



INFLUENCE OF PARENTS' COACHING SKILLS ON SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR OF
SCHOOL CHILDREN IN KENYA

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Approval of the Thesis

INFLUENCE OF PARENTS' COACHING SKILLS ON SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR OF SCHOOL CHILDREN IN KENYA

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Abstract

INFLUENCE OF PARENTS' COACHING SKILLS ON SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR OF
SCHOOL CHILDREN IN KENYA

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The public display of poor behaviour by school children in Kenya is concerning. In 2021, 302 students were arrested following the destruction of school property, physical assault on teachers and school prefects, and arson. Commentators on this matter, and the literature, suggest that school children behaving badly is a sign of laxity by parents, who should instil good social behaviour in their children. Recommendations by various Kenya Government commissions that have investigated misbehaviour by school children do not include practical recommendations for how parents can better influence children's social behaviour. This study proposed that coaching by parents can do so. Using case study methodology, parents, their children aged 14-17 years, and teachers, were interviewed to explore how parents coach their children to instil social behaviour; why parents choose the methods they use and how children demonstrate the social behaviours their parents instil through coaching. The results show that parents use telling, accountability, modelling, authority, and their own learning. Drivers for choosing these methods include the parents' experience of being parented and the knowledge they gain from parenting. The findings imply that parents can be more needs supportive of their children by dialoguing rather than telling, calibrating the power balance between themselves and their children, allowing co-created solutions, and paying attention to the behaviours their children integrate. Parents also ought to mind transference from their own upbringing to ensure it does not get in the way of coaching their children effectively for social behaviour.

Declaration

I declare that this thesis has been composed solely by myself and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree. Except where stated otherwise by reference or acknowledgment, the work presented is entirely my own.

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to Leonora Nakhanu Ayieko Saiti Wasike, my mother, who gave up her own opportunity for further education in order to support her younger siblings. Mama challenged, encouraged, defended, and inspired me to always strive to do and be my best.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The public display of poor behaviour by school children in Kenya is cause for concern. There have been media reports of school children in Kenya engaging in drunkenness (Kipkemai, 2018; NTV.Nation.co.ke, 2018); arson (Tuko.co.ke, 2019) and assault (Oundo, 2018; Mwendwa, 2018; Vidija, 2019). These incidents distract not only the students but also school administrators, government education agencies, parents and the community at large. Understanding how such misbehaviour can be reduced would therefore benefit all these stakeholders.

The Ministry of Education reported that in 2018, 107 schools were involved in school unrest, including arson, breakages, sit-ins and walk outs (Republic of Kenya, 2019). In 2021, 302 students had been arrested, by November of that year, for suspected arson in their schools (Nyamai, 2021). In these incidents there seemed to be a lack of self-control, inability to communicate effectively, and lack of resilience in the face of failure or rejection among the students, as well as conflict with school administrators. Indeed, the ministry of education report identified poor conflict resolution skills as one of the causes of misbehaviour by school children in Kenya (Republic of Kenya K. , 2019).

Commentators on the incidents of mis-behaviour by school children cited above seemed to agree that school children behaving badly is a sign that parents did not do their job properly (Nyambegera, 2018; Karega, 2016; Republic of Kenya, 2019). The Cabinet Secretary for education described school unrest as indiscipline, and attributed it to over-protective parents, (Kurgat, 2021) whom he said treated their children ‘like eggs’ (Kiguta, 2021). Another education official said that parents were giving their children excess freedom, hence the lack of discipline.

A former Chief Justice of the Republic of Kenya stated that “parents have gone missing; many children today do not have mother and father figures in their lives. These roles have been left to the teachers and the result is the arson cases we are witnessing countrywide” (pd.co.ke, 2021).

But not everyone agrees. Wasonga, (2021) and Malenya (2016) submit that school unrest and violence are the consequences of dehumanising conditions in schools (mostly boarding schools) and a means of seeking self-realisation. This view suggests that the focus on student discipline and parental inadequacies is misplaced. But that is not to say that the parents or home environment have got nothing to do with this behaviour.

Indeed, the literature also seemed to support the view that family environment, and specifically parents, have a role in laying the foundation for their children’s social behaviour (Healy, Sanders , & Lyer, 2015; McDowell & Parke, 2009).

1.2 Background of the study

Children's social behavioural development plays a crucial role in shaping their relationships, interactions, and overall well-being (Biglan et al, 2012). Many factors contribute to this, and there are several key aspects to consider. These include parent-child relationships and attachment (Ainsworth et al., 2015; Gong, et al., 2022), peer relationships and socialisation (Rubin, Bukowski, & Jeffrey, 2006; Youniss, 2022), and emotion regulation and self-control (Eisenberg, Smith, & Spinrad, 2011) .

Parent-Child Relationships and Attachment: The importance of secure parent-child relationships for children’s social behavioural development is consistently highlighted in research (Ainsworth et al., 2015). This is because secure attachment forms a strong basis for healthy social interactions, empathy, and emotional regulation. Such security fosters positive behavioural outcomes, and it

derives from responsive caregiving, which involves consistent attention and sensitivity to the child's needs (Belsky & Fearon , 2002).

Emotional Regulation and Self-Control: Another key aspect of children's social behavioural development is emotional regulation and self-control. When children develop these skills, they manage their emotions effectively and engage in appropriate social interactions (Eisenberg et al. 2001). Parents and other care givers can support this development by teaching emotional literacy, providing guidance on problem-solving, and modelling self-control strategies (Kopp, 1989; Miu et al., 2022).

Peer Relationships and Socialisation: Peer relationships provide opportunities for learning and practicing social skills (Rubin et al., 2006)., thus contributing significantly to children's social development, Empathy, perspective-taking, and cooperation are enhanced by positive peer interactions. When parents create supportive environments that encourage peer collaboration and emphasise the importance of empathy and inclusivity, they are facilitating healthy socialisation (Wentzel & Cladwell, 1997; Sosteric & Ratkovic, 2022).

Cultural and Environmental Factors: Cultural and environmental factors also shape children's social behavioural development in a significant way. Socialisation practices are shaped by cultural norms, values, and family structures (Chao, 1994). Furthermore, economic deprivation, neighbourhood safety, and access to quality education impact social opportunities and outcomes (Luby et al., 2013; Brooks-Gunn, Duncan, & Maritato, 1997) .

Role of Media and Technology: The influence of media and technology on children's social behaviour cannot be ignored. Screen time and exposure to inappropriate content can negatively

impact social skills and behaviour (Carnagey, Anderson, & Bushman, 2007; Yap, 2023). Parents and other caregivers can mitigate these risks by encouraging responsible media use, setting limits, and promoting alternative activities such as face-to-face interactions, outdoor play, and creative pursuits (Guram, 2018).

Other studies have shown a link between parenting skills and social behaviour among children (Healy, Sanders, & Lyster, 2015; McDowell & Parke, 2009; Rubin, Begle, & McDonald, 2012; Baker, Fenning, & Crnic, 2011; Marchant & Young, 2001). (Healy, Sanders, & Lyster, 2015) Healy, Sanders, and Lyster (2015) reported that parenting plays a key role in the development of children's social and emotional skills. This view is supported by others McDowell and Parke, (2009) as well as Baker, Fenning, and Crnic, (2011) Rubin, Begle, and McDonald, (2012); and Marchant and Young, (2001), who added that delinquent or antisocial behaviour can be traced to child rearing practices. Other social skills that depend on parental influence are decision making, internal resilience and personal control. Wray-Lake, Crouter, & McHale, (2010) discuss decision making autonomy which is important for children's optimal developmental functioning. Internal resilience and personal control was linked to self-esteem which is important for the development of social functioning for adolescents (Suresh, Jayachander, & Joshi, 2013). Aremu, John-Akinola, & Desmennu (2019) also found a strong association between parenting and self-esteem among children in secondary school.

It is important to note that while many factors influence children's social behavioural development, and while some researchers argue that the community has responsibility for children's behavioural development (Sosteric & Ratkovic, 2022), much responsibility is placed on parents. Parents' role is direct (role modelling, setting boundaries, establishing rules) or indirect (through facilitating

education, selecting the living environment). This is why it is not unreasonable to suppose that when children fail to develop appropriate social behaviour, parental action should be interrogated. The question then arises: how can parents instil good social behaviour in their children?

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The problem addressed in this study is how to improve the social behaviour of school children in Kenya. Incidences of student unrest demonstrate that school children are engaged in poor social behaviour. In 2016, about 120 schools were burnt down by students and another 363 affected by other forms of unrest (Republic of Kenya K. , 2019). More than 6000 students were sent home following closure of the schools, and 150 students faced criminal prosecution (Cooper, 2014). In 2017, 9 students died in a school fire in Nairobi, Kenya (Kiplagat, 2017). Other forms of poor social behaviour include assaulting teachers (Mwendwa, 2018), attacking journalists on duty (Vidija, 2019), and drunken disorderly behaviour including group sex parties (Kipkemoi, 2018). It appears like the school children are unable to communicate and negotiate for their needs peacefully. Rather, they exhibit lack of respect for authority, property and even their peers. Such behaviours are known to be shaped by parents (Belsky & Fearon , 2002; Miu, et al., 2022; Kopp, 1989).

These behaviours make headline news and precipitate debate among Kenyans. The factors cited for causing these behaviours include “parental neglect” (Karega, 2016); and abdication of parental responsibilities ((National Crime Research Centre, 2017; Nyambegera, 2018. The claim that parents had abdicated their responsibilities, and that this was a cause of student unrest, was supported by Nyambegera (2018) who found a strong correlation between the abdication of duty by parents and student unrest. In an earlier study, it was reported that 99% of the respondents

(students as well as teaching and non-teaching staff) cited poor parental upbringing as a factor in student unrest (Apondi, 2005). However, what exactly parents have failed to do, is not well articulated, if at all, and consequently there are no specific recommendations as to what they ought to do better, or how.

In the National Crime Research report of 2017, parental factors were cited as a cause of student unrest. However, of the 13 recommendations to resolve the problem, none touches on parents. Nyambegera (2018) suggested that the Government should “deal with rogue” parents who failed to teach their children the proper behaviour, as if it were a fact that such parents are rogues. Wanjohi (2016) recommended that there needs to be “research to better appreciate the root causes of the problem” (p.2). The fact is that the role of parents in relation to the problem of poor student social behaviour is not well understood. That being the case, it cannot be properly addressed, let alone having relevant interventions prescribed. If the problem of poor social behaviour by school children in Kenya is to be addressed, and if indeed parents have a role in establishing good social behaviour, then it is reasonable to assume that knowing what the parents do to instil social behavior will provide a foundation upon which recommendations for improvement can be made.

1.4 Purpose of the study, Research Aims and Objectives

The purpose of this study is to understand if, how and what coaching skills are used by parents, and what effect the use of coaching skills has on the children’s social behaviour by conducting case studies. There are three objectives of the study:

RO1: To explore how Kenyan parents use coaching skills to instill social behavior in their children.

RO2: To discover why parents choose the methods they use to instill social behavior.

RO3: To explore how and if the children exhibit the desired social behaviours.

1.5 Research Questions

The research seeks to respond to the following questions:

RQ1: How do parents coach their children to instill social behavior?

RQ2: Why do parents choose the methods they use to coach their children?

RQ3: How do children demonstrate the social behaviours their parents aim to instill through coaching?

1.6 Nature of the study

The goal of this research is to explain a phenomenon (coaching for social behaviour), by relying on the perception of a person's (parent, child) experience in a given situation. Thus, a qualitative approach is suggested (Stake, 2010). In this study the researcher has opted to use a qualitative case study method because she is interested in conducting in-depth exploration of the subject matter and providing a thick, rich and contextual description of the phenomenon of coaching by parents in Kenya. The qualitative case study refers to the in-depth analysis of a single or small number of units, where the unit can be a person, a group of people and organisation or an institution (McLeod., 2019). Stake, (1995) defined a case study as “an integrated system” and “a specific complex, functioning thing” (p.2). Yin, (2009) emphasises the importance of taking relevant context into consideration when trying to understand real life phenomena. Merriam, (1998) discussed the interaction of various variables presented via different sources such as documents, quotes, samples and artefacts in a study. Case studies are usually founded on interviews (Hancock & Algozzine, 2016) with additional sources, including documentation, records, direct observation, participant observation and artefacts (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009) being used to validate the information gained from the interviews.

Case studies can be used in exploratory research, and have been associated with a number of advantages. These advantages include: providing detailed information, providing insights for further research and permitting investigation of otherwise impractical situations (Hancock & Algozzine, 2016;(University of Leicester, n.d.; Yin, 2017). Case studies are concerned with describing real-life phenomena rather than developing normative statements. These specific traits of case study allow the researcher to focus on an individual's behaviours, attributes, actions, and interactions (Brewer & Hunter, 1989).

1.7 Significance of the study

By linking two areas of interest – that is coaching by parents in Kenya happens and the development of social behaviour in school children in Kenya, this study will be useful to at least four groups of people, organisations or situations . First, for parents, it will describe what they do when coaching their children, assess how effective it is and highlight ways to improve it. Where applicable, recommendations based on the outcome of the study will provide parents a practical ‘how to’ solution. Second, for coaching practitioners and trainers of coaches, it will produce information on the use and effect of coaching skills by parents and therefore influence training curriculum on this topic. Such trainers can develop content based in what needs to be improved, as observed in the study. Therefore, parents who wish to get trained in coaching skills for social behaviour development of their children will have access to a curriculum training that is specific and relevant to addressing the behaviour problems observed in their children. Third, for parents and teachers, it will assist in the identification of situations where a child’s observed social behaviour might benefit from coaching at home. Since a child’s education happens both at home and at school, identifying social behavioural problems that can be solved by parents will help focus on what needs improving and potentially foster more effective collaboration between

teachers and parents towards the holistic development of children. Indeed, it will also help pinpoint where expected or desirable social behaviours are not observed, and therefore, provide an opportunity to coach the child into those social behaviours. Lastly, in highlighting ways to improve social behaviour among school children in Kenya, it will potentially impact Kenyan society at large, not least by saving the community from the cost of replacing and repairing damaged property.

The study is also relevant for contributing to the sparse body of evidence-based knowledge about coaching in Kenya. By far more studies in the field of coaching have been conducted in Europe, America and Asia Pacific, than in Africa in general and Kenya in particular.

1.8 Definition of terms

Term	Definition
Child Centred	Parental activities and behaviours that take into consideration the needs, interests, and motivations of the child and allows the child to express themselves in this regard.
Coaching	A relationship where the parent uses skills, usually acquired through training, to help the child gain insights that support the achievement of stated social behaviours.
Facilitative	Parental demeanour as well as an environment that allows the child to exercise autonomy.

Needs Supportive	Parental activities and behaviours that promote the meeting of a child's innate psychological needs.
Needs Thwarting	Parental activities and behaviours that do not promote the meeting of a child's psychological needs.
Parental coaching	The act of a parent coaching his or her child.
Social Behaviour	Children's behaviours that may or may not be directed at others such as siblings, parents, authority figures and peers, and which are observable by others, and which may affect relationships with others.
Structured	Follows a recognised process.

1.9 Scope and limitations of the study

The purpose of this study was to explore the methods used by Kenyan parents in instilling social behaviour in their children aged 14-17, and to deduce whether these methods could be described as coaching. The scope was limited to what parents said they do, and did not include observation, nor did it presume to correlate the social behaviours that were reported to be observed by the parents as well as teachers and the children themselves to the parents coaching methods. Participants were limited to Kenyan parents and their children living in Kenya at the time of the study, that is , March 2021 to May 2022

The researcher relied on subjects who volunteered to be interviewed and had no control over the gender or ages of the volunteers or their children.

1.10 Summary

In this chapter the background of the study was presented and the research problem as well as research questions and research hypotheses defined. The nature and significance of the study were described, and the researcher also laid out the scope and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This literature review first searched for historical foundations of the coaching industry in order to identify the theories upon which it stands. In doing so, attention was paid to the principles of coaching and its definition, together with the main components of coaching such as skills, techniques, and models; who is coached, the outcomes of coaching and the different specialisations in, and applications of, coaching. The terms theories, models and approaches often overlap and are often used interchangeably in the literature. These theories, models and approaches to coaching explain the underlying beliefs that guide how a coach coaches, what the coaching engagement seeks to achieve, the tools and strategies that the coach uses, including what aspects of the human being coaching seeks to connect to, understand, change, or otherwise influence. The theories, models and approaches also highlight and, in some instances, explain the science behind coaching practices and tools. They are a reference point to demonstrate how the process of coaching works, to define the skills and capabilities of professional coaches, and to describe the coaching process. Learning theories, for example, are heavily implicated in coaching. A discussion about the theoretical framework of the study is included, and subsequently, the practice of coaching is reviewed. What is the process of coaching? Who coaches and who is coached? Where is coaching applied and what are the outcomes? Evidence-based studies support these topics. The specific area of coaching by parents begins with a review of what the roles of parenting are, and the different parenting styles, then a look at the specific area of parenting adolescents, and parental interventions. This is then linked to parental coaching and how it relates to the social behaviour of Kenyan school children, which is the focus of this study. Thereafter conflicts, gaps and controversies in the literature are noted.

2.2 The Coaching Industry

The word “coach” traces its origin in the 16th century. It is thought to originate from the Hungarian word ‘kocsi’ meaning wagon, made in a town called Kocs (Google.com, 2020). Later, it was used colloquially to denote an instructor or a tutor who was paid to “carry” a student through an exam. In the 1800s the athletic world began to apply the term ‘coaching’ (Cox, Bachkirova, & Clutterbuck, 2014), and this term is still strongly linked to sports (Ives. , 2008; Fazel, 2013). It was gradually applied to situations where managers received help to improve their goal setting and pay attention to their strengths by promoting performance and the ability to bounce back from setbacks. The term then found its way into other areas including education (Allen, Baker, & Behnke, 2018; Ives, 2008) and parenting.

There are several and sometimes overlapping specialisations (Davison & Gasiorowski, 2006) or prefixes (Ives , 2008) used in describing coaching, arising in part from the use of coaching in many areas of life. Some of these specialisations are personal, where an individual is coached on life areas that the individual selects; or executive, which is specific to the professional domain; hence, for example, life coaching and spiritual coaching as well as career coaching and leadership coaching, respectively (Fazel, 2013; Wasike-Sihanya, 2020). Family coaching, which is linked to parents and children co-existing effectively (Allen & Huff, 2014) is also happening more and more. Still, coaching specialisations can be generally split into two broad categories: coaching in the personal realm, often referred to as life coaching (Grant & Cavanagh, 2014), and coaching in the realm of work, usually referred to as executive coaching. Ives (2008) refers to these as the personal development category and the performance category. This study is concerned with coaching in the personal realm and not coaching that takes place in organisations, at work places or in relation to professional development. Any reference to coaching in this study should

therefore be understood to mean coaching in the personal realm or life coaching unless it is stated otherwise.

In the life coaching realm there are several niches, such as retirement coaching, financial coaching, parental coaching, wellness coaching, and relationship coaching (Green, Grant , & Rynsaardt, 2007).The term parental coaching is employed in this study to describe the act of a parent coaching his or her child, and should be distinguished from coaching that is given by a professional coach to the parent.

2.1.1 The Professional Coaching Industry

According to the International Coaching Federation (ICF), which was founded in 1992, there are over 70,000 coach practitioners in 137 countries in the world (International Coaching Federation, 2020). In addition, nearly 16,000 Managers and leaders reported that they used coaching skills in their work. Earnings for professional coach's averaged 47,000 United States Dollars per year, and the industry was estimated to be worth approximately 2.8 million dollars in 2019, a 21% increase compared to 2016 (International Coaching Federation, 2020). 95% of the coaches reported that they had received more than 60 hours of coach training.

In Kenya, the coaching industry was still relatively young in 2019. The ICF Kenya Chapter was created in 2014 and had about 100 paid up members in 2019 (ICF Kenya Charter Chapter, 2019). To understand this in context, compare these numbers to those of the Kenya National Union of Teachers formed in 1957 and with a membership of almost 190,000 as at 2019 (Blaze Digital Team, 2018).

Based on personal knowledge of the ICF Kenya Chapter (this researcher was secretary to the Board and convenor of the Membership committee in 2019), most Kenyan coaches who were

members of the chapter self-described as executive coaches offering services in the professional development area as external coaches to, or as internal coaches within, corporations. Internal coaches are often, but not always, human resource professionals and managers in other departments who have received coach training and use coaching skills in executing their job.

At the time of writing this in 2018, there were at least 3 coaching schools, accredited by the International Coaching Federation, in Kenya. The cost to receive certified program training ranged from 5,000 to 8, 000 United States Dollars. Qualified coaches in Kenya charged 50 to 750 United States Dollars per session, with a session generally lasting 45 to 90 minutes.

2.3 Theories, Models and Approaches in Coaching

The term ‘coaching’ originated from the world of sports, and was linked with practice for skills development and building resilience. The term was later developed to include association with ‘creative problem solving’ and ‘maximising potential’ (International Coach Federation, 2019). Others (Spence & Oades, 2011) spoke of the ‘enhancement of human functioning’ as well as self-efficacy and increased goal attainment (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009).

There is not a single agreed definition of coaching (Fillery-Travis & Passmore, 2011; Ives, 2008) partly because different people assign different meanings to it (Jackson, 2005). This is in turn because practitioners of the profession come from diverse intellectual roots representing various theories such as learning; human and organisational development; existential and phenomenological philosophy and social psychology. While enriching coaching, these roots have also caused some mix-up about the exact nature of coaching and what it is supposed to achieve (Ives, 2008; Cox, Bachkirova, & Clutterbuck, 2014). Figure 2.1 illustrates this variety of ‘roots’ and ‘branches’.

Figure 2.1

The Roots and Branches of Coaching (Brock, 2014)



This is how Kilburg (1996) defined coaching: “a helping relationship formed between a client [...] and a consultant who uses a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods” (p.135). Kilburg further says that coaching has the objective of achieving targets that are co-identified by the coach and the client.

Williams and Davis, (2002) also maintain the focus on relationship, while introducing the idea of focusing on the future rather than the past. They define coaching as a firm human connection where coaches who have been trained help individuals map out their future instead of focusing on getting over what happened in the past (Williams & Davis, 2002). The word ‘trained’ is significant, as it indicates that there is some preparation or impartation of specific skills for one to be able to coach. This is not surprising as Williams and Davis (2002) were writing from the

perspective of coach trainers. It is also notable that Williams and Davis (2002), whose background is psychotherapy, also bring out the ‘future’ versus ‘past’ perspective, no doubt in order to provide some differentiation between coaches helping clients prepare for future success and therapists helping clients overcome past trauma (Hullinger & DiGirolamo, 2018).

Coaching is identified as a special kind of conversation where the qualities of a coach are also alluded to in the definition which describes coaching as a kind of conversation where certain unspoken ground rules relating to certain qualities must be present. These qualities are respect, candidness, empathy, rigour, and commitment to speaking the truth (Whitworth et al., 2009).

Structure and process appear in the following definition which also expresses the purpose of coaching and identifies change as the key outcome for the recipient of coaching: in coaching, structure and focused interactions are combined with relevant tools, techniques, and strategies to drive lasting change as desired by the client. This human development process benefits the client as well as, potentially, other stakeholders (Cox, Bachkirova, & Clutterbuck, 2014).

In addition to behavioural change, goal attainment and the general well-being of the client are added to the definition of coaching by Jarosz (2016) whose definition of life coaching is: “Life coaching is a long-term efficient relationship that allows clients to maximise their potential” (p. 37). Jarosz (2016) also emphasises relationship, seeing coaching as an efficient relationship that lasts a long time. Jarosz (2016) arrived at this definition after assessing various definitions for common elements and then synthesising those elements to remove redundancies Grant and Atad (2022) speak of the collaborative, action-oriented relationship that aims to achieve specified personal or professional goals. The definition of coaching by the International Coaching Federation, which describes itself as a non-profit organisation dedicated to the profession of

coaching is: “Partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximize their personal and professional potential” (International Coach Federation, 2019).

This description also pinpoints the relationship aspect of coaching (partnering), the character of coach as a facilitator (thought provoking) and the client as responsible for his or her own discovery (creativity and inspiration), as well as the future focus of the engagement (potential). The ICF definition also recognises the personal life domain as distinguishable from the professional.

All these definitions have certain common features, including partnership or relationship; structured process; facilitation rather than direction by the coach; and application to non-clinical populations (Grant, 2001; Ives, 2008). Although it has been found that coaching clients are not altogether free of clinical symptoms Grant, (2006) the point here is that it is not the purpose of coaching to deal with clinical issues.

The lack of a unified characterisation of life coaching has been criticised for making it difficult to evaluate changes in clients that can be exclusively said to be a result of life coaching (Jarosz, 2016). Still, based on the definitions cited hereabove, the researcher has combined key elements to create the following definition:

Parental coaching is a needs-supportive parenting practice involving a series of instances within the parent-child relationship where the parent engages in guided conversations using coaching skills to support the normal child’s growth potential. In these instances, the child is given unconditional positive regard and the parent engages in active listening while challenging, empowering, and acknowledging the child, thus facilitating achievement of co-created goals, for which the parent holds the child accountable (Wasike-Sihanya, 2023).

Coaching relies on an interdisciplinary theoretical base, drawing from education, management, social sciences, philosophy, psychology and many more (Cox, Bachkirova, & Clutterbuck, 2014). In particular, learning theories are heavily implicated in coaching. According to (Whitmore, 2009) coaching is an activity that works to unlock the potential of a person in order to get them performing at the highest possible level. Whitmore further says that rather than teaching the client, coaching helps the client to learn. Other theories that are heavily implicated in coaching are behavioural and motivational theories.

Fazel, (2013) analysed learning theories within coaching and highlighted four basic learning theories. These are behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism, and humanism. Behavioural learning theories or behaviourism include classical conditioning which is based on the experiment of Pavlov (2010) where natural stimulus was paired with a neutral one and after several repetitions the neutral stimulus alone triggered the reflex. The core premise of Behaviourism is that that behaviour is an observable response to stimulus. These theories were criticised for ignoring the role of cognitive psychological processes, and were also seen as suggesting that there was a one-way relationship between a person and the environment.

Skinner built on classical conditioning theory with reinforcement theory noting that people repeated behaviours that lead to pleasant or desirable consequences (Gordan & Krishanan, 2014). Such consequences are referred to as positive reinforcement. By the same token, people avoid behaviours that result in unpleasant consequences (Gordan & Krishanan, 2014).

Cognitive theories of learning built on this, recognising both external and internal stimuli including mental processes. Auerbach (2006) advocated for a cognitive approach to coaching where it is recognised that feelings and emotions are the products of a person's thoughts and a person's thoughts include perceptions, interpretations, mental attitudes, and beliefs. The role of

coaching in this case would be to help the client to substitute maladaptive and inaccurate cognitions (Beck, 1991). Behavioural theories stipulate that there are observable outcomes that accrue from coaching (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009). In order to evaluate coaching outcomes, clients self-assess on variables central to the topic of coaching. For example, if the topic or issue is performance, they self-assess on performance related variables such as goal attainment and self-efficacy, and the assessment is repeated after a period of coaching. Cognitive development theories, however, postulate that the result of coaching is learning, and that this learning or cognitive development results in improvements in various aspects, including performance skills, well-being, coping, work attitudes, and goal-directed self-regulation (Cerni , Curtis, & Colmar , 2010; Fazel, 2013; Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014). Coaches draw from classical conditioning theory to provide anchoring for clients. Anchoring is the process of helping the client to make the connection between a stimulus and a desired emotional response. This means that once a client identifies the link between a certain stimulus and response, he or she can work on building new associations and overriding unwanted ones through practice and repetition. In this sense, anchoring draws from reinforcement theories, and uses motivational messaging and verbal reinforcement to encourage clients. Coaches can also use facilitative theories to create an atmosphere where the client feels safe. They do so by listening actively, having unconditional positive regard towards the client, and seeing the client as an expert of his own desires (Fazel, 2013).

Constructivist theories, on their part, saw that learning was not merely a response to stimuli, whether internal or external. Rather, constructivism proposed that people are capable of learning by solving problems in the real world, and that individuals use previous experience to understand current phenomena and to construct new understanding of previous experiences.

As the goal of coaching is to facilitate growth and change, (Rollnick & Miller, 1995; Grenard, et al., 2007; Colby, et al., 2012; D'Amico et al., 2008) behaviour change theories are also implicated in coaching. The transtheoretical model of change considers behaviour change to be an intentional, staged process, that unfolds over time. According to this theory, there are six stages of behaviour change: pre contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, maintenance, and termination (Prochaska, 2013). Moore et al. (2010) suggest how a coach can approach the different stages. At pre-contemplation stage, clients need empathy most of all, because they are not yet ready to change. It may be that they consider change to be too complicated or too difficult (Moore et al., 2010). At the contemplation stage, clients are thinking about changing and they are considering acting. However, because they are still weighing benefits of change against the amount of effort required, they may express mixed feelings about change. At the preparation stage, clients are strongly motivated and are likely to experiment with possible solutions, discard those that do not work, and try new ones. A coach can help at this stage by assisting the client to brainstorm workable solutions and concretise their plans for change, by writing them down, for example. By the action stage, clients have identified new behaviour and are doing it consistently. Through practice, they are establishing new habits. At this stage, the coach helps the client explore this situation which could be challenging, and to learn from it. At this stage, modelling and support are important in order to avoid lapses becoming relapses. At the maintenance stage, the new behaviour has become a habit and it is done automatically, and the client is confident that they can maintain the new behaviour. The coach's role is to help the client to appreciate the value of the new behaviour. The Transtheoretical model shows that by understanding which stage a client is in, a coach can adopt the most appropriate tools to help movement to the next stage. This model also

helps to explain why some people achieve change over a shorter period than others when they start being coached.

Competency models focus on the skills and capabilities of the coach as a trained professional who has certain skills that are used to facilitate the movement of the client from one state (pre-coaching) to another (post-coaching). Coaches are trained to develop and enhance such competencies, which include but are not limited to, contracting skills as well listening and questioning skills. Thus, coaching is seen as a process where a coach who demonstrates certain core competencies' (International Coach Federation, 2019), facilitates the setting of goals and designing of actions to achieve those goals, as well as helping self-regulation through tracking of progress by the client (Fazel, 2013). The International Coaching Federation (2019) listed 11 core competencies for professional coaches. There are 4 competency groups, each with several competencies, each of which had detailed markers to demonstrate how the competency is manifested (International Coaching Federation, 2020) These competencies are summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1*ICF Competencies (ICF, 2020)*

Competency group	Competencies
Foundation	Demonstrates Ethical Practice Embodies a Coaching Mindset
Co-creating the relationship	Establishes and Maintains Agreements Cultivates Trust and Safety Maintains Presence
Communicating effectively	Listens Actively Evokes Awareness
Cultivating learning and growth	Facilitates Client Growth

On its part, the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) proposes the EMCC competency framework (EMCC, 2020) and lists 8 competence categories as follows: 1). Understanding Self - demonstrates awareness of own values, beliefs, and behaviours; recognises how these affect their practice and uses this self-awareness to manage their effectiveness in meeting the clients, and where relevant, the sponsor's objectives; 2.) Commitment to Self-Development - explore and improve the standard of their practice and maintain the reputation of the profession; 3.) Managing the Contract - establishes and maintains the expectations and boundaries of the mentoring/coaching contract with the client and, where appropriate, with sponsors; 4). Building the Relationship - skillfully builds and maintains an effective relationship with the client, and where appropriate, with the sponsor; 5). Enabling Insight and Learning - works

with the client and sponsor to bring about insight and learning; 6). Outcome and Action Orientation - demonstrates approach and uses the skills in supporting the client to make desired changes; 7). Use of Models and Techniques - applies models, tools, techniques, and ideas beyond the core communication skills in order to bring about insight and learning. 8). Evaluation - gathers information on the effectiveness of own practice and contributes to establishing a culture of evaluation of outcomes. These competences are supported by capability indicators (CIs).

Evidence based coaching connects research and coaching practice, and this was articulated by Grant, (2016) who defined evidence-based coaching as the combination of professional wisdom and empirical evidence. Such theories include Self-Determination Theory (Spence & Oades, 2011), and Goal focused theory (Ives & Cox, 2012). By translating research into coaching, coaches are equipped to better help their clients achieve desired outcomes. One example of translating goal focused theory into coaching practice is the use of visualisation. Clients picture a goal and visualise the journey that will take them there, thus drawing motivation and energy to pursue the goal (Boyatzis, 2019).

Another learning theory, facilitative theory, is rooted in the humanist approach, which states that a person will learn if the conditions that support curiosity and openness to new ideas are present in the environment (Fazel, 2013). Adult learning theories draw from andragogy (Sammur, 2014), reflective practice (Wang, 2012) and experiential learning (Beard & Wilson, 2018). These theories argue that it is through reflecting on experiences that adults learn, and that people draw on their reservoir of previous experience to solve real-life dilemmas. Coaching in this instance seeks to nurture goal focus and to set direction. For Mezirow (2018) transformative learning happens when clients question assumptions and the role of coaching here is in raising awareness of assumptions. Humanistic theories or humanism, developed from the work of Rogers in 1951

and 1959. These theories capitalise on the natural tendency for human beings to self-actualise. Coaching based on this looks to stimulate or catalyse this tendency. Humanistic theories emphasise the coach relationship as a key ingredient for growth. They take a holistic approach involving the review of both negative and positive aspects of the client. Humanism theories focus on the person's potential. One of most prolific humanistic theories is self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Deci, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2022).

Barner & Higgins (2007) suggest four implicit models that guide the coaching process. These are the clinical, behavioural, systems and social constructionist models. These models are differentiated based on coaching goals, the process through which coaching achieves change, how they view the coach's role and what they consider to be the focus of coaching. The first model, the clinical model, aims to change self-perceptions and personality and such change is thought to begin from the inside out. The clinical model relies on psychometric tools as a starting point. Coaches who rely on clinical models explore the underlying structure of client personality. In the second model, the behavioural, coaching aims to change behaviour. In the behavioural model the coach's role is like that of an adviser and a trainer and the focus of coaching is recurring ineffective behaviour in the client. Changing behaviour involves adjusting thoughts and beliefs and works best with a narrow focus. In the behavioural model coaches often use performance assessments such as 360°-degree feedback and performance appraisals. The third model, the systems model, looks to help the coaching client align personal goals with those of an organisation, for example. Change comes from substitutions in interactions between the client and significant others. In the systems model, ineffective patterns and feedback loops are considered and coaching success requires supportive social interaction networks. The fourth model is the social constructionist model whose focus is to help the client rewrite their social realities and how they experience their

role as participants in the social arena. Change in this case comes from changing the stories clients tell about themselves vis á vis the stories that other people tell about them. The coach's role in this model is described as a photographer and narrative analyst (Barner & Higgins, 2007). The social constructionist model is guided by the belief that it is through social interactions that people's social identities are constructed. This perspective is represented by the question “what is the client's story and how does this differ from how the client has been storied by his or her environment?” (Barner & Higgins, 2007). Coaches using this model help client understand how they selectively frame their experiences and so support them to offer new realities about the roles they play (Barner & Higgins, 2007).

The multi-disciplinary antecedents of coaching also lead to many approaches in the practice of coaching (Ives, 2008). Such approaches include the Psychodynamic approach (Lee, 2014); Cognitive Behavioural coaching (Williams, Edgerton, & Palmer, 2014) the Solution Focused approach (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014), Person-Centred coaching (Joseph, 2014); Gestalt approach (Bluckert, 2014); Ontological coaching (Sieler, 2014); Existential coaching (Spinelli, 2014); Narrative coaching (Drake, 2014) and the Positive Psychology approach (Boniwell, 2014) among others. Each of these approaches shares theories and practices with its underlying origin field. In fact, Cox et al. (2014), presented 13 approaches that integrate theory and practice of coaching. These approaches are summarised in the following section.

Approaches to Coaching

The Psychodynamic approach : The term psychodynamic refers to a range of models that focus on the role that unconscious processes play in human behaviour; more specifically the

dynamic relationship between different parts of the mind. The psychodynamic approach in coaching emphasises the role of the unconscious and past experience in shaping the way one relates to others or to oneself in the present. In psychodynamic coaching the coach provides a safe relationship for exploring, naming, and integrating difficult feelings, thoughts, and memories. This enables the client to approach new challenges with a greater sense of clarity and authenticity. The psychodynamic perspective sees the regulation of emotions as being at the heart of much of human behaviour. Prior relationships, especially those with our parents, result in distinctive but unconscious strategies for regulating emotions and for building up a sense of self identity. These early emotional habits persist into adulthood and become part of the developing brain's neuronal structure and brain chemistry. Defense mechanisms including repression, denial and projection are examples of unconscious power patterns of emotional regulation that operate to avoid or minimise emotions that are considered or experienced as too difficult to handle. The role of the coach is to expand the client's capacity for emotional regulation so that they do not, for example, persistently dismiss the importance of their feelings as a strategy of denial. The coach creates a space in which those feelings can be experienced and named in language so that they can be looked at and understood (Lee, 2014).

The Cognitive-behavioural approach : This is an integrative approach which helps develop client self-awareness of underlying barriers to goal attainment. Such barriers may be cognitive and/or emotional. This approach is based on the premise that the way you think about events profoundly influences the way you feel about them and this impacts upon stress

and performance. The goals of coaching using the cognitive behavioural approach are to facilitate the client achieving realistic goals through thinking and behavioural skills and building internal resources for stability and self-acceptance (Williams, Edgerton, & Palmer, 2014).

The Solution focused approach : Solution focused coaching emphasises the assistance to the client to focus on future actions and to construct a pathway in both thinking and action that assists the client to achieve the desired state. It is based on the theory that the act of spending large amounts of time and effort in articulating a strong definition of goals, constructing the chain of cause and effect that led to the current situation or apportioning blame is a waste of time and energy. Hence the emphasis on defining the desired solution state and potential pathways to get there.

The Person centred approach : The theoretical foundation of the person-centred approach is human motivation also known as actualising tendency that results in the growth, development, and autonomy of the individual (Rogers, 1959). A common metaphor used to explain this principle is how a seed can develop into a large tree if it receives the right nutrients from the soil and together with the correct balance of sunlight and shade. If there is a lack of nutrients from the soil and the wrong balance of sunlight and shade, the seed will not grow to its full potential as a tree. Person centred theory suggests the same of people, and the client centred coach strives to facilitate socio-environmental conditions within the coaching relationship to enable the client weigh experiences and hear their own inner voice. This is manifested by the coach staying with the client's agenda, not introducing new content

or prompting the client on how to think about the content or what direction to go in. Person centred coaching requires reflective listening which is an active process that calls for attention to all that the client sees as well as what the client does not see. This type of listening requires the coach to choose, using their empathic understanding as well as their own congruence in the moment, what to reflect on. Reflective listening together with empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard supports the client to verbalise further and explore issues in more depth, and to be challenged to reach new insights. Ultimately, this helps the client be more equipped to make new choices in life. Person centred coaching adopts a holistic focus on both negative and positive aspects of human functioning. In person centred coaching the successful formation of a collaborative relationship and the coach's attributes, that is authenticity, emotional literacy and such factors as seen as being particularly important in determining coaching effectiveness. Coaching techniques are not as important as the relationship that develops. Person centred coaching is useful because clients often go to coaching because they know that they want to change the direction of their lives but they are struggling to hear their inner voice about how best to move forward. This approach helps people think through relationship choices, how to manage stressful situations, and is ideal for the exploration of values beliefs and assumptions. It is suited to career coaching in helping people discover what they really want to do with your working lives and to develop a strategy to reach it. It is also useful in mentoring, where it serves to build up self-direction. Self-Determination Theory provides a strong support for the person-centred approach because it emphasises the central role of an individual's inner resources for personal development and behavioural regulation (Joseph, 2014).

The Gestalt approach : The Gestalt approach to coaching is a needs-based approach to understanding human functioning and behaviour and through effective self-regulation. It presupposes that people are always doing their best to gratify their needs and eliminate tension. Gestalt emphasises the role that awareness plays in helping people achieve effective behaviour and healthy lifestyles. In this approach coach trust, respect and connection are especially important in order to support the client experience and to give the support required for deeper reflective work.

This approach focuses on an individual's experience in the present moment, the environmental context in which this takes place and the adjustments that people make to self-regulate as a result of that overall situation. Coaches using this approach are interested in how their clients meet or fail to meet their needs and so the coach's role is to assist clients to better understand their own process and especially their habitual thinking and behavioural patterns (Bluckert, 2014) .

Existential coaching : Existential coaching explores the primary concerns of coaching from the following perspective: human beings experience existence through their bodies and within time and space. Also, that human beings struggle with and are sustained by the possibilities as well as limitations of the meanings they construe about any and every facet of their lives, and that human beings maintain hopes, plans and expectations within the uncertainty and insecurity of lives that inevitably end up in death. At the same time how each individual gives expression to these is unique. Existential theory suggests that the coach's main task is to help clients focus on their current concerns in ways that contextualise them

within the clients' worldview. For existential coaching, the issues brought to coaching cannot be dealt with separate from the whole being who presents them (Spinelli, 2014).

Ontological coaching : Ontological coaching recognises that humans exist in three domains of language, emotions, and body and that anything that happens in people's lives happens in these domains. There is a dynamic interplay between these three domains and that dynamic interplay shapes perception and behaviour. This dynamic interplay among language, emotions and body is referred to as the way of being. Ontological coaching also recognises that humans are self-referencing beings and that the way an individual sees the world and the way they engage with the world is always relative to what is deeply important to that individual. It also recognises the importance of relations and conversations for human beings, and that it is through relations and conversations that they interact with the world. Change occurs through the three domains of language, emotions and body, and the ontological coach has the primary responsibility of managing his or her own way of being during the coaching conversation. The coach has the critical task of creating a safe environment for inquiry, learning and discovery through a deeply respectful professional relationship with a client. It is important that issues are clarified and desired outcomes are also clearly defined in the arrangement between Coach and Client. Ontological coaching is different from many of the other theoretical approaches to coaching because it does not have a psychological basis. Rather it is grounded in philosophy and the biology of cognition. In this sense it is not based on the mind but on the being (Sieler, 2014) .

Narrative coaching : There are three important domains in narrative coaching: the narrator, the narrated stories, and the narrative field. The goal of coaching is to help clients develop new connections among their stories, their identity, and their behaviours in order to generate and embrace new options in the three domains. Narrative Coaching presumes that it is possible for clients to rewrite their story through a process referred to as re-storying, where the client creates new alignment among one's identity, stories , and behaviours, in order to be and to behave in new ways. This is achieved by raising client's awareness of the sources and consequences of their current narrative patterns. A key goal in narrative coaching is to look for elements in the clients' stories that are amenable to challenge, re-definition, or alternative interpretation. One of the core skills in doing so is deep listening by the coach (Drake D. , 2014) .

The Cognitive-Developmental Approach : Research suggesting that people differ in ways that cannot be explained by personality types, learning styles, or personal preferences led to the cognitive developmental approach to coaching. The premise of this approach is that people not only differ from other people, they also undergo significant changes in themselves. Such changes can be in the way they derive meaning from their experiences. It is thought that the changes of this capacity occur logically in stages throughout the life of an individual. The cognitive-developmental approach believes that it is possible to further stimulate and facilitate such development by offering appropriate support and challenge within the coaching process. It also suggests that coaches can better help their clients by understanding their developmental trajectories (Bachkirova T. , 2014).

The Transpersonal approach : Transpersonal coaching engages actively with an individual's spiritual intelligence while building on the individuals emotional intelligence to enable deeper and broader perspectives. The transpersonal is a level of consciousness where human beings admit that they are spiritual beings with a soul and a spirit. There is a distinction between the pre-personal, the personal and the transpersonal. The pre-personal comes before the personal and is captured in the process of pre-natal and child development. The everyday ordinary consciousness which is familiar to all of us is the personal and the transpersonal generally goes beyond that into the realm of the sacred, the numinous, the holy and the divine. In transpersonal coaching the role of the coach is to bring out the latent creativity of the client. In this work the coach is a companion without a presumption of expertise, leadership, or superiority in any way (Rowan, 2014).

The Positive Psychology Approach : In the positive psychology approach strengths, positive behaviours and purpose are the building blocks used for client development and performance improvement. Positive psychology is scientifically rooted and seeks to help clients increase wellbeing, enhance, and apply strengths as well as improving performance and achieving valuable goals. Positive psychology came about when psychologists noticed that the focus was on ridding the world of mental illness with little attention paid to the enhancement of positive mental health. Positive psychology coaching seeks to promote positive affect as well as directed purposeful change. Positive psychology coaching uses empirically supported assessments such as the values in action (VIA) strengths inventory, Dissatisfaction with Life scales, and the Meaning in Life questionnaire, to derive clear and articulate assessments of a

client strengths, orientation towards well-being, life satisfaction and potential routes to peak performance. Positive Psychology coaches seek to have genuine reasons to believe in the client's potential. The coach in the Positive psychology approach engages in active listening, powerful questioning designing actions, goal setting and managing accountability. It is also important in such a coaching relationship to achieve an optimal balance between the positive and negative.

Positive Psychology coaching applies self-determination theory. Self Determination theory postulates the existence of three universal needs - autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The theory asserts that satisfaction of these needs enhances motivation and wellbeing (Boniwell, Kauffman, & Silberman, 2014) .

Transactional analysis and Coaching : Transactional analysis has at the core of its philosophy the belief that people are in the world with others as independent but connected human beings. Transactional analysis has three key principles deriving from its value base: first, belief in the worth and dignity of all people, mutual and self-respect; second, the belief that everyone can think and therefore find solutions to solve problems and third the belief that anyone can change their behaviour, thinking or feeling when they so choose. These three principles form the foundation of open communication. In this approach understanding causes, working from an ethical value-based position and enabling behavioural change are key. The overall goal of transactional analysis-based work is change and autonomy which are also described as an awareness of self and others, spontaneity, and the capacity for intimacy. The role of contracting in the transactional analysis approach to coaching is emphasised. There are

multiple contracts involved in such a coaching relationship: the administrative contract, the professional contract, and the psychological contract (Newton, & Napper, 2014).

The Neuro-Linguistic Programming approach : One of the main assumptions that underpin neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) is that whatever one is and whatever one does, there is consistent internal ordering and structuring of one's perceiving, thinking, feeling, and behaving. The NLP coach assumes that the client's internal processes are psychologically channeled by the way in which the client anticipates events and that this anticipation is a function of the experience in the world and the maps that they have consequently built. NLP is interested in both how individuals create their maps of the world as well as language. The goal in NLP coaching is to maximise client's resourcefulness to increase their options in each context. Key to NLP coaching is the development and increase of self-awareness to the extent that a client recognises that whenever they are stuck it is only because of the way they are construing the world (Grimley, 2014).

Theories, models, and approaches provide a foundation for evidence-based coaching. According to Grant (2016)), this is a combination of the wisdom garnered from the individual and group experiences of professional coaches combined with empirical evidence gained through coaching-specific and coaching-relevant research. Coaches translate this research into coaching practice to provide their clients with more effective assessments and optimize the outcomes that clients desire. Some examples of how research and practice are combined include: 1) Appreciative inquiry where clients are motivated by previous successes to overcome challenging circumstances. 2) Motivational interviewing which taps into clients' core values to commit to and work toward goals. 3) Trans-theoretical change which identifies where a client is situated in the five phases of

change, that is pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance, and moves them through the cycle. 4) Acceptance and commitment therapy recognises that life is not perfect, and that one can keep trying to perfect one's life. 5) Cognitive behavioural therapy involving the shifting of thoughts and language to transform beliefs and behaviours and 6) Social cognitive theory which examines how the environment and the people in it contribute the beliefs, values, and outcomes of a client (Young, 2021). Still, no matter how one approaches coaching, it is “fundamentally concerned with the enhancement of human functioning achieved through the improvement of emotional and/or behavioural self-regulation” (Spence & Oades, 2011, p.37).

To the extent that coaching provides an environment that helps human performance and wellbeing (Bar & Dragot, 2014; Grant & Cavanagh, 2014; Green, Grant, & Rynstaardt, 2007), then Self-Determination Theory (SDT) provides a wide base for explaining how coaching enhances human potential. SDT rests on the idea that an individual is continuously involved in an interactive dynamic interaction with the social world. In this world the individual at once strives for need satisfaction and responds to the conditions of the environment. Those environmental conditions could support or thwart the individual's needs. Consequently, a person becomes either engaged, curious, connected, and whole, or demotivated, ineffective, and detached (Legault, 2017). In essence, SDT offers evidence-based foundations that coaching methodologies borrow from. An exploration of Self-Determination Theory now follows.

2.2.1 Self-Determination Theory and Coaching

Research on human motivation goes back to the early 1900s when Lewin (1936) and Tolman (1932) first started looking at why people initiate and persist in behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Initial studies assumed that if a person valued two goals to the same extent, and had similar

expectations about achieving those goals, the person would perform at a similar level for both goals (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Later, researchers began to identify types of goals or outcomes, each with “different behavioural and affective results” (Deci & Ryan, 2002, and self-determination theory distinguished itself for segregating the content of goals and the external processes that impinged on it (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2022).

Self-Determination Theory has been under development since 1985, when Deci & Ryan first published their work (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, & Soenens, 2010). This theory has been described as an organismic dialectical approach (Ryan, Soenens, & Vansteenkiste, Reflections on self-determination theory as an organizing framework for personality psychology: Interfaces, integrations, issues, and unfinished business, 2019) to human motivation. This means it sees human beings as dynamic organisms with innate and profoundly advanced tendencies towards psychological growth and development. It is a macro-theory of human personality and development (Deci, 2017; Ryan, 2009; Ryan, Soenens, & Vansteenkiste, 2019). The focus of SDT is the volitional behaviour of human beings, and the cultural and social circumstances that encourage it.

In fact, SDT is an overarching theory comprised of 6 mini theories (Legault, 2017). The mini theories that make up SDT are 1) Cognitive Evaluation Theory, based on factors that shape intrinsic motivation by affecting perceived autonomy and competence 2) Organismic Integration Theory concerning extrinsic motivation and the way in which each may be internalised. 3) Causality Orientations Theory describing personality dispositions such as autonomous, controlled or impersonal 4) Basic Psychological Need Theory discussing the role of basic psychological needs in health and well-being and outlines the way in which social environments can neglect, thwart or satisfy a person’s basic psychological needs 5) Goal Content Theory,

concerned with how intrinsic and extrinsic goals influence health and wellness and 6) Relationship Motivation Theory, focusing on the need to develop and maintain close relationships and describing optimal relationships as those that help people satisfy their basic psychological needs.

Self-Determination theory proposes a set of basic and universal psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Deci, 2017; Ryan, Soenens, & Vansteenkiste, 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2022). For optimal psychological growth and functioning, these needs must be satisfied (Deci, 2017). Needs are defined at the psychological level as “innate, organismic necessities” (Deci & Ryan, 2002, p.229; Ryan & Deci, 2022) or fundamental nutriments for ongoing psychological growth (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2022).

Self-Determination Theory claims that a person can only persevere in an activity if he or she is deeply connected to the values of the activity that they also enjoy greatly (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Bar & Dragot, 2014). SDT speaks to a person’s grit - being driven by intrinsic motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005) to overcome challenges and obstacles on the way to achieving goals.

In coaching, SDT can explain why a person seeks or accepts coaching, why he or she keeps at it, and, also, why coaching works. It is because the person is autonomously motivated, which is what one is doing when one has freely selected to participate in an activity, and is fully willing to be a part of it (Deci, 2017). Autonomous motivation is promoted by confidence and relatedness to others combined with a sense of volition (Deci, 2017). Two kinds of autonomous motivation are specified: a) intrinsic motivation and b) extrinsic motivation that has been internalised so that it becomes integrated as a part of oneself (Deci, 2017). Autonomous motivation can be contrasted with controlled motivation where one does something for a reward or to avoid being punished. When acting under controlled motivation one is under pressure and feels obliged to act in a certain manner (Deci, 2017), and does not enjoy the activity.

Human beings are all said to have three basic psychological needs (Deci, 2017). These are 1) the need to feel confident and effective, known as the need for competence; 2) the need to be cared for and to care for, together with belonging to groups that matter, known as the need for relatedness and 3) the need for autonomy or independence of thought and action. If these needs are not satisfied there will be no optimal wellness or performance. In fact, without such satisfaction, there are negative psychological consequences (Deci, 2017). These needs have been described as universal, meaning that not only adults but children have them too (Joussemet, 2020). And if children have these needs, then parents, as the primary caregivers of children, can contribute to satisfying them through coaching.

Coaching enhances human functioning through the improvement of cognitive emotional and or behavioural self-regulation (Spence & Oades, 2011). It is described as a “goal directed activity” by (Grant & Cavanagh, 2011, p. 294.), because coaching focuses on the achievement of outcomes in both professional and personal arenas. Such goals could be related to the acquisition of skills and the improvement of performance or they could be more developmental. In any case, the client considers them to be valuable goals. How successful a client is in achieving these goals depends on how well they can manage their thoughts, feelings, and actions in support of their objectives (Spence & Oades, 2011). However, the change that is required in order to achieve such goals can be beset by behavioural and psychological challenges. (Ryan,et al. 2011) advanced motivation and personal autonomy as core ingredients in helping people change their behaviour. They declared that “positive and lasting results most likely occur when a client becomes actively engaged with, and personally invested in, change.” (Ryan,et al. 2011. p.194.) This is particularly significant in the context of coaching because people will usually seek to be coached because they desire optimal levels of functioning (Spence and Oades, 2011). In this regard understanding the

processes that impact personal motivation and readiness to change is fundamental for coaches and coaching practice. It is critically important for coaches to understand (and know how to work with) the psychological processes that impact upon personal motivation and readiness to change. Given its focus on the psychological factors that impact human motivation (Spence & Oades, 2011), Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2022) provides a relevant theoretical framework for coaching practice (Spence & Oades, 2011). Some of the key ways that SDT is useful as a framework for coaching include how it spotlights motivation, how it provides different perspectives for understanding coaching, how it views human nature, how it highlights the role socio-cultural conditions in meeting basic psychological needs and how it positions the self (Spence & Oades, 2011). These are explored further in subsequent sections.

Self-determination theory spotlights motivation as a potential topic for coaching rather than a prerequisite to coaching. This has implications for the way coaches view clients before they come into coaching, where ‘coach-readiness’ assessments presume that a client should be already motivated for coaching before they start. SDT suggests that coaches can help clients explore any ambivalence to change (which may be why they are not ready for coaching), and so energise the clients to pursue a change agenda.

SDT provides a lens through which coaching can be viewed at both micro and macro levels. At the macro level the theory provides a meta-theoretical description of growth tendencies, innate psychological needs and socio-cultural factors that shape human personality, behavioural self-regulation, and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2022). These conditions are needed for people to do well and feel good throughout the course of their lives (Spence & Oades, 2011). At the micro level, SDT helps coaching practitioners recognise the importance of the working alliance (Spence & Oades, 2011) and understand how the process of relating (as coach and client)

helps create the interpersonal conditions necessary for optimal growth and development of clients. In this sense one appreciates the role that active listening, expressing empathy, exploring successes, identifying personal strengths, encouraging volitional acts, and other supportive gestures by the coach play in enlivening the developmental processes that are central to human flourishing (Keyes & Hidt, 2003).

SDT views human nature in a positive light, as people are considered to possess inborn growth tendencies. Because of this they will naturally seek out experiences to promote growth and development, if they are in a sufficiently supportive environment. At the same time SDT acknowledges the organismic dialectic of human experience that is the conflict between the immanent growth orientation of human beings and the potentially destructive power of various socio-contextual forces such as excessive parental control, that would thwart positive developmental tendencies (Ryan & Deci, 2006).

SDT proposes that a person's wellbeing depends on their three basic psychological needs, autonomy, competence, and relatedness, being met, and draws attention to the way external conditions can support those needs. Coaching can help clients identify, and perhaps change, areas in their social-cultural context that help or hinder their innate growth tendencies.

SDT views the self as an active processor of experience, not a fixed rigid core. This means the self can act to create a meaningful whole, and that even then, works best when the conditions to support autonomy, relatedness and competence exist.

More than a theoretical framework, SDT can be useful for coaching practice, and this is relevant because a coach can create conditions that enhance needs satisfaction in collaboration with a client. The needs satisfaction derives from what such conditions assist clients to think about, what those conditions help the client to feel and what such conditions support the client to do

(Spence & Oades, 2011). As such, the presence of a coach in the life of a client represents an improvement in the socio-cultural conditions of the client, so long as the client relates to the coach in a way that the client values. By developing client interests (autonomy support), acknowledging client capacities and strengths (competence support) and being genuinely caring, trustworthy, and honest (relatedness support), the coach provides a supportive context for the client's innate growth and development.

It is suggested that of the three basic needs, the satisfaction of autonomy is the most important because when people have this need satisfied, they have a higher willingness to act and are more likely to learn and apply new strategies and competencies in their lives (Deci & Ryan, 1995). A coach can help to satisfy these needs.

First, the coach helps the client to develop autonomy support by encouraging him or her to own the agenda for each session. While this can be disconcerting for some clients because they are not used to being asked to do that or maybe they are confused about what to focus on or simply because they are suspicious of the coaching process, this invitation is autonomy supportive because it implies that the client is free to choose what gets done and that the choice will be respected and valued.

Second, a coach can orient the client towards what he or she is doing well, the things that are working and personal strengths. By viewing a client in this way, a coach can help to strengthen the feelings, or raise awareness, of positive personal attributes, and encourage the client to better utilise these attributes within the context of his or her life. This provides competency support to the client.

Thirdly, on relatedness, the coach's use of micro skills including active listening, empathy, unconditional positive regard, and attentive and responsive body language creates a trusting

relationship that focuses on the clients' concerns. This can help a client feel safe enough to explore relational implications of their actions.

The three examples above relate to a coaching session. Indeed, coaches can support clients across sessions too. Understanding how self-determination theory manifests or can manifest in coaching can assist a coach in selecting, and proposing appropriate intervention strategies. For example, a coach may assist the client to understand the rationale for goals and by genuinely acknowledging how clients feel about those goals, and helping the client to do the same, can help elicit acknowledgement from others. This helps the client to engage their circumstances with a greater sense of choice in choosing their goals, or how to pursue them. Additionally, minimising the use of controlling language such as 'must' and 'should' helps to reduce the pressure felt by clients to enact specific behaviours; rather it would support the establishment of one's own reasons and values as a basis for action (Ryan, et al., 2011).

Also, establishing a warm, encouraging, affirming relationship affects how much hope, courage, and resilience a client can muster to support goal striving and behaviour change. This kind of relationship is represented by the concept of a working alliance (Graßmann, Schölmerich, & Schermuly, 2020) where a coaching relationship supports meeting basic psychological needs. Thus, the client has greater energy to act in alignment with the core aspects of developing him or herself (Spence & Oades, 2011).

2.2.2 elf Determination Theory and Parenting

According to the task of parents is two-pronged: to teach children the values and rules needed to function effectively (socialisation), and to do so without thwarting the children's natural drive to express themselves and pursue their unique interests and capacities (Joussemet, Landry,

& Koestner, 2008). In socialisation, the goal is integration, which involves children absorbing social norms, adopting them as their own and, in time, self-regulating autonomously. When integration happens in an optimal manner the children benefit in their well-being, learning and psychosocial adjustment. Often the activities that lead to required social behaviours are not always enjoyable for the child, parents face a dilemma: how to get children to engage in the socialising activities without interfering with their social engagement (Joussemet et al, 2008).

In highlighting the place of the social context that can help or hinder a child's intrinsic motivation and internalisation, self-determination theory also spotlights the role of the parent as a socialising agent (Axpe et al., 2019) and can help parents operationalise needs supportive behaviours. Needs supportive behaviours are the behaviours that support the basic psychological needs conceptualised by SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2022) of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy refers to the freedom a human being has in initiating or endorsing behaviours, and is particularly important (Joussemet et al, 2008). Autonomy involves volition, harmony, and integrated functioning, in contrast to pressured, conflicted, or alienated experiences. Ryan et al. (2006) consider autonomy supportive behaviour as one of three key components of successful parenting, together with involvement and structure. In encouraging children to do certain activities, autonomy support exists if the goal is to foster autonomous self-regulation rather than mere compliance. Parents only need to avoid controlling behaviour if the activity is interesting for the child. Where the activities are less attractive, parents need to be more proactive in supporting children's autonomy so that internalisation is promoted (Ryan et al., 2006).

Parents support their children to meet basic psychological needs in various ways. By 1) Understanding the child's perspective as well promoting activities that interest the child. Where structure is provided, parents should communicate why it is important; 2) Not using incentives and

evaluation for activities and behaviours; 3) Fostering activities for their own sake rather than having the child engage in the activities in expectation of something in return. In addition, parents 4) Allow children to make age-appropriate decisions; 5) Use a tone and words that are informational and considerate rather than words and a tone that convey pressure and obligation. When parents act this way, they are playing the role of needs satisfier. Table 2.2 (University of California Los Angeles, n.d) summarises need supportive behaviours that parents may adopt.

Parents can ask for the child's perspective and elicit the child's emotions on an issue, parents can provide a list of options for the child to choose from; parents can offer rationale for advice given or requests made, and parents can minimize control and avoid being judgmental.

A study involving thirty-four 6–7-year-olds was conducted to test the effect of autonomy supportive behaviour when children are engaging in interesting activity – painting (Koestner et al, 1984). The children were assigned randomly to 3 experimental groups: Group 1) - no limits were given when they were instructed on the painting activity. Group 2) - limits were expressed by way of using the words 'should' and 'must' when giving instructions on the painting activity and Group 3) - informational limits (equivalent to proffering a rationale for requests) were given. In addition, there was empathetic acknowledgement of possible feelings about the imposition of limits. The children were allowed to paint for 10 minutes after which the paintings were collected. The children were then given two pieces of paper and invited to continue with an activity. Either to continue painting or to do a puzzle. The children were observed for how long they spent in free choice painting and the number of seconds so spent was the measure of intrinsic motivation. This measure was found to be greater for subjects in the informational limits group than in the controlling conditions group, thus supporting the view that empathetic limit setting was more effective in getting children to comply with behavioural limits.

In a second study Joussemet et al (2004) studied 106 participants in grades 1, 3 and 5. The participants were randomly assigned to two groups, one received instructions in an autonomy supportive manner and the other received instructions in a non-autonomy supportive manner. These two groups were then each split into two, with one set receiving rewards and the other not receiving rewards. They were asked to do a non-interesting task, involving the pressing of the space bar on a computer when a letter that was not 'x' appeared on the screen. Each individual was tested for 20 minutes. The results confirmed that autonomy support was more beneficial than rewards in getting children to perform uninteresting tasks, and it was associated with more integrated self-regulation.

But it is not only about autonomy support. Parents can be positive about potential for success, help the child identify barriers, support the child to build skills and solve problems and create levels of challenge that are appropriate for the child, thus providing competence support. For relatedness support, parents can develop a warm caring relationship with the child, provide unconditional positive regard and be empathetic with the child's concerns. These behaviours are summarised in table 2.2.

Table 2.2*Summary of Needs Supportive Behaviours.*

Psychological need	Need supportive behaviours
Autonomy support	Elicit the child's perspective, emotions Provide a menu of options from which to choose Minimise control/judgment.
Competence support	Be positive about potential for success Identify barriers Skills building/problem solving Create an appropriate level of challenge
Relatedness support	Develop a warm, positive relationship Provide unconditional positive regard Be empathetic with the child's concerns

Adopting these behaviours in order to satisfy the three basic needs helps the child's natural tendency to integrate values and ways of life from their surroundings (Joussemet, 2020), that is, to internalise behaviours. Internalisation is the method by which individuals attain behaviour, attitudes and behavioural rules from exterior sources and then transform them into personal values (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997). Once behaviour or attitude has been internalised it can be self-regulated, and so can be experienced as autonomous. For children, this internalisation can be enabled or obstructed by the extent to which they feel accepted, (or not accepted), as they are,

capable and volitional. Further, that the process of acquisition of behaviour or attitude operates for all ages, even though competencies and content acquired will vary with age. (Grolnick, 2009)

Acquired behaviours are first integrated then internalised (Joussemet et al. , 2004) when they become part of the person. Integration is at the heart of socialisation, where children absorb social rules, making them their own, and eventually self-regulate autonomously. Where internalisation is well managed, it benefits the learning, well-being, and psychosocial adjustment of children. (Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008). Practically, Grolnick (2009) recommend that a context which supports internalisation can be identified in the following ways:

1) Parents are involved to provide relatedness support by dedicating resources, including time, interest in the child and expressed warmth and caring. Relatedness-support is imbued with an attitude of care, love, and a true wish to support the child (Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015). Parents take a stance to care deeply for their child's well-being, and show this in their enjoyment of the child's company (Deci & Ryan, 2014). As such, interactions with the child are warm and sensitive, so building the child's sense of attachment security (Bowlby, 1969/1982). Consequently, the child feels safe and learns to trust and depend on the parent (Deci & Ryan, 2014).

2) Parents provide structure, which helps children develop competence. To do this, parents adopt an attitude of developing the evolving skills and abilities of their children. Such parents invest in discovering and nurturing their children's talents (Reeve, 2006; Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015). The components of structure can be organised in keeping with whether they are used before, during or after "competence relevant activities" (Soenens, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2017). This is summarised in table 2.3.

Table 2.3*Components and Timing of Structure*

Timing of parent's intervention	Component of structure
Before	Providing clear guidelines Settings limits of acceptable behaviour Specifying consequences of deviation Helping to set goals
During	Monitoring progress and signaling deviations Helping in an appropriate way when help is requested or needed Giving ongoing informational feedback
After	Informational feedback on efforts and strategies Invitation to self-reflect

From this it can be surmised that structure is more than rule setting and communication of expectations. As parents use guidelines and limits to regulate behaviour, they explain societal expectations and the importance of the behaviours, as well consistently following through, offering informational feedback, reviewing goal achievement, and encouraging self-reflection (Soenens, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2017).

3) Parents provide autonomy support. This is the basic psychological need considered to be most unique to SDT (Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015). Parents accept the child unconditionally

as he or she is (Rogers, 1961, in Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015), and are interested in the child's perspectives rather than their own agenda (Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015). They are confident that their child is destined to mature in a positive direction and so are not drawn to constant intervention in the children's development (Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015). This description is closely aligned to the description of what coaching is – a client led partnership that allows the creation of solutions (International Coaching Federation, 2020). In providing autonomy support parents foster task enjoyment (Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015), where they try to underline the intrinsic worth of activities and get the most out of their children's interest. In some cases, they add fun to an otherwise routine task.

Additionally, autonomy supportive parents encourage dialogue and allow the children to make suggestions. By creating a participative environment, they encourage children to explore alternatives and make choices (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997; Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015).

Parents who provide autonomy support are also closely tuned in to the rhythm and pace of their child's development. They have a good sense of what their children are capable of, what is a doable stretch and what is too advanced. Therefore, they help with patience and step back in confidence as needed. Such parents can take oppositional behaviour, negative emotions, and divergent opinions from their children in their stride, because they are willing to accept their child as he or she is, and they are willing to listen to their child's reasoning (Joussemet, 2020; Joussemet, et al. , 2017; Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015).

Another feature of the autonomy supportive environment is seen in language. Parents use appealing rather than coercive language. This language is both verbal and non-verbal. For example, coercive language can be expressed non-verbally when parents act disappointed even if they do not say so, and when they appeal to feelings of shame and guilt (Vansteenkiste & Soenens,

2015). In essence, the parent must find a balance between “promoting socially sanctioned behaviours” and “killing the spirit of the child” (Grolnick, 2009. p. 135; Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008).

Autonomy support predicts need satisfaction and motivation in a variety of life domains such as school (Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991) and friendships (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2005) as well as adherence to rules and regulations (Wong, 2008). It fosters open communication between parents and their children (Bureau & Mageau, 2014) and is related to the well-being of children and adolescents (Joussemet et al., 2005). It also contributes to cognitive self-regulation (Wong, 2008; Bindman, Pomerantz, & Roisman, 2015) emotion regulation (Brenning et al., 2015), and moral development (Arvanitis, 2017). The lack of emotion regulation and questionable moral development have been observed in the problem of school riots in Kenya (Kipkemoi, 2018).

Self-Determination Theory has relevance in many areas of life including education, sports, health, work place and parenting (Deci & Ryan, 2008); Ntoumanis & Standage, 2009; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008). Work on familial socialisation, which is the study of how children acquire “the motives, values and behaviour patterns” (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997, p.135) that support their ability to function effectively in society, shows that parents can create the optimal circumstances that are required for their children’s 3 basic psychological needs – competence, relatedness, and autonomy – to be met (Joussemet, 2020; Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997; Grolnick, 2009).

2.2.3 Self Determination Theory Research

Studies have been conducted to test SDT in various life domains including health (Deci & Ryan, 2008); sports and leisure (Ntoumanis & Standage, 2009; Cronin et al., 2022); gaming

(Rogers, 2017); education (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991); well-being (Chen, et al., 2015); and parenting (Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008). Some of the research is discussed below.

To understand parenting approaches and their association with the self-regulation and competence of children in school, the three dimensions of parenting style associated with Self-Determination Theory: a) autonomy support, b) involvement and c) provision of structure were assessed (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989). 66 children in grades 3-6, together with 114 parents were involved in the study. Parents were interviewed by an interviewer and an observer, using a structured questionnaire, for 1 hour. First, they were asked to describe their child in general, and to talk about their child's school experience. They then narrowed down to four areas of their children's lives: two home related areas – cleaning their room and going to bed on time, and two areas related to school – doing homework and performing well in school. Parents were asked about how they motivated their children, whether there were specific rules or expectations, how they responded to negative behaviours, what typical conflicts were encountered and how the conflicts were resolved. The parents were then rated on a 5-point scale associated with autonomy support, involvement, and the provision of structure. Summary scores were then computed by getting the average of the component scales for each parent.

The researchers used self-reporting by the children, ratings by teachers and objective indices to measure children's self-regulation and competence. They found that parental autonomy support correlated positively with how children reported their self-regulation; how teachers viewed the children's competence and adjustment as well as how the children performed in their academic work. The study also found that the involvement of mothers had a positive effect on children's achievement and was positively associated with teacher rated competence and some elements of

the children's behavioural adjustment. The study concluded that there was no significant link between fathers' relationship with the above variables.

Grolnick and Ryan's (1989) study shows that parenting practices do affect the behaviour of school going children. While it looked at impact of parenting practice on self-regulation and competence, the current study looks at a different parenting practice, coaching, and its impact on social behaviour, thus increasing knowledge on a little studied practice among Kenyan parents.

On structure, a study by Jung et al. (2010) found a correlation between provision of structure and autonomy support by teachers, and their student's engagement. In this study the investigators were interested in whether autonomy support and structure were correlated with student's engagement, as well as how. They hypothesised that students' engagement would be highest where high levels of both autonomy support and structure were made available by teachers.

Working with a sample of 133 teachers and 2523 student from nine schools in the American Midwest, they assessed engagement using an objective behavioural measure scored by trained raters, as well as a subjective self-report by students. They found as follows:

a) autonomy support and structure correlated positively with each other. b) autonomy support and structure predicted student's engagement behaviour and c) autonomy support was a unique predictor of student's self-reported engagement.

The study by Jung et al. (2010) is important as it provides evidence of the way structure, and its use by social agents, in this case teachers, is significant for children's socialisation. Parents have also been described as social agents (Grolnick, 2009; Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997; Joussemet, 2020) and the provision of structure is necessary for the fulfilment of the three psychological needs identified by Self-Determination Theory.

Wong (2008) reported on how parental involvement and parental autonomy support relate to three psychological outcomes among adolescents. These outcomes are: academic performance, disruptive behaviour, and substance use. Disruptive behaviour and substance use are of interest to the current research as they are among the undesirable social behaviours observed among school children in Kenya.

Wong (2008) looked at self-regulation factors that affect the relationship between parenting and psychosocial outcomes in adolescence. The term self-regulation is used to describe efforts by someone to change his or her own psychological state or behaviour (Wong, 2008). In the study Wong looked at two aspects of self-regulation: effortful control and academic self-regulation. This review focuses on effortful control as it is relevant for the current study. Effortful control is a person's ability to voluntarily repress, activate and alter attention and behaviour, and greater effortful control has been linked to a greater social competence and adjustment as well as "Less negative emotionality; delayed gratification, compliance with rules and regulations and the development of empathy, prosocial behaviour and conscience" (Wong 2008, p.499).

The study population comprised 171 adolescents whose average age was 14.05 years. To measure effortful control the researchers administered the revised early adolescence temperament questionnaire (Ellis & Rothbart, 2001), using 3 subscales: 1) attention focusing and shifting, that is the potential for concentrating on something or shifting attention at will; 2) inhibitory control, which is the ability to anticipate and to constrain inappropriate responses and 3) capacity to perform an action while there is a strong tendency to avoid it. Items were averaged so that the higher the score the greater the effortful control.

This study found that greater parenting involvement was associated with more effortful control, which predicted less disruptive behaviour (Wong 2008, p. 509). Thus, it provides further

evidence that parenting practices - in this case involvement - affect specific adolescent behaviours related to social behaviour choices.

Cronin, et al. (2022) investigated the relationship between the development of life skills by youth sports participants and the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs stipulated by SDT. The study involved 309 youth sports participants aged 14.71 years on average, who were asked to complete measures involving the study variables. The researchers found a positive correlation between the participants' basic needs satisfaction and the development of 8 life skills. These life skills were: teamwork, goal setting, social skills, interpersonal communication, problem solving, emotional skills, leadership, and time management. The study concluded and recommended that coaches should look to display autonomy-supportive behaviours as it helps to satisfy participants' three basic psychological needs while promoting their life skills development. This study by Cronin et al. (2022) is relevant for the current study because the failure to demonstrate a grasp of most of the listed life skills is heavily implicated in the display of poor social behaviour that this study is seeking to remedy.

2.3 Critique of Self Determination Theory

SDT is not without its critics, and controversies surround the nature, number, and generalisability of needs, and, consequently, some of the parenting approaches propagated by SDT. This theory assumes that human beings have a universal set of intrinsic psychological needs, that is autonomy, relatedness, and competence, and that these needs must be met for proper functioning and psychological health (Ryan et al.; 2006). On the contrary, some theorists understand these three psychological needs as constituting variable motivational concepts, while others see them as largely unchanging (Sheldon & Niemiec, 2006).

While the innate nature of psychological needs is at the heart of self-determination theory, research is split on whether needs operate as internal desires of individuals or as external conditions of human thriving (Leveresen, Danielsen, Birkeland, & Samdal, 2012) .

SDT has also habitually assumed that the basic composition of human needs shows up during human maturation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). This assumption has led to argument over whether needs are few or multiple (Sheldon, Ryan, & Reis, 1996) and whether they are gained genetically or by learning (Sheldon & Schöler, 2011). Similarly, behaviourists believe that behaviour is regulated by reinforcement, history, and current contingencies, rather than inherent tendencies (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

Furthermore, questions have been raised about the generalisability of SDT's basic psychological needs tenets across cultures. These questions were actively tested by Sheldon, Abad, and Omoile, (2009) who found that autonomy predicted positive class evaluations and general life satisfaction among adolescents in Nigeria and India; and Nalipay, King, and Cai, (2020), who found that provision of the three basic needs correlated positively with achievement across Eastern and Western cultures. Savard et al. (2013) concluded that SDT applies even in clinical situations, further supporting the universality claim.

There has also been controversy concerning SDT's position that rewarding children for good behaviour is a form of exerting control, which position is at odds with behaviour reinforcement theories that see a role for extrinsic rewards in helping to embed behaviour. Still, there is evidence that instead of rewards, autonomy support is a beneficial alternative (Joussemet et al., 2004).

2.4 Conceptual framework

An individual has a natural tendency to want to realise his or her full potential. A coach can provide an environment to support this innate development towards personal growth. The individual, a coaching client, will persist in coaching because he or she is motivated to do so. This motivation comes from a deep connection to, and desire for, the expected results, because the results are valuable to the person. Eventually, the person's behaviour is changed and sustained because she or she learns during the coaching process.

The role of the coach is to provide a facilitative environment that accepts the client unconditionally and zeros in on the strengths of the client. This means the coach views the person as whole and capable, and demonstrates interest in the client (involvement), invites the client to set the agenda creates space for self-direction (autonomy support) and provides process and guidelines (structure). Such coach behaviour can be described as needs supportive.

The coach helps the client to learn by using several techniques, including anchoring, verbal reinforcement and other forms of motivational messaging, active listening, and the opportunity for client to practice what she learns (Williams & Menendez, 2007; Cox et al., 2014; Jarosz, 2016).

Where the client is a child, and the issue is social behaviour, a parent acting as both needs satisfier and coach, can help the child gain necessary social skills that are manifested as observable behaviour. The parent can do this because he or she employs needs satisfying behaviour and coaching skills.

A review of how coaching is conducted follows in subsequent sections.

2.5 Theoretical principles to be applied

The present study proposes that parental coaching is a needs-supportive parenting approach underpinned by an ambience of parental involvement, autonomy support and structure. The parent

coach can help the child self-direct towards specific socialisation goals which, when achieved and internalised, impact the child's social behaviour. Nonetheless, the provision of autonomy support, involvement and structure do not constitute coaching. While these are key components providing the framework within which effective coaching can take place, the parent-child interaction also needs 1) conversation between parent (coach) and child (client), 2) co-created solutions and 3) monitored accountability, in order that it be described as coaching.

The operational definition of coaching, used in this study captures elements that constitute autonomy support, involvement, and structure. These are: 'supporting normal growth;' 'unconditional positive regard;' 'active listening,' 'empowering and acknowledging;' and 'series of instances' (meaning it happens more than once). And the following terms represent the actions of coaching: 'guided conversations;' 'co-created goals' and 'holds the child accountable.'

A review of the coaching principles now follows. These principles are a) coaching is client-centred; b) Coaching is a structured activity and c) Coaching is facilitative.

2.5.1 is Client Centred

The principle of client-centred coaching is exemplified in the person-centred approach to coaching (Joseph, 2014). This principle was first described by Carl Rogers' (Zimring, 1994). It was based on the philosophical stance that people are their own best experts, and it is used in this study as a philosophical approach rather than a set of techniques (Joseph, 2014).

Client centred coaching means that the coach is going at the client's pace - tackling issues as the client brings them up, waiting while they think or process ideas in their heads, and allowing them time to try out new ways of being between coaching sessions. Client centred coaching is exemplified by more asking than telling and more listening than asking (Joseph, 2014).

Client-centred coaching is relationship based. In fact, it relies on successful collaboration between coach and client, where the coach takes a non-directive attitude in order to foster the client's self-determination. Indeed, the idea of coaching being client-centred is underpinned by self-determination theory, which stresses the role of an individual's innate resources for personal growth and behavioural self-regulation (Deci & Ryan, 2002). For a coaching relationship to be client centred a number of conditions need to be present (Joseph, 2014). These are described below:

- a. There is a psychological connection between the coach and the client. In the context of this study, it means that the parent is emotionally close to his or her child.
- b. The client is in a state of incongruence – meaning the client is in a state that allows him or her to accept a coaching intervention. Generally, it suggests that the client is coachable, that is, receptive to coaching, willing to participate in coaching sessions and committed to following up on actions that arise from the coaching sessions. It also suggests that the parent coach should not force the child to accept or participate in a coaching session.
- c. The coach is in the moment. This means the coach is mentally and emotionally ready to coach, has created time to coach, is focused on the coaching and is not distracted by other things.
- d. The coach views the client in positive light, and does not allow pre-conceptions to cloud the session. This means, for example, that the parent does not bring up historical misdemeanours and use them to show the child what is wrong with him or her, nor does the parent compare the child with another.
- e. The coach empathises with the client, and demonstrates this using relevant words, tone of voice and body language.

- f. The client observes and receives the empathetic communication from the coach.

These conditions align with a situation where the parent provides autonomy support by being in tune with the child (Joussemet, 2020; Joussemet et al., 2008).

One of the ways to demonstrate being fully present is listening deeply (Marshak, 2004) or listening actively (Williams & Menendez, 2007), which is different from listening in normal, everyday situations. The way the coach listens supports the client to make major changes because it invites the client to be vulnerable during the session. Coaches “create a sacred space that supports the client’s personal unfolding” (Williams & Menendez, 2007, p.1).

When the coach is listening actively, he or she does not interrupt the client, or speak as soon as the client completes a statement. Instead, the coach waits a while to make sure the client has completed the thought they wish to express. During such a conversation the coach maintains eye contact and does not fidget. When a coach is listening actively, he or she will notice body language or differences in tone of voice, and whether these non-verbal vibes support the words that the client is uttering.

According to Williams and Menendez (2007) there are three kinds of listening in a coaching conversation: 1) listening to, 2) listening for and 3) listening with.

Listening to’’ involves content beyond the words that are spoken, and involves the act of mirroring back to the client what was heard by the coach. Listening to also includes observing non-verbal behaviour such as body movements.

‘Listening for’ is where the coach purposes to identify the client’s vision, values, commitment, and purpose (Williams & Menendez, 2007) of the client. The purpose of this kind of

listening is to help the coach determine how to advance the client's agenda. It has also been described as listening for the bigger picture.

'Listening with' is where the coach applies not just the ears to hear and eyes to observe but also the heart and intuition to sense emotions from the client. The coach pays attention to the client's imagery, metaphors, and other phrases. This level is like Marshak's (2004) deep listening, which allows the development of hunches and hypotheses by the coach about mindsets, presumptions, and orientations that the client presents through the use of both explicit and implicit language.

In addition, the coach pays attention to his or her own reactions to the client. These reactions may be ephemeral or more lasting, and may manifest themselves in bodily reactions such as tensing or be more like gut feel. At this level a coach may use appropriate self-disclosure, and this could strengthen the emotional connection with the client (Williams & Menendez, 2007).

Fillery-Travis & Passmore (2011) described 5 levels of listening as summarised in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4*Levels of Listening*

Level	Description	Focus
1	Waiting to speak	Listener is just waiting for their turn to speak.
2	Basic listening	Focus is on the words being said
3	Attentive listening	Focus on words plus the tone of the communication
4	Active listening	Focus on words and tone plus observing body language in order to understand speaker's intention
5	Interpretive listening	This goes beyond the intended communication to inferring meaning from both intended and unintended communication.

2.5.2 is structured

From the experiences of this author as a life coach, the coaching partnership can generally be delineated into three: a beginning, a middle and the end. In the beginning, the coach and client contract and get to know each other, and the client says what they would like to get out of coaching, i.e., sets goals and/or expectations. In the middle, clarification, brainstorming, review, recalibration, discovery, learning, acknowledgement, etc. happen through the conversations between coach and client. The end part is about action planning and commitments that the client will undertake going forward, plus checking to see if expectations were met.

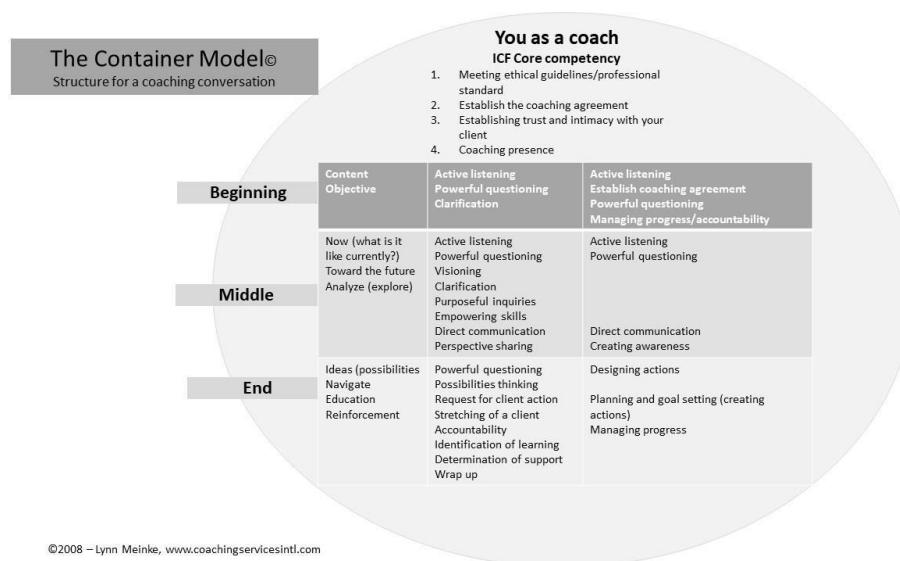
Each coaching session can be seen as a mini-engagement within the total coaching relationship, and has a similar structure with a beginning where coach and client reconnect since

the previous session. At the start of a new coaching session, the client may share his or her own observations or experiences since the prior session, including reflections, actions, and other activities that they may have engaged in following the previous session. The middle part builds on the first, and at the end there are commitments from the client and perhaps a new action plan to follow.

Coaching session structure: During the coach training that this author underwent, one facilitator shared a guide to structuring the coaching conversation. She called this guide the CONTAINER model (Meinke, 2008). The word container is a mnemonic made up from letters that make up parts of the coaching conversation. This model consists of a beginning, which includes Content and Objective, a middle, which involves the Now (current situation), Toward the future and Exploration and the end, which includes Ideas (possibilities), Navigate, Education and Reinforcement. This model is reproduced in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2

The CONTAINER Model



A coaching session structure guideline, or coaching path (Starr, 2008), such as the CONTAINER model, is useful for steering the conversation, to help coach and client stay on track and even to act as a memory aide for the coach (Grant , 2011) . Coaches and coach training schools often develop their own coaching structure models and protect them as intellectual property. One common model is the GROW model. It was developed by Graham Alexander (Grant , 2011) and popularised by Whitmore (1992). GROW stands for Goal, Reality, Options and Will or Wrap-up. It has several permutations such as T-GROW (T stands for topic) and I-GROW (I stands for Issue). The GROW model (Grant , 2011) is described in the Table 2.5.

Table 2.5

The GROW Model

Acronym	Description
G- Goal	Client is asked to confirm what they want to gain from each session. Sets the focus of coaching
R- Reality	Builds awareness of the current reality, looking at how the present situation is affecting the clients' goals
O- Options	Identifies and evaluates options. Solution focused thinking and brainstorming are encouraged.
W- Wrap-up	Supports the client to identify next steps and to develop an action plan. Gains commitment for the action plan

While some studies suggest that this, and close derivatives, are the most frequently used paths, there are many other coaching session models. Table 2.6 summarises some of them.

Table 2.6*Other Coaching Session Models*

ACRONYM	DESCRIPTION of the acronym
GROW	Goal Reality Options and Will or Wrap-up
ACHIEVE	Assess Current situation, Hone goals, Initiate options, evaluate options, Valid action program design, Encourage momentum.
CONTAINER	Content and Objective, now (current situation), Toward the future and Exploration and Ideas (possibilities), Navigate, Education and Reinforcement.
OSKAR	Outcome, Scaling, Knowledge and resources, Affirmation and action, Review
ABCDE	Activating event or situation, Beliefs, Consequences, Disputation of beliefs, Effective new approach
SPACE	Social context, Physiological, Action, Cognitions and Emotions
PRACTICE	Problem identification, Realistic relevant goals developed, Alternative solutions generated, Consideration of consequences, Target most feasible solution(s), Implementation of Chosen solution (s), and Evaluation.

The use of coaching session structure models such as the above does not mean that coaching is a linear process. Far from it. The conversation will likely go back and forth between phases. Nevertheless, a coaching conversation will deliberately include the three parts: beginning-

to identify what the client wants, middle – to help the client consider options and choose a solution and an end. This structure is an important distinction from a normal conversation. The purpose of this section is not to dissect or analyse different models used in the coaching conversation process. Rather, it is to demonstrate that coaching relationships and coaching conversations are different from other relationships and conversations in their deliberate structure, irrespective of the acronym used to describe that structure. The following anecdote illustrates a common parental perception about coaching conversations.

Coach Esther, a member of ICF Kenya chapter described an experience she had when her son asked that she coach him, in a post on her LinkedIn page (Mwaniki, 2019) . Coach Esther responded by saying that she coached her son all the time as her conversations with him were organised around coaching. Coach Esther’s son did not agree. He wanted a ‘proper’ coaching session scheduled in her dairy, held in a designated room, away from the other family members and protected by confidentiality (Mwaniki, 2019). While this story is anecdotal, it represents what many parents believe, that they are coaching their children all the time via the conversations they have with them. However, the self-regulated change that derives from coaching needs to be supported by movement through a structured, self-regulated cycle. The coach facilitates this movement , from helping the coachee set goals, to developing achievable plans. These are underpinned by the provision of space and time to monitor and evaluate progress (Grant & Atad, 2022). While many parents think they are coaching their child, as in the case of Coach Esther, the child may see it differently. Indeed, looking at the principles of coaching discussed elsewhere in this report, the parents are doing something but it does not necessarily satisfy the criteria that would define it as coaching.

In addition to a discernible pathway, the coaching session includes listening actively (Williams & Menendez, 2007), which is discussed in the preceding section as a way of demonstrating the coach's attention on the client, as well as powerful questioning (ICF, 2019).

Powerful questioning is a skill involving the asking of questions to bring out the information required for optimal advantage to the coaching relationship and the client. Good questions are simple, have a purpose and influence without controlling (Starr, 2008). Questions in coaching act as a catalyst to guide and focus the client's thinking (Williams & Menendez, 2007). Questions also extract the client's hidden potential, focus client attention on high leverage points and speak to client's creativity to generate new options (Williams & Menendez, 2007). Questions in coaching also serve to encourage, support, and validate; uncover issues; discover what is not obvious; generate new possibilities, respectfully challenge thinking, and identify assumptions (Williams & Menendez, 2007).

2.5.3 is facilitative

The ICF lists four areas of coaching competencies: a) Foundation b) Embodying a coaching mindset; c) Communicating effectively and d) Cultivating learning and growth (International Coaching Federation, 2019).

It is not surprising that facilitating learning is a core competency for coaches, as clients expect to achieve new ways of acting and being as a result of coaching. It is therefore key that coaches provide an atmosphere that allows the client to acquire new viewpoints and develop new habits, leading to new behaviours that better support the life that clients aspire to. In other words, coaching provides an opportunity for learning, and it is in this sense that coaching is facilitative. Fazel (2013) describes "the art of facilitating the performance, learning and development of

another” (p.587). Williams and Menendez (2007) see it as a developmental. These two views support the notion that coaching helps a person to change in desirable (from client perspective) ways.

Facilitative coaching can be distinguished from directive coaching where the coach’s expertise is the focus of the coaching session, and dialogical coaching where the coach shares his or her own expertise with the client (Knight, 2017). In Facilitative coaching the coach does not share his or her expertise with the client (Knight, 2017). Rather, the client is encouraged to share openly by the coach who is both someone to bounce ideas off of - an advisor, and a person who helps raise the awareness of the client about a situation. The coach is seen as a person who partners in a safe environment and does not exert pressure on the client (Whitmore, 2009, p.20). The raising of the client’s awareness facilitates mind shift and encourages the pursuit of a new perspective, thus facilitating new behaviour.

2.6 Parenting

This section focuses on the role of parenting and coaching skills that can be used by the parent. Additionally, an attempt is made at describing the parent as a coach by describing one ‘parent as a coach’ training program and drawing on that to develop a parent as coach persona.

2.6.1 *le of parents*

The Kenya government defines parenting as the process of facilitating and fostering the development of a child, in all spheres, from conception to adulthood (Government of Kenya, 2019). Elsewhere, parenting has been labelled as an intricate combination of behaviours that individually and jointly combine to impact outcomes for children (Huver et al.; 2010). When looking at the effect of parenting on child outcomes, broad patterns of parenting rather than specific

parenting practices are considered more reliable predictors of outcomes (Darling, 1999). One of the most robust indicators of parent functioning is parenting styles, based on the work of Baumrind, (1971). Baumrind's typology should be seen in the context of normal parenting and not instances such as abusive parenting, or parenting children with clinical or other abnormal conditions.

It is thought that there are three main dimensions to parenting: providing care and ensuring that children are safe; supporting developmental and physical health and enhancing the potential of a child (Vance, 2017). Darling (1999) wrote that parenting primarily seeks to influence, teach, and control children. Parents were thought to play twin roles in helping children develop: nurturing children, and providing structure (Centre for Parenting Education, 2020). According to UNICEF, (2023), parenting encompasses a range of interactions, behaviours, emotions, knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and practices that involve providing nurturing care. This concept pertains to the actions taken to promote and facilitate the development and socialisation of a child. Parents bear the responsibility of equipping their children with the necessary skills and preparation to navigate the physical, psychosocial, and economic circumstances in which they exist, encompassing their daily life, work, recreation, education, and overall well-being. During various factors influencing a child's development, parents play a crucial role in fostering their growth, safeguarding them, empowering them, aiding their adjustment, and contributing to their long-term success.

When parents provide children with the basic needs - food, medical care, shelter, and clothing - they are playing the nurture role. More than basics, parents also provide love, and create time to pay attention to their children, seek to understand them, and support them (Centre for Parenting Education, 2020). During such time parents listen to their children, show patience, and have fun with them. While nurturing children, parents show interest in their activities, and encourage the pursuit of their passions. Parents find pleasure in their children and, through words

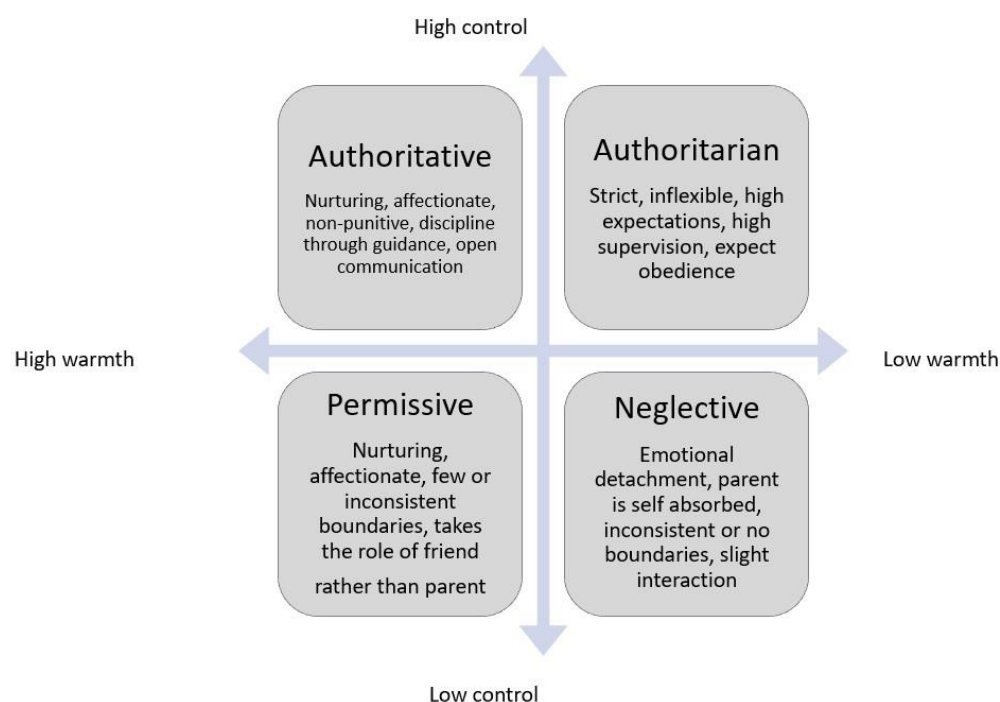
and actions, demonstrate that they accept those children as they are and do not push them to change (Centre for Parenting Education, 2020).

In the second role, parents provide structure through several things: giving direction, imposing rules, and enforcing discipline. Parents set boundaries and establish consequences for behaviour while holding their children accountable for their behaviour (Centre for Parenting Education, 2020). It is in the structure role that parents teach values and guide their children through change, growth, and maturity, thus inculcating responsible behaviour in line with the children's maturity levels. Unlike in the nurture role, when parents are in structure mode, they expect behaviour change with increased growth, maturity, and ability, to be manifested in their children (Centre for Parenting Education, 2020).

In order to accomplish these twin roles parents, use different styles, classified according to two axes: how responsive parents are to their children, and the extent to which parents make demands of their children (Baumrind, 1971, 2012; Aunola, Stattin, & Nurmi, 2000).

2.6.2 Parenting Styles

Baumrind (1971) found that two dimensions make up parenting style: a) demandingness, which is how parents show control, make maturity demands and supervise their children, and b) responsiveness, which is how parents display warmth and affection, how they accept their children and how far they go to be involved with their children. These two dimensions can be combined in four ways to produce four parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive (Baumrind 1971; Fadillah & Al Syifa, 2022) and neglective (Maccoby and Martin, 1983; Darling, 1999; Pardee, 2022). Figure 2.3 shows this typology.

Figure 2.3*Typology of Parenting Styles*

Neglectful parenting is characterised by parental indifference, where children are left to fend for themselves without adequate guidance or parental involvement (Fadillah & Al Syifa, 2022).

Neglectful parenting is low on all dimensions, with parents failing to establish rules or expectations and neglecting to offer guidance when necessary (Pardee, 2022). Parents do not demand much and they are not involved with the child (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). It leads to maladaptive task avoidant strategies, passivity, and task irrelevant behaviour. Children whose parents' primary style is neglective display self-doubt about their own competence.

Consequently, children growing up in neglectful environments often engage in disruptive

behaviours, and their likelihood of displaying rebellious tendencies is significantly higher (Pardee, 2022). When adolescents who are raised using this style fail, they attribute failure to themselves, and when they succeed, they see it as emanating extraneously (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Permissive parenting: here low parental control combined with a high level of child centeredness is observed. Permissive parenting, is characterised by a relaxed and lenient approach, with minimal imposition of household rules. Children growing up under the influence of permissive parents, become accustomed to receiving their desires and demands. Consequently, these children exhibit a lack of responsibility, demonstrate impulsive and aggressive behaviours, and may struggle with school, work, and social engagements due to a lack of effort (Pardee, 2022). Problem behaviour in adolescents has been associated with this style (Darling, 1999) as permissive parenting does not demand mature behaviour, allows self-regulation, and avoids parent-child confrontation.

Authoritarian parenting: this style has high demands but is low on responsiveness, and demonstrates high levels of psychological control (Darling, 1999; Baumrind, 2012). Smetana and Daddies (2002) provide the following description of psychological control:

Psychological control refers to parents' attempts to control the child's activities in ways that negatively affect the child's psychological world and thereby undermine the child's psychological development. Psychological control, including parental intrusiveness, guilt induction, and love withdrawal, interferes with the child's ability to become independent and to develop a healthy sense of self and personal identity (p.563).

The authoritarian parenting style entails the usurpation of decision-making authority by parents, resulting in minimal or non-existent input from children. These parents demonstrate limited nurturing tendencies, exhibit strictness, and lack effective communication skills (Pardee, 2022; Fadillah, 2022). Consequently, children raised by authoritarian parents often display obedience within the home environment but may engage in acts of rebellion in the presence of peers or friends. Additionally, they encounter challenges in developing adequate social skills and face various other difficulties (Pardee, 2022).

Authoritative parenting: The authoritative parenting style is highly responsive and child-centred, while also having high expectations for the child. It involves setting boundaries for children while simultaneously granting them decision-making autonomy (Pardee, 2022). Authoritative parents demand a high standard of behaviour from the child (Darling, 1999; Baumrind, 2012), and they view mistakes as opportunities for learning and establish clear expectations for their children. Parents who use this style are more likely than parents who use other styles to employ positive encouragement and share feedback that helps to boost the child's sense of competence. They also provide age-appropriate challenges for their children. Authoritative parenting is low on psychological control (Darling, 1999; Baumrind, 2012) and leads to independence, self-regulation, and intrinsic motivation as well as high self-esteem (Ginsburg & Bronstein, 1993). As a result, children raised by authoritative parents tend to exhibit confidence, happiness, and success (Pardee, 2022).

It is thought that good parenting involves components of both demandingness and responsiveness, (Darling, 1999; Pardee, 2022), and that the authoritative parenting style balances the two, thus

resulting in a broad range of positive outcomes and less deviance as seen in studies with adolescents (Baumrind, 1991) and (Smetana, 1995).

Parenting styles have been studied in various countries including Brazil (Martinez, Garcia, & Yubero, 2007), Sweden, UK, Spain, Portugal, Slovenia, Czech Republic (Calafat et al., 2014) and Kenya (Odongo, Aloka, & Raburu, 2016). It has been seen that Baumrind's (1971) typology does not always tally with local parenting practice. Calafat et al. (2014) reported that permissive parenting and authoritative parenting had similar outcomes among teenagers in Spain. Additionally for Spain, Palacios et al., (2022) concluded that the indulgent parenting style was linked with similar and even better scores than the authoritative approach. Similarly, for Martinez et al. (2007) authoritative parenting was not associated with optimum self-esteem in Brazil. Likewise, authoritative parenting does not function well in the Asian context, where Chinese parents were found to be more inclined to authoritarian parenting, and it seemed to work well on their children (Shek, 2002). In a study comparing parenting across Western and Asian cultures - Australia and Indonesia - Riany et al. (2021) found evidence of inconsistency between cultural preferences for parenting style and predicted factors for child outcomes. Still, they concluded that authoritative parenting was associated with higher child competencies than where the authoritarian style was predominant.

A core topic of debate related to Baumrind's (1971) typology relates to the demandingness dimension and how control is defined (Baumrind, 2012). Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2010) highlight that the parental psychological control is a harmful form of control as it relies on manipulation and coercion to modify the child's thoughts, feeling and behaviour. Such control

includes belittling the child, withholding love and attention, restricting freedoms, and even inflicting corporal punishment. Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2010) contrast this with behavioural control with focuses on modifying a child's behaviour by structuring the environment. It includes the setting of clear rules and guidelines as well as sharing constructive feedback. The argument is that these two forms of control both fall within the high demandingness high involvement quadrant that has been promoted as authoritative, an ideal parenting style. One advantage of Self-Determination Theory is its clarity on what form of control is needs-supportive.

Despite this criticism Baumrind's (1991) parenting styles typology provided a useful framework to assess the effectiveness of parenting. Effective parenting was thought to be the kind of parenting that resulted in positive outcomes for children (McKinney, Donnelly, & Renk, 2008) and has been associated with the authoritative style where parents appear to be more likely to engage in verbal give and take, warmth, consistency and discipline that is not violent (Baumrind, 2012). Such parenting behaviours were seen to lead to positive outcomes such as higher academic achievement on standardised tests, higher self-esteem, positive emotionality, and lower risk of major depressive syndrome, fewer problems with drug addiction, and less likely to be strongly influenced by peers, among other outcomes (McKinney et al., 2008). Conversely, where parenting was ineffective, there was higher drug abuse, poor performance on standardised academic tests, higher likelihood of externalising locus of control and other negative outcomes (McKinney et al., 2008). Such findings are supported by research. Paulussen-Hoogeboom et al., (2008) found that children's negative emotionality and internalising and externalising behaviours were mediated fully by mothers' parenting style where it was authoritative and not where it was authoritarian. Manzeske and Stright (2009) found an inverse relationship between mother's behavioural and

psychological control and emotional control in young adults. Feng, et al (2009) concluded that girls who rated their mothers as moderately to highly controlling had lower levels of positive emotion. In a study by Dietz et al (2008), an authoritative parenting style related to lower risk for children developing major depressive disorder. McKinney et al (2008) studied both mothers and fathers and found a connection between effective and ineffective parenting and the psychological adjustment or maladjustment of emerging adults.

2.6.3 *arenting Adolescents*

Parenting matters at all stages of life from child to adulthood and parenting effects last throughout life (Bowlby, 1982). The following section focuses on changes in the parent child relationship during adolescence, discusses effective parenting for this stage and reviews parenting outcomes for adolescents in various domains. This spotlight on the adolescent stage is warranted because the current study relates to this life stage.

Characteristics of adolescence: According to the World Health Organisation adolescence is the phase of life situated between childhood and adulthood ranging from about 10 to about 19 years (World Health Organisation, 2022) . During this period there is rapid physical, cognitive, and psychosocial growth. This expansion influences the feelings, thoughts, and capacity to exercise good judgement, as well as general interaction with the environment, and so requires new competencies (Bandura A. , 2005).

The most obvious developmental change of adolescence is the physical and sexual maturation, also referred to as puberty, which deeply affects not just how adolescents see themselves but also the way that they are considered and treated by their parents and others (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). There is accelerated physical growth, development of primary and

secondary sex characteristics, changes in body composition, and changes in the circulatory and respiratory systems (Marshall, Tilton-Weaver, & Bosdet, 2005). If nothing else, these changes remind parents that their children are growing up (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). This stage seems to manifest with emotional distance between parents and their adolescents, and there appears to be more conflict (Laursen & Collins, 2009). This distance is reflected in more “negatives” such as conflict, complaining, anger, and, seemingly, less “positives” as support, smiling, laughter (Flannery, Torquati, & Lindemeier, 1994). Notably, this apparent parent-child distance is not affected by the age at which the adolescent goes through puberty, suggesting that there is something about puberty that transforms the parent-child bond. In other words, that transformation is unavoidable.

Erikson (McLeod, 2013) described adolescence as the fifth stage of psychosocial development. According to Erikson, this stage is marked by a search for self and personal identity and is characterised by more independence and wanting to fit into society. At this stage the adolescent needs to learn the roles to occupy his or her place as an adult and failure to establish a sense of identity within society can lead to role confusion. This in turn can lead to an identity crisis. If an adolescent is pressured into an identity the result is rebellion by establishing a negative identity (McLeod, 2013).

Adolescence is a period when the growing individual has to manage several transitions concurrently: biological, educational, and social roles (Bandura, 2005). As adolescence progresses, the looming stage of adulthood needs to be confronted and thoughts about careers and career selection abound. Furthermore, the conduct of adolescents within the social community is in the spotlight, making it even more important. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997)

underlines the need for the teenager to gain mastery through enabling experiences that support development at the stage.

Indeed, adolescence is not only about physical changes. It is also accompanied by cognitive changes, with children beginning not only to look like, but also to think like, adults (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). These cognitive changes also contribute to disturbing the equilibrium that had been established between parent and child during middle childhood. Adolescents bring a new way of thinking to family discussions, decisions, and arguments, and so challenge the status quo. Additionally, they may demand to be treated more like adults with a greater say in family decisions (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). This behooves parents to make gradual increases in decision-making opportunities for the adolescent possible. More than decision making, teenagers will start seeing social conventions and moral standards in a more relativistic way, and the realisation that social conventions and standards are subjective may lead to a period of conflict. Subsequently, absolutes and rules will be questioned, creating a backdrop for much of the bickering and squabbling over mundane issues that is often seen in families with adolescents (Smetana, 2017; 2008). Smetana suggests that the dispute is often more about the definition of the issue (that is, as a matter of custom versus a matter of personal choice) than it is about the specific details. In fact, it is a struggle over who has the authority—and into whose “jurisdiction” the issue falls. So, the adolescent has become someone who understands that some issues are matters of personal choice, rather than social convention, and parents are distraught because they feel like their adolescent is rejecting their own values and judgement as a parent (Steinberg , 2001). This raises the issue of parental self-efficacy. Mercifully, conflict is resolved as older adolescents come to see the value in many social conventions and parents come to respect the authority and jurisdiction of their maturing child.

Another change that leads to conflict with parents is seen in the normal drive of adolescents to establish themselves as separate individuals with unique identities (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). When parents fail to grant adolescents the autonomy or independence that they seek, there is conflict over rules, regulations, and rights.

Parent's sphere of influence during their children's adolescence is impacted in yet another area. Teenagers tend to spend less time with their families as a result of increasing opportunities for recreational, academic, and social activities outside the family setting (Larson et al., 1996). The lower interaction with parents is supplemented, although not replaced, by peer relationships (Steinberg & Silk, 2002). Peers begin to take on roles that were almost completely within the parent's domain before. They act as emotional confidantes, provide advice and guidance to each other, and become influential models of behaviour and attitude. It is difficult for parents to share such important roles and they may begin to feel shut out of their adolescents' lives. Overall, the parent-child relationship during adolescence needs to be renegotiated, with parents needing to adjust to their new role as important but less salient figures in their teen's life (Steinberg & Silk, 2002).

Key competencies for parenting during adolescence: One important element during this period is communication, which remains key in this new relationship. Open communication with parents helps adolescents withstand the pressures that might lead them astray. As a matter of fact, adolescents encounter various stressors at a time when their capacity for emotional regulation is still developing (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010), and this affects parents both directly and indirectly. Still, parents can contribute to the teenager's emotional competence. Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2010) propose three ways to do this. First, parents are encouraged to express their own emotions. Secondly, parents can uphold an emotion coaching philosophy, where the parent

actively accepts both their own emotions and those of the child while providing advice for dealing with emotions. The emotion coaching approach can be contrasted with an emotion dismissing approach. Studies indicate that emotion coaching is beneficial for the emotional development, personal well-being and resilience against distress and behavioural problems for adolescence (Shortt et al., 2010; Katz & Hunter, 2007). Thirdly, a general communication style should be adopted that creates a supportive emotional climate in the family. This is because the emotional climate of the family has consequences for adolescence emotional experiences at home, and contributes to the development of several resources which are required for adolescents' regulation of emotions. These include the ability to understand and reflect on one's own and other people's mental states and feelings (Morris et al., 2007).

Emotion coaching also contributes to the quality of parent-adolescent relationships, and this is helpful for parents to stay in touch with and monitor their children. When parents know what their children are getting up to, they are in a better position to guide and support them. Without the open communication and a good emotional relationship with their parents, adolescents do not share what is going on in their lives and this means they lose out on a source of support from their parents. Nevertheless, Bandura (2005) suggests that parents do better by focusing on satisfying pro-social options than curtailing detrimental ones. Further, Bandura (2005) also suggests that adolescents need to commit to a purpose and have goals to help them achieve that purpose as this is useful to keep away boredom while also serving to help them stay away from external sources of stimulation, thus contributing to their self-regulation. When adolescents have self-regulatory capabilities, they are better able to withstand detrimental peer pressure and higher sense of academic self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, and empathetic efficacy as well as low involvement with substance abuse. Parents can also act as social coaches for their children during

adolescence. Here, the parent provides advice that involves behaviour such as problem-solving, help-seeking and cognitive-framing (Tu & Ravindran, 2020).

Small and Eastman, (1991) suggest six competency areas that parents should pay attention to when guiding children during adolescence. These are 1) facilitating or engendering warmth, 2) parent demandingness, 3) balance of power between parent and child, 4) effective communication, 5) positive role modelling and 6) conflict resolution.

i. Warmth has also been described as cohesion or closeness and represents emotional familiarity in the relationship between the parent and the adolescent. It requires the parent to communicate love and affection and to provide emotional support. The consequence of this is rapport with the adolescent that is built on intimacy and trust.

ii. Parent demandingness (Baumrind, 1971) refers to the extent to which parents have reasonable standards of expectation as regards the behaviour of their adolescent. These standards ought to be age appropriate, clearly communicated, and consistently enforced in a manner that is developmentally appropriate for the child (Steinberg & Morris, 2001). Demandingness involves both the expectation of mature behaviour from the adolescent and the enforcement of fair and firm discipline when it is required.

iii. Balance of power is the degree to which children are allowed to speak their mind and be included in family decision-making (Small & Eastman, 1991). This requires a fine balance between being not too rigid and not too permissive. Parents can demonstrate this balance by explaining the rules and reasons for discipline, which allows adolescents to see the legitimacy of

requests and so to abide by parental requests. It should be seen in the context of children taking on increasingly greater responsibilities (Small, 1990).

iv. Effective communication helps in the expression of love and warmth and the demonstration of respect, as well as setting limits and making decisions (Small & Eastman, 1991). When parents communicate effectively, they convey values and beliefs about issues that are important to them. They can also learn more about what interests the adolescent, and what they value. Because adolescents are more sensitive to what parents say, they often mis-interpret what is said, and so parents need to be particularly adept at reading the signs and communicating cleverly. Parents should also be aware that adolescents are more reserved and generally less communicative than when they were younger. Open communication is an important mechanism for monitoring children in early adolescence (Small & Eastman, 1991).

v. Conflict resolution: Conflict between parents and the adolescence is very common but not necessarily detrimental (Hill & Holmbeck, 1987). Conflict can provide an opportunity for discussion and resolution of differences as well as contribute to the adolescents' psychosocial development and interpersonal skills.

vi. Positive role modelling is an important source of influence. Parents need to be aware that value transmission is primarily accomplished through every day behaviour that they model. Adolescent children are more likely than younger children to notice inconsistencies between parental words and actions because of the greater reasoning abilities and growing interest in examining social conventions as well as challenging adult authority. Adolescents will also be quick to notice, and point out, hypocrisy on the part of adults (Small & Eastman, 1991).

Parenting outcomes in adolescence: Studies have shown the links between parenting style and parent characteristics and outcomes for adolescents in various domains. A study on autonomy-

related parenting profiles and their effects on adolescents' academic and psychological development found a positive contribution of the supportive profile to adolescents' positive academic and psychological development (Teuber, et al., 2022). On the contrary, the controlling profile thwarts autonomy development and so aggravates the development of psychopathology, and undermines academic achievement. A supportive profile is high on autonomy support and warmth, and low on controlling behaviours, while a controlling profile is high on psychological control and conditional regard, and low on supportive behaviours (Teuber et al., 2022). The connections between parenting styles and parent-adolescent relationship factors in mainland China were studied (Bi et al., 2018). The researchers found higher conflict intensity where parents were neglectful or authoritarian than where parents were indulgent. They also found that authoritative parenting resulted in the highest levels of cohesion. Adolescent beliefs about the legitimacy of parental authority mediated links between parenting style and cohesion, while adolescent expectation for behavioural autonomy mediated the links between parenting style and conflict. This is seen because adolescents expect autonomy earlier than parents are ready to yield it (Pérez, Cumsille, & Martínez, 2016). Consequently, the child grabs more control and becomes more critical of the parents' control behaviours, thus reducing cohesion and resulting in conflict (Zhang & Fuligni, 2006). The parent child relationship changes in adolescence as a result of fewer contacts between parent and child, and requires a renegotiation of the relationship (Laursen & Collins, 2009). This relationship shift demands less directiveness from the parent and more egalitarianism as the child's identity gets clearer and clearer (Meeus et al. 2005). As adolescents grow older there is a reduced need for parental support, which also becomes less important for the adolescent's emotional adjustment. Meanwhile the relational and social identity of the adolescent becomes increasingly important for his or her emotional identity (Meeus et al. 2005).

Adolescents also question parental authority (Darling, Cumsille, & Martínez, 2008) and children of authoritative parents were more likely to see parental authority as legitimate than those of authoritarian ones because authoritarian parents defined issues too rigidly. On the other hand, indulgent and permissive parents defined issues too loosely, and this created a situation where the negotiation of appropriate boundaries could not happen (Smetana 1995). When boundaries cannot be negotiated children may doubt the legitimacy of parental authority, but when parental authority is endorsed, there is more cohesion and less conflict (Smetana, 2008, 2017).

Parenting behaviour has also been linked to adolescent self-esteem. Parenting behaviour and its relationship to levels of self-esteem among adolescents in secondary schools in Nairobi was studied. The researcher found a significant positive relationship between authoritative parenting and self-esteem (Mwihaki, 2013). Positive relationships between high parental support and parental monitoring on one hand, and greater self-esteem and lower risk behaviours were also found by Parker and Benson, (2005).

Positive effects of authoritative parenting were also found in Ghana. Researchers established a link between the development of prosocial behaviour and authoritative parenting, where authoritative parents were seen to have a style based on reasoning, understanding, consensus and trust. Conversely, parenting based on strict rules, force, as well as verbal and physical punishment correlated with antisocial behaviour among adolescents (Mensah & Kuranchie, 2003).

In another study, a positive relationship between maternal warmth and support and brain function was found. Adolescents who experienced warmth and support had lower activation of fearful faces. This relates to how adolescents interpret negative facial expression, and is linked to how the brain processes emotional information. Adolescents who experience lower warmth and

support interpret negative facial expressions more severely than adolescents who are buffered against negative stimuli by warm supportive parents (Romund , et al., 2016).

Whittle, et al. (2014) also studied the impact of positive parenting on the structural development of the brain in early to middle-adolescence. They operationalised positive parenting as constructive behaviours by mothers during conflict with their teenagers, and found longitudinal effects of positive parenting on the structural development of the brain during adolescence.

The parenting dimensions of fathers and mothers were examined in order to understand how they predict adolescent outcomes in the domains of sympathy, self-worth, and social competence (Laible & Carlo, 2004). It was found that children embrace parental values more readily if they perceive that their relationship with parents is mutually responsive (Kim & Kochanska, 2015). They learn how to be affectionate with others and gain key social information processing skills that enhance their interactions with peers from their interaction with parents. Laible and Carlo (2004) emphasised the detrimental effect of rigid control because it impairs the bond with parents and debilitates the adolescent's sense of personal control. This leads to antisocial behaviour and delinquency.

The study which looked at the impact of early childhood antecedents on teenagers, underlines the fact that it is not only what parents do when their children become adolescents that matters but indeed what they have done all along, from birth, combined with other contextual factors during pre-adolescence (Dodge & Pettit, 2003).

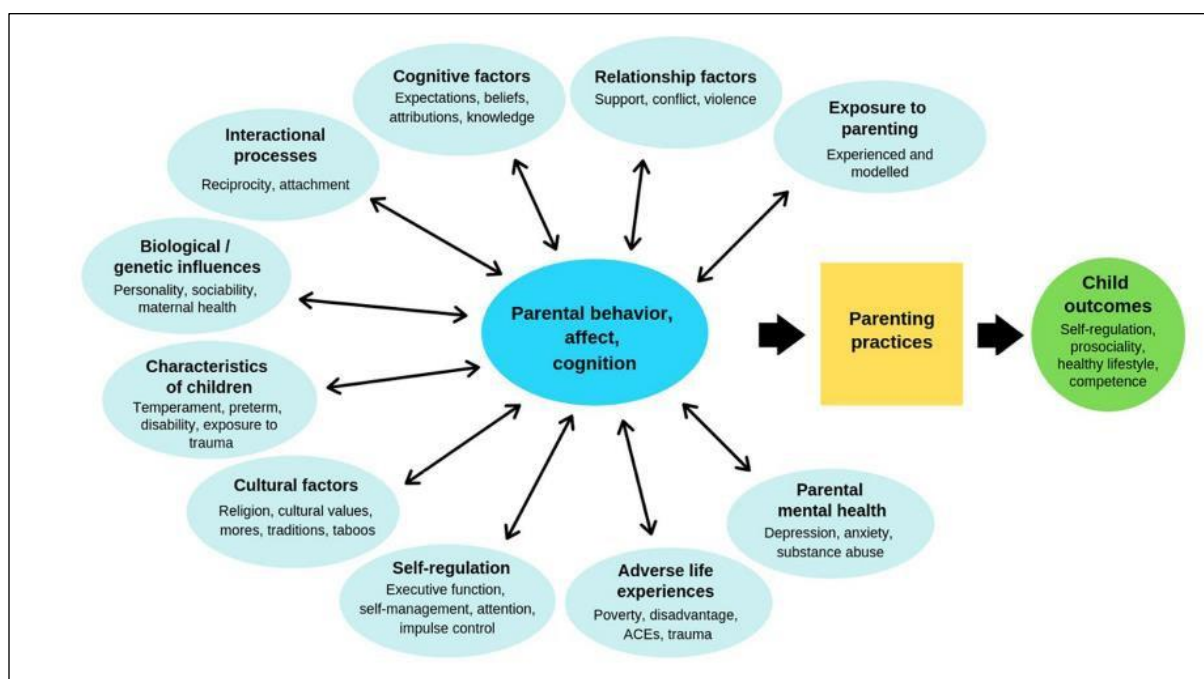
This section focused on the adolescent and how parent behaviour affects that developmental stage. Needs supportive behaviours are indicated for positive adolescent outcomes in various domains including adolescent self-efficacy, emotion regulation, self-esteem, social competence and even brain development. The literature quoted here highlights the effects of

parental warmth, positive behaviour control, coaching for emotion regulation as well as open communication. The apparent separation between parents and adolescents is spotlighted, as is the struggle over authority. These changes occur as a matter of course during adolescence and parents require an accommodating frame of mind to accept and adapt rather than resist and control this transition from childhood to adulthood. Indeed, the egalitarian relationship that adolescence demands evokes the coaching relationship.

The next section looks at parenting interventions and the parent as a coach.

2.6.4 Parenting Interventions

Despite the importance of parenting, it does not always work effectively. Factors such as the economy and social trends may lead to parents failing to take responsibility for their children. (Government of Kenya, Ministry of Labour and Social Protection, 2019). Other factors that impede effective parenting include characteristics of children, biological and genetic factors, interactional processes, cognitive factors, relationship factors, exposure to parenting, cultural factors, parent mental health, self-regulation, and adverse life situations such as poverty (Sanders et al., 2021). These are summarised in figure 2.4. Thankfully, programs of varied intensity and delivery modality that support parents can improve a wide range of developmental, emotional, behavioural and health outcomes for both parents and their children. Such programs can be referred to as parenting interventions (Sanders et al., 2022).

Figure 2.4*Determinants of Parenting and Child Outcomes*

Baumrind's (1991) typology highlights the fact that parent's parent differently, that parenting styles are composed of various behaviours and practices, and that such practices yield different child outcomes. Importantly, the discussion about effective and ineffective parenting raises the question of what happens when parenting behaviours and practices lead to negative outcomes for children? This is where interventions come in, with external support being offered to parents. Parenting interventions include parent or family-based education programs aimed at impacting children's emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and health-related outcomes. Such

interventions result in positive changes in parent and child behaviour (Sanders & Mazzucchelli, 2022). The impact derives from the improvement of parenting skills and the parent-child relationship (Gardner & Leijten, 2017; Sanders et al., 2021; Sanders & Mazzucchelli, 2022). Such interventions generally offer practical and psychological support with the aim of improving child outcomes including the reduction of problem behaviours and countering harsh parenting (Davies, Janta, & Gardner, 2019; Sandler et al., 2011) considered that parenting interventions should incorporate at least one component of activities targeting some aspect of parenting effectiveness, and Sanders and Mazzucchelli (2022) list ‘practical parenting skills’ (p.279) among the activities proposed to support parents. The draft Kenya National Policy on Family Promotion and Protection (Government of Kenya, 2019) is intended to provide a framework for Kenya to promote and develop activities that target and support parenting. The draft policy states the following as one of its objectives: “To enhance parent’s positive parenting skills to nurture and protect children from exposure to and participation in activities that may be detrimental to their physical, emotional, psychological, moral, spiritual and intellectual well-being” (p.15).

Some of the interventions it proposes include advancing the development and implementation of policies that promote positive parenting, as well as national guidelines on parenting. It proposes to design and implement education programs for Kenyan parents.

Parenting support programs have been shown to improve outcomes for children (Sandler et al, 2011; Sanders et al. 2021; Sanders & Mazzucchelli; 2022). Evidence based parenting support programs typically involve the formation of collaborative relationships with parents. The provision of clear guidance and support methods such as modelling, practice, and feedback, are used to enhance parenting skills. According to Sanders et al., (2021) there are five core principles

of positive parenting, which seem to be robust across cultures, in promoting children's development. These principles are first, creating a safe, nurturing, and engaging home environment; second, creating a responsive, positive, learning environment; third providing assertive and consistent boundaries and discipline; fourth, having reasonable expectations of children and oneself as a parent and fifth, having the capacity for self-care in the parenting role. Such programs have been linked with various outcomes including enhancing parental skills and child emotional and behavioural adjustment as well as social competencies (Sanders, 2021).

Formal and rigorously tested programs that use parenting as a modifier of child behaviour date back to the 1970s (Davies, Janta, & Gardner, 2019). Such programs generally share the broad aim of improving children's health, well-being, and behaviour through the enhancement of the quality of the parenting. On its part, the quality of parenting is enhanced through parent education and training (Davies, Janta, & Gardner, 2019; Government of Kenya, 2019), and usually involves developing parenting skills through sharing techniques such as how to communicate effectively, how to minimise or avoid harsh discipline, how to set boundaries, and how to model and reinforce good behaviour, as well as how to respond in a consistent and non-coercive manner to bad behaviour. Some programs also help parents to cultivate warm parent– child relationships (Davies, Janta, & Gardner, 2019). Systematic reviews of parenting interventions have demonstrated that they effect a strong, consistent, and lasting impact upon children's conduct disorder and behavioural problems, both in their country of origin and when transported across countries (Sandler, 2011; Davies et al, 2019). Some programs such as, Triple P, Incredible Years, Parent-Child Interaction Therapy and Parent Management Training-Oregon (Gardner, Montgomery, & Knerr, 2015) have been found to be effective over many years of evaluations, both in their countries of origin and when transferred abroad (Gardner, Montgomery, & Knerr,

2015). In contrast, the Strengthening Families Program yielded positive effects among families in the United States, (Kumpfer, Magalhães, & Xie, 2016) but failed to replicate these effects when it was implemented in other countries. In fact, (Morelli et al., 2018) urge implementers of such programs to adhere to ethical imperatives when transferring them across cultures. Sanders (2021) also highlights the need for such interventions to be culturally responsive in order to meet the goals and values of minority groups within mainstream cultures.

Parenting support programs do not need to feature only in cases of vulnerable parents struggling with social emotional behavioural issues. Sanders (2021) argues that a universal evidence-based parenting support approach would benefit all parents in each population. Sandler et al. (2011) reviewed 46 parenting interventions targeting children across all developmental stages from infancy to adolescence. They concluded that the programs did affect parenting skills and, therefore, youth outcomes in multiple spheres including mental, emotional, and behavioural, although they could not ascertain the processes by which the effect took place.

When considering interventions implementers are encouraged to consider five key criteria: First, establish what the targeted outcomes are, and if the intervention is the most effective way to achieve that outcome; Secondly, establish the target age range of children, thirdly, determine the likelihood of the intervention succeeding by reviewing its evidence base and fourthly consider the cost of implementing the intervention. Cost is driven by mode and method of delivery, cost of materials, cost of training implementers and continued supervision and support for implementers (Davies, Janta, & Gardner, 2019).

All in all, it is not uncommon to implement interventions to help parents secure better outcomes for their children, whether as a preventive measure or a corrective one.

2.7 Professional Coaching vs. use of Coaching Skills

Coaching is applied in many life areas, hence there is, for example, Executive coaching (focus on work performance), Wellness coaching (focus on personal wellbeing), Life coaching (holistic approach to the person), Spiritual coaching (uses tools and techniques with spiritual roots) and, increasingly, Family coaching (Allen & Huff, 2014; Melnick, 2014). Family coaching aids parents in the examination, practice, and attainment of new and effective ways of behaving as parents (Melnick, 2014). Family coaching is directed at parents by coaching professionals, giving parents support to acquire skills that will make them more effective (Hurrell, Howing, & Hudson, 2017; Allen, Baker, & Behnke, 2018). In this case, the parent is the recipient of coaching, as distinguished from instances where the parent gives coaching to his or her child.

Coaching skills and practices can be used by parents, and other relevant adults, in order to influence their children's behaviour. In this sense, coaching becomes an important construct to address social behaviour among school children. Healy, Sanders and Lyer (2015) showed that parenting behaviours and family systems play a central role in the development of children's social and emotional skills. For example, emotion coaching is defined as talking about emotions, (Baker, Fenning, & Crnic, 2011) which was shown to be one of three ways in which parents can help their children's emotional development (Duncombe et al., 2012). Another relevant type of coaching involves parents giving their adolescents advice about coping with stress from peers, or social coaching (Tu & Ravindran, 2020).

The current study considers the coaching approach to be one specific parenting practice. It is likely to be used where parental involvement and responsiveness, equivalent to interest in, and consideration for the child, are high, because it has been established that these are core parameters of coaching theory and practice (Boniwell, Kauffman, and Silberman, 2014; International

Coaching Federation, 2020; Cavanagh and Grant, 2014). Joussemet and Grolnick, (2022) provide evidence of positive linkages between consideration by parents and a wide range of positive outcomes for their children. They found that parents can demonstrate consideration in various ways, depending on context, but each of these ways was facilitative. They listed the following ways: paying attention to all aspects of their children's experience, whether communicated verbally, or nonverbally; acknowledging, validating, and considering their emotions; taking their children's current capacity and state into account; responding to them without an excessive delay; fostering their active and agentic participation; taking into account the children's interests and opinions by listening and encouraging ongoing activity and by favouring collaborative and informational language.

Additionally, a coaching approach is more likely to be effective where involvement and responsiveness combine with structure - equivalent to a coaching conversation model (Starr, 2008; Grant, 2011) - and follow-up, where actions are monitored and there is accountability from the client (International Coaching Federation, 2020). Nevertheless, this study anticipates that the way a parent would coach their child will not necessarily mirror the depth and extent of an expert professional coach. Rather, the parent as a coach is more likely to simply apply basic coaching skills.

Professional coaches receive a certain number of coach training hours, based on a recognised, approved curriculum. According to the ICF, basic coach training is at least 60 hours (International Coaching Federation, 2020). Further, professional coaches are expected to maintain continuous professional development which counts towards credentialing and the renewal of credentials (International Coaching Federation, 2020). A description of the training process for one to become a Certified Professional Coach (CPC) from The Coach Development Institute –

Africa (CDI -Africa) shows what it takes to achieve professional coach certification. The CPC training from CDI-Africa includes eight full days of training spread over 3 months. A training day runs for eight hours. Before they are certified, trainees undergo application assessment and coaching proficiency assessment, as well as undertaking a coaching project where they must deliver at least 15 hours of coaching to real clients (CDI-Africa, 2020). The trainees receive 4 mentor coaching hours, which involves sessions with a senior, more experienced coach (who has himself or herself received training to be a mentor coach). The senior coach will observe the trainee's practice and offer suggestions for reflection on what worked well and what might have been done better, as well as commenting on the application of the core competencies (International Coaching Federation, 2020). Trainees also do a final practical exam. This training qualifies for the ICF's 72 approved coach specific training hours (ACSTH).

Parents are unlikely to have gone through such training, but that is not to imply they cannot take a coaching approach in their parenting. Parents can apply coaching skills, which are set out in ICF's core competencies for professional coaches. According to the ICF's Global Coaching Study (2020) 15,900 leaders and managers used coaching skills, having received coach training. Parents too can learn to use coaching skills.

The current study focused on the use of coaching skills within the framework of the following theoretical coaching principles: that the parent-child interaction where coaching skills are used is client-centred; that it is facilitative and that it follows a processual structure.

At the time of writing this there seemed to be no peer reviewed literature about the use of coaching skills by parents, especially in Kenya, but the use of coaching skills by persons who are not professional coaches is reported in the health sector, in corporate workplaces and in education in many parts of the world.

In the health care sector Risley and Cooper (2011) as well as Souza and Viney (2014) reported that doctors at the National Health Service in the United Kingdom were encouraged to acquire coaching skills and to use them as they mentor younger doctors. The coaching skills were listed as active listening, observation, questioning, challenge, feedback, and reflection (Souza & Viney 2014). In order to acquire and practice the use of these skills Souza and Viney (2014) recognised a need for training. In addition to skills, they suggested that healthcare professionals require certain qualities in order to use coaching skills effectively. These qualities are: a high level of self-awareness; a real interest in others; openness, approachability, and humility. The work of Souza and Viney (2014) advances the idea that coaching skills can be learnt by people for whom coaching is not the primary role, and, when combined with certain personal characteristics, can be used effectively to coach someone else.

In corporate workplaces, for example, managers can adopt a coaching style (Weintraub & Hunt, 2007; Agarwal, Angst, & Magni 2009; Vesso & Alas, 2016). Weintraub and Hunt, (2007) identified coaching as a core skill for managers, and introduced the term coaching manager to classify leaders who apply coaching skills to help their people learn and develop. Such managers applied coaching by demonstrating facilitative behaviours and focusing on the empowerment, learning and development of their people (Agarwal et al. 2009). Managers use the following coaching skills (1) relationship building including the development of mutual trust between themselves and employees. 2) listening diligently and actively and 3) asking questions to help the employees think independently, make decisions and act appropriately. Vesso and Alas (2016) also reported that the coaching skills should be used with an attitude of developing the client's potential and a belief that the client can find his or her own solutions in alignment with his or her own values. Further, Vesso and Alas (2016) and Bawamy (2015) stipulated that coaching should be a

short-term intervention aimed at achieving goals specified by the client, and that the intervention must include feedback conversations with the manager coach. They underline that coaching by a manager implies inclusion, involvement and participation as opposed to command control and compliance (Vessos & Alas, 2016). Bawamy (2015) added that when managers use coaching skills the coaching intervention should also have significant proportions of the following components: the stated objective to develop a person; solutions to issues; support for clients to remain true to their values; partnership based on mutual trust and support for the client to overcome limiting beliefs. Romao et al.(2022) found a positive link between leaders' coaching skills and the happiness of employees (Romao et al., 2022). Using a self-report survey, they asked 271 employees to think about their leaders' behaviour. They also asked the respondents to think about their own feelings and emotions in relation to their work environment. Romao et al. (2022) concluded that employees' perceptions of their leaders' coaching skills stimulate workers happiness in organisations. This, they surmise, is because a coaching leader motivates employees to develop skills that improve performance and so provide them with appreciation, satisfaction and commitment to the organisation.

In education, Green, Grant, and Rynsaardt, (2007) conducted a study in which they trained teachers to use the positive psychology life coaching approach (Boniwell, Kauffman, & Silberman, 2014) with their high school students. The positive psychology movement flourished as a counter movement to the tendency for psychologists to focus on ridding the world of mental illness. It was felt that more was needed to enhance positive mental health (Boniwell et al., 2014). Positive psychology coaching is rooted in the science of well-being (Boniwell et al., 2014). In this approach, the coach sees the client as whole and focuses on the client's strengths, positive behaviours, and purpose. Consequently, when this approach is used, clients improve in

performance and reach important personal goals by enriching and applying their personal strengths.

Positive psychology coaching applies the theory underpinning the current study - self-determination theory, whose core tenet is that human beings have 3 basic psychological needs which ought to be met. These needs are autonomy, competence, and relatedness. A coach using the positive psychology approach helps the client's autonomy by enabling the client's own decision making. The coach shepherds the client to increased competency using the client's own strengths. On relatedness, the positive psychology coach uses the expression of empathy towards the client, and encourages the enhancement of existing relationships (Boniwell et al., 2014). The teachers in the Green, Grant and Rynsaardt (2007) study were trained in the positive psychology coaching approach and, on implementing life coaching with their students, achieved positive outcomes.

Nevertheless, evidence shows that coaching skills, when used by non-expert coaches, have fewer effective outcomes than coaching skills when used by a professional coach. Spence and Grant (2007) compared outcomes among people whose life coach was a peer using coaching skills versus results for those whose life coach was an expert professional. They found that those who worked with a professional life coach were more engaged in the coaching process. The group with the professional life coach showed greater commitment to goals and progression than those who were receiving peer life coaching. Spence and Grant (2007) concluded that expertise was critical to helping clients achieve their life goals.

The study by Spence and Grant (2007) is one of the few empirical studies in life coaching and so is an important contributor to the debate on the effectiveness of coaching, even if it appears to contradict the position of the current study, that parents need not be expert coaches. In fact, the

research showed that even non-expert coaching does have an effect, even if to a lower extent than that emanating from coaching by a trained, expert professional life coach.

2.8 Outcomes of coaching

Much of the extant literature on coaching outcomes is based on studies involving adults, and is linked to coaching in the workplace. Studies have shown that coaching has several outcomes, including increased resilience and hope (Green, Grant , & Rynsaardt, 2007; Theeboom, Beersma, & van Vianen, 2014; Spence & Grant, 2007) , improved self-awareness , self-confidence and focus on solutions rather than problems (Vesso & Alas, 2016) increased self-efficacy (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009; Ammentorp, et al., 2013), direction of causal attribution and improved goal setting as well as self-determination (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009) . Others have found coaching to have a positive impact on well-being and self-regulation as well as self-reflection and insight (Spence & Grant, 2007).

Four psychological variables attached to performance were subjected to coaching in a study by Moen and Skaalvik (2009). These variables were 1) self-efficacy, which refers to one's own judgement of one's ability to perform a specific task within a specific domain (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009); 2) causal attribution, meaning the reasons people give for either succeeding or failing at a task. For high performance it is desirable for individuals to see their failures as being due to factors they can control - and therefore can do something about (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009); 3) goal-setting, the determination of a specified standard of achievement in a given time period (Moen & Skaalvik, 2009); and 4) self-determination, which draws from the theory that the more a social environment fulfils the basic psychological needs of an individual's needs for growth and development, the more motivated, engaged and successful that individual will be (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Moen & Skaalvik, 2009).

In Moen and Skaalvik's (2009) study 20 Chief Executive Officers who worked for a Norwegian fortune 500 company and 124 of their direct reports from one branch were split into two groups. The experiment group had 12 Executives and 61 Managers, and the control group had 8 Executives and 63 Managers. The direct reports and their Executives were put in the same group, and participants completed an online pre-test. This pre-test measured the self-efficacy, causal attribution, goal setting and self-determination of the respondents in reference to their thoughts, feelings, and actions at work. Following the pre-test, the Executives received professional coaching over twelve months. The Executives in the experiment group were also trained in how to use a coaching-based leadership approach with their mid-level managers. They then took a post-test.

In the group that received external professional coaching the study found a strong positive correlation between coaching and improved psychological performance variables among the executives. The results of the study confirmed that self-efficacy related to specific leadership capabilities was improved; goal setting was improved; causal attribution was strengthened (greater attribution to controllable factors rather than factors beyond their control) and there was increased needs satisfaction - meaning greater motivation and engagement at work. The results for the managers who were submitted to a coaching leadership style from their trained Executives were less extensive. Only the self-efficacy hypothesis was confirmed. The research involved the use of both professional coaches and executives who use a coaching style but are not expert coaches, and showed that both situations lead to positive outcomes even if not to the same extent. Lower efficacy was observed where executives used a coaching style with their subordinates as compared to the case where the executives received coaching from a professional coach. In addition to supporting the idea that the use of coaching skills by non-professional coaches is still useful, the Moen and

Skaalvik (2009) study also serves to demonstrate that it is possible to assess the outcomes of coaching using empirical methods, where those who receive coaching rate themselves on given parameters before and after coaching.

In life coaching, Grant (2003) designed the Coach Yourself program, a coaching intervention where the principles of cognitive-behavioural clinical and counselling psychology, brief solution-focused therapy, and models of self-regulated learning were employed. Twenty participants were invited to explore main areas of their lives and then articulate three goals that were measurable, tangible, and specific, and that they wanted to reach over a period of 13 weeks. Each participant met with a coach in a group setting for 10 sessions each lasting 50 minutes. Four variables were measured, both pre-intervention and post-intervention. The variables were: 1) goal attainment, 2) depression, 3) anxiety and stress; 4) quality of life plus self-reflection and insight. The study reported that there was a positive relationship between participation in the program and goal attainment. Further, it was found that levels of depression, anxiety and stress reduced significantly in addition to quality of life being greatly increased. Also, personal insight was raised after the intervention. The work of Grant (2003) is of interest to the current study as it investigated the area of life coaching, it demonstrated that life coaching can have positive outcomes related to personal goals, and it showed that these outcomes can be observed.

A third study examined the impact of life coaching on 16-year-old high school students. Green, Grant and Rynsaardt (2007) placed 56 normal high school students in two groups for a randomised controlled experiment. In one group, each student was assigned a teacher life coach, and the other was a control group identified as a wait list. The term ‘teacher life coach’ was used to describe a teacher who had been given training on how to use the positive psychology coaching approach, and who then used the skills with students in the program. The study found that life

coaching could be associated with notable improvements in resilience - measured by improvement in hardiness - and hope.

Hardiness consists of 3 things: commitment to life goals, a sense of control over life events and a mindset that considers change to be a challenge which can be overcome (Green, Grant, and Rynsaardt, 2007). Individuals who possess the quality of hardiness are buffered from the effects of stress, and they display better coping ability when faced with stressors, than those who do not. Hardiness helps individuals to face stress without being damaged by it (Maddi, 2002) and (Oullete, 1993).

Three things make up the cognitive components of hope: goals, agency, and pathways, and they are commonly used by people to cope with daily life (Snyder et al. 1999). Hope is the belief in one's ability to begin and sustain movement towards a goal (agency) and to visualise routes to a goal (pathways), and consists of two concepts: way power and will power (Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). Way power is the identification of goals and finding ways to achieve them. These ways of achieving goals can be referred to as pathways (Snyder et al., 2002). If the primary pathway is not available a hopeful person finds an alternative. Will power is the general belief in one's own ability to reach the goal. Snyder et al. (2002) showed that hope correlates positively with self-esteem, perceived problem-solving capabilities and control, optimism, and expectations of positive outcomes. Snyder et al., (2002) report that when one moves without impediment towards one's desired goals or successfully overcomes obstacles then one experiences positive emotions. Conversely, the unsuccessful pursuit of goals, where agentic and/or pathways thinking may not have been sufficient, leads to negative emotions because the person is unable to overcome obstacles. When a person articulates his or her goals (thus thinking about them) he or she triggers

goal directed behaviour. The coaching process involves setting goals, which requires the client to think about goals and how to achieve them, and so enhances hope.

The research by Green, Grant and Rynsaardt (2007) is interesting for the current study because it was conducted on a population of school going children, like the target for the current study, and provides evidence that coaching skills can be used to influence the behaviour of school going children. The results, particularly in relation to resilience, are pertinent since lack of resilience has been cited as one of the reasons for misbehaviour among school going children in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2019), and a proven intervention which can buffer the students against stressors would be a welcome solution to the problem.

Three salient outcomes of coaching were identified by Passarelli et al. (2022). In their study 88 middle management leaders from 5 organisations were exposed to executive coaching for a period of 4.5 months. Subsequently, they found that self-awareness, enacting change, and internalising personal vision were reported most frequently by most participants as the salient outcomes they experienced (Passarelli, Moore, & Van Oosten, 2022). Notably, enacting change was reported up to a year after the end of coaching, suggesting that coaching has effect for longer than the period of coaching.

The preceding section looked at outcomes of coaching. In reviewing the literature, it was clear that few studies have been conducted on outcomes of life coaching among school going children. It was also noted that there is no extant literature based on studies conducted in Kenya, making the current study relevant for reducing these gaps.

2.9 The parent as a life coach

Coaching is not the primary role of a parent. Like the teacher coach (Green, Grant & Rynsaardt, 2007) and the coaching manager (Weintraub & Hunt, 2007), a parent can use the

coaching approach by employing coaching skills to help his or her child to achieve specific outcomes in life. O'Connell, Palmer, and Williams, (2012) describe this as adopting a coaching philosophy or style to help achieve certain objectives. In this case the philosophy or style could be characterised as 'parenting as a coach' (Sterling & Osa, 2008).

Parents already possess many of the qualities and skills required to parent as a coach. To parent as a coach, they may only need to develop a greater self-awareness of these qualities and to use them consistently (Sterling & Osa, 2008). Such qualities or skills include listening, asking questions and storytelling. These are expanded below:

Listening: Parenting as a coach requires parents to listen deeply or actively, that is at a higher level than basic listening (Fillery-Travis & Passmore, 2011).

Questioning: When parenting as a coach, parents ask powerful questions. A powerful question does not have a yes or no answer, and is typically not a why question, as 'why' questions tend to put the respondent in defensive mode. Powerful questions encourage self-reflection and promote the surfacing of ideas (Tofade, 2010).

Story telling: When parenting as a coach a parent will use stories to inspire self-reflection in the child.

While many parents already have listening, questioning and story-telling skills, it is also possible to gain training to enhance such skills in addition to other useful coaching skills. The following section looks at some of the training available to equip parents with coaching skills.

Some of the schools that train coaches have introduced modules to train the parent as a coach. One example is Erickson Coaching International (Erickson International Coaching, 2020). This organisation offers a three-day on-site course that is also available online over a five-week

period. The stated purpose of this course is to equip parents with fundamental coaching skills for parent child conversations. The course focuses on helping parents enhance their communication and social-emotional skills by helping them connect through deep listening, powerful questioning and inspiring story telling” (Erickson International Coaching, 2020).

2.9.1 Training the parent as a life coach - Solution Focused Coaching

The training of parent as a coach by Erickson is based on the solution focused (SF) approach to coaching (Erickson International Coaching, 2020). SF coaching was first articulated in the 70s and 80s (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014) and adheres to a constructionist philosophy which holds that an event is constructed by the way it is talked about. Thus, if an event is discussed as a problem, then it is conceived to be a problem. As such, the way a coach and a client talk about events constructs those events as problems or otherwise. The SF approach seeks to help the client move from a focus on what is not working to concentrating on building solutions. Such an approach has been effective in several areas, including child and adolescent counselling (Corcoran & Stephen, 2000) and life coaching (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014; Spence & Grant, 2007; Green, Grant, & Rynsaardt, 2007).

The second philosophical position of SF coaching is that the client is fundamentally able to solve his or her problems. A coach would therefore view the client as inventive and capable rather than dysfunctional and deprived (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014; O'Connell, Palmer, & Williams, 2012). The SF approach attempts to do only what is necessary for the client to move forward on the stated goals using the simplest and easiest path to achieving a satisfactory result. As such, SF promotes self-learning and self-direction. Cavanagh and Grant (2014) describe self-directed learning as follows:

Self-directed learning seeks to build self-efficacy and self-reliance through the process of discovering personalized solutions to problems, identifying solution steps that work for the individual, assessing effectiveness through feedback and then altering one's behaviour to maximize the effectiveness of one's attempts to reach the goal (p.54).

The client can integrate such learning into aspects of his or her life that were not the subject of the coaching intervention. This reflects the self-regulation characteristic of self-directed learning, a key goal of SF coaching (Cavanagh & Grant 2014).

When using this approach, a coach will generally take the following steps: 1) help client identify a preferred solution; 2) uncover incidences where the solution is present even if only partially; 3) focus on existing resources that the client can use to create the solution sought; 4) track progress and celebrate successes by complimenting the client.

Much work in SF coaching uses the key techniques of questioning using the so-called Miracle question (Berg & Szabo, 2005) and tracking progress through scaling. The Miracle question asks the client to imagine a situation where the solution is present, and to describe how he or she would know that the solution is present. In scaling, the client is asked to rate progress on a linear scale or to clarify a goal.

The SF coach also uses reframing, that is restating the client's words in such a way as to open up possibilities and focus attention on solutions. The following example from Cavanagh and Grant (2014) illustrates reframing:

Client says: "I feel completely lost" (focus is on the problem).

Coach reframes: "So, you would like to get back a sense of direction?" (Focus on the solution) (p.56).

In addition to helping the client see things differently (changing the viewing) SF coaching also assists in generating actions. This is referred to as changing the doing (O'Hanlon & Beadle, 1996). Techniques to help the client's change his or her doing include a) helping him or her to generate several options for action; b) asking 'how' questions; c) looking for possibilities in problems and d) generating initial small steps to build motivation (Jackson & McKergow, 2007).

The SF approach involves coach and client working together to discover ways to succeed. Such ways must work for the client in his or her context. It is therefore critical that the coach using this approach believe in the basic wholeness of the client. The coach also requires patience and sensitivity, especially if the client is firmly entrenched in the problem and is not easily or quickly shifting to a solution focus.

The SF approach has two key limitations. First, it assumes that the client is resourceful and capable of generating a solution. In fact, clients may genuinely be unable to see solutions to their problems. This calls for the coach to actively help the client see solutions (thus co-creating them). Second, the SF approach in its purest form would not challenge a client's suggested solution, yet the optimal solution to the client's problem may be beyond the client's current level of thinking (and hence the reason for working with a coach in the first place). It follows then that SF coaches may need to help their clients to stretch their thinking by challenging the solutions they propose (Cavanagh & Grant, 2014). Parents coaching children will likely be in this situation, as their children will not have the necessary experience to proffer a wide range of solutions, and the possibility to help them stretch their thinking allows parents room to influence their children's thinking, without imposing their own ideas.

It seems that to parent effectively as a coach three things need to be considered. These are first, the parent's mindset, second the parent's personal qualities and third, the parents coaching skills.

i. Mindset

Effective parenting as a coach requires that a parent have the attitude that the child is resourceful and capable, and that with support and follow-up the child can achieve his or her potential. Such a mindset focuses on the child's strengths, positive behaviours, and purpose (Boniwell, Kauffman & Silberman, 2014; Cavanagh & Grant, 2014; O'Connell, Palmer, & Williams, 2012; Sterling & Osa, 2008).

ii. Qualities

As emphasised in some of the literature (Agarwal et al., 2009; Vesso & Alas, 2016) effective coaching requires not only skills but also facilitative qualities and behaviours in the coach. Parents need patience and sensitivity to meet the child wherever he or she is on the journey towards achieving whatever they need to achieve. Additionally, parents' ought to become more mindful of the behaviours they themselves display (Sterling & Osa, 2008), as well as ensuring that an environment that supports a coaching approach is maintained.

iii. Skills

Parents may already have the skills to coach their children (Sterling & Osa, 2008), and they can also improve or, if needed, acquire them through training (Erickson International Coaching, 2020). Such skills include how they listen, how they frame questions and how they tell stories (Erickson International Coaching, 2020; International Coaching Federation, 2020), how they structure the coaching conversation with the child (Starr, 2008), and how they help the child to remain accountable for his or her actions (International Coaching Federation, 2020).

The right combination of mindset, personal qualities and skills will allow the parent to be a psychological needs satisfier, a coach, and, indeed, a socialising agent. The parenting approach impacts child outcomes (Corcoran & Stephen, 2000; Green, Grant, & Rynsaardt, 2007), and social behaviours are one such outcome. The following section looks at social behaviour among school children in Kenya.

2.10 Social Behaviour of School Children in Kenya

Kenya's children begin formal school at six years of age, and after eight years of primary school they join secondary school. At the time of writing this literature review in 2019 the national education system in Kenya was undergoing a transition to a new system where children complete three years at lower primary, three at upper primary, three in middle school and three in senior school. At the time, there were some students in the old system, following what is referred to as the 8-4-4 system (eight years in primary school, four in secondary and four at university) and some in the new system. Children who complete primary and secondary education leave at about 18 years of age.

The government of Kenya has documented the aims of education. Education aims are considered to be general pronouncements to shape and direct specific actions that are designed to achieve future behaviour (Mwaka et al., 2013), and, in this regard, the aims of education reflect what a society values. Further, education goals deal with the needs and aspirations of a nation, and they specify the qualities and values that the nation considers most desirable to develop (Shiundu & Omulando, 1992).

The government of Kenya states that its eight goals for education are to:

- 1) Foster nationalism and patriotism and promote national unity;

- 2) Promote socio-economic, technological, and industrial skills for the country's development;
- 3) Promote individual development and self-fulfilment;
- 4) Promote sound moral, religious, and national values;
- 5) Promote social equality and responsibility;
- 6) Promote respect for and development of Kenya's rich and varied cultures;
- 7) Promote international consciousness and foster positive attitudes towards other nations and
- 8) Promote positive attitudes towards good health and environmental protection (Republic of Kenya, 2015).

Mwaka et. al (2013) note that education being a purposeful activity, curriculum is developed and implemented with the intention of achieving certain ideals. “These ideals are enshrined in a body of values held by both the community and individuals within the society” (p.150). On account of this, one can argue that what is not explicitly stated in the statement of national goals and objectives is not considered to be a high order value.

According to the creators of the competency-based curriculum, which is the newest curriculum for Kenyan basic education, learners will acquire seven competencies to help them communicate and collaborate with others, think critically, and solve problems with imagination and creativity, be good citizens, engage in self-learning, acquire digital literacy and be self-efficient. Related to this are seven core values – love, responsibility, respect, unity, peace, patriotism, and integrity (Republic of Kenya, 2017). However, just because an aim is stated does not mean that it is achieved. Indeed, Mwaka et al. (2013) interrogate the outputs of the Kenya education goals and objectives noting, as an example, that national unity has remained elusive.

Nevertheless, school is supposed to aid children to gain perseverance, self-control, courage, and endurance (Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002). Onyango et al. (2016) saw school as a place to help children gain skills that will help them to regulate their conduct, respect others, and manage time responsibly. School is also supposed to help develop respect for authority, collegiality, interpersonal communication, problem solving, sharing, and responsible competition (Omote et al., 2015).

To help define social norms that they should respect and to create a framework for acceptable and unaccepted social behaviour, children are expected to adhere to certain rules and regulations when in school (Omote et al., 2015). The rules and regulations in public schools in Kenya revolve around dress code (uniform) and personal appearance (for example hair styles and accessories), school hours, what they are allowed to bring to school (gadgets such as phones are largely disallowed in public schools), substance use, bullying, theft, language (vulgar or abusive language is frowned upon), absenteeism, completion of school work, exam conduct, use of school facilities, etc. (St Mary's School Nairobi, 2020; Patanisho Secondary School, 2020). When school children go against the rules and regulations, they face disciplinary measures commensurate with the offence. The reasons for facing discipline include: noise making (in class), lateness, theft, drug abuse, fighting, absenteeism, and incomplete schoolwork; possession of pornographic materials and smoking cigarettes (Nyongesa et al., 2016; Ouma et al., 2013). The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology identified the following as punishable (and therefore undesirable) social behaviours: truancy, chronic absenteeism, rudeness and disrespect, unacceptable verbal expression of dissatisfaction, drug and alcohol abuse, and non-compliance with school rules (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2000). However, the greatest manifestation of school rules and regulations not working is school unrest. The actions of a group

of people engaging in uncontrolled behaviour is referred to as unrest, rioting or rampage. Such behaviour is considered as an act of indiscipline, disorder, lawlessness, and strike. The unrest is usually directed towards established authorities to earn recognition or achieve a desired need (Makinde, 1984). Unrest is also described as a troubled or rebellious state of discontent (Collins Concise English Dictionary, 2008). When the group is made up of school children this behaviour is referred to as students' unrest (Ambrose, 2016). In Kenya students' unrest comprises destruction of property, boycotts, riots, violent assault, indecent behaviour, extreme bullying, and arson (National Crime Research Centre, 2017; Malenya, 2014) among other things.

2.10.1 Student misbehaviour in Kenya

Students' misbehaviour, commonly manifested as school unrest, is not uncommon the world over, nor is it a recent phenomenon. Abrell and Hannah (1971) reported that more than half of high schools and junior high schools in America had experienced school unrest. In Nigeria student protests in River State were linked to low emphasis on academics, low morality, and ill advice of parents, among other things (Ambrose, 2016). More recently, in 2019, media reported student protests in Hong Kong, where secondary school children boycotted classes, formed human chains and rebelled against a law banning them from wearing face masks (South China Morning Post, 2019). This was before the COVID-19 pandemic hit the world, and mask wearing became an important way of stemming the spread of the virus. Another link to politics was reported in France where high school students protested educational reforms proposed by the president by barricading their schools, vandalising property, setting bins on fire, and engaging in violent clashes with the police (Dodman, 2018).

In Kenya, school unrest has developed from protests against school conditions in the 1960s and 1970s to increasingly violent acts leading to deadly violence in the 1980s, 1990s and 2000s. In 2016, 130 schools were burnt over a period of 4 months between May and August. In 2018, 300 schools closed down between July and September (Andafu, 2020; National Crime Research Centre, 2017). In these situations, Kenyan school children rebelled against authority (sit-ins, walk-outs), were destructive (arson, assault, breakage) and they abused alcohol and drugs (drunkenness) (Mwendwa, 2018). Increasingly, students assaulted authority figures: school prefects and teachers have been attacked and killed (Kejitan, 2018; Kosgei, 2015; Gachuhi, 2019).

The question arises: if the purpose of the education curriculum in Kenya is to socialise children in proper performance behaviour, playing approved social roles, adopting acceptable social attitudes (Mwangi, 2017) and altruism, friendliness, co-operation, and sympathy (Njiiri et al., 2018) why this violent, destructive behaviour that is the antithesis of all the desired outcomes? Nyongesa et al. (2016) characterise this as misbehaviour or indiscipline, as it is contrary to the expectations that school socialises children to regulate their conduct, respect others and manage their time responsibly.

2.10.2 Investigating Student Misbehaviour

Several commissions were set up to investigate the worsening cases of school violence and they proposed various recommendations based on findings that suggested the following causes of the unrest: communication breakdown between students and school authorities, fatigue from trial exams and a long 2nd term break (May – August), fear of exams and teenage rebellion (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2000; National Crime Research Centre, 2017). The Sagini Report (Republic of Kenya, 1991) and the Koech Report (Republic of Kenya,

1999) highlighted poor communication between students and teachers and school authorities as the main reason leading to lack of avenues for students to express their grievances. The Macharia (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2000) Wangai (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2001) and Koech (1999) reports also cited parental shortcomings as another source of misbehaviour among students. Interestingly, students and teachers did not always see parenting as a major factor in student unrest. For this group of respondents, the main reasons cited were fear of exams and adolescent rebellion (Republic of Kenya, 2017). Ndembu (2013) explained why fear of exams is a key driver of school unrest. “Education in Kenya is a zero-sum game and exams have an aura of finality. Pass exams and you are guaranteed a bright future” (p. 26).

Other reasons for students’ unwanted behaviour have been proposed. They included the influence of western media as represented by, for example, foreign children’s cartoons which are linked to the proliferation of bad language and bullying (Njiiri et al., 2018); poor role modelling by politicians and institutional factors such as poor school facilities (Republic of Kenya National Assembly, 2019).

Studies from other countries cited similar causes of student unrest. Abrell and Hannah (1971) wrote about the lack of avenues for students to express their grievances and the limits placed on their activities. School children were not allowed to disagree, nor could they participate in decision-making. Even the development of meaningful interpersonal relationships among themselves and with their teachers and school administrators were limited. Other reasons were fear of adult responsibilities, and improved telecommunication and media which allowed students to learn about injustices and personal rights and to see that protests were a common way of expressing dissatisfaction with a situation. In Nigeria, Ambrose (2016) identified low emphasis on academics,

low morality, and the ill advice of parents as main causes of student unrest. In Hongkong and France the students were reacting to the prevailing political atmosphere at the time. In Hongkong the protests were further fuelled by high levels of stress from fear of exams and getting bad grades as well as insufficient rest.

2.10.3 Managing Student Misbehaviour in Kenya

Teachers and students suggested that the three top things to do in order to rein in school unrest are 1) improve school security; 2) offer guidance and counselling and 3) hold regular forums between teachers and students. Only 1.7% of the students and 3.2% of the teachers indicated that parents need to be involved (Republic of Kenya, 2017). The National Assembly report of 2018 noted that “there was a lack of proper relationship among parents, teachers and learners” (p.23), and so recommended that parents should ensure that they maintain constant communication with teachers and students. This report also recommended the strengthening of the National Parents Association to organise forums for teachers, students, and parents to engage with each other to improve trust and mutual respect. A further recommendation from the National Assembly called on parents to actively instil discipline, train and equip children with necessary life skills for survival in the society. Ndembu (2013) supported this view, calling for parents to be involved in student discipline - which included manual labour and exclusion, as well as, guidance and counselling. Ndembu (2013) also proposed strengthening student representative bodies, addressing student grievances effectively and rewarding positive behaviours. Onyango et al. (2016) also reported that positive reinforcement reduced tension and strikes in school, by improving student teacher relations as well as contributing to learners’ motivation. They suggested that this works better than punishment, whose aim was to gain student compliance.

In fact, according to Andafu (2020) , “all forms of discipline management in Kenyan schools revolve around student compliance with laid out school rules” (p. 17). Andafu (2020) believed that self-imposed discipline works better than that imposed by others. This view finds support in coaching literature which asserts that clients benefit most from solutions that they discover and choose for themselves (Omote et al., 2015). However, these proposed measures do not seem to be working. Nyongesa et al. (2016) found that teachers prefer corporal punishment to manage misbehaviour and indiscipline, but with the Kenya government ban on corporal punishment they are left with no choice but to focus on other methods. Such methods, described as preventive and supportive discipline, include guidance and counselling. Nevertheless, misbehaviour did not improve as shown by Nyongesa et al. (2016) as only 17% of students who were subjected to this kind of discipline changed their behaviour.

This fact lends credence to the view of this researcher that the answer to the problem of school children misbehaving in Kenya has not been found, and hence the need to try other methods including coaching by parents. In the situations where behaviour change occurred, students’ views were considered and they were allowed to speak in their own defense regardless of the behaviour they had exhibited.

Jessor (1991) observed that behaviours that could result in adolescents dropping out of school, participating in risky sexual behaviour, engaging in criminal and violent acts, and abusing drugs and alcohol are supported by certain environmental characteristics. These characteristics include low parental disapproval of problem behaviour, low parental controls, and support as well as low parent influence, among others. While it does not articulate the type of parental attention, Jessor’s observation aligns with the view that parental attitude and or actions could help stem the problem of school unrest in Kenya. On their part, Abu and Akerele, (2006) found a significant

effect of parental care on adolescent sexual behaviour. Parental care was seen as taking time to communicate to adolescents about sexual behaviour and its effects, as well as role modelling. While care as expressed by Abu and Akerele is not coaching, this conclusion suggests that parental involvement to address a specific risky behaviour such as the sexual misbehaviour observed among Kenyan school children does have an impact on reducing that behaviour.

Other studies looked at the use of Life Coaching techniques to produce behaviour change in adolescents. Motivational Interviewing (MI) is a goal directed style of coaching to elicit change in behaviour by helping a client to explore and resolve ambivalence (Rollnick & Miller, 1995) It is non-confrontational, and does not involve persuasion or advice giving. This approach appears to be a good fit for adolescents as they value autonomy and independent decision-making. Many studies on the effects of coaching, using the MI approach, on adolescent behaviour change have been conducted.

Grenard, et al., (2007) found reduced drug use and Colby et al. (2012) reported significant reduction in the number of cigarettes smoked. D'Amico et al., (2008) found that youth who completed MI interventions reported reduced incidents of substance and alcohol use and drink driving.

Although the coaches in these studies were not parents, the studies show that a coaching intervention can impact behaviour change.

2.11 How parental coaching can be applied to address student misbehaviour in Kenya

Many of the government reports on school violence cited poor parenting as a cause (National Crime Research Centre, 2017; Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2000). However, a report by the National Crime Research Centre (2017) found that

both teachers and students agreed that the greatest driver of school violence in recent years was related to adolescent's tendency towards rebellion and defiance of authority, and fear of exams.

Two key constructs are important for attempting to solve this issue of misbehaviour by school children: self-efficacy and resilience. These concepts are important because they have been linked to personal achievement and it has been shown that they can be improved by coaching. In the following sections the researcher looks at two important causes of school unrest and demonstrates how coaching can address them. These two causes are exam anxiety or fear of exams, and adolescence related rebellion.

Fear of exams: Courage can be defined as a behavioural approach that allows a person to persevere through fear. While there are few studies supporting life coaching specifically helping one to deal with fear, there are studies that support building courage as well as increasing hope, well-being and resilience while reducing fear, anxiety, and stress (Curtis & Kelly, 2013; Grant, 2003; Green et al., 2007; Spence & Grant, 2007; Jarosz, 2017). Coaching can also help the client develop the courage to make transformational change (Curtis & Kelly, 2013). The coaching relationship is supportive enough for an individual to confront his or her challenges and, consequently, adjust his or her life. This, of itself, is an exercise in courage (Jarosz, 2017). Support in a coaching relationship is given through creating a safe environment where the coach cares for the client and understands his or her needs. The ambience created by such a relationship allows the coach to guide the client's into confronting his or her beliefs, using language to increase the client's awareness of possible choices and the responsibility tied to them. This increased awareness leads to increased courage to face challenges (Krum, 2012).

The coach also helps the client to satisfy basic psychological needs thus helping the client to make growth choices. In addition, life coaching was also reported to increase hardiness through

a focus on creating goals for a desired outcome, making use of resources that the client already has, and planning actions to achieve those goals (Green, Grant & Rynsaardt, 2007). This in turn increases hardiness, a component of resilience, and further influences the increase of courage.

Hope, self-regulation and focusing on positive outcomes are found to help one overcome fear (Curtis & Kelly, 2013). The coach can help the client to overcome fear by changing his or her perspective (Hanssmann, 2014). In the process of being coached, clients learn and in the process of learning they forget their feelings of fear and self-doubt (Downey, 2003).

Coaching also provides space for the client to freely express himself or herself, knowing that there is no criticism or judgment from the coach (Woodhead, 2011). This brings comfort to the client to try new things, look at different options, just generally be more creative, and results in cognitive flexibility while helping to reduce fear (Kets de Vries, 2013).

Boniwell and Sircova (2014) suggested that the use of a balanced time perspective in coaching can help reduce anxiety. This coaching approach helps a client to be active in the present, in what is happening in the here and now, in order to increase his or her confidence in being able to influence future events. Balanced time perspective coaching also helps the client to increase appreciation for life experiences, good or bad, and so reduce anxiety for future choices.

Another way of reducing anxiety is to increase the client's hope (Green et al., 2007). When one has high hope, he or she is low in anxiety (Cheavens et al., 2006) because as high hope confers more resilience on individuals, it reduces their level of anxiety (Worgan, 2013).

Self Determination Theory can also explain how life coaching helps clients reduce anxiety. The coaching relationship supports individuals' autonomy and so reduces feelings of anxiety (Curtis & Kelly, 2013). Also, the solution focused approach emphasises personal strengths and

goal attainment, reducing fixation on problems (Grant & Hartley, 2013) and so shifting the client's attention from unhelpful, anxiety causing thinking patterns (Gabriel et al., 2014).

Adolescent rebellion: Much unbecoming behaviour among school children in Kenya has been attributed to the nature of adolescence (National Crime Research Centre, 2017; Andafu, 2020). While it is widely accepted that the period of adolescence is fraught with challenges for youngsters, and that navigating these challenges can lead to problem behaviours such as those observed in Kenyan schools, Bandura (2006) posits that people's beliefs about their capability to produce results can influence how they negotiate life cycles. In Bandura's view, adolescent development can be addressed from an agentic perspective. To be an agent means being able to self-influence one's functioning and life circumstances, and is characterised by 4 key features: 1) ability to be intentional 2) capacity to think ahead 3) self-regulation and 4) self-reflection or functional self-awareness. These features are enhanced by beliefs of self-efficacy, which is confidence that one can produce desired outcomes from one's own actions. Self-efficacy beliefs affect optimism/pessimism, as well as self-enhancement/self-debilitation, and shape expectations of outcomes including the ability to stay the course. Similarly, the quality of emotional life is affected by one's self-efficacy beliefs.

During adolescence, biological, educational, and social role transitions happen concurrently. At this stage, children also begin to seriously consider what occupation they want to pursue in adulthood and learn many new skills. They also begin to assume increasing responsibility for conduct that affects their future. The way they exercise their personal efficacy becomes particularly significant at this stage. In Kenya, students at this stage select academic subjects that define, and in some cases limit, which career tracks they can pursue. While it may not seem so, most adolescents do negotiate this transition without inordinate discord (Bandura, 1964; Petersen,

1988; Rutter et al., 1976), but for some it is a time fraught with issues such as the misbehaviour observed among students in Kenya.

Self-efficacy was reported to influence every aspect of learning (Bandura, 2006; Pajares & Schunk, 2001). It was found to play a positive role in children's interest and enthusiasm in academic studies (Schunk, 1991). It also assists with self-management in the face of difficulties and competing attractions while playing a key role in occupational development (Bandura, 2006; Betz & Hackett, 1986; Hackett, 1995). This has been linked to social skills, assertiveness and coping with feared events (Schunk, 1991).

Schunk (1991) observed that the more people observed progress on their goals, they more they believed that they were becoming skilful. This in turn made them persist more thus becoming even more adept at goal progress. Schunk also noted that for this to work individuals need to have the skills to work on their goals as well as have positive expectations. Additionally, individuals need to value those outcomes. Schunk also pointed those proximal goals promote self-efficacy and motivation better than distant ones. Helping adolescents create short term goals and guiding them through the process of achieving them is linked to helping them become more efficacious. This, however, has led to criticism that self-efficacy evidence relies on outcomes over short periods.

Collins (1982) also observed that children with higher efficacy tend to persist longer at trying to solve problems. Cassidy (2015) linked it to greater resilience, meaning the capacity to function during adverse times or having qualities that, combined, help a person withstand many of the negative effects of adversity. Daniel et al. (2011) described the following qualities in resilient adolescents: internalised positive values; positive self-concept; socially perceptive and socially mature; have self-belief in their ability to control their own fate.

Some reports have recommended the involvement of parents in resolving the problems of school children's behaviour (National Crime Research Centre, 2017; Ouma et al., 2013; Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and technology., 2001). Indeed, parental involvement is beneficial for various student variables including academic motivation. More specifically, lack of parental involvement has been cited as an obstacle to school improvement (Gonzalez, 2002). No report, as far as this researcher knows, cites the specific use of the parent as a coach to his or her child and how it can apply to the issue of poor behaviour by school children. Still, some studies linked key skills used in coaching to child outcomes. One such skill reported by Goodman et al. (2019) is communication between the parent and the child.

Goodman et al. (2019) connected the content of parent-adolescent communication to greater disclosure by the child, general communication between parent and child and relationship quality. In a study involving 117 dyads of parents and children aged 14-17, Goodman et al. (2019) studied self-reports of the frequency and content of conversations, focusing on whether the conversations were about the strengths or weaknesses of the child. While this study is not about a parent coaching a child it is interesting as it looks at the main vehicle for coaching: conversation. It attests to the assertion that coaching conversations can influence behaviour outcomes by affecting the extent to which a child will share information with his or her parent.

Soenens et al. (2006) further added that empathy and attentive listening in conversations between parents and their children were linked to overall coping and problem-solving skills, which in turn speak to a child's self-efficacy. Another link between parent-child communication was made by Gentzler et al. (2005) who found that it was associated with decreased risk taking and substance use.

The current study chose to focus on the fear of exams and adolescence rebellion which have been cited as the core drivers of undesirable student behaviour in secondary schools in Kenya. This study presents the view that parents can coach their children to overcome fear and anxiety as well as increase their self-efficacy. This will help the child to navigate adolescence without undue disruption to their studies, and untoward behaviour such destruction of property and visiting violence and death upon teachers and other perceived enemies. This recommendation is made because coaching increases self-efficacy, self-regulation, and self-management (Eisenberg et al. 2011; Moen & Skaalvik, 2009), as well as resilience (Yeager & Dweck, 2012; Green et al., 2007), making it a useful approach to manage adolescence related social behaviours, such as have been observed among Kenyan school children.

2.12 Gaps, Controversies and Conflicts

Coaching vs Counselling: An important debate among coaching practitioners and researchers revolves around the differences and similarities between coaching and counselling. Distinctions are based on focus, purpose, and population. Coaching involves visioning, success, the present and living into the future, while counselling is involving psychopathology, emotions, and the past in order to understand the present (Hullinger & DiGirolamo, 2018). This means counselling is viewed to be remedial while coaching is developmental (Lai-Yeung, 2014). For Grant (2003) the distinctions are based on who the recipients of coaching and counselling are: counselling clients are considered pathological and coaching clients being seen as normal. But not everyone agrees, and herein lies the controversy. Bachkirova and Cox (2005) considered the views of counselling as focusing on past problems and being crisis centered while coaching is seen as result oriented and focusing on the present and future to be superficial.

The International Coaching Federation recognises coaching to be different from counselling, and recommends that coaches look out for issues that interfere with a person's day to day functioning as a sign that they need counselling therapy rather than coaching. Counselling is therefore associated with disorder, and the client is assumed to be flawed. This has been associated with shame and inadequacy (Hullinger & DiGirolamo, 2018).

This negative association with counselling is also observed in Kenyan secondary schools where Wambu and Fisher (2015) noted that the students viewed guidance and counselling with suspicion as it is linked to disciplinary issues. This link derives from the introduction of the guidance and counselling policy as a response to the spate of unrest in Kenyan schools. While the service had been established in the 1970s to offer educational and vocational guidance together with psychological counselling, (Wambu & Fisher, 2015) the increase in school unrest in the 1990s and more recently in the years 2016 and 2018 caused the government to revive it. It was positioned as replacement for corporal punishment, which the government abolished concurrently, leading to suspicion and, therefore, under-utilisation by students. Variability in how the service is provided increases controversy as to what exactly guidance and counselling is. Students generally only get acquainted with it when they are referred by the school principal or another teacher for discipline issues. Alternatively, guidance and counselling are offered as crisis intervention when, for example, a student is bereaved and struggling to deal with the grieving cycle (Wambu & Fisher, 2015). Role confusion further clouds the picture, as those who play the role in schools do not have clear identification and some writers believe that the service is skewed towards academic excellence and career choice (Maiyo & Owiye, 2009). Further, those who provide this service have also found themselves in ethical dilemmas over their roles as both counsellor and academic evaluator of the students they teach.

This debate is significant for the current study because guidance and counselling are a core service in public schools in Kenya, and strengthening this service is seen as a key intervention to address issues of social behaviour in schools (Maiyo & Owiye, 2009).

Further, the blurred lines between coaching and counselling at the practitioner level combined with the ambiguity of the guidance and counselling role in secondary schools in Kenya may lead to questions as to what is different about what the parent coach has to offer.

First, it is delivered by the parent and not the teacher. This already removes one of the key challenges faced by guidance and counselling in schools, where the teacher counsellor undertakes the role in addition to classroom teaching and other duties. This teacher's focus is academic excellence and career choice (Maiyo & Owiye, 2009). Overall, this researcher takes the view that what the parent coach does has a wider scope that includes what guidance and counselling is supposed to cover, as it takes a whole child view. In the coach / client relationship the parent considers the child to be fully capable and helps the child to generate his or her own goals in whatever area the child desires (not just academics and career), supports the child to implement actions towards those goals and helps monitor accountability. Critically, the parent coach, when coaching is a partner to the child, and not an authority figure.

Measuring outcomes in coaching: Another debate revolves around measuring or identifying progress in coaching, and involves what to measure, how to measure, when to measure and how to interpret the results.

What to measure: in business coaching progress or return on investment is captured in business and financial outcomes as well as non-financial terms such as leadership behaviour changes (Schlosser et al., 2007). Life coaching relies on behavioural indicators but there is no way of confirming that coaching is solely responsible for the progress (Lai-Yeung, 2014). The coach

establishes what progress means to the client at the start of the relationship, but, the client, especially the child client, may not reveal this due to wariness, or fear if they feel that it conflicts with the organisation (for business) or the parents' agenda, or they may simply not know exactly what it is because they are not yet sufficiently aware to be able to express it.

How to measure: Coaching outcome measures have relied largely on self-reports to assess general measures such as client satisfaction and degree of goal attainment or specific outcomes such as higher life satisfaction after a life coaching intervention (Grief, 2007). Self-reports are subject to biases and limitations, with people being more likely to report what is socially acceptable or preferred (Devaux & Sassi, 2016). Biases can arise from the respondent's introspective ability, their honesty and how they interpret questions, among other things.

When to measure: A third element of outcome measures is timing of the observed behavioural changes. Observations tend to happen during or soon after a coaching intervention, but changes in human behaviour take time, often an unpredictably long time, and these behaviour changes depend on developmental shifts that are non-linear (Laske, 2004). It is therefore possible that the impact of coaching manifests long after coaching, and sometime even long after the measurement of coaching outcomes takes place. There are hardly any longitudinal studies to confirm or deny this.

How to interpret the results: A fourth challenge of measuring outcomes relates to how different people interpret behavioural indicators. The challenge for coaches is to be thorough and clear in clarifying with the client what the expected outcomes are, and in communicating important aspects of what will be addressed in coaching at the start of the engagement, and then to review what was specifically accomplished, and its value to the client, at the conclusion (Steinbrenner & Schlosser, 2011).

Population: In preparing this literature review the researcher relied on coaching studies conducted in America, Europe, and Asia. There is a scarcity of relevant coaching studies conducted in sub-Saharan Africa in general, and Kenya in particular. Without such studies it is not possible to determine whether results found among European, American, or Asian populations are valid for African populations as well, and Africans may argue that outcomes for other populations do not apply to them.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research methodology for this intrinsic, exploratory case study regarding parents' use of coaching skills and its influence on social behaviour among school children in Kenya. It includes a description of case selection and methods used to collect data as well as data analysis and interpretation methods. In addition, the researcher shares her worldview that informs the choice of subject and methodology.

3.2 The researcher's world-view

Research design is implicitly influenced by researchers' philosophical ideas (Creswell, 2007). Therefore, an understanding of a researcher's worldview, that is the fundamental set of beliefs that guide action (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) helps explain the research approaches selected by the researcher. World views are shaped by various influences, including the discipline area of the researcher and his or her experiences. Depending on their worldview a researcher will generally identify with one of 3 possible research approaches: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (Creswell, 2007). Table 3.1 summarises the key elements of 4 different world views (Creswell, 2007; Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

Table 3.1*Four Different Research World-views*

Post-Positivism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determination • Reductionism • Empirical observation and measurement • Theory verification 	Constructivism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding • Multiple participants meaning • Social and historical construction • Theory generation
Advocacy/Participatory <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political • Empowerment issue oriented • Collaborative • Change oriented 	Pragmatism <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consequences of action • Problem centered • Pluralistic • Real-world practice oriented

Post positivism: This traditional form of research has been based on postpositivist assumptions that are applicable more to quantitative research than to qualitative research. This approach is sometimes called "doing science research" or "the scientific method" (Creswell, 2007; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). According to postpositivist philosophy, causes probably determine effects or outcomes, so the problems they study are based on the need to identify and evaluate the causes influencing outcomes, such as those found in experiments. The postpositivist paradigm is also reductionistic, as the intention is to reduce ideas down to a small, discrete set of variables. Knowledge develops based on careful observation and empirical research. In sum, the study of numeric measurements of observations and individual behaviour becomes paramount for a postpositivist. There are also laws or theories that govern the world, and these must be tested,

verified, and refined in order to understand it. As a result, the scientific method is the accepted approach to research by post positivists. An individual begins with a theory, collects data that either supports or refutes the theory, and then makes necessary revisions before performing further tests. (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Social Constructivism: People develop meanings about their experiences based upon their subjective interpretations. These subjective meanings are directed toward specific objects or things. This is what social constructivists believe. In this case the researcher aims to examine the complexity of meanings rather than categorise meanings and ideas. The goal is to understand the situation from the participant's perspective as much as possible. The constructivist researcher addresses the interactions between individuals and the context within which they live and work, in order to understand the participants' cultural and historical backgrounds. Inquirers generate or inductively formulate theories or patterns of meaning rather than beginning with a theory (as in post positivism) (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Advocacy/participatory: A participatory/advocacy paradigm believes it is essential that research inquiry be aligned with politics and a political agenda. Thus, research should aim to influence action through reforms that may impact the lives of the participants, the institutions in which individuals, including the researcher, work or live, and society. Furthermore, it is important to discuss topics relevant to contemporary social issues, including empowerment, inequality, oppression, domination, suppression, and alienation. Typically, the study begins with one of these issues as the focal point. Participants may participate in the formulation of questions, the collection of data, and the analysis of information, or reap the benefits of the research. The philosophy of this worldview emphasises the needs of marginalised or disenfranchised groups and individuals in society (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Pragmatism: This is concerned with solutions to problems and what works. The researcher emphasises the research problem, rather than methods, and utilises all approaches available to understand it. Pragmatic paradigm research uses methods from both qualitative and quantitative fields, as this paradigm encourages the use of both methods if needed (Tashakkori & Teddlie , 1998). Pragmatism opens the door to a variety of methods, worldviews, and assumptions, making it attractive to the mixed methods researcher (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The methodologies commonly used under this paradigm include: Naturalist methodology, Narrative inquiry, Case study, Phenomenology, Ethnography, or Action Research, Experimental methodology, Quasi-experimental methodology, and Causal comparative methodology (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

The researcher in the current study is an educator, having obtained a degree in education, following which she taught secondary school for 4 years, before changing careers. She is also a professional life coach, having received professional coach training, and being a practicing coach for several years. The researcher is also a parent of two children, the younger of whom was aged 17 at the time of beginning this research. The interest of this researcher in the dual topics of coaching and parenting is borne from her own experience as a parent and her practice as a professional life coach. The researcher used coaching skills while raising her children, and observed that they seemed to work when other parents were struggling or finding it difficult to engage with or communicate with their children. The researcher's intention in conducting this study is to highlight the intersection between coaching and parenting, to draw attention to the benefits of coaching skills for parents, and to advance the argument that coaching is unexplored as a potential solution to the problems of undesirable social behaviour as exemplified by unrest among children in Kenyan schools. The present study is therefore intended to help persons towards further understandings (Stake, 1995; 2010). The researcher in the current study subscribes to the

pragmatist approach, and given the pragmatic intentions of this research, which leads to understandings that are born of direct and vicarious experience (Stake, 1995; 2010), a case study design is indicated.

3.3 The Research Design

Broadly, there are three approaches to research. First, there are quantitative approaches. These dominated the middle of the 20th century (Creswell, 2013). Secondly, there are qualitative approaches to research, with roots in post-positivism. Qualitative approaches rely on the collection, analysis, and interpretation of non-numeric data. When the goal of the research is to explain a phenomenon by relying on the perception of a person's experience in each situation, then a qualitative study is appropriate (Stake, 2010). Often, qualitative research is outlined in terms of using words rather than numbers, as is the case for quantitative research (Creswell, 2013). Alternatively, qualitative research seeks understanding by exploring the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human experience, while quantitative research examines the relationship among variables in order to test objectives. The variables can be measured, typically using instruments, and statistical procedures can be used to analyse the resulting numbered data. The third approach involves collecting quantitative as well as qualitative data, integrating the two forms of data, and using designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks. It is referred to as mixed methods research. The core assumption of this form of inquiry is that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either approach alone (Creswell, 2013).

Case study method, on its part, can take either a qualitative or a quantitative approach. In the qualitative approach, case study refers to the in-depth analysis of a single or small number of

units, where the unit can be a person, a group of people, an organisation, or an institution (McLeod, 2019).

Case studies range in complexity from simple illustrative descriptions of single occurrences to more complex social situations over a period (University of Leicester, n.d.). The term ‘case study’ describes an overall method that includes various procedures such as interviews, observations, review of documentation, record analysis and work samples. Case studies are classified as naturalistic, meaning they are suited to the study of human phenomena.

A researcher may opt to use a case study method where she is interested in conducting in-depth exploration and providing thick, rich, and contextual description. Stake, (1995) defined a case study as “an integrated system” and “a specific complex, functioning thing” (p.2). Yin (2009) on the other hand, emphasised the importance of taking relevant context into consideration when trying to understand real life phenomena. The interaction of various variables presented via different sources such as documents, quotes, samples, and artefacts in a study were studied (Merriam, 1998). Case studies are usually founded on verbal data (Flick, 2018), that is a variety of data that primarily consists of words. These words are collected using different methods where participants talk about occurrences, their experiences, their practices their views and the like. A common such method is interviews (Flick, 2018; Hancock & Algozzine, 2016). When participants are being interviewed facial expressions, gestures, movements, and tone of voice provide additional information and may be documented. Additional sources of information for case studies include documentation, records, direct observation, participant observation and artefacts (Stake 1995; Yin 2009) being used to validate the information gained from the interviews.

Case studies can be used in exploratory research, and have been associated with several advantages. These include providing detailed information, providing insights for further research,

and permitting investigation of otherwise impractical situations (Hancock & Algozzine, 2016; University of Leicester, n.d.; Yin, 2017). Case studies describe real-life phenomena rather than developing normative statements. These characteristics of case study allow the researcher to focus on an individual's behaviours, attributes, actions, and interactions (Brewer & Hunter, 1989). To determine whether a case study is the appropriate design Yin (2009) suggests that the researcher should be seeking to answer 'how' or 'why' questions about a current event. Punch, (2005) suggests "how do" rather than "how should" questions. Further, Yin (2009) suggests three primary intentions for a case study. These are exploration, explanation, and description. For Gerring, (2004), case studies can be "small or large, qualitative or quantitative, experimental or observational, synchronic or diachronic" (page 353) and they can encompass one or more cases. Another key factor for the researcher in deciding which approach to choose is whether she will be able to obtain sufficient data. Nevertheless, case studies have some limits. Among them, they are not generalisable, researcher bias is likely, they are difficult to replicate, they are time-consuming and can be expensive, and they lead to the collection of voluminous data which may be difficult to process. The interpretation of such data is subjective.

The present study can be described as exploratory, small, qualitative, observational, and synchronic.

3.4 Population and Sample of the Study

3.4.1 Population

The current study focuses on Kenyan parents and their school going children aged between 14 and 17. This age was selected because these are the children in secondary school, and it is in secondary schools that unrest happens. School unrest is the phenomenon that led the researcher to

question the social behaviour of school going children, and seek to understand how parents instil it. In this study a single case was made up of a parent and one school going child aged between 14 and 17. For each parent and child pair some of the cases also included one of the child's teachers. Cases were selected based on the following criteria:

1) The parent was living with the child and directly involved with the child. 2) The parent expressed willingness to participate in the study, to be interviewed and to share documents. 3) The parent was willing to allow and facilitate contact between the researcher and the child. 4) The parent was willing to facilitate contact with one of the child's teachers. 5) The participants were available during the study period. 6) The participants accepted to be recorded during the interview (audio). 7) The participants were willing and able to participate in a virtual interview. 8) The parent was not a trained life coach.

3.4.2 ilot study

The researcher pretested the interview guide and semi-structured interview questionnaire in a pilot study. A pilot study refers to a pre-test of a particular research instrument such as a questionnaire or interview guide, but on a smaller scale than the full study (Janghorban, Latifnejad, & Taghipo, 2014). This involved 2 parents with their children and the teachers of the children. The purpose of the pre-test was to check for any potential problems and barriers related to recruiting participants, and to assess the acceptability of the interview protocol. Based on the pilot study the researcher was satisfied that the planned methodology would work as no major issues were identified.

3.4.3 ample

Sampling is the technique of reducing the number of subjects in a population to be tested because testing an entire population is not feasible (Taherdoost, 2016). The researcher defines the target population, selects a sampling frame, chooses sampling techniques, and determines a sample size. It is from the selected sample that data is collected and analysed (Taherdoost, 2016).

The sampling frame was constructed through an advertised call for volunteers. In order to acquire cases, the researcher advertised in two ways. First, an advertisement was posted among social groups that she belonged to asking for volunteers who met the criteria. The chosen social media groups were made up of adults, some of whom have children aged 14-17, and had a combined total of 759 members. These groups were: Teenage Parenting Hub for Kenyan Mums and Dads – Facebook group comprising 370 members; Loresho soko Whatsapp group comprising 250 members; and Warwick Alumni Whatsapp group comprising 169 members. Members who wished to volunteer were asked to contact the researcher by email, after which the researcher called them for pre-screening. The researcher intended to make a list 20-30 parents to interview for fit and suitability before settling for 10 to investigate. A total of 22 people responded to the call for volunteers. After pre-interview screening, 9 were deemed to meet the necessary criteria. Of this group, 7 were interviewed.

The purpose of the pre-interview screening was to establish that volunteers met all the criteria, that they understood the requirements, and that they were available within the preferred timelines (29 Mar-4 May 2021). Once this was established, the researcher sent the consent forms for both parent and child, as well as a brief write-up about the study and the semi structured interview guide. In addition, a scheduling link was shared for the parents to schedule time for the interview for both themselves and their children. In some instances, the parent and child were

interviewed one after the other on the same day, while in other instances the interviews took place on different days. In some cases, the parent was interviewed first, while in others the child was interviewed first.

The teachers received a separate briefing, as well as the semi structured interview guide and a scheduling link for themselves. In all instances the teacher was the last of the trio to be interviewed, as their contact details were only received after the parent had been interviewed.

In total 18 interviews were completed: 7 parents, 7 children and 4 teachers.

Figure 3.1

Advertisement for Research Volunteers



Call for research volunteers

I am a Doctoral candidate researching the use of coaching skills by parents. In order for me to complete my research I need to interview some parents and their children (separately). This is a call for volunteers.

- Are you parent to a school going child aged 14-17?
- Are you and your child willing to participate in doctoral research on the use of coaching skills?
- Are you and your child willing to participate in multiple virtual and/or face to face in-depth interviews with me?
- Are you willing to allow me to interview your child?
- Can you facilitate access to one other adult who knows your child well, especially a teacher?
- Are you willing to share documents pertaining to your child's performance and behaviour in school?
- Are you a Kenyan living in Kenya?

IF your answer is "yes" to all these questions, AND YOU HAVE ALSO NEVER RECEIVED COACH TRAINING then please email me, jaki@lifeskillscoaching.co.ke or whatsapp 0728781621 for further details.

Interviews to take place in March/April 2021

All information collected will be used only for the purposes of writing my doctoral thesis, and will be held in confidence and only shared with my supervisor with personal identifiers removed.

3.4.4 Sampling technique

Sampling techniques fall broadly into two groups: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Taherdoost, 2016). Probability sampling is least affected by researcher bias

but it is the costliest from a time and energy perspective (Taherdoost, 2016). Case study research design, such as the current study, is more often associated with non-probability sampling techniques because case studies do not seek to make statistical inferences in relation to the wider population (Creswell, 2013). Indeed, for case studies, a clear rationale for the inclusion of some cases rather than others is more important than representativeness.

The current research employed a non-probability sampling technique, that is, convenience sampling (Taherdoost, 2016). Convenience sampling involves selection of participants because of their easy and ready availability. It is less expensive and easier to arrange and implement compared to other sampling techniques. The researcher considered 3 factors in making this decision. First, from experience, people are more likely to respond to a call for volunteers if they have some association with the person making the request. Drawing from social groups that the researcher already belongs to means there is already some association with members, without knowing them too closely. A second factor is that the researcher anticipated the use of virtual methods to conduct the interviews. Members of social media groups are already used to interacting virtually, and so the idea of virtual interviews would be more easily relatable than for groups that are only used to face to face interaction. Thirdly, recruiting through existing social media groups has a lower cost and higher reach than traditional recruitment approaches such as asking institutions for permission and then scheduling to meet potential participants to brief them before recruiting them. Finally, a digital call for volunteers is easily shareable making it easier to reach a large number of people with one click. One disadvantage of broadcasting the call for volunteers in this way is that additional screening was required once volunteers were identified, to ensure that they did meet the criteria, unlike real-time recruitment where a researcher can verify suitability of a potential participant during the same recruiting engagement. A second disadvantage is that the

researcher had little control over the mix of people who volunteered. For example, it was not possible to balance fathers and mothers, or sons and daughters. Mothers than fathers volunteered, and the son or daughter who was also interviewed is the one who met the criteria among their children.

In the case of calling for volunteers at a forum where the researcher was a speaker convenience is represented by the fact of the coincidental and opportunistic presence of the researcher and parents who might meet the criteria for participation in the research.

There is no agreement in the literature on what constitutes the correct sample size for qualitative studies. In fact, Merriam (2009) suggests that there is no answer to the question ‘how many?’ Discussions on sampling in qualitative research focus on factors to consider when determining the correct sample size. Factors that seem to dominate are first, the richness and appropriateness of information that can be collected from the sample (Patton, 2015; Sandelowski, 1995) and second, the resources such as time and energy required to collect that information (Merriam, 2009). Admittedly, on the matter of resources, Rapley, (2014), cautions that resource considerations should not undermine the research. Other considerations are the appropriateness of the participants and the use of alternative sources of data (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007).

Some scholars address the question of sample size by making direct recommendations on the number of participants. Creswell (2013) suggests that researchers should rather go for extensive details from a few cases, and recommends four to five, while Morse, (1994) suggests six, but cautions that this number should be considered together with other factors, including the scope of the topic and the quality of data. Guetterman (2015) sought to review published studies in order to assess common practices related to sample size in qualitative studies, but there is still no agreement as to the right sample size. Sobal (2001) found an average of 45 participants for

individuals participating in interviews, while Safman and Sobal (2004) found an average of 103, with individual studies involving a range of participants numbering between 2 and 720. Guetterman (2015) found an average of 80 participants in published studies in education, while Mason, (2010) who looked at doctoral dissertations, discovered that the favourite number of participants was 10, 20, 30 or 40 in each study, with an average participation of 31. Given these varying numbers it is not surprising that scholars are encouraged to document their rationale to help their readers understand the choice of sample size, and to be cognisant of the increased chances of researcher bias stemming from the subjective decision about the sample size. Another key topic on sample size in qualitative studies is the need to be flexible in deciding the sample size at proposal stage, as this may change based on observations during fieldwork (Merriam, 2009).

Having considered resources, anticipated quality of information, and expecting a relatively low response rate to the call for volunteers, this researcher decided to go with a sample size of 10 cases, where each case was to involve a parent a child and a teacher (three respondents per case) people, making a total of 30 participants.

From the call for volunteers published in social media groups, 17 people volunteered, out of an estimated 709 who received the call for volunteers. Of these, 10 did not meet the criteria (3 were trained coaches, 5 had children younger than the required age and the children of 2 parents were not willing to be interviewed). Of the remaining 7, 1 person did not show up for the interviews despite several reminders, and 1 other person did not sign the consent forms. This means 5 parents were interviewed from the group recruited on social media. From the group that was recruited at a speaking engagement, 5 (out of approximately 50) volunteered but only 3 met the criteria. Finally, 2 parents were interviewed as the 3rd was not available due unforeseen

circumstances. In total therefore 18 interviews were conducted as each parent who was interviewed also had their child interviewed, in addition to 4 teachers.

Having conducted 14 parent and child interviews, as well as 4 teacher interviews, the researcher concluded that no new information would be gained from additional cases. Furthermore, the researcher was satisfied that she had collected sufficient good quality data to respond to the research questions. According to Creswell (2013) and Morse (1994), going for extensive details from as few as 4-6 cases is an acceptable strategy as long as quality of data is satisfactory.

3.4 The Participants

In this section the participants are described in some detail, in order to honour and respect their individuality beyond the demographics of research respondents, and to give the reader some insights into the people who were interviewed, especially the parents.

Case 1: Parent WM was a 50-year-old mum who worked from home as a virtual assistant. She was married and lived with her husband and 3 children. Her eldest, a son, was 20, and the youngest, a daughter, was 9. MM, the 16-year-old son who was interviewed was the middle child. The family lived on the outskirts of Nairobi city. WM's vision was to raise an honest child who had "integrity, was disciplined, had grit and was capable of authentic interpersonal relationships." In expressing her views on the qualities she believes an individual should possess, WM emphasised the importance of being happy and content with oneself and making the most of one's abilities. She also acknowledged the diversity among people, recognising that people are different. However, in her opinion character is of utmost significance. She referred to it as a vital aspect of survival, mentioning qualities such as honesty, integrity, and discipline. She also highlighted the importance of completing tasks and utilising one's potential, particularly considering one's age.

Ultimately, WM envisioned a future where her son would strive to become the best version of himself.

In terms of her parenting approach, WM recognises the immense responsibility associated with being a parent and terms it as a personal endeavour. She expressed the view that attributing this responsibility to external factors such as neighbours or house helps would be inadequate. Parenting, in her opinion, carries a significant weight. WM said she thrives in an open atmosphere and believes that open conversations foster better engagement, allowing her and her son to address any issues that arise, such as conflicts with peers. WM also acknowledged the difficulty she had receiving criticism. Despite the challenges, she conveyed a desire to maintain an easy-going approach, promoting engagement and a willingness to listen. She expressed a willingness to endure criticism for the sake of helping her children, and insisted that her children should be encouraged to express themselves as well. WM mentioned reading extensively and engaging in discussions with other parents as part of her parenting approach, along with offering prayers for her children's well-being.

Her parenting approach was influenced by the way she was raised and she says that her upbringing was structured. Religion was important to her; she describes herself as being prayerful; she believed that children were not necessarily honest and that it was her responsibility to know the good and the bad about them, and to raise them. She described her style as approachable openness, she said she was open to learning and often has to “exercise self-control” so as not to jump in and “do it” (the task assigned to her child). She described herself as task-oriented and open to experimentation. She said she tried to listen objectively and encouraged conversations with her child. She “exploited learning opportunities” and helped her children to “discover new things.”

She believed that as a result of her methods MM was independent and self-organised; he was a happy, content person and was able to learn from feedback.

Her son MM was a secondary school student and was in form 2 (second year of secondary school in Kenya) at the time of the interview. He went to school at a Catholic secondary school in Nairobi. His favourite subject at school was English, and he also enjoyed the Sciences, that is physics, chemistry, and biology. For extracurricular activities he plays rugby and also plays the piano. In his free time, he writes a blog about his experiences, because he used to enjoy writing compositions in primary school and is exploring what would happen if he put his writing out there. MM described his family as well integrated and very open, with lots of love flowing among them. He appreciated that they “are still together and strong as a family” and he would not change anything about his family.

The teacher CK, aged 40, had known MM since the boy was 9 years old. He was MM’s the class teacher in primary school. Teacher CK had recently left to go teach at a different school.

Case 2: Parent LN aged 49 and his daughter SN aged 16.

LN is an engineer, married with 4 children. SN, aged 16, is the eldest. LN’s wife works for an international NGO and was living in Ethiopia at the time of the interview, but the rest of the family was in Nairobi, where they lived. The other children were 15, 13 and 3 years old.

LN expressed his aspiration to nurture a child who is well-rounded and possesses a harmonious nature, enabling her to attain her life goals to the best of her abilities. Alongside academic excellence, he emphasised the importance of instilling values and principles in the child, ensuring she becomes a valuable member of society who respects and treats others well. LN also highlighted the significance of caring for the environment and mentioned his religious background

as a Catholic, emphasising a balanced approach to this faith. Ultimately, his aim is to raise a child who is both well-rounded and well-balanced, encompassing diverse interests and a holistic worldview.

He describes his parenting approach as collaborative and says that there is nothing his daughter would not speak to him about. LN highlighted his desire for collaboration between him and his wife and their children. He saw this as establishing a partnership where goals are explained in advance, allowing everyone involved to understand them and address any queries. By doing so, they ensure that all family members are on the same page from the beginning, working together as a cohesive unit. Their parenting style focuses on building this partnership and involving the children, seeking their input, and resolving any issues that may arise promptly and collectively.

His own upbringing was under an authoritarian regime, he never questioned what his parents demanded. But he says he recognises that there are greater societal freedoms and access to information and that an authoritarian approach would not work for his own family his methods for instilling social behaviour are telling talking with emphasis on personal responsibility and individual purpose he says he has open communication which happens spontaneously and he applies consequences when needed he believes that as a result of this approach his daughter is independent and can hold a conversation and self-regulates.

SN had just transferred to a new school, a private international school in Nairobi. She liked that the food was good and the teachers were “more comfortable with the students in class.” Her favourite subjects were geography and physics. Geography because “everything is taught” it just “satisfies [her] human questioning” and physics because she likes “knowing the mechanics of

how things work. She described her family as “close and free” and said that they enjoyed spending time with each other and “talking about all sorts of things” and “everyone understands each other.” If she could change one thing about her family, it would be to go out more. This is what she said about her family:

SN highlighted the closeness within their family. She mentioned having a younger sister with whom they share a particularly close bond. However, SN expressed that the entire family is interconnected and maintains open communication. They enjoy spending time together in the living room, without the need for distractions like television or electronic devices. She mentioned engaging in conversations that are both enjoyable and entertaining, sometimes poking fun at each other in a respectful manner. Overall, she conveyed a strong sense of closeness and understanding among all family members. SN also played the piano and was a member of the Nairobi Orchestra. Teacher EA, aged 43, had known SN for 4 years, and was her teacher of Music. Specifically, he was teaching her advanced piano classes.

Case 3: MK, aged 48 was a mother of 3. She lived in Nairobi with her husband and children, and was employed full time by a multinational corporation. She had two boys aged 17 and 15 and a daughter aged 10 years old. Her eldest, GK was interviewed.

MK expressed her thoughts on personal growth and the lessons she hoped to impart to her child. She underlined the importance of self-management and the ability to make informed choices, distinguishing between right and wrong. Additionally, she highlighted the significance of perseverance, the essence of hard work, and fostering harmonious relationships with others. Reflecting on her aspirations for their child, she acknowledged a shift in perspective, recognizing that children have their own individual paths and that life itself often unfolds unexpectedly. She also had expectations of him as a first born - to be responsible and to take care of his younger

siblings. MK's own upbringing was strict and, in her own words 'traditional.' Her parents' words were law and they did not hesitate to use the cane to discipline their children. This greatly influenced her own methods and would use the cane on her son GK, but at some point, she realised it was not working and stopped. She also said that the Bible influenced her approach to child rearing - "spare the rod and spoil the child."

She described her approach as firm but friendly, and emphasised that she was a hands-on parent who demanded obedience and supervised activities closely. She admitted to occasionally questioning the realism of her expectations while insisting on the need to be both firm and friendly in her parenting style. To illustrate this, she mentioned establishing boundaries and making it clear which boundaries should not be crossed. However, she also allowed her son the opportunity to express his opinions and views, although at times she resorted to stating that they would do as she said because she was their mother. MK said that her parenting style is influenced by traditional values, contrasting it with what she perceived as unrealistic portrayals on television. She mentioned having certain expectations regarding her child's responsibilities, such as cooking, doing dishes, and making his bed, and she created schedules to ensure these tasks were completed. She emphasised the importance of doing things correctly the first time to avoid repetition. However, she also acknowledged the challenges of parenting teenagers and the clash of viewpoints that can arise during conversations. She mentioned her annoyance with being interrupted by her son while she was speaking, leading to the rule that the child must first listen before being listened to. MK expressed uncertainty about whether her explanation provided a sufficient understanding of her parenting approach.

She explained that she meted out consequences spontaneously and, in the moment, and would not hesitate to wake GK up if he went to bed before he completed his chores. She saw

herself as a standard bearer for her children and wanted to “fully control” what happened with her child. She considered that as a result of her methods GK was responsible for his own actions, he could self-manage and was ‘improving’ in his co-existence with his siblings,” but still needed to work on cleanliness.

MK’s son, GK, was a student in year 12 (first year of senior secondary) at a private international school in a town just outside Nairobi. He enjoyed Geography and Mathematics in school, and his favourite extra- curricular activity was playing basketball. He was also interested in coding. GK was taciturn and did not speak a lot. He described his family as ‘ok’ meaning normal, and when prodded, he added that they are close, and that he got along with his siblings.

Case 4: AM, 54-year-old mother of two boys aged 30 and 26 and a daughter aged 15. She also had a grandson aged 5. Worked for a government agency and lived in Nakuru, Kenya’s fourth city. Her vision for her daughter was that she studies to a master’s degree level, that she is responsible and independent and that she lives harmoniously with other people. He said the vision was for her daughter to study to master’s level, and that she also wanted her child to be responsible and mindful of others in the community.

AM, in discussing her parenting approach, noted that she is constantly striving to improve. She described their parenting style as hands-on, closely monitoring her child’s progress in higher education and maintaining strong involvement with her daughter’s friends. She explained that her own upbringing played a significant role in shaping her approach, as her parents did not provide much guidance and assumed that she knew everything due to her good grades in school. Reflecting on her own experiences, AM recognised that she had made mistakes and wished that she had received more guidance during her youth. As a result, she stressed the importance of being actively

involved in her child's life and providing the necessary guidance. She acknowledged that her child is still young and relies on her support, particularly in terms of excelling academically. Therefore, she made it a priority to offer the guidance and assistance that her daughter needed to navigate through life successfully. She therefore followed up academics closely, and prodded her daughter in a certain direction because she believed she knew better. She considered her daughter, IG, to be strong willed but that she could be mentored to make the right decisions. AM described herself as tough talking and one who denied privileges when her daughter went wrong. AM believes that as a result of her methods her daughter IG was a person who listened and followed guidance.

IG was 15 years old and went to a private international school in Nakuru city. She was in year 11, and enjoyed science subjects as well as French. She wanted to study mechanical engineering. She liked that her family was made up of different personalities but wished the age gap between her and her brothers was not so big. She wished that her mother would listen more.

Teacher RM, aged 40, was IG's class tutor and had known her for 3 years. She considered IG to be a model student, and IG's mother AM, a model parent. IG was obedient and hardworking at school, she scored good grades and got on with her peers. AM was responsive and present, interested in her daughter's academic progress and cooperative with the teachers.

Case 5: ES aged 43 was a media specialist and graphics designer who ran her own business and worked from home. Her husband also worked from home. They lived in Nairobi and had 4 children - two girls aged 16, 14 and 7, and a boy aged 9. She had never had help in the house and believed it was important that her children learn how to take care of themselves. ES expressed her primary desire for her children to achieve success in life. She stressed the importance of instilling values of goodness and personal growth in her children, and often reminded them of this aspiration. ES underlined her role as a parent in providing support and assistance to her children in any way

necessary. Her goal for her children was for them to become successful individuals who were independent, responsible, and God-fearing. She highlighted the significance of encouraging their children to make an effort and try their best in whatever endeavours they pursued. She acknowledged that she had made every effort as a parent to provide her children with the best possible opportunities and support.

ES's parenting approach could be summarised as an intentional parent who is present and involved with the child. ES saw herself as a guide, she worked hard to develop close bonds, and she supported her child to become competent at whatever she needed to do, for example, house chores. ES' parenting approach was influenced by fear of raising kids who did not turn out right, and Catholic religion was an important aspect of her family life. ES shared her approach to parenting, emphasising her efforts to provide guidance while fostering independence in her children. She mentioned spending ample time with her children and engaging in conversations during daily routines, such as picking them up from school. By organising activities that promote independence, like having the children handle chores and cooking, ES aimed to instil a sense of self-reliance. She described instances where her nine-year-old son prepared breakfast for the family, allowing the parents to have some additional rest. Furthermore, ES speaker expressed the importance of dedicating quality time to each child individually, creating opportunities for open dialogue about any topic or challenges they may be facing. ES shared how she adapted her approach based on the unique personalities of her children, thus recognising the need to handle each child differently. To illustrate how her children differ, ES mentioned that her 17-year-old was open and forthcoming, willingly discussing her concerns, while the 14-year-old could be more reserved and strong-willed, requiring different strategies to encourage conversation. ES

acknowledged that parenting was an ongoing learning process without a manual and that she strove to continuously improve her skills.

ES described herself as a collaborative parent who used role modelling and autonomy support, creating opportunities for her daughter to practice, thus facilitating independence and competency development. The outcomes of her methods are that her daughter SS was open to criticism which she accepted positively, that she was responsible and hardworking, and that she appreciated both big and small things given to her. ES added that there was ongoing development of high self-esteem.

SS was 14 years old, the second of 4 children. She attended a private school in Nairobi. She enjoyed history and languages in school and her hobbies were reading and drawing. She liked that her family was close and she felt that she could confide in them. The one thing that she would change if she could was the age gap between her and her brother - she would have preferred that it was smaller. She described her family as one that was so close knit that she could confide in them easily.

Case 6: SO is 39 years old, married with three sons aged 15, 8 and 5. Her 15-year-old TO was also interviewed. SO discussed her aspirations for their child's overall well-being. While acknowledging the importance of academic and career ambitions, she noted the paramount importance of her child's mental and psychological health. Her primary desire is for their child to grow up as a healthy and well-adjusted individual, prioritising emotional well-being alongside academic and career success. During the interview, SO candidly expressed her experience with parenting and the challenges she has faced. She acknowledged that she has felt overwhelmed and uncertain at times, describing herself as being "all over the place." SO sadly, admitted that her child has become the source of her learning, implying that she made mistakes in her parenting

journey at the expense of her son. She mentioned instances of being too harsh, using her child as an outlet for her frustrations, and not fully understanding her child's needs despite being exposed to them. She went on to describe herself as a parent who is now learning to be less harsh. On what influences her parenting approach, SO declared she grew up knowing that when a child made a mistake you yelled at them, you hit them. She admitted her ad realization that she was just replicating what she grew up with.

In addition to this influence of her own up bringing, SO shared that her husband was affecting her, and that she was learning to be less harsh with her child from him. Further, she was also learning from a new role at work. This role involved training others on behaviour change, and she said that she was picking up some tips from this.

Her son TO, a 15-year-old in his first year of secondary school, enjoyed French and Geography as well as playing football and basketball. TO described his family as supportive and fun to hang out with. TO's teacher PG had known the boy for a year, taught him Kiswahili and was also his class teacher. PG considered TO to have leadership qualities, and had appointed him prefect, but TO declined saying the role was interfering with studies.

Case 7: CM is a 37-year-old mother of 3. Her daughter is 14 and she has to sons aged 6 and 1. CM shared her vision for their daughter's future. She expressed a desire for her daughter to grow into a resilient, powerful, and independent woman. She emphasised the importance of her being able to take care of herself and not succumbing to peer pressure. CM's aspiration is for her daughter to be self-reliant and make decisions confidently, standing by them. CM also stressed the significance of her daughter's spiritual connection, hoping that she will hold onto her faith and depend on God throughout her life journey.

CM described their parenting approach as a combination of being friendly, yet firm and willing to negotiate. She strove to establish a balance where she collaborates with her child in making decisions. CM acknowledged her role as a disciplinarian while underlining that she also aims to be her child's best friend. She wanted to create an open and trusting relationship so that her daughter feels comfortable sharing anything happening in their lives without fear or hesitation.

In reflecting back on her own upbringing, CM decried the lack of a close, confiding relationship with their mother during her childhood. She recalled the fear of immediate punishment when she made any mistakes, which hindered their ability to confide in her own mother. Consequently, she expressed a determination to break that cycle and create a different parenting approach for her own children. She acknowledged the importance of discipline but expressed a desire to foster an environment where her child does not fear her. CM wanted to be the primary source of knowledge and guidance in her daughter's life, to ensure she learns important lessons from her them rather than from external sources.

CM also shared that social media has pushed her to take this position as she realised that her daughter was exposed to much information, some of which she considered unsuitable, through social media. IK, CM's daughter aged 14 described herself as someone who loves to sing and enjoys doing a lot of activities with the family. She said that she loved it that her family did a lot of things together and that her parents were supportive and gave a lot of good advice.

The participants demographics are summarized in table 3.2.

Table 3.2*Demographics of the Participants*

Case No.	Parent	Parent age	Child/ age	Teacher	Teacher Age
001	WM-Mother	50	MM/16/son	CK	40
002	LN – Father	49	SN/16/daughter	EA	42
003	MK – Mother	48	GK/17/son	n/a	n/a
004	AM – Mother	54	IG/15/daughter	RM	40
005	ES-Mother	43	S/14/daughter	n/a	n/a
006	SO-Mother	39	TO/15/son	PG	30
007	CM-Mother	37	IK/14/daughter	n/a	n/a

3.5 Ethical considerations and study procedures

The research was classified as low risk as no potential risks, psychological harm or ethical issues were identified. Written consent was obtained from participants. As it involved children under the age of 18, informed guardian consent was sought before any contact with the child, and the child’s verbal assent was obtained at the start of the interview.

The researcher first contacted parents who had volunteered and who met the research criteria and explained to them what the research entailed and how the interviews would be conducted. Parents then received a consent form for themselves and another for their child. Parents were asked to sign both forms and return them. The researcher found that it was important to make it as easy as possible for participants to join the research. Consequently, for parents who had challenges signing digitally or scanning and sending back the form an email saying “I have read and understood the contents of the attached guardian consent form and I am willing to allow my child to proceed with the research” was accepted.

The researcher did not initiate contact with the children. Parents were asked to speak to their children and then set up the interview with the researcher.

At the start of the interview with the child the researcher asked the children if they had been told about the research by the parents, and on positive confirmation of this, proceeded to inform the child that his/her parent had consented in writing for the child to be interviewed. The researcher checked with the child if they were comfortable and willing to participate in the interview, thus obtaining the child's verbal agreement. The researcher briefed the children about the purpose of the research and reassured them that the information collected was for academic purposes only and would not be shared with anyone other than the relevant academic staff. The children were given an opportunity to ask any questions about the research or the interview process. The researcher also reminded the children that the interview would be recorded, and reassured them that only audio was required and they had the option of turning off the video function on the virtual conferencing tool.

The researcher then proceeded with the semi-structured interview using the interview guide. After that, the researcher asked the structured questions.

At the end of the interview the researcher asked the children if they had any questions, and if it was okay to contact them again through their parents if there was need for any clarification after transcription. The researcher then thanked them for their participation.

Parents also had a pre-interview briefing about the research, and were given the opportunity to ask any questions. The researcher reassured them about confidentiality and that information collected would be used only for the purpose for which they had been told: the study. They had a chance to ask any questions before the interview began.

At the end of the interview the researcher asked for contact details of one of the child's teachers, as well as permission to speak to that teacher about the child. Parents were also asked if it was okay to contact them and their child again in case of any clarification.

Finally, parents were also asked to share school report cards for the child, and the researcher again reassured them that it was for academic purposes. The researcher printed the report cards and blanked out personal and school details from these documents to preserve the identity of the child. The report cards were then re-scanned and saved for the record.

3.6 Data Collection

The researcher collected data from two main sources: 1) Interviews, 2) Documents (school report cards). The researcher conducted in-depth interviews virtually using Zoom, a video conferencing application. This was necessary in view of the COVID-19 prevention protocols that were in place at the time. These protocols urged social distancing and outlawed face to face meetings for people who were living in separate households. A simultaneous recording using a digital voice recorder was also made, for back-up. The Zoom voice recording was then transcribed using Otter, an application that transcribes audio to text.

In addition, the researcher examined school records for the children who participated in the study. Parents shared copies of school report forms using email. The researcher printed the report cards in order to blank out identifiers (child's name and school), and then rescanned them for the record.

3.6.1 *terview*

The study used interviews to collect data. An interview is a technique of gathering data in which qualitative questions may be asked. Interviews get participants to generate profound

contextual accounts of their experiences and their interpretations. From an interview the researcher will gain information pertaining to the personal experiences and how the subjects interpret those experiences (Doody & Noonan, 2013). Interviews can be structured, unstructured or semi-structured (Doody & Noonan, 2013; Creswell, 2007). In order to make the best use of interview time, and to ensure the relevant questions are asked, researchers are advised to prepare a list of the questions or themes they would like to cover, as well as the information they would like to share with the participants before and after the interview (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). The format of these preparatory scripts depends on whether one is conducting a structured, unstructured, or semi-structured interview.

In structured interviews, questions, words, and the order of asking are the same for all respondents (Doody & Noonan, 2013). This allows for time efficiency and reduces researcher subjectivity and bias. The resultant data is also easier to code, compare and analyse. Structured interviews are ideal for collecting socio-demographic data as they leave no room for elaboration where the participant's differences in experience and opinion can be captured (Doody & Noonan, 2013).

Unstructured interviews are non-directive and flexible. They start with broad questions, and subsequent questions depend on how participants responded to preceding questions. The interviewer uses an interview guide made up of themes rather than specific questions. While it allows the respondents individual thoughts to come through, data collected from unstructured interviews can be difficult to analyse (Doody & Noonan, 2013).

Predetermined questions are presented to participants semi-structured interviews, and the researcher probes to gain clarification or further details as necessary (Doody & Noonan, 2013). The researcher uses an interview guide to help collect similar data from all participants. Semi-

structured interviews allow for flexibility and exploration, making it easier for the interviewer to adopt a conversational tone while offering some order.

Jacob and Furgerson (2012) endorsed the use of interview protocols and interview guidelines to help the researcher recall all the information that should be shared with the participant. Such information includes the topic of study and why, explaining what informed consent is and having the participants sign a statement of informed consent, reassuring the participants about confidentiality and asking for permission to record. Doody and Noonan (2013) added that the researcher should begin by explaining the type of interview, its nature and general format as well as the role of the researcher. The researcher should also speak about the duration of the interview and let the participants know if they can ask questions during or at the end of the interview. This information should be shared at the start of the interview. At the end, the researcher should share contact information and remind the respondent that there may be subsequent contact to clarify or ask for additional information (Doody & Noonan, 2013; Jacob & Furgerson, 2012).

Other important things to consider include asking open-ended questions and going from the general and easy enquiries to the more specific and difficult ones (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012; Doody & Noonan, 2013). Jacob and Furgerson (2012) encouraged interviewers to write “big expansive” questions rather than “small detailed” ones (p.4) on their interview guide. Big expansive questions allow the interview to flow freely and to generate what the interviewer may not know to ask about.

The study used both structured and semi-structured questions in the interviews. The first part of the interview was semi-structured, where an interview guide was used to direct a free-flowing conversation, and the second part was structured, using a list of questions that were asked of each participant in the same way. The participants were requested to rate the extent to which

they observed the behaviours listed in the interview schedule. The purpose of the structured part was twofold: 1) to help validate the unstructured part by using common language to describe behaviours commonly regarded as important by parents and teachers whom the researcher has interacted with over the years and 2) checking as the data collection progresses, whether similar language was being used by the participants to describe behaviours, and to update the structured interview questions by adding any behaviours that had not been included. The structured questions were asked at the end, after the free-flowing discussion was concluded. There were different interview guides for the interview with the parent, the child, and the teacher.

3.6.2 Interview protocol for parent

Preamble: The researcher introduced herself and explained what the research objective was, while reassuring the participant about confidentiality of information. She reconfirmed the willingness of the parent to participate. She also reconfirmed that the participant had never received any coach training. She explained the notion of informed consent and confirmed that the informed consent form had been signed. She reminded the participant of the need to record and sought verbal permission to do so. The researcher asked the parent if she/he had any questions before beginning the interview. Finally, the researcher explained that the interview would last 1-1.5 hours.

1: Introduction: ask the parent to introduce herself, what she does, how many children she has and what their ages are. Ask the extent of the parent's engagement with the child. Confirm that the parent will allow an interview session with her child.

2: Vision: talk about the parent's vision for her child. Have her describe the kind of child she is looking to raise.

3: Parenting style: ask the parent to describe her parenting approach. Find out what has influenced her approach.

4: School unrest: ask what the parent knows about school unrest, and what is her opinion of the causes. Segue into children's social behaviour. Discuss the behaviours that would help avert the incidences observed during school unrest.

5: Instilling social behaviour: talk about how the parent instils the behaviours mentioned in her own child. Probe to identify if and which coaching skills are used. Find out if the parent considers that the method she uses is working. How does she tell whether the method works or not? How does she correct them? How does she reinforce them?

6: Introduce the home and community behaviour scales and ask the parent to rate her child.

7: Request permission and facilitation to access to others who know the child, ask what the parent considered in selecting this person.

8: Request access to documentation: report forms, any awards the child has received as well as any other relevant documents.

Close out: Ask the parent if she has any questions. Offer researcher's contact details: email and phone number. Ask for permission to re-contact the parent in case of need for additional information.

Structured Social behaviour interview questions for parent and teacher: Following now are questions regarding certain behaviours that you might have observed in [child]. (Interviewer to probe to understand to what extent this is observed)

To what extent does [child] co-operate (work in a team, do own share of tasks, collaborate) with others?

To what extent does [child] speak about different topics to you?

To what extent does [child] offer differing opinions during conversations?

To what extent does [child] ask for help on tasks or issues when he/she does not know what to do?

To what extent does [child] negotiate rather than insist on his/her way or accept yours /the other people without question?

To what extent does child organise him/herself with regards to school and related activities?

To what extent does [child] get on with peers?

To what extent does [child] do what she/he believes is right even when others are doing something else?

To what extent does [child] show acceptance of feedback?

To what extent does [child] share about problems he/she is facing with you?

To what extent does [child] own up to mistakes?

To what extent does [child] show caring for others?

To what extent does [child] show competence in preparation for exams and other important events?

To what extent does [child] take up tasks that need doing without being told?

To what extent does [child] clean up after him/herself?

To what extent does [child] follow rules at home/school?

To what extent does [child] remain calm when things seem to be going wrong?

To what extent is [child] truthful?

To what extent does [child] voluntarily participate in a variety of activities?

To what extent does [child] try to resolve conflict with others?

To what extent does [child] show respect to others?

To what extent does [child] take care of property?

To what extent does [child] work towards set goals?

To what extent does [child] speak about or show different feelings regarding ongoing events?

To what extent does [child] organise personal time for him/herself?

During analysis the researcher discovered 7 behaviours that were mentioned frequently in the interviews. Consequently, she updated the schedule of questions in the structured interview guide to include those questions, and asked the participants to respond to them. These additional questions are listed below:

To what extent does [child] pay attention to detail?

To what extent does [child] communicate effectively (uses language /register appropriate to the audience and the situation, explains his/her views clearly).

To what extent does [child] care for self (self-care includes taking time to relax, practicing hobbies, eating a balanced diet etc.)?

To what extent is [child] God fearing (Goes to church, attends bible study, reads the bible, prays consistently etc.)?

To what extent is [child] independent (does not rely on you or others for things that she/he knows or should know how to do)?

To what extent does [child] work hard (puts in additional time to achieve results, does additional research, does more than the bare minimum etc.)?

To what extent does [child] manage s his/her time efficiently (balances work and play)?

3.6.3 Interview protocol for teacher

Preamble: The researcher introduced herself and explained what the research objective was, while reassuring the participant about confidentiality of information. She reconfirmed the willingness of the teacher to participate. She explained the notion of informed consent and confirmed that the informed consent form had been signed. She reminded the participant of the need to record the interview and sought verbal permission to do so. The researcher asked the teacher if she/he had any questions before beginning the interview. Finally, the researcher explained that the interview would last 20-30 minutes.

1: Ask the teacher to introduce herself/himself what she/he does and how she/he is connected to the child. Establish the extent of engagement with the child.

2: Ask how he/she would describe the child's behaviour. What does she/he observe that supports hers/his view?

3: Introduce the structured questions and have the participant respond to them.

4: Ask for any relevant documentation.

Close out: The researcher asked the participant if she/he had any other questions. She offered the teacher her contact details: email and phone number. She asked for permission to re-contact the participant in case of need for additional information.

3.7 Documents

The researcher used document analysis as complementary strategy (Flick, 2018) to the interviews. Documents are generally understood to be standardised artifacts that occur formats. Documents are produced in personal activities that require a contextualised interpretation (Flick, 2018). The documents used in this case were student school report cards, and they were provided in digital format. Parents shared their children's school report cards for the years the children were

in secondary school. In order to preserve confidentiality; the names of the children were blacked out.

3.6.4 Interview protocol for the child

Preamble: The researcher introduced herself and explained what the research objective was, while reassuring the child about confidentiality of information. She reconfirmed that the child's parent had given permission for the child to be interviewed, but also sought the child's verbal consent. She reminded the child of the need to record the interview and sought verbal permission to do so. The researcher asked the child if she/he had any questions before beginning the interview. Finally, the researcher explained that the interview would last 20-30 minutes.

1: Ask the child to introduce herself/himself, what class she/he is in, what is her/his favourite school subjects are, what pastimes she/he enjoys.

2: Ask about family: how does the child describe her/his family? What does she/he like about it? What are the things she/he would change if she/he could?

3: Ask about the things the child's parent teaches her/him. How is she/he taught? Probe to identify use of coaching skills. What does she/he like about how she/he is taught by her/his parent? What don't they like? What are the reasons for not liking something?

4: Ask if the child knows about school unrest, and if yes, what does she/he think about it? If no, give a short description and ask what does she/he think about the behaviour exhibited?

5: Introduce the structured questions and have the child respond to them.

Close out: The researcher asked the child if she/he has any question, and reminded the child that she/he was free to contact the researcher through his/her parents if the need arose. The

researcher also asked for permission to re-contact the child through her/his parent in case there was any need for additional information or clarification.

Structured social behaviour interview questions for the child: The following are questions regarding certain behaviours that you may or may not exhibit. Please respond to each question according to your own judgment.

To what extent do you cooperate with others?

To what extent do you speak about different topics to your parent or teacher?

To what extent do you offer differing opinions during conversations?

To what extent do you ask for help on tasks or issues when he/she does not know what to do?

To what extent do you negotiate rather than insist on your way or accept the other people without question?

To what extent do you organise yourself with regards to school and related activities?

To what extent do you get on with peers?

To what extent do you do what you believe is right even when others are doing something else?

To what extent do you accept feedback and show that you do?

To what extent do you share about problems you are facing with parent and /or teacher?

To what extent do you own up to mistakes?

To what extent do you show caring for others?

To what extent do you show competence in preparation for exams other important events?

To what extent do you take up tasks that need doing without being told?

To what extent do you clean up after yourself?

To what extent do you follow rules at home/school?

To what extent do you remain calm when things seem to be going wrong

To what extent are you truthful?

To what extent do you voluntarily participate in a variety of activities?

To what extent do you try to resolve conflict with others?

To what extent do you show respect to others?

To what extent do you take care of property?

To what extent do you work towards set goals?

To what extent do you speak about or show different feelings regarding ongoing events?

To what extent do you organise personal time for yourself?

To what extent do you pay attention to detail?

To what extent do you communicate effectively (uses language /register appropriate to the audience and the situation, explains his/her views clearly).

To what extent do you care for yourself (self-care includes taking time to relax, practicing hobbies, eating a balanced diet etc.)?

To what extent are you God fearing (Goes to church, attends bible study, reads the bible, prays consistently etc.)?

To what extent are you independent (does not rely on you or others for things that she/he knows or should know how to do)?

To what extent do you work hard (puts in additional time to achieve results, does additional research, does more than the bare minimum etc.)?

To what extent do you manage your time his/her time efficiently (balances work and play)?

To what extent do you manage your time efficiently (balancing work and play)?

3.8 Data Collection Challenges

In practice it was more problematic to set up appointments than one would expect. Participants did not respond quickly to messages suggesting appointment times, and many postponed the appointments severally. In some instances, participants would interrupt the sessions to pick calls or go do something like open the door or respond to a question by a family member. This interrupted the flow of the interview, although not critically so. In two instances the interview was stilted because the interviewee was taciturn and responded in monosyllables despite prodding by the interviewer.

Despite the challenges, the researcher conducted 15 in-depth interviews virtually using Zoom, a video conferencing application. In addition, the researcher examined 64 pages of school report cards for the children who participated in the study.

Interviews were recorded using the Zoom application and saved on the researchers lap top computer. While using a conferencing application was convenient due to the prevailing situation occasioned by the COVID-19 pandemic, it was beset by network issues leading to poor audio quality in some instances. In some cases, reception was so poor that we had to resort to using the chat function, where the researcher asked questions in writing and the participant responded orally. In a few cases the challenge of accessing broadband limited the availability of participants to only certain hours of the day.

The use of an automatic transcription service also presented challenges. The transcriber did not recognize accents, thus leading to sentences that did not make sense if looked at purely from a grammatical point of view. In instances where participants used words from their local languages, as often happens with non-native speakers of English, the application did not recognise the words and transcribed equivalent sounding terms which, again, distorted the meanings of the transcribed

copy. This compelled the researcher to read the transcripts and simultaneously listen to the corresponding recording in order to make sense of the text. Fortunately, as the researcher had conducted the interviews herself, this was not too difficult. It was also helpful that she did the first reading very soon after the interview was completed, and was able to recall much of the conversation from memory. The transcribed interview scripts were not corrected, but codes were written correctly in order not to carry the errors in transcription over into the thematic analysis.

The challenges posed by the automatic audio transcription tool informed the researcher's decision to conduct manual thematic analysis.

3.9 Data Analysis technique

The researcher conducted thematic analysis of the data collected during interviews. Thematic analysis is a system for methodically identifying, organising, and offering understanding into patterns of meaning across a data set (Braun & Clarke, 2012). It allows a researcher to make sense of meanings and experiences. The researcher links these meanings to the research questions. The researcher's position in relation to possible options should be laid bare, in keeping with a clear rationale for choices made and reliable application of the rationale across the data set.

According to Braun and Clarke (2012), thematic analysis follows six steps: acquaintance with the data, generating initial codes, initial search for themes, reviewing of themes, naming of themes, and finally writing the report. On their part (Rashid et al., 2019) identify 4 stages: familiarisation, open coding, merging codes into categories and then merging categories into themes. In essence, the researcher works from the data set towards a compressed version of the information, where compression is represented by identifying codes, combining them, and then reducing them into themes.

3.9.1 Interview: Stages of Thematic Analysis

Familiarisation with the data happens through reading, listening, re-reading the scripts and re-listening to recordings of interviews. During this time the researcher makes notes or highlights sections that stand out as she goes along.

The second stage is the generation of initial codes which are the building blocks of analysis. Here the researcher reads with the objective of identifying and labelling features of the data at semantic or latent level that begin to provide interpretation of the data. Codes may mirror the participants' language or invoke the researcher's conceptual or theoretical frameworks. The researcher applies already identified codes as she reads along while also identifying new ones if the previous ones do not apply.

Having identified codes the researcher begins to look for themes in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012), or categories (Rashid et al, 2019) under which different codes fall. Themes are constructed by the researcher who identifies similarities or overlaps and groups topics around which codes cluster. The researcher also begins to explore relationships between themes. This stage ends with a thematic map or table.

The next stage involves reviewing potential themes and is therefore also a quality check. The researcher looks at themes relative to coded data and the full data set.

At the fifth stage it is about naming the themes and asking questions around what is specific and unique about each theme. Each theme is expected to have singular focus, but be related to the other themes. Finally, the researcher writes the report.

While these stages are presented here in a linear manner, they in fact did not happen in a linear fashion. The researcher reviewed interview scripts and familiarised herself with them as the data was collected. As soon as all three parties who made up a single case had been interviewed,

the researcher began familiarisation and coding, and reviewed them again and again based on new codes identified from new interview transcripts. In reality, the first 4 stages happened concurrently and repeatedly until categories began to emerge, helping in reducing the data, and gradually, themes began to emerge.

In order to organise themes, the researcher first grouped codes under headlines related to the parents' interview guide. These headlines are: 1) vision for the child; 2) parenting approach and how social behaviours are instilled; 3) social behaviours observed in the children. Data from the child's interview, the teachers' interview and the school report cards were grouped under similar headlines as appropriate.

The researcher coded manually using Microsoft Word. During the first reading, the researcher highlighted sections that stood out. These highlighted sections constitute the initial codes used in the thematic analysis. This can be seen in the script in the left column. She then created two columns, placing the interview script to the left and transferring highlighted text or representative codes on the right, thus forming the code categories. This was done for all the scripts and is illustrated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3*Example of Initial Coding*

Initial Codes	Code categories
<p><i>Interviewer</i></p> <p>Okay. All right, Rose. So, as you know, the focus of my research is really on, the children's behaviour. So, I have already interviewed IG and her mother. And now I'm just going to ask you a few questions pertaining to IGs behaviour, if you could, how would you describe her behaviour?</p> <p><i>Respondent</i></p> <p>I can say that IG is a <u>highly disciplined</u> student, and extremely [conscious] <u>conscientious</u> in her academic work and in co-curricular activities.</p> <p><i>Interviewer</i></p> <p>So disciplined, conscientious, anything else?</p> <p><i>Respondent</i></p> <p><u>respectful, very obedient. very cooperative.</u></p> <p>Just a wonderful student.</p>	<p>SELF MANAGEMENT</p> <p>Discipline</p> <p>Conscientiousness</p> <p>RELATIONSHIPS</p> <p>Respectful</p> <p>Cooperative</p> <p>OBEDIENCE??</p>

At all stages, the researcher coded with reference to the research questions. Hence, she was looking for words or sentiments that described behaviour, actions related to or intended to instil behaviour, the process of instilling that behaviour, the way the interactions during that process were described and structured, and reactions towards those actions and that process. The researcher also looked for words or sentiments to help explain why the parent chose the methods he or she used to instil social behaviour in his or her child.

Thereafter she collected all the codes pertaining to one headline in a second table, containing three rows: On the top row, below the headers, she placed all the initial codes. The change from presenting the data in column to rows was made in order to make better use of space, as the data was being reduced at each stage, and the first column, containing all the initial codes, was much longer than any of the other two.

The researcher used different font colours to help with initial grouping into categories. Not all codes could fit into the categories, and some codes were not carried over to the next stage. She then transferred categories into the second row before extracting themes into the third row. This is illustrated in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Example of Grouping Initial Codes into Code Categories and then Themes

Interview thematic analysis - Parenting vision	
Initial Codes	<p>Role of parent; Self-perception; Character; Honesty, integrity; Discipline, grit, Decision-making; Authenticity; Interpersonal relationships; Respect; Experimentation; Support; Well-rounded, Well-balanced; Achieve; Values; Excellence; Useful; Respect; Environment; Religious; academic accomplishment; Excellence; Attention to detail; Consistent; Communication; Consultation; Discipline; Grit; Religion; Hobbies; Self-care; Success; thriving good; God fearing; Independent; Responsible; Effort; self-discipline; Self-management; Decision-making; Discernment; Effort; hard work; Co-existence; individual identity; parent's ability; Conversational skills; self-expression; Self-awareness; Choices; Do right; standard bearer; Respect; Empathy; Expectations for first born; Self-respect; Cleaning up after himself; Time management; Self-monitoring</p>
Code categories	<p>Character; Self-management/ how child manifests to others/how child uses intrinsic gifts and external resources; Religion/Spirituality; Co-existing with others/Community participation/involvement; Interpersonal relations; Self-expression/Self-expression/leadership; Tenacity/Self-drive; Relationship with authority; Performance; Role of parent; Parent does not know what to do/Trial and error; First born</p>

Themes	<p>Character</p> <p>Optimal use and care of innate and external resources</p> <p>Co-existence: Living in harmony with others, contributes to the community</p> <p>Interpersonal relations -relating with significant others (parents, siblings)</p> <p>Self-expression - communicating clearly, expressing relevant emotions</p> <p>Relationship with earthly and spiritual authority -following rules, religious practices</p>
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Following this the researcher checked for any relationships between the themes and the theoretical concepts and principles of coaching presented in the literature review.

3.9.2 Analysis

Regarding the student report forms, the researcher looked for social behaviour related words and collated them, then followed the same process as for the interview scripts to extract code categories and themes. This is illustrated in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2

Example of Highlighted Behaviour Words from Report Cards

Caterpillars and owl cakes

Teacher's comments and suggestions for improvement:

_____ is an able student who has been able to understand the concepts taught quite well and participates in class discussions as well as makes presentation after research. He understands the food pyramid and is able to explain where each nutrient should be placed. However, _____ must now learn to be better organised and would benefit from preparing for lessons by having his exercise book in class as well as handing in assignments on time. He must always strive to achieve his potential.

Achievement Level: 4a	Target Level: 5b
Teacher: H. Machatha.	

3.10 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the research method used to answer the three research questions. A discussion of the procedure, study participants, data collection, and interview questions outlined the specifics of how the study was designed and conducted and who participated in the study. A qualitative case study methodology was used to help understand how and if parents in Kenya use coaching to instil social behaviours in their children, why they select the methods they use, and how the children demonstrate those social behaviours. Study participants, that is parents, students, and teachers, made their contribution to this by sharing their experiences and perceptions through interviews. This information was supported by analysis of the children's school report cards which were analysed using thematic analysis for social behaviour references. The goal of chapter 4 is to provide the study results.

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to present the results of this exploratory study which was initiated in order to explore a) what coaching methods are used by parents of school-going children in Kenya, and b) why parents choose the methods they choose to instil social behaviour in their children and c) the social behaviour that the children exhibit.

The idea to study the use of coaching skills by parents came about because of enduring cases of school unrest involving various undesirable behaviours by school children. These undesirable behaviours include arson and teacher assault. When the study proposal was developed in 2018 it was reported that 107 cases of school unrest had been observed (Republic of Kenya, 2019) in Kenya. In 2021, it was reported that 35 schools had been shut down due to arson in the month of October alone (Yusuf, 2021). Away from school, the children are observed engaging in drunken public sex parties during school holidays. Over the years, commissions of inquiry have been set up by the Government to study the issue and offer remedies. Given that the problems persisted in 2021, it is reasonable to say that remedies were yet to work effectively. In discussing the causes of such behaviour, commissioners, journalists, and education officials point a finger at parental omissions in raising their children. However, no specific practicable remedies for the perceived parental omissions are known to have been proposed.

This study submits that a coaching approach by parents could be useful in providing such a remedy because coaching has been shown to transform behaviour (Hulbert-Williams, 2016). However, as it is not clear whether parents use coaching skills in the first place, the researcher sought first to explore the question of whether parents do use coaching skills in instilling social behaviour in their children, and to what effect.

A qualitative case study methodology was employed to explore this phenomenon. Using semi-structured and structured interviews, the researcher spoke with parents and their school going children as well as their teachers. Additionally, the researcher conducted document review of school report forms belonging to the children who participated in the study. There were three objectives of the current study:

First, to understand how Kenyan parents use coaching to instil social behaviour in their children, second to understand why parents choose the methods they use to coach social behaviour in their children and third, to understand how children exhibit the desired social behaviours parents instilled in them. Consequently, the study aimed to answer the following research questions:

RO1: How Kenyan parents use coaching to instil social behaviour in their children,

RQ1: How do Kenyan parents use coaching to instil social behaviour in their children?

RO2: Why parents choose the methods they use to instil social behaviour

RQ2: Why do parents choose the methods they use to coach social behaviour in their children?

RO3: How do children exhibit the desired social behaviours parents had instil in them?

RQ3: How do children exhibit the desired social behaviours their parents instilled in them?

Data was collected through recorded personal interviews of parents, their children, and the children's teachers. These interviews were transcribed using a digital application, otter.ai. Following transcription, the researcher read and re-read the scripts, referring frequently to the recordings, before thematic analysis was conducted. The researcher did inductive thematic analysis based on interview scripts and documents, and deductive thematic analysis based on coaching principles. The result of the thematic analysis is presented in tables, followed by an evaluation of those results.

The chapter also includes sections on trustworthiness of the data, where the researcher presents the methods used to ensure that data is credible, trustworthy, and dependable. As this was a qualitative study, trustworthiness is represented by credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. The researcher will demonstrate how she achieved this.

4.2 Trustworthiness of Data

Trustworthiness in qualitative research is represented by credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln, 1985). Researchers can achieve trustworthiness through several methods to establish credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility helps to establish whether the information drawn from the original data, correctly interprets the participants' views (Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, & Pölkki, 2014) proposed that credibility and trustworthiness can be achieved by describing the process used to create concepts from the data accurately. This process has been described in detail in chapter 3. A researcher can analyse content deductively by starting off with a categorisation matrix developed on what is already known about the phenomenon being studied, and then finding evidence in the data collected. Inductive analysis starts with open coding followed by the creation of categories and then abstraction of themes. For this study the researcher conducted both inductive and deductive thematic analysis. Starting with inductive analysis to identify what the data was revealing, then going to deductive analysis to find what evidence there was to support the use of coaching skills, drawing from the principles of coaching.

Another important aspect of trustworthiness is transferability. Transferability is about how other researchers can transfer the work to other contexts or settings with other respondents. To establish this, researchers need to adopt the so-called “thick description,” where detailed

information about how the research was conducted. In chapter three the process is described in detail.

Dependability requires that the evaluations, interpretations of the findings, as well as recommendations are supported by the data received from the participants. It is important that dependability is not based on the researcher's own viewpoints, but that it is grounded in the data.

Confirmability relates to the degree to which other researchers can endorse the findings of the study, and this is done when data and interpretations of the original researcher can be seen to have been derived from the data presented. This is done in this chapter where results are presented in a logical manner allowing for the reader to see how the themes were abstracted.

For this study the following methods were employed to ensure the data is trustworthy.

4.2.1 hical approvals

The researcher completed the UNICAF University research ethics approval form. This form included several sections summarized below:

i. Declaration of funding

The researcher was required to state if she had received any external funding, and if there was actual or potential conflict of interest. For this study there was no external funding.

ii. Study summary

This was a description of the purpose and rationale for the proposed study. This section included the research questions and a discussion of the expected results. The questions declared in the ethics application are the same as those presented in this chapter.

iii. Significance of the study

This section outlined the potential benefits of the research findings.

iv. Declaration of type of study

This was declared to be an experimental study involving primary research, and the results presented below were derived from such a study.

v. Method

Here the applicant outlined the methods to be used for data collection period in this case it was phone interviews. The interviews were conducted virtually through virtual meeting tools. Some participants used their phones while others connected via their computers.

vi. Participants

This section involved a declaration of whether participants would be recruited. For this study participants were recruited. As such the researcher indicated how many would be recruited and what their key demographics were. The application required a declaration of inclusion and exclusion criteria as well as whether participants with mental disabilities would be included. For this study inclusion criteria were that participants: be parents of school going children aged 14 to 17 years, that their children participate as well, that they were living together, and that they be Kenyans living in Kenya. The study excluded parents who had received coach training. Parents will also be asked to nominate a teacher who knew their child well.

The researcher application also described which groups of participants would participate and what kind of participation was involved. For this study all the participants were interviewed using both semi-structured and structured questionnaire. The application also described how potential participants would be identified, approached, and recruited. The researcher sought

volunteers using a digital advertisement which was circulated on digital social groups to which the researcher belongs. A copy of this advertisement is attached in figure 3.1.

These groups comprised adults including parents of 14 to 17 year-olds. The researcher declared that beyond being parents of teenagers, belonging to the same alumni group and being members of the same bible study group (hence participation in the same social media groups) there was no relationship to the participants.

v. *Consent*

The application was accompanied by copies of both the consent and informed consent forms that would be presented to the adult participants before the interviews were conducted. The signed forms are in Annex 1.

vi. *Risks*

The applicant was required to identify potential risks, including ethical risks, and there were none.

Finally, the researcher made a declaration that she would obtain written consent from all participants, and that she would interview only participants who were in a position to give free and informed consent. She would also gain the consent of parents or legal guardians of the under-age children involved in the study and that these children would be given a chance to offer verbal consent before they were interviewed. The researcher further declared that the data would be anonymous and confidential, and that it would be stored securely for 5 years. The application was approved by the university ethics committee, and all conditions were met during the research.

4.2.2 firmation of results with participants

Having listened to the interview recordings and read and re-read the interview transcripts the researcher summarized the key takeaways from each interview. This summary included 1) what the parent said their vision for their child was; 2) how the parent described his or her parenting approach; 3) what the parent said influenced his or her parenting approach, 4) how they instil social behaviour in their child and 5) what they consider the outcomes to be.

She then called the parents to share the summary and to see if it reflected what they had said. The main purpose of this action was to reduce the impact of the researcher's own views.

4.1.3. Corroboration

While corroboration does not aim to determine whether people's perceptions accurately reflect a given situation, it is intended to make sure that the research findings accurately reflect people's perceptions, whatever they may be. Researchers use corroboration to evaluate the probability of other researchers viewing their findings as credible or worthy of consideration (Stainback & Stainback, 1988) .

Among other things, corroboration in qualitative research increases validity, reliability, authenticity, replicability, and accuracy. Several methods are employed by the researcher to achieve corroboration and reduce faulty observations, biased analyses, and inaccurate conclusions. For the conduct of surveys, the analysis of data, and the interpretation of outcomes, it is important to have some degree of verification. Corroboration can reduce interviewer or researcher bias, as well as respondent bias in survey research.

For each case consisting of parent, child and teacher, the researcher interviewed first the parent then the child, followed by the teacher. While data on behaviours observed in the child was

collected from the teacher, this interview with teachers also served in part as a corroboration strategy. The researcher wanted to see if there were major discrepancies between the way the parent described the behaviours of the child, and what the teacher reported. The researcher noted that teachers' observations and parents' observations were not so dissimilar as to cause concern. School report cards also served as supporting documents, as the remarks from various teachers would help to determine if there were serious discrepancies between what parents said about their children's social behaviour, how the children self-rated on their own social behaviours and how the teacher who was interviewed reported on the child's social behaviour.

4.1.4 *l*ation

The use of multi methods of data sources to develop in-depth understanding of phenomena in qualitative research is known as triangulation (Patton, 1999). Triangulation can also be seen as a strategy for testing the validity through the convergence of information from various sources (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, & Alba, 2014). Four types of triangulations have been identified (Patton 1999; Carter et al, 2014): method triangulation is the use of multiple data gathering tactics about the same phenomenon. It includes combining, for example, interviews, observation, and field notes. Investigator triangulation is where two or more researchers in the same study offer multiple observations and conclusions. This serves to enrich a study through provision of alternative perspectives. Theory triangulation uses more than one theory to analyse and interpret data, and is useful for offering additional support to confirm or refute a hypothesis. Data source triangulation happens where information is collected from various sources and helps to enrich perspectives and validate data.

The researcher used data source triangulation by seeking data related to the child from two adults who saw the child in different contexts and scoured documents for additional data. Method triangulation was employed where both inductive and deductive thematic analysis were used to analyse the data.

4.1.5 ting the process used in abstracting themes

A core issue in qualitative research is researcher bias. As a parent of teenagers, a coach, and a former teacher it is expected that the researcher's personal approach to parenting may have influenced her interpretation of the information gleaned from the interviews. Further, the researcher's training and experience as a professional coach is likely to have impacted the phrases and words that stood out for her, and, therefore, the themes that were abstracted. Also, the researcher suspends judgment. The findings as observations and there is no does not pronounce a verdict to whether what parents said they did was good or bad.

In order to reduce the impact of this, the researcher documented the process used to extract themes from the data. First, familiarisation, involving listening to the audio recording and reading the transcripts severally. The researcher did this for each interview as soon as it was concluded, and then again, several times during the process of thematic analysis. Then researcher generated initial codes during the first few readings of the scripts. First it was phrases and words that stood out and then a more deliberate effort to look for phrases and words that were linked to the study. The initial codes, which are extracted verbatim from the interviews, were first highlighted using a coloured marker pen. Coding is a preparatory step in helping make data accessible and ready for interpretation ((Flick, 2018). These highlighted excerpts were then transferred to a table and, using different colour fonts, grouped for similarity, thus developing the code categories. These coloured

initial codes are presented for the reader to see how they were grouped together to create code categories. The researcher then searched for themes before naming them and using them to produce the report. This process was not linear as the researcher went back and forth grouping and regrouping code categories and naming and renaming themes.

4.1.6 eer review

Peer review is an age-old method of validating research before it is published (elsevier.com, 2022). Peer review helps to check that research reports contain quality content and that they are authentic (Sadeghieh & Adeli, 2014). Peer reviewers can also help researchers with additional perspectives related to the report. Knowing that work will be reviewed helps researchers aim for high quality original work that maintains intellectual integrity (Sadeghieh & Adeli, 2014). Peer review may not work well if the reviewer has malicious intentions or the peer-reviewed and the researcher know each other too well, leading to the peer reviewer offering good reviews for the sake of friendship. Researchers seeking to have their work validated should aim for a peer-reviewed who will do the work justice. In open review the peer reviewer and the researcher know the identity of each other (elsevier.com, 2022).

The researcher asked a peer (professional coach) to review the study. The terms of reference for the peer reviewer were as follows:

1. To assess whether the report was sufficiently informative and if the content of the report was consistent with the objectives of the research.
2. To determine whether the purpose of the research was clear, and whether sufficient background information has been given.

3. To assess whether the interview results were described with sufficient detail and determine their credibility.
4. To determine whether the discussion was clear and focused, and whether the conclusions were an appropriate interpretation of the results.
5. To determine whether the research report was clearly written, and if the content seemed logical.
6. To determine if the recommendations were clear and useful.
7. To provide any other findings that the peer reviewer deemed suitable and appropriate for the improvement of the report.

The peer reviewer's report is attached as Appendix 1.

4.1.7 iability and validity of data

Reliability in qualitative studies is represented by truth value, which is attained through the accuracy with which findings represent the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Validity, on its part, derives from consistency of analysis and neutrality or confirmability. Smith and Noble (2015) suggested that where truth, value, consistency, and applicability are demonstrated, neutrality and confirmability are too.

For the current study validity was established by using auditable methods to analyse the data. Initial codes are lifted from the interview scripts or documents. The categories derived from these initial codes are presented next to the initial codes, and readers can see how the categories were grouped from the initial codes. Although different researchers may name the categories differently, what matters for validity is that a link can be seen from the initial codes to the code categories to the themes. The researcher has tried to demonstrate this in the tables illustrated in

subsequent sections of this report. These tables include the initial codes as highlighted and lifted from the interview scripts and documents, the code categories as surmised by the researcher and the themes abstracted based on the code categories.

4.1.8 4.1.8 Findings

In this section, the findings of the study are presented in tabulated and graphical form. Having collected data in the form of interview scripts the researcher conducted both thematic and deductive analysis in order to respond to the research questions. The tables and figures are organised as follows:

First, a summary of the cases involving a tabulated description of the participants that made up each case. Then, to answer RQ1 on how Kenyan parents use coaching to instil social behaviour in their children - thematic analysis on how parents instil social behaviour, and deductive analysis based on principles of coaching and key coaching actions. This is followed by analysis to answer RQ2 on why do parents chose these methods they use to coach social behaviour in their children - thematic analysis on parents' vision for their children, parenting approach and what influences parenting approach. Thereafter, analysis to respond to RQ3 on how children exhibit the desired social behaviours their parents instil in them - thematic analysis of school report forms and responses to the structured interview questions. Finally, a table summarising key themes from the full data set.

Table 4.1*Description of The Cases*

Case no.	Description	#Interviews
001	Mother aged 50 with son aged 16 and son's teacher	3
002	Father aged 49 with daughter aged 16 and daughter's music teacher	3
003	Mother aged 48 with son aged 17	2
004	Mother aged 54 with daughter aged 15 and daughter's teacher	3
005	Mother aged 43 with daughter aged 14	2
006	Mother aged 39 with 15-year-old son and son's teacher	3
007	Mother aged 37 with 14-year-old daughter	2

Findings on how parents coach their children: In order to assess how parents coach their children, the researcher looked at how parents instil the social behaviour. This was done by conducting a thematic analysis of the interview scripts relating to the question “*how do you instil the desired social behaviours in your child?*” The results of the thematic analysis are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Thematic Analysis on How Parents instil Social Behaviours in Their Children

Initial codes
<p>First and foremost, is not comparing him with anyone. These are the tasks you're supposed to do. So, when you do it, how you do it, it is really up to you... it is really a shift because I tend to want to also really control... also letting him also tell me when I'm when I'm off</p> <p>I'm giving them responsibilities ...so at times, I can just go sit in my room so that I don't start helping out.</p> <p>He just looks at me, then will you allow me to say something. So, it's something that I've had to unlearn, and relearn again. So, it is just listening. Difficult one. And really end up being shouted matches. So, to me it is that it's like I've had to take a step back.</p> <p>And actually, you know, listen,</p> <p>It can be any set up, you're just seated, or just taking a walk...you breathe in, breathe out as you listen... you've agreed to disagree.</p> <p>We have allowed him to express himself.</p> <p>Even in my young days when I used to go and dance the whole night,</p> <p>but there are other things that you can see are harmful.</p> <p>You know, if you're smoking weed, then if you can allow me also to let's be, let's put it in the menu in this house. Let's all be smoking weed. Do you think it's a cool thing?</p> <p>If you think it's not, then let's all not.</p>

we'll need to do a corrective approach. There'll be things that that will be withdrawn from you, you know,

and then want to see a structure or a timetable...oh Yes, I can really be a mother hen through conversation; this is what I think you should be doing; you need to do ABCD. I also do follow up; I always come back and say, you know, we spoke a month ago. So how far have you gone? I do supervision,

If I have assigned your responsibility, like making sure that all the containers that need to have water, if you go to sleep, then I'll wake you up ..., go and fill up the containers. You didn't do that before you went to sleep,

which creates a lot of friction, but it's good because then they learn eventually,

(On planned meetings) I have tried. So, it's not something I do. As in generally do.

What I find is that when it's something that he has an interest in, then he will do that; So that part aspect of that planning, then he's able to do that. And then he'll come back and feedback and say, ma'am, this is where I'm at, at the moment. This is where I have an issue

So, they're assigned anchors, then they don't refer to them as mentors

There's just had expectation he will deliver period.

I'm not blocking any access; I think you should be able to manage yourself

(When it doesn't work) We have a very tough conversation.

This is what I expect you will do and you will go and you will do it now. So, it's really it happens a lot more like reprimanding rather than a conversation.

that is using brute force. It works.

Is this the right approach or not, but I found, I think at some point, I accepted? Look, this is this child, I'll try and approach it works, it doesn't work, we'll see where they get the result or not.

Unfortunately, for him, because he's the eldest, I keep feeling like this a bit. A lot of experimentation,

And reprimanding for me is not some silly fluffy things like a demerit instilling the behaviours by following up on what she does in school

I involve myself well with what she's doing, her homework if she's having problems with the homework.

I hope it's working.

I correct. I am a bit tough in that area.

I just need to talk to her in a very tough way.

I corrected that, she has to stop, she has to talk about the issue, resolve it, and then move on no sulking for more than one hour.

I take away some.... privileges?

First things first

So, if you come from school, when you rush, we arrive in the house, what are the first things that we need to do? How are we planning ourselves?

self-initiative to be able to manage your own time.

they plan themselves

So, they, they make their own schedules

to have tasks, different tasks for each of them, and then try as much as possible to ensure that everyone does what they're supposed to do.

tried as much as possible to tell them every day, every day, the importance of God in their lives.

We pray in the car.

We have someone who prays on Monday, someone who leads that who lives in prison Tuesday or Wednesday on Thursday. Sometimes we have prayer requests, if someone has exams, if someone is going through something, you know, we just and then we pray for them.

as parents, we are involved in church activities, we are in the family life group

So, they can see that we are serving God.

consistently tell her... what is my purpose here? So, we have this kind of talks quite regularly;

It's very rare for us to organize formal meetings.

It's more spontaneous, was just part of our culture. We talk I think about on every topic.

walking the talk, so this is sort of implementation of what is agreed.

You could be denied TV watching rights.

We have conversations

go for dates, or shopping, right. Let us go to the soko (market) then we just start talking.

I go through her phone I see something that is not so good. I pick it from there.

she just starts talking to me about her boyfriend? Tell me about [...] Then she'll open up.

Also, when I find a clip or some books that I know . They can improve her life I purchase them ; I send to her the clips.

it's just about helping him through and seeing what kind of person he turned turns out to be

Instead of pushing you maybe just try to engage him.

Code categories	<p>Telling; practice; Talking; Talking; Facilitating Practice; Talking is straight forward; Clear; Correction; Talking; alternative behaviour; Spontaneous – no meeting; Allows freedom to accomplish before follow up; Trust</p> <p>Consistent telling; individuality; purpose; Team player; Individual; Decision making; Goals; Informal conversations; Talking; Child freedom to express; Spontaneous conversations; Open communication channels;</p> <p>Agreement; Denial of privileges; Conversation; Telling and monitoring; Supervision (close); Repetition; Immediate consequences; Structures session did not work; Child's own interests; No room for failure; monitoring;</p> <p>Demand/telling; Self-doubt/questioning; Trial and error; Non strict tone; Not stressful; Becomes a part of you; Not forced; Advice giving</p> <p>Choice; Interruption; Disagreement</p>
Themes	<p>Verbal action; moment of action; parent self-confidence; Setting standards; consequences; follow-up</p>

In addition, thematic analysis of the children's interview scripts was done to see how parents instilled social behaviour from their children's point of view.

Table 4.3

Analysis of Children Interview Scripts: How Social Behaviour is Instilled in Them

Initial codes
<p>She'll say; tells me and shows me; She mostly just tells me,</p> <p>she sends me the number to book for myself; she trusts; she doesn't listen to my point of view,</p> <p>I don't think he (it) gets resolved; Because I don't want to be, like disrespectful; Just agree to disagree; I feel misunderstood, but like I've gotten used to it. We're talking; Like, so we'll be watching a programmed together; Linking to real life experiences;</p> <p>he just uses opportunities, or maybe things that are happening around?</p> <p>everybody has to have a timetable of their own; he monitors</p> <p>punishments, like, for example, you get your phone taken,</p> <p>It's spontaneous. It's just in the moment.</p> <p>It's not being forced to listen;</p> <p>Through talking; simple exchange... beat me; corporal punishment, and now it's yelling... when you really want something nice, she has the ability to give to you. If you she'll make sure you, you don't rush her or anything... more in her actions. gives us house chores; constantly reminding us... make a comment ... she'll tell you that she didn't like what you've done... sometimes we have these (meetings)</p> <p>She teaches me a lot about God. how to do the house chores. But the how to wash utensils how to wash the house. Do cleaning. Take care of my younger siblings. Yes, she teaches me how to cook. And how to grow up into a person who like, helps a lot person who is friendly.</p>

<p>Reminding me over and over, they insist</p> <p>They tell me as many times as possible, so I do not forget.</p> <p>Harsh enough that I like what don't forget or don't take like a joke. That kind of harsh.</p>	
Code categories	<p>Tone of verbal interactions - telling, yelling, harsh talking</p> <p>Timing of verbal interactions – spontaneous, teachable moments</p> <p>Impact of verbal interactions on the child – resignation, surrender</p> <p>Sharing of parents' own experiences</p> <p>role modelling</p> <p>Consequences - punishment and denial of privileges</p> <p>Accountability – monitoring, trusting</p> <p>Practice</p>
Themes	Telling; practice; accountability; correction;

Further to inductive thematic analysis, deductive thematic analysis was done based on existing knowledge about the principles of coaching, and how coaching is done. Based on this the following categories were used, and the researcher examined the data to deduce whether there was evidence of the principles being present in what the parents were doing. In order to respond to the question on how parents coach their children, the researcher sought to see whether actions by parents could be classified as coaching. To determine this, the researcher examined evidence showing principles of coaching applied, and that these combined with acts of coaching. These

principles are that 1) coaching is structured, 2) it is child-centered and 3) coaching is facilitative.

The coaching actions are 1) co-creation of goals, 2) conversation and 3) action planning.

Table 4.4

Categorisation Matrix used in Deductive Thematic Analysis on The Data.

Coaching principles	Coaching actions
Coaching is facilitative: parent creates an atmosphere where the child feels safe, comfortable, and willing to participate.	Co-creation: both parent and child are involved in determining the issue and the solution
Coaching is child centered: parent considers and meets the child's needs	Conversation - talking is bi-directional
Coaching is structured – there is an objective of the session (beginning), discussion (middle) and action planning (end)	Action planning – there is plan of action and follow up

In order to assess if the principles of coaching were applied, the researcher read through the interview scripts looking for phrases that may be linked to the categories in the categorisation matrix. Some phrases suggested that a category was at play, while other phrases suggested that the category was not at play. The researcher then wrote down the phrases on sticky notes. These sticky notes were stuck onto larger sheets of paper with headlines representing the different categories under review. The results are presented in Tables 4.5 - 4.14.

<p>Phrases that support a child centered stance</p>	<p><i>I have had to take a step back and listen...also letting him tell me when I am off.</i> (001-P-WM)</p> <p><i>I have come to realize that I need to handle them differently.</i> (005-P-ES)</p> <p><i>I realized kids have their own plans.</i> (003-P-MK)</p> <p><i>You don't even realize you are being taught. It's almost like you are teaching yourself</i> (parent does not impose) (001-C-MM).</p> <p><i>Helping him through and seeing what kind of person he turns out to be[...]</i> <i>who knows what he will turn out to be?</i> (006-P-SO).</p>
<p>Phrases that suggest the stance is not child-centered</p>	<p><i>Sometimes she does not listen to my point of view. If I try to explain she keeps on repeating the same thing.</i> (004-C-IG)</p> <p><i>I feel misunderstood, but I have gotten used to it.</i> (004-C-IG)</p> <p><i>Because he is the eldest, he will (must) carry himself in a certain way.</i> (003-P-MK)</p> <p><i>When she is annoyed, she has to stop... resolve it and move on. No sulking for more than an hour.</i> (004-P-AM)</p> <p><i>This is what I expect you will do and you will go and you will do it now.</i> (003-P-MK)</p> <p><i>I don't think it gets resolved. I just say ok...I don't want to be disrespectful.</i> (004-C-IG)</p>
<p>Related themes</p>	<p>Parental learning; authority.</p>

Table 4.7

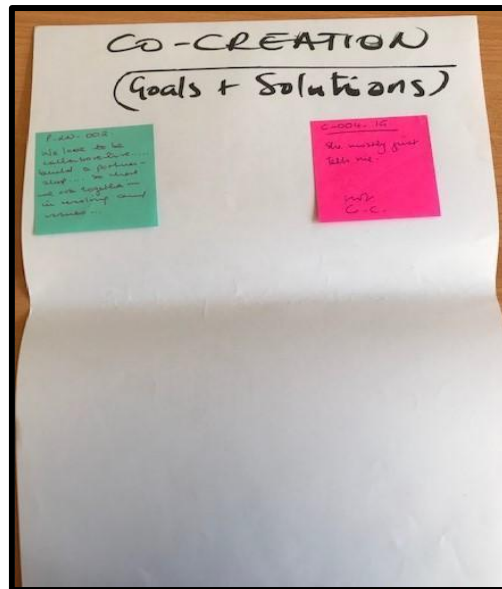
Deductive Analysis for Category 'Coaching is Structured'

Category 3: Coaching is structured – this principle was not demonstrated by the data.

Table 4.8

Deductive Analysis for Category 'Co-creation of Goals and Solutions'

Category 4: Co-creation (of goals and solutions)

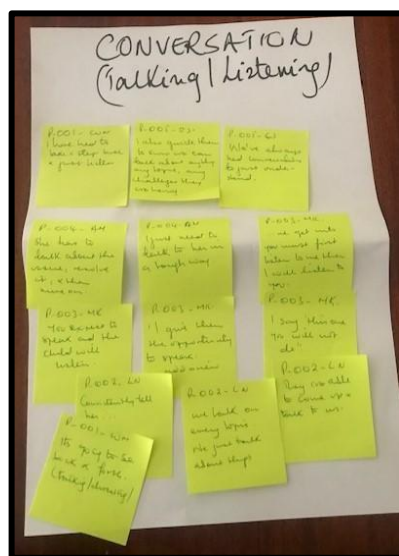


Phrases that suggest co-creation	<p><i>We look to be collaborative.... build a partnership so that we are together in solving issues (002-P-LN)</i></p> <p><i>Firstly, we have a chat[...] then she tells me herself what she will do[...]</i></p> <p><i>she's the one who comes up with the ideas. (006-P-CM)</i></p>
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Phrases that suggest absence of co-creation of solutions.	<p><i>This is what I expect you will do and you will go and you will do it now.</i> (003-P-MK).</p> <p><i>I don't think it gets resolved. I just say ok</i> (004-C-IG)</p>
Related themes	Authority; Collaboration

Table 4.9*Deductive Analysis for Category 'Coaching Conversation*

Category 5: Conversation (talking and listening)

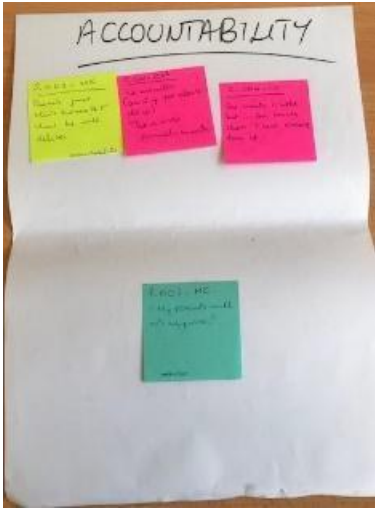


Phrases that suggest conversation	<p><i>I've had to take a step back... and actually, you know, listen.</i> (P-001-WM)'. <i>I also guide them to know that we can talk about any topic, any challenge they are having.</i> (005-P-ES).</p>
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happens (bi-directional)	<p><i>We've always had conversations to just understand. (005-P-ES).</i></p> <p><i>We get into "you must first listen to me then I will listen to you". (003-P-MK).</i></p> <p><i>It's going to be back and forth'. (001-P-WM)</i></p> <p><i>There's listening[...], suspending judgement. (006-P-SO).</i></p> <p><i>I see something that's not so good, I pick it from there [...] We start having these discussions...other times she just starts talking to me. (007-P-CM).</i></p>
Phrases That suggest it is unidirectional	<p><i>She mostly just tells me. (004-C-IG).</i></p> <p><i>Sometimes she does not listen to my point of view (004-C-IG).</i></p> <p><i>She has to talk about the issue, resolve it and move on. (004-P-AM).</i></p> <p><i>I say "this one you will not do". 003-P-MK.</i></p> <p><i>We consistently tell her. 002-P-LN</i></p> <p><i>Now it's just yelling. 003-C-GK</i></p> <p><i>She will tell you to make your bed. 001-C-MM</i></p> <p><i>The tone is very demanding[...] it's asking for fear or something. (006-C-TO).</i></p>
Related themes	Verbal action; parental learning; authority

Table 4.10

Deductive Analysis for Category 'Action Planning and Accountability'

<p>Category 6: Action planning and accountability</p> 	
<p>Phrases that suggest an accountability process</p>	<p><i>There is just this expectation that he will deliver. (003-P-MK)</i></p> <p><i>My parents will not approve. (003-P-MK)</i></p> <p><i>She (mum) waits a bit. She trusts that I have already done it. (004-C-IG)</i></p> <p><i>He (dad) monitors. And if you don't do it, there are consequences. (002-C-SN)</i></p> <p><i>I know she will read and come tell me. I usually tell her mi sitasoma (I won't read it). You go read and tell me what the book is all about. (007-P-CM).</i></p>
<p>Related themes</p>	<p>Authority; consequences; trust</p>

A further analysis to find words or phrases that suggest need supportive behaviours was done. In this case the researcher looked for phrases uttered by the parents, which described their behaviour or suggested their behaviour, and grouped these phrases according to whether they were needs supportive or not. The verbatim phrases are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Examples of Phrases That Suggests Needs Supportive Behaviours by Parents

Autonomy support	
Eliciting child's perspective, emotions	<p><i>"Do you feel that these things are good? That they are positive for you?"</i> 006-P-SO asking son after he was found looking at 'unsuitable' websites.</p> <p><i>"What do you think those teachers should have done?"</i> 006-P-SO</p>
Providing menu of options	No example was found
Providing rationale for advice given	<p><i>".so, who do you expect to flush and clean the toilet after you? If you did your own small responsibility, then it will have a spiral effect. – 001-P</i></p> <p><i>"That your body still needs rest. It doesn't matter if its school holidays or not, your body needs rest" - 001-P</i></p> <p><i>"You (the parent) can achieve what you want. Yeah. by explaining to people what needs to be done". 002-P.</i></p>

	<p><i>“ Because negative friendships could even send you down a black hole like, you start smoking, for example” - 002-P</i></p>
Minimising control/judgement	<p><i>I can only leave it to my children so that they are able to express themselves” – 001-P</i></p> <p><i>“These are the tasks you are supposed to do. So, when you do it, how you do it is really up to you” - 001-P</i></p> <p><i>“I’ve had to take a step back and, actually, you know, listen”. 001-P</i></p> <p><i>“He can even come from nowhere and tell me some really awkward stuff [...] I just have to listen I can’t even make a face. 006-P-SO.</i></p>
Competence Support	
Be positive about potential success	No example was found
Identify barriers	No example was found
Skills building/problem solving	<p><i>“To let them learn how to even, you know, do things on their own”- P-005</i></p> <p><i>“We consistently tell her... Remember, first, the first thing is that you are an individual, you are an individual. Yeah, you might be in a system or in a group, peer pressure, what not. But remember, you are an individual,” - 002-P</i></p>

	<p><i>“They plan themselves....and then I try to ensure that everyone does what they're supposed to do. Yeah, sometimes it flows very well, sometimes it doesn't”- 005-P</i></p> <p><i>“I taught him how to bathe himself.” 006-P</i></p> <p><i>“I try to demonstrate” 006-P</i></p>
Create an appropriate level of challenge	No example was found
Relatedness support	
Develop a warm, positive relationship	<p><i>“And spend as much time as possible with them” – 005-P</i></p> <p><i>“I have also tried as much as possible to create time for each child, and just spend quality time with them. And just find out how they're doing”- 005-P</i></p> <p><i>“I pick him from school during mid-term and we have lunch together, without the others.” 006-P</i></p> <p><i>“We just sit down and have a mother-daughter talk”. 007-C</i></p>
Provide unconditional positive regard	<p><i>“Not seeing them through the eyes of somebody else -001-P</i></p> <p><i>Not comparing him with anyone else” – 001-P</i></p> <p><i>“...they're all different. So, I have tried to find ways of trying to, you know, to find [out] a way how to handle them</i></p>

	<p><i>with their own different personalities, and make the best out of it". – 005-P</i></p> <p><i>"Whether they just heard that mom and dad are coming today. And [said] we need to make sure that their house is spotless, we don't care, but at least we know that the fact that they can take care of themselves" – 005-P</i></p> <p><i>"I'd like to say that I want him to be a social person, but [...] it's just helping him through and seeing what kind of person he turns out to be."006-P</i></p>
Be empathic with the child's concerns	<p><i>"Even in my young days when I used to go and dance the whole night, on the next day, and it's not that I'm taking alcohol or anything, it's just your system. We can't, you know, we just had a discussion, and I said, there's no medicine so I truly just try to drink as much water as you can"- 001-P</i></p>

Note: the fact a no examples were found for some needs supportive behaviours is not an issue, since the interviews were not designed to specifically elicit that.

In the following section phrases that suggest needs thwarting behaviour are shared. Parent-003, established, right from the outset, that she was in control:

Q: How involved are you with your children?

A: *Like 110%? If you could see in their nervous system, I think, yeah, you could see that.*

And this controlling theme is supported by the following statements all from the same parent: “...for me, that's a given. I expect that you will respect yourself, you'll respect your own body.” (No room for negotiation)

“I create boundaries, I set boundaries and say this one, you will not pass. But then. But then I give them the opportunity to speak, you know, if they have a different view, then they can add a view. And unfortunately, sometimes we end up with you will do that, because I'm your mother. And I need you to do that. Yeah, it's got nothing to do with your worldview, whether you think there's a legal issue associated with that legal angle, or a societal angle.”

“So that is something that I have an expectation of, and I create the schedule, myself, and then I make sure they execute. And if they didn't do the right things, then they have to repeat until they're able to understand and see how to just get it done right the first time to avoid repetition.”

“I like to just clarify the expectations. I say, look, this is where we are. And this is what I think you should be doing for someone and your age, then you know, you need to do ABCD.”

“Then I also do follow up to say, so have you created a schedule? What are you doing about it? So that he can execute? And then three to also create a lot of space for review, because I always come back and say, you know, we spoke a month ago. So how far have you gone?”

“If I have assigned your responsibility, like making sure that all the containers that need to have water in their(the) house have water, if you go to sleep, then I'll wake you up - go and fill up the containers. You didn't do that before you

went to sleep, which creates a lot of friction, but it's good because then they learn eventually, even if it takes a month or two that you know, they have to do that if they don't want for someone to come and wake them up."

Q: And how do you ensure accountability on his part?

A: *What do you mean accountability? There is just the expectation he will deliver*

"What do you mean, this is not happening? This is what I expect you will do and you will go and you will do it now. So really it happens a lot more like reprimanding rather than a conversation."

And there was also indication of conditional regard/lack of empathy towards child's view:

"And after he did that camp, he decided he wanted to do something around basketball. So, he developed a program for his nutrition for his nutrition, his exercise, he's, and then he came back now and asked whether he can go ahead and go for basketball training sessions, etc. So, it wasn't the right time. But then we had a composition (conversation) around then what he would need to do. And, we had a conversation around whether his goal was actually realistic, because he wants to go and play in the US for Boston Celtics, etc., etc."

This apparent conditional regard for the child was also exhibited by 004-P, who gave her daughter 1 hour to sulk: *"She has to stop that she has to talk about the issue, resolve it, and then move on no salting (sulking) for more than one hour"* - 004-P.

Yet, even where needs thwarting behaviours are suggested, there is a recognition of the child's innate tendencies *"I realised that kids have their own plans and life also takes its own course"* - 003-P.

4.1.8.2 Findings on how parents coach their children to instil social behaviour

i. Parents use telling, accountability and authority to instil social behaviour in their children. Three kinds of telling were identified: instructional telling, informational telling and storytelling. Telling was further described in terms of the tone of voice used, for example yelling, and moment of action. On direction, it was found to range from unidirectional top-down instructions, which are most unlike coaching:

“I say this you will not do” (003-P-MK);

“She mostly just tells me” 004-C-IG;

“Sometimes she does not listen to my point of view” (004- C-IG).

To collaborative conversations which are most similar to coaching:

“We’ve always had conversations to just understand” (005-P-ES).

“It’s going to be back and forth”- (001-P-WM)

“She doesn’t force you” – (001-C-MM)

“We are free with each other. We tell each other everything.” 007-C-IK

“We sit down and have a mother-daughter talk” 007-C-IK

In one instance, tone and gestures were used by the parent during the interview implying that top-down instructions were issued, leaving no room for the child to express an opinion or suggest an alternative action. *“I expect that when I talk, they listen”* (Spoken firmly with accompanying no-nonsense facial expression) (003-P-MK). This tone and facial gesture brook no argument. The child has no say. The child of this parent said: *“Now it’s just yelling”* – (003-C-GK). Similarly, another parent implied that her child must do what the parent wants: *“She has* (tonal emphasis on ‘has’) *to talk about the issue and move on”* (004-P-AM). The emphasis on ‘has’ demonstrates that it is an instruction to the child, who has no option but to do as she is told.

This position is confirmed by the child of this parent who said: *“Sometimes she does not listen to my point of view. If I try to explain she keeps repeating the same thing”* (this is said in a resigned tone) (004-C-IG).

Asked whether this resolved matters for her, the child responded: *“I don’t think it gets resolved. I just say ok”* (in a resigned tone). (004-C-IG). But there is also telling that is informational rather than directive: *“Your body still needs rest. It doesn’t matter if its school holidays or not, your body needs rest”* - 001-P. *“Because negative friendships could even send you down a black hole like, you start smoking, for example “*- 002-P.

And story-telling: *“Even in my young days when I used to go and dance the whole night, on the next day, and it's not that I'm taking alcohol or anything, it's just your system. We can't, you know, we just had a discussion, and I said, there's no medicine so I truly just try to drink as much water as you can't sleep”*. 001-P.

Sometimes parents repeat themselves more than is necessary - from the child’s point of view, eliciting, perhaps, the wrong emotion. *“They insist...it’s just insisting [...] it’s scary sometimes”* - 006-C-TO.

ii. Parents exert authority that they consider to be God given.

“This child was given to me (by God) (001-P-WM) . This authority is used to set the standards or rules and to enforce accountability, including use of consequences. When speaking about her son not following the crowd, P-003 said he can say to his friends : *“My parents will not approve”*. This suggests that the child is expected to evaluate his choices based on the parent’s standard of behaviour (contrast this with a child saying “I don’t believe that is the right thing to do”.) For this same parent, there was no question of her son not doing what she asked him to do: *“There is just this expectation that he will deliver”* (003-P.MK). Parents in this study also use

their authority explicitly to monitor the agreed actions of their children, and the children know that they ought to do it otherwise there will be consequences, “... *if you don't do it there will be consequences*” (002-C-SN). But sometimes authority is used implicitly or quietly, because the parent knows that the child will do what is expected, and, on their part, the child, recognises that subtle authority. 004-AM trusts her child to do the thing they agreed, and her daughter acknowledges this: “*She trusts that I have already done it*” (004-C-IG). “*I know that she will take care of it and she will read it*”-007-P-CM. 001-P-WM doesn't insist on things being done her way but her child knows and acknowledges his mother's authority. When asked how his mother asks him to do things he responded: “*it's usually not in a very strict manner. You know, that you have to, ... it's like, you know, that she knows what she's doing. So, there's no point in refusing to clean up after yourself*” (C-001-MM). The child recognises his parent's inherent authority. While it may be argued that the parent child relationship is by default hierarchical, some parents make the effort, in some situations, to consciously ‘override’ this default setting for the sake of a collaborative spirit (O’Brion & Palmer, 2009). P-001-WM says: “*I have had to take a step back, and...you know, listen*”. This does not come easily to her (conveyed by her tone of voice). That she exercises self-restraint is also seen in this statement: “*To me it's to really drawback because with my nature, I can (be able to) do all those things. Yeah, so at times, I (can) just go sit in my room so that I don't start helping out.*” Further, she does not impose her way of doing things and gives the child latitude to decide some things, like when to complete a task, within certain boundaries: “*These are the tasks you're supposed to do. So, when you do it, how you do it, it is really up to you.... if you decide you're going to wash the car at midnight, so that it's ready for me... I'll be leaving tomorrow at 6 am*”.

Parent 007 observes how the daughter relates with her little brothers, and learns from it, even though her way would be different: *“I want to stop beating them (the little brothers) [...] because I see when her brother wrongs her, she talks to him, and it’s kinda working.”* 007-P-CM

Contrast P-001 with P-003, who imposes on the child what should be done, and when, and insists that it be done that way: *“Sometimes we end up with you will do that, because I’m your mother. And I need you to do that. Yeah, it’s got nothing to do with your worldview”* and *“If I have assigned you responsibility, like making sure that all the containers that need to have water in their house have water, if you go to sleep, then I’ll wake you up”*.

iii. Parents act as role models.

When asked how her mother teaches her to be hard working 005-C-SS says: *“... (it) is more in her actions. Because she’s always working”*. 007-C IK says of her mother: *“other things, I get them from her behaviour. The way she is, the way she acts. What she does.”* 006-P-SO recognises that she should model the behaviour she expects from her children: *“I try to demonstrate”*. On instilling God-fearing behaviours, 005-P-ES says: *“So basically, ... as parents, we are involved in church activities, we are in the family life group. ...So, they can actually see that we are serving God”*.

iv. Parents create opportunities for their children to practice.

“We have gone away for the weekend and left them alone” - P-005

v. Parents also use accountability to instil social behaviour. This includes follow-up and monitoring; use of consequences, opportunities for practice, self-regulation and role modelling. *“I create the schedule myself...and then I make sure they execute”* - (P-003-MK). *“We have gone away for the weekend and left them alone”* – (P-005-ES). *“She (mum) waits a bit. She trusts that I have already done it”* (C-004-SS). *“He (dad), monitors. And if you don’t do it there are*

consequences”- (C-002-SN). *Child sets the action: “they set the schedules themselves” - (P-005-ES). “And then for her I don’t choose like, punishment... tells me herself what she will do. How she’s going to rectify the mistake that she’s made. 007-P-CM*

4.1.8.3 Why parents choose the methods to instil social behaviour in their children

In order to discover what influenced the methods used by parents to instil social behaviour in their children, a thematic analysis of responses related to 1) the parent’s vision for their children, and 2) what influences the parents’ approach, was conducted. Results of the thematic analysis based on the question “what is your vision for your child?” are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

Thematic Analysis on Parent’s Vision for Their Child

Initial codes
<p>I want to be the frontline person; the most important things to me are the character.</p> <p>survival things. Like do you speak honestly, you know, through thick, you know, do you have integrity,</p> <p>discipline to finish whatever you start, to be the best of himself; authentic;</p> <p>How do you relate to people; relationships are crucial; if you tell me what to test to be a bit, I'll walk with you; a huge, huge responsibility.</p> <p>We're looking to raise a well-rounded child. well balanced, who will achieve, you know, her goals in life to the very best of our abilities? a child who, who has their values and principles, apart from the excellence, looking at somebody who will be useful in the society. Respects other people who treat other people cares about the environment? apart from academic excellence, a</p>

well-balanced person, somebody with a hobby; who is Christian, we are Catholics, without being fundamentalists. well balanced use of religion. So just a well-rounded and well-balanced child. pursuit of excellence; doing things properly, Paying attention to detail. consistent. studying consistently. communicates well, consults or escalates a matter if he's not able to resolve an issue disciplined, go the extra mile self-care

we look to be collaborative with the children, to build a partnership where we explain the goals, they understand them in advance together and resolving any issues

be a person who was able to manage himself in life, make the right decisions to know right from wrong, to also be able to exert himself, because I just to teach him the essence of working hard, also be able to live with others.

At some point, I had all these aspirations of people being architects and pilots, but then I realised kids have their own plans;

He's able to hold those conversations to also be able to express curiosity interest. And, and where their knowledge gaps to also, you know, quickly say, look, I have knowledge gaps;

when something is outside of a value system that we have taught him Anything, then he also needs to be able to state as such to his colleagues and say, look, I cannot do that it is not right. I don't believe it is right.

And I'm saying that in respect of the things that I have fears around, which are drugs, alcohol, sex, pornography.

also respect; how to treat women how to treat others,

because he's also the eldest, there's an expectation that he will carry himself in a certain way.

relating to his parents,

I expect that you will respect yourself, you'll respect your own body. As I say with that also comes cleanliness.

To to be able to manage your room and also manage your property. Yes. So, as you get into adulthood, then you stop losing stuff. You need to know where all your stationery is, for instance, ability to manage his own time

be able to also do reviews so that he can see where he didn't do the right thing and see if there's room for improvement. Without me probing

My vision is for her to study up to master's level. She wants to do sciences. So, I'm encouraging her to do that.

responsible and mindful of people, mindful of people in our community.

I want her to be independent. Uh, huh. Make her own decisions. And of course, to follow. Just follow her passion.

I just want them to be successful

God fearing independent, responsible So I just want them to try. I guess whatever it is that they do, they must try.

I don't need to tell you every time. discipline in terms of First things first, what needs to be done just has to be done.

A healthy, well-adjusted human being. Aside from the, you know, the academic ambitions and career ambitions, I want him to be healthy and well-adjusted mentally psychologically.

a very strong, powerful, a nice, strong independent woman.

will be able to take care of herself.

Someone is not going to be bent to peer influence. Someone who is not going to depend on a man.	
Code categories	<p>role of parent; Self-perception; Character; Honesty; integrity; Discipline; grit; Decision-making; Authenticity; Interpersonal relationships; Respect</p> <p>Experimentation; Support; Well-rounded; Well-balanced; Achieve; Values; Excellence; Useful; Respect; Environment; Religious; academic accomplishment; Excellence; Attention to detail; Consistent</p> <p>Communication ; Consultation ; Discipline ; Gri ; Religion ; Hobbies</p> <p>Self-care; Success; thriving; good; God fearing; Independent; Responsible; Effort; self-discipline; Self-management; Decision-making</p> <p>Discernment; Effort; hard work; Co-existence; individual identity; Conversational skills; self-expression; Self-awareness; Choices; Do right; standard bearer; Respect; Empathy;</p> <p>Expectations for first born; Self-respect; Cleaning up after himself</p> <p>Time management; Self-monitoring;</p>
Themes	<p>Resources: Optimal use and care of individual gifts as well as external resources</p> <p>Co-existence: Living in harmony with others, contributing to the community, relating with significant others (parents, siblings) Communicating – Conversation communicating clearly, expressing relevant emotions</p>

	Authority: Relationship with earthly and spiritual authority -following rules, religious practices.
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Results of thematic analysis of the interview scripts relating to the questions “*What is your parenting approach?*” and “*what influenced your parenting approach?*” are found in table 4.13.

Table 4.13

Thematic Analysis on parenting Approach

Initial codes
<p>I try as much as possible to guide them accordingly. To let them learn how to even, you know, do things on their own. And spend as much time as possible with them</p> <p>we've always had conversations to just understand how they are days where, you know, everything that is going on with them</p> <p>organise so that they would to be independent in terms of even handling their own, doing like chores</p> <p>our kids have learned to cook clean their rooms, their beds, you know, things everything to create time for each child, and just spend quality time with them. And just find out how they're doing,</p> <p>We spend a lot of time together and in the process of spending a lot of time we talk.</p> <p>And I also guide them know we talk about anything, any topic, any challenges that they're having.</p>

And I also guide them know we talk about anything, any topic, any challenges that they're having.

I've come to realise that I need to handle them differently.

And sometimes I feel like I tend to give her more responsibilities or ask and because it's so easy for her to do

So, I have tried to find ways of trying to, you know, to find out a way how to handle them with their own different personalities, and make the best out of it. ... and just talking a lot like I really talk a lot to them, I'm not perfect yet. It's still work in progress. Yeah, parenting is one of those things that there's no manual, and books, you know, and we can't raise our kids the same way.

There is nothing that I fear like having kids who are not right, in this society, it is what drives me, that is what is me. So, because of that, I try as much as possible to ensure that I do my best and talk to them

And we talk about the influences what is happening in the society, anything that is happening, I'm just hoping to talk, but honestly, just the fear that my kids won't turn out, right, makes me do whatever it is to ensure that I have done my best as a parent. That is what influences me. my own parents did not, did not have an influence on me, they thought, because I was getting good grades, they thought I knew it all. So, they let me make my own decisions, even though I was quite young. So, I tried to be more involved. I tried to be more involved with her so that I guide her I know, from that experience, I know that I made some wrong decisions, which he might have guidance at. done differently. So now I make sure I provide the guidance that she needs, because I know she needs to depend if she's doing well in school.

I think firm.

I also set very high expectations. Sometimes I asked myself for them also being realistic,

I create boundaries, I set boundaries and say this one, you will not pass. I give them the opportunity to speak,

if they have a different view, then they can add a view.

And unfortunately, sometimes we end up with you will do that, because I'm your mother.

Yeah, it's got nothing to do with your worldview, whether you think there's a legal issue associated with that. or a societal angle,

also relate back to traditional aspects of parenting

I create the schedule, myself, and then I make sure they execute.

in terms of conversation, as a parent, you expect to speak and the child will listen, but they tend to have their own views

we look to be collaborative with the children, to build a partnership where we explain the goals, they understand them in advance together and resolving any issues

I grew up in a quite an authoritative environment myself, my parents would just tell me what needs to be done. And it had to be done. the opportunity to ask questions was really not there.

Because it will be taken as rudeness? so the rules were very, very tough. when I got my children

I said, okay, still, you can achieve what you want. by explaining, I don't need that. Again, policing people. That's a lot of work.

as freedom has come into our environment, so has it gone into their homes?

I thrive in an atmosphere where, where we are open:

God help me to receive, you know, the criticism attached?

I also read a lot. And I discuss it with I discussed just issues with other parents. And of course, I pray a prayer for them.

I just like some kind of order.

Maybe it's even from childhood.

we leave your child with the house help or an aunty.

And I just think that we give we give them too much responsibility.

when you shift the responsibility to somebody else, I think even the expectation of that child becomes unreasonable.

when you're the frontline person, you actually just see how, how, how we need to be trained more.

we need to just go back to managing disciplining our children the way it's been stated in Proverbs.

like my children, I ask, who do you expect to flush and clean the toilet after you,

let me not delegate this duty.

This child was given to me.

So can I be the frontline person.

When I reflect in terms of how I grew up, and the things I went through? At that point, they seem so negative, but right now, I think, look, I turned out all right. So why not try some of that?

You can still have conversations with children without smacking them all the time. You, you can still ask them to do their chores and to supervise and make sure that they've done it without turning it into a beating means therefore do definitely get five strokes of a cane. Yeah. So, there are different ways of implementing exactly the same things and making sure that the children

learn how to take care of themselves. And they also understand that we have a value system, otherwise, we wouldn't have any value system.

I grew up knowing that, yeah, if a child is making mistakes, you yell at them, you chapa (hit) them.

I realise I'm just replicating what I grew up with

another thing that really pushed me was my husband

my up bringing

So, when I was growing up, we didn't have that close connection with my mom

I decided to change

I don't want them learning things outside there before they learn it from me.

their environment nowadays. If you're not close to your kid, you're just going to lose your kid

Social media

I saw what's happening on social media and the way it's influencing the kids

Code categories

Personal responsibility; own character; Openness; God; Curiosity; self – expression; prayer; character; likes structure; responsibility; nature-of-child; frontline; Getting trained; know-your-child; Blaming-others; perception-of-child; God; Collaborative; Partnership; Understanding; Together; Resolving issues; Upbringing; different way; Freedoms; boundaries, traditional aspects; have their own views; Firm; Demanding (high expectations); Authoritarian; what used to happen when I was growing up; Controlling; cannot control everything; hands-on;

	<p>close follow up on education and her friends; reflection on own parents: doing things differently; Own parents did not influence, focused only on grades; I try as much as possible to guide them accordingly. To let them learn; spend as much time as possible with them; Guide; Autonomy; Conversations; Practice; Presence; recognizing Children's' individuality; Accommodating different personalities; Learning on the job; Wanting to succeed as a parent; Children who turn out right; social media</p>
Themes	<p>Parenting is a responsibility. Parent as the Authority: . Parents are vulnerable</p> <p>'Parents are influenced by their own parents.</p> <p>Learning on the job. External environment</p> <p>Religion/Spirituality.</p> <p>Adaptation/Flexibility: Parents have to adapt for each of their children.</p>

Parents' choice of method to instil social behaviour in their children is influenced by five factors.

i. First, what they have learned from their own experiences of being parented, from reading and also from social changes in the environment, including social media. In the case of learning from their own parents, this current study showed that parents either do what their parents did, or avoid it.

"Maybe it's even from childhood". (001-P)

"I grew up in a quite an authoritative environment myself, but my parents would just tell me what needs to be done. And it had to be done... it was quite tough, very

disciplined environment. And I said, you know, I don't need that. Again, policing people. That's a lot of work." (002-P)

"My own parents did not, did not have an influence on me, they thought, because I was getting good grades, they thought I knew it all. So, they let me make my own decisions, even though I was quite young. So, I tried to be more involved. I tried to be more involved with her so that I guide her I know, from that experience, I know that I made some wrong decisions, which he might have guidance at. done differently." (004-P)

"When I reflect in terms of how I grew up, and the things I went through? At that point, they seem so negative, but right now, I think, look, I turned out all right. So why not try some of that? Because when I grew up, if my brother rioted and went home, ... he would receive, ...the beating, it would be so severe, he would not even think about it the next time." (003-P - has used corporal punishment).

"I realise I'm just replicating what I grew up with" (006-P-SO).

"So, when [I was] growing up, we didn't have that close connection with my mom. I decided to change"- 007-P-CM.

"I also read a lot. And I discuss it with I discussed just issues with other parents. And of course, I pray a prayer for them". (001-P)

"it's my parents and two ... it's (the) Bible." (003-P)

"I attended...parenting class". (003-P)

"People could see that people are questioning the president, people are having debates. And of course, then that showed that it was possible even in the home" (002-P).

ii. Secondly, parents are influenced by what they want for their children. Parents have a vision of the kind of child they want to raise, and they believe that the methods they choose will help them raise that kind of child.

“(I want him to be) content with who he is, I think making the best of his abilities...how do you relate to people? their peers, people, and even the younger people? Since I think relationships are crucial, and they can really take you far”- (.001-P – describes her approach as open).

“We're looking to raise a well-rounded child. Yeah. well balanced, who, who will achieve... her goals in life to the very best of her abilities. And, of course, a child ... who has values and principles, so that at the end of the day, apart from the excellence we seek, we also are looking at somebody who will be useful in the society.” (002-parent who decided against the authoritarian approach own parents too, and who encourages child to talk about any topic with him).

“I just want them to be successful. Right. And I keep telling them every day, almost every day that they just must make it they must be good kids. So, they must thrive in whatever it is that they're doing. And I'm there, as parents we are there to support them in whichever way that they need. So, I just want them to be successful”. (005-P – parent whose greatest fear is that her children won't turn out right).

“Following up on what she does in school, ..., going for all clearance meetings, because the school sends emails to, especially this time of COVID they send emails to let us know what is happening...o I ensure that I read all the emails (and) respond appropriately. And also, when she's home I involve myself with what she's doing, her homework if she's having

problems with the homework (I help)". (004-P parent whose vision is for her child to study to master's level).

iii. Thirdly, parents choose the methods they use based on what they believe about parenting and its potential outcomes. Parents believe that they have a responsibility to raise their children, and that they cannot delegate this authority.

"Yes, I want to be the frontline person...This child was given to me (by God) so can I be the frontline person." - 001-P

"This (child) is your project. I mean, you can't you can't start saying" oh, my neighbour or my parents. To me, it's such a huge responsibility" – (001-P)

"I still say, parents have a responsibility ...and then when the children misbehave in school...there's no point in going to school for an open day session (discussion). And then a teacher tells you "This child when I tell him to sit down, he stands up", and you look at the child and you say, "why do you do that Daddy?" Yeah, my responsibility is to smack you." (003-P-MK).

iv: Fourthly, parents are influenced by their spouses.

"[...] my husband does that (probing, doesn't talk down at TO, talks him through finding his own solutions) [...I'm trying to mirror what he is doing." (006-P-SO).

v. Parents are influenced by their work /professions

"I moved into an area called behaviour change communication [...] training people how to use these methodologies [...] it just dawned on me as I was doing this [...] that I have an adolescent [...]so I just began slowly." (006-P-SO).

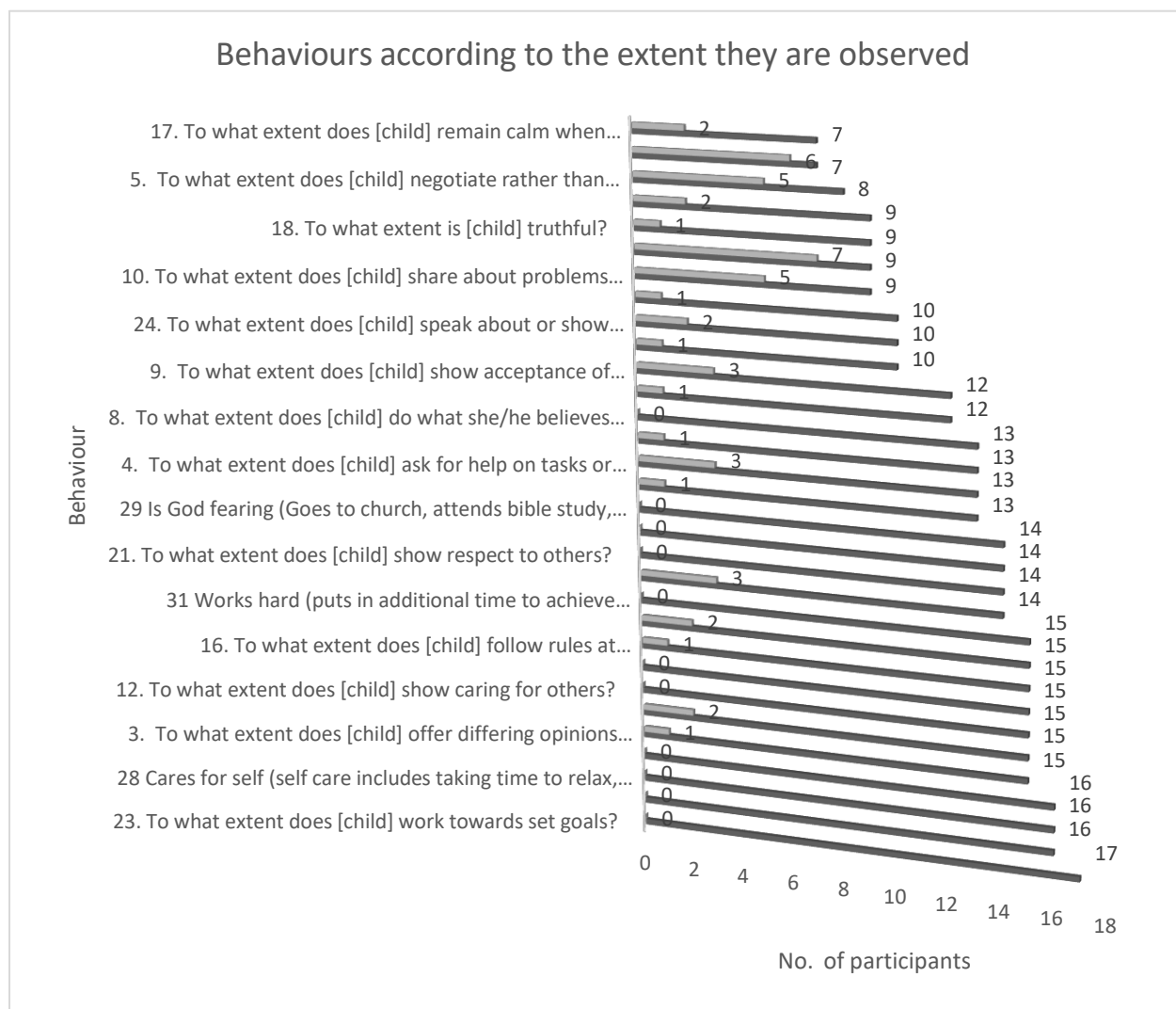
4.1.8.4 How children exhibit the social behaviour instilled by their parents

In order to assess how children exhibited the social behaviours parents instilled in them, thematic analysis was conducted based on 1) the structured interview questions and 2) school report cards. The results are presented in Figure 4.1.

To analyse the structured interview question responses the researcher examined which social behaviours were consistently described as being observed to a great extent or to a very great extent by all the participants (parent, child, teacher). This was done by making a mark each time the social behaviours described in the structured interview was said to be observed to a great extent or to a very great extent. These marks were then counted and the corresponding behaviours sorted in descending order to see which social behaviour words appeared more often than others. The graph in figure 4.1 shows the results of this analysis.

Figure 4.1

Behaviours According to Extent to Which They are Observed



All in all, the behaviour of owning up to mistakes appears to have been observed to the lowest extent. The researcher also analysed school report cards, checking for social behaviour related words and phrases. The results are presented in table 4.14.

Table 4.14*Thematic Analysis of School Report Cards*

Initial codes (words used on the report cards to describe the students' behaviour)	<p>Punctuality; contribution to tutor lessons; cooperation with other students; respect for school rules and regulations; personal organisation; managing time; Participation; being prepared for lessons; do more work than expected ; Cooperative; Disciplined; assist other students; takes a lead role; Responsible; efforts to accomplish or complete tasks; never give up; team player; respect others; work independently; helpful in class; act Active participation; complete tasks; confident in expressing ideas; willing to share; good team player good discipline; communication skills; accept feedback; committed to complete tasks; ask for help; more organised; Express his opinions</p> <p>well disciplined; at ease with peers; involved with class discussions speaks out; Participation; ask questions; leadership role; helping others; gets along well with peers; contributes to class discussion</p> <p>ask for help; well disciplined; works independently; Self-motivated active during class discussions; offers own ideas; readily seeks assistance; open-minded to advice; active in class discussion</p> <p>prompt in completing assignments; consults in case of doubt; goes the extra mile; solves problems; resolve difficulties</p>
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Code categories	<p>How the student manages him or herself in school;</p> <p>Community participation/involvement and cooperation with teachers and peers.</p> <p>Interpersonal relations</p> <p>Self-expression – sharing opinions, asking for help,</p> <p>Leading/leadership</p> <p>Hardworking Ness Tenacity/Self-drive</p> <p>Relationship with school rules</p>
Themes	<p>Self-management;</p> <p>Co-existence;</p> <p>Self-expression;</p> <p>Authority</p>

In confirmatory calls the researcher asked parents what they considered to be the outcomes of their ‘social behaviour coaching.’ The results are presented in table 4.15.

Table 4.15*Outcomes of Behaviour Coaching According to Participating Parents*

Parent	Stated successful outcomes
001-WM	He is independent – organises himself without having to resort to me. He also thinks independently and presents options for us to discuss.
002-LN	She is independent and can make her own decisions. She takes care of her younger siblings.
003-MK	Taking personal responsibility for own actions Self-management at home and at school Co-existing with siblings Still a work in progress: cleanliness
004-AM	“She listens and takes guidance from me and her teachers”
005-ES	‘She is open and takes criticism positively. She is responsible and hardworking. Appreciative of both big and small things given to her. Ongoing development of self-esteem.”
006-SO	He has started opening up. He feels like he can come and ask things, and he will get feedback, not backlash.

007-CM	I have started noticing that she's becoming stricter. If she says no, she won't bend. I have realised she is comfortable taking care of the kids. I have realised she is becoming more aware of herself.
Themes	Authority; co-existence; independence;

Children can self-manage – they manage their time, are independent in organising themselves for school, and in managing personal time; They also get on well with siblings, peers, and others. They show respect for authority by obeying rules and submitting to parents' requests and demands, and they show respect for others. Children also perform to expected standards, working towards set goals, and being hardworking.

One area where children did not display the social behaviours often, was in situations where they had to 'open up' and be vulnerable, - negotiating, owning up to mistakes or expressing their opinion on different matters.

4.1.9 Summary of themes

Based on the findings on the three research questions, a summary of the themes that emerged from the data is presented in Table 4.16 and figure 4.1.

Table 4.16*Summary of Themes Extracted from the Data*

RQ1: How coaching is done	
Themes	Subthemes
Telling	Moment of action; Tone of voice
Accountability	Follow-up/monitoring; Consequences; Practice
Modelling	
Authority	Source of authority; Use of authority
Parent learning	Parent self confidence
RQ2: Why do parents choose the methods they use	
Themes	Sub themes
Resources	Maximise potential; Care for property; Care for the environment
Co-existence	Communicating with others; Relationships with siblings, peers, parents and other; Contribution to the community; Showing respect for others
Authority	Relationships in School and at home; Spirituality - being God fearing
Learning	Learning from own parents and choosing to replicate or reject what their parents did; Adapting to the child's temperament/needs and learning what works and what does not work with the child; Learning to self-manage

Vulnerability	Parenting is a responsibility they cannot delegate; Not knowing if their child will turn out right; Fear of failure
RQ3: How do children exhibit the behaviours parents instill in them?	
Themes	Sub theme
Self-management	Managing own time; Being independent
Co-existence	Getting on with siblings, peers, and others; Showing respect for others;
Relationship with authority	Obedying rules; Submitting to parents demands/requirements
Performance	Working towards goals; Being hardworking; Self-organisation in respect of school; Taking care of property; Managing own time; Cleaning up after themselves
Self-expression	Negotiating for self; Owning up to mistakes; Expressing an opinion

4.2 Evaluation of the results

In the previous section results of the exploratory study on Kenyan parents' use of coaching skills to instil social behaviour in their children were presented. In order to arrive at the results, thematic analysis of interviews of parents, children, and teachers as well as school report forms belonging to the children was done both inductively and deductively. Raw data was in the form of interview scripts (of parents, children, and teachers) and documents (school report cards) and 2). Deductive thematic analysis was done based on a categorisation matrix derived from the principles of coaching.

The results show that parents use telling, role modelling and accountability to instil social behaviour in their children. Telling is a unidirectional verbal action, and the results of the thematic analysis show that it is qualified by the moment of action, that is when parents speak to their children and the tone of voice.

Parents' choice of method of instilling social responsibility in their children is driven by parents' vision for their children, parents' own upbringing, parents' perception of their role, including use of authority.

Parents learn along the way, through trial and error, by attending training and by discussing with fellow parents and from observing others, including their spouses and their own children. The results also show that parents are not always self-confident in what they do, and are not sure that they will achieve the outcomes they seek.

Parents' vision for their children revolves around 1) resources - how children maximise their potential, how they care for property and how they care for the environment. 2) Co-existence - how children communicate with others, how they relate to their siblings, peers, parents, and others, how they contribute to the community and how they show respect for others. 3) Authority - how the children relate with authority at home and at school, as well as how the children demonstrate spirituality, specifically being God fearing.

Parents' approach to instilling social behaviour in their children is tempered by learning - first, from their own parents, in which case they choose to perpetuate their own parents' expectations or to reject it. Secondly, by adapting to their children's temperament and needs, third, through learning from their own experience with the child and fourth from observing their own children as well as their spouses. Finally, parents sometimes self-regulate to avoid jumping in to

solve problems for their children, in order to create space for the children to find their own answers or to be themselves.

Parents are vulnerable - they have a responsibility they cannot abdicate or delegate, but they do not know whether what they are doing is right. Sometimes there is fear of failure, in addition to feelings of guilt and regret about mistakes they made when children were younger.

A list of social behaviours that children exhibit, and to what extent they exhibit those social behaviours, was developed. Behaviours concerning relationships with others were on average rated as seen to a great extent. They include co-operating with others, getting on with peers, caring for others, resolving conflict, showing respect for others, and communicating effectively. Behaviours concerning the children's self-expression were rated as being observed to a great extent (but less so than behaviours concerning relationships). These include speaking about different topics, offering differing opinions, asking for help, negotiating, sharing about problems faced, remaining calm when things seem to be going wrong, and speaking about or showing different emotions. Behaviours linked to performance were the most highly rated for being observed to a very great extent on average, and they include organising self with regards to school and related activities, showing competence in preparation for exams and other important events, clearing up top up after oneself, following rules at home and at school, taking care of property, working towards goals, and organising personal time. Behaviours that could be linked to accountability were generally observed to the lowest extent relative to other groups of behaviours. Such accountability behaviours include independence - that is not relying on parents or others for things they ought to know or know how to do, voluntary participation in a variety of activities, being truthful, taking up tasks that need doing without being told, owning up to mistakes, showing

acceptance of feedback, and doing what they believe is right even when everyone else is doing something else.

Finally, the results also showed that the parents and children who were interviewed consider lack of opportunity to express themselves, and to be heard, is a significant cause of student unrest in Kenya. Detailed evaluation of selected themes now follows.

4.2.1 valuation of Telling

Parents used the term 'telling' in describing how they instil social behaviours in their children. While the term is shared by the parents who were interviewed, the research detected important subtleties that differentiated what each parent meant by that term. These subtleties are on account of tone of voice - both the tone of parents when they were describing the action of telling, and the tone conveyed by words used to describe the action. In some instances, differences were discerned from the body language of the parents, including facial expressions and hand gestures. The thematic analysis also identified - tone of voice and moment of the telling action as subthemes under the 'telling' theme. These subtleties are relevant when considering both need supportive behaviours and coaching skills. Factors that impact telling as a need-supportive behaviour include the role of the telling, the tone of voice used when telling, and the timing of the telling. Telling can be used to direct the child, to inform the child, to empathise, affirm or show acceptance.

Telling is a common every day action that is not being utilised in a coaching manner, but can be, thus making it more needs-supportive. In discussing needs supportive behaviour, informational telling was quoted as being autonomy supportive where it involved providing rationale for advice and a menu of choices for the child (Grolnick, 2009). When telling was used

to help the child identify barriers and devise solutions it was seen as competence building and therefore needs-supportive. Telling can also be used to provide structure “when rules guidelines and consequences are spelled out and clear feedback provided on behaviour” (Grolnick, 2009, p.165). Farkas & Grolnick, (2008) include clear and consistent rules, guidelines, and expectations as well as informational feedback as two of six components of structure.

In the International Coaching Federation’s competency framework (2020), the focus in communicating with the client is on listening. The coach is exhorted to focus on what is being said as well as what is not being said. The coach reflects back to the client what he or she has communicated, and integrates the client’s words, tone of voice and body language in order to ensure clarity and understanding. Furthermore, the coach asks questions and helps the client to identify factors that have an effect on the current situation, invites the client to initiate ideas and supports the client to reframe perspective. The coach also shares what he or she notices, insights and feelings without attachment. Likewise, the European Mentoring and Coaching Council’s competency framework (2015) emphasises the use of an active listening style and questioning techniques to help the client generate insights. These positions can hardly be more different from a ‘telling’ approach, highlighting the sharp contrast between ‘telling’ as a general technique’ and telling as need-supportive communication.

The timing of the telling: research identified moment of action (moment of telling) as a sub-theme when analysing the interview scripts in response to the question of how parents instil social behaviour in their children. Soenens, Deci, & Vansteenkiste (2017) identified that for competence support the timing of interventions matters. When parents use telling for competence support, they can do so before an event, during the event or after the event. Different types of information are transmitted during the different periods of the activity: guidelines, consequences

and goals should ideally be shared before the event. In this case the parent might tell the child what the scope and limits of an activity are, including what behaviour will and will not be accepted, specifies the consequences of going beyond those limits and helps to set the goals of the activity. During the event the parent gives ongoing informational feedback and after the event the focus of telling is informational feedback about the child's efforts and strategies and an invitation to the child to engage in self-reflection. This model can be applied at various stages with different competence relevant activities.

It is important to highlight that timing goes hand in hand with the relevance of the information being transmitted, hence giving informational feedback such as setting guidelines or communicating consequences for straying beyond behaviour limits only after the deviation has happened is not needs supportive even if it is informational. Besides, the tone of voice used during telling is important. Tone of voice includes volume modulation, as well as accompanying body language. So, if a parent offers his or her child options to choose from, but uses a tone that suggests coercion, that tone of voice compromises the autonomy supportive nature of offering choices to the child. And even if the parent does not wish to coerce, but the child perceives the parent's tone as coercive or manipulative, it undermines the autonomy supportive nature of the behaviour. As such, a tone of voice that communicates warmth and non-judgmental acceptance should accompany the autonomy supportive behaviour of informational telling (Roth, Kanat-Maymon, & Assor, 2016).

If tone of voice interferes with autonomy supportive behaviour, it also interferes with relatedness support, because unconditional positive regard is identified as a core needs supportive behaviour for relatedness, and tone of voice can convey unconditional positive regard, or the opposite. Roth, Kanat-Maymon, & Assor, (2016) caution that unconditional positive regard

(Rogers, 1959) should be understood as the child's experience and not the parent's – it is about the way a child perceives the parents' actions and not necessarily the actions of the parents as such. Nevertheless, it is hardly likely that any child would perceive a harsh demeaning tone of voice, aggressive or cold gestures or, indeed, yelling, as unconditional positive regard. Nor indeed, would a child interpret demeaning, harsh or negative language as unconditional positive regard. A harsh tone of voice and harsh language are of themselves not needs supportive.

Language is another key element of telling and parents can choose language that is affirming, empathetic and accepting. Still, Roth et al (2016) point out that unconditional positive regard is produced via a combination of subtle behaviours over time. One should therefore not judge the parents' actions on the basis of a few incidences to say that the parent does not meet the criteria of need-supportive behaviour (hence the usefulness of longer-term observational studies).

Telling was also observed as 'storytelling, when a parent resorted to sharing a story about an experience she had when she was younger, that was similar to a situation her son was facing. Story telling is well documented as a method for socializing children (Jirata, 2014; Goodman & Goodman, 2013). Moreover, stories are a core part of African traditional education (Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002; Omolewa, 2007). Storytelling is not specifically indicated as a need's supportive behaviour, but a story can be used as a need supportive technique as long as it is used in the ways indicated for needs support: that is to share information, to give rationale for advice, to create an appropriate challenge for the child etc. Parents can use published stories; they can make up stories or even relate their own experiences in story format.

In coaching, narrative coaching (Drake, 2014, 2020) places story telling at the centre of its methodology. The main premise of narrative coaching is that people can adopt new behaviours through building an alternative story, and that consequently, people will sustain the new identity

by enacting new behaviours. Narrative coaching assumes that how people see themselves, how they 'story' their daily lives and how they behave are intimately connected. The focus of narrative coaching is the present, as it does not busy itself with creating goals for the future (Rixon, 2016). According to Drake, (2007, 2014, 2020), the conversation between a coach and a client is an act of storytelling, and the client is at the centre of the story. The coach should pay attention to creating a safe space for the story to emerge. In the case of the parent using a coaching approach, the same applies. The parent should create the conditions that allow the child to narrate his or her story, while the parent remains present but non-interruptive, encouraging the full story to emerge. The parent can help the child to reframe the narrative in order to gain new perspectives. Reframing requires the use of clear appropriate language to state, for example, coaching objectives, and is, in this sense, a competence supportive behaviour. Drake further emphasises the centrality of generative listening (2007, 2010, 2014). Generative listening requires that the listener set aside his or her own pre-conceptions and view-points in order to embrace the other's perspective and help them re-write their story (Drake, 2007; Vogel, 2012). Such a stance would confer relatedness support to the child, as it would create a powerful connection between the child and the parent. Notably, generative listening requires the parent to listen more than talk. Furthermore, helping the child to recraft their story supports in competence building, further casting generative listening as a needs-supportive behaviour.

Pariera and Turner, (2020) suggest the use of invitational rhetoric to address the challenge often encountered in family communications during adolescence. This type of communication seeks to understand and exchange perspectives rather than to persuade. To facilitate such rhetoric an atmosphere consisting of safety, value, and freedom (Pariera & Turner, 2020). Safety includes security and freedom from danger, which in turn means that there is no belittling or condescension.

It also includes order and predictability. Value includes an acknowledgement that the audience is worthy to be spoken with, and is demonstrated through appreciation and celebration of the individuals concerned. This is best manifested through listening without interruption. Freedom means that the conversation does not exclude any subject. Participants are free to speak up and get the opportunity and the option to do so. Invitational rhetoric necessarily invokes an equality in communication that may be at odds with the natural hierarchy that exists between parents and their children, especially adolescents. Still, adolescents who perceive their parents' communication as ineffective tend to avoid it, while those who view it favourably tend to disclose more (pareira & turner, 2020). Engaging in difficult conversations can be emotionally charged, but it also provides an opportunity for support and intimacy when family members respond positively and engage in perspective-taking. Direct and forceful communication from parents is not as effective during adolescence.

The media environment brings digital distractions that can hinder successful conversations by interrupting or side-tracking discussions. Thus, invitational presence, which considers the context and likelihood of digital interruptions, is necessary for invitational rhetoric, fostering understanding and positive interactions between parents and adolescents (Pariera & Turner, 2020). Likewise, parents should mindfully consider the medium of conversation. Face to face interactions have been shown to elicit greater closeness (Pariera & Turner, 2020), while texts and email allow for more time to process information while considering one's response. Hence prudent use of both media should be considered, while keeping in mind that devices can be distracting. Another important factor to consider is the physical space in which the rhetoric happens. Choice of location can of itself send a signal about the mental availability of a person. Private rather than public

spaces are recommended. A third important factor is length (and, therefore, time dedicated) of the conversation. More difficult conversations typically require more time (Pariera & Turner, 2020).

4.2.2 valuation of Accountability

The International Coaching Federation (2020) lists ‘facilitating client growth’ (p.5) as a core competency for professional coaches. It specifies several actions related to this competency. These actions include “Partners with the client to design goals, actions and accountability measures that integrate and expand new learning; Acknowledges and supports client autonomy in the design of goals, actions and methods of accountability; Supports the client in identifying potential results or learning from identified action steps.” (p.5). The European Mentoring and Coaching Council (2015) has a similar perspective: the coach’s role is to help “the client clarify and review desired outcomes and to set appropriate goals” (p.11). The coach is a ‘partner,’ and ‘support,’ ‘helper,’ not the director of the client’s actions, nor should the coach decide for the client what results to aim for. (Grusec, 2011) discusses the domain of mutual reciprocity, where children are likely to respond to the demands of a parent more willingly because the parent, on their part, responds positively to reasonable demands from the child. In this domain, and from this perspective, the parent and the child are equal partners. In fact, Maccoby, (2007) argued that parent and child agency are not mutually exclusive, and that parental control can be exercised to support a child’s growing competence and self management. It is simply a question of how that control is exercised. Grusec, (2011) shares how: when children feel that their parents care are willing to be flexible, understand them and have got good intentions for them they are more willing to accept direction from them. Still, children need to feel that their behaviour is self-directed and not dictated by the parents.

Accountability requires that one acknowledges responsibility and takes it on. Children can be taught to be accountable by being supported and guided to take on age-appropriate responsibilities and being left to manage those responsibilities, including any consequences, whether positive or negative. When the children make decisions based on those responsibilities, they can experience the outcomes of those decisions and this helps them develop accountability for their choices. As Grusec (2011) states: “preservation of the child’s sense of autonomy and self-direction is considered essential in analyses of conscience development and the acquisition of behavioural standards as well as other positive socio-emotional outcomes” (p.252).

Parents can exhibit need supportive behaviours regarding accountability. Involving the child in deciding what the child will be responsible for, discussing, in advance, what the expectations and limitations of the agreed responsibilities are, connecting at regular intervals to discuss progress and giving continuing support, and giving feedback while encouraging a personal review of the way a responsibility was handled at the end. Modelling accountability is also possible. One way for parents to do so is to apologise when they are mistaken, and to acknowledge how their moods and emotions affect their actions and reactions. Such modelling would be useful in helping children learn how to take up their own age-appropriate responsibilities and the consequences of their decisions related to those responsibilities, including owning up to mistakes. It would also help children learn how to discuss their feelings, and to express their emotions appropriately. Rather than aiming for compliance (Grusec, 2011), the goal should be helping the child to take an active role in regulating their own behaviour (Farkas & Grolnick, 2008).

4.2.3 valuation of Authority

The theme ‘authority’ evokes the notion of parental control. Two types of control are discussed. behavioural control is sometimes also referred to as firm control (Lewis, 1981). Behavioural control refers to the ways parents’ guide children to behave appropriately, and includes a range of specific behaviours. To enforce behavioural control, parents create and share rules about behaviour that is acceptable and that which is not, they maintain awareness of children's behaviour and consistently apply consequences both for compliance and noncompliance, and they offer rationale for behaviour requests. These parental practices are similar to behaviour described as needs-supportive, specifically in relation to providing structure as part of an autonomy supportive environment (Farkas & Grolnick, 2008). Parental control during the adolescent years (this study focused on school children aged 14-17) is particularly sensitive since one of the central goals of adolescence is developing a concept of self-identity (Barber , Olsen, & Shagle , 1994) . Parents, as a key influence on their children, impact how the adolescent child sees him or herself. Parents can impact the child by providing feedback during social interactions. The key question is how parents find a balance between supporting the child to control his or her own behaviour so that he or she learns to be an effective member of the society on one hand, and on the other hand, the autonomy the child needs to develop self-sufficiency and competence. The tension between these two needs is particularly apparent during adolescence, because of the normative increases in separation and independence that children experience at this stage (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010), making a balanced use of the authority parents wield over their children even more critical (Barber , Olsen, & Shagle , 1994). It is one area that calls for parents to self-regulate and transition from being the directors of their children’s behaviour to exercising balanced use of the authority they wield. Making the mental transition to achieve the more equal, interdependent, and reciprocal

relationship (Branje, 2018) is often problematic for parents. In fact, adolescents report that they view their parents as less supportive in early to middle adolescence (Branje, 2018). The need for a less vertical and more horizontal affiliation (Branje, 2018) leads to conflict. Parents may be tempted to see this as requiring more exercise of authority and so become more controlling. In fact, Branje (2018) argues, this conflict is a necessary step towards establishing more reciprocity and horizontality in the parent-adolescent relationship. This would translate into greater parity in exchanges, power, and decision- making. Once this stage is attained parents reduce control and conflict diminishes (Branje, 2018).

A second type of parental control, psychological control, refers to parental behaviours, that intrude on and manipulate the thoughts and feelings of their children, as well as the attachment that these children have to the parent (Barber & Harmon, 2002) . Children experience such behaviour as intrusive, overprotective, possessive, directing and controlling guilt (Schaefer, 1965). Psychological control is distinguished from behavioural control in its use of manipulative techniques. Such techniques include contingent love, shaming, and guilt induction. The purpose of these techniques is to control the psychological experiences of the child rather than the child's behaviour. Psychologically controlling parents undermine the basic need for competence through a critical tone that suggests that the children cannot meet parental expectations (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Psychological control also undermines the need for relatedness with both parents and peers. Similarly, the need for autonomy of such children is frustrated because such children feel compelled to act, feel and think in ways that are dictated by parents. Psychological control represents a needs-thwarting use of parental authority. More than recognising that they have authority over their children, parents should also consider how they use that authority, and strive to use it in needs-supportive ways.

Authority is abused when it is used as power to control the child. Such misuse of authority is reflected in punitive disciplinary methods that involve physical penalties such as corporal punishment, direct force, and the threat of or actual deprivation of privileges and things. These disciplinary actions have been associated with least development of empathy and morals, thus affecting the social behaviour of children (Hoffman , 1960). Parents who use such methods are aiming to gain blind obedience from their children (Hoffman, 1960). This is tantamount to demanding the complete surrender of a child's interests and autonomy, and leads to the child becoming resentful and antisocial (Chen et al., 2001). Such anti-social behaviour includes hostility and lack of co-operation with peers and teachers (Kim & Kochanska, 2015). Power assertive parenting is also associated with poor self-regulation among children, who may act compliant in the company of parents but act out when they believe they cannot be caught (Karreman et al., 2006). Adolescents whose parents use power assertiveness orient towards their peers (more so than for those whose parents don't use power assertiveness), as this approach weakens the parent child relationship (Fulgini & Eccles, 1993) Furthermore, this approach does not lead to children integrating the behaviours that parents seek to impose and has been found to be ineffective in the long run (Kuczynski, 1984) . Because this needs-thwarting strategy relies on coercion, children do not learn how to be discerning or to think of others, and consequently, they blame others when they are caught in the wrong, refusing to take responsibility for their actions (Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967) .

4.2.4. Evaluation of Role Modelling and opportunities for practice

The theory and practice of coaching draw significantly from various learning theories (Fazel, 2013). However, one learning theory is generally not included among these - Bandura's

social learning theory (Bandura, 1971, 1977). The central premise of social learning theory is that social behaviour is learned through the imitation of observed behaviours (Bandura 1971, 1977). Four elements are thought to be necessary for social learning to take place: first, one must notice and pay attention to the behaviour being observed; second, one must retain what they learn from what was observed; third, one must reproduce what was noticed and retained and fourth, one must be motivated to enact the new behaviour. When parents use role modelling to instil social behaviour in their children, they are activating social learning, and for such role-modelling to be effective, the four principles need to be present. In this regard the parent needs to ensure that the child notices the behaviours that are being modelled, while being conscious that the child notices even behaviours that are not intended for modelling. Secondly, the modelling should be done in such a way that the child can retain the information gained from it. Additionally, the parent needs to ensure that opportunities for practice are made available and, fourthly, the parent needs to create or make available an environment that allows the child to be motivated to engage in that behaviour repeatedly. A needs-supportive environment is implicated for intrinsic behaviour (Joussemet, Landry & Koestner, 2008), and in this sense, role modelling as a technique for instilling social behaviour thrives when the conditions for psychological needs satisfaction are also present.

One of the main challenges of social role modelling is that children will learn even behaviour that parents do not intend to instil. The anecdotal saying that children should do what “I say and not what I do” demonstrates that parents are aware that their children watch them, and that parents do not always engage in ‘copy-worthy’ behaviour. This behooves parents to be alert that they are being watched and to regulate their behaviour accordingly. In this regard, parents themselves may require help to manage some behaviours. Parents should also be aware that the authenticity of their actions and the alignment between what they say and what they do are at play.

Children will notice when parents say one thing and do another, and so acting one way while claiming another will not work. Effective role-modelling calls for parents to align their intentions and their actions consciously and conscientiously. This is aptly captured in the European Mentoring and Coaching Council competency framework of 2015. The first competence category is ‘understanding self’ (p.5) and is described as follows: The coach (the parent) “demonstrates awareness of own values, beliefs and behaviour, recognises how this affects their practice, and uses this self-awareness to manage their effectiveness in meeting the clients (child’s)...objectives.” (EMCC 2020, p.5).

In the same vein, the International Coaching Federation’s competency framework (2020) states that a coach (parent) should “demonstrate personal integrity and honesty in interactions with clients (children)” (ICF 2020, p.1).

When parents act with integrity in their interactions with their children, they are doing more than being role models. They also support the need for relatedness - children experience genuine warmth, attention, and consideration thus creating deep connections. Furthermore, when parents act together with their children, for example working alongside each other, they support competence development as children learn from what they are doing together with their parents. As Bandura (1997) suggested though, it is not enough to provide opportunities for learning without opportunity to practise. Role modelling should therefore go hand in hand with children getting opportunities to practise what they learn. Such opportunities for practice provide a platform for children to operationalise what they have observed, while also being supportive of the need for autonomy.

Social role modelling also contributes to an important construct related to social behaviour: self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a person’s belief in their capacity to succeed in a particular situation,

and Bandura (1997) stated four influencers of self-efficacy: 1) Mastery experiences derive from succeeding at new challenges. 2) Vicarious experiences result from social interactions with various others, including parents, siblings, extended family and close relatives and associates who serve as role models. Bandura also highlights the role of peer modelling. 3) Social persuasion is the experience of receiving positive feedback and 4) emotional, physical, and physiological status refers to the role of physical, physiological, and emotional well-being in conferring the experience of self-efficacy. Maddux (2013) added a fifth influence, imaginal experiences - which involve the act of visualising or imagining oneself in a successful state in the future. In acting as role models, parents contribute to their children's self-efficacy, but they can further entrench this by creating conditions for age-appropriate challenges, giving verbal feedback, and exposing their children to positive role models other than themselves. Overall, needs-supportive behaviour is implicated in developing overall wellbeing and in helping children develop self-efficacy.

4.2.5. Evaluation of Learning and Parental Self-Confidence

The concepts 'parenting confidence,' 'parenting self-efficacy' and 'perceived confidence' influence how parents conduct parenting activity (Vance & Brandon, 2017). Parental self-efficacy was defined as the belief or judgement a parent has about his or her ability to be successful in the parental role, and is captured under Self-Efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1997; Jones & Prinz, 2005). A related concept, parental self-confidence has been described as feelings of competence in the parenting role (Gross et al., 1994; Črnčec, Barnett & Matthey, 2010). Competence can be perceived by the parents (de Montigny & Lacharité, 2005) or appraised by someone else (Holditch-Davies, et al., 2011). Confidence is the main attribute of self-efficacy (Vance & Brandon, 2017). A confident parent is one who is also efficacious and sees him or herself as having the ability to

engage in particular parenting behaviour. This belief is essential for the parent to start and master a behaviour that is necessary for fostering the health and development of the child. Parenting confidence also includes having adequate knowledge about the required behaviours, and is therefore linked to the acquisition of knowledge about parenting and, therefore, learning (Conrad & Gross, 1992). Parents' knowledge or awareness about their own behaviours and how they impact the behaviours of their children is therefore critical. This implies a need for self-reflection for parents. Parents in the current study indicated that their knowledge seeking behaviour includes attending workshops, reading books on parenting, and holding discussions with other parents. Perhaps active self-scrutiny needs to be included.

Coleman and Karraker (1997) suggest four ways in which parental self-efficacy develops and is influenced. The first is the parent's childhood experiences - the parent brings to his or her own parenting internal models of what they believe the parenting relationship should be like. These internal models are based to a large extent on the attachment style that the parents developed from their primary caregiver during their own childhood. Secondly, what other people in the community say, as well as cultural messaging, impact parental self-efficacy. Culture and communities deliver certain key messages about parenting values, child development and parenting tasks. These messages influence the level of parents perceived self-efficacy. Thirdly, the real experience of parenting - a parent's actual experience of parenting and feedback received from the child, or the child's relatives, affects parents' self-judgement of their parenting competence, thus impacting parental self-efficacy. Finally, the degree of preparation for parenting influences parents' self-efficacy - a parent's ability to visualise themselves as good parents has been linked to parents' effective behaviour.

Parent's childhood experiences: Parents learn parenting practices from their own parents, and a parent's developmental history has been shown to affect how the parent parents (Belsky, 1984). However, they do not always replicate what they learned. Parents who are dissatisfied with their primary caregivers' approach may be more likely to change their parenting methods when they have children. In an intergenerational study by Kerr et al (2009), it was established that fathers who experienced monitoring, consistent and age-appropriate discipline, as well as warmth from their own fathers were likely to create a similar parenting environment for their own children. In the same study it was shown that negative parenting patterns reappeared across generations (Kerr et al., 2009). In fact, years before Kerr's study another study had established that the way parents care for their children is greatly affected by those parents' particular experiences of being cared for by their own parents (Bowlby, 1979). Certainly, according to Bowlby (1979) how a person is cared for as a child affects them "from the cradle to the grave" (p. 129). Levy, Blatt, and Shaver, (1998) concluded that the way current parents described their interactions with their own parents years before predicted how their children would score in the strange situation classification (Ainsworth et al., 2015). The strange situation classification is a sorting based on how children react to their mothers soon after being exposed to strangers. Further support for the idea that what happens to children as they are growing up impacts what they do when they have their own children is provided by Diener and Lang, (2022). They state that children who experience responsiveness in their infancy create images of themselves as people who are worthy of love and care (Diener & Lang, 2022).

Where the developmental history of a current parent was unhappy and unstable, then such parents were more likely to resort to power assertions (Kochanska al., 2007). Power assertion parenting involves parents claiming power over their children and using that power to control their

behaviour. Normally, this is accomplished through physical punishment, direct force, deprivation of property, or threats of deprivation. The parent uses his or her physical control and power over material resources to implement this disciplinary method. Power assertion is contra-indicated for a needs-supportive child rearing environment. It is not to say that a parent with a needs-thwarting developmental history will automatically raise his or her child in a similar environment. Personal characteristics such as optimism and trust can moderate this behaviour (Diener & Lang, 2022). Furthermore, adults choose to parent the same way or differently from their parents depending on how they perceived what their parents did (Diener & Lang, 2022). Relatedly, parents may need to unlearn and replace some of the models that they developed during childhood, and this is also a learning process.

Parents' characteristics: the parents who were interviewed displayed different personality characteristics. 005-P described herself as calm, and 001-P shared her need to hold herself back so as not to jump in and rescue her kids. 003-P came across as being tough, demanding, and uncompromising, 006-P was remorseful and guilt ridden because of mistakes she made when her son was a toddler, while 002-P described a childhood with authoritarian parents with humour. These personalities could be discerned in the way they described how they instilled social behaviour in their children. For sure, parents bring their unique individual traits and qualities into the parenting relationship, affecting their parenting choices and actions. In addition to their developmental history, parents' age, gender, and personality, as well as physical and mental health affect parenting.

An important aspect of parent characteristics is how to manage their emotions during conflict with their children, especially teenagers. Parents who can express their emotion – both positive and negative- during conflict, help develop the relationship with the child, and so they are

more likely to find alternative ways to interact. Moreover, this models to the child how to deal with both positive and negative emotions (Branje, 2018; Whittle, et al., 2014). Where parents get stuck in anger and other negative emotions, or express only positive emotions and are afraid to express anger, there tend to be more problems in the parent child relationship (Branje, 2018). Another parental characteristic to note is harshness, as manifested in authoritarian high control, high demand parenting. Some parents who experienced this growing up choose not to raise their children the same way (P-002), but others cite it as the example in how to raise children (P-003). Harsh parents have been associated with a high risk for child maltreatment (Ayiro, Mbagaya , & Othuon, 2019). Interventions that target parent characteristics can help mitigate the impact of characteristics such as harshness on parenting behaviour. When parents are aware of the way their personal qualities affect their parenting choices and actions, they can choose to do something about it.

Socio-Cultural environment: the socio-cultural environment is an impactful source of learning for parents. It includes what parents see in the media, what they observe other parents doing and what they believe parenting should be based on, such as culture and religion. Religiosity was associated with authority, as parents state that they believed their authority over their children derived from God. Indeed, according to research, adults who describe themselves as religious are likely to place a high value on tradition, obedience, and respect for authority over self-reliance and self-determination (Inglehart & Baker, 2000) Prayer was also cited as a tool for self-regulation. Parents in this study also included social behaviour related to religious practices among the behaviours they sought to instil in their children. In fact, out of the 7 parents interviewed, 3 were explicit about their religion, one referenced prayer and God severally, and a fourth stated that the bible was a core influencer of her parenting approach.

Religious beliefs can affect parenting practice in a powerful way (Holden, Williamson, & Holland, 2014), yet there is no agreement in the literature on whether religion is a positive or negative influence on parenting. Historical evidence suggests that religion has the capacity to socialize, motivate, constrain, and direct human behaviour (Petro, Rich, Erasmus, & Roman, 2018). Religion is thought to have a growing influence on parenting, but there seems to be no agreement as to what sort of impact. This is not surprising as interpretation of dogma is varied even when people profess the same religion. Some studies have suggested that religiosity has a positive impact on parenting, but that the effect is small (Petro et al., 2018). Other studies found both negative and positive linkages between parenting and religiousness (Bornstein, Putnick et al., 2017; Godina, 2014). Furthermore, the findings varied depending on whether it was the views of parents or those of children being considered. Parents related religiousness with efficacy and warmth while children linked religiosity with rejection. But parents and children alike considered that religiousness was linked to more controlling parenting (Bornstein et al, 2017). To the extent that religiosity affects parent's beliefs, thoughts, and actions, it does have the capacity to influence the way parents instil social behaviour. Indeed, 'God-fearing' behaviour was identified among the commonly observed social behaviours that children in Kenya exhibit.

The real experience of parenting: the mere fact of becoming a parent can lead to learning. It begins as parents prepare to welcome a child and adjust their lives. When the child is born it continues as they adjust to having the child around and in getting to understand that child they continue to learn. Writing in *The Guardian* newspaper, one parent describes becoming a parent as a 'seismic identity shift' where responsibility replaces personal freedom and other love takes over from self-love (Lott, 2016). Just getting the hang of this is a learning process. Furthermore, parents continue to learn through the experience of parenting. In a longitudinal study that sought evidence

for the hypothesis that parents' interactions with earlier-born adolescents improved interactions with later-born ones, Whiteman, McHale, and Crouter, (2003) found that there was less conflict between parents and their second born adolescent as compared to the first born. These results confirmed the hypothesis and demonstrated that parents learn from experience.

Parents continue to learn in the process of meeting the needs of children. Needs-supportive parenting calls on parents to apply skills that they may not already have. Such skills include but are not limited to how a parent talks with the child, how a parent demonstrates unconditional positive regard, how a parent models desirable behaviour and how a parent enforces accountability. This researcher has observed, in her coaching practice, how parents react with shock and wonderment the first time their child gives them feedback about a certain behaviour that the child has noticed in them. They are especially chastened when they realise that their child has taken note of behaviour that is out of alignment with what the parent asks of their children. They often report that this causes them to adjust the behaviour. When parents recognise that they fall short in a certain area that is necessary for them to support the psychological needs of their children more effectively, they can seek to gain the necessary knowledge and skills.

The experience of parenting also involves engaging with the characteristics of one's child, and this also provides learning opportunities for parents. There is mutual influence between parent and child, each influences the other as well as the dyadic relationship (Grusec, 2011; Diener & Lang, 2022). Additionally, the child's characteristics including gender, temperament, birth order and health status also affect parenting (Diener & Lang, 2022; Belsky, 1984). Where children have an easy-going temperament, a parent feels more effective because they easily sooth the child and elicit positive reactions, further reinforcing the parents' self-belief. Fussy, cranky children, on the other hand, can cause a parent to feel less effective and so resort to a more punitive approach. This

in turn, causes the child to be crankier (Eisenberg et al., 2008). A large study established that the behaviour of a child influenced the parent's behaviour more strongly than the other way around. The study by Lansford and his colleagues (2018) went on to state that child's behavioural problems led to reduced parental warmth and more control, but parental control did not change the child's behaviour (Lansford, 2018).

The current researcher recalls an incident that illustrates the notion of learning from the experience of parenting. When her son was about 14 and her daughter 10, this researcher noticed an increased hostility directed at the boy by his sister. One day it was particularly hostile in the car on the way to school, when the boy wanted the radio off because he was studying for a test, and the girl wanted it on. Perturbed, the researcher decided to pursue the matter when things had cooled down. Later that evening when her daughter seemed more relaxed and in a better mood, this researcher asked about the incident, saying it did not seem like the sort of incident to arouse such hostility in her daughter. At the end of a long conversation the researcher learned that her daughter perceived favouritism in the way she and her brother were treated when they said they did not feel well. The boy, it was thought, was given immediate serious attention, while the girl was told to 'drink' a glass of water.' On reflection the researcher realised the truth of that statement, but also recognised that her son tended to grin and bear it, and only disclosed symptoms when they were bad (discovered only at the doctors), while the daughter was quick to speak up and often exaggerated symptoms (again, discovered at the doctors). This had led the researcher to be more 'relaxed' about her daughter's symptoms, thus leading to the daughter's observation. The lesson is that children notice the (sometimes) subtle ways in which parents treat siblings differently. The incident in the car and the ensuing conversation were a powerful learning-from-parenting (and from one's child) experience.

Degree of preparation and knowledge seeking: parenting knowledge, that is facts, information, and skills about parenting is important because parenting practices involve the application of knowledge. Such knowledge is acquired through education or experience and understanding an issue. It relates to cognition as compared to practices which are ways of engaging and attitudes which relate to motivation. There are different types of knowledge that parents could require, including information about child developmental milestones and the practices that promote achievement of those milestones (Mercy & Saul, 2009; Belcher et al., 2007). Parents have varying levels of knowledge because they have different levels of access to accurate information. Yet other factors also affect knowledge acquisition: trust in the information sources and parents' comfort with their own capabilities. Bornstein & Bradley, (2012) demonstrated how knowledge can translate into behaviour. They showed that parents with a good understanding of children's developmental milestones have age-appropriate expectations of the child. This manifested in the use of appropriate discipline as well as the way those parents interacted with their child. Parents also need knowledge of parenting practices, that is, ways of engaging with their children. This consists of knowledge of how to satisfy the needs of the children such as hunger, including knowledge about proper feeding and emotional needs, as well as how to read cues and signals. Parents can also learn about safe sleeping, soothing a crying baby and how to show love. Additional knowledge includes information about support services and systems to help them when needed.

Parents can acquire the necessary knowledge through customised interventions (Magill-Evans et al) such as training programs. Magill-Evans, et al. (2007) conducted an experimental study in which fathers reviewed examples of parental sensitivity and responsiveness from videos that showed them playing with their children. These fathers demonstrated notable increases in their

parenting capabilities two months after the program. Dawson-McClure et al. (2015) examined a behavioural parenting program and found effects of the intervention on parenting knowledge. In another study Bjørknes and Manger, (2013) found that child behaviour problems reduced for children whose parents had attended a parent training designed to reduce the use of harsh discipline and increase supportive parenting. Training does not only impact skills, it has also been known to impact empathy in parents. Parents who received training to increase empathy towards their children demonstrated less permissiveness with the children and this was linked to less aggressiveness in the children, thus linking parental training to child social behaviour outcomes (Christopher, et al. 2013). Other studies have shown declines in behaviour problems after parents received training on consistent discipline as well as how to improve emotional support (Berkovits, et al. 2010) . Training has also helped parents tune into their own and the children's emotions, thus improving parents' emotional regulation and so improving relationships with children. This in turn lead to reduced social behaviour problems. There is evidence that emotionally responsive parenting correlates with positive outcomes in social facility and other areas (Gagnon, et al, 2014; Havighurst et al. 2010). In a study in Nyamira county of Kenya (Vandenhoudt, et al. 2010) demonstrated that a parenting intervention helped parents improve the way they communicated with their pre-adolescent and adolescent children.

Parents also acquire knowledge from books, media, workshops, discussions with other parents and feedback from their environment. Institutions that interact with parents often organise parent education forums , and an online search shows the presence of several social media groups for parents.

According to research in the United States of America (Duggan et al., 2016) parents gave and received support on social media. They saw social media as a source of useful information and

considered it one among several parenting resources. They used a variety of platforms including Facebook, Pinterest, LinkedIn, Instagram, and Twitter. Only about a third of the people in the groups they belonged to were actual friends (Duggan et al., 2016). Similarly, for Kenya, parents seek and share support in social media groups. Two such groups are Parenting Teenagers Hub for Kenyan Mums and Dads comprising 3700 members and Moms and Dads of Pre-Teens and Teens comprising 3800 members (at the time of writing this report). The first group described itself as a support group for Kenyan parents of preteens and teenagers (Parenting Teenagers Hub for Kenyan Mums and Dads [Facebook page], 2022). It was a private group so only members could see who was in the group and what they posted but it was visible on the internet and so anyone could find the group. Activity on the groups included promoting parenting related events and conversation starters such as an administrator posting a question. For example, on the 1st of April 2022 this had been posted by an administrator:

Parents are celebrating the success of their children on social media. These are children who scored more than 400 marks in KCPE (Kenya Certificate of primary education exam) If (yet) 250 marks is 50%, 350 marks is 70% and 399 is 80% (of a total possible 500 marks). Parents, your kids deserve to be celebrated. (Parenting Teenagers Hub for Kenyan Mums and Dads, 2022)

There were more than 30 comments following that posting. One parent posted that her daughter had been aiming to achieve 400 marks but failed, and she was in a very bad mood. The parent wanted advice as to how to handle the matter. In another post a parent asked for help because “my 16-year-old daughter has attitude and disrespects me; how do I handle her and change this behaviour?” (Parenting Teenagers Hub for Kenyan Mums and Dads, 2022). There were 47 comments related to this posting.

Moms and dads of preteens and teens was also a private group and it comprised 3800 members. The group described itself as follows:

Moms and Dads of Teens is a social support group for parents and guardians raising Teens and pre-teens. Journeying through the teen years can feel like riding a road bike down a rocky terrain and often times a parent or a guardian can feel ill-equipped to cope with their ever-changing behaviour and moods. The journey can be physically demanding and emotionally taxing and by coming together as moms and dads of teens, we can share and discuss issues, challenges, and triumphs we experience. Having a support system that you can talk about your challenges is essential for maintaining positive parent-child relationship but we recommend expert guidance where necessary. Research shows teens suicide is on the rise and as parents and guardians we can prevent this by engaging our teens in healthy dialogue and early intervention in cases of extreme misconduct. Let us share our experiences and queries and build each other (Mums and Dads of Teens and Pre-teens, 2020).

This was also a private group where only members could see who was in the group and who posted, but it was visible to anyone on the internet.

These two examples demonstrate active use of social media as a source of information for parents, where advice is sought and shared. While there is no evidence to confirm that such advice is taken and implemented, there is yet no reason to believe that it is not. In other words, social media is influencing parenting. A core issue with such groups is the credibility of information shared.

Overall, through learning parents can gain a strong sense of efficacy, incorporating confidence, influences the quality of parenting practices, and being efficacious or confident results

in the parent engaging in tasks that foster an environment in which the child thrives (Vance & Brandon, 2017). In other words, a needs supportive environment (Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008). Such an environment includes responsiveness to the needs of the child, non-punitive care taking, active parent-child interactions, acceptance, and promotion of the concerns of the child and the use of active coping strategies. Contrast this with the controlling behaviour of a parent who has low parental self-efficacy. High parental self-efficacy has also been associated with greater parenting quality as well as positive outcomes for the children. Studies have shown that parents with high potential self-efficacy report greater well-being in various activities and interactions, fewer problems, and more opportunities for optimal experiences. They are also able to guide children through various developmental stages without undue strain or grave problems (Bandura, 1997). High parental self-efficacy levels have been linked to higher parenting quality (Hess, Teti, & Hussey-Gardner, 2004) including the quality of interactions between the parents and the child, more parental warmth and responsiveness, and involvement with and monitoring of adolescents. These factors have in turn been linked with a reduced likelihood of problem social behaviours (Steca et al., 2011).

Parental self-efficacy can be increased through intervention programs that include training on parenting skills, adjusting beliefs about self-efficacy and parenting, offering information about child development and teaching parents the strategies for effective discipline and improved positive interactions with the child (Vance & Brandon, 2017).

Parenting coaching, that is parents being coached, can alter parenting behaviour, as demonstrated by Shanley and Niec (2010) who found that coaching was a strong mechanism for change. In a study involving parents and their children, observations were made and one group of parents received in vivo feedback while the other group did not. The parents who received

coaching feedback displayed notable skills improvement. In a different domain, executives who received coaching demonstrated improved self-efficacy, specifically in their self-consciousness, and their ability to set better goals and then using better strategies for achieving those goals (Moen & Allgood, 2009). These two examples demonstrate that coaching for parents may be a good avenue to impart learning and change parenting beliefs as well as behaviour. In another development, Allen (2013) makes the case for family life coaching, creating the possibility for parents and children to learn together, through coaching, in order to achieve family goals. Allen (2013) describes family life coaching as a combination of family life education and coaching practice, where “a certified family life coach partners with families to help them gain insight, acquire skills and knowledge and to build strengths personally and as a family unit” (p. 76.). While family life coaching is distinct from parental coaching as described in this study, Allen’s (2013) argument supports the need propagated in this current study to consider coaching as a methodology to support positive outcomes for parents and their children.

4.3 Summary

In this chapter results of the exploratory study on Kenyan parents’ use of coaching skills to instil social behaviour in their children were presented. In order to arrive at the results, thematic analysis of interviews of parents, children, and teachers as well as school report forms belonging to the children was done both inductively and deductively. Raw data was in the form of interview scripts (of parents, children, and teachers) and documents (school report cards) and 2). Deductive thematic analysis was done based on a categorisation matrix derived from the principles of coaching.

The results show the following:

1. Parents use telling, role modelling and accountability to instil social behaviour in their children. Telling is a unidirectional verbal action, and the results of the thematic analysis show that it is qualified by the moment of action, that is, the moment when parents speak to their children, as well as the parent's tone of voice.
2. Parents' choice of method of instilling social responsibility in their children is driven by parents' vision for their children, parents' own upbringing, and parents' perception of their role, including use of authority.
3. Parents learn along the way, through trial and error, by attending training, through reading and by discussing with fellow parents. The results also show that parents are not always self-confident in what they do, and are not sure that they will achieve the outcomes they seek.
4. Parents' vision for their children revolves around 1) resources - how children maximise their potential, how they care for property and how they care for the environment. 2) Co-existence - how children communicate with others, how they relate to their siblings, peers, parents, and others, how they contribute to the community and how they show respect for others. 3) Authority - how the children relate with authority at home and at school, as well as how the children demonstrate spirituality, specifically being God fearing.
5. Parents' approach to instilling social behaviour in their children is tempered by learning - first, from their own parents, in which case they choose to perpetuate their own parents' approach or to reject it. Secondly, by adapting to their children's temperament and needs and third, through learning from their own experience with the child. Finally, parents sometimes self-regulate to avoid jumping in to solve problems for their children, in order to create space for the children to find their own answers or to be themselves.

6. Parents are vulnerable - they have a responsibility they cannot abdicate or delegate, but they do not know whether what they are doing is right. Sometimes there is fear of failure.
7. Parents are influenced by their spouses, as well as by their jobs/professions.
8. A list of social behaviours that children exhibit, and to what extent they exhibit those social behaviours, was developed. These social behaviours include self-management behaviours like managing time and being independent; relationship behaviours like co-existing with peers and siblings, respecting others and submitting to authority, and performance behaviours like working towards goals, being hardworking and cleaning up after themselves. Behaviours related to self-expression and introspection like negotiating, resolving conflict and owning up to mistakes were also exhibited, although to a lesser extent than all the others.

This fourth chapter presented and evaluated the findings of the research, based on thematic analysis of the data collected from interviews and document analysis. In the following and final chapter implications, conclusions and recommendations are presented.

CHAPTER 5 IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

It is reasonable to expect that between home and school, children receive a holistic education. It is therefore not surprising that manifestations of less-than-ideal social behaviour should be of concern. This is why the repetitive display of poor social behaviour by school children in Kenya draws so much interest that several government-appointed commissions have investigated the situation (Nyagwoka, 2022), yet it flares up year after year. Of more concern is the fact that while parents are blamed, little has been done to equip the parents with the means to do something differently. By studying what parents are doing to instil social behaviour in school-going children, this research has provided a basis upon which practical recommendations can be made and availed.

This research set out to address this problem of poor social behaviour by proposing that parents can coach their children to integrate desirable social behaviours. Coaching involves the use of listening and questioning skills in an environment where the coach regards the client with unconditional positive regard and helps the client to find solutions to issues, to grow as a result of self-discovery based on insights gained due to coaching, and to practice new behaviours (International Coaching Federation, 2020). Given the role parents play in socialising their children (Healy, Sander , & Lyer, 2015), a parent can be their child's social behaviour coach. During the exploration, it was found that parents use various methods to instil social behaviour in their children.

These methods were reviewed against known, effective coaching methods, and the report includes suggestions on how to make the methods already being used more effective. It was also found that various factors influence why parents choose these methods. This provided an opportunity to recommend interventions that might help parents to rely on different criteria for selecting the methods they use. These are discussed in the section on implications of the study followed by recommendations for practical application and further research.

Using a case study approach, the researcher interviewed parents, their children, and the children's teachers, in order to discover how parents in Kenya coached their children to instil social behaviours. Furthermore, the researcher sought to explore why parents choose the methods they use, and to assess what social behaviours the children exhibit. The objectives of the study were threefold: first, to understand how Kenyan parents use coaching to instil social behaviour in their children, second to understand why parents choose the methods they use to instil social behaviour and third, to observe how the children exhibit the desired social behaviours (Baker, Fenning, & Crnic, 2011). This chapter discusses the implications of the results and makes recommendations for further research, as well as drawing conclusions from the research. These objectives arose as a result of observations of poor social behaviour exemplified by school unrest (Andafu, 2020; Kipkemoi, 2018; Kosgei, 2015; Tuko.co.ke, 2019) and repeated year after year despite numerous efforts to understand its causes, and despite various recommendations made to counter it (Baker, Fenning, & Crnic, 2011; Malenya, 2014).

A common thread running through government-appointed commission reports, media reports, ministerial speeches and other utterances by people concerned with this matter is the blame apportioned to parents for not raising their children properly (Apondi, 2005; Republic of Kenya, 2017). This is not surprising because parents are responsible for instilling social behaviour in their

children (Baker, Fenning, & Crnic, 2011; Healy, Sanders, & Lyer, 2015; McDowell & Parke, 2009; Suresh, Jayachander, & Shloka, 2013). The question was, therefore, to see how parents do that, and specifically, to see if parents use the coaching method to do so. This research helped to answer the following questions:

Research question 1: How do parents coach their children to instil social behaviour?

Research question 2: Why do parents choose the methods they use to coach their children?

Research question 3: How do children demonstrate the social behaviours their parents aim to instil through coaching?

5.2 Implications of the results

Parents' influence on the child's social development is significant, but studies have shown that the child also has an innate capacity for self-development. Self Determination Theory proposes three psychological needs, which, when met, result in optimal development of the child (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Deci, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2022). These three needs are 1) the need for competence, which is the need to feel confident and effective; 2) the need for relatedness, which is the need for belonging to groups that matter, and to be cared for, and 3) the need for independence of thought and action, known also as the need for autonomy. Where these needs are not met, optimal wellness or performance are compromised (Deci E. , 2017). The parent, as primary caregiver for the child, is an enabler, facilitator, and influencer of the child's development, and for this reason, parenting approaches that support this parenting role are implicated. The study proposed that a coaching approach by parents is a needs-supportive approach that provides the conditions to allow the three psychological needs proposed by SDT to be met. Parental coaching was defined as:

A needs-supportive parenting practice which involves a series of instances within the parent-child relationship where the parent engages in guided conversations using coaching skills to support the normal child's growth potential. In these instances, the child is given unconditional positive regard and the parent engages in active listening while challenging, empowering, and acknowledging the child, thus facilitating achievement of co-created goals, for which the parent holds the child accountable (Wasike-Sihanya, 2023).

Coaching involves certain skills; it requires a certain attitude or mindset from the coach and it follows a process or structure. In this study coaching was considered to involve three principles of coaching: coaching is client centred; coaching is facilitative and coaching is structured. In fact, the current study submitted that parental coaching is a particular parenting practice underpinned by an ambience of parental involvement, autonomy support and structure (Wasike-Sihanya, 2023). This ambience provides a framework within which parent-child interaction also needs 1) conversation between parent (coach) and child (client), 2) co-created solutions and 3) monitored accountability for it to be described as coaching. Consequently, the researcher evaluated the parent, child and teacher interviews for themes that supported this framework: for parents to be deemed to be coaching their children, they would need to applying coaching skills or methods, to demonstrate a coaching mindset, and to bring the skills and mindset to bear in an organised structure and an atmosphere that is child-centred.

The skills include listening actively, asking questions, and monitoring accountability (Williams & Menendez, 2007). Listening actively involves not interrupting the child and using all the senses to connect to the child to hear what they are saying, to see what they are projecting with their bodies, to notice energy shifts, and to sense underlying messages (Williams & Menendez,

2007). Skilful use of questions can help to extract the child's hidden potential, get the child to focus on high points that can have the greatest impact and draw on the child's creativity to elicit new options (Williams & Menendez, 2007). Questions in coaching also serve to encourage, support, and validate; uncover issues; discover what is not obvious; generate new possibilities, respectfully challenge thinking, and identify assumptions (Williams & Menendez, 2007). Questions are good when they are simple, and intentional and when they can influence without controlling (Starr, 2008). It is significant that the two skills of listening and asking questions skilfully did not emerge strongly in the thematic analysis. Rather, it was telling, a directive, top-down verbal action, that did.

Accountability emerged prominently among the key themes, yet it was deployed in ways ranging from like coaching to unlike coaching. This theme evoked the concept of power-assertive parenting and its impact on the social behaviour of a child. The coaching mindset involves accepting the child as they are, having no pre judgement about them or preconceptions of what they should be, and working with them at their level, while being observant in helping them to gain insights from which they can develop. The study found that parents' attitude to their children was greatly influenced by what the parents wanted (their own vision for the child), and the child was generally not treated as if they could generate their own insights.

5.3 RQ1 How parents coach their children to instil social behaviour

Following inductive thematic analysis of the interviews of parents, their children and the children's teachers, the researchers discovered four key methods that parents in Kenya use to instil social behaviour in their children, but an examination of these methods used by parents shows that they do not meet the criteria of what coaching is. A further examination of what parents do vis a

vis the principles of coaching deduced that these principles, that is: coaching is child-centred, facilitative, and structured are not fully met.

The actions, skills or behaviours of parents deduced from the key themes illustrated in Table 4.16 showed that parents use telling, accountability, modelling, and authority to instil social behaviour in their children. In answering RQ1 - how do parents coach their children in order to instil social behaviour? - telling and modelling, which are actions, were evaluated on how (or not) they qualify to be described as coaching. Accountability is part of the coaching process, and was evaluated on how it is used. Authority and learning are linked to parent mindset and were evaluated for how they impact what the parent does while instilling social behaviour in the child.

Telling: A core activity in coaching is a conversation, and conversation means talking and listening happen alternately between the parties in the conversation. Furthermore, in a coaching conversation, the coach listens deeply, paraphrases what the client has said, asks and shares reflective feedback (Cheliotis, 2012). In fact, a coaching conversation is intended to stimulate thinking, growth, and change that lead to action, and is focused on the other person. Telling, a key theme derived in this study, is like coaching conversation in so far as it is a verbal action. However, by definition, telling is a one-way activity, and in this respect, when it is the primary verbal activity, it is not coaching. The parent tells the child. When telling is done through yelling, it adopts an unappealing tone of voice, does not allow room for the child to talk and does not hear or listen to what the child says. This is not a conversation, much less a coaching conversation. When the talking happens at a moment when the child is not in a frame of mind to participate in a conversation (like when they are woken up from sleep to go do something immediately), that moment of action does not represent a coaching moment, because the 'client' is not present. Grolnick, Deci, and Ryan (1997) noted that parents encourage autonomy, one of the three basic

psychological needs according to self-determination theory, by encouraging dialogue and allowing the children to make suggestions, explore alternatives and make choices. Furthermore, autonomy supportive parents use appealing, rather than coercive, language (Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015). Language is also important in coaching to illuminate understanding and guide learning as it provides an avenue for self-correction and self-generation (Barlett, 2007). When the communication is unidirectional, the tone of voice unappealing, the language coercive and the moment of action unsuitable, the interaction is not coaching.

Parents can turn telling into conversation by making the interaction a two-way exchange where they alternate talking to and listening to the child. The conversation quality can be further enhanced when the parent uses powerful questioning (Williams & Menendez, 2007) to guide the child, coupled with the creation of an atmosphere where the child feels safe to participate in the conversation. Such an atmosphere can be formed by the parent reassuring the child that they are free to contribute their ideas, by modulating tone of voice and by listening and acknowledging the child's contribution. Additionally, the use of invitational rhetoric (Pariera & Turner, 2020) would provide a more conducive atmosphere for meaningful exchanges between parents and their children. Furthermore, co-creation of actions derived from the coaching conversation would help the child gain insights and practice desired behaviours.

Role modelling: The study deduced that parents use role modelling to instil social behaviour in their children. Role modelling is not typically part of the life coaching relationship, although it has been observed that in the development of emotional competence children learn from the modelling of emotional expression and regulation by their parents (Duncombe, 2012). Bandura (1977) pointed out that parents ought to be keenly aware of the social behaviour they are modelling, as example will lead to learning, whether the social behaviour is desirable or not.

Therefore, while role modelling is not a coaching action, it remains relevant for the parent-child relationship. Indeed, for adolescents, who are the relevant group for this study, identity formation is a central focus, and they are particularly likely to be influenced by the behaviour of the adults in their environment (Hurd, 2009). Parents can learn to be keenly aware of their actions in order to minimize the chances of their children learning unintended behaviours from them. Meanwhile, parents can increase the modelling of desired social behaviour. In this regard, careful role modelling is applied to help children observe desirable social behaviour in action, and to imitate it.

Along with role modelling, parents create opportunities for children to practice. This creation of opportunities is observed in coaching as well. Barlett (2007) states that coaching clients need opportunities to practice what they have learned because practice allows transfer from knowing to doing. Children too, learn and improve from practicing social behaviour.

Accountability: Accountability is not an action, but is an important part of the coaching process, and forms part of the fourth competency in the International Coaching Federation's Coaching Competency framework (International Coaching Federation, 2019), that is, "Cultivating Learning and Growth". This competency involves the process of working with the client to generate actions out of the learning and insight that the client experiences during the coaching process. The coach does this by inviting the client to explore what they are discovering about themselves and their situation, and how they can use that learning. Cultivating learning and growth also involves designing the accountability measures that the client will use to monitor progress. Moreover, the coach celebrates milestones with the client and because the process engenders autonomy, the coach can allow the client to continue practicing the new behaviour, or ways of thinking, that they identified.

This study found that parents do use accountability, but in a range of ways. On one end, parents allow the children to develop actions for follow-up, and only step in to check completion or monitor progress. On the other end, parents stipulate which actions should be undertaken, and then supervise the execution of those actions. In coaching, mutual agreement about goals and tasks, as well as the development of bonding between coach and client, are aptly captured by the concept of the working alliance, a relationship that develops during coaching sessions (Baron, 2009) and (Gessnitzer, 2015). Baron, (2009) found that client activeness was beneficial for coaching success, but coach activeness had the reverse effect. Where the parent creates the action plans for the children, which is parent activeness, successful outcomes are compromised. When the children are allowed to participate in proposing their own solutions and action plan, client activeness is at play, and accountability is being enforced the way it is done in coaching. For this to happen, parents need to accept that the child is can relevant suggestions. To do this, parents may themselves need to be coached to help them notice mental sets that get in the way of how they regard their children and to help them begin to see their children in an unconditional positive light. Parents can also learn strategies for enforcing and supporting accountability in their children.

Authority: While authority is not an action, it is used in action and it emerges recurrently in the thematic analysis of interview scripts and documents. It is viewed in terms of source of authority as perceived by parents, and children's relationship with authority as a social behaviour. The study therefore deduced that it is a significant concept in the way parents instil social behaviour in their children. This study evaluated how authority is used while instilling social behaviour in children, and analysed how the use of authority by parents compares with the use of authority in coaching.

In the coaching relationship, the coach's authority derives from his or her training and reputation. Reputation grows from experience and credibility. The client recognizes the coach's authority implicitly (otherwise they would not agree to, and pay for, coaching). While the coach does not force the client to implement actions or be accountable, he or she directly communicates to the client about what is observed in relation to the client's implementation or lack of implementation of agreed actions. The coach guides the client to reflect on what their behaviour in respect of executing actions means, vis á vis the client's stated objectives for coaching. This reflection can, of itself, yield useful insights, which the client may choose to act on.

In the current study, parents saw their authority as God-given. This resulted in some parents such as MK seeing it as nearly absolute, while others such as WM and ES considered it a huge responsibility. Parents reinforced this authority by increasing their knowledge of parenting through learning from books, discussions with other parents, training from workshops and practical experience. In the practice of coaching, foundational training is a requirement, and continuing education is required. In fact, professional coaches are required to log continuing education hours in order to maintain, renew or upgrade their coaching credentials (International Coaching Federation, 2019). In this regard, the practice of reading, attending workshops and interacting with other parents in order to learn is 'like coaching,' even though parents are not necessarily seeking to improve coaching skills.

Furthermore, the current study draws parallels between the way parents exercise their authority and the discussion of power dynamics in coaching (Diochon, 2015). If one were to consider the parent as an institution, Diochon (2015) highlights that the coaching relationship is not necessarily consensual. To this end, it can be seen as an instrument for exercising control over the person who is being coached, in this case, the child. The current study deduced that parents do

try to direct the behaviour of their children to fit in with what the parent wants regarding social behaviour. Furthermore, the child is not usually presented with an option to accept or refuse the parent's directions. In the view of Diochon et al, (2015) the actions of the parents create a situation like those instances where clients are involved in 'non-consensual' coaching. This view contrasts with the understanding that coaching is a collaborative relationship (Joseph, 2014), where an open, explicit relationship exists, where no one in the coaching dyad is superior, and where there is a team approach and joint effort. Where the parent-child collaborate, the parent coach would display a cooperative demeanour, providing the rationale for 'asks,' offering options and admitting mistakes (O'Broin & Palmer, 2009). In other words, the parents would provide an autonomy-supportive environment as outlined in self-determination theory: encouraging dialogue and allowing the children to make suggestions, encouraging the children to explore alternatives and to make choices (Grolnick, 2009; Vansteenkiste & Soenens, 2015).

Based on the thematic data derived from the interviews conducted for this study, some parents demonstrated a collaborative demeanour while others did not. The question is, can parents let go of their controlling subjective view of their children? Attaining objectivity may not be possible because the relationship between parent and child is social and is therefore affected by cultural processes and power dynamics (Shoukry & Cox, 2018). These authors are, however, wary of the predominance of the western based corporate organization as the context of coaching and questioning the suitability of coaching models and techniques as described in much literature. While this conversation is beyond the scope of this current research it is useful to note that the focus on coach neutrality (Cushion, 2018) may be compromised by the natural power hierarchy between a parent and his or her child.

Parents' self-confidence: The current study also observed that the parents' confidence in what they are doing underpins their actions: there is trial and error, as well as self-regulation and learning on the go. The parents do what they do to instil social behaviours in their children, knowing that there is no guarantee that it will yield the results they seek, or that it is the best approach for the child they are dealing with. In the experience of this researcher as a coach, competence and self-confidence develop through practice. In coach training, it is common to work in triads, with one person acting as a client, another as a coach and the third as an observer. This allows for practice and feedback. Coach trainees are supported by mentor coaches who observe their performance and discuss how to improve, allowing for betterment through doing. This practice is based on what the coach has been taught as the right way to coach, and practice serves to reinforce the theoretical learning through practice.

The parent self-efficacy construct is important for successful child development outcomes, including social behaviour outcomes. Bandura (1997) described self-efficacy as what people believe about their capability to influence events that affect their lives. High self-efficacy in parents has been implicated in the quality of parent-child interactions, parent warmth and responsiveness as well as parent involvement with and monitoring of adolescents. These variables have also been implicated in creating an autonomy supportive environment that helps children develop competence and confidence. Further, the observations about self-efficacy are important for the findings of the current study as they suggest that any intervention to promote coaching by parents should consider how to ensure high-self efficacy for parents. Parents may be taught coaching skills, and this should go hand in hand with interventions that build parents' confidence that they can coach their children effectively.

Coaching structure: Structure in coaching is represented by the way the coaching conversation is organised. Usually there is a beginning (objective setting), a middle (brainstorming, insight generation, etc.) and an ending (action planning). Furthermore, a coaching path (Placeholder2), or session guideline such as the GROW model (Whitmore, 2009) is useful for steering the conversation, to help coach and client stay on track and even to act as a memory aide for the coach (Grant, 2011).

The study found no evidence that parents were using a coaching structure. The telling happened spontaneously, and there were no objectives, and no in-between conversation to generate insights. Although action planning was identified, it was not always based on co-created solutions. Furthermore, the way accountability was enforced did not always consider the child's input. Parents sometimes dictate what was to be done, and close monitoring by the parent suggested a perception that the child was not capable of monitoring him or herself and denied the opportunity for them to learn to do so.

The use of a structure can be helpful for focusing a conversation and tracking progress, and this could support the parent to help the child develop what they are behind on, what they are struggling with or what is most needed. When there is no structure, it is easy to wander from one topic to another, default to the easier thing and go away without really helping the child to gain insight. Advocating for structure, however, should not be interpreted to mean that spontaneity and grabbing opportunities that represent teachable moments are not encouraged. Indeed, African traditional education is not separated from daily life and there is no separation between learning time and other time (Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002). The researcher does not intend to suggest that this should be done away with. Rather, the researcher proposes that structure be incorporated even in short spontaneous conversations. If parents are aware of the concept, they know how to use it

and are willing to practice whenever the opportunity to coach the child arises, parents can get better and better at employing coaching skills spontaneously.

5.3. RQ2: Why parents choose the methods they choose to instil social behaviour in their children.

The interviews with parents revealed three underlying drivers of the choice of method by parents. These are 1) the parent's vision for the child; 2) the parents own experience of being raised by his or her parents, and 3) the parent's perception of his or her role. These drivers were underpinned by five themes: resources, co-existence, authority, learning and vulnerability.

5.3.1 Parents' vision for the child

The first three themes – resources, co-existence, and authority - are related to what parents want for their children, that is, parents' vision for their children. Principally, parents want: 1) children to maximize their potential (innate resource), to take care of property and to care for the environment (external resources); 2) to co-exist harmoniously with siblings, peers, parents, and others in the community, to contribute to the community and to show respect for others, and 3) to relate well with authority at school and at home. This situation, where the parent has a vision for the child, and this vision is driving the way the parent instils social behaviour in the child can be described as 'not like coaching.' Coaching is understood to be client-centred, meaning the coach facilitates the achievement of client vision and goals (Joseph, 2014). One would therefore expect that the child's vision would feature in the equation. Furthermore, this approach by parents belies the notion of autonomy support where parents are interested in, and encourage, the child's perspectives and solutions, rather than their own agenda (Vansteenkiste, 2015). It is not aligned with the description of coaching as a client-led partnership that allows for the co-creation of

solutions (International Coaching Federation, 2020). Yet, the question arises: can the parent-child relationship be client-led in a culture which reveres the elder and celebrates obedience and conformity (Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2003). Baumrind's (1971) typology of parenting styles concluded that authoritative parenting, comprising a balance between demandingness and supportiveness, was the best approach to parenting. Yet, Calafat (2014), Martinez, Garcia, & Yubero, (2007) and Shek (2002) found differences for Spanish, Brazilian and Asian cultures. Calafat (2014) found that permissive and authoritative parenting had similar outcomes in Spain, Martinez et al (2007), and determined that authoritative parenting was not associated with optimum self-esteem in Brazil. Shek (2002) concluded that Chinese parents were more inclined to authoritarian parenting, and it seemed to work well on their children. The task for Kenyan parents may be to fashion a 'Kenyan coaching approach' that incorporates coaching methods such as asking powerful questions and listening actively, without surrendering the traditional intergenerational hierarchy which celebrates the parent's generational power.

5.3.2 Learning and Vulnerability

The themes learning and vulnerability were observed for both RQ1 and RQ2. Learning is closely linked to how the parents themselves were parented. Parents learn from their own parents and choose either to replicate what their own parents did or to reject it, depending on how they experienced it and how they view it as adults. However, it is not clear from the findings of this study whether parents always reject what they did not like, or whether they replicate their own parents' methods because they know no other. The influence of one's upbringing on how they parent is a broad topic that does not fit into the scope of the current study, but it is an important factor for how parents act towards their children. The critical thing to note, from a coaching

perspective, is the way a parent's own 'issues' can impact the way they instil social behaviour in their children. This phenomenon, sometimes called transference, refers to the implicit assumptions that people make about others based on their past experiences as well as the way unconscious learning is applied to new contexts (Lee, 2014). For the current study, this observation about carrying forward what they experienced as children suggests that parents might benefit from deep introspection in order to understand the root causes of their parenting approaches with a view to minimizing transference from their own upbringing. Transference may lead to a parent pursuing his or her own agenda rather than what is good for the child, even when the parent does not articulate it that way. A key principle of coaching is that it is client (child) centred, and one of the conditions for client-centred coaching is that the coach does not allow his or her own preconceptions or pre-occupations to cloud the session (Joseph, 2014).

Parents in the current study also learned by adapting to the child's temperament, and through trial and error. When a coach pays attention to the client, they gain understanding of what works and what does not and they can adapt their approach to accommodate the client for better effect. In fact, for parents, the nature of the child can be more powerful than the intentions of the parents, and the current study found that in certain cases parents learnt that "*this does not work with this child.*" In some instances, the child explicitly told the parent that what they were doing was not effective, causing the parent to review her actions.

Self-determination Theory helps to explain this, as it identified that human beings' have an innate and profoundly advanced tendency towards psychological growth and development (Deci & Ryan, 1985). From what was deduced in this current study, this innate capacity can practically override a parent's efforts to direct the growth and development of the child, and a watchful parent will notice when his or her methods are not bearing fruit and will try different approaches.

Understanding this may explain why parents practiced physical self-restraint, locking themselves in their room, to allow for their children to self-direct.

The theme of learning is relevant for parents coaching their children not just from the perspective of learning how to coach, but of learning how best to help the individual child achieve his or her objectives. This learning may come from the experience of parenting itself, from observing or listening to feedback from spouses and close relatives, and through paying close attention to the child by listening, observing, and otherwise sensing the child's state. This close attention tempered by space is advocated by many scholars who wrote that a benefit for parents who provide autonomy support is that they are closely tuned in to the rhythm and pace of their child's development (Joussemet, 2020; Joussemet, Landry, & Koestner, 2008; Soenens, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2017; Vansteenkiste, 2015). Consequently, they know their child well and have a good sense of what their child is capable of. This makes it easy for them to help with patience and step back in confidence as needed. Such parents are also able to take oppositional behaviour, negative emotions, and divergent opinions from their children in their stride because of their willingness to accept their child as he or she is, and to listen to their child's reasoning. This has implications for closeness between parent and child as such knowledge of the child comes from spending time together. Learning may also derive from trial and error, doing things and observing the outcomes, then deciding whether they are worth repeating or not. But learning also depends on the knowledge seeking behaviour of parents, what they read, who they discuss with, and what they are taught by relevant parties.

In fact, learning does not implicate only the knowledge (and skills) seeking behaviours of parents, but also raises the question of what knowledge and skills provision systems are accessible to parents in Kenya. Such support systems may be made available through interventions that target

specific areas: skills, knowledge, and self-management. Skills based interventions include coaching skills – how to create a safe space, how to conduct a coaching conversation, how to help the child set objectives, how to support the child to set and follow up on their action plans. Skills could also be related to creating a needs-supportive environment, for example, how to enforce boundaries in an autonomy supportive way. Starr (2008) lists five coaching skills: building rapport or relationship, different levels of listening, using intuition, asking questions, and giving feedback. Knowledge includes information about the child’s developmental stages and the implications for the parent-child relationship, how a parent’s own developmental history can impact parenting and how to mitigate negative influences. It also includes information on the effect of society and culture, including religion and parenting traditions, on parenting. Self-management would include topics around self-awareness and awareness of parenting styles and how to manage them so that they do not develop into needs-thwarting behaviour. Table 5.1 summarises these.

Table 5.1*Examples of Intervention Areas for Parents*

Targeted area	Example topics covered	Formats
Skills	Coaching skills - conversation skills, need supportive parenting skills, skills to manage parental stress such as techniques to practice mindfulness.	Workshops, group discussions, individual coaching, online courses.
Knowledge	Child developmental stages and implications for parent-child relationship, how parent developmental history influences parenting, needs-supportive parenting approaches	Lectures, workshops, group discussions, individual coaching, in person and online.
Self-Management	Self-awareness, parenting styles, mitigating effects of detrimental personal characteristics, enhancing the use of positive personal characteristics	Lectures, workshops, group discussions, individual coaching, in person and online.

Morelli et al. (2018) caution about the importance of ensuring an ethical approach to parenting interventions. They propose that ethical questions arise because, of necessity, interventions require something to change, and the changes are often at the level of personal views,

practices, and norms. They emphasise the need for any parenting interventions to incorporate methods of assessing what is really needed in view of the parent's socio-cultural context, to assess the short term and long term effects of the intervention, and to make available the data so collected for use by researchers, practitioners and scholars in relevant areas. Further, Morelli et al (2018) highlight the importance of using the code of ethical practice as a foundation for designing parenting interventions. This code calls for respecting the person, for beneficence and for fairness and justice. In fact, parents should not be subjected to the same sub-optimal standards of care that the interventions seek to avoid for the children.

Indeed, the assumption should not be made that intervention is required only in child-directed behaviours. Supporting parents to manage issues that get in the way of providing a needs-supportive environment is also implicated here. While parents can practice being present and mindful in order to identify issues and to notice when transference is happening from themselves to their child, they may require the help of a professional such as a therapist or a coach to support them in surfacing and dealing with their own issues. This means that even parents may benefit from coaching. In fact, coaching of parents is a developing area (Allen & Huff, 2014) and the two streams, coaching of parents and coaching by parents could develop side by side for Kenyan parents.

5.4 RQ3 How children demonstrate the social behaviours their parents aim to instil through coaching.

In order to respond to the question of which behaviours were exhibited, the study analysed the children's school report cards for social behaviour related words. This was supplemented by analysis of responses to structured questions where parents and teachers rated the social behaviours they observed in their children for frequency. Children self-rated on the same. The list of

behaviours was initially created by the researcher based on her knowledge and experience as a Kenyan parent and coach. Following the interviews and thematic analysis the list was updated, including some behaviours that had not been listed, and removing those that were not mentioned or implied. Consequently, the research resulted in the compilation of a list of social behaviours that Kenyan school children exhibit, based on analysis of behaviour terms in school report cards and parent interviews. Moreover, the research analysed the extent to which each of those behaviours were exhibited and ranked them on this basis. Ultimately, the research produced a list of 31 social behaviours observed in Kenyan school going children, and this list was ranked according to how frequently they are observed. This gives a picture of which social behaviours children exhibit most frequently and which ones they exhibit rarely, and is useful for comparing with the social behaviours that are expected or required in specific situations, such as the case of school unrest.

Wasylyshyn (2006) discussed the measures of coaching effectiveness and identified three categories of observed behaviour: relationship behaviour, self-regulatory behaviour, and change behaviour. Relationship behaviour involves the association that the child has with other individuals and with groups. It includes collaboration and communication, as well as how the child demonstrates consideration for another person, including respect for others and caring for others. It is required for the child to co-exist harmoniously with others and to collaborate.

Self-regulatory behaviours are focused on the self and include self-management behaviours like managing personal time and organizing self for school as well as self-control including controlling responses and reactions to situations. In the current study, it was observed that children exhibited relationship behaviour and self-regulatory behaviour, although the scope of the study did not allow for examining if there was a correlation between how parents instilled social behaviour

and the presence of this social behaviour. Also, tracking change behaviour was beyond the scope of this study, so this was not observed.

In addition to relationship behaviour and self-regulatory behaviour, the current study also observed behaviour linked to performance, like working hard, working towards goals, and getting ready for exams and other important activities. It was also beyond the scope of this work to determine the prevalence of specific behaviours, although the analysis of structured interview questions suggests that performance-related behaviours are observed to a great extent. While behaviours related to self-expression that require the child to ‘open up’ (sharing problems, resolving conflict, and negotiating) are rarely observed. Meanwhile, behaviours relating to self-management appear to be mostly in the middle - that is they are observed sometimes.

On the ranked list, the top third (top 10) comprised primarily of behaviours related to performance: working towards set goals; organizing self for school and school related activities, working hard, taking care of property, and showing competency in preparing for exams and other important activities. This observation is significant when considered alongside fear of exams, a performance issue that has been identified as one of the major causes of misbehaviour in schools (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and technology, 2000). It begs the question: are children internalising performance behaviours or are they simply ‘performing’ for parents? Internalisation is the method by which individuals, including children, attain behaviour, attitudes, and behavioural rules from external sources, such as parents, and then transform them into personal values (Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997). If internalisation happens one would expect that the children are able to transfer what they have learnt from their parents on performance behaviours to different circumstances, including situations where they face transitional exams. Joussemet (2020) highlighted three conditions required for parents to support their children in meeting basic

psychological needs in such a way that the children will capitalize on their natural tendency to internalise values from their experiences. These three conditions are: 1) Parents understand the child's perspective and promote activities that interest the child. In doing so, parents communicate why structure or other conditions of the activities are important (rather than insisting that it must be that way without providing a rationale); 2) Parents do not use incentives and evaluation for activities and behaviours; and 3) Parents foster activities for their own sake rather than having the child engage in the activities in expectation of something in return. While the current study did not set out to assess the presence of these three conditions, the analysis shows that there is a strong parent objective (instead of child objective) in situations where social behaviours are being instilled. This has implications for the extent to which children would internalise behaviours and draw on them in different situations, and provides a compelling reason for parents to provide support for desired behaviours to be learnt, rather than demanding those behaviours.

In the bottom third (bottom 10) were behaviours relating to self-expression and accountability: negotiating; resolving conflict with others; expressing different feelings; communicating effectively and sharing problems with their parents or teacher. This is significant because communication was highlighted in reports on the causes of school unrest (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2000; National Crime Research Centre, 2017). The Sagini Report (Republic of Kenya, 1991) and the Koech Report (Republic of Kenya T. , 1999) identified lack of inclusive communication channels for school children as an important underlying cause of poor social behaviour. This tallies with what parents and children who were interviewed for this study said. They said that children were not allowed to express themselves and so the school children acted out their frustrations.

It would be of interest to parents, education officials and other interested parties to examine the social behaviours that are emphasised, perhaps those prioritized by parents (and teachers). This could be done among children with a view to establish if more attention should not be paid to the ones that are rarely observed, and which are more relevant for addressing the issues that school children face. If parents are instilling behaviours relating to self-expression, why are children unable to express their frustrations at school?

5.5 Limitations of the research

There were several limitations to this study. These are related to the scope of the research, the population of the study, the interview method and manual thematic analysis.

5.5.1 Scope

The research was limited to what parents said they do to instil social behaviour in their children, with corroboration from the children based on what they experience from their parents, and teachers based on what they observe in the children. The scope of the research did not include determining if there was a correlation between what the parents said they did to instil social behaviour in their children and the behaviours that the children exhibited.

5.5.2 *The interview method*

The research relied on the self-testimony of the parents. While the child's interview served as a kind of corroboration of what the parent said, the researcher cannot claim to have eliminated self-promotion by the parents. Since the researcher relied on the parent to invite his or her child to the interviews, the researcher cannot rule out the possibility that the way the parent briefed the child may have led to the child seeking to 'protect' the parent. Still, having a third person, the teacher, rate the behaviour exhibited by the child served as further corroboration of what parent

and child claimed, although the teacher, having been recruited by the parent, may have been biased in providing an opinion, to favour the parent.

5.5.3 Population of the study

The research was limited to 7 parents with their children, all middle class, urban Kenyans. Due to the relatively small number of parents their narratives, and, therefore, the outcomes of the thematic analysis cannot be assumed to be representative of the Kenyan parent or, indeed, the Kenyan school child. Nevertheless, the researcher felt that interviewing more people would not have yielded significant new information for this group of parents.

The intention was to interview triads involving parent/child/teacher, but three triads were not complete as the teachers did not avail themselves for the interviews. This may have skewed the results of the quantitative analysis of the structured interview, as some children had more observations than others.

5.5.4 Manual thematic analysis

Because existing transcribing and thematic analysis applications rely on UK English or American English and accompanying accents, the interview transcripts had several errors arising from failure to understand the Kenyan accent and jargon. The researcher resorted to manual thematic analysis. Naturally, this is subject to the limitations of human capabilities. First, researcher bias in spotting and highlighting initial codes, which are subsequently collapsed into themes. The researcher tried to manage this by just listening to what was being said without judgement or preconception (as is done in coaching). Second, simply missing out phrases or words, due to the sheer amount of data that is available. In order to minimise the chances of this the

researcher read and re-read, and listened and re-listened to the interviews several times. Naturally, there can be no claim that such bias or omissions were eliminated.

5.6 Recommendations for application

The study was thought to be relevant for at least three groups of people, and these groups of people can benefit from and apply the findings of this research: parents, education professionals, coaches. In addition, institutions that create and implement policies related to parents and children, especially those concerned with children's social behaviour, can find relevance in the findings of this study.

Based on observed social behaviours, the research demonstrated that certain social behaviours seem to be favoured over others in terms of the social behaviours that are more commonly observed versus those that are observed rarely. It is significant that the social behaviours that are rarely observed are also implicated in cases of student unrest. These are conflict resolution, negotiation and owning up to mistakes. Any efforts to address the problem of school unrest could benefit from interrogating which social behaviours are rewarded or highlighted among school children, with a view to spotlighting social behaviours that are desirable for the resolution of the problems most cited for causing school unrest. This could help draw attention to any deficits in instilling, encouraging, and rewarding such behaviours.

For parents, this research has highlighted the methods that are used to instil social behaviour in their children, and it has shown that there are gaps between what is done and coaching, yet coaching has been shown to impact behaviour and to cause behaviour change (Wasylyshyn, 2006). The detailed discussion on how the methods used by parents can be improved provides information that can equip and empower parents to positively enhance their parenting methods, making them more needs-supportive. Coaching emerges as an unexplored opportunity

that could potentially lead to improved social behaviour in children in Kenya. In that regard, the results of the current study can be applied where the case for effective parenting practices is relevant, such as the prevailing situation of recurrent school unrest. The results of the study therefore provide a basis upon which it can be argued that the use of coaching skills by parents could be useful, and so behooves any institution, organisation or body that influences what parents do, to consider providing training in the use of coaching skills to parents. This implies a need to ascertain which touch points already exist with parents, where such training can be provided. If there are no touch points, or where there are no suitable ones, then the implication is that such touch points need to be created. Coaching skills training for parents would of necessity, also include tools and strategies to help parents to interrogate their mindset as regards how they instil social behaviour. This includes interrogating their mental models about children and parenting, their views on parental authority, and their perception of the creativity and resourcefulness of their children. This is warranted by the findings of this study that parents do not always use a child centred approach, rather, that they impose their own vision and methods on the child.

One of the main themes extracted from this study is parental confidence. This term is used colloquially to denote the extent to which parents believe that the methods they use to instil social behaviour in their children will produce the desired results. In parenting research, the term parenting confidence has in some instances been used interchangeably with the term parenting self-efficacy (Vance, 2017). This has caused debate with some arguing that the two concepts cannot be distinguished (Vance, 2017) and others making the case for differentiation (Wittkowski, 2017). It is not within the scope of this work to debate whether the two terms should be used interchangeably or not. What matters for the current study is this: how parents view the predictability of their actions is an important construct in how they instil social behaviour in their

children. This implies the importance helping parents to feel efficacious in engaging methods that support desirable social behaviour outcomes for their children. This has valuable consequences for the children, but also for the parents' own psychological well-being (Vance, 2017; Wittkowski, 2017). To this end, interventions such as group-based parenting programs, whose objective is to empower parents, can consider equipping parents with coaching skills in order to increase their confidence in the expected outcomes of their efforts, because there are studies that support the outcomes of coaching (Grant, 2003; Green, Grant, & Rynsaardt, 2007; Maddi, 2002; Oullete, 1993). Further, findings of this study imply a need to examine what structures exist in Kenya to support parents in becoming self-efficacious, and how those structures are effected. The establishment of a government institution that focuses on parenting studies would be useful in this regard. Such an institution would be charged with researching parenting practices and recommending interventions and support structures to help parents, and not only parents whose children already exhibit problem behaviour.

The study found that some of the methods used by parents are similar to coaching skills, but fall short in several ways. These methods include talking – where parents do more telling than listening, and accountability monitoring, where parent activeness sometimes supersedes child activeness. Coach practitioners can use the information to design coaching interventions that build on what parents already do, to upskill the parents, rather than introducing entirely new concepts or skills.

Indeed, the current study does not argue for parents to become professional coaches. Rather it suggests that parents be taught basic coaching skills and the findings of the research help to identify what those basic skills are: creating a safe space for the child to share and generate insights, listening, asking questions, and effecting accountability. These go hand in hand with the

three principles of coaching that were examined in this study: taking a child centred approach, facilitating learning, and using a coaching structure. Coaches can develop programs that incorporate coaching principles and coaching skills training specifically targeting parents, based on the outcomes of this research. The Government of Kenya (2019) draft policy on family promotion and protection addresses the need for developing parent education programs. This study report provides useful content to include in such programs.

The problem of student unrest has been around for decades and education professionals, policy makers and other relevant actors including parents can identify new possibilities of dealing with the problem of student unrest, potentially impacting Kenyan society at large. This study has demonstrated that there is potentially a gap in the way parents are instilling social behaviour in their children, and provides ideas as to some of the skills that could be enhance. This area has not been addressed in several reports of commissions that have been appointed over the years to investigate the problem of school unrest (Republic of Kenya, 1991; Wanjohi, 2016).

Nearly all commentators on the issue of student unrest apportion blame to parents (Nyambegera, 2018; Karega, 2016; Republic of Kenya, 2019). The language used by such commentators blames and reprimands parents, who are described as rogue (Nyambegera, 2018). Using the findings of this study the such commentators in the government and in the media can influence the language used in describing the role of parents in instilling desirable social behaviours, moving from the blame game to highlighting what parents could do differently. The results of this study support Wanjohi's assertion that matter has not been well understood (2016), and Andafu's position that the focus on discipline is misadvised (2020). Solution focused (O'Connell, Palmer, & Williams, 2012) language could help to focus the narrative around student

unrest on practical skills that parents can take every day in conversations with their children. This is more useful than merely pointing a finger at parental shortcomings without providing solutions.

5.7 Recommendations for future work on the topic

Research helps to inform action, gather evidence for theory and contribute to developing knowledge in a field of study. This current research has helped gain understanding of how parents in Kenya instil social behaviours in their children. In so doing, it has answered some of the questions it started if with while, at the same time, raising new questions. In this sense, it has created the foundation for further research, opening up possibilities for future work, which can be pursued in the areas of coaching research, parenting research and social behaviour research, among other possibilities. Such future research can be related to the practice of coaching by parents, the outcomes of coaching, the prevalence of specific social behaviours among children in Kenya, the prevalence of coaching and its outcomes in the short term and in the long term, the conditions for optimal coaching by parents and many more. Further, research can be developed along several lines, including 1) building on findings of the current study; 2) responding to limitations of the current study, 3) repeating the same study in a different context, and 4) reassessing and expanding the theoretical framework that was relied on for the current study (Dudovisky, 2022). In addition, any future research should be viewed in the context of how coaching research is expected to develop in future. These possible directions are expanded in the following section.

5.7.1. uilding upon findings of current research

In this case, new research is developed based on findings of a current study. For example, when unexpected results are revealed by some research.

a) The current study could not conclude that parents were coaching their children to instil social behaviour. The question therefore arises, what would happen if they did? Future research could involve parents who use a coaching approach with a view to observing what the social behaviour outcomes in their children are, and comparing these outcomes to those of children whose parents do not use coaching skills. Such research can be experimental, involving control groups of parents who do not use the coaching method and groups of parents who do. In this case it may be necessary to begin by training parents in coaching skills first.

b) Similarly, the current research revealed that certain kinds of social behaviour were observed to a lesser extent than others. Another research to examine this phenomenon can be undertaken. For example, research could be conducted to establish if there is a correlation between the methods parents use to instil social behaviour in their children, and if certain methods favour certain social behaviours over others. The combination of ineffective accountability management by parents with the observation that owning up to mistakes is a rarely observed behaviour constitute a 'red flag' that should be investigated.

c) Further, as this current study provided a list of social behaviours, quantitative studies can be conducted to determine the prevalence of these behaviours. The ranking could also be validated using a population large enough to allow generalisation of the outcomes. Consequently, a social behaviour scale for Kenyan children could be validated.

d) Furthermore, correlational studies to determine the relationship between coaching methods and behaviours that are exhibited can be conducted, and experiments can be conducted to ascertain the outcomes of coaching for specific social behaviours, especially those that are observed to occur rarely.

e) Studies to determine whether the methods used by parents promote the development of certain kinds of social behaviour over others may be conducted. This direction is motivated by the observation of the current study that performance behaviours, are exhibited to a great extent while introspective behaviours were rarely exhibited.

f) One of the surprising outcomes of this research was the information relating to parent's mindset as concerns instilling social behaviour in their children. This outcome is a benefit of interviewing parents directly about their parenting actions as opposed to the more common way of using third party observers to report on parent actions. Further research to understand the psychological and other factors that underlie parent actions would be useful to explain what they do and why they do. Such research would also benefit institutions that seek to support parents to effectively raise their children, not just as far as social behaviour goes, but potentially in other areas as well. This could go hand in hand with an exploration of levels of parental self- efficacy.

g) Studies to ascertain the nature and impact of specific socio-cultural factors that impinge on Kenyan parents in their quest to instil social behaviour would be useful to help determine if interventions are required, and what kind of intervention.

5.7.2 response to limitations of the study

For the current study, limitations were related to the scope of the research, the population of the study, the interview method and manual thematic analysis. More research can therefore be conducted with a different population, for example, a rural population, or a population that is representative of the general Kenyan population. Additionally, data collection methods can be expanded to include, for example focus group discussions and observational studies, in order to gain a more robust data set.

While the current study relied on parent reports of what they do, with corroboration from children, new research using observational methods could be conducted and conclusions drawn on what parents do versus what they say they do.

5.7.3 the same research in a different context

The current study was undertaken in Kenya, with urban participants. The same research can be undertaken in the same country but in a rural context, for example, or different countries and continents. Further, the outcomes of similar research done in different countries of the world can be compared and conclusions drawn for each continent, example.

5.7.4 etical Framework

Further research can be done regarding the theoretical framework used in the study. Research to address some of the gaps and controversies that were identified in the literature review. One such controversy involves the timing of measuring the impact of coaching. While observations can happen during coaching or soon after, longitudinal studies can help in observing and measuring the outcomes of coaching long after coaching took place. While this current study did not conclude that coaching took place, or indeed, that it has an impact on the social behaviour of children, further research can be designed to gauge the impact of coaching at different points of the life of a child, with a view to exploring what the impact is as coaching progresses, soon after it ends and long after it ends (including during adulthood). As Laske (2004) pointed out, changes in human behaviour often take a long time and such behaviour changes depend on developmental shifts that are non-linear. Relatedly, longitudinal studies to ascertain whether children carry the social behaviours instilled by their parents into adulthood, and whether those behaviours are

exhibited to the same extent as they were when the children were younger, would be interesting for understanding outcomes of what parents do.

Further work relating to the theoretical framework can be based on exploring how the three psychological needs proposed by Self Determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2014) are met through coaching by parents in Kenya. These three needs are the need for autonomy, the need for competence and the need to belonging to groups that matter.

Research could help to define, place, and interpret the concepts of autonomy, competence and belongingness in the Kenyan social context, how these needs are experienced and expressed, and how coaching by parents can help their children to meet these needs. Comparative studies could be done among, say rural and urban households, and within different family structures, for example.

Moreover, on theoretical framework, inspiration can be drawn from the work of Shoukry and Cox (2018) on coaching as a social process, where they argue that seeing coaching as a social process potentially transforms it into an enabler for change. Shoukry and Cox (2018) are particularly keen to highlight that coaching is mostly a western practice and so raise the question of what coaching means in non-western cultures. This work provides an interesting direction to develop the work of the current study by examining coaching by parents as a social process in the socio-cultural context of child rearing in Kenya, and how it could change the way social behaviour of children in Kenya is instilled and judged. Relatedly, the question of how teaching happened in traditional African society, how it is changing, and the role of coaching in the evolving, emergent African social context also present possibilities for further research.

A second relevant discussion subsequent to the current study revolves the theme of authority, which was found to be relevant for how parents in Kenya instil social behaviour in their

children. Further research could be conducted around how authority is perceived, used, and experienced in the coaching relationship, and how that plays out in the parent-child relationship. Diochon and Lovelace (2015) have suggested that coaching is a form of control that the coachee can actively resist this control. Moreover, a greater awareness of the conditions that facilitate the experience of the coaching space as empowering rather than limiting and controlling is desirable (Louis & Diochon, 2018). In this regard, further research on how power dynamics between parent and child play out in the context of the Kenyan parent as a coach would also provide useful insights into how coaching can be implemented against the backdrop of generational power play in a society that esteems the elder (Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002). Indeed, the question of whether coaching as it is practiced in the mostly European, American and, to a smaller extent, Asian cultures, can be applied in the Kenyan context, and with to what effect, presents numerous opportunities for further research.

5.7.5 The future of coaching research

It would be remiss not to mention the future of coaching research in general in this section, because it is relevant for whichever direction further research takes following on the current study. Passmore and Evans-Krimme (2021) submit that coaching in general, is getting to the next phase of sector development, that is the drive to maturity. Based on Rostow's economic growth model, there are 10 phases of coaching research development (Rostow, 1959). These are pre-science phase, case study and surveys, qualitative studies and theory generation, small sample randomised controlled trials, large sample randomised controlled trials, meta-analysis, systematic literature review, identifying the active ingredients in coaching, exploring differences and exceptions, the coaching assignment and the system (Passmore J. & Evans-Krimme, 2021). In general, Passmore

and Evans-Krimme (2021) proposed that researchers will see coaching dominated by large scale digital platforms. This is driven by three factors: a) the growth of online communications, making it possible for people to connect and interact virtually on audio and video, and relatively low cost, and good clarity. The growth of such platforms has itself been driven by work from home dynamics which were themselves accelerated by the COVID-19 pandemic.

b) Growth in the science of both Positive Psychology and Coaching. The research in these areas is supported by open access journals, making it easier for researchers to access new information and build on existing research; and c) Investor interest in digital platforms. This will in turn give rise to greater volumes of data that can be more easily analysed, further fueling research in coaching. Passmore and Evans-Krimme (2021) further contend that a consequence of the availability of greater more reliable data sets will see a growth of randomised controlled studies (vs. case studies) and the exploration of exceptions and specific presenting issues.

This study, a case study, represents the most rudimentary phase of coaching research development according to the Passmore and Evans-Krimme's (2021) model. Here the focus is acquiring knowledge through exploration and the experience of practitioners (Fillery-Travis, 2011). It is possible that coaching research in Kenya may jump some stages and go directly to stage 4, which is where Passmore and Evans-Krimme's place current global coaching research. Here, the dominant methodology is large sample, randomised controlled trials driven by large volumes of data acquired through digital platforms and driven the proliferation of such platforms. However, there remains the possibility that future research on coaching in Kenya will follow the Passmore and Evans-Krimme model, go to the next linear phase - phase 2, which revolves around qualitative studies and theory generation. Either way, the potential future trajectory of coaching research in Kenya itself presents a possible area for new studies.

5.8 Conclusion

The overarching aim of this research was to explore how parents in Kenya coach their children in order to instil social behaviour. In so doing the research also sought to discover why parents choose the methods they choose, and how their children exhibit the social behaviours instilled in them. This study was relevant mainly in two ways: First, it would contribute to the scant body of evidence-based knowledge about coaching in Kenya. Many coaching studies have been conducted in Western countries and Asia, but few in Africa in general and even fewer, if any, in Kenya. Secondly, the study linked two areas of interest – that is coaching by parents and the development of social behaviour in school children in Kenya, and was useful to at least four groups of people, organisations, or situations

First, for parents, it would spotlight methods for effective coaching. Second, for coaches, it would produce information on the use and outcomes of coaching skills for parents (and therefore influence curriculum on this topic). Third, for parents and educationists, it would assist in the identification of situations where the social behaviour of a child in school might benefit from coaching at home. Lastly, in highlighting ways to improve social behaviour among school children in Kenya, it would potentially impact Kenyan society at large. Coaching was defined as a needs-supportive parenting practice which includes instances within the parent-child relationship where the parent engages in guided conversations using coaching skills to support the normal child's growth potential. In these instances, the child is given unconditional positive regard and the parent engages in active listening while challenging, empowering, and acknowledging the child, thus facilitating achievement of co-created goals, for which the parent holds the child accountable (Wasike-Sihanya, 2023).

The theoretical framework was based on Self-Determination Theory (Deci E. , 2017) . SDT is a macro-theory of human personality and development (Deci, 2017; Ryan, Soenens, & Vansteenkiste, 2019; Ryan R., 2009) that sees humans are dynamic and with inborn and very advanced tendencies towards psychological growth and development. SDT focuses on the volitional behaviour of human beings, and the cultural and social circumstances that encourage it. The theory proposes that there are three basic and universal psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Deci, 2017; Ryan, Soenens, & Vansteenkiste, 2019). These needs must be satisfied if one is to achieve the best possible psychological growth and functioning. (Deci, 2017). Needs are defined at the psychological level as “innate, organismic necessities” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 229) or fundamental nutriment for ongoing psychological growth (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

An individual has a natural tendency to want to realise his or her full potential. A coach can provide an environment to support this innate development towards personal growth. The individual, a coaching client, will persist in coaching because he or she is motivated to do so. This motivation comes from a deep connection to, and desire for, the expected results, because the results are valuable to the person. Eventually, the person’s behaviour is changed and sustained because she or she learns during the coaching process.

The role of the coach is to provide a facilitative environment that accepts the client unconditionally and zeros in on the strengths of the client. This means the coach views the person as whole and capable, and demonstrates interest in the client (involvement), invites the client to set the agenda creates space for self-direction (autonomy support) and provides process and guidelines (structure).

The coach helps the client to learn by using several techniques, including anchoring, verbal reinforcement and other forms of motivational messaging, active listening, and the opportunity for client to practice what she learns (Williams & Menendez, 2007; Cox et al., 2014; Jarosz, 2016).

Where the client is the child, and the issue is social behaviour, a parent acting as both needs-satisfier and coach, can help the child gain necessary social skills that are manifested as observable behaviour. The parent can do this because he or she employs coaching skills in a need satisfying environment.

Indeed, the role of the parent coach is to provide a facilitative environment that accepts the child unconditionally by demonstrating interest in the child (involvement), creating space for the child to self-direct (autonomy support) and providing structure (process and guidelines). The parent coach uses 1 verbal techniques in a need's supportive manner, including active listening and providing opportunity for child to practice, in order to support the child's learning (Jarosz, 2016; Williams & Menendez, 2007). The study theorised that parental coaching is a particular parenting approach that is characterised by parents being involved, supporting their children's autonomy, and providing structure and that the parent coach can help the child self-direct towards specific goals which, when achieved and internalised, impact the child's social behaviour.

The following research questions were formulated:

RQ1: How do parents coach their children to instil social behaviour? (Wasike-Sihanya, 2023)

RQ2: Why do parents choose the methods they use to coach their children? (Wasike-Sihanya, 2023)

RQ3: How do children demonstrate the social behaviours their parents aim to instil through coaching? (Wasike-Sihanya, 2023)

To answer these questions a case study methodology was employed as this was an exploratory study seeking to describe real life phenomena. The population was parents of school going children aged 14-17 years in Kenya, as this is the age concerned with the poor social behaviour observed in schools, and which led to the question of how parents instil social behaviour in their children, and a sample was drawn from social media groups that the researcher belonged to. The researcher advertised for volunteers among social communities she belongs to and after pre-screening 10 volunteers, recruited 7 parents and their children. Subsequently 2 parents dropped out and so 5 were interviewed. The parents were 1 father and four mothers, aged 49, 50, 54, 43 and 48, and the children were aged between 14, 15, 16 (2) and 17. A further recruitment opportunity presented itself when the researcher was invited to speak at a parents' forum, and from these, 2 more parents were interviewed, making the total 7 parents and their children, plus 4 teachers who also agreed to participate. This number of cases was below the desired target of 10 parents and their children, and the researcher recognises that the selected cases comprised of a homogeneous group of urban parents and children. Still, the researcher believes that the 7 parent/child pairs, in addition to 4 teachers of some of these children, provided sufficient data for analysis and conclusions to be drawn. Data was successfully collected via semi structured and structured interviews of the parents, their children, and the children's teachers. The interviews were conducted separately via phone or using virtual meeting tools, as face to face events were restricted at the time due to the global COVID-19 pandemic. Additional data was collected by analysing school report forms of the children.

Following thematic analysis the research discovered, in response to RQ1, the methods that parents in Kenya use to instil social behaviour in their children. These methods can be summarised as telling, accountability, role modelling, and exerting authority. The actions of telling and

modelling, were evaluated on the extent to which they qualify (or do not) to be described as coaching. Telling is a one-way verbal action, and the results of the thematic analysis show that it is qualified by the moment of when parents ‘tell,’ as well as the tone of voice parents use in the telling. For accountability, which is part of the coaching process, evaluation was based on how accountability is deployed and managed. Authority and learning were evaluated for how they impact what the parent does while instilling social behaviour in the child.

While the study had assumed that Kenyan parents coach their children to instil social behaviour, and sought to explore how they do it, an examination of what parents do vis a vis the principles of coaching deduced that what parents do does not meet the criteria of what coaching is. The principles of coaching had been identified as client centred, facilitative, and structured, and a deductive thematic analysis based on these themes demonstrated that what parents did was not structured (as in, not following a coaching process); and was in some instances neither child centred nor facilitative. Consequently, the researcher interrogated what parents actually do and provided analysis and possible explanations of this, in addition to suggesting ways to correct what was seen as needs-thwarting, non-coaching behaviour.

The research also illuminated, in response to RQ2, the reasons for choosing the methods Kenyan parents use to instil social behaviour in their children. These reasons are 1) the vision the parent had for his or her child; 2) how the parent experienced his or her own upbringing and 3) how the parent perceived his or her role. Parents’ vision for their children revolved around 1) resources - how children maximised their potential, how they cared for property and the environment. 2) Co-existence - how children communicated with others, how they related to their siblings, peers, parents, and others, how they contributed to the community and how they showed respect for

others. 3) Authority - how the children related with authority at home and at school, as well as how the children demonstrated spirituality, specifically being God fearing.

In response to RQ3, the research produced a ranked list of 31 social behaviours observed in Kenyan school going children. A list of 25 social behaviour had been presented initially, but after the interviews was updated to 31. Ranking was based on how frequently they are observed, by parents and teachers, as well as how they children self-reported on exhibiting the social behaviours on the list. These social behaviours included behaviours that could be classified as self-management behaviours like managing time and being independent; behaviours relating to how the children related to others, or relationship behaviours. Such behaviours included co-existing with peers and siblings, respecting others, and submitting to authority. Another category of social behaviours can be described as performance behaviours such as striving to achieve goals, being hardworking and cleaning up after themselves. Behaviours like negotiating, resolving conflict and owning up to mistakes were also exhibited, although to a lesser extent than all the others. This list can be reviewed and validated in subsequent studies to produce Kenya school children social behaviour scales.

Yet, the results were not only about what the parents do and how the children behave. The results also showed that parents' approach to instilling social behaviour in their children is tempered by learning - first, from their own parents, in which case they choose to perpetuate their own parents' expectations or to reject it. Secondly, by adapting to their children's temperament and needs and third, through learning from their own experience with the child. Parents also learned what to do through trial and error, training and discussing with fellow parents. The results also showed that parents were not always assured in what they do, and they acknowledge that they do not know if that they will achieve the outcomes they seek. Finally, parents sometimes self-

regulated and restrained themselves in order to create space for the children to find their own answers or to be themselves. Additionally, the results showed that parents feel vulnerable - they recognised they had a responsibility to instil social behaviour in their children, and responsibility could not be abdicated, yet, they did not know whether what they were doing was right.

At the outset, this study was thought to be relevant for parents, education professionals and coaches. In fact, the results of this research can be used in various ways by the stated groups, as well as institutions that create and implement policies related to parents and children, especially those concerned with children's social behaviour.

This research can be used to address the problem of school children's misbehaviour that has plagued Kenya for many years. It has highlighted the social behaviours that are most commonly exhibited and provides the opportunity for interrogating which social behaviours are rewarded or highlighted among school children, and spotlighting the social the misbehaviour among school children. The research has also demonstrated that coaching is unexplored as a potential methodology for instilling desirable social behaviour in children in Kenya. The research also highlighted the importance of helping parents to feel efficacious in using methods that support desirable social behaviour outcomes for their children, and meeting this need is implied where structures to support parenting are implemented. Another application of this research is in the area of coaching practice, where curricula to develop coaching skills for parents can be developed on the basis of the results of this study, which demonstrated the skills required, and which need to be developed.

Using this study as a foundation, further research can be conducted in several areas, including coaching research, parenting research and social behaviour research. Randomised controlled trials could study the impact of coaching by Kenyan parents on the social behaviour

outcomes of their children; quantitative studies could analyse the correlation between social behaviour outcomes and coaching by parents as well as the prevalence of coaching methods and social behaviours; additionally, on social behaviours, a Kenya school children social behaviour scale could be validated and used to assess the most prevalent social behaviours among school children in Kenya; observational studies could corroborate what parents say they do, as well as what behaviours are exhibited by the children; longitudinal studies could observe how long the outcomes of social behaviour coaching by parents manifest, and if and how they persist over time. Other research can expand the theoretical framework, specifically focusing on understanding how the three psychological needs proposed by SDT are manifested and experienced and satisfied in the Kenyan context. Further, research into the developing areas of coaching as a social process could help clarify the place of authority and how it is exerted in the parent-coach/child relationship.

While recognising the limitations of the analysis that was conducted, it is this researcher's belief that the overarching aim of this study was achieved. Although the research discovered that what parents do to instil social behaviour in their children in Kenya could not be classified as coaching, it did discover what they do, what motivates their choice of method and what social behaviours their children exhibit to a 'very great extent,' 'to a great extent,' 'sometimes,' 'rarely' and 'never.' A basic assumption of the research was that parents in Kenya coach their children to instil social behaviours, and the objective was to explore how they do it. The study, however, demonstrated that what parents do cannot be classified as coaching. This begs the question, what if the parents coached their children to instil social behaviour? That this question persists suggests that a potential solution to the perennial problem of poor social behaviour by school children is yet untapped. Consequently, coaching could be proposed as a method of helping the children acquire the social behaviour skills that would address some of the issues identified as causes of school

unrest. Indeed, the study demonstrated that negotiation and conflict resolution are among the three behaviours that are observed to the lowest extent - that is rarely observed, among the children. This observation is based on ratings by parents and teachers, as well as self-ratings by the children themselves. Given that conflict resolution has been identified as one of the important but missing behaviours related to school unrest, this observation has important implications for resolving school unrest - would improving children's conflict resolution skills improve relations with school authorities and reduce incidences of school unrest?

The research also revealed that 'telling' is a common method of instilling social behaviour in children. Considering that lack of effective communication channels for students has been highlighted as a cause of school unrest, this method is implicated if it results in children's failure to speak up for themselves.

The study revealed that children do not always get the chance to design action plans to address issues, and that parents often closely monitor what the children do. This has implications for the development of competencies, especially problem-solving competencies as well as taking responsibility for own decisions.

The findings also suggest that coaching may not be widespread among parents, and so there is potential for building awareness and developing coaching competencies among parents.

Critically, this research helped begin a conversation about coaching by parents and how it can help Kenya solve the problem of school unrest. Given the many possible directions that research related to this study can develop, there is great potential for a major gap in coaching studies undertaken in Kenya to be closed, while increasing knowledge about how coaching can help solve a problem that has persisted for decades.

Finally, it is useful to share that if parents coach their children they stand to benefit too. Such impact on the coach is in fact supported by research.

In a survey to assess the impact of a coaching journey on manager coaches (Mukherjee, 2012) found that the manager coaches reported that they had improved their interpersonal relationships, bettered listening skills, increased confidence, gained better work life balance and accrued a sense of achievement. The study concluded that as a result of coaching others the manager coaches' competency and confidence were improved. While this study was conducted in the context of an organisation in India, it provides some insight on the positive outcomes for coaches as a result of coaching others. This is an important reason to support the case for coaching by parents in Kenya. A survey conducted by the ICF Kenya chapter (2022) asked coaches to share what they love about coaching, and the responses further support the assertion that coaching benefits the coach as well as the client. Some of the responses are reproduced here with permission from the coaches who responded to the survey:

“It has transformed me from being a quick teller to a patient listener, from an unwelcomed advisor to a valuable sounding board, from an eager counsellor to a curious inquirer, from a rash investigator to a slow explorer” (Coach George Nuthu).

“I love coaching because I go empty thus opening up room for my client and myself. Anything is possible when empty (Coach Lucas Maranga).

“I love coaching because of the personal fulfilment that I get when my clients reach new dimensions that they did not see as possible. Their joy and success are a gift” Coach Joanne Kabiru.

“I love coaching because it warms my heart to hear a client say “This was of value to me” and when they commit to their action steps and smile at the joy of cracking something that was foggy before...that gives me a lot of joy” (Coach Lucy Githaiga).

“I love coaching because it transforms and reignites both the Coachee and the Coach” (Coach Elizabeth Wasunna).

This researcher’s own experience as a coach and parent of children in Kenya bears this out. Reflecting on her conversations with clients helped her to ‘coach myself.’ She would ask herself some of the questions she was asking her clients and in so doing resolve many issues for herself. Over time, she felt calmer and more confident as a person, and especially as a parent. This suggests that her parenting self-efficacy was increased, and this no doubt helped her navigate the challenges of raising socially competent adolescents.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A:

Appendix B:

Appendix C: