related, relationships, and interpersonal skills, as well as life direction and goal setting. Empirical Objective 2 was hereby achieved.

4.4 Empirical Objective 3: To explore the ethical and professional affiliations of coaches currently practising in South Africa

In the following section, the professional affiliations of South African coaches as well as what they see as the core requirements to be or become a coach will be highlighted. The importance of supervision and CPD is also an integral part of this section.

4.4.1 Membership of professional bodies. In Table 4.3, the coaches’ different memberships of professional bodies are illustrated.
Table 4.3

*Membership of Professional Bodies*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Body</th>
<th>Not selected</th>
<th>Yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SIOPSA (The Society of Industrial and Organisational Psychology of South Africa)</td>
<td>167 (72.9%)</td>
<td>62 (27.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMENSA (Coaches and Mentors of South Africa)</td>
<td>91 (39.7%)</td>
<td>138 (60.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PsySSA (Psychological Society of South Africa)</td>
<td>202 (88.2%)</td>
<td>27 (11.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SABPP (South African Board for People Practices)</td>
<td>205 (89.5%)</td>
<td>24 (10.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPCSA (Health Professions Council of South Africa)</td>
<td>155 (67.7%)</td>
<td>74 (32.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICF (International Coaching Federation)</td>
<td>196 (85.6%)</td>
<td>33 (14.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCP (Society for Coaching Psychology)</td>
<td>227 (99.1%)</td>
<td>2 (0.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WABC (Worldwide Association of Business Coaches)</td>
<td>225 (98.3%)</td>
<td>4 (1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IAC (International Association for Coaching)</td>
<td>225 (98.3%)</td>
<td>4 (1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMCC (European Mentoring and Coaching Council)</td>
<td>226 (98.7%)</td>
<td>3 (1.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMCSA (Institute of Management Consultants of South Africa)</td>
<td>221 (96.5%)</td>
<td>8 (3.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* n = 229

The diversity of the coaching industry in South Africa is reflected in the variety of professional bodies represented. Respondents were mostly members of COMENSA (60.3%),
the HPCSA (32.3%), and SIOPSA (27.1%). Psychologists are represented by HPCSA, SIOPSA, and PsySSA (11.8%); combined, they contributed to 71.2% of membership of professional bodies in the present study. Of the 229 respondents, 14.4% indicated that they were members of the International Coaching Federation (ICF). Respondents could be members of more than one professional organisation, and could therefore mark all the applicable professional bodies.

4.4.2 Importance of adherence to ethical codes. Table 4.4 illustrates the perceived importance of a code of ethics for coaches.

Table 4.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is the importance of a code of ethics for a practising coach?</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>199</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(86.9%)</td>
<td>(7.9%)</td>
<td>(0.9%)</td>
<td>(0.4%)</td>
<td>(0.4%)</td>
<td>(3.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n = 229; 1= Very important, 2= Important, 3= Marginally important, 4= Unimportant, 5= Totally unimportant, 6= Not answered

An overwhelming 87% of the respondents were of the view that adhering to a code of ethics is very important, with only 1% of the 229 respondents feeling that it is not important. Eight respondents chose not to answer this question.

4.4.3 Code of ethics being adhered to. As illustrated in Table 4.5, there are different codes of ethics to which coaches adhere.
Table 4.5

*Code of Ethics to Which Coaches Adhere*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Association</th>
<th>Not selected</th>
<th>Yes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SIOPSA</td>
<td>167 (72.9%)</td>
<td>62 (27.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMENSA</td>
<td>91 (39.7%)</td>
<td>138 (60.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PsySSA</td>
<td>202 (88.2%)</td>
<td>27 (11.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SABPP</td>
<td>205 (89.5%)</td>
<td>24 (10.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPCSA</td>
<td>155 (67.7%)</td>
<td>74 (32.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICF</td>
<td>196 (85.6%)</td>
<td>33 (14.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCP</td>
<td>227 (99.1%)</td>
<td>2 (0.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WABC</td>
<td>225 (98.3%)</td>
<td>4 (1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IAC</td>
<td>225 (98.3%)</td>
<td>4 (1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMCC</td>
<td>226 (98.7%)</td>
<td>3 (1.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMCSA</td>
<td>221 (96.5%)</td>
<td>8 (3.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* n = 229
As illustrated in Table 4.5, of the 229 respondents, 62.4% adhered to COMENSA’s code of ethics, followed by the HPCSA at 38.9%, and ICF at 19.2%.

4.4.4 Perceived importance of supervision and continuous professional and self-development. The perceived importance of supervision and continuous professional and self-development for coaches is displayed in Figure 4.26.

Table 4.6

*Importance of Supervision, Continuous Professional and Self-Development*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Importance of supervision during the training of coaches</td>
<td>75.1%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of continuous professional and self-development (CPD) for practising coaches</td>
<td>35.8%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of supervision as part of continuous professional and self-development (CPD) for practising coaches</td>
<td>39.7%</td>
<td>34.9%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of supervision for qualified coaches</td>
<td>68.6%</td>
<td>24.9%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* n = % of 229; 1= Very important, 2= Important, 3= Marginally important, 4= Unimportant, 5= Totally unimportant, 6= Not answered

75.1% of the respondents were of the view that it is very important to be supervised while in training to become a coach. 68.6% of the respondents were of the opinion that CPD
is very important, while 39.7% indicated that supervision should form part of the CPD requirements of coaches. Only 35.8% were of the view that qualified coaches should still have supervision as part of their development.

4.4.5 Most important CPD activities for coaches. As illustrated in Figure 4.27, there are various CPD activities that the respondents viewed as important.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most important CPD activities for coaches</th>
<th>(% of n= 229)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workshops</td>
<td>74.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional networks</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short courses</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-line resources</td>
<td>30.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small-group activities</td>
<td>28.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conferences</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Learning</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 4.21. Most important CPD activities for coaches*

The most important CPD activity identified by respondents was workshops (74.2%), followed by professional networks at 46.3%. Seminars (27.1%), conferences (26.6%), and distance learning (14.0%) were considered the least attractive CPD activities. Any three of these options could be chosen by respondents to indicate possible activities.

Empirical Objective 3 investigated the ethical and professional affiliations of South African coaches. From the data, it is evident that coaches are mainly members of COMENSA as a voluntary professional body and the HPCSA as a regulatory body for registered psychologists, as well as voluntary professional bodies such as SIOPSA and PsySSA. Coaches further see the importance of adhering to a code of ethical practice.
Supervision during training and continuous professional development is considered very important. Empirical Objective 3 was therefore achieved.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter of the study, the data received from the 229 respondents were reported with the assistance of graphs and tables to give a visual explanation of the data. The empirical objectives stated in Chapter 1 have been achieved. In Chapter 5, the results presented in Chapter 4 are discussed in detail.
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the research on the profile of coaching in South Africa reported in Chapter 4 are discussed in terms of the empirical objectives stated in Chapter 1 (par. 1.4.1), and integrated with key literature findings, as discussed in Chapter 2. The definition of coaching and coaching psychology, as indicated in par. 2.2.2, should be taken into consideration when interpreting the data. Furthermore, the data will be compared to similar studies conducted in Australia by the Australian Psychological Society interest group in coaching psychology (Spence et al., 2006), in Britain by the British Psychological Society’s Special group in coaching psychology (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006), in New Zealand by the University of Canterbury amongst executive coaches (Brooks & Wright, 2007), the Sherpa Executive Coaching Survey (2011) amongst executive coaches worldwide, as well as the 2012 Global Coaching Study (ICF, 2012) amongst all ICF members. While these studies may represent different sample groups, it is argued that the studies provide valuable information on the global profile of coaching, as the coaching industry is not yet mature enough to allow meaningful segmentation of the industry, and the studies are therefore applicable for comparison purposes. The discussions and subsequent comparisons will lead to proposals for further research in Chapter 6.

5.2 Empirical objective 1: To describe the current skills, experience, and training of coaches in South Africa

The current skills, experience, and training of coaches in South Africa will subsequently be discussed in more detail as per the stated sub-objectives (see Chapter 1 par. 1.4.1).
Biographical and demographic characteristics

The age and gender of coaches, as well as the provinces in which they are most likely to coach were discussed in 3.4.1. According to the results of the survey, most coaches in South Africa are between 31 and 60 years of age. Therefore, it can be said that coaches in South Africa are in their mid- to late career phase (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). This compares well with the results of the international studies, as the mean age for coaches is 43.5 years in Australia (Spence et al., 2006) and 48 years in New Zealand (Brooks & Wright, 2007).

Prior industry involvement

In terms of prior industry involvement, it was evident that South African coaches were from the fields of consulting, human resources, and psychology. In New Zealand, the majority of respondents came from professional backgrounds, such as management roles, professional service/consultancy, and human services, and the preferred path to coaching was through management and consulting (Brooks & Wright, 2007). There is therefore alignment in these results, in that coaches typically start in another occupation or profession and move to coaching at a later stage in their lives. This move might be due to the flexibility of self-employment or may reflect the lack of barriers to entry. The coaching industry in South Africa is currently unregulated, and it is therefore open to anybody, regardless of qualification or coaching-related experience. This unregulated nature raises questions regarding ethical standards and practices, as well as knowledge and experience in dealing with mental health issues within the coaching relationship.

Coaching experience

To determine the current level of engagement in coaching practice, 39.7% of the South African respondents confirmed that they had less than two years’ experience as a coach, and that they practise coaching on a part-time basis. In comparison, 55% of coaches
in Australia reported that they had less than two years’ experience, with 58% confirming that coaching was their main occupation (Spence et al. 2006). In New Zealand, the majority of coaches were fulltime, self-employed coaches, followed by those in full-time employment (Brooks and Wright, 2007). In Britain, the majority of respondents said that they spent less than half their time as coaching psychologists (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). The 2012 ICF survey found that 7.6% of coaches had less than one year's experience, while 41.3% of coaches had been coaching for 5 to 10 years. It is evident that the global coaching industry is still young and, with only a small core of highly experienced practitioners, the vast majority of coaches appear to have less than two years' coaching experience.

*Highest academic qualification and highest coaching-specific qualification*

The highest academic qualifications obtained by coaches in South Africa are post-graduate degrees (honours and/or Master's degrees), with the highest coaching qualification being a certificate in coaching. 30.6% of South African coaches have no specific coaching qualification. The survey was completed by 23.6% psychologists, who are required to have obtained at least a Master’s degree in order to practise. This pre-requisite might have skewed the results. 3% of the respondents mentioned that they had been exposed to coaching modules as part of their post-graduate academic qualifications (Honours and Master's degree holders combined). The fact that 11.4% of the respondents did not answer the question could indicate that they either did not understand the question or preferred not to answer the question, or that the qualification that they had obtained was not related to coaching.

According to Whybrow and Palmer (2006, p. 82), UK respondents felt that academic qualifications are not enough to practise as a coach, and added that experiential and practice-focused qualifications are also necessary: “Coaching skills are not reliant on qualifications. However it is important that an individual has some understanding of boundaries and some conceptual models.” In the UK, most respondents felt that a psychology degree providing the
graduate basis for registration with the BPS remains the key to working as a coaching psychologist. Furthermore, Grant (2006) asserts that, as the coaching market matures, consumers of coaching services are demanding higher standards of qualifications from the coaches they employ, and a postgraduate qualification in behavioural sciences appears to be a key selection criterion.

Spence et al. (2006) add to this by stating that Australian coaches overwhelmingly reported that they had some form of training, including training within a coach-training school, tertiary education in a coaching-related field (such as psychology or training), and in a helping-related methodology. More than two-thirds of these qualifications had been obtained in the previous five years. The study in New Zealand (Brookes & Wright, 2007) revealed that 84% of coaches had a university qualification, with only 2 respondents having a coaching-related university qualification. Over 95% of their respondents lacked any university coaching qualification, while a quarter of their coaches had no coaching training at all.

The South African coaches appear to be ahead in terms of academic qualifications, and certificates and diplomas in coaching. These coaching-specific qualifications were, however, not specified in terms of the training provider or the duration of the course. As alluded to in Chapter 2 (2.3), there appears to be a drive for coaching credentialing by some sectors of the coaching industry and the general public. Coaching consumers are, however, not well informed regarding the quality and standards of such qualifications and accreditations. The international studies also provide evidence that the coaching industry urgently needs to standardise coaching qualifications, as there is currently no agreed upon body of knowledge, set of skills, or core competencies that reflect what is required to educate a coach. However, there appears to be consensus that skills training is not enough, and that
professional coaches should ground their practice in theoretical and research knowledge (Cox et al., 2010).

*Attendance of coaching conferences, seminars, and workshops in the past two years*

South African coaches seem to be the most interested in attending coaching workshops, followed by coaching seminars, to develop and grow their coaching competencies. In the past two years, the majority of South African coaches only received between 10 and 29 hours of coach training. This is followed by 30 to 59 hours, and even fewer respondents having received 60 to 124 hours. Spence et al. (2006) indicate that over 90% of coaches in the Australian study reported having completed some form of training, and only 5% of the respondents reported having had no coach-specific training at all.

*Service providers in coaching*

Coaching training providers seem to be the most popular service provider for coaching training in South Africa; this was followed by training provided by a professional body. Universities are not a popular coaching training provider, as seen in the responses; this contradicts the findings of the Sherpa Survey (2011), which reported a steady increase in universities offering education and training, with some focusing more on coaching skills while other offer graduate and post-graduate qualifications with specialisation in coaching. In New Zealand, the initial training for coaches is less intense and of much shorter duration than university courses, with some lasting days rather than months or years (Brooks & Wright, 2007). The New Zealand researchers further raised the issue of how much training is required to be a competent coach, and whether graduate or shorter programmes provide sufficient training to be an effective coach. This is also an issue in South Africa, as there are no clear standards of competence and no barriers to entry. Grant (2006) and Cox et al. (2010) provide further evidence that universities are increasingly seen as preferred suppliers because
the programmes have been through recognised accreditation processes and tend to have more uniform requirements regarding coursework, research methodology, and practical experience. The discussion of Empirical Objective 1 provided an overview of research conducted on the coaching skills, training, and experience of coaches in South Africa. Issues related to the biographical and demographic characteristics of coaches, prior industries in which coaches were involved, as well as the experience that coaches have, were discussed. The highest academic qualifications as well as the highest coaching-specific qualifications that coaches have were investigated, and it seems that coaching-specific qualifications are not as frequently obtained as would be desirable. The service providers of training for coaches were also investigated, and the move towards seeking university qualifications was noted. These issues were alluded to in 2.3. The literature shows that coaching is still an emerging profession (the current state of coaching as profession), and that criteria have been set to enable the establishment of a profession, i.e. minimum levels of education and training, public recognition, the establishment of a community of practitioners, and ongoing, evidence-based theoretical and practical research (see par 2.5.1.). It is therefore evident that coaching does not meet all the criteria to be recognised as a profession; however, the survey results show that coaching has taken some important steps towards professionalisation. Empirical Objective 1 has therefore been achieved.

5.3 Empirical Objective 2: To explore the current practices, coaching domains, and frameworks

With regard to current practices, coaching domains, and frameworks, the following were investigated: The total number of clients, the hours per week spent on coaching, the total number of clients coached in the past two years, the typical duration and frequency of coaching sessions, the duration of the coaching engagement, the utilisation of different modes
of coaching, specific frameworks or approaches used in coaching, coaches’ niche areas of specialisation, the frequency of using psychometric instruments as well as the areas measured, and other instruments used in assessments will be discussed in this section. These results will be discussed in the following section.

Total number of clients

In South Africa, the total number of clients seen in the past two years was 10 to 25, followed by coaches seeing more than 50 clients. As only 1% of coaches in South Africa spend more than 40 hours per week on coaching, with the majority of respondents spending less than 5 hours coaching, it is evident that coaching is not a full-time job, but rather a part-time interest or part of a service offered by a consultancy. The average amount of clients coached in New Zealand ranges between 1 and 40, with coaches seeing a specific client around 2.7 times per month. Only 5.1% of coaches see their clients for more than 40 sessions per month (Brooks & Wright, 2007). The Australian study reported that 70% of respondents coach for less than 10 hours per week. 26% reported coaching more than 50 clients, and 38% reported that their total coaching hours exceed 200. Furthermore, 38% of coaches in Australia coach less than 10 clients (Spence et.al., 2006). It therefore seems that Australian coaches do not see coaching as a full-time occupation, but rather as a part-time occupation. They might offer coaching services as part of consulting and therefore did not report their coaching services separately (Spence et al. 2006). The UK study reported that the majority of coaching psychologists spend 50% of their time coaching (Whybrow & Parker, 2006). It can therefore be inferred that coaching leans towards being a part-time profession in the majority of the countries surveyed.

5.3.1 Frequency and duration of coaching sessions. According to the South African respondents, the typical duration of a coaching session is 60 to 90 minutes, every fortnight, for between 3 and 12 months, while the respondents in New Zealand claimed that
they usually see their clients for between 50 and 60 minutes. Approximately one third of the coaches work with a client for between 1 and 3 months, although they didn’t specify how often they see their clients within this period (Brooks & Wright, 2007). Spence et al. (2006) claim that the Australian coaches coach less than 5 hours per week. This indicates that coaching is not a long-term process, but rather a short-term intervention. Neither the Australian nor the UK studies specified the frequency and length of coaching sessions in their research results.

It therefore seems that, in terms of the total number of clients, the frequency, and the duration of coaching sessions, coaches internationally view coaching as a short intervention process and a part-time occupation. In South Africa, the trend seems similar, although the frequency of coaching engagements is higher. Even though the demand for coaching is growing, there is still a tendency to coach on a part-time rather than a full-time basis, as coaching is a relatively new field of specialisation and clients have not yet seen the benefit of coaching in their growth and development.

5.3.2 Modes of coaching. The most popular mode of coaching is face-to-face, with a small number of coaches making use of technology such as email. This was also found by the 2012 ICF Survey. Spence, et al. (2006) reported that face-to-face coaching is also the most popular mode in Australia. In New Zealand, coaching is primarily conducted in person (face-to-face), but coaching over the phone is also popular (Brooks & Wright, 2007). Therefore, it can be concluded that, although face-to-face coaching is still the most popular mode of coaching, there is a slow move towards the utilisation of technology.

Approaches and frameworks of coaching

Different approaches are utilised within coaching, both nationally and internationally. In South Africa, the most popular approaches are goal-focused, person-centred, transformational, or facilitational. Whybrow and Palmer (2006) state that the facilitational
approach, cognitive approach, solution-focused approach, and goal-focused approach are the most popular coaching approaches in Britain. They add to this by stating that there is little published literature on the application of the majority of therapeutic approaches and how these are applied to the field of coaching. Brooks and Wright (2007) reported on the most popular coaching models, e.g., the GROW model and the solution-focused model, but did not include coaching approaches in their study. It is evident that further research is required to determine the best approach, as well as how to apply it to the field of coaching to obtain the best results.

Results of the present study further confirmed that coaches enter the field from a wide variety of prior professional and occupational backgrounds, which means that the coaching industry in South Africa and globally rely on a wide range of methodological approaches to coaching, and that a wide range of educational disciplines inform coaching practices. Discussions in Chapter 2 (2.2.3) alluded to attempts to provide some structure to the variety of approaches utilised by coaches by differentiating between the contexts in which the coaching takes place, the contents of the coaching conversations, the core consequences of success or failure of the coaching engagement, and the clients (Cavanagh & Grant, 2006). It is, however, evident that the different approaches reflect the diversity of the coaching industry and illustrate how a diversity of approaches can enrich the knowledge base of coaching.

It is, however, important to note that the diversity of approaches also brings a lack of clarity regarding the definition of professional coaching and what constitutes an effective and reputable coach (Grant, 2006).

5.3.3 Areas of specialisation in coaching. The following niche areas of specialisation of coaches were reported in the South African survey: leadership coaching, life coaching, business coaching, and personal coaching. In Britain, the most popular coaching
areas are, business coaching, leadership coaching, and career coaching (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). In Australia, more than half the coaches confirmed that they have some sort of niche area of specialisation. The most popular issues that they address are in career or business coaching, relationship or interpersonal coaching, and life directing/goal setting. It was also noted that 45% of the coaches reported that they do not have an area of specialisation, and that they see themselves as generalists willing to coach in multiple domains (Spence et al., 2006). The New Zealand study conveyed that their coaches specialise in leadership development coaching, with business development and business start-up as areas of specialisation (Brooks & Wright, 2007). It seems that specialisation in coaching is practised globally.

Within the South African context, the popularity of and specialisation in leadership and executive coaching may be due to “disparities in employment, occupation and income within the national labour market,” and because “those disparities create such pronounced disadvantages for certain categories of people that they cannot redress simply by repealing discriminatory laws” (cf. Employment Equity Act, 1998). The popularity of leadership and/or executive coaching can thereafter be attributed to the demands for leadership development in the South African context. Executive and leadership coaches help clients to produce business results for their employees, while also transferring the knowledge and skills needed to sustain on-going development and growth (Sherman & Freas, 2004; Stout-Rostronb, 2009).

Executive coaching also assists with the accelerated career development of executives in order to promote employment equity and to grow intellectual capital. Within the global context, business and economic growth are always key priorities, as improved productivity is a source of economic value, which is only possible through the development of better relationship and communication competencies (Maxwell, 2009; Sherman & Freas, 2004).
5.3.4 Frequency of the utilisation of psychometric instruments. In South Africa, the frequency of the use of psychometric instruments as a tool for coaching was questioned, and it seems that quite a number of coaches make use of such instruments. The instruments used in these assessments are mostly standardised questionnaires, 360° feedback, and self-developed tools. The most popular areas measured with these assessments are personality, emotional intelligence, values, and leadership. The international studies did not report on the use of psychometric instruments in coaching. The classification and utilisation of psychometric instruments in coaching in South Africa was discussed in detail in Chapter 2 (2.4). Due to the fact that no distinction can be made between coaches and coaching psychologists, it is difficult to determine if the two groups use psychometric instruments to the same extent, or if one of the groups makes use of it more frequently.

5.3.5 Main reasons why clients seek coaching. The most popular reasons why clients seek coaching in South Africa are business or career related issues, relationship and interpersonal issues, followed by life-directing and goal-setting, and work/life balance issues. The South African findings are in line with the results reported in Australia by Spence et al. (2006). The 2012 ICF Survey found that interpersonal relationships (43.5%), personal growth (41.3%), work/life balance (32.6%), and self-esteem (32.1%) are the most prevalent reasons why clients seek coaching. The Sherpa Survey (2011), however, found that leadership, “specific problems,” and transition are the main reasons for clients seeking coaching. According to Whybrow and Palmer (2006), clients seek guidance in terms of their role as executives, their personal life, business, performance, leadership, career, teamwork, mentoring, health, and sports. From this, it can be inferred that the most prevalent reasons for clients seeking assistance from coaches are business or career-related issues, relationship and interpersonal issues, life-directing and goal-setting issues, as well as work/life balance issues.
A trend is that coaches in South Africa also reported that clients seek coaching for health-related issues: 17% *often* and 41% *sometimes*. Reviewing the international literature, there is increasing evidence that many coaching clients have clinically significant mental health issues and abnormal levels of distress (Spence et al., 2006). In this regard, Grant (2011) emphasises the importance of distinguishing coaching from counselling and clinical work, and the need to address this in the training of coaches. The results of the South African and international surveys suggest that coaches are almost certain to encounter significant mental health issues at some point in their coaching practice. Recognising and managing the boundaries around mental health issues therefore constitute a key skill for all coaches, especially the ability to judge when not to coach and to follow specific referral procedures. An unanswered question in this regard is to what extend coaches receive guidance in the appropriate handling of mental health issues, which requires further research.

From Empirical Objective 2, the following can be concluded: Regarding the total number of clients and the frequency and duration of coaching sessions, there is a tendency towards coaching as a part-time occupation. This was found both locally and internationally. The mode of coaching is still overwhelming face-to-face coaching, although technology as a mode of coaching was mentioned. Several approaches and frameworks for coaching have been identified – these differ and overlap in the various studies, e.g., the goal-focused, person-centred, cognitive, transformational, and facilitational approaches.

The areas of specialisation on which coaches focus were identified, and within South Africa, specifically, leadership, business, and life coaching were highlighted. As alluded to previously, these areas of coaching can assist with accelerated career development of executives in order to promote employment equity. It seems that psychometric instruments are used frequently, although no distinction could be made between the utilisation thereof by coaching psychologists and coaches. Various reasons for clients seeking coaching were
reported by the different studies, with the most prevalent being for business- and career-related issues. Health-related matters in coaching remain contentious, due to the fact that coaches will deal with such issues as part of their practices. The concern with coaches not being trained to deal with such matters and when coaches should refer clients to other professionals were alluded to in Chapter 2 (2.5.5).

From the above, clarity on current coaching practices in South Africa, as well as internationally, was obtained. Concerns regarding mental health issues in coaching were highlighted, and these warrant more research. Empirical Objective 2 has therefore been achieved.

5.4 Empirical Objective 3: To explore the ethical and professional affiliations of coaches currently practising in South Africa

In the following section, the importance of supervision and CPD will be discussed. The professional affiliations of the South African coaches, as well as perceptions regarding the core requirements to be or become a coach, will also be highlighted.

Membership of professional bodies

From the results of the present study, it is evident that the diversity in the coaching industry in South Africa is further represented in the variety of membership of different professional bodies. Membership of local professional bodies is concentrated in COMENSA (Coaches and Mentors of South Africa), followed by the HPCSA (Health Professions Council of South Africa), and SIOPSA (The Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology in South Africa). In terms of international membership, the ICF (International Coaching Federation) was also cited. Coaches could be members of more than one professional body, as membership is voluntary. Respondents could therefore be members of both psychology and coaching bodies. In Britain, it was reported that significant numbers of respondents
reported membership of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, The Association of Coaching, and the British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). Spence et al. (2006) state that a small number of respondents reported no professional affiliations, with the remainder having multiple affiliations, with the ICF being the most strongly represented, followed by affiliation with the Australian Psychological Society.

The results indicate that coaches perceive membership of a professional body as important. Currently, no overall professional body for coaching practitioners exists, as coaching is still an emerging profession. The growing awareness of the benefits if coaching obtaining professional status has led to international dialogues between the various coaching bodies to find common ground on coaching standards, training requirements, and ethical guidelines. Such a shared body of knowledge will also increase the social standing of coaches. At present, organisations have their own requirements for membership, i.e. regulatory and governing requirements, and each focuses on a different spectrum of coaching. Conducting continuous research on coaching as a dynamic, multi-disciplinary field of practice could ignite more dialogue and provide a clearer agenda for these various bodies towards professionalisation or not. Such research will grow the current body of knowledge with evidence-based findings. Membership of these different bodies to an all-inclusive coaching body could potentially establish a representative coaching community.

Adherence to codes of ethics

The importance of adhering to a code of ethics was also highlighted in the South African study. Most coaches adhere to the COMENSA code of ethics, followed by the ethical code of HPCSA. The survey in New Zealand had similar results – a universal adoption by coaches of a recognised code of ethics, e.g., ICF, New Zealand Psychology Board, HR Institute of New Zealand, company ethics, or other membership bodies. This is
particularly important, due to the absence of a professional accreditation body in New Zealand (Brooks & Wright, 2007). It is, however, interesting that 60% of coaches in New Zealand have professional indemnity insurance. None of the other studies, including the current study in South Africa, reported on this aspect. Spence et al. (2006) state that most coaches inform their clients about the ethical standards in coaching, while others reported that they provide their clients with some form of ethical instruction. The adherence to a code of ethics is essential as it serves as protection for all the end-users (coach, client, and organisation). As an accountability tool for ethical conduct, it also builds public confidence in coaching. Increasingly, organisations demand such adherence before they appoint coaches. Common themes in the ethical codes of the different coaching bodies were identified, as alluded to in Chapter 2 (2.5.6). These themes should form the backbone of an all-inclusive coaching body’s code of ethical practice. The adherence to an internationally accepted code of ethics, as in the case of medical practitioners, will provide clients with the same sense of security about receiving a professional service of high quality. It is therefore crucial to continue the dialogue on the establishment of an internationally accepted code of ethics.

*The importance of supervision and continuous professional and self-development*

It seems that supervision and CPD are very important to coaches. In South Africa, respondents expressed a need for supervision during the training to become a coach. Others were of the view that CPD and self-development are important. Still others feel that supervision should be part of the CPD and self-development process, and, interestingly, more than a third felt that qualified coaches should also receive supervision as part of their professional development.

Due to the fact that no distinction was made between coaches and coaching psychologists, the results on the CPD of South African coaches might be skewed, as
psychologists are legally compelled to obtain new skills and knowledge on a continuous bases, as it becomes available, in order to maintain their professional registration. That similar or different perceptions regarding CPD of coaches exist can therefore not be claimed. In New Zealand, a large proportion of coaches engage in ongoing professional development, such as workshops and seminars (Brooks & Wright, 2007). Whybrow and Palmer (2006) add to this by stating that CPD is highly valued in the UK, and that respondents prefer to attend workshops, conferences, seminars, and short certificate courses. South Africa seems to be on the correct path with the further development of coaching competencies, but should create a measure to ensure that it is compulsory for both coaches and coaching psychologists. Again, this is difficult to enforce, due to the lack of regulation of coaching in South Africa.

Whybrow and Palmer (2006) state that the perceived need supervision during training and supervision of experienced coaching practitioners is overwhelming. This indicates the desire by coaches to provide their clients with the best possible advice and assistance. A detailed discussion on the importance of supervision and CPD was provided in Chapter 2 par. 2.5.3 and 2.5.4.

The most popular CPD activities in South Africa are workshops, professional networks, short courses, and on-line resources. According to the UK study (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006), the following are highly valued by coaches: shorter, focused, and more flexible CPD activities such as workshops, conferences, seminars, and distance learning. They add that this might be due to the desire to understand the field of coaching psychology, to add to an existing, relevant skills base, and stay abreast of theoretical and practical developments.

The ethical and professional affiliations of coaches, their membership of professional bodies, and adherence to ethical codes were investigated and reported. The importance of
supervision and CPD was highlighted as an essential tool for growth and development of the coach. Empirical Objective 3 has therefore been achieved.

5.5 Synthesis of the profile of South African coaches

From the data obtained from the survey conducted, the profile of coaches in South Africa is as follows:

- Coaches are between 31 and 60 years of age, mostly from a human resources, consulting or psychology background, and have between 1 and 5 years’ experience in coaching. Most coaches have a non-specified Master’s degree, with only a certificate in coaching.

- Most coaches prefer to attend coaching workshops rather than conferences or seminars. The training to become a coach was provided by a coach-training provider, and most coaches had received only between 10 to 29 hours of training in the past 2 years.

- The total number of coaching clients ranges between 10 and 25, with coaches spending less than 5 hours per week on coaching. The majority of coaches had seen 10 to 25 clients in the past 2 years. An average coaching session lasts for 60 to 90 minutes, fortnightly, with a coaching engagement lasting between 3 and 12 months. Coaches prefer to coach face to face.

- The most popular frameworks/approaches used to coach are goal-focused, person-centred, transformational, facilitational, and behavioural, with the niche areas of specialisation in coaching being leadership coaching, life coaching, and business coaching.
Psychometric instruments are only used when necessary to get a profile of the client regarding personality, emotional intelligence, values, and leadership, and the instrument of choice is a standardised questionnaire.

Most clients seek assistance with career- and business-related issues, and relationship or interpersonal issues. Concerns regarding the use of coaching as a therapeutic tool were discussed, as only 25.3% of the respondents indicated that they were psychologists prior to becoming coaches, and 23.6% of the respondents are currently practising as both coach and psychologist. It is therefore doubtful if coaches are equipped to recognise mental health issues in their clients or to assess their own capacity to assist clients in this regard.

Most coaches in South Africa are members of COMENSA, HPCSA, or SIOPSA, with the majority of coaches agreeing that adherence to a code of ethics is very important. The majority of coaches adhere to the codes of ethics of COMENSA and the HPCSA, indicating some differentiation between coaches and coaching psychologists.

The majority of the coaches feel that supervision and CPD are very important as part of training to become a coach, and that the most important activity for CPD is the attending of workshops, followed by professional networks.

Until coaching is recognised as a profession, there will be no way of ensuring that minimum standards of competence and ethical behaviour are consistently enforced. Service quality and coaching outcomes will be unpredictable, particularly with those coaches who have had no training in coaching at all (Brooks & Wright, 2007).
5.6 Conclusion

From the above, it is evident that the research conducted on coaching practitioners in South Africa, Australia, Britain, and New Zealand showed similar trends in their results. All the studies have shown that coaching tends to be a part-time occupation, and that most clients seek assistance in business- or career-related issues, relationship and interpersonal issues, life-directing, and goal-setting issues, as well as work/life balance issues. Coaches in South Africa are in their mid- to late career phase, as they typically started in another profession and moved to coaching at a later stage in their lives. The coaching industry is a relatively young industry, with the majority of coaches having less than 5 years’ experience.

In terms of qualifications, a discrepancy exists between coaching-specific qualifications and other, academic qualifications. Due to the representation of psychologists in the South African sample, South African coaches seem highly qualified academically. Although coaching-training providers and professional bodies as training providers are popular in South Africa, the move is towards university qualifications.

The political history of South Africa as a reason for the need to escalate employment equity and accelerate career development was mentioned as a possible contribution to the popularity of executive coaching in South Africa. The global need for increased productivity and economic growth was raised as a potential force for the high demand for coaching.

It is evident from the South African survey that coaches still prefer face-to-face coaching, although the use of technology as a mode of coaching is steadily increasing. Specialisation areas of coaching were identified, although some coaches see themselves as generalists. The utilisation of psychometric instruments was investigated, and it seems that South African coaches use these frequently. The ethical and professional affiliations of coaches, their membership of professional bodies, and adherence to ethical codes were investigated and reported. The importance thereof and the need for global standards were
identified. Supervision and CPD were highlighted as essential tools for growth and development of coaches.

In the following chapter, recommendations and suggestions for future research to build and expand the knowledge base of coaching and coaching practices are made.
CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to draw together all the fundamental findings of the study. This includes the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and a final conclusion.

6.2 Overview of the study

The main objective of this research study was to explore and describe the current profile of the coaching industry in South Africa by focusing on the characteristics and practices of South African coaches. In order to achieve the empirical objectives, a quantitative, cross-sectional design was adopted, utilising a web-based survey, based on a questionnaire that was adapted from Australian, UK, and New Zealand surveys. The South African survey gathered background information on the coach, including biographical and demographic information, current coaching practices in terms of duration and frequency of coaching, approaches followed, and areas of specialisation. The utilisation of psychometric assessment instruments was also reviewed. Furthermore, the professional affiliations of South African coaches were surveyed, including coach-specific qualifications, supervision, and professional development. The adherence to ethical codes and membership of professional bodies were also investigated. The results of the South Africa survey were compared to those of the international surveys, where possible, and these were reported in Chapter 5.

The main purpose of the literature study was to provide the background and context of coaching.
To define the construct of coaching and differentiate between the different approaches

The development of coaching was investigated, and it was found that no universal definition of coaching exists. It seems individuals utilise coaching as a tool to promote desirable and sustainable change, as well as personal development and growth, and, therefore, coaching can be described as a broadly-applied human change methodology.

It was found that confusion between managing, training, mentoring, counselling, therapy, and coaching psychology exists, and that the boundaries between these concepts can become blurred. An important issue raised by the survey, which is supported by the literature, is the differentiation between coaching and therapy, and the subsequent addressing of health-related issues in coaching.

To describe the current skills experiences and training of coaches

The current skills, experience, and training of coaches were established by referring to research conducted by The Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) of the British Psychological Society (BPS) (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006) on coaching psychologists in the United Kingdom, research conducted by the University of Canterbury on executive coaches (Brooks & Wright, 2007), as well as The Interest Group in Coaching Psychology (IGCP) of the Australian Psychological Society (APS) (Spence et al., 2006) on coaching psychologists in Australia. These studies revealed that the formal qualifications route and the demand for accreditation and recognition have become more prominent amongst coaches, although it was found that formal coaching qualifications vary in terms of curricula and quality. The studies were also concerned about the quality and efficacy of coaching due to the lack of any university-level coaching training. Furthermore, the studies found that coaching as a field of practice has not yet matured, and some authors are of the view that it is still in its infancy. The mentioned studies focused mainly on the demographics of coaches, their backgrounds, qualifications, and training, their method of coaching, aspects surrounding their practices, as
well as ethical and professional standards. Issues such as revenue, professional insurance, and the regulation and professionalisation of the industry were also investigated. It was found that coaching does not meet the requirements of a profession.

To explore current coaching practices

Differences and similarities in coaching practices were found, such as that coaches have different backgrounds and had other occupations before coaching, that most coaches prefer face-to-face coaching, and that some coaches specialise in niche areas of coaching, while others view themselves as generalists. Furthermore, the utilisation of psychometric instruments to the benefit of the coaching process, if applied correctly, has been established, but there are still uncertainty and misconceptions surrounding the utilisation of these instruments. The literature did not reveal a standard practice of coaching, and there is a need for a format that is acceptable to all coaches. These findings from the literature further emphasise the need for a study to determine the profile of coaching in South Africa.

To explore the ethical and professional affiliations of coaches currently practising in South Africa

The present study conducted an in-depth investigation to define a profession, CPD, supervision, and ethics, as well as their relevance to coaching. The literature review revealed that coaches need special skills to assist clients with mental health issues, and that they should educate themselves in order to be able to identify such issues and refer clients to the appropriate professionals, when necessary. Furthermore, it was found that clients use coaching as a socially acceptable form of meeting therapy needs. The investigation also revealed that coaches owe it to their clients to safeguard their mental health and well-being by receiving the appropriate training to effectively identify and refer clients with mental health issues.
The different criteria for a profession and an occupation were discussed. The importance of supervision, CPD, as well as the adherence of coaches to an ethical code of practice, was illuminated in the literature review. Views regarding coaching remaining an occupation were also mentioned. No evidence could be found in the literature that South African coaches are adhering to ethical codes or that they conduct their coaching in a professional manner. The need to profile the South African coaching industry was herewith further emphasised.

6.3 Key empirical findings

The following key empirical findings indicate the necessity to profile the coaching industry in South Africa, as no similar study has been conducted yet. These findings confirm that the coaching industry of South Africa is indeed on the right track to grow into a dynamic, multi-disciplinary field of practice and become a leader in the growth and development of coaching.

To describe the current skills, experience, and training of coaches in South Africa

An overview of research conducted on the coaching skills, training, and experience of South African coaches was conducted. Although it was found that coaches in South Africa have not obtained the coaching-specific qualifications as would be expected, coaches have diverse professional backgrounds. This diversity enriches the field of coaching with various additional theoretical and methodological approaches. South African coaches are in their mid- to late-career phases, which emphasises their involvement in other professions prior to becoming coaches. Due to the current unregulated state of the coaching industry, anybody can become a coach, regardless of qualifications or relevant experience. It is also a concern that no standardised coaching qualification or agreed upon set of skills and competencies exist in order to grow the body of coaching knowledge. This situation has also been observed.
globally. The South African coaching industry is fairly young, with most coaches having less than two years’ experience. Universities have not been found to be a popular service provider for coaching qualifications in South Africa, although there is a global shift towards tertiary standardised and regulated qualifications. The South African coaching industry does not yet meet the criteria to be recognised as a profession, although it is evident from the survey results that important steps have been taken in that direction.

*To explore the current coaching practices, including coaching domains and frameworks*

It was found that coaching in South Africa is still a part-time occupation. Coaches still prefer to coach their clients face-to-face, although a shift towards the use of technology as a mode of coaching was observed. From the survey, it is evident that various coaching approaches are utilised by coaches, with South African coaches specialising in leadership, business, and life coaching, which might be due to the need to accelerate career development. Psychometric instruments as coaching tools are quite popular and are used frequently. The training that coaches should receive to identify and assess mental health issues is still being debated, as coaches are likely to cross paths with clients with mental health issues in their practices.

*To explore the ethical and professional affiliations of coaches currently practising in South Africa*

The diversity of the South African coaching industry is further evident in the variety of membership of different professional bodies. Due to the voluntary nature of such membership, coaches can be members of many professional bodies. This tendency shows that coaches view membership of professional bodies as beneficial. COMENSA, SIOPSA, and the HPCSA are the most popular bodies. The need for an overall professional coaching body was expressed, as it will grow and expand the current body of knowledge. The importance of adherence by coaches to a code of ethics was highlighted, as it serves as a tool
to protect all the end-users of coaching and provides accountability of coaches. Supervision and CPD are still voluntary practices for coaches, although the coaches expressed a need for such tools to further their coaching competencies. South African coaches are of the opinion that workshops, professional networks, short courses, and web-based resources are the most popular methods of furthering their theoretical and practical development. The unregulated nature of coaching in South Africa makes it difficult to enforce any continuous personal and professional development.

Through an integration of the findings of this study with the relevant literature, it became increasingly evident that the coaching industry does not yet meet the requirements to be classified as a profession. The research conducted to obtain a profile of the coaching industry of South Africa was successful, as a profile has been obtained. It is however, recognised that these results can be further refined by more detailed research on all the items surveyed, but especially regarding the road towards the professionalisation of the industry. This research study only provides the first step towards obtaining a detailed profile of individuals currently practising as coaches in South Africa.

6.4 Limitations of the study

Whilst the integration of the research findings was an important step in addressing questions of importance for the development and professionalisation of the coaching industry, the following limitations of the study were identified:

Firstly, a quantitative cross-sectional research design was adopted. The disadvantage of a cross-sectional survey is that it only provides a snapshot at a specific point in time and cannot capture social processes or change, and, therefore, the results of the survey cannot be extrapolated to the future – the profile and practices of coaches in South Africa are bound to
change. More importantly, in distributing the survey to professional bodies representing coaches, it is likely that the sample was biased and non-representative of the broader coaching community. Due to the current lack of regulation in the coaching industry of South Africa, it was impossible to obtain a complete list of all coaches currently in practice in South Africa to participate in the survey. Therefore, it is difficult to make generalisations about the South African coaching industry from the available data.

In addition, the survey did not differentiate between coaches and coaching psychologists, which influenced the interpretation of several items such as qualifications, use of psychometrics in coaching, and professional practices. For example, the minimum academic requirement to practise as a psychologist is a Master’s degree and registration with the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA). Coaches are subject to neither academic requirements nor registration requirements. The data obtained on the qualifications of coaches could therefore have been influenced by the level of qualification of participating psychologists, and may not be a truthful reflection of the level of qualifications of participating coaches. The domain from which the coaches’ qualifications originated was also not established in the study. It is therefore not possible to determine if these qualifications fall within the behavioural sciences or if they originated from other disciplines.

CPD was been identified as an important component of coaching training, but due to the lack of differentiation between coaching psychologists and coaches, the perception of coaches regarding CPD could not be determined. CPD is a compulsory requirement of the HPCSA for psychologists. In terms of the utilisation of psychometric instruments, the differentiation between coaches and coaching psychologists, as well as between psychometric and psychological instruments, could have been helpful, as these groups do not necessarily make use of the same instruments. A further limitation was that no indication was given if
coaches were appropriately registered with the HPCSA in order to legally administer, score, and interpret psychological instruments.

It should be noted that the results reported in this study can be seen as initial findings, as this survey was the first reported survey profiling the coaching industry in South Africa. A three-year follow-up is planned to determine trends and to detect changes across the industry over time. To this end, recommendations for further research will be made to address the identified limitations.

6.5 Suggestions for future research

Recommendations will be made for future research to be conducted on coaching in South Africa. Recommendations will firstly be made in terms of coaches and coaching bodies, secondly to clients or potential coachees, and thirdly to organisations purchasing coaching.

6.5.1 Coaches and coaching bodies. Future research should include a more detailed investigation into the coaching industry in general in order to grow and enhance the current body of knowledge and to find the best approaches to utilise for optimal coaching success. The differentiation between coaches and coaching psychologists should be researched to obtain specific data on the qualifications required and obtained as well the domains from which such qualifications originate. The different points of view from these two groups on supervision, CPD, and adherence to codes of ethics should be researched to establish a comparative trend between coaches and coaching psychologists. Further research should also include an explorative study on the views of coaches regarding the accreditation, credentialing, and regulation of coaching qualifications in South Africa, due to the current unregulated nature of the industry. This research will inform coaches’ decisions on training and training providers to their best benefit. It would also be beneficial to research the
utilisation of psychometric and psychological instruments by coaches and coaching psychologists as separate groups, which could then be compared. Research should be done amongst coaches to determine their perceptions regarding the professionalisation vs. self-regulation of the coaching industry.

6.5.2 Clients and/or potential coachees. This interest group would benefit from research conducted on the perception of clients regarding coaching in general, e.g., the benefits thereof to the individual, as well as coaching as a formalised profession in order to change, adapt, or reinforce their view on coaching. The knowledge and awareness of potential clients in term of coaching qualifications and skills to provide an effective service should include research on their knowledge regarding the difference between coaching and coaching psychology. Through focus groups, awareness could be created regarding the purpose and benefits of coaching and how it differs from counselling and therapy, and the perception of potential clients of professionalisation should also be investigated. The perception that clients have regarding the remuneration of coaches, i.e., whether the expense and personal benefits of coaching services correlate or not, should be investigated.

6.5.3 Companies/Organisations. The awareness of companies of the purpose and benefits of coaching in terms of the Return on Expectation (RoE) and Return on Investment (RoI) should be researched. Does the growth and development of the employee (coachee) benefit the company? Furthermore, the perception of organisations of the necessity of coaches being registered with a coaching body, and if their training as coaches should be accredited and regulated, should be investigated. The benefits of having a permanent in-house coach vs. purchasing coaching services from a coaching provider when needed should also be investigated.
6.6 Contributions of the study

The practical contribution of the study lies in providing voluntary professional associations with information regarding the qualifications, training, and experience of coaches currently practising in South Africa, while, theoretically, the study provides an in-depth analysis of the characteristics and practices of coaches in South Africa. This will create an understanding and an awareness of coaches in South Africa, as well the multi-disciplinary backgrounds that influence their coaching practices. Due to the fact that this is the first study of its kind in South Africa, it is a baseline study for future research to be conducted on the profile of coaches in South Africa. This study emphasises the fact that organised coaching in South Africa is not yet ready to be called a profession, but that coaches act in a professional way towards their clients.

6.7 Conclusion

The study aimed to determine the profile of coaching in South Africa, as such a profile did not exist. It became evident that the current knowledge base on coaching in South Africa is quite limited and that empirical research could counter such limitations.

The research question: “What is the profile of coaches in South Africa?” has been answered in a satisfactory manner, as a profile of coaching in South Africa has been established. It is evident from this research that the coaching industry globally as well as in South Africa is rapidly moving towards professionalisation. The findings indicated that there appears to be a high degree of interdependence between psychology and coaching and it is therefore imperative to develop a clear knowledge base and shared framework of practice, education and professional standards. The survey has further confirmed the strategic role of voluntary professional bodies to further the movement towards professionalisation. Through an integration of the findings of this survey with relevant literature and surveys conducted in
Australia, Britain and New Zealand, it became increasingly evident that an inclusive, interdisciplinary, participative and engaging approach amongst professional coaching bodies is required to address challenges specifically around: 1) professional registration vs. accreditation and certification, 2) an enforceable Code of Ethics, 3) developing competence around the variety of approaches and application domains, 4) minimum standards of practice and 5) boundaries based on qualification, experience and competence in coaching.

This survey was a first to be conducted in South Africa across different professional bodies and practice domains in an endeavour to develop a detailed profile of the South African coaching industry. The outcome of this survey has furthermore highlighted important areas for further research and it is envisaged that future surveys will assist both the consumer of coaching services, coach training providers and coaches with a better understanding of the profile of the coaching industry by identifying where critical training needs exist. Such information has importance towards the professionalisation of the coaching industry.
REFERENCES


Annexure A

Coaching Survey: Profiling the coaching industry in South Africa
Coaching Survey: Profiling the coaching industry in South Africa

Welcome to the Coaching Survey: Profiling the coaching industry in South Africa.

Very little is known about the composition of the coaching industry in South Africa. As a practicing coach, your experience and training, coaching practices, as well as professional affiliations, are therefore important to enable us to build a profile of the South African coaching industry.

All responses are anonymous and will remain completely confidential. The information obtained will only be reported in summary format.

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey.

There are 30 questions in this survey.

Section 1: Background information

In this section of the questionnaire, you are requested to provide information about yourself, your training, industry experience as well as your general and coach-specific training and qualifications. Please remember that your response is ANONYMOUS and that all information provided by you will be treated as confidential at all times.

1 Your gender?
Please choose only one of the following:
- Female
- Male

2 Your current age group?
Please choose only one of the following:
- 30 or younger
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- 61 or older

3 What is your highest academic qualification?
Please choose only one of the following:
- Lower than Grade 12
- Grade 12
- Post-school certificate
- 3 year Diploma
- Bachelor’s degree
- Honours degree
4 What is your highest coach specific qualification?
Please choose only one of the following:
- No coach specific qualification
- Certificate in Coaching
- Diploma in Coaching
- Bachelor's degree in Coaching
- Bachelor's degree with a Coaching Module
- Honours degree or Post Graduate Diploma in coaching
- Honours degree with a Coaching Module
- Master Degree in coaching
- Master Degree with a Coaching Module
- Doctoral Degree in coaching
- Other (Specify): 

5 Please indicate how many of each of the following you have attended in the past two years?
Please choose the appropriate response for each item:
- Coaching workshop
- Coaching seminars
- Coaching conferences

6 How many hours of coach specific training have you received in TOTAL through workshops or seminars in the past 2 years?
Please choose only one of the following:
- None
- 1 to 9 hours
- 10 to 29 hours
- 30 to 59 hours
- 60 to 124 hours
- 125 hours or more
7 Which of the following service providers offered the training during the workshops/seminars you have attended in the past two years?

Please choose the appropriate responses for each item:

- A coach Training Provider?
- A Professional Body?
- A university?
- A private coaching practitioner?

8 How long (in complete years) have you been practicing as a coach?

Please choose only one of the following:

- Less than 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- More than 10 years

9 In which one of the following provinces do you currently predominantly practice as a coach?

- Gauteng
- North West Province
- Mpumalanga
- Limpopo
- Free State
- Kwa-Zulu Natal
- Northern Cape
- Western Cape
- Eastern Cape

10 Prior to becoming a coach, in what industry were you employed?

Please choose all that apply:

- Human Resources
- Psychology
- Training
- Education
11 Specify registration category:

Only answer this question if the following conditions are met:

- Answer was at question 10 [q10] (Prior to becoming a coach, in what industry were you employed?)

Please choose only one of the following:

- Industrial
- Clinical
- Counselling
- Education
- Sport
- Research

12 Specify type/focus:

Only answer this question if the following conditions are met:

- Answer was at question 10 [q10] (Prior to becoming a coach, in what industry were you employed?)

Please write your answer here:
Section 2: Current Coaching Practices

In this section your practices and level of experience as a coach and your opinion regarding coaching is explored.

13 On average, how many hours per week do you currently spend coaching?
Please choose only one of the following:
- Less than 5 hours
- 5-10 hours
- 11-20 hours
- 21-40 hours
- More than 40 hours

14 How many individual clients have you coached since you started practising as a coach?
Please choose only one of the following:
- Fewer than 10 clients
- 10-25 clients
- 26-50 clients
- More than 50 clients

15 How many individual clients have you coached in the past two years?
Please choose only one of the following:
- Fewer than 10 clients
- 10-25 clients
- 26-50 clients
- More than 50 clients

16 How frequently do you use each of the following modes of coaching?
Please choose the appropriate response for each item:
- Telephone coaching
- Face-to-face (personal) coaching
- Coaching via e-mail

17 What is the predominant length of time of a scheduled session with a client that you coach?
Please choose only one of the following:
18 In general, how frequently do you schedule sessions with the clients that you coach?

Please choose only one of the following:

- Once a week
- Once every two weeks
- When the client requests a session

19 On average, for what period do you coach an individual client?

Please choose only one of the following:

- 1-3 months
- 3-12 months
- More than 1 year
- The period depends on the client's needs

20 Which of the following approach(es)/framework(s) inform your coaching practice?

Please choose all that apply:

- Facilitational
- Instructional
- Cognitive
- Behavioural
- Goal-focused
- Cognitive Behavioural
- Person-centred
- Solution-focused
- Eclectic
- Humanistic
- REBC (Rational Emotive Behavioural Coaching)
- Integrative
- Problem-focused
### Career / Business related issues
- Includes career management and transitions, business generation, time management, professional development and strategic development issues

### Relationship / Interpersonal
- Includes leadership and interpersonal skills development, team building and conflict management

### Life directing / Goal setting
- Includes the need to find direction, life purpose, goal clarification, resolve ambivalence, exploring options and assistance setting goals

### Work / Life Balance
- Includes developing stress reduction strategies, more flexible time, exploring new interests, finding hobbies and reducing hours in the office

### Mental Health
- Includes issues related to developing self-esteem, negative life events, social isolation and distress

### Financial
- Includes debt reduction, increased savings, financial and retirement planning

### Health and fitness
- Includes increased exercise levels, improved dietary habits, more sleep, weight reduction and more holiday time

### 23 Which three do you consider the most important?
- Please choose at most 3 answers:
  - Career / Business related issues
  - Relationship / Interpersonal
  - Life directing / Goal setting
  - Work / Life Balance
  - Mental Health
  - Financial
  - Health and fitness

### 24 Besides coaching, are you also practicing as:
- Please choose the appropriate response for each item:
  - A mentor? Yes ☐ No ☐
  - A psychometrist? ☐ ☐
25 Other? (Specify):
Please write your answer here:

26 How often do you use psychometric assessment instruments in your coaching practice?
Please choose only one of the following:
- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

27 Which of the following areas do you typically measure?
Please choose all that apply:
- Personality
- Cognitive Capability
- Values
- Interest
- Motivational Needs
- Emotional Intelligence
- Leadership
- Team orientation
- Attitudes
- Other (Specify):

28 What type of instruments do you use in your coaching practice?
Please choose the appropriate response for each item:
- Yes
- No
- Standardized questionnaires
29 Please specify:

Only answer this question if the following conditions are met:

- Answer was "yes" to question 28 [q2_15] (What type of instruments do you use in your coaching practice? (Other))

Please write your answer here:
Section 3: Professional affiliations of South African Coaches

In this section your affiliation with professional bodies and your opinion regarding the training and development of coaches are explored.

30 Of which of the following professional bodies are you a member?
Please choose all that apply:
- SIOPRSA (The Society of Industrial and Organisational Psychology of South Africa)
- COMENSA (Coaches and Mentors of South Africa)
- PySBA (Psychological Society of South Africa)
- SABPP (South African Board for People Practices)
- HPCSA (Health Professions Council of South Africa)
- ICF (International Coaching Federation)
- SCP (Society for Coaching Psychology)
- WABC (Worldwide Association of Business Coaches)
- IAC (International Association for Coaching)
- EMCC (European Mentoring and Coaching Council)
- IMCSA (Institute of Management Consultants of South Africa)
Other (Specify):

31 Which of the following qualifications do you consider sufficient as entry requirement to practice as a coach?
Please choose all that apply:
- Certificate (in Coaching)
- 3 Year diploma (in Coaching)
- Accreditation by a professional body
- A Bachelor’s Degree in coaching
- A Bachelor’s Degree with a coaching module
- A Bachelor’s Degree in Psychology
- A Bachelor’s Degree in any of the Behavioural sciences
- An Honours Degree with a coaching module
- Honours degree or Post Graduate Diploma in coaching
- An Honours Degree in Psychology
- A Master’s Degree with a coaching module
- Master’s Degree in coaching

32 What is the importance of supervision for coaches in each of the following situations?

Importance of Supervision:
33 What is the importance of continuous professional and self-development (CPD) of practicing coaches?

Please choose only one of the following:

- Very important
- Important
- Marginally important
- Unimportant
- Totally unimportant

34 Indicate which THREE of the following activities are the most suitable form of continuous professional and self-development (CPD) of coaches?

Please choose at most 3 answers:

- Workshops
- Seminars
- Conferences
- Short courses
- Distance Learning
- On-line resources
- Professional networks
- Small-group activities
- Other (Specify): 

35 What is the importance of a Code of Ethics for a practicing coach?

Please choose only one of the following:

- Very important
- Important
- Marginally important
- Unimportant
- Totally unimportant
36 Which of the following Codes of Ethics do you adhere to?

Please choose all that apply:

- [ ] HPCSA (Health Professions Council of South Africa)
- [ ] COMENSA (Coaches and Mentors of South Africa)
- [ ] SABPP (South African Board for People Practitioners)
- [ ] ICF (International Coaching Federation)
- [ ] SCP (Society for Coaching Psychology)
- [ ] WABC (Worldwide Association of Business Coaches)
- [ ] IAG (International Association for Coaching)
- [ ] EMCC (European Mentoring and Coaching Council)
- [ ] IMCSA (Institute of Management Consultants of South Africa)
- [ ] Other (Specify): 

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