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Coaching Professional Level 5 (V1.0)
Revision Guide

Apprentice's Full Name:	
Date:	
Unique Learner No:	

V.CP5-RG-01

CONTENTS

This revision guide will support you in completing your Coaching Professional Level 5 Apprenticeship. In addition to this guide, you will be expected to complete your own additional research, review materials from your training provider and view the recommended reading list provided within this guide.

As you will be aware, at the end of your learning period, you will be expected to complete your end-point assessment. For this standard you will complete two observations followed by a 20-minute question and answer session, a one-hour interview supported by a portfolio of evidence and a knowledge test. More guidance on the end-point assessment for the Coaching Professional Level 5 Apprenticeship can be found within the subject support pack via *www.nqual.co.uk* or by emailing *admin@nqual.co.uk*

To support you with your revision, you will see the following icons within this guide:

 Knowledge Test  Portfolio Based Interview  Observation

These icons are to help you identify which assessment method a subject area is likely to cover within your End-Point Assessment. For example, when you see the Knowledge Test icon next to 'Theories of Learning,' it is worth noting that within your knowledge test you are likely to be tested on theories of learning.

THEORIES OF LEARNING

Learning styles have been thoroughly and frequently discredited by many reports and research literature in recent years. However, their use remains widespread amongst educational practices and a knowledge and understanding may be useful, depending on how learning styles are employed, within a coaching setting. Theories of learning are included within the assessment plan for the coaching standard and may provoke debate and discussion.

Learning theories highlight how people receive, process, and retain knowledge.

There are a few different learning theories you will be expected to know and understand.

Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle (1984)

This model involves four stages:

- Concrete Experiencing
- Reflective Observation
- Abstract Conceptualisation
- Active Experiment

Kolb believed that effective learning can be seen when the learner progresses through the cycle.

Figure 1.

Figure 1.

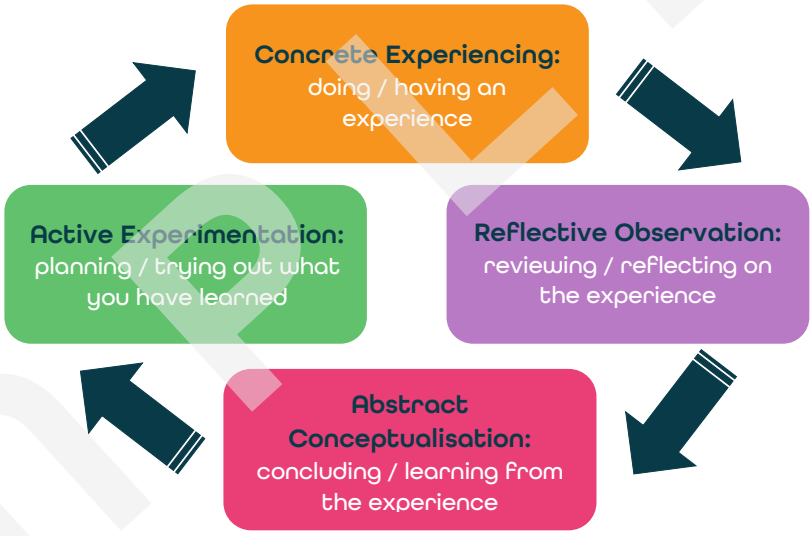
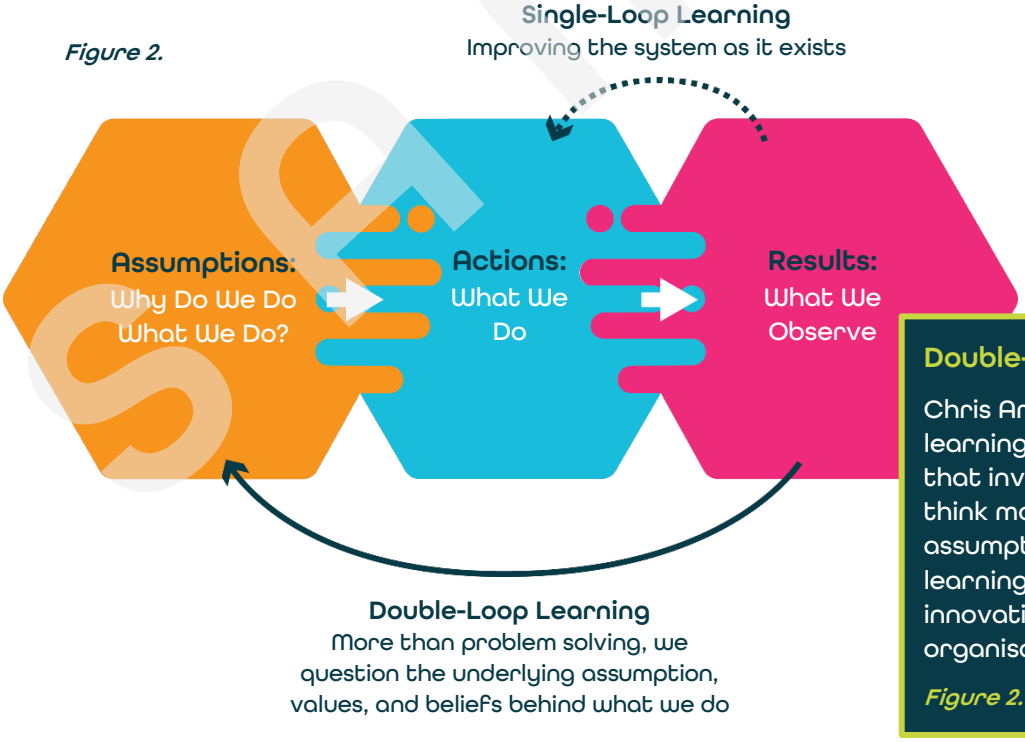


Figure 2.



Double-Loop Learning

Chris Argyris's "Double-Loop learning" is a concept and process that involves teaching people to think more deeply about their own assumptions and beliefs. Double-loop learning can drive creativity and innovation and can be useful in organisational learning.

Figure 2.

Honey and Mumford

Developed by Peter Honey and Alan Mumford in 1986, they identified four approaches to how individuals learn:

- Activist – Learn by doing and enjoy challenges of new experiences.
- Theorist – Like to understand the theory behind actions.
- Pragmatist – Need to know how they can apply their learning to the real work.
- Reflector – Learn through observation and reflecting on results.

In their opinion, people tend to stick to one or two learning styles depending on the scenario.

Figure 3.

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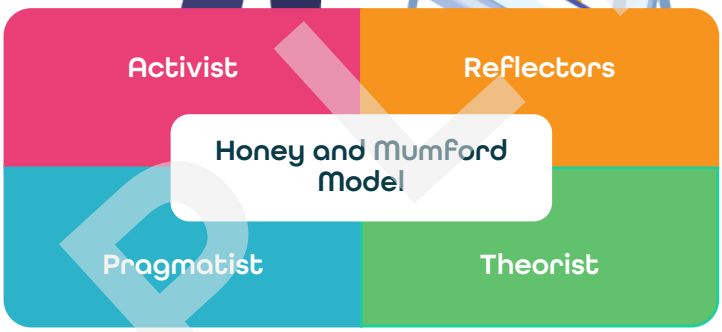

Figure 4.

Theories of Reflective Practice

Gibbs (1988)

Graham Gibbs published his "Reflective Cycle" learning model in 1988. He encourages people to learn from experience and how they felt during a certain event or situation. This can be particularly useful in coaching practice.

Figure 4.

Schon (1987)

Donald Schon's theory is that there are two types of reflection. Reflection IN action and Reflection ON action.

Reflection in action is described as thinking about what to do next, acting straight away and thinking on your feet.

Reflection on action is described as thinking about something that has already happened and thinking about what you would do next time?

Note examples of how you reflect on your own practice

Other Learning Processes

Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning is a type of conditioning whereby a person responds to some stimulus that would not usually promote such a response. It is the process of learning to associate something within the environment and predict what will happen next.

For example, if a parent was to arrive home wearing a baseball hat and whenever the parent wears the hat, they take the child to the playground. The child is excited as they associate the hat with a visit to the playground. This is learning by association; the child associates the hat with the playground.

The grandfather or Classical Conditioning is Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov.

In a series of experiments using dogs, Pavlov set out to get a conditioned response to a what was before a neutral stimulus. The classical conditioning process consisted of pairing a previously neutral stimulus; which was a bell ringing, with an unconditioned stimulus; the food.

Pavlov conducted a series of experiments using different sounds to condition the dog's behavioural response. In the experiment a bell was rung whenever the dogs were fed. After several repetitions, the dogs salivated as soon as they heard the sound without the food.

Operant Conditioning

The second type of conditioning is called operant conditioning.

This conditioning is where specific behaviours are often followed by a reward or a punishment. What Pavlov did for classical conditioning, the Harvard psychologist B.F. Skinner did for operant conditioning.

Operant conditioning argues that our behaviour will depend on different situations and that we will repeatedly behave in a specific way if there are rewards for doing so.

That we will try to avoid a behaviour from where nothing is gained. The argument Skinner put forward was that in creating good consequences in relation to required behaviour an increase in the required behaviour would be seen.

In an experiment to display operant learning Skinner trained rats to get a food reward by pressing a lever.

Initially in the experiment the rat ran around the box randomly.

The rat at some point randomly pressed the lever and this was rewarded with food. This reinforced the response of pressing the lever.

After repeating the process of pressing the lever followed by dropping off food many times, the rat learned to press the lever for food.

Cognitive Theory

Cognition refers to an individual's thoughts, understanding and own ideas about self and the environment.

This is a process of learning through active and constructive thought processes, such as practice or using our memory.

One example might be that you were taught how to tell time by looking at a clock.

Cognitive Learning Theory seeks to explain how we process information when we learn. Cognitivism focuses on how information is received, organised, stored, and retrieved by the mind.

The theory has been used to explain mental processes as they are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which eventually bring about learning in an individual.

It focuses on the theory that with effective cognitive processes, learning is easier and new information can be stored in the memory for a long time.

Social Learning

This theory integrates both cognitive and operant approaches to learning. It recognises that learning does not take place only because of environmental stimuli (classical and operant conditioning) or of individual determinism (cognitive approach) but is a mixture of both elements.

Ontology

This is the study of being, which can be described as the interaction of language, emotions, and body.

Ontological coaching creates a shift in a person's way of being in a way that is consistent with their goals and future desires. This type of coaching has emerged from philosophy rather than psychology and aims to create a change in all three areas of language, body, and emotion.

BASIC SCHOOLS OF PSYCHOLOGY

When psychology first emerged as a separate science, the discussion began about how to explain the human mind and behaviour. The different schools of psychology include:

- **Cognitive Psychology** – Studies into mental processes
- **Humanistic Psychology** – Studies on individual free will
- **Psychoanalysis** – Studies on the unconscious mind
- **Behaviourism** – Studies on observable behaviour
- **Gestalt Psychology** – Studies the mind and behaviour as a whole

Cognitive Psychology

Cognitivism is the psychology that studies how people think, perceive, remember, and learn. This can also be related to neuroscience, philosophy, and linguistics.

One theory from this school is the four stages of cognitive development by Jean Piaget. Piaget believed (through observations of his children) that children move through four stages of mental development.

Sensorimotor Stage: Birth to 2 Years	Children learn through basic actions sucking, grasping, looking, and listening
Preoperational Stage: Ages 2 to 7 Years	Children learn to use words and pictures
Concrete Operational Stage: Ages 7 to 11 Years	Children begin to think logically
Formal Operational Stage: 12 Years and Up	At this stage, young adults think more about moral, social and political issues

Humanistic Psychology

> *The curious paradox is that when I accept myself just as I am, then I can change*
>
> **- Carl Rogers -**

Humanistic psychology concentrates on individual free will, personal growth, and the concept of self-actualisation.

Carl Rogers widely researched the concept of "self," in his "self-centred" theory. Individuals are said to perceive the world according to their own experiences. This perception affects their personality and leads them to direct their behaviour to satisfy the needs of the total self. Rogers stressed that, in the development of an individual's personality, the person strives for self-actualisation (to become oneself), self-maintenance (to keep on being oneself), and self-enhancement (to transcend the status quo).

Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis founded by Sigmund Freud, is the influence of the unconscious mind on behaviour. Freud believed that events in our childhood have a great influence on our adult lives, shaping our personality. For example, anxiety originating from traumatic experiences in a person's past is hidden from consciousness and may cause problems during adulthood (in the form of neuroses).

Behaviourism

Behaviourism suggests that all behaviour can be explained by environmental causes rather than internal causes.

John Watson is best known for taking his theory of behaviourism and applying it to child development. He believed strongly that a child's environment is the factor that shapes behaviours over their genetic makeup or natural temperament. Watson is famous for saying that he could take a "dozen healthy infants... and train him to become any type of specialist I might select - doctor, lawyer, artist, merchant-chief and, yes, even beggar-man and thief." In other words, he believed that you could expose the child to certain environmental forces and, over time, condition that child to become any type of person that you want.

Linguistics

Other ways to study how social, cultural, and political factors influence an individual are through the study of language (linguistics). Noam Chomsky in the 1960s suggested that everyone is born with the capacity to learn any language. He believed that everyone is genetically coded with a universal grammar.

Gestalt Psychology

Based on the work of Max Wertheimer, Wolfgang Kohler and Kurk Koffka, Gestalt is the idea of experiencing things as a whole. Instead of breaking down thoughts and behaviours, the psychologists in this school believed that you must look at the whole experience.

BASIC SCHOOLS OF NEUROSCIENCE

Much like the schools of psychology, there are many schools of neuroscience all focusing on a specific topic, body system or function.

Developmental cognitive neuroscience is a multidimensional and interdisciplinary field attempting to explain how cognitive development is supported by changes in underlying brain structure and function, and how brain organisation changes over developmental time.

Developmental cognitive neuroscience will help determine the neurobiological processes of learning and development, and the mechanisms that support changes (neuronal plasticity) in brain function and structure over time.

The brain consists of several discrete parts: most notably the cerebrum, the brain stem, and the cerebellum. The cerebrum consists of six brain areas that span two hemispheres. The six brain areas are the frontal, parietal, occipital, and temporal lobes, and the limbic and insular lobes.

There are many different branches of neuroscience, two of the more common branches include cognitive and behavioural neuroscience.

Developmental Neuroscience	Describes how the brain forms, grows, and changes.
Cognitive Neuroscience	Is how the brain creates and controls thought, language, problem-solving, and memory.
Molecular & Cellular Neuroscience	Explores how genes, signalling molecules, and cellular morphology influence the nervous system.
Behavioural Neuroscience	Behavioural neuroscience addresses the impact of the nervous system on learning and memory, attention, perception, and motivation and how they manifest in our behaviour. Studies in behavioural neuroscience focus on the interaction of brain and behaviour in real or simulated environments.
Sensory Neuroscience	Is a subfield of neuroscience which explores how the body's sensory system and nervous system interprets and processes sensory information such as vision and hearing.
Neurogenetic	Focuses on inherited changes to neurons, including studies of certain genetic diseases, such as Huntington's disease and Duchenne muscular dystrophy.
Clinical Neuroscience	Explores how to treat neurological disorders and how to support patients whose nervous system have been injured.