EXPLORATION OF THE BENEFITS OF COMBINING HYPNOSIS WITH LIFE COACHING TO FACILITATE CLIENT CHANGE

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER

1 INTRODUCTION..... 1

2 HISTORY OF COACHING..... 3

3 COACHING MODELS AND THEORIES..... 6

Humanism..... 7
Growth-Oriented View of the Person..... 8
Practitioner-Client Relationship..... 8
Holistic View of the Person..... 9
Choice and Responsibility..... 9
The Humanistic Guide to Coaching..... 10
Positive Psychology..... 10

Behaviorism..... 14
The Developmental Pipeline..... 15

GAPS Grid..... 16

Clear Goals, Conscious Choice, and Effective Action..... 16

Coaching Strategies..... 17

Cognitive Psychology/Coaching..... 18
Mental Models/Unhelpful Thoughts..... 18
Ladder of Inference..... 19
Adult Development..... 20
Prince/Princess Form..... 20
Journeyman Form..... 21
CEO Form..... 22
Elder Form..... 23
Learning Theories..... 23
Andragogy..... 23
Transformative Learning..... 24
Reflective Practice..... 25

Experiential Learning 27

4 THEORIES AND MODELS OF THE CHANGE PROCESS..... 29

Organizational Change Models..... 32
Bridges' Transition Model..... 32
Lewin's Three-Step Model..... 34
Schein's Change Model..... 35
Systems Theory..... 37
Individual Change Models..... 39
Schlossberg's Transition Model..... 39
The Transtheoretical Model of Change..... 40
The Intentional Change Theory..... 46
The Five Discoveries of Intentional Change Theory..... 51
Discovery 1: The Ideal Self and Personal Vision..... 52
Discovery 2: The Real Self as Compared to the Ideal Self..... 53
Discovery 3: Mindfulness Through a Learning Agenda..... 54
The Fourth Discovery: Experimentation and Practice..... 55
The Fifth Discovery: Trusting or Resonant Relationship
that Allows the Person to Fully Process Each Discovery..... 56

5 HYPNOSIS..... 58

6 THE INTEGRATION OF COACHING, MODELS OF CHANGE
AND HYPNOSIS..... 66

Hypnosis and Humanism..... 70
Hypnosis and Positive Psychology..... 72
Hypnosis and Behaviorism..... 74
Hypnosis and Cognitive Psychology/Coaching..... 75
Hypnosis and Adult Development..... 76
Hypnosis and Change Theories..... 77
Journey for Guidance and Resources..... 78
Talking to Future Self 78
Talking to Higher Self..... 78
Core Inner Strength Work..... 79
Talking to the Shadow..... 79
Parts Work..... 79
The Wall..... 79

7 DISCUSSION AND AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH..... 85

REFERENCES..... 87

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my children, Dustin and Michaela. You are, by far, my greatest teachers and a constant source joy, awe and inspiration.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to explore the concept of using hypnosis in conjunction with life coaching in order to better facilitate the process of client change, and to offer coaches additional tools for catalyzing that change. The methods used to fulfill this purpose are: reviews of the coaching-, hypnosis-, and change-literature; speculation about how these theories/practices could be used to enhance each other; and offering examples to illustrate the practice of combining coaching and hypnosis. These reviews and ideas are presented as tools for competent, practicing coaches. It is strongly recommended that those coaches planning to utilize hypnosis receive adequate training in the areas of hypnosis they wish to pursue.

Dave Ellis (2006) states that life coaching is about collaborating with clients to unlock their brilliance. He states that life coaching is about people generating their own solutions, rather than looking outside of themselves for the answers. He believes in encouraging clients to look inside to find the resources to invent something new.

"Life coaches help clients discover their brilliance, which often lies masked or buried in their unconscious mind and can be experienced when they begin to design their lives consciously and purposefully" (Williams & Davis, 2002, p. 11).

"When you *consciously choose* to reprogram your thinking, you influence and control your life from the inside out. Change your thinking habits and you change your life" (Williams & Thomas, 2005, p. 297).

Hypnosis is an altered state of awareness that allows access to these unconscious resources. In the hypnotic state, one reduces the critical, analytical interference of the conscious rationalizing process (Allen, 2004). The state of hypnosis is a "dissociated state of consciousness in which there is a greater openness to learning and change" (Godoy, 1999, p. 73).

Following the introduction in Chapter 1, Chapter 2 provides a brief history of the profession of life coaching. Chapter 3 explores models and theories that are useful for the field of coaching. Chapter 4 reviews theories of and models of the change process. Chapter 5 offers a review of the hypnosis literature. Chapter 6 combines the information discussed in the first five chapters in order to suggest ways in which hypnosis and knowledge of the change stages can be used to enhance life coaching. Chapter 7 provides discussion and suggests areas for future research.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORY OF COACHING

> The word "coach" was first used in the modern sense of a sports coach in 1889 (referring specifically to one who trained a team of athletes to win a boat race). Previously (beginning in the 1840s), the word "coach" was used colloquially at Oxford University to refer to a private (vs. University) tutor who prepared a student for an examination. But the first use of the word "coach" in English occurred in the 1500s to refer to a particular kind of carriage. (It still does.) Hence the root meaning of the verb "to coach"; to convey a valued person from where he or she was to where he or she wanted to be (Evered & Selman, 1989, p. 16).

The field of life coaching has grown steadily since the late 1980s. Prior to that time, there were accounts of business and executive coaches working in organizations (Hudson, 1999). The roots of life coaching, however, are in the earlier literature of psychological theorists. Beginning in the early part of the twentieth century, theorists set the stage for the "whole and healthy" view of a person. This represented a significant shift from the client as "ill and pathological" (Williams & Davis, 2002). Williams and Davis suggest that coaching developed from three primary sources: executive coaching,

humanistic psychology, and the personal development/life skills programs that were prevalent from the 50s through the 70s.

Tobias (1996) believes that executive coaching emerged in the late 80s in response to a need to address problem behaviors without using terms or strategies traditionally linked to psychotherapy.

The influence of humanistic psychology on the field of coaching began with the work of Carl Rogers in the early 1950s and Abraham Maslow in the 1960s. Carl Rogers believed that clients had the ability to change and grow within the context of a respectful therapeutic alliance that included *unconditional positive regard*. Maslow set forth the idea of *full-humanness* and wrote of *being and becoming*. He continued the work of Kurt Goldstein, who coined the term *self-actualized people* by studying those he called *self-actualizers*. Maslow researched those persons he observed to be living life with a sense of vitality and purpose that were constantly seeking growth and striving toward realizing their potential. Williams and Davis (2002) view this as a key point in history that set the framework for the field of life coaching.

Life skills coaching specifically began with educational programs developed in the 1950s and 60s. Adkins and Rosenberg (1967) introduced life skills training as a model for anti-poverty group programs. Their research suggested that the traditional educational system was inadequate in helping those who were disadvantaged to cope with change, the barriers to success, and with life in general. Williams and Thomas (2005) suggest that the traditional education system neglects at least seven essential areas of learning and that, after our formal education, we spend 90–95 percent of our time functioning within these seven areas. These areas are as follows: how best to learn, how

to maximize wellness, how to live life on purpose, how to design and create a desired life, how to be a catalyst for others' growth and development, how to be a good spouse, and how to be an effective parent. Life coaching seeks to fill that gap. HR publication, *Personnel Policy Services, Inc.* (n.d.) said this about the growing popularity of coaching:

> The coaching phenomenon appears to have strong forces propelling the need for its services. The strongest force is the rapid and accelerating rate of change occurring in most people's business and personal lives. The industrial economy of the last century, which focused on the production of tangible goods, has been replaced by the new "knowledge economy," which emphasizes learning, creativity, collaboration, and flexibility—skills most workers are not taught. In addition, new technology (like the Internet) is forcing companies to rethink their business strategies and is also allowing, and even requiring, workers to be available 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. As a result, traditional business relationships and "comfort zones" are being disrupted with the result that symptoms of stress, burnout, and imbalance are rampant not only in the workplace, but also in employees' personal lives. All of these forces place tremendous pressures on workers at every level to establish focus, clarity, and balance in order to function and grow. Coaching has proven to be a powerful tool to achieve these ends, for both the individual and employer, because it teaches people to identify their strengths, to set goals and achieve them, to be flexible, and to be self-reliant (Paragraph 7).

CHAPTER 3

COACHNG MODELS AND THEORIES

"Coaching is still in the process of establishing credibility as an effective means for change and growth. Linking coaching practice with existing, applicable bases of knowledge of science and practice is an important step in enhancing credibility and in shifting from focusing primarily on techniques and skills to a broader and deeper understanding of relevant knowledge in coach education" (Stober & Grant, 2006, pg. 1). Rodney Lowman (2005) argues that without a solid scientific foundation, coaching runs the risk of becoming extinct. The following discussion is an overview of theories that provide a strong theoretical basis for the profession of coaching. The disciplines discussed below are humanism, positive psychology, behaviorism, cognitive psychology, adult learning, and adult development.

It is important to note that these theories are not consistent with the medical-model view of client growth and change. Much of clinical psychology, and certainly psychiatry, deliver services based on the medical model. The medical model sees the client as ill and in need of treatment prescribed by the clinician for symptom relief. Certainly, there are mental illnesses that benefit from this type of intervention. However, there are also healthy individuals who benefit from a much more proactive and positive

approach that emphasizes client strengths and possibilities for the future (Williams & Davis, 2002).

Most coaching clients accept (perhaps unconsciously) the viewpoints of the medical model. Therefore, coaching often involves the shifting of client's perceptual paradigms. A paradigm shift usually occurs when the client becomes aware of the co-creative partnership that leads to "real possibilities through chosen change" rather that the coach/client relationship focused on "fixing" the client (Williams & Thomas, 2005).

Humanism

At its core, coaching is about human growth and positive change (Stober, 2006). Stober (2006) asserts that humanistic psychology is the philosophical foundation of the profession of life- and executive coaching. The primary ideas shared by humanistic therapies and coaching are that emphasis is placed on enhancing client growth rather than removing dysfunction, and that all individuals are striving for self-actualization (Stober, 2006).

According to Stober, the key differences between the practice of humanistic therapy and a humanistic approach to coaching are: humanistic therapy generally aims for the client to have a more functional life, while a humanistic approach to coaching generally aims for a more fulfilling life; humanistic therapy generally works with the clients' *feelings*, while humanistic coaches generally work on client *actions*; while both therapy and coaching work with the client's awareness, the goal of the awareness differs. Therapists generally view "client awareness" as an end in itself. Coaches see such awareness as a first step toward appropriate action.

Stober (2006) lists several key concepts that summarize the various disciplines within humanistic psychology that are applicable to the coaching process. They are: a growth-oriented view of the person, the practitioner/client relationship, a holistic view of the person, and a focus on *choice* and personal responsibility.

Growth-Oriented View of the Person

The optimistic view of the person is central to the humanistic approach. Humanistic therapists do not deny that dysfunction exists; rather they believe that humans have the ability, and natural inclination, to find and use internal resources to make positive changes in their lives.

The central view of the humanistic approach is that the underlying tendency of an organism is to self-actualize (Maslow, 1970). Rogers (1951) and Maslow (1970) both stated that every person has a tendency to move forward and reach his/her potential. Consequently, the humanistic therapist concerns him/herself with facilitating this natural growth and development, rather than being directive or giving advice.

For a coach who approaches his/her work from a humanistic perspective, this translates easily into a role of facilitator, rather than subject matter expert. The coach acts as the *process* expert, but allows the client to be the expert on the *content* of his/her life. The coach can still provide information, but it is all within the framework of allowing the client to tap into his/her own ability for growth and positive change (Stober, 2006). In the case of giving information, or teaching, the coach makes it clear that he/she is shifting roles and asks the client for permission to do so,

Practitioner-Client Relationship

From the humanistic perspective, there are several important qualities characteristic of a productive practitioner/client relationship. They are: the collaboration between client and practitioner, empathy, unconditional positive regard, and authenticity on the part of the practitioner. All of these aspects are extremely important in the coach/client relationship.

Holistic View of the Person

Most humanistic theorists state that, in order to reach full potential, individuals must be aware of and value their full range of experience. These include physical, cognitive, and emotional realities (Cain, 2002). In the field of coaching, this view is translated into the idea that we must look at the client's whole life and entire range of experience in order to collaborate with them to create a more fulfilling life.

Choice and Responsibility

All humanistic theories offer some variation of the concept of client choice. People are seen as having some "givens" and some choices in any situation (Walsh & McElwain, 2002). The key concept of this part of the theory is that clients must take responsibility for making conscious choices rather than merely reacting. Stober (2006) believes that these assumptions solidly place coaching within the philosophical realm of humanism. Many models of coaching focus on the idea of client choice. This is evident in common coaching questions such as "What do you want to achieve?" "What sort of actions can you take along that line?" "What new response would you like to try in that situation?" (e.g., Flaherty, 1999; Whitmore & Kimsey-House 1998; Williams & Menendez, 2007; Williams & Thomas, 2005).

The Humanistic Guide to Coaching

Stober (2006) outlines a basic coaching approach using the principles of humanistic psychology. These four guiding principles are: 1) the nature of the coaching relationship is essential, 2) the client is the source and director of change, 3) the client is whole and unique, and 4) the coach is the facilitator of the client's growth. In humanistic coaching there is no one "right way" to coach. The process is based on a belief in the power of the coach/client relationship and on harnessing the internal wisdom of the client to effect positive changes.

Positive Psychology

The field of positive psychology is relatively new. "The mission of positive psychology is to develop sound theories of optimal functioning and to find empirically supported ways to improve the lives of ordinary and extraordinary people" (Kauffman, 2006, p. 219). Seligman, Parks & Steen (2004) note that approximately 30% of individuals in our country suffer from severe mental illness at some time in their lives, and that there have been tremendously helpful breakthroughs in helping this population. They maintain that it's now time to also provide assistance to the other 70%. The focus of the positive psychology practitioner is to shift attention away from pain and pathology toward the client's strengths and vision. Consequently, these theories are a natural fit for the coaching profession.

Until recently, most psychological research focused on altering negative emotions. The field of positive psychology focuses on generating positive emotions such as joy, love, awe, gratitude, hope, and desire (Kauffman, 2006). From this research, it is becoming clear that positive and negative emotions influence the individual in very

different ways. The presence of negative emotions such as fear or anger can facilitate an individual's survival by spurring quick and focused action in life-and-death situations. In contrast, positive emotions broaden an individual's focus and help build on his/her personal resources. Positive emotions also provide the individual with numerous physical benefits (Fredrickson, 2001; Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002).

It is important to note that this research also strongly suggests that there can be too much of a good thing. Losanda (1999) and Losanda and Heaphy (2004) studied the role of positive and negative emotions on the effectiveness of work teams. They found that the greatest effectiveness occurred in work teams that had a ratio of about three positive comments to every one negative comment. When groups fell below this positive/negative ratio, there was less resiliency, creativity, and authenticity. Those who went significantly above this ratio also dropped in team performance. Their research implied that if the ratio of positive to negative goes over 12:1, behavior becomes rigid and unresponsive.

Very similar results were found when studying individuals. Fredrickson (2001) did a study in which she reviewed individuals' month-long diaries. She found that the ratio of positive to negative experiences clearly predicted those who were doing well in life compared to those who were doing poorly. A particularly interesting finding in this study was that it seemed to take only one or two positive experiences in a day to change an individual's perception of his/her life as being generally positive or negative. For example, participants whose diaries showed an average of 3.2:1 (positive experiences as compared to negative) per day, or higher, were doing much better than those whose diaries showed 2.3:1.

These findings have important implications for coaches. First, it is important for coaches to understand that as few as one or two positive daily experiences can significantly shift an individual's perception of his/her life, and therefore, possibly shift the actual quality of life. Consequently, coaching a client to increase the number of pleasurable activities in his/her daily life can have a tremendous positive impact. It is also important for coaches to note that there can be too much of a good thing. Coaches should make certain that they are giving more positive feedback than negative, but that, given the correct ratio, the negative feedback also serves an important purpose.

Researchers who study positive psychology note that the presence of positive emotion is one avenue to happiness and that there are two other avenues as well: engagement and meaning (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). *Engagement* refers to a genuine connection to, and involvement with, internal or external activities. To enhance client engagement, a coach can suggest that the client increase the number of activities that he/she finds intrinsically rewarding. The coach can facilitate this by encouraging the client to identify and use his/her signature strengths in as many activities as possible. *Meaning* most generally refers to the pursuit of meaning and purpose in one's life. The focus of attention is on the positive effects one can have on one's family, workplace, community, and possibly the world. The coach can facilitate this search by asking the client what sort of legacy he/she wishes to leave in each area of his/her life. The coach could continue to assist the client by listening closely to his/her answers and then asking, "and what would that mean to you?" until the client felt satisfied that he/she had uncovered the core issues.

Considering the above three avenues to happiness, Seligman identified coaching strategies designed to increase a client's capacity for one, two, or all three. He calls them the pleasant life, the engaged life, and the meaningful life (Seligman, Steen, Park & Peterson, 2005).

Building on this work, Kaufman (2006) identifies a client's first step as taking inventory of his/her strengths, life's satisfactions, and level of happiness. During a client's first sessions, Kaufman invites the client to describe him/herself at his/her very best, using examples from the previous week. This exercise is intended to help the client begin to relate to and focus on his/her strengths.

The next step is to have the client complete an "approaches to happiness" questionnaire (Peterson, Park, & Seligman, 2005). This assessment tool implies how high the client is on each of the three identified "paths to happiness." The client then chooses which pathway he or she would like to work on first. Depending upon the personality and preferences of the client, the coach might suggest any number of exercises. For example, if the "pleasant life" is chosen as a preferred place to begin, exercises might involve savoring a beautiful day, journaling good things that happened each day for a week, actively challenging discouraging beliefs about the past, or visiting someone to express gratitude for the influence he/she had on the client's life.

Exercises for the "engaged life" might include the client choosing one of his/her greatest strengths and committing to using it for an entire week in a new way. Another exercise might be for the client to pair-up with another person to utilize their respective strengths together. For example, if one of the client's signature strengths is a love of learning and one of his/her friend's signature strengths is persistence, they might plan a

day to learn a new skill that both have always wanted to acquire. When learning a new skill, the combination of the love of learning and the ability to persist can be a wonderful combination.

Finally, the coach might suggest various exercises to assist the client in leading a more meaningful life. One exercise could be to encourage the client to put his/her greatest strengths/abilities to work serving something larger than him/herself. Another exercise is to have the client write a "life summary" as if a grandchild might one day read it. It would be a summary of what the client finds most meaningful and important in life, as well as those things for which he/she would most like to be remembered. This exercise is intended to facilitate awareness of what is already important and meaningful in a client's life, as well as awareness of things that the client would like to cultivate or create (Kauffman, 2006).

Behaviorism

Peterson (2006) gives an overview of various behavioral-therapy techniques. These techniques are: modeling (Rosenthal & Steffek, 1991), feedback (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996), shaping and successive approximation (Baldwin & Baldwin, 2001), self-management (Kanfer & Gaelick-Buys, 1991), rewards and reinforcers (Peltier, 2001) and behavioral practice (Druckman & Bjork, 1991).

Modeling—is providing the client with a *model* of the desired behavior.

Feedback—is information that can come from the client, the coach, the client's family, and/or those in the client's workplace. The type of feedback sought depends upon the goals of the coaching client.

Shaping and successive approximation—is a process in which behaviors are gradually changed (shaped) into a desired behavior. This is done by reinforcement of behaviors that are similar to the desired behavior (success approximation).

Self-management—refers to the idea that the client must manage and evaluate his/her progress as he/she experiments with new behaviors.

Rewards and reinforcers—are events that strengthen a behavior, increasing the likelihood of the individual repeating that behavior in the future.

Behavioral practice—is simply the act of trying out new behaviors.

Peterson (2006) suggests ways for a coach to modify and use these techniques within four distinct coaching frameworks. These four frameworks are: the developmental pipeline, GAPS grid, clear goals, conscious choice and effective action, and coaching strategies.

The Developmental Pipeline

Hicks and Peterson (1999) state that there are five necessary conditions for change to occur: insight, motivation, capabilities, real-world practice, and accountability. They suggest that this is a constraint model (Goldratt & Cox, 1992) in that the amount of change an individual can expect is dependent upon places in which the pipeline is the narrowest. In other words, a limitation in any of the five areas restricts the amount of change that can occur.

Peterson (2002) believes that coaching is most effective when the coach is able to facilitate the client's awareness of where his/her pipeline is the most narrow and then address those specific constraints. He also suggests that the pipeline, when used early in the coach-client relationship, is an excellent tool for the client to use his/her coaching

time most efficiently and effectively. For example, if the client is high on insight but low on capabilities, rather than working through lengthy assessments designed to increase insight, coaching time might best be spent addressing deficiencies in capabilities.

GAPS Grid

The GAPS grid is an expansion of the first two categories of the Developmental Pipeline, Insight and Motivation. It examines more deeply the conditions necessary for Insight and Motivation (Peterson & Hicks, 1996). A two-by-two GAPS grid (a four quadrant diagram) is used by the coach to gain more information about the client's current circumstances, and what matters most to the client and to significant others. The top two quadrants address how the client sees his/her strengths and weaknesses and what is most important to him/her. The bottom two quadrants serve as a guideline for discovering how others see the client's strengths and weaknesses as well as what the success factors would be for the client in each of his/her roles. Each of these quadrants contains specific questions relevant to various aspects of client insight and motivation. The top two quadrants ask questions such as: "How does this person see his/her own major strengths?" "What are the person's most important goals values and interests?" The bottom two quadrants ask questions such as: "What do other people say about this client?" "What is necessary in order for this person to become successful in his/her current role?"

Clear Goals, Conscious Choice, and Effective Action

The framework of clear goals, conscious choice and effective action (Peterson & Miller, 2005; Peterson & Sokol, 2005, as cited in Grant & Stober, 2006) is the basis of

most coaching conversations. At its most basic level, it answers the question, “What are you going to do differently?” (Peterson, 2006).

Clear goals generally involve two types of questions: “What are you trying to accomplish?” and “Why isn’t that happening now?” In other words, if the change has not already occurred, the individual either does not have a clear idea of what he/she wants or something must be slowing down or stopping his/her progress. The next question from the coach would be, “What internal changes need to take place for you, in order for these external changes to occur?”

Conscious choice involves brainstorming and then allowing the client to choose the best option. The coach urges the client to measure each option by how well it meets each of the stated goals.

Effective action involves implementing those choices in an effective manner. For more difficult tasks, this might involve practice, feedback, and learning new skills (Peterson, 2006).

Coaching Strategies

The fourth framework for coaching addresses common coaching challenges (Peterson & Hicks, 1996). The five coaching strategies are: forge a partnership, inspire commitment, grow skills, promote persistence, and shape the environment. Strategies two, three, and four closely mirror those outlined in the developmental pipeline work. The first strategy addresses the need to form a good working relationship with the client. The fifth strategy addresses the need to assist the client in shaping his/her environment and may involve coaching the client’s boss or others in the organization. This type of

coaching focuses on supporting the client's development and creating an organization that supports development in a general sense (Peterson, 2006).

Cognitive Psychology/Coaching

Williams and Thomas (2005) believe there is tremendous value in coaching clients to make positive changes in their lives by changing their thinking patterns (habits). "You are what you think, regardless of whether or not you are aware of your thinking. Indeed, you become in the future what you think in the present!"(Williams & Thomas, 2005, p. 295).

Auerbach (2006) views his *cognitive coach* work as being that of a *thought partner*. He believes that all coaches can benefit from learning and applying cognitive coaching in their practices. He notes that the most helpful tools and techniques are: identification of mental models and unhelpful thoughts, the generation of helpful thoughts, and the ladder of inference.

Mental Models/Unhelpful Thoughts

Mental models are beliefs about how the world operates. The less flexible the person is with regard to these beliefs, the more limiting these beliefs can become (Auerbach, 2006). Coaching conversations can be used to introduce the concept of mental models and to guide the client through a process to discover and make adjustments to his/her own mental models. Auerbach proposes the following coaching process.

1) Recognize current mental models.

2) Discover how these mental models affect decision-making and behavior.

3) Learn how to recognize and closely examine mental models as they present themselves.

4) Learn how to encourage open conversations about mental models, assumptions, and inferences.

Assisting clients to identify their cognitive distortions can also be a useful cognitive coaching tool. Some of these common distortions include: all-or-nothing thinking, mind reading, over-generalization, and catastrophizing (Burns, 1980; Williams & Thomas, 2005).

Ladder of Inference

Another method for increasing awareness of thought processes and mental models is the ladder of inference (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994). This tool can be used to make clients aware of their subjective interpretations of events. The ladder has five rungs, beginning with the bottom:

1) We are exposed to images, words, and other data.
2) We choose to focus on certain data.
3) We make assumptions about the data we have selected.
4) We draw conclusions.
5) We take actions based on our conclusions.

The practicing coach can use these tools with clients who find themselves in habitual negative patterns of thought and/or behavior. This can be particularly helpful in pointing out that a client's subjective interpretation is not necessarily a fact; it is merely interpretation. With that established, the coach can help the client think through alternative explanations for the event that could lead to different actions on the part of the client. These new actions can then lead to new outcomes and possibilities for the future.

Adult Development

While early theories of adult development focused on age or phase of life (Erikson, 1980; Levinson, 1978), the later *constructive-developmental* theories (Baxter Magolda, 1992; Kegan, 1982; Fisher, Rooke, & Torbert, 2000) focus on how a person makes meaning. They are *constructive* because each person creates his/her own life as he/she lives it, and *developmental* because the way each person constructs his/her life changes over time (Berger, 2006). There are many, but very similar constructive-developmental theories. The coaching model presented here is that of Jennifer Berger (2006) using the constructive-developmental theory proposed by Robert Kegan (1982, 1994).

. Constructive-developmental theorists view development in terms of authority, responsibility, and ability to tolerate ambiguity and complexity. As people develop, they become more aware of the perspectives of others, as well as their own responsibility for their personal perspectives and experiences. They tend to revise their relationship to authority and to increase their ability to deal with uncertainty and complexity (Berger, 2006). The descriptions that follow are an outline of these different developmental stages. The description of each stage is followed by suggested coaching strategies to address development from that stage to the next.

Prince/Princess Form

Individuals in this stage of understanding are very self-focused. This form is often observed in teenagers and young adults, but can be seen at any point in the life cycle. At this stage, individuals are unable to understand, or possibly even notice, the perspectives

of others. They believe authority to be external to themselves and will generally obey rules because of the perceived consequences to them if they do not.

The key strengths of the prince/princess form are that the person has clear images of right and wrong, and can perform well in very clear-cut situations. The obvious blind spots of this form are the inability to see the perspectives of others and/or deal with abstractions. To the adolescent, there are no gray areas.

A coach can facilitate movement from the prince/princess form to the next form, the journeyman, by assisting the individual to grasp the concept of other perspectives. Coaching homework might include asking the individual to talk with others in the organization that the prince/princess has great difficulty understanding, and then later reporting what he/she learned about the colleague. to the coach. The coach could also ask questions in very concrete, behavioral terms such as: “I know you’ve said that you think his comments in the meeting were really stupid.” “What do you think might have led him to think/feel that way?” “What do you think was behind his actions after the meeting?”(Berger, 2006)

Journeyman Form

In this form, individuals begin to see, understand, and internalize other perspectives. The individual often attempts to become as much like those in authority as possible (whether that be a person, system, theory, etc). He/she has difficulty thinking or making decisions for him/herself. While we might think of this form as rare in adults, research done by Lahey, Souvaine, Kegan, Goodman, and Felix (1988) found that 46% of the adult population is in the journeyman form of understanding.

The main strengths of the client as journeyman are his/her ability to be fiercely loyal to whom/what he chooses, and his/her ability to see the perspectives of others. The main weakness of the journeyman is the inability to effectively resolve conflicts both internally and externally, given the emphasis on togetherness at all costs.

A coach can facilitate the learning of a journeyman by gently pointing out that no one theory, person, or entity is infallible, and by allowing the person to begin exploring his/her own voice and values.

CEO Form

The general population considers this form as describing what adults are supposed to look like (Berger, 2006). The CEO owns his/her own perspectives, makes his/her own decisions, and solves internal and external conflicts well. He/she prefers to do things in ways that make sense to him/her, rather than receiving direction from others.

The CEO's main strength is that he/she tends to have a clear personal vision. He/she can also consider many perspectives without being unduly influenced by any one person or idea. A coach can facilitate the CEO's growth by encouraging him/her to take on more and more complex situations, such as work assignments in which he/she will interact with those who have very different ways of doing things. A shortcoming of the CEO can be an over-investment in his/her own view of the world and best ways of getting things done. A coach can facilitate the CEO's curiosity about alternative ways of being and doing.

Elder Form

When an individual reaches the elder form of understanding, he/she has begun to see and understand the world in much more complex terms. Almost nothing is clear-cut anymore, as everything seems to have taken on multiple levels of meaning.

The key strength of the elder is his/her ability to see connections and over-lapping perspectives/ideas in nearly every issue. The key difficulty is that most others have trouble understanding the complexity of the elder. Subordinates in an organization are often frustrated by the elder's ability to see so many overlapping perspectives as well as his/her focus on process instead of outcome. Because there are so very few elders in the population (Kegan, 1994), most coaches will not have the opportunity to work with one. If they do, it can be helpful just to provide an avenue for the individual to explore the complex thoughts and images with which he/she is dealing. Because an elder is likely to outgrow his/her organization, a coach can facilitate the elder's exploration of and transition into situations that are a better fit for his/her complexity (Berger, 2006).

Learning Theories

Cox (2006) believes that there are several adult-learning theories that are particularly relevant to coaching. These theories are: andragogy, transformative learning, reflective practice, experiential learning, and learning styles. Each of these theories will be discussed in turn, followed by an outline of a learning-theory coaching framework

Andragogy

Andragogy has its roots in the theory of constructivism, and states that new learning is built upon past learning and experience. Knowles, Holton, and Swanson (1998) state that the six main principles of andragogy are: 1) adult learning is self-

directed, 2) adults need to know why they are learning something before they will learn it, 3) adults can use a vast amount of past learning and experience to bring to their new learning, 4) adults need their learning to be relevant to addressing real-life issues, 5) adults need learning to be relevant to their personal and professional lives, 6) adults respond more to intrinsic motivators than to extrinsic ones.

Although there has been a fair amount of criticism and debate concerning Knowles' six assertions about adult learners (Tennant & Pogson, 1995), there still appear to be useful parallels between Knowles model and the practice of coaching. For example, Knowles borrows from humanistic psychology in his assertion that facilitation is superior to direct teaching. He believes that facilitating the emergence of adults' vast amounts of knowledge is the best way to stimulate their additional learning. Similar to coaching, his ideas favor encouraging the learner to identify needs, set goals, and enter learning contracts based upon his/her own learning agenda.

Transformative Learning

Transformative learning involves a deep shift in beliefs, principles, and feelings (Mezirow, 1990). It is a process of not only gaining factual knowledge but also becoming changed in some meaningful way by that knowledge. It involves questioning assumptions, values, and beliefs, and considering multiple points of view. Mezirow explains that "perspective transformation is the process of becoming critically aware of how and why our assumptions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand and feel about our world; changing these structures of habitual expectations to make possible a more inclusive, discriminating and integrating perspective; and finally, making choices or otherwise acting upon these new understandings." (Cranton, 1994, p. 22).

Merriam (2004) suggests that personal transformation usually begins with a disorienting dilemma, which is triggered by a life crisis or major life transition. This crisis or life transition causes a process of deep reflection, self-examination, and reorientation. However, Mezirow (1990) suggests that this transformation can also occur from an accumulation of transformations in meaning schemes over a period of time. Less dramatic occurrences, such as those created by a teacher or coach, can also promote transformation. By listening deeply and asking pertinent questions, a coach can be extremely helpful in aiding the transformational process. Building an atmosphere of trust and respect is also a key issue in setting the stage for transformation to occur. Finally, the coach should consider his/her role as being both rational and affective.

According to Grabov (1997) transformative learning has two layers that appear to be in conflict: the cognitive, rational, and objective versus the intuitive, imaginative, and subjective. Individuals generally over-focus on rational thought processes, so a coach would do well to encourage his/her clients to address their feelings and emotions as another valuable form of reflection (Grabov, 1997, as cited in Cranton, 1997).

Reflective Practice

Reflective action is based on the theory of constructivism. It involves examining actions so that relevant beliefs may be challenged and possibly changed (Schon, 1987). Donald Schon suggests that the capacity to reflect on action in a way that allows continuous learning is one of the defining characteristics of professional practice. He argues against the concept of "charging students up with knowledge in school so that they can discharge it when they enter the world" (p. 2) (termed the battery model by Schon). He suggests that the teaching others to reflect on an activity, both while engaged in the

activity and after the activity is completed, should be an important feature in training programs, and mentoring relationships. He reports that, in order for real reflective practice to occur, it might be necessary to have a mentor or professional who can ask appropriate questions. In this way the mentor/coach can ensure that the reflection results in something meaningful. Otherwise, it is easy for the student or client to get bogged down with self-justifications, self-indulgence, or self-pity.

These ideas can be useful for a practicing coach. He/she would do well to reflect upon and learn from his/her own behavior as a coach, and to recall the importance of assisting clients in their self-reflection. Cox (2006) believes that the regular use of reflective practice is invaluable in speeding up the process and reliability of learning from one's experience.

Joy Amulya (2007) of the Center of Reflective Community Practice at MIT, suggests that there are certain types of experiences that can create the most powerful opportunities for learning through reflection: struggle, uncertainty, dilemma, and breakthrough. These experiences seem quite relevant to the realm of coaching. One of the valuable aspects of coaching is that it allows the client to slow down and really look at his/her life and experiences. In the world of work, especially, the opportunities to learn are plentiful. Yet there are few structures in place to support learning from experience, or support for taking time out to reflect. For most individuals, *doing* takes great precedence over learning. Simply being aware of what is happening does not constitute learning. A coach can be an invaluable catalyst for growth by providing the time and structure to encourage reflection.

Experiential Learning

Kolb (1984) maintains that people learn best through direct experience. His experiential learning model explains how people learn from experience and how they process that learning. Kolb's experiential learning model has four elements: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Kolb suggests that the steps of this model usually happen in sequence, but that the learning could begin at any one of these four points. He notes that the learning process usually begins with the individual experiencing and then reporting on a particular action (*concrete experience*). *Reflective observation* follows, as the individual reflects on the effects of the action and understands that he/she is likely to get a similar result if a similar action is taken in the future. *Abstract conceptualization* is the third step. This step has to do with understanding the underlying principles that affect the action and outcomes, in order to apply that knowledge to other situations. *Active experimentation* is simply planning and implementing a new action.

Boud, Cohen, and Walker (1994) suggest that all learning flows from experience, regardless of the external prompts to learning. The practical application of the experiential learning theory is illustrated within a given coaching session as the coach and client examine and reflect upon client experiences (Cox, 2006).

Coaches can facilitate learning by asking for a full description of the experience, fully exploring the client's perceptions of the experience, and then engaging the client in planning for and experimenting with new future actions. The coach might also use the related *Learning Styles Inventory* (Kolb, 1976) to facilitate the client's awareness of

his/her preferred learning style. This can be used to both build upon strengths and identify growth areas.

CHAPTER 4

THEORIES AND MODELS OF THE CHANGE PROCESS

There are varieties of theories examining why change can be difficult for clients. Some of these theories point to clients' natural resistance to change. Others look at the current behaviors as simply habits that can be broken through purposeful action and repetition of that action. Still others see resistance to change as merely a natural phase in the overall change process. Below is an overview of these different ideas of the change process.

According to Fredric Hudson (1999), coaches need to be prepared for their clients to be resistant to change. He maintains that, seemingly paradoxically, clients become more resistant to change as they get closer to achieving their coaching goals. This usually occurs during the *middle phase* of coaching. He notes that it is wise to avoid the urge to remove the resistance, as this often leads to a power struggle. Rather, it is best to allow the client to work his/her way through the resistance. The breakthrough occurs when the client realizes that his/her vision of change is more powerful than his/her resistance to it.

Cormier and Hackney (1993) note that practitioners should expect clients to show resistance to change. They maintain that empathy, support, and awareness skills can help the client move through the internal conflict and progress toward his/her goals.

The practicing coach can provide empathy by realizing and verbalizing that change can be very difficult. Cavanaugh (1982) notes that the pain of behavioral and psychological growth is analogous to the pain experienced physiologically when muscles are trained and stretched in new ways. Cavanaugh suggests "there is almost always a price to pay for becoming stronger, and sometimes that price is dear" (p. 241).

The coach can offer support by meeting the client where he/she is now. Cormier and Hackney (1993) make the point that it is unwise to rush the client, or fight for more than he/she presently wants. In doing so, the coach may be fighting with the client (on the client's behalf) and, in the process, the client loses an important ally.

The coach brings awareness to the situation by simply expecting that the client is likely to have some issues with change. As mentioned earlier, many coaches tend to think that all clients are in the action stage of change. Maintaining the awareness that change can be quite difficult, and that any given client might be at any given stage at a particular time, can be very beneficial for both client and coach.

Both Hultman (1998) and Zeus and Skiffington (2000) identified two forms of resistance to change: active and passive. They both noted that *active* resistance is easy to observe, but *passive* resistance only becomes apparent over time. In the case of passive resistance, since the client is usually unaware of his/her behavior in this regard, it is often quite challenging and time-consuming for the coach and client to gain helpful insights. Once the resistance is identified and worked through, the coach and client again discuss the benefits the client wishes to achieve by making the change. When the client re-establishes his/her values and goals for coaching, the coach and client can again pursue goal-setting and action-planning.

The above explanations of the concept of resistance represent the more traditional view, most often associated with therapy. Many coaches have a completely different approach toward a client's difficulty with change. For example, Dave Ellis (2006) suggests that, if the client says that he/she really wants to do the work and make the needed changes, believe him/her, even if the client's behavior seems to indicate resistance. "I like to believe people by their words and not their actions" (Ellis, 2006, p. 195). Ellis suggests that if a client's behaviors are incongruent with his/her stated goals, the coach should view these behaviors as habits that need to be broken and/or replaced. He believes this approach is much more open, full of possibilities, and much more congruent with the coaching philosophy that people are whole, creative, and capable.

Ellis outlines a four-step plan to change a habit: commit to change, set up a feedback system, practice the new habit, and celebrate success. He notes that a client can make huge strides simply by fully committing to the change, even before he/she decides how to implement the change. Once the client has committed to the change, he recommends setting up some sort of system to track changes. This can be as simple as the client making a tally each time he/she performs the new behavior. The next step is for the client to practice the behavior after committing to the coach and him/herself that he/she will avoid getting angry or blaming him/herself for mistakes. Finally, Ellis suggests that the client celebrate progress and celebrate again when the habit has been changed.

Williams and Thomas (2005) provide further support for the idea that behaviors that conflict with client goals are merely habits to be replaced. They state that, "the subconscious is what drives most behavior" (p. 312). They suggest that a client who wants to implement new ideas could start by programming these new ideas into the

subconscious mind through focused attention, practice, and repetition. For example, they suggest an exercise in which the client writes down a comprehensive description of his/her desired future and then memorizes that description. Memorizing the description programs the information into the subconscious mind. Another suggestion they give is that the client make a list of at least 200 goals and then frequently imagine him/herself attaining those goals. The client writes "victory" next to each goal as he/she attains them.

Other authors (e.g.; Bridges, 1991; Prochaska & DiClemente, 1982, 1984; Schein, 1995) believe that change, and resistance to it, can be understood by considering the various stages that an individual moves through when making a change. To these researchers, resistance is seen as just as necessary and natural as any other stage in the change process.

There are varieties of change models available in the literature. The models that I believe have the most utility for coaching are summarized below.

Organizational Change Models

Bridge's Transition Model

Bridges (1991) suggests that people do not have problems with change itself. Rather, they have problems with transitions. He suggests that the change is the outward situation, but the *transition* is the psychological process the person goes through because of the change. He asserts that a person goes through a three-step process as they internalize and accept the new situation.

The first phase is *letting go*. This signifies the ending of what was. He recommends that organizations spend time identifying who is likely to suffer losses from

the change and sympathize with them publicly—allow them to grieve. He also recommends that the organization find non-financial ways to compensate for losses. During this phase, communication is a top priority. Ceremonies and rituals to honor the past can be appropriate.

The next phase is the *neutral zone*, in which the old is gone but the new is not completely in place. He reports that anxiety and self-doubt increase during this phase and motivation and efficiency generally suffer. During this time, however, people tend to be more receptive to new ideas. It is a good time to begin to build in new systems. It is best for these systems to be short-term ones and address short-term goals. During the neutral zone phase, one needs to allow for increased creativity.

Bridges calls the last phase *new beginning*. In this phase, the person develops a new identity and will likely feel a surge of new energy and purpose. Bridges recommends the use of what he calls the "4 ps" in the new beginning phase: explain the *purpose*, paint a *picture* of the outcome, lay out a specific systematic *plan*, and give each person a *part* to play. Using the "4 ps" in this phase increases the chances that the change will continue to move in a positive direction. Bridges research suggests that it is extremely important for people to understand the purpose of the change, and to be able to visualize the future outcomes. The surge of energy that generally occurs in this phase is best utilized if the organization has a specific plan for each person's role in the needed changes.

This model could be a useful guide for coaches working in organizational settings. It emphasizes and normalizes the role of employees' emotions in the process of transition.

In my experience, those in upper management who have very little understanding of the change process often handle major changes in organizations. They seem to view their role as that of breaking through employees' resistance and getting on with business as quickly as possible. A skillful coach could not only explain to upper management the importance of honoring these natural stages, he/she could also stress that honoring these stages, and proceeding accordingly, make the most sense in terms of productivity and profit. The business coach could then work with groups of employees to open the lines of communication and implement processes to assist individuals to move through the change.

Lewin's Three-Step Model

Kurt Lewin proposed a three-step model of change (Schein, 1995). Lewin calls stage 1 u*nfreezing*. This stage is characterized by the idea that change requires adding new forces for change, or removing old forces that perpetuate current behavior. Stage 2, *moving*, is characterized by individuals and groups who are trying out the new ways. This stage takes place when individuals realize that what they were doing before is no longer working within the changing system. Stage 3 is called *refreezing*. The new behavior becomes habitual in this stage. This stage includes developing a new self-concept/identity and establishing new relationships.

Coaches utilizing this model should closely study it as well as Schein's model from the next section. Many subtle issues surface in these models. For example, one aspect of the model is that the unfreezing stage creates motivation to learn, but does not predict or control the direction of learning. If the only new information comes from a powerful role model, the learning will likely occur in that direction. This happens

regardless of whether or not the role model is providing the best or most appropriate learning for the client. Keeping this in mind can be useful for the coach. It can also serve as a caution. He/she will need to refrain from attempting to influence the client's decisions about when and how to change, since he/she may inadvertently serve as that powerful role model. If the client adopts new learning and behaviors based solely on the views of the coach, the learning may or may not stick in the long term.

Another useful aspect of Schein's and Lewin's models is that, in the absence of a powerful role model, the client will begin a process called *scanning* in an attempt to continue the change process. The client might scan by reading, talking to others, entering therapy, going back to school, hiring a coach, etc. When the client feels psychologically safe, he/she may experience a spontaneous insight that spells out the next steps toward successful change. Given the fact that many coaches believe that the best and most enduring solutions come from inside, rather than outside influences, the coach's job is to create the space and safety for these insights to occur.

Schein's Change Model

Schein's change model builds on the work of Kurt Lewin. Schein (1995) proposes the same three stages of change, but elaborates more deeply on the processes occurring. In the *unfreezing* stage, for example, Schein suggests that there are three sub-processes occurring: disconfirmation, survival anxiety, and learning anxiety. Disconfirmation occurs when present conditions lead to dissatisfaction. This has the potential to help the person move toward the second stage of change, unless his/her current beliefs are very different from the beliefs required to make the change. When the difference is great, any new information aimed at making the change will likely be ignored. He notes that if,

because of the change, the individual's previous beliefs are seen as invalid, it will create *survival anxiety*. The need to survive and continue within the system may not be sufficient to prompt change if *learning anxiety* is present. Learning anxiety triggers defensiveness and resistance due to the pain of having to cease utilizing previous knowledge and ways of operating within the system. Schein maintains that more stages occur in response to learning anxiety. These stages are: denial, scapegoating, passing the buck, and maneuvering and bargaining.

Schein (1995) believes it is necessary to move past the anxieties in order for change to progress. This is accomplished when the survival anxiety turns out to be greater than the learning anxiety. However, he believes it is best to find ways to reduce the learning anxiety.

While discussing learning anxiety, it is important to note that many authors and researchers regard the ability to embrace change and learn quickly as the difference between the winning and losing organizations. "Losers will be unable to recognize, react to, and manage change; winners will recognize, react to, manage and prosper in a changing environment" (Johnson, 1998, p. 142). Senge et al. (1994) assert that *learning organizations* are the only ones that have any hope of prospering in our rapidly changing business environments. He defines the learning organization as one "where people continuously expand their capacity to create the results they desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together" (p. 11).

A learning organization or one that is striving to become a learning organization is the perfect place for an organizational coach. Senge's definition of a learning

organization fits the general philosophy of coaching, which is to work with the client to continually expand his/her capacity to create desired goals and results, nurture creativity, and expand his/her ability to learn. Coaching a team or group within an organization is about helping the team to achieve superior performance while still facilitating this type of growth for each individual within the team.

Systems Theory

Carter McNamara (n.d.) states that rapid change, with its inherent challenges, has caused organizations to move toward a new perspective, a systems perspective. He states that viewing the organization as a system, rather than as separate and independent parts, is quite basic. Decades of management training and practices have not shown much knowledge or understanding of the systems concept. With the tremendous changes that organizations now face, that paradigm is shifting.

Systems theory has allowed leaders and managers a way to look at, and interpret, patterns and events in their organizations. This new perspective allows them to create structures that provoke behaviors that determine events, rather than reacting to events as they happen (McNamara, n.d.).

The practicing coach can gain valuable information from any one or all of these models, and can be a real asset to organizations dealing with change. For example, William Bridges (1991) asserts that a given individual goes through a very real psychological process in the midst of organizational change and points out that managing it correctly can make all the difference. Astoundingly, organizations often miss this point. An organizational coach can help management understand and accept this reality. He/she

may create structures to assist individuals to move through each stage of the change, ending with Bridges “4 ps” of the new beginnings stage referred to above.

Another option for an organizational coach is to utilize the frameworks of Lewin and Schein to work with the management of an organization to examine the forces that need to be added, and/or removed, in order for successful change to occur. Schein’s theories give the coach tools to work with individuals whose beliefs are very different from those necessary to successfully make the change. The concepts of survival anxiety and learning anxiety also seem to be fertile ground for the practicing coach. Shein’s theory also gives the coach a helpful framework in which to view behaviors likely to be seen in the presence of learning anxiety, as well as ideas to help reduce learning anxiety.

Since changes do not happen in a vacuum, I believe any coach who is working within an organization should have a good grasp of systems theory. The most useful aspect of all these models is that they give the coach and the organization a common language. A skillful coach can completely change upper management’s view of what they perceive as problem employees who are resisting change by explaining one of these models and using it as a basis for assisting the organization to move forward. He/she can also use one or more of these models to explain and normalize the behavior of employees who are often as confused about their own behavior as upper management.

Rodney Lowman (2005) relates that the strength of the coach’s belief in his/her approach is at least as important as the approach itself. He also notes that a trusting relationship is an absolute necessity and that the environmental context is extremely important. These things certainly seem as important in working with organizations as they do in working with individuals.

Individual Change Models

Schlossberg's Transition Model

Schlossberg, Waters, and Goodman (1995) suggested there are four main sets of factors that affect a person's ability to accept, and move through, a transition. These four factors are: situation; self; support; and strategies. They maintain that determining the individual's assets and liabilities within each area helps to predict how well he/she will cope with the transition. It is important to note that the person's view of the event/transition is the main factor in determining whether something is an asset or a liability.

As an individual considers his/her situation, he/she will take into account several factors: what triggered the transition; the timing of the transition; how much control he/she has over the transition; whether or not he/she will need to shift roles; whether the transition is short-term, long-term, or unknown; what other stresses are happening in conjunction with the transition; whether he/she previously coped well with a similar situation; and who is responsible for the transition.

Self consists of two areas: personal and demographic characteristics and psychological resources. This would include socioeconomic status, stage of life, ethnicity, gender, and state of health. It also includes psychological resources used to cope.

Support includes the person's social supports, from intimate relationships to institutions and communities. Schlossberg et al. (1995) assert that it is important to assess which supports are stable and which are likely to change.

Schlossberg et al. (1995) suggest four main strategies for coping with transition: direct action, information seeking, inhibition of action, and intra-psychic behavior.

Schlossberg et al. (1995) also included a revision of their theory that incorporated Cornier and Hackney's (1993) five-stage counseling model. This revision attempts to turn theory into an action plan for individual clients.

Schlossberg (1985) developed (and later revised) a transition theory that was intended to provide an assessment and guidelines for professionals working with adults in transition (Schlossberg et al., 1995). This theory can be useful for coaches, as they are often working with clients who either have had transitions forced upon them, and/or who wish to create one or more transitions in their lives, such as moving from who they are to who they wish to be. It is also useful in that it suggests some key psychosocial factors that mediate an individual's transition through the change process. Consequently, this gives the coach a broader view of factors working outside the individual.

This broad view can be useful in determining the best ways to collaborate with a client during transition. By examining the four sets of factors that affect an individual's movement through change, the coach can structure his/her sessions to provide support where it is most needed.

The Transtheoretical Model of Change

Two change models are most relevant and useful to coaching. One is the Transtheoretical Model of Change TTM) (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1984). The other is Intentional Change Theory, addressed in the next section. TTM proposes that change is a process that happens over time, with distinct, yet overlapping stages, that an individual moves through as he/she works toward change. The theory is that, after working through

all stages, permanent change has likely taken place. The theory also allows for the fact that change is generally not linear, and that people will often relapse before the change becomes permanent.

The stages in this model are as follows:

1) Precontemplation—The person has no clear intention to change.

2) Contemplation—The person is considering making changes, but has not yet acted on these thoughts. He/she is basically ambivalent about making a change.

3) Preparation—The person's commitment to change has increased. He/she is making plans to change and may have begun making small changes.

4) Action—The person has begun making changes and is engaging in new behaviors to support those changes for a short period of time, generally 3–6 months.

5) Maintenance—The person has consistently engaged in these changed behaviors over a period of time, usually six months to five years (Prochaska & DiCelemente, 1982).

As an individual moves through the stages of change, he/she experiences changes in attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors such as decisional balance, self-efficacy, and habit strength.

Decisional balance is the perceived benefits and costs (pros and cons) of a given change. TTM predicts that the cons of change seem greater than, and more important than, the pros to those in the precontemplation stage. In moving through the stages, the person gradually perceives the pros of change as more important than the cons.

Habit strength refers to the physiological and psychological aspects of the behavior. For example, for an individual wishing to lose weight, who habitually eats high calorie, sugary foods and engages in only sedentary activities, habit strength might be

measured by the number of trips to the vending machine each day, degree of temptation to overeat in specific situations, and amount of exercise engaged in each week (Velicer, Norman, Fava, & Prochaska, 1999).

Self-efficacy is an individual's confidence in his/her ability to engage in or perform a specific behavior (Bandura, 1977). TTM predicts that self-efficacy will become higher as the person moves toward the later stages of change. This prediction has been borne out by research. Self-efficacy scores have been found to be higher in the action and maintenance stages than they are in the precontemplation and contemplation stages (Cowan, Logue, Milo, Britton, & Smucker, 1997; Herrick, Stone, & Mettler, 1997).

Finally, it was found that guidance and support throughout the change process greatly increased the chances of success. (Prochaska & DiCelemente, 1982).

Taken together, these studies demonstrate that change can take a long time to accomplish, even when it is positive change, and the client can clearly see the benefits. This appears to be at least partly because the client him/herself may not know the reason that he/she does not feel quite ready for the change. Statements such as "I know intellectually that I need to do X, but I just can't seem to get myself to take that next step," reflect minimal readiness to change. Practicing coaches who have a solid understanding of the various models and processes of change can collaborate with clients in a much more effective manner. When the client is frustrated and unable to understand his/her own resistance to needed changes, the coach can provide a framework and language with which to discuss these issues. The coach can also use his/her knowledge of

the change process to assess the client's current stage and use the appropriate tools to assist the client to move from one stage to the next.

Whether we think of the issue of change from the standpoint of resistance, habit, reprogramming the subconscious mind, or stages, (or some combination of these) it is reasonable to focus on the time between considering change and taking action, those internal changes that precede external behaviors. What is it that happens internally to move an individual toward positive change, and what can coaches do to assist? In addition to suggesting the stages of change that a person moves through, the TTM also asserts that there are specific strategies that help a person move, not only through change in general, but from one stage to the next. Nine main strategies were uncovered in their research (Prochaska, Norcross & DiClemente, 1994). Those strategies are listed below:

Consciousness-Raising—This is the most widely used change process. This has to do with increasing the amount of information that a client consciously has about a given issue and about him/herself.

Social Liberation—This involves any new alternatives in the external environment that can help an individual in his/her change efforts. Examples of this might be no-smoking buildings or sections for those who are trying to stop smoking or low-fat menu items in popular restaurants. This can also include working to create these sorts of alternatives as a way to advocate for oneself and others.

Emotional arousal—This parallels consciousness-raising, but at a deeper, feeling level. It can be a significant, often sudden emotional experience related to the issue. This can occur, for example, due to a health tragedy for the individual or a loved one. It is

preferable, of course, to generate emotional arousal through reading, films, etc. The goal is to increase awareness and depth of feeling to aid in moving toward action.

Self-re-evaluation—This involves a reappraisal of the issue, and a close look at how life will be different once the change has taken place. It also involves imagining what life would be like if the change does not take place. This may include how the behavior/lifestyle fits with the person's values and goals.

Commitment—This is taking responsibility for the change and a willingness to do everything necessary to achieve the change.

Countering—This is a matter of substituting healthy responses and behaviors for those that are not healthy or are not moving the person toward his/her goals.

Environmental Control—This is an attempt to restructure the environment so that the probability of the problem-causing event is reduced.

Rewards—This means being rewarded with praise, gifts, etc. for reaching specific goals and/or reducing problem behaviors.

Helping relationships—The support of helping relationships is extremely important in the change process. As stated earlier, the research found that being guided through the process greatly increased the chances of success (Prochaska & DiCelemente, 1982).

Prochaska, Norcross, and DiCelemente (1994) found that certain strategies were the most helpful in certain stages of change but could, in fact, be detrimental in others. The following lists the change stages, matched with the strategies most appropriate to move through each stage.

1) Precontemplation—Consciousness-raising, social liberation.

2) Contemplation—Consciousness-raising, social liberation, emotional arousal, and self-reevaluation.

3) Preparation—Social liberation, emotional arousal, self-reevaluation, commitment.

4) Action—Social liberation, commitment, reward, countering, environmental control, helping relationships.

5) Maintenance—Commitment, countering, environment control, helping relationships.

The Trans-Theoretical Model of Change is extremely useful to the field of coaching. In addition to the stage-specific guidelines offered above, this model provides some general suggestions that have direct relevance to the practice of coaching. These suggestions are as follows:

1) Recognize that not everyone is in the action stage. Coaches often assume that if a client has sought out coaching, he/she is absolutely ready to change. Treating everyone in this manner is a setup for failure in some cases. A coach who understands the TTM will be more likely to assess the stage the client is actually in and proceed accordingly. This assessment can take the form of self-report, written questionnaire, or observation by the coach.

2) Facilitate the insight-action crossover. Those in the contemplation or preparation stages tend to spend much more time thinking and talking about their problems than actually taking steps to do anything about them. The coach's job in these cases is to assist the client to make the shift from mere insight to purposeful action. Again, the emphasis is on making the shift, not on assigning lots of action-oriented homework and then labeling the client resistant if he/she fails to follow through.

3) Anticipate relapse. Relapse can be a normal part of the change process. Viewing it as such allows the coach and client to plan for it and hopefully prevent it. This view also reduces the shame associated with relapse if it does occur. In the case of relapse, the coach's role is to assist the individual to move back into action as quickly as possible (Prochaska, DiClemente, & Norcross, 1998, as cited in Stober & Grant, 2006).

The Intentional Change Theory

Intentional change theory (ICT) (Boyatzis, 1994) describes the process of desirable, sustainable change in a person's behavior, thoughts, feelings, and perceptions. The change may be in a person's competencies, feelings, habits, actions, dreams, aspirations, or view of the world.

Most of the change models reviewed above approached their respective change stages from the standpoint of an individual's *response* to a change that was thrust upon him/her and beyond his/her control. From a coaching standpoint, understanding those stages would be very helpful. However, it also would be helpful to differentiate between the stages a person moves through when change is thrust upon him/her, compared to a consciously chosen change. Most coaching clients hire a coach because they want to make a specific change.

While Tough (1982) asserts that change can be intentional or unintentional, either type is defined as "the difference(s) between two or more successive conditions, states, or moments of time." (Ford & Ford, 1995, p. 545). Intentional change happens when this difference is purposely produced and unintentional change occurs when this difference has been unintentionally produced, such as an accident or being fired from a job (Levy &

Merry, 1986). In intentional change, the individual deliberately and consciously sets out to create conditions that are different than current condition, and does this by taking specific actions either alone or in collaboration with others (Ford and Ford, 1995). Intentional change theory suggests that the individual is making a voluntary choice to move toward his/her ideal self as the object of a given change (Carr, 2004).

Intentional Change Theory proposes that emotions play a key role in this process. ICT states that emotions focus attention, excite interest, point out the need for change, and move us to action. Emotions also influence how we deal with challenges, learn new behaviors, and elicit help and support from others (Howard, 2006).

Borrowing from complexity theory, Howard (2006) proposes that positive and negative emotions shape the change process through the pull of two emotional attractors, the positive emotional attractor and the negative emotional attractor. ICT (Boyatzis, 2004, unpublished manuscript cited in Howard, 2006) defines the positive emotional attractor (PEA) as the personal hopes, dreams, strengths, optimism, and self-directed learning goals that make up the ideal self. He defines the negative emotional attractor (NEA) as the present reality, shortcomings, problems, pessimism, and improvement needs that make up the real self (Boyatzis, 2004, unpublished manuscript cited in Howard, 2006).

Howard (2006) suggests that recurrent cognitive activity that activates the PEA (ideal self) and NEA (real self) is most likely to lead to positive, sustainable change when the PEA is leveraged as the central change agent, with the NEA being considered in a secondary position. In other words, keeping most of the focus on what the individual wants and hopes to achieve is preferable to keeping the focus on the present short-

comings and problems, although both are important for change to occur (Schulkin, Thompson, & Rosen, 2003).

Something also mentioned by the authors of ICT is how these concepts relate to the large amount of research done on hope theory (Snyder, 1994; Snyder, 2000). Boyatzis (2006) asserts that hope is a major determinant of an individual's concept of his/her ideal self. Snyder defines hope as a bi-dimensional construct of agency (willpower to begin and sustain effort toward a goal) and pathways (a belief in one's ability to make plans and generate alternatives in the face of obstacles). He asserts that an individual without a plan has optimism, but not hope, and the one without a plan faces particular hardship during difficult times. He further asserts that, while individuals tend to either have or not have a disposition toward hope, there are also state-like properties of hope that are open to development and change (Snyder, 2000). These concepts have relevance for a coach as he/she considers the best ways to collaborate with a client to navigate the ICT process.

The PEA and NEA also trigger specific physiological responses (Mendoza & Ruys, 2001). The PEA arouses the parasympathetic nervous system (PSNS) and the neural circuits generally found in the left prefrontal cortex (Boyatzis, 2004, an unpublished manuscript cited in Howard, 2006). PSNS arousal causes a feeling of overall calm and expands the range of ideas that occur to the individual in a given moment. It causes a drop in blood pressure, slows breathing and boosts immune system function (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Positive emotion (PSNS arousal) has also been found to improve resilience to adversity, increase creativity and intuition, reduce inflammatory

responses to stress, increase resistance to rhinoviruses, lower cortisol, and affect brain symmetry (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005).

The NEA arouses the sympathetic nervous system (SNS) and neural circuits in the right prefrontal cortex (Boyatzis, 2004, an unpublished manuscript cited in Howard, 2006). SNS arousal speeds breathing, increases blood pressure, suppresses immune system function, tightens muscles, shunts blood to the large muscle groups, and narrows attentional focus. In effect, this is the fight-or-flight response (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). In considering the effects of the NEA, it is important to note that the activation of the SNS also tends to make an individual more alert to what are perceived as threats in his/her environment. These threats are not necessarily more plentiful, just more noticeable when an individual is in that state. In follows that if an individual has a particular fear of an object or event that could derail his/her movement toward ideal self, he/she is much more likely to notice these threats when he/she is in an anxious state. It stands to reason that the perception of these threats may lead the person back into behaviors and patterns that are more comfortable, but do not necessarily move him/her toward his/her goal (Lavy, Van den Hout, & Arntz, 1993).

The reason that both PEA and NEA are important in the change process is similar to the reason that the parasympathetic and sympathetic aspects of the nervous system are important: they balance each other. According to Sternberg (2001) the two divisions of the autonomic nervous system sometimes work in opposition to each other and sometimes in unison, but the two systems are designed to help the body maintain homeostasis. The parasympathetic division of the ANS is mostly concerned with functions that restore and conserve body energy. The sympathetic division is primarily

concerned with the process of expending energy by counteracting the effects of the parasympathetic nervous system just enough to carry out normal processes that require energy.

Most of the time, the workings of the ANS occur outside conscious awareness. Automatic centers in the cerebral cortex are connected to areas in the thalamus. The thalamus is connected to the hypothalamus. The thalamus sorts the incoming impulses before the impulses reach the cerebral cortex. Under normal conditions, these impulses are acted upon subconsciously by reflex arcs in the hypothalamus (Sternberg, 2001).

However, during times of stress, the ANS responds to information with a series of physiological responses called the fight-or-flight response. It should also be noted that there tend to be wide individual differences in the propensity for the activation of the fight-or-flight response. Research in this area suggests that this propensity tends to be genetic. In other words, some individuals are genetically more likely to have easily aroused sympathetic nervous systems (Davison & Neale, 1990). Goleman (1996) suggests that this propensity can have both positive and negative implications for the individual. His research suggests that while those with labile SNS tend to feel painful emotions more deeply, they also tend to achieve greater rapport with others, have an easier time establishing intimate relationships, and are more effective in areas such as teaching and parenting.

The information in this section has relevance for the practicing coach, regardless of whether or not he/she uses hypnosis in conjunction with coaching. At its most basic level, this research establishes that a coach can be a tremendously helpful ally as a client moves toward the attainment of his/her goals. The coaching process itself facilitates the

activation of the parasympathetic nervous system and the positive emotional attractor. This occurs as a result of the coach asking questions about the client's ideal vision (ideal self) and working with the client to plan and take actions to move toward that ideal self. As stated, the activation of the PSNS and the PEA improves resilience to adversity, increases creativity and intuition, and reduces the negative influences of the stress response.

The coach can also serve as an objective sounding board during times when the client encounters situations that activate the sympathetic nervous system and the NEA. In those cases, clients are reinforced, physically and emotionally, for withdrawing from the very situations that can move them forward. This is because that withdrawal allows them to calm down and restore the balance between the PSNS and the SNS. Because these processes occur outside conscious awareness, this reinforcement can make the client feel as if withdrawal must be the right thing to do. A skilled coach can ask questions and provide feedback in such a way that the client can approach those situations with knowledge and clear intention. The use of hypnosis can further facilitate this process as the client explores and plans for his/her vision of the future in a relaxed state.

The Five Discoveries of Intentional Change Theory

Returning to the role of the PEA and the NEA within the autonomic nervous system, Boyatzis (2006) suggests that the intentional change process involves a sequence of discoveries, which function as an iterative cycle in allowing the person to make sustainable change(s). In reading the five discoveries of this model, it should become evident that hypnosis can be a useful tool for the practicing coach to assist clients to

move through the process of change. At its most basic level, just the state of hypnosis itself quiets the critical, analytical interference of the conscious rationalizing process and creates greater openness to learning and change (Allen, 2004; Godoy, 1999). Hypnosis can also be an excellent tool for creating a positive vision of the future (the ideal self), and exploring ways to move through obstacles (the real self) to reach that future (a learning agenda/plan). Further, the relaxed state of hypnosis is an excellent tool for visioning and practicing with new feelings, perceptions, thoughts, and behaviors.

These five discoveries are as follows:

1) The ideal self or personal vision.

2) The real self and its comparison to the ideal self. This results in an assessment of personal strengths and weaknesses.

3) A learning agenda and plan.

4) Experimentation and practice with the new feelings, perceptions, thoughts, and/or behaviors.

5) A trusting relationship that allows the person to fully experience and process each discovery.

Discovery 1: The Ideal Self and Personal Vision

When an individual decides to change, a good starting point is to decide who he/she wants to be (independent of who others want him/her to be). Boyatzis (2006) suggests that the development of the ideal self has three components; an image of a desired future, the person's hope that he/she can attain it, and aspects of core identity, which include real strengths to build the desired future.

Howard (2006) posits that asking the question "who do I want to be" connects the individual to the ideal self in such a way that the change process is then grounded in personal passions, intrinsic motivation, meaning, belief in a wide range of possibilities and the psycho-physiological benefits of neurogenesis and PSNS arousal. One of the first questions a coach asks a client is, "Who do you want to be?" As stated, this question sets off the PSNS and allows the client access to the broadest range of possibilities.

Discovery 2: The Real Self as Compared to the Ideal Self

In this discovery, the individual asks him/herself, "Who am I now, in everyday life?" In answering this question, it is common for the SNS to be aroused as the individual considers his/her present reality, weaknesses, problems, fears, and pessimism. Howard (2006) states that it is important to consider revisiting the idea of the ideal self in this circumstance, to offer the restorative effects of PSNS.

This discovery (who am I, really?) is difficult to assess accurately for a variety of reasons. One is that the human psyche automatically protects itself from the conscious realization of all information about oneself. While these mechanisms serve to protect us, they also delude us (Goleman, 1985).

Boyatzis (2006) suggests that the greatest challenge to accurate self-assessment is what he terms the boiling frog syndrome. By this, he means that our environments may not lend themselves to providing accurate feedback about changes that we are making. Some may not notice changes, others may notice but not comment, and still others may do everything they can to keep the individual from changing and/or try to force him/her to change back.

During the discussion of the real self, the coach's role is very important. The coach needs to facilitate a proper balance between the client's perception of his/her ideal self and his/her real self. This can be a delicate process. If the client becomes too overwhelmed with his/her problems, shortcomings, etc., the coach can assist him/her to refocus on his/her ideal self and ideal future. However, the coach also needs to allow the client to have as clear a view as possible for what he/she needs to change to achieve that future. Balance is the key issue in this part of the process. Once again, hypnosis is an excellent tool to use to achieve this balance. Because the process itself arouses the calming effects of the PSNS, the client can work through issues related to his/her real self in a relaxed and open manner.

Discovery 3: Mindfulness Through a Learning Agenda

This discovery involves the setting of personal standards of performance and the focus on a desired future. It is suggested (Boyatzis, 2006) that these should be framed in terms of a learning agenda. Boyatzis reports that "a learning agenda arouses a positive belief in one's capability and the hope of improvement" (p. 615). It places the focus on development, rather than just the specific, desired outcome.

As mentioned earlier, Boyatzis (2006) states that this focus on what is possible arouses the person's parasympathetic nervous system. Once the PSNS is aroused, the person has access to more neural circuits, and finds him/herself in a calmer, more focused state. In this state, he/she is able to experience neurogenesis (the conversion of hippocampal stem cells into new neurons) and the new degrees of, and extent of, learning that becomes possible.

As stated earlier, the authors propose that another attractor is also at play in the change system, the negative emotional attractor (NEA). The NEA arouses the sympathetic nervous system (SNS), which helps an individual protect him/herself from stress and threat. When the SNS is activated, the body shunts blood to the large muscles, closes down unneeded neural circuits, shuts down the immune system, and produces cortisol (Sapolsky, 2004).

Given the fact that cortisol stops the process of neurogenesis and overexcites older neurons to the point of making them useless, it is highly unlikely that intentional, positive change will take place (Boyatzis, 2006). Any change that does take place would have to be driven by a powerful force. That powerful force is the image of the ideal self. The individual's ideal self image activates the energy of the PEA to help him/her accomplish the change (Casti, 1994).

This discovery represents the action-planning phase of the coaching process. As stated, it is best for the coach to frame this as a learning agenda, rather than framing it in terms of current deficiencies. The focus is on progress and development. If this process stalls, the coach can once again ask the client about his her ideal self/ideal future in order to utilize the positive effects of the PSNS.

Discovery 4: Experimentation and Practice

Desired, sustainable change requires the freedom to practice new ways of being and doing things. This is done through contemplation, experimentation, and then interaction with others in real world settings. This experimentation and practice appears to yield the best and quickest results when the person feels safe from the risk of shame, embarrassment, or serious consequences (Kolb & Boyatzis, 1970).

The coach can provide the client with the opportunity to practice the new thinking patterns and behaviors within the coaching sessions. He/she can also allow the client to process whatever practice he/she engages in outside of the sessions. The coach can also use hypnosis so that the client can practice new behaviors in trance.

Discovery 5: Trusting or Resonant Relationship that Allows the Person to Fully Process Each Discovery

Relationships are essential for giving a sense of identity, guiding the individual as to what is appropriate behavior, and providing feedback on behavior. In sociology, these important people are called reference groups. Since the 1980s they have also been called social identity groups or groups representing anticipatory socialization. They create a context within which individuals interpret progress on desired changes and the usefulness of new learning (Kram, 1996).

Once again, it's important to note that a given reference group is not always supportive of the changes that an individual might seek. At least 500 years of references to the difficulty with change exist in the literature, starting with Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527) in *The Prince* (written in 1513):

> It must be considered that there is nothing more difficult to carry out, nor more doubtful of success, nor more dangerous to handle, than to initiate a new order of things. For the reformer has enemies in all those who profit by the old order, and only lukewarm defenders in all those who would profit by the new order, this lukewarmness arising partly from fear of their adversaries, who have the laws in their favor; and partly from the

> incredulity of mankind, who do not truly believe in anything new until they have had the actual experience of it (Machiavelli, 1950. p.13).

If the above is accurate, finding an additional, supportive reference group (and/or finding a good coach) might prove beneficial to the client's progress toward goal attainment. Research conducted to study the effects of a yearlong executive development program, found that the participants had developed significantly in the area of self-confidence. This was a confusing result given that these doctors, lawyers, engineers, and other professionals supposedly had very high self-confidence when they entered the program. This puzzling result was explained when the researchers examined the follow-up questionnaires. In these questionnaires, the participants noted that they greatly increased their confidence in their ability to change. They reported that their current groups all had a vested interest in having them stay the same. Participation in this yearlong program had allowed them the opportunity to develop a new reference group, one that encouraged change (Ballou, Bowers, Boyatzis, & Kolb, 1999).

Even so, relationships and groups can serve as mediators; moderators; and sources of feedback, support, and permission to change and learn. They also can serve to protect an individual from relapse into earlier ways of being and doing (Wheeler, 1999, as cited in Boytzis, 2006).

Done well, coaching can facilitate a client's movement through the stages of change, toward the pursuit of his/her dreams in ways that no other relationship can. In their book Co-Active Coaching, Whitworth, Kimsey-House and Sandahl (1998) said this: "there is no other relationship in our lives that consistently offers this extraordinary level of support and encouragement" (p. xvii).

CHAPTER 5

HYPNOSIS

Both transpersonal and traditional hypnotherapy could be useful additions to the coaching process. The research cited above clearly suggests that hypnosis could be used to facilitate a client's movement through the stages of change. There are many techniques within the scope of hypnotherapy that allow the client to examine his/her issues regarding change, deepen self-learning, and build his/her self-confidence. These techniques help the client to embrace the desired changes, and summon the courage and energy to complete these changes.

The use of hypnosis dates back thousands of years. The ancient Chinese, Egyptians, Hebrews, Indians, Persians, Greeks, Romans, and others engaged in healing practices that used induced states of altered awareness. Ancient people worked with suggestion, belief, and expectancy as agents of change and healing, although they did not understand how these things worked (Gravitz, 1991).

The roots of modern hypnosis are traced to Anton Mesmer in the 18th century. He treated a range of emotional and physical symptoms/ailments with the use of hypnosis. James Esdaile later used similar techniques, performing over 300 surgeries using only hypnosis as the anesthetic (Gravitz, 1991).

James Braid, an English surgeon in the early to mid-1800s is the person who coined the term *hypnotism*. He believed that the trance phenomena was some sort of nervous sleep and therefore coined the term hypnosis from the Greek word *hypno*s, meaning sleep. He rejected Mesmer's idea of animal magnetism and instead believed that the use of imagination was the underlying theoretical explanation for the obvious efficacy of hypnosis. In 1843, he wrote the following:

> I feel I have acquired in this process a valuable addition to our curative means; but I repudiate the idea of holding it up as a universal remedy; nor do I even pretend to understand, as yet, the whole range of diseases in which it may be useful. Whether the extraordinary physical effects are produced through the imagination chiefly, or by other means, it appears to me quite certain, that the imagination has never been so much under our control, or capable of being made to act in the same beneficial and uniform manner, by any other mode of management hitherto known. (p. 21)

Braid contributed greatly to the advancement of hypnotism. His theories and practices were widely adopted. He brought forth the idea that the patient's confidence in the process is instrumental to the success of hypnosis. He also proposed and developed the practice of self-hypnosis.

Various other practitioners used and studied hypnosis over the next 50 years (e.g.; Jean-Martin Charcot, Auguste Ambrose Liebault, J. Milne Bramwell) but interest in hypnosis began to wane by the early 1900s. Hypnosis once again became a major research area in the late 1950s and early 1960s. The reasons for the renewed interest seem

to be two-fold. One was that the two World Wars put pressure on therapists and physicians to find ways to get soldiers back onto the battlefield as quickly as possible. Hypnosis was used mostly for pain management and for what is now termed Post Traumatic Stress Disorder. The other reason for the renewed research activity in hypnosis seems to be the surge of interest in altered states of consciousness that occurred in the 1960s and 1970s. This interest brought hypnosis into the realm of legitimate scientific inquiry.

Although there are no reported studies exploring the combined use of hypnosis and life coaching, it is important to note that hypnosis has been shown to be a useful adjunct to the use of cognitive behavioral therapy with clients. Cognitive behavioral techniques have been found to be useful in a life-coaching context (Grant, 2003).

In their meta-analysis Kirsch and Sapirstein (1995) found that those clients who received hypnosis in addition to cognitive behavior therapy showed greater improvement than 70 percent of those clients who received cognitive behavior therapy alone. Grant (2003) used cognitive-behavior therapy as a model of life coaching. His study provided preliminary evidence that this type of life coaching can enhance mental health, quality of life and goal attainment. In a later study (Green, Odes, & Grant, 2006) it was found that participation in a cognitive-behavioral life-coaching program was associated with significant increases in goal striving, well-being, and hope. The authors suggest that hope theory might account for some of these positive results.

Transpersonal hypnotherapy in particular is a useful addition to the life coaching process. There are similarities in the basic assumptions of both life coaching and transpersonal hypnotherapy. The transpersonal hypnotherapist believes that clients are the

experts in their own lives, and that all the answers to all their issues reside either within the client, or (depending on one's belief) can be accessed through the client. They also believe that the root of all problems that an individual can have are due to the individual losing touch with his/her authentic self (Hasengawa & Salisbury, 1995).

Hypnosis is an altered state of awareness that allows access to the subconscious, reducing the critical, analytical interference of the conscious rationalizing processes (Allen, 2004). Godoy (1999) explains the state of hypnosis as a "dissociated state of consciousness in which there is a greater openness to learning and change" (p. 73). This openness is thought to be because, during hypnosis, the right hemisphere of the brain becomes functionally dominant, with specific suppression of the left frontal lobe function (Gruzelier, 2005). This state allows the client to be much more open to the idea of change, as well as to imagine in great detail him/herself engaging in new behaviors.

This particular technique is frequently studied in sports psychology. For example, researchers at Manchester Metropolitan University measured the strength of three different groups of men. They asked one group to complete specific exercises twice a week for a month. Another group was asked to imagine doing the workouts, but not actually do them. The third group was instructed to do nothing at all. Four weeks later, researchers found that the physical practice group had increased their strength by 33 percent and the mental practice group had increased their strength by 16 percent. The "do nothing" group remained the same. They suggested the *imagined* exercise initiates the same motor program in the brain as *actual* exercise, thereby improving neural pathways. The study suggests that mental practice can therefore result in improved performance (New Scientist, 1998 as cited in Grant and Green, 2003). Coaching clients can use this

type of mental practice to increase the chances of achieving their goals. Hypnosis can speed up the process by allowing the coaching client to process and imagine at a much deeper level.

Hypnotherapy facilitates the movement of the client beyond limitations toward solving life issues by understanding and moving through the blocks, and by recognizing inner resources that were previously hidden from the client's awareness. Hypnotherapy can also ensure that the change occurs at a deeper, more complete level, because both the conscious and unconscious processes are involved in making the change (Fairfield, 1990). In the trance state, a client may offer suggestions to him/herself and/or receive suggestions from a practitioner. These suggestions can result in changes in perception, cognition, and/or behavior, goals often addressed within the coach/client relationship. These changes can be accessed again through similar techniques, as the person needs them.

The most common way to again access a given change and/or learning gained in hypnosis is through self-hypnosis. The hypnosis practitioner generally facilitates the use of self-hypnosis for the client by providing a suggestion for it at the end of his/her trance. The suggestion given is some variation of, "and you'll be able to easily access this state of relaxation and these feelings/learnings by simply closing your eyes and counting yourself down three to one." Researchers who study state-dependent learning theory suggest that it is easier to recall something learned in a particular state if one re-enters that state. Consequently, the learning gained through hypnosis is easier for the client to access and utilize when he/she briefly reenters the hypnotic state.

Pettinati, Kogan, Margolis, Shrier, and Wade (1989) report that a person's ability to experience the hypnotic state (their hypnotizability) is a relatively stable trait. This capacity varies among individuals, with most being moderately hypnotizable and about 10–15 percent showing high levels of "hypnotizability." Research on this trait (the ability to become wholly absorbed, to the exclusion of stimulus outside the hypnotic experience) suggests that the ability, or lack thereof, is mostly genetic (Jamieson, 2007).

While traditional hypnotherapy is capable of doing all the things stated above, transpersonal hypnotherapy elicits a client's response at a much deeper level. The word transpersonal means the crossing of mind, body, and spirit. It assumes that humans operate at all three levels, and that these levels affect each other. Therefore, transpersonal hypnotherapy not only embraces the clinical aspects of hypnosis, but also adds the client's higher dimensional realities to the intervention (Chips, 1999). Throughout history, there are accounts of individuals accessing spiritual realms by entering altered states of awareness. Hypnosis is the easiest type of altered state in which to achieve a sense of mind-body-spirit connectedness.

Either type of hypnotherapy (or both) can be effectively utilized at specific times in the coaching process. For example, there are varieties of hypnosis techniques that are valuable in facilitating movement from one stage of change to the next. The types of processes a coach selects would depend on the client's goals as well as other factors such as: his/her current decisional balance, habit strength, and self-efficacy. The coach would also need to consider the client's stage of change, relative to each of his/her goals. Finally, the coach should consider whether the changes that the client is experiencing are something he/she has chosen or something that has been imposed by others.

There are also varieties of hypnosis protocols that a coach could use for straightforward issues such as fear of public speaking, visualization for change, anchoring in suggestions of new behaviors, and building self-confidence (Hammond, 1990). Hypnosis scripts for these types of issues are widely available. To effectively use these types of hypnotic techniques, a coach would not need as much training as s/he would need to use more complex processes (e.g. transpersonal hypnotherapy). In order to effectively induce the hypnotic state, the practicing coach would still need to learn hypnotic induction techniques, as well as the use of proper voice tone, pacing, etc.

Coaches could easily do hypnotic script work over the phone, whereas transpersonal work should be done in person. This is because transpersonal work generally requires a much deeper level of trance and is a much more complex process. Therefore, it can elicit deeper emotions than are usually possible during a typical coaching session. If the client expresses deep emotions, it is preferable for the coach to be with the client in the room. The coach can thereby more fully and accurately understand what the client is experiencing and respond to it accordingly. This could mean a referral into therapy, if necessary. Secondly, a more practical concern is that an individual in a hypnotized state tends to talk more slowly and quietly. It can be very difficult to hear him/her over the phone. When using hypnosis scripts, the client does not speak.

A coach following the Intentional Change model can utilize hypnosis to facilitate the most useful balance between the arousal of the PSNS and SNS (as well as the positive and negative emotional attractors). This balance is important as a client contemplates and moves toward his/her desired changes. As discussed above, arousal of the SNS (the fight-or-flight response) accounts for much of an individual's failed attempts to achieve and/or

maintain desired changes. It may be that the concept of resistance might simply be the fight-or-flight response in action. In these types of circumstances, the use of hypnosis in conjunction with coaching can serve to address resistance to change. For example, most coaches see one of their roles as helping the client refocus on his/her overall vision when necessary, such as during times of stress, disappointment, or disillusionment. The act of doing this assists in the activation and strengthening of the client's PSNS. Using hypnosis can further strengthen this effect, and the time of a client's distress can be minimized. The use of hypnotic induction (the relaxation phase) generates the relaxation response itself. Furthermore, numerous hypnosis protocols can further enhance and hasten the return of the PSNS response and the activation of positive emotional attractors. The practicing coach can select from a wide variety of hypnosis scripts, or more in-depth hypnosis protocols, to assist the client to return to a more positive view of him/herself and his/her future. Examples of these protocols are presented in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

THE INTEGRATION OF COACHING, MODELS OF CHANGE AND HYPNOSIS

In this chapter, I propose a variety of models for using hypnosis in conjunction with life coaching. These models are based on the research cited in the chapters above. I will begin with a model that can be used within a variety of different coaching frameworks, and follow with a discussion of ways that hypnosis can be incorporated into the following coaching frameworks: humanism, positive psychology, behaviorism, cognitive psychology/coaching, adult development, and change theories.

Grant and Stober (2006) propose a contextual model that encompasses the seven principles of effective coaching, regardless of the particular theoretical system of thought. This coaching model, based on the work of Rosenzweig (Prochaska and DiClemente, 1984) delineates the key principles that underlie the human change process. I will use this model to illustrate how hypnosis, at its most basic level, can be used in conjunction with coaching in order to facilitate learning and change within a variety of theoretical contexts.

These seven key principles said to underlie effective coaching and effective human change are:

1) Collaboration

2) Accountability

3) Awareness

4) Responsibility

5) Commitment

6) Action

7) Results

The steps within a particular Ericksonian hypnotic technique effectively addresses all seven of the key principles outlined above, and could therefore be used within the scope of many different types of coaching. In general, the Ericksonian hypnosis practitioner uses stories, metaphors, and permissive language to allow untapped unconscious resources to spontaneously emerge. The emphasis is on bypassing normal resistance by phrasing suggestions in ways that are not in conflict with conscious rationalizing processes. It can take years of study and practice to perfect many Ericksonian techniques. The Ericksonian technique listed below is a more basic, easier to learn protocol.

It is first helpful to discuss the technique's background. Central to the model is Erickson's view that the process is an exchange of gifts between the practitioner and the client. As such, the concept of resistance is viewed as a gift of information. In fact, any problem or obstacle is seen as a gift. Tailoring (making the intervention client-specific) and gift-wrapping (exploring possible solutions in a way that is client-specific) are essential components of the process. Ericksonian hypnosis emphasizes using the client's own language, as well as permissive language (language that encourages/respects client choice). It also emphasizes the importance of building on the client's strengths and

natural abilities (Itin, 1995). All the aspects of this technique seem to make it a particularly good fit for most types of coaching.

It is also important to understand Erickson's view of the unconscious. Erickson rejected the psychodynamic conceptualizations of the unconscious being merely a large store of repressed memories, in favor of the view of the unconscious as a place of untapped resources and strength (Ewen, 1998). Utilizing trance and hypnotic language allows the client to tap into unconscious resources to make the changes he/she seeks.

The Ericksonian technique summarized below is used in adventure therapy (Itin, 1995). Kemp (2006) has suggested that the use of this type of hypnosis should be explored as an adjunct to the coaching process.

The basic model of Ericksonian hypnosis is the A.R.E. model. The process involves absorbing the client in the experience (A), ratifying that absorption (R), and eliciting the resources of the client to address the changes he/she wishes to make (E).

The coach assists the client to become absorbed in a story, memory, perception, sensation, or experience by first developing a *yes set*. This is a way for the coach to build cooperation and demonstrate respect for the client (Itin, 1995). Initially, the coach uses truisms to build the yes set. He/she develops the truisms by watching the cues of the client and then commenting on things that are *absolutely* true, or *could be* true. Permissive language such as "can, may, and might" allow the client to choose whether or not to attend to these things that are true, such as the fact that he/she is breathing, or his/her feet are on the ground, etc. (Itin, 1993). Therefore, for example, the induction phase of this type of hypnosis can include metaphors that tell a story or recount one of the client's reported memories. The coach intersperses these with truisms to help personalize

the experience and help the client become more deeply absorbed in the process. The coach's ability to assess the client's needs, motivations, goals for change, and perceptions of past experiences greatly enhances his/her ability to be more specific, and thus, more powerful in the delivery of these truisms (Itin, 1993).

The coach ratifies the client's experience by noticing the client's cues and responses to the experience and then giving him/her positive reinforcement. The coach's ratification allows the client to become more and more absorbed in the experience. For example, something as simple as, "You can notice your breath" and then observing and positively commenting on the fact that the client then takes a deep, slow breath, can serve to ratify and deepen the experience of the client.

Eliciting client resources for change allows the coach to support the client in drawing upon and developing unconscious resources. At this point, the absorption into the process and ratification of responses, have allowed the unconscious to be more open to suggestions. These suggestions assist the client to move in the direction of changes that he/she wants to make. The decision of which form of suggestion to use at this point depends upon the client's goals, personality, and the particular stage of change he/she appears to be in. The coach can offer suggestions as simple as asking the client to remember a recent event in which he/she responded with a familiar pattern of behavior that he/she would like to change. The coach might then suggest a metaphor for this pattern and, using permissive language, invite the client to consider a new metaphor to replace the old pattern. This is especially powerful if the client has previously articulated the metaphors and words used. The coach might finish the session by suggesting that the client imagine this type of scenario using his/her new skills/behaviors, and then

anchoring in these changes. This is often what a coach is already working toward with a client. Hypnosis could deepen and strengthen this process, as well as reduce the amount of time needed to make desired changes.

In working through this example, it is apparent that this hypnosis process addresses all seven of the key principles said to underlie an effective coaching process. Therefore, this process can be a place to begin when using hypnosis in conjunction with coaching. Additional hypnosis protocols can address one or more of the key coaching principles in more depth, when needed. Below, is a summary of some suggested hypnosis protocols that can be used with several of the coaching models and theories reviewed in Chapters 3 and 4 above.

Hypnosis and Humanism

The basic tenets of coaching from a humanistic perspective are a good match with transpersonal hypnosis. For example, humanistic coaching suggests that growth is the driving force as coach and client outline the client's needs, wants, vision, and action-steps. In fact, the underlying assumption of humanism is that clients are striving for self-actualization. This assumption places humanistic coaching squarely within the realm of a growth process rather than general encouragement and/or advice-giving (Stober, 2006).

The transpersonal hypnosis protocols that are the best fit for humanistic life coaching are: future-self work, journey for guidance and resources, talking to parts, and the two paths analogy. They are the most useful for clients in the order given above. A discussion of each protocol appears below.

Future self-work is a process in which the coaching client is taken into trance and asked to go to a calm and peaceful place in which he/she will meet his/her future self.

This self has gotten past all the problems, issues, and unhelpful patterns that the client is now facing and is happy and content with life and his/her accomplishments. Future self represents the best version of the client. The client meets with future self and asks him/her a variety of questions about how he/she got where he/she is. Together, the two of them map out a plan, including action steps to reach the future, self-actualized self more quickly and efficiently. The coach would end the session by instructing the client to ask future self what one or two things the client most needs to know to get from where he/she is to where he/she wants to be.

This protocol is a good starting place for humanistic coaching sessions. It fits with the idea that the coach does not give advice or direction, but merely facilitates the individual's self-awareness and plans for growth. It also allows the coaching client to do goal setting and action planning in a relaxed state, thereby activating the PNS, which facilitates creative problem solving and planning.

A journey for guidance and resources is a process wherein the client enters into a trance state and is asked to find the resources he/she needs within him/herself to solve the issue he/she is dealing with. The coach then directs the client to allow an image, symbol, words, etc. to come forth from the subconscious that will serve as a guide and or resource for him/her as he/she moves through the issues he/she is facing. Usually, the client will suddenly remember some skill, attribute, or part of him/herself that he/she can use to help him/her through the current issues. Whatever is discovered is anchored in as a resource by the coach before the client is brought out of trance.

When or if the client becomes stuck on an issue, the *talking to parts* protocol helps him/her clarify the issues and get unstuck. Talking to parts is used for a client who

is presenting something like, “I know that X is best for me, but somehow I keep doing Y.” In this protocol, the coach takes the client into trance and asks the client to form something in his/her mind that represents part 1 and something that represents part 2. Each part then has its say and clarifies why it feels strongly that things should proceed in a certain way. Then the coach can do a mediation of sorts between the parts, complete with agreements from all parties.

The coach can use a somewhat related protocol, called the two paths analogy when a client is trying to decide between two courses of action. For example, if a coaching client is having difficulty deciding whether to accept a promotion at his present company or leave the company for another job, he can go into trance to explore the options in a more relaxed manner. In trance, he imagines that he is standing at a fork in a road. One path leads to the promotion and the other path leads to a job with a different company. He proceeds down each path in turn, gathering all the information possible about how he feels about each possibility, what the future would likely hold, and which decision may be best. The coach then brings the client up from trance to process what was discovered.

Hypnosis and Positive Psychology

Hypnosis can be utilized with the positive psychology approach to coaching, by focusing on any of three areas: the pleasant life, the engaged life, and/or the meaningful life. For example, a coach working with a client on the area of pleasant life, could enhance the work by doing hypnosis protocols and/or making hypnosis tapes that focus on pleasant scenes and experiences. There are also numerous protocols focused on promoting a general sense of pleasure and well-being (Hammond, 1990). One example is

a protocol by Theodore Barber (1984). It is called “Positive Suggestions For Well-Being.” The protocol begins with the words,

> The key to your success is confidence, confidence in yourself, confidence in your ability to do whatever you truly want to do, confidence that you can and will accomplish your goals through the power of your own mind. What you tell yourself has the greatest power over your life (Barber, 1984).

This protocol is also quite useful for coaches approaching their work from a cognitive coaching framework.

Another protocol by Theodore Barber is called “Positive Suggestions for Effective Living”. The focus of this protocol is on the idea that the client’s life can be better, fuller, and more pleasurable.

A protocol called “Two-way Communication on the Causal Plane” (Hasengawa, & Salibury, 1995) can be used for those clients who wish to have the experience of verbally expressing gratitude to someone who is unavailable for an actual conversation. In trance, the client imagines that the person is standing before him/her. The client then tells the person everything that he/she wishes to tell him/her. The client speaks this aloud or silently, depending on his/her wishes.

This protocol can be used for another exercise within the realm of pleasant life work (Peterson & Seligman, 2004) that deals with letting go of grudges. In trance, the client imagines that the person he/she is angry with is standing in front of him/her. He/she then tells the person what he/she is angry about, listens for a response, and then tell the person at least 15 good things that he/she has done as well. This protocol

ends with the coach anchoring in these new perspectives about the positive aspects of the other person.

This is a variation of the exercise done in positive psychology coaching, in which the client puts the person's name and what he/she has done wrong in the circle in the middle of the paper. Then he/she writes 15 things that the person has done right in various places around that middle circle, and circles those as well. The client then holds the paper at arm's length to get a visual of the balance of positive contributions of that person, as compared to the negatives. I have used this technique with clients, either using only paper and pencil or using hypnosis. In my experience, hypnosis elicits a much more profound experience. Clients seem to process the experience at a much greater depth and produce much more profound insights with the use of hypnosis.

Hypnosis and Behaviorism

Hypnosis can be very useful within the framework of the developmental pipeline. As stated earlier, this pipeline consists of insight, motivation, capabilities, real-world practice, and accountability (Hicks & Peterson, 1999). The researchers suggest that the amount of potential client change is dependent upon the places in which the pipeline is the narrowest. Therefore, the coach and client could assess the areas in which the client had the most room for growth, and address those using coaching combined with hypnosis.

There are numerous hypnosis protocols designed to increase the client's level of insight (e.g.; Brown & Fromm, 1986: Rossi & Cheek, 1988). Just one example comes from Stanton (1977, as cited in Hammond, 1990). It is called "Gandor's Garden" (p.

316). This protocol involves a visualization of moving down a deep tunnel (a metaphor for going to the center of self) and emerging into a beautiful garden. The client moves through a series of images in which he/she gains various insights. For example, at one point the client peers into a reflecting pool that shows an image of what he/she wishes to be. In another part of the visualization, the client meets with an elderly sage who shares wisdom about the issues the client is currently facing, and so on.

Other uses of hypnosis in the behavioral coaching process are in the areas of capabilities and real-world practice. The coach can use hypnosis to anchor in new thoughts and behaviors (as identified by client and coach) and then continue to use hypnosis for real-world practice. To do this, the client would visualize practicing these new behaviors repeatedly in trance. As stated earlier, researchers at Manchester Metropolitan University found that those who merely visualized doing exercises increased their strength by 16 percent. Based on these results, the researchers suggest that imagined exercise initiates the same motor program in the brain as actual exercise, thereby improving neural pathways. The study suggests that mental practice can therefore result in improved performance (New Scientist, 1998, as cited in Grant & Greene, 2003).

Hypnosis and Cognitive Psychology/Coaching

Numerous hypnosis protocols are useful additions to cognitive coaching. As stated in a previous section, there is a tremendous amount of research on the area of ego strengthening, self-confidence, self-efficacy, thought-stopping, and positive affirmations in the hypnosis literature. For example, there is a one-session technique called the ”Clenched Fist” (Stein, 1963), which asks the client to recall several instances of success.

The client allows those positive feelings to build as he/she clenches the fist of his/her dominant hand. The coach gives a post-hypnotic suggestion that each time he/she purposely closes his/her dominant hand into a fist, the good feelings associated with those successes will wash over him/her, filling him/her with calm and confidence. That protocol also includes the opportunity to neutralize negative, self-defeating thoughts by compressing them in the fist of the non-dominant hand, and then just letting them go According to Hammond (1990), using this method allows resources to be accessed within the individual (e.g., feelings of confidence, calm, success, etc.) that can then be evoked whenever needed. He states that, "in a sense, this method is like the behavioral method of thought-stopping and thought substitution, which can often be made more powerful and automatic through hypnotic conditioning" (Hammond, 1990, p. 145).

There are seemingly unlimited numbers of options for working with self-esteem, self-efficacy, and confidence in the hypnosis literature (e.g.; Barber, 1984; Barnett, 1981; Gibbons, 1979; Gindhart, 1981; Pelletier, 1979; Stanton, 1977; Stein, 1963). These options range from general suggestions for overall well-being to very specific, detailed visioning of the ideal self. The coach could select the appropriate methods based on the personality and specific goals of the coaching client.

Hypnosis and Adult Development

The adult development literature focuses on moving from one form or stage to the next. The theory reviewed in an earlier section is that of Robert Kegan (1982, 1994). This constructive-developmental theory proposes that a given individual is in one of four primary forms at any given time. Those forms are prince/princess, journeyman, CEO, or

elder. In its broadest form, this theory is about growth. Consequently, one hypnosis protocol appropriate for each stage or form is “Seasons of the Year: A Metaphor for Growth” (Gindhart, 1981,as cited in Hammond, 1990, p. 140). This protocol fosters growth, regardless of the stage. Gindhart suggests that it is an excellent protocol for those clients who wish to grow up. It is full of permissive language and metaphors, which can also be helpful for those who may be resisting growth in some sense. The coach can modify the protocol, depending upon the particular types of growth needed for movement from one stage to the next.

Hypnosis and Change Theories

When using hypnosis in conjunction with any of the above-mentioned coaching theories, it is important to consider the client’s stage of change. Considering the tenants of the Trans-Theoretical Model of Change, it is clear that certain hypnosis techniques would be the most useful at certain stages of the change process. The technique selected would depend on: the client’s goals; factors such as current decisional balance; habit strength and self-efficacy; the stage of change he/she is in with respect to each of these goals; and finally, whether or not the change is something that he/she has chosen, or something that has been imposed from the outside.

A coach, trained in transpersonal hypnosis, can use processes such as: journey for guidance and resources (addresses consciousness-raising),; talking to future self (addresses self-reevaluation, commitment, and emotional arousal); , talking to higher self (consciousness-raising and commitment);, core inner strength work (addresses self-efficacy and commitment);, talking to the shadow (usually called “the gremlin” in

coaching literature);, (habit strength and pros/cons of changing),; parts work (pros and cons, consciousness-raising); and the wall (used when wishing to identify blocks to moving forward) (consciousness-raising) (Hasengawa & Salisbury 1995). The definition of each of these transpersonal hypnotherapy processes is presented below.

Journey for Guidance and Resources

A hypnotic process in which the client is asked to imagine finding and integrating the types of resources he/she needs in order to feel more confident in dealing with current issues and challenges.

Talking to Future Self

A hypnotic process in which the client is asked to imagine having a conversation with a self somewhere in a future in which his/her current challenges have been faced and overcome. The client asks the future self what steps he/she took to overcome these challenges. They then work together to determine the most appropriate next steps for the client in the present and near future.

Talking to Higher Self

A hypnotic process in which the client is asked to imagine having a conversation with a part of himself that is above it all and that can see things clearly. A client generally views this part of him/herself as more mature, wise, and above getting caught up in the day-to-day pettiness of life. This higher self often gives the client a more balanced view of the situation. This leads to reevaluation and resolution.

Core Inner Strength Work

A hypnotic process in which the client is asked to go to the very center of himself to find that place that is strong, solid, and immovable. Then, the client is asked to imagine this strength moving outward to permeate his/her entire being. This sensation is anchored in with hypnotic language, allowing the client to access these feelings of strength whenever needed.

Talking to the Shadow

A hypnotic process in which the client is asked to imagine having a conversation with that part of him/herself that is often hidden from self and others. This is generally the part or parts of self that are negative, critical, or somehow perceived as bad by the client. The purpose of the work is to aid the client in shifting his/her perspective to enable him/her to recognize, accept and utilize all parts of self, thereby quieting the internal critic.

Parts Work

A hypnotic process in which the client is asked to imagine talking to the parts within him/herself who seem to have conflicting ideas about what is best for the client. The parts are then asked to talk through a given issue and come to some sort of agreement about how to proceed. This is a good process to use with clients who say things like, “I know I really should do X, but I keep being drawn to doing Y.”

The Wall

A hypnotic process that is often used with clients who report feeling stuck in their current situation. The client is asked to imagine that he/she is standing in front of a wall that represents the stuck place. He/she is taken through a protocol of describing

everything about the wall, such as the size, shape, texture, width, others present around the wall, anyone who might be guarding the wall, etc. This description often provides valuable insight to the client concerning the nature of the stuck feeling. This often leads to an exploration of ways to reach the other side of the wall, and then movement through to the other side.

Within any of the coaching theoretical frameworks, it is important to consider the stage of change and adjust the coaching/hypnosis approach accordingly.

A coach using the Intentional Change Model would begin by facilitating the most useful balance between the arousal of the PSNS and SNS (as well as the positive and negative emotional attractors) as the individual contemplates and moves toward his/her desired changes. For example, most coaches see one of their roles as helping the client refocus on his/her overall vision when necessary, such as during times of stress, disappointment, or disillusionment. The act of doing this assists in the activation of the client's PSNS. This effect is strengthened, and the time of distress shortened, with the use of hypnosis. Using the induction (the relaxation phase) of hypnosis sets off the relaxation response in and of itself. Beyond that, numerous hypnosis protocols can further enhance and hasten the return of the PSNS response and the activation of positive emotional attractors.

As Boyatzis suggests in an unpublished 2004 manuscript called *Intentional Change Theory from a Complexity Perspective*, an individual's focus on current reality, problems, fears, obstacles, etc. (real self as opposed to ideal self) tends to set off the sympathetic nervous system fight-or-flight response (as cited in Howard, 2006).

Regardless of the theoretical framework of the coach, it is important to consider these aspects of the change process and adjust the coaching approach accordingly. Howard (2006) suggests that it is important to revisit the concept of the ideal self in these circumstances, to offer the restorative effects of the PSNS.

For the qualified coach, there are a great many possibilities available for the use of hypnosis in the areas of stress reduction and relaxation. As previously stated, just the induction itself activates the relaxation response in the body. Additionally, standard post-hypnotic suggestions instruct the client that he/she will be able to return easily to this state of relaxation whenever needed by simply closing his/her eyes and repeating a specific word (Hammond, 1990). Coaches can teach self-hypnosis to clients so that the clients can reinforce whatever images they have chosen, whenever needed. This strengthens the client's ability to move from one stage to the next in the change process. It also reduces the amount of time needed to get back on track after a relapse.

The coach could facilitate the client's stress reduction by guiding him/her in a hypnosis protocol in which he/she mentally rehearses successfully coping with difficult, anticipated situations (Clarke & Jackson, 1983). The coach can also use cognitive reframing techniques during hypnosis when it seems that the stress a person is experiencing is coming primarily from his/her own thoughts. In these cases, hypnosis is used to modify the client's underlying self-assumptions and negative internal dialogue (Ellis, 1986).

Another rich area for the coach to consider is the available research on the concept of training a person to have hope (Snyder, 1994; 2000). This research has a great deal of empirical support, and seems an excellent model for incorporating hypnosis into

coaching. This suggested hope training seems useful in formulating and strengthening the ideal self within an individual. Hope theory training has focused on areas such as increasing positive thoughts with a concept called solution talk, as opposed to problem talk (Berg & DeShazer, 1993). The researchers note that the concept of solution talk should not be confused with the idea of wishful thinking, false hope, or any type of unrealistic expectations. Snyder (2000) instead focuses on a program designed to allow individuals to increase their personal strengths and ability to function successfully.

One aspect of the training involves teaching participants to mentally perform the steps to their goal as if they were watching a movie of themselves. This helps them better envision reaching their goals and opens up alternative pathways to reaching those goals. Given the research on the effects of PSNS arousal, it seems reasonable that an individual would be better able to envision these steps and generate more alternatives if they were in a deeply relaxed state at the time. As stated earlier, once the PSNS is aroused, the person has access to more neural circuits, and finds him/herself in a calmer, more focused state. In this state, he/she is able to experience neurogenesis (the conversion of hippocampal stem cells into new neurons) and the new degrees of, and extent of, learning that becomes possible (Boyatzis, 2006).

A coach could easily incorporate these steps within a visioning or future self hypnosis format. In transpersonal hypnotherapy future self work, the person is taken into trance and then asked to meet with and talk to his/her future self. This self has achieved the goals that the client seeks. This technique can be very useful in formulating the ideal self and in brainstorming options for reaching the goal. In talking to future self, the client generally asks that self how he/she got to where he/she is. The future self can then list

things that he/she tried and report on what actually worked in achieving goals. The result is generally a wider range of perceived options for the client and an increased amount of hope and optimism for the future (Hasengawa & Salisbury, 1995). A coach from any of the theoretical coaching frameworks can use this technique to help a client refocus on his/her goals and de-emphasize the obstacles to reaching those goals.

A coach could also use a specific decision-making technique here. In trance, the client imagines taking various paths in order to see which option might be best and/or to develop the available options further (Kazmierczak, 2004). A similar process involves visualizing a movie screen and then watching a movie of what would likely happen if the client made one choice and then a movie of what would happen if he/she chose the alternative (Hasengawa & Salisbury, 1995).

Another method used in hope training (Snyder, 2000) is to have participants engage in a purposeful, internal search and recall of previous successes. This method prompts the individual to recall these past successes when faced with a challenging situation. Michael (1999, as cited in Green, Odes, & Grant, 2006), found that even remembering successes unrelated to current goals promotes thoughts that are more hopeful. This leads to increases in the amount of *state hope* and eventually strengthens the individual's *dispositional hope*. In effect, this suggests that an individual can be trained to have hope. A coach can use hypnosis to accelerate and deepen this process.

There is a tremendous amount of research on the area of ego-strengthening in hypnosis, which would be an excellent fit for this type of *success-reminding*, and would likely allow the use of this training at a much deeper level in a much shorter amount of time. For example, there is a one-session technique called the "Clenched Fist" (Stein,

1963, p. 115), which asks the individual to recall several instances of success. The person is then asked to “allow those positive feelings to build as you clench the fist of your dominant hand ” (p. 116). The coach would then give the post-hypnotic suggestion that each time the client purposely closes that fist of his/her dominant hand, the good feelings associated with those successes will wash over him/her, filling him/her with calm and confidence. That protocol also includes the opportunity to neutralize negative, self-defeating thoughts by compressing them in the fist of the non-dominant hand, and then just letting them go.

According to Hammond (1990), in using this method, resources within the individual (e.g., feelings of confidence, calm, success, etc.) are accessed and then conditioned so that the person can evoke them whenever needed. He states that, “in a sense, this method is like the behavioral method of thought stopping and thought substitution, which can often be made more powerful and automatic through hypnotic conditioning” (Hammond, 1990, p. 145).

There are seemingly unlimited options for working with self-esteem, self-efficacy, and confidence in the hypnosis literature (e.g.; Barber, 1984; Barnett, 1981; Gibbons, 1979; Gindhart, 1981; Pelletier, 1979; Stanton, 1977; Stein, 1963). These options range from general suggestions for overall well-being to very specific, detailed visioning of the ideal self. Appropriate choices depend upon the personality and specific goals of the coaching client.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION AND AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The purpose of this entire paper was to explore the concept of using hypnosis in conjunction with life coaching in order to better facilitate the process of client change and to offer coaches additional tools for catalyzing that change. The methods used to fulfill this purpose where reviews of the relevant coaching, change, and hypnosis literature. This was followed by discussion and examples of how these theories/practices could be combined for client benefit.

I deliberately took a broad view, incorporating research from psychology, life and executive coaching, change management, learning theory, physiology, chaos theory, and hypnosis in order to form a solid theoretical basis for the practice of life coaching combined with hypnosis.

There is a complete absence of research in the area of combining life coaching with hypnosis. Research is needed to determine whether these approaches can be combined for the benefit of the client. This could be useful not only to coaches who are contemplating ways to enhance their practice, but also could be utilized within coach training programs. Furthermore, if certain types of hypnosis are useful at certain stages of change, then hypnosis tapes (appropriate to a client's stage of change) could be made

available to coaches. This could be useful for those coaches who are interested in these concepts, but do not wish to pursue hypnosis training.

Research needs to be done to address the following questions:

1) What are the advantages and disadvantages of using hypnosis in conjunction with life coaching?
2) Can a client move through the stages of change more easily, quickly, and confidently using hypnosis in conjunction with life coaching?
3) Would some clients respond to this combination better than others? For example, would the client's level of hypnotizability make a difference in coaching outcomes?
4) Would the combination of coaching and hypnosis work better using some theoretical coaching frameworks as opposed to others? For example, the research that has been done comparing cognitive behavioral therapy alone, and cognitive-behavioral therapy combined with hypnosis has suggested much better client outcomes using the combination. This could suggest similar positive outcomes using the combination of cognitive-behavioral coaching and hypnosis. Would this be the case when combining other coaching frameworks and hypnosis?
5) Could coaches who work with clients over the phone effectively use hypnosis?

"Change is a constant. So, too, is the search for better, more effective ways to create and sustain change" (Stober & Grant, 2006, p. 1). It is my hope that future research shows that combining hypnosis with life coaching will lead to more effective ways to create and sustain positive change.

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