An Evaluation of Coaching Effectiveness from a Psychological Perspective

A thesis submitted to The University of Manchester for the degree of

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The University of Manchester

ABSTRACT of thesis submitted by **Joanne O'Dell**

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An Evaluation of Coaching Effectiveness from a Psychological Perspective

In spite of the increasing popularity of coaching, little is known about what contributes to an effective coaching experience, particularly from a psychological perspective (Kilburg, 2001; Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005; Bowles and Picano, 2007). This study presents a longitudinal, case study of a coaching programme conducted in a large government agency, over a twelve month period. The study adopts the coachee perspective, commenting also on the role of the coach. Longitudinal studies using a mixed methodological approach are rare within coaching research (Feldman and Lankau, 2005).

The principal aim of the study is to explore coaching effectiveness from a psychological perspective. Three key areas of research are explored: meta-cognition, interpersonal communication style and attitude. These are areas which have been highlighted as being important for coaching success (Grant, 2001; London and Smither, 2002; Bush, 2004; Feldman and Lankau, 2005; Kappenberg, 2008). The three coaching outcome measures used include; job performance, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour, which are thought to be useful indicators of organisational success (Meyer et al, 2002; Smith et al, 2003; Maharaji and Schlechter, 2007; Sarantinos, 2007; Van Vuuren, de Jong, Seydel, 2007). The key findings of this study provide some important evidence about those factors which influence coaching effectiveness. This empirical evidence enhances our understanding about how effects occur; identifying those groups of individuals more likely to be influenced by coaching. As anticipated results show that coaching has a positive impact on two of the meta-cognitive skills explored: self-efficacy and self-esteem (Bandura, 1997; Audia, Locke and Smith, 2000; Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001). However, findings also reveal two unexpected outcomes for meta-cognition: an increase in external locus of control, and a decrease in private self-consciousness behaviour. Additionally, results also show that interpersonal communication style and attitude of the coachee are important within the coaching relationship, and that the interpersonal communication style of the coach plays an important role in influencing coaching outcomes. The evidence provided by this study makes a recommendation for pre-coaching assessments of meta-cognitive skills, interpersonal communication and attitude of the coachee and also the interpersonal communication skills of the coach. This type of assessment provides a useful indicator of those areas which are likely to make a difference to coaching effectiveness as highlighted within this study.

DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in this thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification at this or any other university or other institute of learning.

COPYRIGHT STATEMENT

a few words of gratitude

brave, wise or foolish, not sure! probably all three!

but as the ancient Chinese proverb reminds.....

'this too will pass!'

a recent Whitefield proverb responds.....

'that, now I know!'

to all those who have sacrificed and journeyed alongside me,

you know who you are

thank you, thank you, thank you

the words that fuelled my fire in the dark of the night

'mummy don't give up your PhD'

my little young man, I cannot thank you enough

I love you so much

reach high in life, determination and passion will take you there!

in loving memory of Dr Richard O'Dell

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the aim of the study and covers an overview of the research objectives. It presents the rationale for studying coaching effectiveness from a psychological perspective, and examines the evidence on effectiveness within the coaching research literature. The fundamental aim of the research is to understand more about what makes coaching effective, exploring some of the gaps which have been highlighted in the literature. Coaching psychology is explored through meta-cognition (views about the self); and the empirical evidence relating to coaching effectiveness is explored through the role of the coachee and the role of the coach. A discussion of how effectiveness is measured is considered through coaching outcomes. The unique contribution this study makes to the coaching research literature is highlighted, followed by an outline of the research questions, the methodology and theoretical perspectives adopted. Finally, this is followed by an outline of the structure and summary of chapters within the thesis.

1.2 Objectives of this Thesis

The principal aim of this research is to understand more about coaching effectiveness. There is very little research that examines how and why coaching works and without stronger theoretical foundations and empirical research, coaching runs the risk of falling into a passing trend, without sufficient evidence to support it (Feldman and Lankau, 2005). The aim of this research was driven out of a growing interest in the field of executive coaching, specifically within the workplace and a desire to understand more about those factors which have an impact on, or influence, coaching effectiveness. Although organisations are increasingly investing resources in coaching as part of their human resource strategy, using coaching as a tool to enhance employee performance, development and learning, there is still little known about what contributes to an effective coaching experience (Bowles and Picano, 2007), particularly from a psychological perspective (Kilburg, 2001; Grant, 2001). Coaching research is still in its infancy, highlighting the need for more empirical evidence to confirm outcomes (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001; Lowman, 2005; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). Much of the coaching literature to date has focused on effectiveness in terms of types of delivery, models used, and pre and post outcome measures (Fillery-Travis and Lane, 2006), with

gaps in the research adopting a psychological perspective, and very little research exploring the relationship between individual psychological difference and the coaching process (Kilburg, 2001). However, increasing interest has been shown in a psychological approach to coaching, with the growth of coaching psychology (Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005). This study aims to contribute to this growing area of research by exploring the psychological dimensions of coaching, in terms of meta-cognition (i.e. thinking about one's thoughts, feelings and behaviours, Grant, 2001) and investigates how meta-cognition influences perception of the 'self' within the coaching process. The relationship between meta-cognition and coaching is examined through the self regulatory cycle, which is one of the main mechanisms through which individuals alter and shape their behaviour (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007). The impact of coaching is measured through coaching outcomes which are used to assess coaching effectiveness.

In addition to the psychological approach to coaching effectiveness, there have been many other factors which have been highlighted in the literature as being important contributors to coaching success, these appear to fall within two broad categories: factors which relate to the coachee and factors which relate to the coach or the coaching relationship. Factors which influence coaching success specifically relating to the coachee includes: engagement, receptiveness, motivation, self-confidence, commitment, communication, self-awareness etc, and some of the areas highlighted that relate to the coach include: trust, empathy, feedback, communication etc (Sztucinski, 2001; Caprioni, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). The relationship between these factors and coaching however, does appear to be complex, and as yet still remains relatively unexplored within the literature. There are some common themes which emerge within the literature, however, they lack clarity and definition, and as such will be explored in this study under the broad categories of 'interpersonal communication' and 'attitude/expectations'. More research is needed to explore these relationships in order to help explain and identify those factors which are critical for coaching to be effective. This study seeks to provide evidence which will address these research gaps.

1.3 An Overview of Coaching and Issues Raised in this Research

The principal aim of this research is to understand more about coaching effectiveness, however, in order to do this, it is important to understand what is involved in the coaching process and examine factors which influence this process. These factors may be considered from two different perspectives: the practical and the theoretical. The

practitioner perspective is concerned primarily with the methods and techniques used in the coaching process, whereas the theoretical approach is concerned with the theory and principals which underpin the coaching process. This study is not primarily concerned with a practitioner approach evaluating models, techniques or methods of coaching, but is concerned with exploring the theoretical or psychological dimensions to coaching. This is not done in isolation, however, as this study is also concerned with exploring other factors which influence coaching effectiveness. These are explored through the role of the coachee and the role of the coach and are discussed under the themes: 'interpersonal communication' and 'attitude/expectations'. Particular attention is given to those factors that have been highlighted in the coaching literature as being important for success, but lack empirical evidence (Kilburg, 2000). The coaching definition used in this study is primarily concerned with work based coaching or executive coaching, which is used to enhance performance, learning and development of individuals through emotional, cognitive and behavioural change (Grant, 2006). This study explores the cognitive dimension to change by adopting a psychological perspective, and endeavours to understand how individual psychological difference impacts on coaching outcomes and also explores how interpersonal communication and attitude/expectation impacts on effectiveness. It should be noted that this thesis presents the 'coachee' perspective, one which has previously been neglected in the coaching literature (Bush, 2004).

1.4 Why Study Coaching Effectiveness?

In order to bring about improvements within coaching it is necessary to understand more about what influences coaching outcomes or coaching effectiveness and up to now, very little empirical research has been carried out to explore this. Within this thesis there are three principal outcome measures used for effectiveness which include: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Within the coaching literature there are many references made to outcome measures, however, the research has a tendency to report on outcomes then fails to examine the factors that influence the outcomes, a gap which this thesis seeks to address (Anderson, 2001; Smither et al, 2003). The rationale for selecting these particular coaching outcome measures are because of the benefits they offer to the organisation and to the individual, and also because they are useful indicators of success (Smither et al, 2003; Maharaj and Schlecher, 2007; Sarantinos, 2007; Gong et al, 2009). Another area which has been highlighted within the literature as being important for coaching effectiveness is the

concept of coachee engagement (Kappenberg, 2008), and whilst the definition is slightly unclear, it does appear to be closely associated with ideas relating to commitment and receptiveness. There are many references within the coaching literature which refer to the coachee's openness or receptiveness to process, change and feedback, which appear to have a relationship with commitment. Common associated themes in the literature include: client engagement (Bush, 2004); commitment (Kappenberg, 2008); adherence or compliance (Kilburg, 2001); or buy-in (Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007). These concepts are important to coaching effectiveness as they appear to have an impact on an individual's engagement in the coaching process (Sztucinski, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008), which in turn has an impact on coaching outcomes and coaching success. These ideas are explored further in relation to the role of the coachee under the heading of interpersonal communication and attitude/expectations.

The role of the coach is another important area worthy of consideration with regards coaching effectiveness. A range of different core competencies of the coach have been associated with effectiveness, however the salient ones include; interpersonal communication skills, trust, empathy and feedback (International Coaching Federation, 1999; Kilburg, 2000; Sztucinski, 2001; Grant, 2001; Kappenberg, 2008). Although, the capability of the coach to create trust, show empathy, provide useful feedback and be a good communicator have been highlighted as important, the degree to which these influence coaching effectiveness has not been fully established, which prompts further examination within this study.

1.5 Why Adopt a Psychological Perspective?

There is a very clear link between our thoughts, attitudes and beliefs and our behaviour, which is often described as a cognitive behavioural approach within the literature (Grant, 2001). However, the relationship between the views we hold about ourselves and how they influence behaviour remains relatively unexplored within coaching research, in particular. There has been a growing interest into this area of research as demonstrated by the emergent field of coaching psychology (Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005); however, empirical studies exploring these relationships are rare. In view of the fact that many of the activities within coaching are directed at behavioural outcomes, it seems logical and necessary to understand more about the cognitive processes that underpin these behaviours. For this reason, it was thought important to explore the psychological

dimensions of behaviour within the coaching relationship and examine how the way we think about ourselves (meta-cognition) influences what we do (coaching outcomes). This approach will offer a psychological perspective to coaching, providing some critical evidence about how meta-cognition influences coaching outcomes, from which inferences about coaching effectiveness can be drawn.

1.6 Why Study Interpersonal Communication and Attitude?

It has been suggested that interpersonal communication is an important component of the coaching process (Gegner, 1997; Bush, 2004) and clearly many of the activities involved in effective communication are linked to activities associated with coaching, e.g. listening, reflecting, self disclosure etc. (Hargie and Dickson, 2004). In the business environment evidence suggests there are many tangible rewards to be gained from developing effective interpersonal skills (Hargie and Dickson, 2004) and effective managers have been shown to have a strong repertoire of interpersonal skills (Clampitt, 2001). The communication process is where individuals act skilfully to accomplish their goals, adopting behaviour that is thought to be an efficient and effective way of achieving goals (Hargie and Dickson, 2004). The fact that the communication process plays such a fundamental part in the process of goal attainment justifies further investigation. Surprisingly, there has been very little research which explores the relationship between interpersonal communication and coaching; within the coaching literature communication skills are more commonly treated as an outcome measure (Merritt and Phillips, 1999; Bush, 2004) with references to this being an essential skill of an effective coach (International Coaching Federation, 1999; Caproni, 2001). There are few studies however, which explore how interpersonal communication influences the coaching process or influences outcomes, and because it is such a critical part of the coaching process, it was thought important to explore this further. Additionally, under the theme of interpersonal communication, ideas associated with ‘receptiveness’ are also explored. There are many references to the link between a coachee’s openness and receptiveness to the coaching process and coaching success, ideas which have been discussed in terms of ‘engagement’ within the coaching literature, and it has been proposed that ‘engagement’ or ‘receptiveness’ to coaching influences coaching outcomes (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008) which justifies further examination of these areas. Finally, another theme which is worth considering from the coachee perspective is the relationship between attitude, expectations and coaching outcomes. There is very little research within the coaching literature which examines the relationship between attitude and

expectations within the coaching process, and although this is an area which has raised some interest, it still remains relatively unexplored (London and Smither, 2002; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). Conceivably, there are links between an individual's attitude towards coaching and their receptiveness, with some obvious links with the idea of 'engagement', and whilst these ideas have surfaced in the literature, there is no solid foundation in terms of empirical evidence to either confirm or deny their role. In a study which is concerned with understanding more about what makes coaching effective, it would seem sensible therefore, to understand more about the role of interpersonal communication, and attitude or expectations within the coaching process.

1.7 Contribution to the Literature

There are several important areas where this study makes a unique and original contribution to the empirical research literature. Firstly, there is very little research which offers a psychological perspective within coaching; this study addresses this research gap by providing some empirical evidence to establish the role of meta-cognition within coaching. Secondly, this study offers the coachee's perspective, a view which has often been ignored in the literature (Bush, 2004); thirdly this research provides empirical evidence of the critical factors which influence coaching effectiveness, which to date is rare in the coaching literature, particularly within case study research (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001); fourthly, it explores interpersonal communication skills and coaching attitude, two areas which have been under-explored and require further examination (Feldman and Lankau, 2005); fifthly, this study introduces two outcome measures of effectiveness that have not been explored within the coaching literature previously, these include; affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour, two measures which were thought useful to include because of the links with organisational effectiveness (Organ and Ryan, 1995; Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007; Gong et al, 2009) (see chapter 2 for further details); sixthly, this research offers a longitudinal study, using a mixed methodology with a matched sample, thereby furnishing more robust, empirical evidence, based on sound methodology within an organisational setting, studies of this type are rare within the coaching research literature (Grant, 2001; Levenson, 2009).

1.8 Research Objectives and Questions

The research questions have originated from a full review of the research literature and seek to address the gaps which have been highlighted. There are fourteen questions which have been created which address five key research objectives. The principal aim of the research is to understand more about coaching effectiveness, particularly from a psychological perspective, whereby effectiveness is explored through three coaching outcomes: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. The research essentially reports on the views of the coachee, therefore, presents the coachee perspective. There are five key research objectives which have been created which fall into the following categories: (1) meta-cognition, (2) interpersonal communication skills and coaching attitude (coachee), (3) interpersonal communication skills of coach, (4) coaching outcomes, (5) critical factors which influence coaching effectiveness. The final objective seeks to provide guidance and recommendations on the practical use of the evidence within the field of coaching, whilst also exploring the wider implications of the research.

1.9 Methodological Approach

The methodological approach taken in this study is a mixed methodology based on a longitudinal, case study set in an organisational setting. The study takes a systematic approach, offering a pragmatic view, which is essentially concerned with 'what works' and seeks to explore solutions to problems, rather than focusing on the methods used (Patton, 1990; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). In the current study, the focus is on understanding more about what influences coaching effectiveness, which offers a solution to the challenge of improving coaching effectiveness. The data gathered uses quantitative data collected using a survey questionnaire format, and qualitative data collected using qualitative interviews; this provides a more rounded approach to the research.

1.10 Structure of this Thesis

The thesis is presented in seven chapters. Chapter one, the current chapter, provides the introduction and covers the key themes which are explored within the thesis; chapter two provides a review of the literature which is presented in two sections, section one covers coaching psychology and thereby reviews coaching from a psychological

perspective, section two covers the coaching literature and explores empirical evidence of coaching effectiveness; chapter three presents the methodological approach adopted within the thesis, detailing the methods of data collection, research design and methods of analysis; chapter's four and five report on the results, quantitative and qualitative respectively, only significant findings have been included, all non-significant results are attached in the appendix; chapter six presents a discussion of the research findings, offering guidance for practical implications thereby translating theory into practice, chapter seven provides an overall conclusion about the wider implications of the research for the field of coaching.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

There are three main sections to the literature review: the first section is concerned with presenting an ***overview of coaching***, exploring definitions and examining differences between coaching and other developmental practices; the second section completes a comprehensive review of the ***coaching psychology*** literature thus exploring coaching from a psychological perspective, covering meta-cognition specifically; and the third section covers the empirical literature on ***coaching effectiveness*** through the role of the coachee and the role of the coach, considering coaching outcome measures and addressing interpersonal communication skills and coaching attitude/expectations. This will serve to highlight the gaps in the research literature providing justification for the aims of this current study.

2.1.1 Overview of Coaching

In recent years coaching has become one of the major growth industries (Skiffington and Zeuss, 2001) and a survey conducted by the Chartered Institute of Professional Development, revealed that four fifths of the 500 companies surveyed claimed to use coaching in their organization (CIPD, 2004). Further, the demand for coaching services increases as individuals and organisations seek help in reaching work related goals (Grant and Greene, 2001; Zeus and Skiffington, 2002). Along with this growth in coaching however, there is increasing concern over the growing number of inexperienced practitioners that are entering the market. This presents a real danger for those needing guidance over selection of coaching services, in an industry that as yet is unregulated, with no single professional body claiming responsibility for governance and regulation of practice (Bluckert, 2004). Demonstrating return on investment for coaching services, which are often expensive, is another key challenge facing this growing industry (Bowles, Cunningham, De la Rosa and Picano, 2007). Concerns over quality and value for money within coaching also exists, which prompts the need for a more critical appraisal of coaching outcomes and delivery, with closer scrutiny of the theoretical underpinnings of the models and techniques used in coaching practice (Linley, 2006). Considering the growth and increased use of coaching, it is surprising that there is still very little empirical research to be found to support coaching effectiveness (Grant, 2001; Kilburg, 2001; Bluckert, 2005). In order to appreciate what is

involved in the coaching process, it is worth considering some of the definitions presented within the literature; this provides some indication of the nature of activities involved in coaching.

2.1.2 Coaching Definitions

The dictionary definition for coaching defines it as 'to tutor, train, give hints to, prime with facts' (Concise Oxford Dictionary, 2003). However, there is a profusion of definitions that provide more specific descriptions of organisational coaching, some of these include;

> *'Unlocking a person's potential to maximise their own performance'* (Whitmore, 1996)
>
> *'A process that enables learning and development to occur and thus performance to improve'* (Parsloe, 1999)
>
> *'A collaborative, solution-focused, results-oriented and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of work performance, life experience, self-directed learning and personal growth of the coach'* (Grant, 2001)
>
> *'The purpose of coaching is to guide people through change by raising awareness of the need to change, problem solving and getting the coachee to commit to action'* (Bacon, 2003)
>
> *'Developing a person's skills and knowledge so that their job performance improves, hopefully leading to the achievement of organisational objectives'* (CIPD, 2004)

There are several recurring words that these definitions have in common, which give some indication of the types of activities involved in coaching practice: e.g. learning, increasing performance, and development, however, it is also noticeable within these definitions that there is a distinct lack of reference to the psychological dimension of coaching, a gap which is addressed in this thesis.

2.1.3 Characteristics of Coaching

Whilst the principal aim of this thesis is concerned with critically evaluating effectiveness, it is worth considering briefly some of the key characteristics, activities and types of coaching on offer. Coaching has been described as a developmental intervention that is increasingly being used to enable individuals to adjust to major changes in the rapidly evolving business environment and is often used in organisational settings to enhance the learning, development and performance of employees (Hudson, 1999; Zeus and Skiffington, 2003). It has been argued that these activities take place through, the transferral of knowledge for skill development, and through the enhancement of psychological development for the process of empowerment (Popper, Micha, Lipshitz and Raanan, 1992). These ideas highlight some of the important themes that are discussed later on.

Following on from this, whilst there are no prescriptive procedures inherent within coaching, there are some common elements or core characteristics that emerge, these include: individual development, feedback on strengths and weaknesses, aimed at specific issues/areas, relatively short-term activity, non-directive form of development, focuses on improving performance and developing individual skills (Stern, 2004). However, the degree to which these characteristics apply depends upon the type of coaching and purpose, or aims of the coaching. More often than not, the coaching relationship takes place between a coach and coachee, although it might also involve a team. The coach may be internal or external to the organisation and may or may not, have knowledge or expertise within the field (Jarvis, 2004). It has been argued, however, that for a coaching relationship to be successful, it needs to be reciprocal, where both coach and coachee give and receive (Hardingham, 2004).

According to Jarvis (2004) the three main reasons for an organisation using coaching are for: improving individual performance, dealing with underperformance and improving productivity, which invariably influences the type of coaching employed. Some of the different forms of coaching discussed in the literature include: performance coaching, skills coaching, career coaching, personal/life, business coaching, executive coaching (Jarvis, 2004). Performance coaching is aimed at enhancing an individual's performance in their current role at work and, generally, performance coaching derives its theoretical models from sports psychology (Whitmore, 2002). The focus of skills coaching is on developing the core skills a person needs to fulfil their job in line with the needs of the

organisation, (Bluckert, 2006), whereas career coaching is focused on developing career aspirations and used to explore concerns and options (Lees, 2005). Personal or life coaching is generally aimed at facilitating significant changes in a person's life. Business coaching is a term often used to refer to any coaching activity that takes place in a business setting with constraints placed on the individual by the organisation. Executive coaching often refers to investment normally in senior management to improve performance of the most influential individuals in an organisation. Jarvis (2004) states, that executive coaching is often delivered by coaches operating from outside the organisation whose services are requested for a set duration, but this can also be delivered by internal coaches. There are also many different models used in coaching practice, with different theoretical foundations, some of these include: GROW model, solution focused, cognitive behavioural, neuro-linguistic programming, transpersonal, psychodynamic, integrative, multi-modal and rational emotive (Passmore, 2006). For the purposes of this current study, however, the main type of coaching that will be considered is executive coaching within an organisational setting. The study is not concerned with assessing theoretical models of coaching, although it is concerned with addressing psychological factors associated with theoretical models. The main purpose of the study is to assess effectiveness in coaching, and contribute to the empirical literature with this regard. However, before a more critical analysis of the empirical literature on coaching, it is worth considering also a brief overview of the distinction between coaching and other developmental practices, namely, mentoring and training.

2.1.4 Coaching and Mentoring

Coaching is an activity that is ideally suited to helping individuals improve their learning and development, by guiding them through a process of change, and is characteristically different to other forms of development activities such as mentoring and training. Whilst coaching and mentoring are both concerned with development (Benabou and Benabou 2000), mentoring differs from coaching in that it is more concerned with the long-term acquisition of skills in a developing career and is often seen as a method of career development (Kram, 1985; Higgins and Krams, 2001). Mentoring also differs considerably from coaching, in that it is usually based on a hierarchical relationship between a senior, more experienced mentor passing on domain specific information to junior members of staff in order to enhance learning, by guiding the mentee through a transferral of knowledge and skills (Kanter, 1977; Shapiro, Hazeltine and Rowe, 1978; Kram, 1985). The mentoring relationship is based on the mentor having a particular

expertise of knowledge within a particular field, although this relationship may be formal or informal in nature (Lyons and Oppler, 2004). Coaching differs from mentoring as it seeks to 'facilitate' the learning process (Olivero, Bane and Kopelman, 1997) and is not usually dependent on the coach having expertise within a particular field; rather the coach is the expert in the facilitation of learning, providing feedback on behaviour and how this impacts on others (O'Neil, 2000).

2.1.5 Coaching and Training

Training also differs from coaching as a means of development, in that it is a more rigid and externally determined activity, which aims to prepare trainees for specific skill or task improvement (Druckman and Bjork, 1991) and, compared to coaching, it does not explicitly impart meta-cognitive skills to the trainee, which it has been argued are essential factors in the mastery of new skills (Carver and Scheier, 1998). Training alone may not lead to optimum performance (Schmidt and Bjork, 1992); inherent in the task is the difficulty in transferring learned skills from a single training to the work environment (Hesketh, 2002). Coaching helps to redress this problem of skills transferral by developing individuals through a process of feedback, which training fails to do, and there is evidence to suggest that coaching facilitates a more complete transfer of knowledge and skills from training to the job environment (Olivero, Bane and Kopelman, 1997). Given that coaching may play a more significant role in the learning and development process, this prompts a more in-depth examination of the psychological dimensions of coaching.

2.2 Coaching Psychology

One of the main aims of coaching is to facilitate change through behavioural, cognitive and emotional growth, which enables goal attainment and performance improvements (Douglas and McCauley, 1999). In order to understand more about the cognitive processes involved in coaching, further empirical research is needed, as there is currently minimal empirical evidence which explores the psychological dimensions of coaching (Kilburg, 2001; Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005). The aim of this section is to explore coaching from a psychological perspective, by examining the cognitive processes which facilitate individuals to achieve their goals, and within the coaching process one of the key mechanisms through which cognitive growth takes place is, self-regulation (Grant, 2001). This section explores the relationship between coaching and

the self-regulation cycle, examining the meta-cognitive processes, which underpin this cycle.

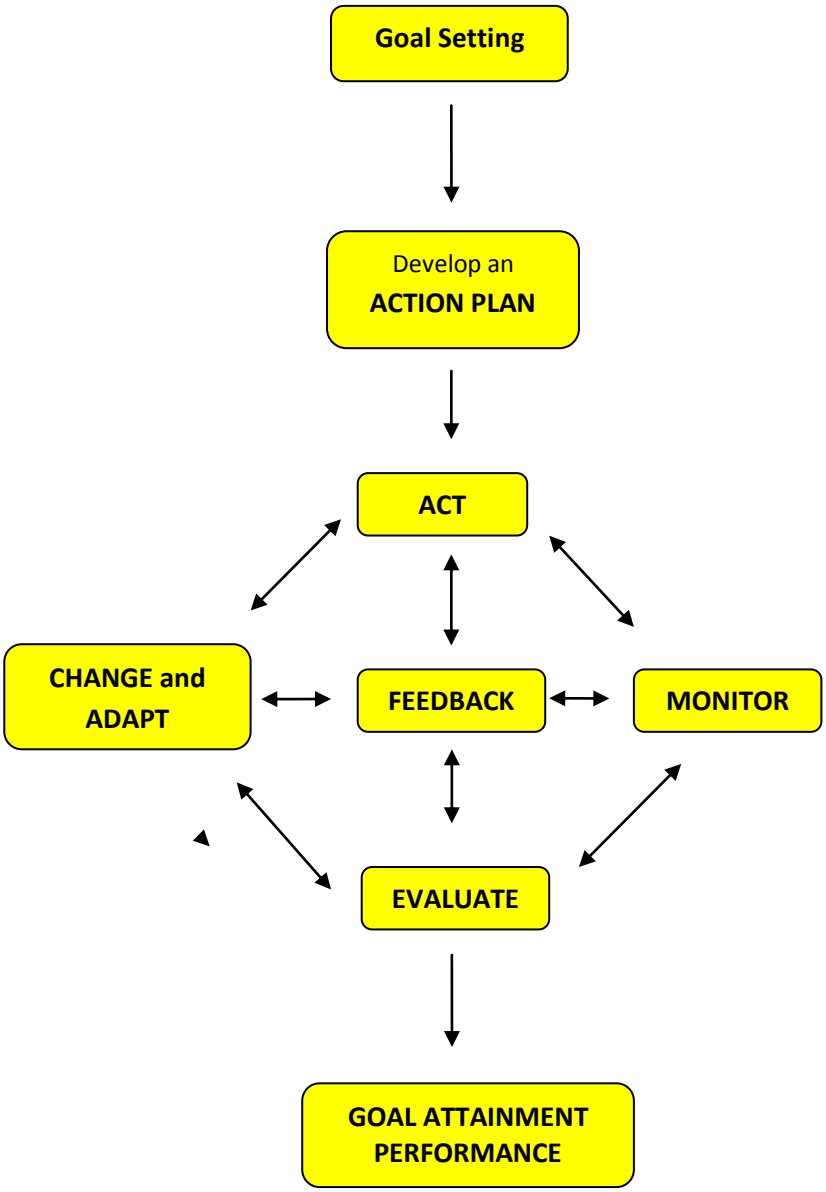
The field of coaching psychology is in its infancy; however, there is a growing body of literature which is contributing to this knowledge, laying down the foundations for a psychological approach to coaching (Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005). Generally speaking, the coaching literature falls into three main categories: (i) psychological (Sperry, 1993; Foster and Lendl, 1996; Waclawski and Church, 2002), (ii) training and development (Whitherspoon and White, 1996; Filipczak, 1998) and (iii) management (Olivero, Bane and Kopelman, 1997). Much of the literature which presents frameworks within coaching is concerned with detailing techniques and methods of coaching, rather than detailing theoretical conceptual models from which techniques may be drawn (Evered and Selman, 1989). Defining a technique in isolation without testing out the theories and building empirical evidence to support it, is an inadequate way of making progress and a deeper understanding of the psychological principles involved in the coaching process is crucial for coaching to progress (Grant, 2001). The psychological dimensions to coaching exist, because coaching is concerned with influencing attitudes and behaviours, as Bluckert (2005) points out, that coaching invariably involves growth and change, whether that is in perception, attitude or behaviour. Bluckert argues that a psychological approach is needed in coaching in order to achieve cognitive, emotional and behavioural change and a process of reflection and examination of feelings, thoughts, reactions and motivation is required. This involves developing self-awareness, which has been highlighted as one of the fundamental components of psychological mindedness (Bluckert, 2005). 'Psychological mindedness' is a term which has been introduced into the coaching literature by researchers in leadership coaching (Lee, 2003), although it has its origins within the psychotherapy world (Bluckert, 2005). Bluckert (2005) associates psychological mindedness with an ability to reflect on thoughts, feelings and behaviours relating to the self and others, and derive meaning and learning from that reflection, arguing that this requires a level of self awareness.

Another strong supporter of the development of a psychological approach within coaching is Grant (2001), who draws attention to the need for a theoretical framework for a psychology of coaching. Grant (2001) suggests that this is best achieved using a model of self-regulation which reinforces the relationship between thoughts, feelings and behaviour in the process of goal attainment, drawing a strong parallel between the self-regulation process and coaching practice.

2.2.1 Self-Regulation and Coaching

The term ‘self-regulation’ refers to the process by which individuals control and direct their actions in pursuit of their goals (Garcia, 1995). Self-regulation may also be defined as ‘the self’s capacity to alter its behaviours’ (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007). Self-regulation is thought to increase the degree to which human behaviour is flexible and able to adapt, and is therefore, an important factor of any process involving change, in particular coaching. Self regulatory processes are related to goal attainment and research indicates that individuals with effective self regulatory skills have success in many areas of life, including work (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007). The purpose of including a model of self-regulation in this study (see figure 2.1) is that it provides a structure for understanding the processes involved in self-regulation, which also model the processes involved in coaching. This creates a useful structure for understanding the relationship between coaching and self-regulation, and also provides a platform for understanding the relationship between psychological factors (of the coachee) and the coaching process. The core components of goal directed self-regulation involve a series of processes whereby, the individual or coachee sets goals, develops a plan of action, implements action, monitors performance and evaluates performance through feedback (Grant, 2001). Feedback is an important factor in the coaching cycle and through self-regulation, the coachee moves forward towards their goals through behavioural, cognitive and emotional change (Carver and Scheier, 1998). In the coaching process, the coach is responsible for guiding the coachee through the cycle of self-regulation, facilitating this through feedback, although it is the coachee who does the work and makes the journey. Grant (2001) has proposed a model of self-regulation, which essentially outlines the coaching process, however, this model has been modified to include two important features of coaching; feedback and performance (see figure 2.1 below).

Figure 2.1: Model of Self-Regulation (Grant, 2001) (adapted version)

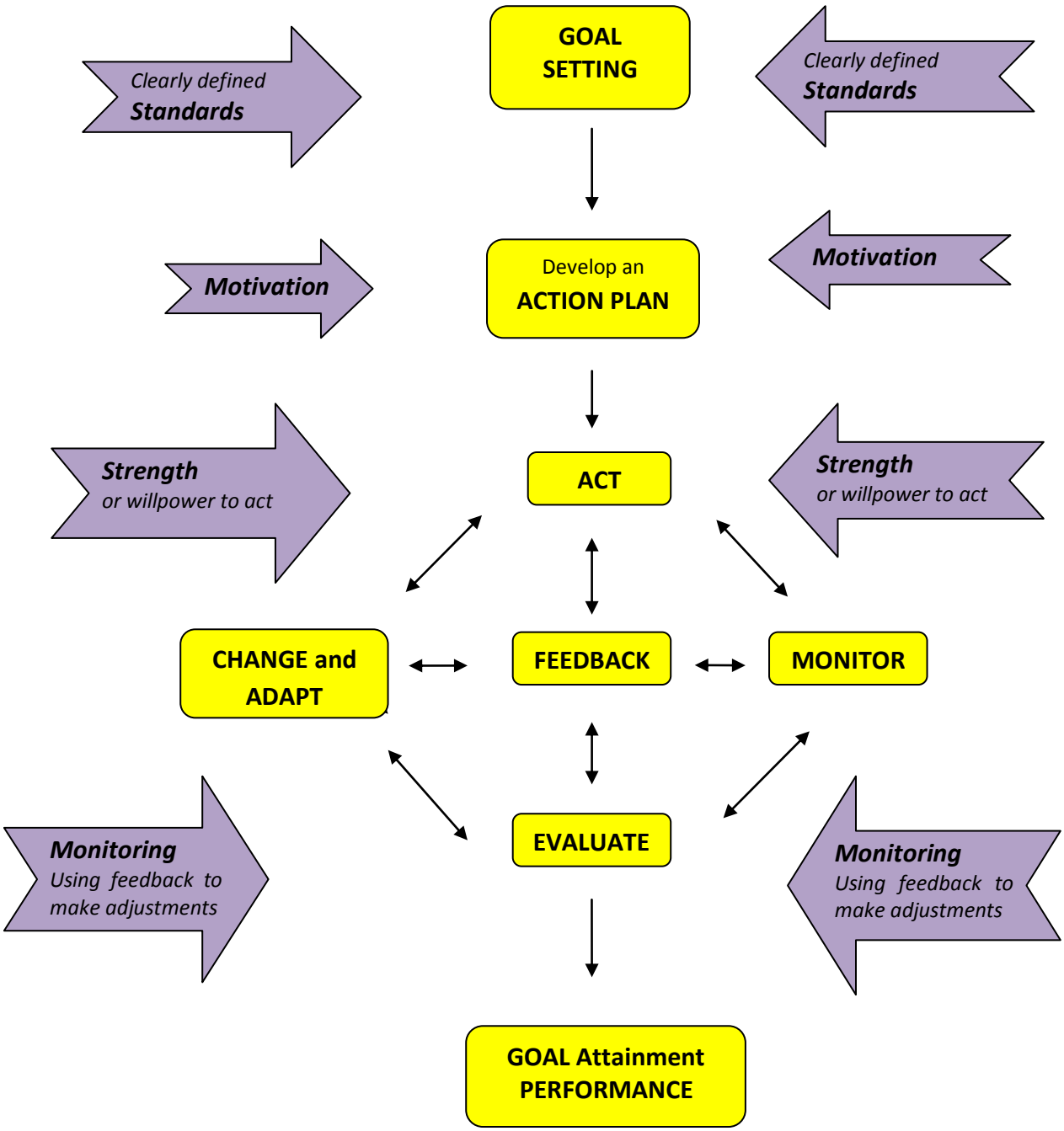


In order to understand the mechanisms through which self-regulation takes place, it is worth considering more closely some of the factors which are thought to influence the effectiveness of the self-regulation process, these include: standards, motivation, strength and monitoring (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007). The role these factors play in self-regulation cycle is highlighted below (figure 2.2). According to Baumeister and Vohs (2007) changes that occur in self-regulation are often based on goals which are measured by a *standard,* and it has been argued that for effective self-regulation, standards need to be clearly defined by those involved in the process. The second factor thought to be important for effective self-regulation is *motivation*; this is thought to

be an important element which needs to be present for self-regulation to be effective and for goals to be attained. The third element identified as important for self-regulation is *strength*, which has also been referred to as 'willpower'. It has been recognised that changing the 'self' is difficult and in order to succeed a degree of willpower is required and when willpower is low, self-regulation is not effective (Schmeichel and Baumeister, 2004). The fourth factor is *monitoring*. This refers to the process of using feedback about prior performance and using this to make adjustments to current performance, whereby the self is compared to a standard and a cycle of change takes place until the self meets the standard, this has been described as a feedback loop (Baumeister and Bushman, 2008). A capacity to engage in self-reflection and develop personal insight has also been identified as crucial for effective self-regulation, which leads to goal attainment (Carver and Scheier, 1998).

The theory of self-regulation has important implications for coaching and suggests that for coaching to be effective the coachee needs to be aware of the standards of goals that they are working towards. They need to be involved in a process of monitoring through feedback to ensure change is taking place, to demonstrate commitment and willpower and have motivation and desire to achieve their goals. All of these processes need to be underpinned by self-reflection. If these elements are present, self-regulation towards goal attainment is likely to be effective (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007).

Figure 2.2: Factors that Influence the Process of Self-regulation



2.2.2 Meta-Cognition, Self-Regulation and Coaching

In order to understand the cognitive processes that underpin self-regulation, it might be useful to explore the relationship between meta-cognition, self-regulation and coaching. This prompts three questions: (1) What is meta-cognition? (2) What is the relationship between meta-cognition, self-regulation and coaching? (3) What does the empirical literature discuss in relation to meta-cognition, and how does this enhance our understanding of coaching?

What is meant by meta-cognition? Meta-cognitive skills refer to the processes involved in self-evaluation and thinking about one's thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Grant, 2001). Skills which reflect a view of the 'self' have also been referred to as 'core self-evaluations' (Judge and Bono, 2001). It has been argued that a key ability which mediates the process of self-evaluation is the ability to be self-aware (Carver and Scheier, 1998). Self-awareness is the selective processing of information about the self, first introduced into the literature by Fenigstein et al (1975) who created a scale to measure this in their 'private self-consciousness scale', which measures internal state awareness. In addition to self-awareness, it is important to introduce three additional factors which relate to internal views about the self, these are: self-efficacy beliefs, self-esteem and locus of control (these factors will be discussed in detail further on in this section). Self-efficacy is a term used to refer to an individual's belief in their own capability to perform or execute a task (Bandura, 1997); self-esteem is a term used to refer to a person's sense of self-worth (Brown and Marshall, 2006); and locus of control is a term used to refer to an individual's belief concerning their control of the environment (Lefcourt, 1982). When combined these factors produce individual differences which reflect a view of 'self' (Judge and Bono, 2001). There is a noticeable lack of empirical evidence however, that examines coaching from a psychological perspective, which includes these specific factors (Kilburg, 2001; Bluckert, 2005), thereby, justifying a review of these elements.

Why study meta-cognition and coaching? There is a reciprocal relationship which exists between the four dimensions of human experience: thoughts, feelings, behaviour and environment. How we think affects the way we feel, which influences the way we behave; these elements are addressed through a cognitive behavioural approach to coaching (Grant, 2001). During self-regulation in the coaching process, the coachee is required to make behavioural and cognitive changes in order to achieve their goals.

However, in order to do this, it is important to consider the psychological processes or meta-cognitive skills that underpin and influence an individual's capability to move through the coaching cycle and to regulate their thoughts and their behaviour.
Finally, it appears that there are virtually no empirical longitudinal case studies that exist, which explore the relationship between coaching and the meta-cognitive skills involved in self-evaluation specifically: self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and private self-consciousness. Whilst this highlights a serious gap in the literature, there is a distinct deficiency within the coaching literature specifically, which reviews meta-cognition, therefore, it is necessary to review separately the literature associated with these respective meta-cognitive skills. A greater understanding of the role meta-cognition plays in self-regulation will enhance the knowledge of coaching by offering a psychological perspective, one of the principal aims of this study. A review of the literature with regards the four meta-cognitive skills follows.

2.2.3 The role of Self-Esteem and Self-Efficacy in Self-Regulation and Coaching

There is wide disparity and a lack of agreement in the literature regarding the construct of self-esteem (Brown, Marshall, 2006). However, in an attempt to consolidate the different views, three different terms or definitions have been presented: (i) global self-esteem (trait self-esteem) deemed to be relatively enduring across time and situations and thought to be related to temperament and neuroticism (Neiss, Sedikides, and Stevenson, 2002); (ii) feelings of self-worth (state self-esteem) – refers to emotional reactions to self-worth or how we generally feel about ourselves, often considered a temporary state; (iii) self-evaluations (domain specific self-esteem) refers to the way people evaluate their ability, often referred to as self-efficacy and is related to feelings of self-confidence (Brown and Marshall, 2006). In terms of the above definitions, the first dimension global self-esteem will not be included in this study as it appears to remain relatively stable over time; however, the other two concepts, self-esteem (state self-esteem) and self-efficacy (self-evaluation), are covered in some depth, because it is important to make clear the distinction between self-esteem and self-efficacy. Whilst self-esteem and self-efficacy are thought to be very closely related, research demonstrates that they are distinct, both theoretically and empirically, and both are believed to have a positive impact on job performance and employee-related attitudes (Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2004). Self-efficacy has been defined as a person's belief in their own capability to execute actions required to achieve a task (Bandura, 1997), whereas self-esteem relates to a person's sense of self-worth. In order to make the

distinction between self-efficacy and self-esteem clearer it might be worth considering the following propositions. In relation to the task of learning to drive a car, an individual who has low self-efficacy but high self-esteem would have little confidence in their capability to drive a car but their sense of self-worth would be unaffected by this and would remain high. The opposite could also exist, whereby an individual has high self-efficacy and low self-esteem, in this instance this person would have a strong belief in their capability to learn to drive, although they would still have low feelings of self-worth and low emotional attachment to themselves. The role of self-concept within an organisational setting remains incomplete and, whilst there have been links made between self-esteem and self-efficacy, the way perceptions of the self affect job related behaviours and attitudes needs further investigation (Marsh, 1993). Self-esteem has been defined in terms of the degree to which people perceive themselves to be capable, significant and worthy (Coopersmith, 1967) and researchers generally agree that self-esteem relates to a number of different dimensions of the self, e.g. physical self, social self etc. (Marsh, 1993). Employees with high organisational based self-esteem are thought to perceive themselves as being important, meaningful and worthwhile and are confident about their abilities, often described as motivated and capable (Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2004). Consequently research suggests that high self-esteem will generally predict high probabilities of task success (self-efficacy), much more than low self-esteem (Chen, Gully and Eden, 2004). The distinctions between self-esteem and self-efficacy are summarised below (table 2.1)

Table 2.1: *Differences between **Self-Esteem** and **Self-Efficacy***

(Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2004)

Dimensions	Self-Esteem	Self-Efficacy
Definition	A personal judgement of worthiness; attitude of self-approval	A belief about one's ability to execute a future action
General versus Specific	Varies from global to intermediate (e.g. organisation- based self-esteem) to task specific	Varies from tasks in general (generalised self-efficacy) to highly specific tasks (specific self-efficacy)
Affective versus Cognitive	Both; more affective than cognitive	Mostly cognitive
Time	Assessment of one's current self	Current assessment of one's future success at a task
Belief	Belief about one's worthiness (self-approval)	Belief about one's ability to execute a particular task or tasks in general

The literature on self-esteem suggests that there are three different sources of self-esteem within the workplace: (i) through organisational structures, e.g., job design; (ii) through feedback from supervisors; (iii) through individual's feelings of efficacy and competence derived from experience, e.g., successful task completion (Korman, 1970). The literature also suggests that people who have developed a general view of themselves as being efficacious also tend to hold positive images of themselves, showing a high correlation and direct link between self-esteem and self-efficacy (Sherer et al, 1982). Some of the reported consequences associated with self-esteem include positive effects on performance and satisfaction (Brockner, 1988), and it has also been reported that individuals high in self-esteem exert more effort to perform well and are highly motivated to maintain their level of self-esteem, thus reinforcing and maintaining the high level (Gardner and Pierce, 1998). On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem are thought to withhold work efforts which, reinforces and maintains the low

levels of self-esteem (Renn and Prien, 1995). Another study which carried out an empirical examination of self-esteem and self-efficacy within the workplace, provided empirical evidence to support three key findings: (i) that organisation-based self-esteem has positive effects on job attitudes and role behaviour; (ii) that self-esteem may be shaped by self-efficacy beliefs; and that, (iii) self-esteem acts as a moderator of attitudes and behaviours through self-efficacy (Gardner and Pierce, 1998). This study may be criticised however, for relying upon a limited sample which was restricted to long standing employees only, the implications of which means that results may not generalise across wider populations. However, several useful recommendations have emerged from the study with important implications for coaching practice. Firstly, it is suggested that individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy and self-esteem will be more motivated to engage in activities and behaviours which encourage a positive self-image, indicating that self-esteem might be a more useful measure to use in recruitment. This also has implications for coaching practice, suggesting that it might be beneficial to take self-esteem into account during the contracting stage of coaching and also use this information to assist coaching design. Secondly, the findings suggest that clear roles, support and skill development should be provided to individuals in order to facilitate effective performance; this strengthens self-efficacy and contributes to higher levels of persistence, which in turn reinforces successful performance, the claim being that early success establishes a strong sense of self-esteem. Thirdly, it is suggested that opportunities for employees to experience success early on, should be created, as this experience also enhances self-esteem. Finally, it is recommended that managers provide verbal support and encouragement, as this plays a powerful role in shaping self perceptions; reflected also is the view that timely positive feedback has a much greater effect than simple reinforcement of good performance. Thus, these findings have important implications for coaching, as they strongly support the role of self-esteem and self-efficacy in effective performance (Gardner and Pierce, 1998). Additional studies in the self-esteem literature also suggest some useful findings for coaching. In their study on the theoretical and empirical distinction between self-esteem and self-efficacy, Chen, Gully and Eden (2004) claim their findings enable more accurate identification of individuals most likely to succeed at work. They report that global self-efficacy is a better predictor of motivation and persistence in the face of setbacks, whereas self-esteem is a better predictor of affective reactions, i.e., emotional reactions. They argue that this has implications for training, whereby trainees with low self-efficacy should receive instruction designed to boost task specific self-efficacy and for trainees low in self-esteem the focus should be on reducing anxiety and providing reassurance about risks. They also

suggest that providing emotional support is beneficial for low self-esteem individuals and that verbal persuasion, might be an effective way of motivating individuals and therefore, boosting low self-efficacy. One criticism of this study however, is that the data were self-report; although, this may have inflated some of the observed relationships this may not have biased hypothesis testing results entirely. Another major limitation in this piece of work however, was the correlation design used, which meant that directionality could not be established, a longitudinal design using data collected over time would have improved results. Additionally, the sample was based on female participants only, therefore reducing the ability to make generalisation across a wider population of male and female participants. Whilst the research was directed at training, there are parallels which can also be drawn for coaching.

In addition to self-esteem, a review of the self-efficacy literature also enhances our understanding of how self-perceptions are created and maintained, facilitating a greater understanding of the relationship between self-efficacy and coaching. Self-efficacy is a central feature of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), which is concerned with the mechanisms that underpin work related performance, including motivation, goal setting and job design (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). The *social* element of social cognitive theory acknowledges the social origins of human thought and action, which individuals learn as part of society, and the *cognitive* element recognizes the influence of thought processes on human motivation, attitudes and action. Whilst behaviour and knowledge are often formed within the organizational setting, the way we act upon information will be influenced by our own unique personal characteristics. The concept of self-efficacy concerns itself specifically with an individual's beliefs in his/her own capability to influence actions and produce desired goals. Self-efficacy theory proposes that unless an employee has the *belief* that he/she can generate the motivational, behavioural and cognitive resources to complete a task successfully the likelihood is, he/she will focus on the negative aspects of the task and not exert sufficient effort to succeed (Bandura, 1998). Motivation is an integral part of any goal attainment process and therefore the role of motivation, through self-efficacy beliefs, should not be ignored in the process of self-regulation.

In order to explore the relationship between self-efficacy and coaching, it is necessary to understand the role of self-efficacy in the self-regulation cycle of coaching. There are four relevant areas that are integral to both self-efficacy and self-regulation which require further examination, these include: *motivation, goal setting, feedback* and *performance*.

Human motivation and intentions help us understand why some people are more successful in achieving their goals than others. Furthermore, it has been argued, that a person's self-efficacy beliefs will influence the amount of energy and effort extended to achieve a goal and for how long this effort will be sustained (Bandura, 1986). It is believed that those with high self-efficacy beliefs will persist longer, will activate more effort, and will cope better, than those with low self-efficacy beliefs, who are more likely to question things when faced with difficulty (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). The motivation for sustained effort is explained by a commitment to a personal objective and, according to Bandura (1986), individuals who aspire to high achievement goals exert more effort and self-monitoring. The theory also suggests that higher self-efficacy beliefs increase levels of motivation, and when appropriate strategies are applied to goals; this will also lead to higher performance (Audia, Locke, and Smith, 2000). This has important implications for coaching, as it suggests that self-efficacy influences an individual's drive and motivation to achieve goals. Self doubt has also been linked to motivation and self-efficacy and an element of self-doubt within the goal planning process is thought to offer a motivational factor, by giving the individual the incentive to acquire more knowledge and skills for task completion (Bandura and Locke, 2003). It has been suggested that the absence of self-doubt, or where self-efficacy beliefs are over-estimated, this can lead to insufficient planning and preparation and undermine goal achievement as a result. This might be particularly relevant in contexts where preparation is required, such as learning or training, and may have implications for coaching.

Another important factor which has been demonstrated to influence motivation and self-efficacy beliefs is the use of benchmarking. In their study Bandura and Cervone (1983) found that self-evaluation against a benchmark predicted motivational effort, i.e. the more dissatisfied an individual is with a sub-standard performance, the stronger the perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, the more intense the effort made. In summary, Bandura and Cervone (1983) found that: (i) performances that fall very short of standards are likely to be de-motivating and will undermine self-efficacy beliefs, as performers will judge that the standard exceeds their capability, (ii) moderate discrepancies that are accompanied by dissatisfaction and self-efficaciousness will lead to increases in motivation and more effort will be made to master the challenge, (iii) performances that only slightly fall short or even exceed standards will strengthen perceived self-efficaciousness and this will lead to raising standards to create new motivational levels. It has been established earlier on, that motivation and standards

are two important features of self-regulation; this demonstrates a clear relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and the self-regulation process, which are also concerned with motivation and benchmarking. This suggests also that self-efficacy is an important meta-cognitive skill or process which could influence motivation, and therefore have an impact on an individual's ability to engage in self-regulation and achieve their goals.

Goal setting is another integral part of the self-regulation process which is also linked to motivation and self-efficacy. It has been argued that goals are determined largely by expectations or self-efficacy beliefs about performance (Wood and Bandura, 1989; Locke and Latham, 1990). There have been many theoretical debates about the causal relationship between goal setting and self-efficacy expectations and several different models have been discussed in the literature (Garland, 1985; Eden, 1988; Locke and Latham 1990). It has been suggested that goals by themselves are not motivational; however, the dissonance between action and aspiration creates self-dissatisfaction within an individual, and it is this dissonance which provides the motivational incentive to achieve goals and improve performance (Locke and Latham, 1990). People attempt to reduce this discrepancy, and in the process create positive self-evaluations, or positive self-efficacy beliefs, based on their own internal comparisons. The self-evaluation process requires both an internal standard of comparison and knowledge of performance results (Bandura and Cervone, 1986). The reason why goals have an effect on self-efficacy expectations is that they provide a sense of purpose and direction, and provide measurements to assess performance capabilities against. As goals are achieved, a sense of mastery is accomplished and through this process, feelings of self-efficacy are enhanced, this in turn has a positive effect on aspirations, and strengthens resilience in the face of negative feedback (Wood and Bandura, 1989).

Self-efficacy judgments also have an important role to play in determining an individual's choice of activities or goal setting behaviour; individuals with high self-efficacy seek out challenging tasks, whereas individuals with low self-efficacy avoid challenges which are thought to lead to negative self-evaluation. As a consequence, it can be observed that highly efficacious individuals set challenging personal goals, whereas inefficacious individuals set modest goals (Wood and Bandura, 1989). The relationship between goal setting, motivation and performance is also apparent. In research it was found that those individuals that set no goals were outperformed by those who set goals to *maintain* performance; however, those who set goals to *raise* levels of performance outperformed everyone (Locke and Latham, 1990). This is consistent with other studies involving goal

setting, where it has been found that setting explicit goals has a more motivational effect on performance than setting general goals (Latham and Yukl, 1975).

Another important aspect of the self-regulation process is *feedback*. Research suggests that self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by feedback, whereby manipulated feedback in experimental conditions have been shown to have an impact on aspiration levels and performance achievements, successfully demonstrating that positive feedback about performance can have the positive effect of raising self-efficacy beliefs (Bouffard-Bouchard, 1990). Findings suggested therefore, that those who were led to believe through feedback, that their performance was higher than their peers, irrespective of actual performance, raised their goals and aspirations and as a result, achieved higher performances (Bouffard-Bouchard, 1990). Another important consideration is the role of social persuasion in the feedback process, which acts as a primary source of information in the construction of a sense of self-efficacy and people are inclined to trust the evaluations of those who have access to comparative performance data (Bandura, 1986). This potentially has important implications for the role of the coach in the coaching process, who is one of the main providers and sources of feedback.

In other studies into the influence of feedback on self-efficacy beliefs (Baron, 1988; Reynolds, 2006), evidence suggests that whilst the type of feedback is important, it is not necessarily the delivery of negative feedback that influences self-efficacy beliefs and performance, a more important factor to consider is the exposure to destructive feedback, i.e. feedback that is insensitive in tone, general and threatens internal beliefs of efficacy. Findings show that negative feedback, which is specific and sensitive in nature, and which does not attribute poor performance to internal factors, does not lead to lower self-set goals or feelings of low self-efficacy (Baron, 1988). These findings are important in that they demonstrate the links between self-efficacy and self-regulation through feedback and performance, and the importance of the role of feedback in establishing self-efficacy beliefs. Very few of these studies however, are based on real life case studies within organizational settings and as such remain highly theoretical in nature.

As *performance* and goal attainment are important outcomes of coaching and the self-regulation cycle, a review of the role of self-efficacy in establishing performance outcomes is important. There has been much written in the literature to support the link between self-efficacy and work related performance, although there is some

disagreement over the extent to which this is predictive in nature and there are mixed results to support this relationship (Kanfer and Ackerman, 1989; Chen, Gully, Whiteman, and Kilcullen, 2000; Parker, 2000; Yeo and Neal, 2006; Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott and Rich, 2007). Evidence exists to show the power of self-efficacy in delivering increases in performance; in one study it was found that self-efficacy accounted for a twenty eight per cent increase in performance compared with ten per cent for goal setting, thirteen per cent for feedback interventions and seventeen per cent for orgainsational behaviour modification (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). Yeo and Neal (2006) in their research on air traffic control found that the dynamic relationship between self-efficacy and performance depends on the level of analysis and specificity at which self-efficacy is conceptualized; there are mixed results in the literature which also support this claim. Kanfer and Ackerman (1989) suggest that the effects of self-efficacy on performance should weaken over time. This is based on their theory of resource allocation, which makes the assumption that at the beginning of skill acquisition more cognitive resources and self-efficacy beliefs are needed, but as skill acquisition improves, fewer resources are needed and performance then becomes less dependent on self-efficacy beliefs. According to their theory, as individuals acquire skills, the intensity of effort and ability should weaken over time. In contrast, Lee and Klein (2002) found that the self-efficacy / performance relationship can remain stable or even strengthen over time. These mixed results may be a consequence of examining different portions of the skill acquisition process and sampling at different stages (Yeo and Neal, 2006). In summary, it appears that effort and ability are expected to increase during early phases of skill acquisition as performance is more resource dependent; this is also affected by individual differences in rates of learning. With practice, task performance starts to become less resource dependent as skill becomes automated.

Another important factor to consider in the self-efficacy / performance relationship is role overload. Whilst the research carried out by Brown, Jones and Leigh (2005) on role overload is heavily theoretical, their contribution is valuable in that, it raises attention to the influence of role overload on self-efficacy beliefs and the potential negative effects on performance. They argue that the positive effects of self-efficacy beliefs on performance are dependent on a person's perceptions that their resources are adequate to cover their role demands. Increasing role demands, which create a situation of role overload, can undermine the self-efficacy/performance relationship. They claim that in a situation of work overload the effectiveness with which organizational resources can be applied to successfully perform a task, will be restricted, which in turn has a negative impact on

self-efficacy. When role overload is low, self-efficacy positively influences performance, however, when role overload is high, the self-regulatory mechanisms which are part of self-efficacy beliefs are weakened which has a negative impact on performance. This research has implications for coaching indicating that 'role overload' needs to be taken into account as a moderating factor in the self-efficacy / performance relationship.

Further evidence suggests that the views we hold about ourselves, and our capabilities to achieve results, or self-efficacy beliefs, will have important implications for decision making and performance. In their study of how self-views influence estimates of performance, Ehrlinger and Dunning (2003) found that self-efficacy beliefs and estimates of performance did not correlate very well with the reality of actual performance. They discovered that there was an independent link between self views and estimates of performance, irrespective of actual performance. They found that female participants in general held inaccurate views about their capability, particularly in relation to science related topics. When questioned, they discovered that the negative perceptions held by the female participants with regards 'science' in particular, influenced their decision making, resulting in their reluctance to enter a science competition. These results are interesting because they show that, although the women in their sample were capable of performing equally as well as the men in the sample, in reality, this was not borne out in their perceptions. It appears that a psychological block prevented the women from recognizing their true capability, which had important implications for decision making. Another factor which could explain this outcome is self-confidence, which has also been linked to self-efficacy (Brown and Marshall, 2006). Research suggests therefore, that self-efficacy beliefs influence the decision making process, which has important implication for the 'goal setting' stage of the self-regulation process and within the coaching process, where decisions about goal choice are made.

2.2.4 The role of Locus of Control in Self-Regulation and Coaching

Another meta-cognitive process related to self-regulation and coaching is locus of control. Locus of control has been defined as: an individual's belief concerning their control over the environment (Lefcourt, 1982). Locus of control has been referred to as a generalised expectancy that rewards, reinforcements or outcomes are controlled by one's own actions (internal), or by other forces (external): those who attribute causal factors to ability and effort have been described as 'internals', those who attribute causes to luck, or task difficulty have been described as 'externals' (Rotter, 1966). The purpose

of including locus of control in this study is to establish the extent to which causal attributions for outcomes influence goal attainment and performance, within the self-regulation process.

Much of the research into the locus of control dimension has been dominated by the Rotter Internal-External scale of general locus of control (Rotter, 1966). However, this has been criticized for its generality, which might make it less predictive as a measure of performance because it is not domain specific, and also because it uses control and responsibility interchangeably (Phares, 1976). A more appropriate measure for an organisational setting arguably, is the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS), which specifically relates to the work domain and, as such, provides a more accurate measure of locus of control (Spector, 1988). The work locus of control scale has stronger significant correlations to job satisfaction, intention to quit, perceived influence over work, role stress and perceptions of supervisory style (Spector, 1988). In general, findings suggest that 'internals' tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than 'externals', they report less role stress, they perceive themselves to have more autonomy and control over their environment, and they enjoy longer job tenure (Spector, 1988). Findings suggest that whilst the WLCS does correlate with general locus of control measures, the WLCS may predict work behaviour more precisely than more general scales (Spector, 1988). Blau (1993) argues that Spector's measure (WLCS) is more accurate as it contains items that deal with different work specific issues, e.g. promotions, getting a job, dealing with one's boss, job effort, within one specific domain, i.e., work.

Previous studies have found positive links between internal locus of control and desired job outcomes such as: job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job performance (Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger, 1998; Judge and Bono, 2001), however, there have also been mixed results when investigating the relationship between locus of control and performance. Some studies suggest that internals perform better than externals (Majumder, MacDonald and Greever, 1977; Grimes et al, 2004); there is no relationship (Johnson, Luthans and Hennessey, 1984); externals perform better (Brownell, 1981); or it depends on which aspects of performance are being measured, as to whether the internals or externals perform better (Tseng, 1970). Differences have also been found with team performance; 'internals' are thought to outperform 'external' teams, although 'external' teams are thought to outperform 'mixed' teams (Grimes et al, 2004). One of the problems highlighted in the literature is, that often the definition or measure of performance is unclear, ill-defined or ambiguous and does not distinguish between

‘compliant’ or ‘initiative’ type performance behaviour (Blau, 1993). In his research Blau (1993) found that internals displayed higher ‘initiative’ or self development type performance and externals showed more ‘compliant’ or productivity type performance. This might be explained by the level of autonomy that self-development allows for internals, above and beyond the basic requirement of a job. This research has important implications for coaching for two reasons; firstly it demonstrates a link between locus of control and performance and secondly, it highlights the need for more accurate measures and precise definitions of performance outcomes. Research also suggests that people who attribute their performance outcomes to internal factors, such as their ability, experience more satisfaction or ‘achievement effect’ than those whose attribute success to external factors (Weiner, 1972; Adler, 1980; Spector, 1982). This may be explained by the fact that assigning internal causes to success means the individual takes personal credit and responsibility for this success. This type of attribution encourages a more positive reaction to the job, as individuals experience a greater sense of control over outcomes (Weiner, 1972; Norris and Niebuhr, 1984). If there is a reward as an outcome of performance, internals are likely to be more satisfied (Spector, 1982). Whilst these assertions may have some important implications for coaching practice, results are not consistent (Vroom, 1964; Schwab and Cumming, 1970).

In their study, Davis and Davis (1972) found that there were no significant differences between internals and externals when taking personal credit for successful outcomes, however, when the outcome was negative or failure, findings did show a difference; internals blamed themselves more for failure, than externals. This was the same for both sexes and for different tasks, which suggests that this principle could be generalised, although caution is needed as their sample was somewhat limited (n=80). Davis and Davis (1972) also go one step further in their analysis making a distinction between *defensive* and *non-defensive* externals. Defensive externals are those who have developed an expectancy for failure for defensive reasons and by doing so, they maintain some level of self-esteem, by attributing negative events to forces beyond their control. Non-defensive externals on the other hand, according to Davis and Davis (1972), do not attempt to protect their self-esteem when they attribute outcomes to external forces. It is argued, that defensive externals show a greater tendency to vary their causal attributions depending on the outcomes, more so than internals, and non-defensive externals, who both demonstrate more consistency in their attribution behaviour (Hersch and Scheibe, 1967).

Further research which also looks at the negative outcomes of performance and the relationship with locus of control, suggests that internals outperformed externals only in negative outcome circumstances, whereas, for positive outcomes, there were no differences in performance between internals and externals (Gregory, 1978). As Gregory points out, there are many experiments that have found differences between internal and external behaviour, although this seems to involve the avoidance of negative outcomes, with little evidence that discriminates between internals and externals when the outcomes are positive (Seeman and Evans, 1962; Gore and Rotter, 1963). This research has important implications for coaching and performance, as it highlights the need to be aware, that psychological difference, (especially in terms of locus of control) might be an influential factor in terms of performance outcomes, particularly when people are facing negative circumstances.

Locus of control has also been linked to the process of decision making, which is an important part of self-regulation. Research indicates that, 'internals' take longer than 'externals' to make decisions in order to avoid negative consequences, especially when it involves a difficult discrimination task. However, no evidence exists to show differences in time taken for decision making when the consequences involve a positive outcome (Rotter and Mulry, 1965). The implications for coaching of these findings are that when faced with difficult tasks or negative consequences, people may behave differently especially in terms of decision making, depending on their locus of control. As decision making is an integral part of one of the core activities of coaching, i.e. goal setting, and also affects goal choice, the implications of this research are significant.

In a meta-analysis study, Thomas et al (2006) studied the links between locus of control and three different constructs: well-being, motivation and behaviour orientation. They suggest that differences between internal and external orientations of locus of control are important for explaining how employees approach their work, both attitudinally and behaviourally. Internal locus of control is believed to generate a positive well-being. In contrast, external locus of control is believed to result in experiences of greater stress and lower self-worth (Bono and Judge, 2003). It is thought also that internals are more sensitive than externals to information that reflects a view of themselves or self-worth (Phares, 1976). Close relationships have also been observed between external locus of control and psychopathic tendencies or feelings of helplessness (Phares, 1976) and depression (Presson and Benassi, 1996) suggesting an association between a negative sense of well-being with external locus of control. In view of the fact that internals largely

believe the external environment is under their control they generally experience better psychological health than externals and demonstrate stronger affective commitment (Ng et al, 2006). It is also believed that internals have stronger intrinsic motivation to obtain desired outcomes than externals, and that they experience more social success than externals, developing stronger work relationships, with more positive social experiences (Ng et al, 2006).

Further support for the link between locus of control and self-regulation, in particular performance, can be found in a meta-analysis conducted by Judge and Bono (2001). In their study they found a positive correlation not only with locus of control but also with the other meta-cognitive skills discussed: self-efficacy and self-esteem and work related outcomes: job performance and job satisfaction. These constructs have been referred to in the literature as core self-evaluations: a term which has been used to define 'basic conclusions or bottom-line evaluations, that represent one's appraisal of people, events and things in relation to oneself' (Erez and Judge, 2001). Whilst a relationship between these constructs and performance was demonstrated, their research may be criticised for not providing clarity about the critical factors or moderators of performance (Brief, 1998).

Much of the research to date has explored meta-cognitive elements in isolation, however, Erez and Judge (2001) suggest that the concept of core self-evaluation which looks at the combined effects of four traits is worth considering, as it may provide some interesting results and insights into what motivates individuals in terms of work performance. Additional support in the literature suggests that the concept of core self-evaluation is linked to performance through motivation and goal setting (Judge, Erez and Bono, 1998), which has also been supported in the previous section on self-efficacy and self-esteem. In their research Erez and Judge (2001) hypothesized that individuals with positive core self-evaluations would be more motivated to perform and would exhibit higher levels of task performance than those with negative core self-evaluations. They explain this relationship as being mediated through goal setting behaviour; however, their findings provided some mixed results. The core self-evaluations factor did display higher correlations with motivation and performance in both the lab and field study than individual traits and, whilst this does suggest that individuals with positive core self-evaluations tended to be better performers than those with negative core self-evaluations, their findings are only supported by a single study, highlighting the need for more research. In addition their results may be criticised for not differentiating between

the core self-evaluations, therefore it is difficult to theorise about the role of locus of control in particular, in the performance equation. Nonetheless, their research is encouraging as it reinforces the need for more investigation into the impact of psychological factors within coaching, in particular meta-cognition, which are the same factors identified under the concept 'core self-evaluations'; these factors have been documented in the literature as significant components in performance outcomes (Judge, Locke and Durham, 1997; Judge, Erez and Bono, 1998; Judge and Bono, 2001).

2.2.5 The Role of Self-Awareness and Private Self-Consciousness in Self-Regulation and Coaching

Another important area of meta-cognition that is relevant in the self-regulation process is self-awareness. There is very little research which explores how someone's capacity to self-reflect might impact upon their performance or behaviour, specifically within a coaching context (Grant, 2001). In view of the fact that much of the coaching process requires the coachee to engage in self-reflection, a review of the literature on this topic was thought useful. This section offers a review of some of the main discussions and debates in the literature relating to self-awareness, which private self-consciousness seeks to measure (Fenigstein et al, 1975).

Self-reflection and self-awareness are important components of the self-regulation cycle which allow the individual to monitor their performance towards one of the core activities of coaching, which is goal attainment (Carver and Scheier, 1998; Grant, 2001). A capacity to be self-reflective and self-aware is potentially critical for effective self-regulation and effective coaching, although this is yet to be tested empirically in case studies (Grant, 2001). Several scales have been proposed to measure self-awareness, the earliest being the Private Self-Consciousness Scale created by Fenigstein, Scheier and Buss (1975). This scale is comprised of two sub-scales; internal state awareness and self-reflection and, whilst this scale has been widely used (Briere and Vallerand, 1990), results have been inconsistent (Anderson, Bohon and Berrigan, 1996). However, as a basic measure it does assess an individual's awareness of their own thoughts, feelings and behaviours.

For an effective self-regulatory process to take place it is important to have a strong understanding of one's own thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Grant, 2006) and as part of the self regulatory cycle, monitoring and evaluating performance is necessary (Hall,

Otazo and Hollenbeck, 1999; Grant, 2001; Locke and Latham, 2002). It has been argued, that focusing attention on self-monitoring and self-evaluation activities requires a certain level of self-awareness and self-consciousness (Wicklund, 1975; Grant, 2001). With this in mind, this suggests that self-awareness is an important meta-cognitive process which is relevant to the whole coaching process, although it is particularly relevant to the evaluation and monitoring stage of the self-regulation cycle.

It has been argued that focused attention on the 'self' allows for better access to the internalized mental representations one holds of the standards and values used to assess performance (Fenigstein, Scheier and Buss, 1975). Although there is very little research in the literature making the link between private self-consciousness and performance, it has been suggested that those high in private self-consciousness should perform better than those low on the scale, the difference being more noticeable when the outcome is of more personal importance (Carver, 1996). This is supported by research conducted into sales performance, where it was found that those who reached higher sales performance had higher private self-consciousness scores (Hollenbeck and Williams, 1987). However, consistent evidence to demonstrate the link with performance is not available.

Interpersonal effectiveness is an issue which has also been raised in the literature in relation to private self-consciousness and performance. Researchers comment that there appears to be a strong relationship between private self-consciousness and interpersonal effectiveness (Christensen, 1982). This may be of particular importance in a coaching context when the goal of coaching is directed at improving interpersonal skills, as in leadership or sales coaching, where effective interpersonal skills are crucial to effective performance (Church, 1997; Grant 2001). Evidence exists to show that high performing managers within a sales environment had higher levels of private self-consciousness; this could be explained by the fact that those with high self-awareness or high levels of private self-consciousness may have more interest in the emotional aspects of human experience, which also has positive benefits for the development of interpersonal skills (Church, 1997). Individuals with higher levels of private self-consciousness also appear to be more functional, expressing more stable and internal attributions for success, with tendencies to be less effected by negative feedback (Briere and Vallerand, 1990; Church, 1997). The theory of internal attribution links closely to findings within the *locus of control* literature also (Erez and Judge, 2001).

Another issue raised in the literature which has been strongly related to private self-consciousness is 'psychological mindedness', a term borrowed from the psychotherapy literature. This has been described as a person's capacity to reflect on themselves and others where it is about more deeply considering the causes and meanings of behaviour, thoughts and feelings (McCallum and Piper, 1997; Bluckert, 2005). In the field of coaching it has been argued that 'psychological mindedness' is a critical foundation for working psychologically as a coach (Bluckert, 2005) and it has been suggested that coaches without psychological mindedness may fail to engage with personal issues and focus too heavily on skill acquisition (Lee, 2003). In the coaching literature a definition for psychological mindedness has been suggested – 'a capacity to reflect on one's own and others' thoughts, feelings and behaviours and derive meaning and learning from that reflection, this requires a level of self and social awareness' (Bluckert, 2005). In terms of this definition the relationship between private self-consciousness and psychological mindedness becomes clearer, as both are concerned with the activity of self-reflection and self-awareness: both of which have been highlighted as being an important factors in the cycle of self-regulation and the coaching process (Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005).

Another debate within the literature raises the issue of causal attribution. Evidence exists to show that, those high in private self-consciousness are more likely to attribute responsibility to themselves for positive and negative outcomes in performance, than those low in private self-consciousness (Buss and Scheier, 1976). A possible explanation for this could be that the self focus of individuals high in private self-consciousness is relatively stable, which would explain why they would attribute more causality to themselves than individual's low in private self-consciousness (Duval and Wicklund, 1973). However, there is mixed evidence on this debate (Franzoi and Sweeney, 1986; Briere and Vallerand, 1990). In an attempt to challenge Buss and Scheier's (1976) findings, Briere and Vallerand (1990) tried to replicate their study using the same methodology with some modifications. Their findings did show that there was a distinction in terms of performance outcomes and attributions between individuals with high and low scores in private self-consciousness; however, they discovered that this only occurred when there was a *success outcome* of performance, i.e. when the outcome of performance was *success,* individuals high in private self-consciousness made more internal attributions than those low in private self-consciousness, similar to the original findings of Buss and Scheier (1976). However, what was interesting from the Briere and Vallerand study (1990) was that when there was a condition of *no outcome* and no performance feedback information was available, they found that those with low

private self-consciousness had a tendency to make more internal explanations of behaviour than the high private self-consciousness individuals. This suggests that internal attributions may be dependent upon the type of outcome situation. A possible explanation for these findings could be that those low in private self-consciousness ordinarily rely on external information for causality, and when this information is not available, i.e. in a *no outcome* situation, they reflect more on their own behaviours to find reasons of causality (Briere and Vallerand, 1990). The problem with these studies and one of the main criticisms of this research is that the distinctions between success and no outcome situations are not clearly defined, making it difficult to extend generalizations across other performance situations.

Self-reports are another debate within the research on private self-consciousness. Evidence exists to suggest that self-reports from individuals high in private self-consciousness predict more accurately and correspond more closely to behaviour, than self-reports from individuals with low private self-consciousness scores (Scheier, Buss and Buss, 1978; Scheier and Carver, 1980; Froming and Carver, 1981). The relevance of this for coaching could be that the accuracy of self-report data provided by coachees during the coaching process could vary between individuals and this has implications for the accuracy of information which is provided about behaviour in particular. This could have possible implications for the feedback process during coaching and self-regulation, where self report data is often used as the basis for discussion.

Debate also exists around the dysfunctional nature of private self-consciousness. Whilst there is evidence to suggest that high private self-consciousness leads to more accurate self-understanding (Franzoi and Sweeney, 1986), research also exists to suggest that excessively high levels of self-consciousness can lead to maladaptive self-consciousness, which is associated with poor social behaviour and reduced interpersonal effectiveness. Higher levels of self-awareness and self-knowledge have also been associated with psychopathic and depressive tendencies (Trapnell and Campbell, 1999). It has been hypothesized that the maladaptive self-consciousness relationship exists because the very process of focusing on the self is detrimental and leads to feelings of inadequacy and poor performance, and once this tendency has been developed it is likely that it will serve to further contribute to, and perpetuate, social inadequacy (Wine, 1971). It has also been suggested that very high levels of self-consciousness might be related to lower interpersonal effectiveness, in part because it produces a negative cognitive bias, which in turn, leads to poor social behaviour

(Christensen, 1982). The usefulness of this research to coaching is that it highlights the impact that differences in levels of self-consciousness can bring and, whilst increased levels of self-awareness in the coachee may be desirable (Bluckert, 2005), it should not be ignored that excessive levels of introspection and self-awareness could potentially lead to dysfunctional behaviour. Again one of the main criticisms of this research is, that there is a distinct lack of empirical evidence to support it and the fine line between 'excessive' and 'high' levels of private self-consciousness are not clearly outlined. Caution must be taken therefore within coaching, where the coach is less concerned with and often not trained to deal with, clinical cases of dysfunctional behaviour. Within coaching there is less research which deals with this dimension of behaviour.

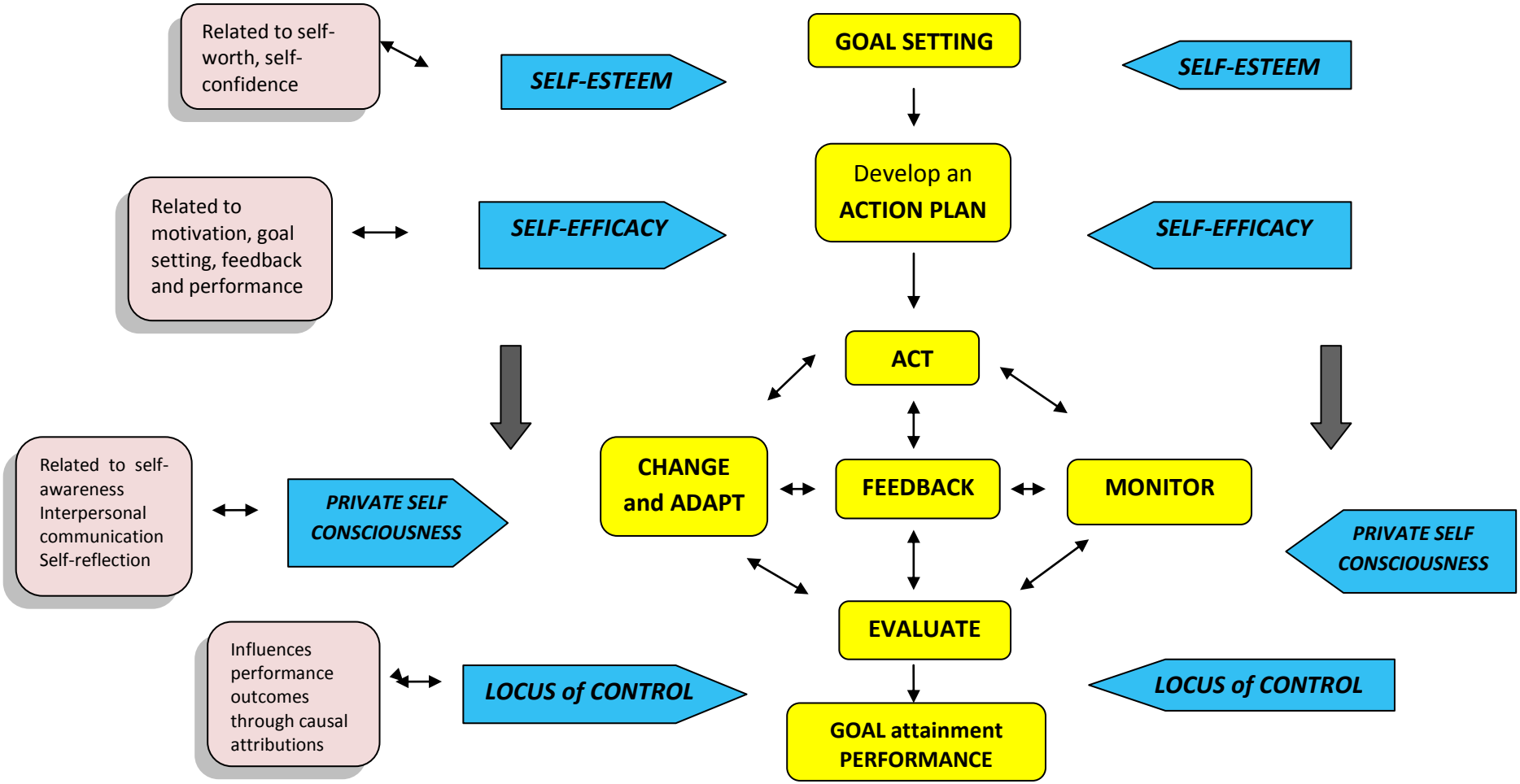
2.2.6 Summary

A review of the literature on the meta-cognitive factors which contribute to self-evaluations, namely; self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and private self-consciousness, reveals that there are several areas which have important implications for coaching practice and research. The literature suggests that meta-cognition plays a significant part in shaping the thought processes relating to views we hold about ourselves, which have important consequences for behavioural and performance outcomes (Grant, 2001). Although evidence is mixed and results are inconclusive across all the categories, some common themes appear to emerge. In order to draw together some of the findings of the literature review, an integrated model of meta-cognition and self-regulation within coaching has been created, which illustrates the complexity of this interdependent relationship (see figure 2.3). During the coaching process the individual moves through the cycle of self-regulation, where they are engaged in setting goals and making decisions about goal choice, then taking action to fulfil the goals which lead to performance outcomes. An important part of the process which has also been shown to influence the effectiveness of self-regulation is the feedback mechanism, whereby progress is monitored and evaluated and adjustments are made until the desired level of performance is achieved (Baumeister and Bushman, 2008). Research suggests that in order to progress through the process of self-regulation, and successfully make changes to the self, a degree of motivation and will power is required for effective goal attainment (Schmeichel and Baumeister, 2004). The literature on self-esteem has some useful contributions to make to coaching, indicating that self-esteem is related to an individual's view about self-worth and is believed to have a positive impact on job performance and employee related attitudes (Chen, Gully, and

Eden, 2004) and that individuals with a strong sense of self-esteem will be more motivated to engage in activities and behaviours which encourage a positive self-image (Gardener and Pierce, 1998). It has also been suggested that emotional support is beneficial in boosting self-esteem, which might have implications for feedback within the coaching process (Chen, Gully and Eden, 2004). The self-efficacy literature also has important implications for coaching practice, suggesting that self-efficacy has a significant part to play not only in terms of motivation by influencing levels of motivation (Audia, Locke, and Smith, 2000), but also with regards decision making by influencing goal choice (Ehrlinger and Dunning, 2003). Those high in self-efficacy are thought to be more motivated and will engage in more challenging goals than those low in self-efficacy (Wood and Bandura, 1989) and as a consequence, are more likely to achieve higher performances (Lee and Klein, 2002). There also appears to be a significant relationship between feedback and self-efficacy, research suggests that positive feedback can significantly influence self-efficacy beliefs, to the extent that it has been shown to raise self-efficacy, irrespective of performance (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001) and interestingly, negative feedback does not necessarily have a detrimental effect on self-efficacy, although insensitive and destructive feedback does, and has been shown to lower self-efficacy beliefs (Baron, 1988). The literature on locus of control provides similar useful indicators for performance, which is relevant for coaching. Research suggests that individuals with an 'internal' locus of control are more likely to take responsibility for goal attainment and are more suited to self development type activities, such as coaching (Blau, 1993), and are also more likely to achieve higher performances (Johnson, Luthans and Hennessey, 1984) than those with an 'external' locus of control. Caution is needed however, as results are not conclusive by any means (Brownell, 1981). Finally, another very important factor which research suggests is crucial for effective self-regulation, is the capacity to engage in self-reflection and develop personal insight (Carver and Scheier, 1998). The literature on private self-consciousness makes some important contributions with this regard, suggesting that self-awareness, which is measured through private self-consciousness, influences performance outcomes (Hollenbeck and Williams, 1987) and interpersonal effectiveness (Christensen, 1982). Research indicates that individuals with high levels of self-awareness and high scores in private self-consciousness, achieve higher performances, provide more reliable and accurate self report data (Froming and Carver, 1981) and have higher levels of interpersonal communication skills (Christensen, 1982) than those with low scores. In view of the fact that coaching is dependent to a large extent, on the capability of the coachee to engage in self-reflection and be self-aware, these results are important.

In conclusion, although the literature review does produce mixed results, research does suggest that there is a strong interdependent relationship between meta-cognition and self-regulation within the coaching process (see figure 2.3 below). Evidence suggests that self-evaluations which are created through meta-cognitive thought processes, both influence, and are influenced by, many of the activities involved in coaching, e.g., goal setting, feedback, monitoring and evaluation, motivation and performance achievements, although this relationship is relatively unexplored (Grant, 2001). As a consequence, this highlights the need for further evidence to support this research gap, in order to improve and enhance our understanding of this complex relationship. The outcome of this current study endeavours to meet this research gap. The implication of the literature review for coaching specifically is that the research does demonstrate some clear links between meta-cognition and the processes involved in self-regulation and coaching. Clearly, an individual's ability to self-reflect plays an important part in the self regulatory cycle within the coaching process, which consequently, has an impact on coaching outcomes (Hall, Otazo and Hollenbeck, 1999; Grant, 2001; Locke and Latham, 2002). Research examining the role of self-reflection in goal attainment is poor (Lyubomirsky, 2001), therefore further investigation into the psychological dimensions of coaching is important, to understand more clearly their role in coaching effectiveness, which is the principal aim of this research.

Figure 2.3: An Integrated Model of Self-regulation and Meta-Cognition in the Coaching Cycle



2.3 Coaching Effectiveness

The next section of the literature review is concerned with critically evaluating the coaching literature on coaching effectiveness and exploring the key issues raised. The first part takes a theoretical perspective and reviews some of the theoretical models and coaching outcome measures used to evaluate effectiveness; the second part examines the empirical evidence, highlighting factors critical for success, specifically relating to the role of the coachee and the role of the coach. Interpersonal communication and coaching attitude/expectations and their respective roles in influencing coaching outcomes, is also explored.

2.3.1 Evaluating Effectiveness

In order to evaluate effectiveness it is important to examine two elements: (i) those factors that influence effectiveness or success: (ii) the measurements of effectiveness or success in terms of outcomes. To understand more about what makes coaching successful, it is important to explore what contributes to successful coaching outcomes, by examining how and why coaching works, and under which conditions it is most successful. There is still very little written about how and why coaching works, which factors within coaching are critical to changing behaviours and attitudes, and under which conditions coaching translates into greater organizational or personal effectiveness (Feldman and Lankau, 2005). Feldman and Lankau (2005) argue that whilst we know that coaching can work, little is known about why it works and how it could work even better and, without stronger theoretical foundations supported by empirical research, coaching runs the risks of falling into a passing trend that has no advocates because it has no evidence. Many of the problems experienced with evaluating effectiveness of coaching relate to the subjective nature of the evidence (Gale, Liljenstrand, Pardieu and Nebeker, 2002). Concerns arise over the lack of standardization and clarity of definitions, and that coaching might be a passing fad (Tobias, 1996; Kilburg, 1996). Of the few empirical studies that exist, very often sample sizes are small, which engenders problems of making generalizations about the findings. Additional problems encountered are that evaluations are frequently self report in nature, whereby the changes in behaviour or reported skill improvements are often desired skills, not actual skills taught (McGovern et al, 2001). There is also a lack of clarity over what is being measured, and concerns exist about how outcomes are measured (Feldman and Lankau, 2005) with few longitudinal studies measuring outcomes over

time (Grant, 2001). In order to provide more robust and rigorous empirical evidence in support of coaching effectiveness, there needs to be more rigorous design using pre and post control groups looking at the impact of coaching, using multi source ratings over time through a longitudinal study (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas and Kucine, 2003; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). There also needs to be much more clarity about the outcome measures used, and how they will demonstrate effectiveness. The problem with much of the coaching literature is, that it is primarily 'practitioner' based, where methods and 'how to guides' dominate, and the theoretical work on the process underlying the effectiveness is very limited (Feldman and Lankau, 2005). This current study aims to address this research gap, by examining more closely the theoretical underpinnings within coaching, in an attempt to understand more about those factors that influence success, specifically from a psychological perspective. In addition, this study also examines the role of interpersonal communication skills (coach and coachee) and 'attitude' or 'expectations' within the coaching process, by exploring the impact these factors have on coaching effectiveness.

2.3.2 Theoretical Models used to evaluate Coaching Effectiveness

One of the general problems with measuring the effectiveness of coaching, apart from the lack of clarity about what needs to be measured, and the limited research upon which to base judgments, is that there is a noticeable scarcity of models that exist in the literature which can be used as guides of reference for those wishing to evaluate effectiveness. There have been some suggested frameworks for measuring effectiveness, although this does seem to originate from the training literature (Kilburg, 2001). A useful framework borrowed from the training literature which is used to evaluate training interventions is Kirkpatrick's (1996) model, which measures four key areas: (1) affective reactions (how participants feel about the process); (2) learning (amount of knowledge acquired or skills improved); (3) behaviour (changes in job behaviours); (4) organizational (productivity or quality of organizational objectives achieved). The advantages of using this model are that it is multi-faceted, demonstrating synergy with many aspects of the coaching process; the 'emotional' response in the respondent's feelings; the 'behavioural' response in terms of productivity and skill acquisition, and the 'organisational' response in terms of achieving organizational goals (Feldman and Lankau, 2005). The model may be criticized, however, for failing to acknowledge any level of psychological elements to the process, and it also fails to address commitment levels i.e. the capability of a respondent to engage in the process,

and it makes no mention of ‘receptiveness’ or ‘openness’ to process. Another disadvantage of the model for application within coaching, is that it fails to recognize the role of the coach in the coaching process, and does not assess the impact of the coaching relationship as part of the ‘effectiveness’ evaluation.

A second model of coaching effectiveness worth considering, which is more comprehensive, is the one presented by Kilburg (2001), which involves eight elements: (1) a client’s commitment to progressive development, (2) a coach’s commitment to the client’s development plan, (3) characteristics of the client’s problems and issues (frequency, intensity, duration, conflict, emotionality), (4) structure of the coaching engagement (clarity of agreement, goal specificity, resources committed, barriers identified), (5) amount of trust and empathy in the coachee/coach relationship, (6) choice of coaching interventions, (7) adherence to protocols (keeping appointments, preparation), (8) organizational setting (support for coaching). Although the model fails to assess coaching outcomes, there are many advantages of this model. From a theoretical perspective this model is useful as it highlights those factors which are thought to be critical to coaching effectiveness including; the ‘psychosocial’ skills of the coachee in terms of communication skills, self-awareness and motivation; areas which have also been raised in the empirical literature as being important (Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007). In addition, this model addresses the coachee/coach relationship highlighting the need to assess trust and empathy, again factors which are supported in the empirical literature (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). Also within the model, reference is made to the coachee’s openness to coaching and resistance to change, factors which have also been highlighted in the empirical literature (Bush, 2004; Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007; Kappenberg, 2008). The relevance of Kilburg’s model is that it draws attention to many of the areas within coaching which are thought to be indicators of effectiveness: trust, empathy, communication skills, openness to change, self-awareness, motivation and the coachee/coach relationship. This current study draws on Kilburg’s model and seeks to explore the relationship of these factors with coaching, in order to provide some empirical evidence to support the theoretical propositions.

Coaching outcome measures used to evaluate effectiveness follow, including a rationale for why some measures have not been included.

2.3.3 Job Performance

One of the most frequently used outcome measures employed to assess effectiveness is performance; whereby performance improvement is one of the key goals of many coaching interventions, with many examples within the literature to support this (e.g., Strayer and Rossett, 1994; Olivero, Bane and Kopelman, 1997; Anderson, 2001; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas and Kucine, 2003). Additional measures of coaching outcomes, although less frequent, include measures of satisfaction (Gegner, 1997), measures of increased self-confidence, self-awareness, and sensitivity towards others (Hall, Otazo, and Hollenbeck, 1999), with studies highlighting the importance of self-efficacy, communication and interpersonal skills within coaching (Diedrich, 1996; Gegner, 1997; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). There are however, other measures which are useful indicators of success and, because of the organisational benefits they offer, are worth further consideration, these include; organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). These measures provide some indication of an employee's commitment to the organisation and their willingness to take part in 'extra role' behaviours, both of which contribute towards improving organisational effectiveness (Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007). However, within the empirical coaching literature it appears there is very little evidence which reports on these specific outcome measures, highlighting a gap in the literature which this study seeks to address. A closer examination of organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour follows; this will help illustrate the contribution they make as outcome measures, to an evaluation of coaching effectiveness.

2.3.4 Organisational Commitment

There have been long standing links between the theory of motivation and the positive impact motivation has on productivity and performance within the workplace (Vroom, 1964; Schein, 1980). Research suggests that individuals, who are motivated, demonstrate more commitment to work and therefore, perform better (Beck and Wilson, 2000). Committed employees are also less likely to leave the organisation, and research also indicates a strong link between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Hackman, Oldham, Janson and Purdy, 1995). The positive benefits for the organisation of a more committed workforce are; increased productivity, improved retention rates, reduced turnover of staff and reduced absenteeism (Beck and Wilson, 2000; Bishop and

Scott, 2000) and it has been suggested, that efforts to encourage commitment, can produce long term benefits for organisations (Sarantinos, 2007).

A widely accepted commitment framework has been developed which distinguishes between three categories of commitment; affective, continuance and normative (Meyer and Allen, 1997), although normative commitment has not been well supported as a form of organisational commitment (Morrow, 1993). Affective commitment (attitudinal) describes the emotional attachment an individual shows towards the organisation; continuance commitment (behavioural) relates to the costs associated with leaving the organisation and therefore the need to stay; normative commitment (attitudinal) is associated with feelings of obligation to stay (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Research indicates that employees with strong affective commitment have less absenteeism rates and higher performance, than employees with weak affective commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

However, there has been comparatively little research examining the link between organisational commitment and work related behaviour other than turnover (Meyer et al, 1989). Committed employees have been found to be less likely to leave an organisation than those without commitment (Angle and Perry, 1981), although it has been argued that performance is equal, if not more important, than decisions about staying or leaving an organisation (Meyer et al, 1989). Furthermore, researchers have also argued that it is important to distinguish between the different types of commitment, as this has important implications for performance (Meyer et al, 2002). Affective commitment is thought to be more significant in terms of performance outcomes than continuance commitment. Employees with a strong affective commitment remain in an organisation because they want to, and therefore, are more willing to exert effort on behalf of the organisation; they also have stronger attachments which result in more favourable job performance (Riketta, 2002). Individual's with high continuance commitment however, feel compelled to stay for financial reasons, and are therefore, less motivated to apply extended effort. Higher continuance commitment is often thought to be undesirable, with studies showing that it is negatively related to performance (Meyer et al, 2002). In their study Meyer et al (1989) tested out the hypothesis that affective commitment is positively related and continuance commitment negatively related, to performance. The results supported their predictions, suggesting that organisations would benefit from fostering long-term affective commitment in employees, managing early work experiences to facilitate this. Whilst their research makes an important distinction between the different types of

commitment, and highlights the importance of this for performance, suggesting that affective commitment should be developed in employees, it may be criticised for not addressing in any detail how this might be achieved, thus limiting the practical application within the workplace. One study which does attempt to address this issue and seeks to understand what influences work commitment, postulates that work empowerment is an important antecedent of commitment, claiming that an individual's perceived extent of work empowerment may increase or decrease feelings of organisational commitment. It is believed that changes in commitment may affect performance, therefore an understanding of the relationship between work empowerment and commitment is desirable (Lui, Chui and Fellow, 2007). In their findings, results (n=136) revealed that work empowerment was found to be positively related to organisational commitment, concluding that when employees have access to opportunities, information, resources and support they are more committed to their organisation (Lui, Chui and Fellow, 2007). This lends support to the view that feeling empowered at work is conducive to high levels of work commitment (Laschinger and Shamian, 1994; Tao et al, 1998). Whilst their findings do enhance our understanding of what influences work commitment, their work may also be criticised for not including a wider range of antecedents to work commitment, suggesting that the model used was not comprehensive enough, and whilst work empowerment was found to be a predictor of commitment, in the various regression models used, results were not very strong predictors.

Additional research on commitment suggests that human resource practices may also affect performance by developing committed employees (Arthur, 1994). Gong et al (2009) have responded to this claim in their study of 463 firms across China, in an attempt to establish a better understanding of the performance / commitment relationship by examining human resource practices. In order to test their theory they made a distinction between *performance-oriented* human resource systems (designed to provide motivational opportunities to employees), and *maintenance-oriented* human resource systems (designed to maintain equality and safety). They predicted that maintenance based systems were positively related to continuance commitment, and performance based systems were positively related to affective commitment, which is thought to enhance performance. In their findings they report that performance based human resource systems were positively related to performance, the relationship being mediated by affective commitment. In contrast, they also found that maintenance based human resource systems had no significant relationship with performance, but that they

had a positive and significant relationship to continuance commitment. The implications of this research for performance, and therefore, potentially for coaching practices, suggests that providing motivational incentives through human resource practices is an effective way of increasing performance, whereby, the motivational element of affective commitment is thought to mediate this relationship. However, a major flaw in their research is the research design, which was not longitudinal, and therefore, causality between human resource practices, managerial commitment and performance could not be established. Research also suggests that there are links between self-efficacy and commitment (Van Vuuren, de Jong, and Seydel, 2007) and that high self-efficacy leads to higher commitment, and that this relationship is strongest with affective commitment. Although results were mixed and did not provide the expected interaction effects for organisational-efficacy and self-efficacy in regression, this may be explained by efficacy being hard to measure using self-report measures. In summary, there appear to be many organisational benefits of nurturing commitment in employees; reduced absenteeism, reduced turnover, increases in work satisfaction and increased performance (Beck and Wilson, 2000; Bishop and Scott, 2000; Sarantinos, 2007). Additionally, the performance / commitment relationship research indicates that the nature of the commitment is significant within this relationship, and that affective commitment is positively linked to performance. The motivational element of affective commitment also appears to be particularly important acting as a mediator of performance. In terms of coaching, this suggests that any positive influence on affective commitment is desirable because of the impact this has on performance, which makes affective commitment a useful measure within coaching, justifying its use therefore, in this current study. Links have also been found with self-efficacy and commitment (Van Vuuren, de Jong and Seydel, 2007) and empowerment and commitment (Lui, Chui and Fellow, 2007). Further research is needed however, suggesting that the outcomes of this present study will offer valuable insight into these relationships (Meyer et al, 1989).

Organisational commitment has a long history of study dating back over the past 25 years, whereby large volumes of empirical literature have been produced exploring the attachments between employees and organisations (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mowday, 1998). As previously acknowledged, whilst there has been debate amongst scholars about the conceptual definitions relating to organisational commitment, there is value in recognising the conceptual advancement that has taken place with regards this construct. Arguably, Meyer and Allen (1997) have produced the most work in this area (Mowday, 1998) providing a seminal work on the topic. The

rationale for including organisational commitment, affective commitment in particular, within this current study, is because of the recognised links between affective commitment and performance (Riketta, 2002). Whilst there is always room for continued empirical work in establishing antecedents and consequences of commitment (Mowday, 1998) the empirical literature on organisational commitment provides some convincing evidence of the links between commitment and organisational indicators of success such as; absenteeism, turnover, job performance and productivity (Steers, 1977; Ogilvie, 1986; Gaertner and Nollen, 1989; Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Reichheld, 1996; Tsui et al, 1997; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Pfeffer, 1998). The links between an individual's emotional attachment (affective commitment) and organisational outcomes such as performance and productivity is an important one, especially for a study of coaching. The reason why the relationship between commitment and performance is particularly relevant for a study of coaching is because one of the primary goals of an organisation investing in a human resource strategy, such as coaching, is to have an influence on performance or development of the employee (Smither et al, 2003; Maharaj and Schlecher, 2007; Sarantinos, 2007; Gong et al, 2009). There is increasing pressure for organisations to be competitive in a global market with different theories emerging about how this can be achieved. Increasing evidence however, suggests that firms which pursue high involvement, high performance and high commitment management practices enjoy superior economic returns (Peffer, 1998). It has also been argued that demonstrating loyalty to employees as a strategy for increasing commitment is critical for value creation, which becomes an important source of growth and competitive advantage (Reichheld, 1996). Evidence suggests that loyal employees develop higher quality relationships with customers and have greater opportunities to learn, which results in increased efficiency, reducing training and recruitment costs which allows for investment in other parts of the business (Reichheld, 1996). These arguments provide a compelling case for understanding more about the relationship between coaching and organisational commitment, a relationship which has an established following in the psychology empirical literature, but not in the coaching research literature, highlighting a research gap which this study seeks to address.

2.3.5 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is concerned with measuring the 'extra role' behaviour of individuals within the workplace and research indicates that there is a strong link between, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour

(Pratt and Ashforth, 2003; Silverthorne, 2005; Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007). It has been argued also that organisational citizenship behaviour contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance (Organ, 1997). A measure of organisational citizenship behaviour offers an indication of an employee's willingness to take on additional work tasks, work additional hours and to fulfil roles and responsibilities beyond job descriptions. Research indicates that employees with strong affective commitment are more likely to engage in citizenship behaviour (Organ and Ryan, 1995). In a factor analysis exploring the relationship between: meaning in life, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour, Majaraj and Schlechter (2007) report that job satisfaction and organisational commitment were important for creating organisational contexts conducive for organisational citizenship behaviour. The research into organisational citizenship behaviour may be criticised however, for ignoring the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and critical organisational outcomes, for making assumptions that organisational citizenship behaviour enhances organisational performance, and for devoting limited attention to how organisational citizenship behaviour may be elicited, with very little empirical evidence to support this (Wolfe Morrison, 1996). Research does suggest however, that human resource practices which promote social exchange, identification with organisational objectives and empowerment, are more likely to encourage employees to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (Wolfe Morrison, 1996). Social exchange is based on trust and a common sense of purpose, with open-ended responsibilities and it has been argued, that social exchange is a pre-requisite for organisational citizenship behaviour (Organ, 1990). Identification with objectives is another condition, which is believed to enhance organisational citizenship behaviour, as is empowerment, which is thought to enable an employee to participate in organisational citizenship behaviour (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). In terms of encouraging social exchange, identification with organisational objectives and creating empowerment as a way of enhancing organisational citizenship behaviour should be encouraged, and it appears that coaching may be an ideal mechanism through which this may be achieved. However, there is limited research within the coaching literature to support this, which highlights a gap in the literature which this research study seeks to address.

Whilst other potential outcome measures may have been included within this study, such as employee engagement or job satisfaction, a decision was made not to include them. The rationale for not selecting these measures is provided in the following critique.

2.3.6 Employee Engagement

Employee engagement has gained increasing popularity in recent years and appears seemingly attractive for organisations because of the claims to outcomes, such as employees who are more productive, profitable, safer, healthier and less likely to be absent (Buchanan, 2004; Fleming and Asplund, 2007). Consulting groups and professional societies have shown a particular interest in this topic, however there has been less academic empirical research carried out in this area (Shuck and Wollard, 2010) and controversy and conflict between the academic and consulting schools of thought remains (Zigrami et al, 2009) . One of the major challenges with regards employee engagement concerns the question of what employee engagement is, and whether in fact, it isn't just a repackaging of employee satisfaction and commitment (Zigrami et al, 2009). This highlights one of the major criticism of employee engagement in that it remains inconsistently defined and conceptualised (Shuck and Wollard, 2010). There are frequent debates and confusions about what is being measured with concepts such as work passion, organisational commitment, work involvement and job involvement being discussed (Mowday, 1998; Schaufeli et al, 2002; Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006). It has been argued that there is very little room for the use of vague or contradictory concepts that provide no conceptual understanding or practical application, and it has been noted that for employee engagement to be useful, it must be based on research which theoretically supports the construct for how it can be measured, fostered and related to organisational outcomes, and to date, this has not been established for employee engagement (Zigarmi et al, 2009). Zigarmi et al (2009) criticise concepts that are ill formed, with no clear model of antecedents and consequences, arguing that such constructs are less likely to support any lasting systematic organisational change. It has been argued that confusion over the conceptual definition needs to be addressed before employee engagement can be more fully established and tested within the workplace (Shuck and Wollard, 2010). A clearer definition and agreement on dimensions is needed to establish the reliability and validity of employee engagement as a measure, and the current lack of empirical evidence to support this remains a critical issue, and one of the major criticisms of the construct (Zigrami et al, 2009). Currently, few statistically valid and effective tools exist to measure employee engagement which report reliability and validity data (Shuck and Wollard, 2010). Shuck and Wollard (2010) argue that a working definition and agreement on conceptual definition would allow for more empirical studies to be carried out and without a focus on this, they argue that employee engagement will continue to be 'plagued by poor conceptualisation leading to questionable interventions'.

Many of the definitions that have been suggested are unclear or non-specific about the level of engagement being discussed, whether this is on an individual or organisational level, and speak of engagement in general terms, which only adds to the confusion (Maslach et al, 2001; Saks, 2006). Additionally, there are also many different types of engagement that are discussed such as cognitive, emotional or behavioural, however, little empirical evidence exists for delineation at present (Shuck and Wollard, 2010).

Employee or work engagement has also been linked to health measures and well being, with associations to: enthusiasm and 'being charged with energy' (Maslach et al, 2001); it has been described as the conceptual opposite of 'burnout' which is a response to chronic work-related stress and associations have been made with depleted emotions and cynical attitudes towards work (Maslach et al, 1996; Schaufeli et al, 2001). When considered as a health related measure which is strongly associated with well-being, employee engagement appears less relevant for a study of coaching effectiveness, where the primary focus of coaching, particularly from an organisational perspective, is concerned with performance or developmental progress, rather than well-being or health related issues, which further strengthens the argument for non-inclusion in the current study.

Another critique raised in the literature relating to employee engagement is the length of the measure. The construct attempts to encompass a wide range of factors which makes it a fairly lengthy instrument to use raising concern about respondent fatigue. Much has been written in the research literature about how to encourage and maintain participation in survey methodology, especially for longitudinal studies (Kalton, 1992). Various reasons for non-participation in surveys have been put forward including: time burden and cost of participation. One of the key factors which influence a participant giving up their personal time is the length of time it takes to complete a questionnaire; the longer the survey takes to complete the less likelihood of participation (Sharp and Frankel, 1983). As the survey design for the current study was becoming increasingly long, concerns over respondent fatigue and non-participation, became important contributory factors influencing the decision for non-inclusion of employee engagement as an outcome measure.

2.3.7 Job Satisfaction

Whilst there is a long history of research into the area of job satisfaction (Locke, 1979), the evidence remains incomplete. The main debate, or criticisms, concern three key questions: (1) causality – what causes job satisfaction; (2) what influences or moderates job satisfaction and what are the results of negative or positive reactions; (3) how to measure job satisfaction (Siegel and Bowen, 1971; Lopez, 1982; Fisher, 1980; Saane et al, 2003; Saari and Judge, 2004). With regards the first issue relating to causality, whilst there have been some studies which have used longitudinal designs, typically these types of studies are rare and further investigation is needed (Siegel and Bowen, 1971; Judge et al, 2001). With regards the second debate concerning what influences job satisfaction, evidence is mixed and inconclusive. Some research has suggested that disposition influences job satisfaction (House, Shane and Herold, 1996), although this has been criticised for not being sufficiently informative as to exactly how dispositions affect job satisfaction (Erez, 1994). Other factors which are thought to influence job satisfaction are the nature of the work itself or the work situation, sometimes referred to as intrinsic job satisfaction (Saari and Judge, 2004). This relates strongly to job content, job complexity and autonomy, factors which are thought to strongly influence job satisfaction through the work situation by ensuring that work is interesting and challenging (Oldham, Hackman and Pearce, 1976; Judge and Church, 2000). The third area of debate concerns how to measure job satisfaction with any accuracy, and research suggests that there are very few instruments which exist that meet high reliability or validity (Saane, et al 2003). Part of the problem relates to the fact that job satisfaction can be interpreted in many different ways: global job satisfaction, intrinsic, extrinsic, resulting in no clear indication of which aspects should be taken into consideration when measuring job satisfaction (Saane, et al 2003). Additionally, whilst there are claims that job satisfaction instruments are used in intervention studies for evaluative purposes (Leong and Vaux, 1992), there is little empirical evidence to support this. Furthermore, in a meta-analysis, Saane et al (2003) found that when job satisfaction instruments were assessed for responsiveness to change over time, the performance of the instruments was poor and only one out of the twenty nine instruments reviewed demonstrated responsiveness. A conclusion can be drawn therefore, that while many different instruments to measure job satisfaction exist, very few meet high levels of reliability or validity. In addition to these main criticisms within the literature, in terms of this thesis, it is important also to consider the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, for two reasons: (1) because of the strong

relationship which is thought to exist between job satisfaction and organisational commitment; (2) organisational commitment is one of the outcome measures used within this study. A strong relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction has been shown to exist, with strong correlations between the two variables being reported (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974; Mathieu, 1991; Markovits et al, 2010). The relevance of this is that the strong correlation indicates a potential overlap between the two constructs, and the degree to which these constructs are in fact separable, has been questioned (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al, 2002). It could be argued therefore, that in terms of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, similar things are being measured thus, weakening the argument for inclusion of job satisfaction within this study. Another factor of equal concern, if not more significant, is that the nature of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is still not thoroughly understood, and the question remains as to whether the relationship is meditational, reciprocal or independent (Mathieu, 1990; Markovits et al, 2010). Research exists to suggest that: (i) commitment is an antecedent or mediator of satisfaction (O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1981); (ii) that satisfaction is an antecedent or mediator of commitment (Price and Mueller, 1986; Mathieu, 1988); (iii) the relationship is reciprocal (Porter et al, 1974); (iv) the relationship is independent (Dougherty et al, 1985). Additionally, research suggests that job satisfaction represents an unstable and immediate affective reaction to the work environment compared to the more stable construct organisational commitment (Marsh and Manari, 1977; Williams and Hazer, 1986). In view of the mixed results, it appears that very few definitive conclusions can be drawn about the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Mathieu, 1990; Tett and Meyer, 1993). In the absence of clarity about the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, this provides further criticism with regards the appropriateness of inclusion of job satisfaction within this current study.

Another important area which requires further examination is the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The relationship with performance is of particular interest to a study of coaching, because as research indicates, performance is a fundamental element of the coaching process (Whitmore, 1996; Parsloe, 1999; Grant, 2001; CIPD, 2004). The job satisfaction and job performance relationship however, has a long and controversial history, and many of the earlier studies reported a weak and inconsistent relationship, with very low correlations being observed (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955, Locke, 1970). Other studies are in agreement with this, drawing a similar conclusion, that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is

minimal (Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985). However, others argue that failure to find a strong relationship between job satisfaction and job performance could relate to narrow definitions used for job performance (Organ, 1988). More recent reviews within the literature have concluded that slightly higher correlations between satisfaction and performance exist, although correlations still remain low (Judge et al, 2001).

A further criticism of job satisfaction and therefore, justification for exclusion from this study, is that job satisfaction is an employee related construct, rather than an organisational based construct and therefore, does not relate to the other outcome measures used within this study which are organisational based measures. Whilst, job satisfaction within coaching research may be desirable, and therefore, may by an interesting avenue for future research, rarely is job satisfaction stated as a principal aim or objective of a coaching intervention, and therefore, is considered less relevant for the current study of coaching effectiveness.

Whilst, research into job satisfaction may be an avenue for future research, based on an extensive review of the literature the rationale and justification for excluding job satisfaction as an outcome measure within this current study is summarised as follows: (1) a principal goal of coaching is to make an impact on performance (Whitmore, 1996; Parsloe, 1999; Grant, 2001), this is reflected in much of the coaching literature (Olivero, Bande and Kopelman, 1997; Smither et al, 2003), consequently, job performance appears to be a more suitable measure of coaching effectiveness, compared to job satisfaction, and responds more appropriately to the research aims and objectives; (2) the correlation between job performance and job satisfaction is tenuous (Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985), and it has been suggested that individual difference may be a better predictor of job performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton, 2001) which is more appropriately addressed through meta-cognition; (3) it has been argued that a measure of core self-evaluations (which include: self-efficacy, self-esteem and locus of control) determine an individual's disposition towards job satisfaction (Judge et al, 2001) and therefore, it could be argued that job satisfaction has already been accounted for within this current study through meta-cognition; (4) job satisfaction is an individual outcome measure rather than an organisational outcome measure and therefore, is not consistent with the other organisational outcome measures used in this study; (5) job satisfaction is highly correlated with organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour and the degree to which these constructs are distinct has been questioned (Meyer et al, 2002) therefore, it could be argued that job satisfaction has already been

considered within this study through other measures (Yavas et al, 1993; Pratt and Ashforth, 2003; Silverthorne, 2005; Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007); (6) job satisfaction as an outcome measure is not aligned with the research organisation's coaching objectives, which are concerned with developing and managing performance; (7) evidence is lacking and questions of causality and what influences job satisfaction remain (Saari and Judge, 2004); (8) few instruments exists to accurately measure job satisfaction and reliability and validity measures remain low and for evaluation purposes responsiveness of measures over time is poor (Saane et al, 2003); (9) job satisfaction arguably is more strongly influenced by job content, job complexity and autonomy than coaching (Oldham, Hackman and Pearce, 1976).

2.3.8 Empirical Studies of Coaching Effectiveness

The available empirical case studies on coaching varies depending on the specific nature of the search done, however, one thing researchers are in agreement on, is that there is surprisingly little empirical research to be found on the efficacy of coaching (Levenson, 2009), with only seven reported studies (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001), fewer than twenty studies have investigated coaching in a systematic way (Feldman and Lankau, 2005) and there are only seventeen published reports of empirical evaluations of coaching interventions (Grant, 2001). Although the evidence to date in the coaching literature to demonstrate 'effectiveness' is very limited (Feldman and Lankau, 2005), there have been a few studies that have been successful in demonstrating some level of success. Olivero, Bane and Kopelman (1997) in their action research study demonstrated success of coaching through an evaluation of affective reactions and organizational results with coaching outcomes, including performance and satisfaction ratings. However, the measures of productivity increases were only taken post coaching, with a recollection from memory of the pre-measures. Unfortunately, this reduces the reliability of their findings, particularly in terms of providing evidence of performance measures.

In a very recent study Levenson (2009) identified a conceptual framework for measuring the business impact of coaching. In an exploratory study using twelve matched coach/coachee pairs of successful coaching engagements, Levenson concluded that for coaching to have a direct and clear impact on business, certain conditions need to exist: (i) that there are specific actions for which the executive alone is responsible for, (ii) that in the absence of coaching the executive would perform those actions incorrectly and,

(iii) that in the presence of coaching, the executive performs those actions correctly. In essence, coaching should have a positive impact if it improves decision making in ways that otherwise would not happen. The primary conclusion of this study was that the degree of business impact is related to role, task complexity and interdependence of the organisational environment and individual performance, factors which Levenson points out need to be addressed when designing and evaluating coaching engagements. Levenson concluded, that whilst coaching did appear to have a positive impact on performance, it may best impact on business when combined with other interventions. He did however, point out the clear limitations of his research in that the sample size (n=12) was too low to allow any definitive conclusions, or for any wider generalisations to be made.

Strayer and Rossett (1994) also evaluated a coaching programme carried out in a large real estate firm with sales staff, which was aimed at improving sales performance and dealing with high attrition rates of new staff. The programme addressed behavioural issues relating to communication and selling skills and cognitive issues relating to fears of rejection. The positive outcomes were increased property listings, increased sales and higher staff satisfaction as a result of the coaching. Whilst this study is significant in that it provides evidence of positive benefits and outcomes from coaching, it may be critiqued for lack of detail. For example, they mention cognitive issues relating to the fear of rejection, but then fail to outline specifically which cognitive skills they refer to and do not discuss the methods used to initiate change, therefore limiting the ability of the study to apportion success to coaching alone.

Further evidence of coaching effectiveness has been reported by Tobias (1996) whose study details the aims of a coaching intervention on a manager with a focus on enhancing inter and intra-personal skills through development of communication skills. Although the nature of the outcome measured was only qualitative, substantial improvements appear to have been made, with enhanced team performance and less interpersonal conflict reported. This case study however, does not provide any significant empirical data, and the evidence provided was highly subjective, offering no real analysis of the factors which contributed to the impact of coaching. It presented no hard measures of outcomes and offered only anecdotal evidence of effectiveness, therefore limiting both reliability and validity.

Again with only qualitative outcomes available Peterson (1996) presented data on a coaching intervention which was focused on developing a manager's values, vision and cognitive skills, however very little visible change in the coachee's performance was noted. When the coaching was re-directed to make the behavioural elements more explicit, the coachee reported a positive impact in terms of increased confidence, being more proactive and less discomfort with conflict. However, this study suffers from the same criticism of those previously, in that the sample size was small, there was a lack of detail, a lack of reliable evidence, and no mention of the theoretical models underpinning the research.

In a further study Diedrich (1996) reports on coaching outcomes of improved interpersonal skills, and better working relationships presented through a case study of one to one coaching using 360 degree assessments and 'loops' of feedback. Whilst this study does highlight some positive effects of coaching, the account is highly anecdotal and adopts a practitioner approach, offering a practical guide to coaching for coaching consultants. The study provided insufficient detail of any hard evidence to substantiate the outcomes and therefore remained highly subjective. It also failed to make any links to theoretical underpinnings, to support or justify any conclusions.

Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester (1993) also provided more evidence of coaching outcomes in their evaluation of a coaching skills programme for sales managers. The aim of the coaching was to enhance sales manager's coaching skills and significant increases in these skills were reported, whereby seventy percent of coachee's commented that they had seen a positive change in their managers. Although no performance sales measures were recorded, Graham (1993) did conclude that coaching was a complex interaction. Another example of coaching effectiveness was found in the qualitative evidence presented by Hall, Otazo, and Hollenbeck (1999) who measured the positive, affective reactions and self reported learning and behaviour changes of seventy five executives. Outcomes revealed increases in self-confidence, self-awareness and sensitivity towards others, where participants rated the overall effectiveness of the coaching experience as very satisfactory on a five point scale. Another major type of learning or attitude change that was reported in their study was increased flexibility and adaptability in relationships with others, and increases in 'on the job' performance. A major criticism in both these studies, as with many of the previous ones, is that they follow a trend of reporting on outcomes and lack critical analysis of the specific factors which influence outcomes, and therefore offer a superficial account and evaluation.

Several other studies using self-report methodologies to investigate coaching effectiveness include; an assessment of business benefits and return on investment, whereby seventy seven per cent of respondents indicated significant or very significant impact on at least one of the nine business measures (Anderson, 2001), and another study which reported sixty three per cent sustained behavioural changes as a result of coaching, forty three per cent reported increased self-awareness and understanding, and forty five per cent believed that they were more effective leaders as a result of coaching, reporting that they had more self-confidence and were more motivated (Wasylyshyn, 2003). However, whilst these accounts of coaching outcomes are positive and lend some support for the benefits of coaching, many of these studies lack academic rigour, in that they are often based on subjective evidence, small sample sizes, or fail to justify results through statistical analysis, reporting on percentages rather than statistically significant results (Gale, Liljenstrand, Pardieu and Nebeker, 2002). More attempts to link outcomes to theory and validate outcomes through rigorous examination of the evidence are needed, in order to draw more reliable conclusions from the results (Feldman and Lankau, 2005).

A recent study using a more rigorous design, which included a quasi-experimental, pre/post control group design, of the impact of coaching on improving multisource rating over a one year period, involving 1,361 managers, revealed that those manager who worked with a coach were more likely than other managers to set specific goals, to solicit ideas for improvements from supervisors and to receive improved ratings from direct reports and supervisors (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas and Kucine, 2003). The outcomes of this study are important for coaching research in that they are amongst the few which elicit ratings from multi-sources, including supervisor, direct reports and peer views, which broadens the research. A potential flaw in this research however, lies in the fact that the multi-source feedback was not kept confidential, which makes it difficult to eliminate bias in the results. If decision makers responsible for promotion had access to multi-source feedback and the coachees were aware of this, it could be argued that coachee accountability for improved performance was already high, thus reducing the potential of this research to attribute performance improvements to coaching alone. Future research should examine the impact of coaching where accountability is low (i.e. multi-source feedback is confidential) which would enable more reliable conclusions to be made about the effects of coaching specifically.

Also demonstrating effectiveness of coaching on a Master's programme, Sue-Chan and Latham's study (2004) revealed that participants using external coaches received higher grades than those using peer coaches. Whilst this research did produce some evidence of effectiveness of coaching, it could be argued that the sample used, i.e. Master's students was not typical of executive coaching participants and therefore, raises the question of replication within the work environment.

Another significant piece of research which has attracted some attention in the coaching literature is an unpublished master's thesis by Gegner (1997). The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the coaching process. Results revealed that executives reported increased levels of satisfaction with coaching outcomes and believed that coaching had a positive impact on their life. This study also highlighted the role of self-efficacy, communication style and interpersonal style as being important components of the coaching process, which were measured by self-awareness and responsibility. These factors are particularly significant to this thesis as they lend support for the need of further analysis into these specific areas of research. This research does not however, provide sufficient detail about how self-efficacy or communication was measured and whether this was done in a systematic way, therefore limiting the potential to make more accurate judgements about the implications of the results.

Further evidence of coaching effectiveness was reported in a survey commissioned by a global company for high potential employees wanting to develop emotional competence (Wasylyshyn, Gronsky and Haas, 2006). The coaching survey included a sample of thirty three participants who were business executives in an American technology based industrial products company. The coaching used within the company for high potential employees was underpinned by some robust theoretical models originating from the field of clinical psychotherapy, and the coaching process used followed a four stage process. A large focus of the programme was to enhance emotional competence to support effective leadership, whereby some of the reported outcomes included: (i) more effective leaders; (2) improved interpersonal skills (enhanced listening, achieving more buy-in); (3) increased commitment to the company; (4) increased performance management; (5) increased productivity; (6) positive impact on the company's bottom line. Whilst many of these outcomes are positive indicators of effective coaching and lend support, in particular, to the role of an insight-oriented approach to coaching underpinned by self-awareness (Wasylyshyn, Gronsky and Haas, 2006), the study may however, be criticised on several levels: for lacking empirical rigour by not providing more robust data

of results and measurements; providing limited evidence of statistical analysis; performance improvement measures appeared to be self-report measures supplied by the coachee only; all of which weaken the validity of the results for wider use and points to the 'true absence of good, controlled-variable research' (Kilburg, 2000).

Whilst most of these studies do offer some contribution to evaluating coaching effectiveness, by reporting on coaching outcomes, overall, there are some general criticisms which apply: (1) they offer a superficial account of coaching; (2) there is a general lack of consideration for theoretical underpinnings; (3) there is a lack of detail describing the methodologies and analytical models used for analysis; (4) there is a lack of evaluation of factors critical for success, or which influence success and; (5) there is also a distinct lack of comment regarding coaching from a psychological perspective, therefore failing to consider the role of individual psychology in influencing coaching outcomes. These represent a very real gap in the coaching research literature, which this current study seeks to address.

2.3.9 The Coachee's Role

One area which has been highlighted within the coaching literature as being a crucial factor in coaching success is the level of engagement or commitment of the coachee to the coaching process (Kappenberg, 2008; Bush, 2004). In a study examining coaching success, Kappenberg found there were four main areas that significantly differentiated successful from unsuccessful coaching, these included: (1) client engagement; (2) organisational support; (3) coaching practices; and (4) trust. Client engagement in particular, was identified as being one of the most important factors for successful coaching practices, which is thought to be influenced by: motivation, willingness to participate, and openness to feedback and change (Judge and Cowell, 1997). Kappenberg (2008) found that coachees involved in successful coaching reported being significantly more engaged than coachees in unsuccessful coaching engagements. Her findings also suggest that coachees, who were more intrinsically motivated to participate, were more likely to realize benefits from coaching compared to those who were less engaged. However, one of the major flaws in this research is that the study presents the coach's view of the coachee perceptions and not the coachee's perceptions, which is a particularly serious criticism as there is no way of knowing the coach's views are an accurate account of what the coachee experienced. A more robust approach would

have been to use the coachee's views directly, which would have improved the accuracy and reliability of the study.

The role of the coachee in the coaching process has been highlighted in other studies, for example Sztucinski (2001) found that ownership of the coaching process, in terms of the coachee's choice to participate, was an important component of successful coaching relationships. Similar findings were also reported by Bush (2004) who, in an extensive qualitative PhD thesis, researched coachee perceptions of effectiveness in coaching. Whilst, her results were limited by a small sample size (n=12), her findings do enhance our understanding of the coachee's role in coaching effectiveness, identifying areas which are important. She found that coachee's rated 'coachee commitment' as one of the most critical factors in coaching effectiveness. Amongst the themes identified Bush (2004) highlighted: (1) the coachee's attitude and commitment to the coaching process; (2) their readiness for coaching and openness to feedback; (3) motivation; (4) drive and initiative; (5) ability to maximise opportunities, as being important factors in successful coaching. She found that readiness was demonstrated in a variety of ways: through the coachee's openness to feedback, their motivation, their desire to be coached and their inner drive for improvement. This is reinforced by other research where committed coachee's were found to be more receptive to feedback and more accepting of the need to change (Judge and Cowell, 1997). Commitment within coaching has also been associated with the concept of intervention adherence or compliance, which has been a much neglected topic (Kilburg, 2001). The notion of intervention adherence originates from the healthcare and therapy research literature and refers to the 'active, collaborative involvement' in behaviour to achieve a result (Meichenbaum and Turk, 1987). Intervention adherence is particularly relevant to the coaching literature, which is concerned with making and sustaining changes in human behaviour (Kilburg, 2001). Another concept also associated with intervention adherence and commitment is the notion of 'buy-in' (Peel, 2004). It has been argued that there is a critical need to achieve 'buy-in' for coaching to be successful, as higher levels of 'buy-in' result in improved performance, goal attainment and increased competency (Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007). An important aspect of 'buy-in' is the coachee's openness to feedback and willingness to act upon feedback as part of the 'buy-in' process. It has been argued therefore, that the relationship between participant characteristics, individual difference, self-efficacy and 'buy-in' need to be explored further to understand the impact they have on coaching success (Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007).

Voluntary participation of the coachee is another issue raised in the coaching literature as being an important factor for coaching success. Bauer et al (2006) argue that receptiveness to change and motivation, key factors related to coaching effectiveness, are mediated through voluntary participation. Others point out however, that motivation and receptiveness to change are complex issues which cannot be explained by voluntary participation alone (Greif, 2007). The fact that receptiveness to change has been shown to be related to coaching outcomes, however, does suggest that this is an area which requires further consideration with regards coaching effectiveness (Maethner, Jansen and Bachmann, 2005).

To summarise the research relating to the role of the coachee in coaching success, it appears that commitment, buy-in, motivation, receptiveness to change and openness to feedback are some of the important factors, which influence engagement in the coaching process; research also suggests that coachee engagement is critical for coaching success (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). It is important therefore, to recognise the role that psychology plays in influencing coachee engagement, which will enhance our understanding of how meta-cognition influences coaching outcomes. However, there is very little empirical research which explores this relationship, and therefore a lack of evidence to highlight how psychological difference of the coachee influences coaching success (Grant, 2001). This thesis recognises the gap in the literature and seeks to address it.

2.3.10 The Coach's Role

Another well documented element to coaching effectiveness is the coachee/coach relationship and role of the coach in the coaching process (Grant, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). Some of the core characteristics of being an effective coach include: good interpersonal and communication skills (Sztucinski, 2001); being a good communicator (Hudson, 1999); building trust (Guthrie, 1999; Kilburg 2000; Caproni, 2001; Kappenberg, 2008); providing feedback (Crane, 2001; Grant 2001); providing a safe environment (Kilburg, 2000); building relationships and rapport (O'Neill, 2000; Skiffington and Zeuss, 2001; Bush, 2004; Hunt, 2004); showing empathy (Kilburg, 2000); having an interest in client's issues (Kilburg, 2000); clarifying expectations (Crane, 2001); and being honest and objective (Edelstein and Armstrong, 1993). On further inspection, the common link which appears to unite much of this research into effectiveness, is the role of the coach's interpersonal communication skills.

Another study which also contributes to the role of the coach within coaching highlights two factors in particular: (i) coaching practices; and ii) trust (Kappenberg, 2008). In terms of coaching practices, feedback was highlighted as being an important aspect, which is thought to contribute to successful coaching engagements, by increasing coachee self-awareness and also by providing the coachee with an honest opinion. The second important aspect of the coaching relationship involves trust, which has been linked to: ability, benevolence and integrity. Ability referred to the coach's ability to perform their role; benevolence described the coach's concern and regard for the coachee and integrity referred to the coach's consistency and belief systems. As previously mentioned, a serious flaw in this study is that the findings are based on the coach's perspective, which has implications for the validity of the results, as there is no way of verifying that the coach's view is a true representation of what the coachee experiences. More insight into whether the coachee would concur with these findings would validate outcomes and provide more reliable evidence. Other factors which have also been proposed as being relevant to the coach are: background, attitude, responsiveness, ability to provide relevant feedback and respect for the coachee (Bush, 2004).

2.3.11 Interpersonal Communication Skills

It has been suggested that one of the outcomes of a positive coaching experience is better communication skills (Kilburg, 1996) and that communication skills and interpersonal skills are important components of the coaching process (Gegner, 1997; Bush, 2004). However, in the absence of more empirical evidence to support this, the role of communication within the coaching process requires further investigation (Kilburg, 1996). Within the literature there is a lack of clarity of definitions, whereby the terms; 'social skills', 'interpersonal skills' and 'communication skills' are used interchangeably, which introduces confusion about what is being discussed. In order to overcome this problem, three distinct categories have been used within this study to reflect the variety of activities involved, these include: interpersonal skills, communication skills and receptiveness (further details are provided in the methodology chapter). A review of the literature highlights some of the key activities involved in interpersonal communication which includes: questioning, reflecting, listening, explaining and self-disclosure (Hargie and Dickson, 2004). Evidence suggests that there are many tangible rewards to be gained from developing effective interpersonal skills (Hargie and Dickson, 2004): this begins in early childhood, where it has been found that children who develop good

interactive skills also perform better academically (Brigman, Lane, Switzer, Lane and Lawrence, 1999). In the business environment advantages to be gained from good communication skills are well researched (Hargie and Tourish, 2000) and effective managers have been shown to have a strong repertoire of interpersonal skills (Clampitt, 2001). The communication process is where individual's act skilfully in order to accomplish sought after goals, adopting types of behaviour which may be thought of as an efficient and effective way of achieving goals. The communication process is explicable from within a range of theoretical frameworks (Griffin, 2000) which highlight the transactional and interactive nature of the process, underpinned by a complex array of perceptual, cognitive, affective and performative factors operating within a person-situation framework (Hargie and Dickson, 2004). Despite the lack of consideration for the role of interpersonal and communication skills within the coaching process, the fact that it plays such a significant part in any process which is goal directed, requiring skilled interaction justifies further investigation.

In the coaching literature specifically there are many references to interpersonal and communication skills (Hudson, 1999; Cairo and Dotlich, 1999; Bush, 2004). Flaherty (1999) does point out the importance of language to coaching, and Caproni (2001) lists 'communicating effectively' as being one of the keys to being an effective coach. Bergquist, Merritt and Phillips (1999) also highlight the skills of an effective coach as being: effective listening and effective sending of clear communication. Qualities and competencies recommended by the International Coaching Federation (ICF, 1999) for executive coaches included amongst many things; that a 'coach holds highly developed coaching, communication, and interpersonal skills'. Sztucinski (2001) also found in her study on coaching effectiveness that some of the core characteristics of an effective coach that influenced the coachee/coach relationship were strong listening skills. Whilst interpersonal and communication skills are frequently mentioned within the coaching literature, these references predominately relate to the core competencies of the coach, with very few references made to the coachee, indicating a gap in the literature.

Another important consideration is the relationship between interpersonal communication and coachee engagement. As already noted, coachee engagement is concerned with an individual's willingness to participate and their openness to the coaching process (Judge and Cowell, 1997; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). It could be argued therefore, that the coachee's openness and general attitude towards coaching is reflected in their interpersonal communication style and mediated through their communication. If a

coachee has poor communication skills as well as poor interpersonal skills and they are not receptive to coaching, this could have important implications for coaching outcomes; however, the evidence to support this within the empirical literature is absent. In an attempt to capture the salient areas highlighted in the literature, a combined scale has been created titled 'interpersonal communication skills', which includes three categories: interpersonal skills, communication skills and receptiveness (further details are provided in chapter three). This scale seeks to establish three things: (i) integrate ideas relating to interpersonal communication skills, engagement and receptiveness, (ii) provide clarity of definitions in these domains, and (iii) extend the theory in these areas.

2.3.12 Coaching Attitude / Expectations

Following an extensive review of the literature it appears that the evidence is limited with regard the role of 'coaching attitude' or 'coaching expectations' in the coaching process. This indicates a research gap and suggests that more research is needed to understand how 'expectations' or 'attitude' towards coaching influences coaching outcomes (Feldman and Lankau, 2005), which this thesis seeks to address. The closest link with 'attitude' or 'expectations' and the coaching literature relates to articles that deal with the concept of 'buy-in' or 'receptiveness' (Peel, 2004; Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007). An individual's expectations of a process arguably will influence perceptions about the value or benefits to be gained from engaging in an activity, and it has been proposed that 'client ownership' of the process is critical to a positive experience (Sztucinski, 2001). There is also very little connection made in the literature between a coachee's contribution to a negative coaching experience perhaps by resisting feedback, lack of motivation or by having poor interpersonal skills, and the role expectations have in influencing this experience (London and Smither, 2002). It would appear logical, that in order to increase someone's receptiveness to coaching, attitude or expectations need to be considered, this is particularly significant if attitude or expectations are negative. Part of the buy-in process into coaching involves convincing participants of the need and benefits of the coaching process (Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007), this will be particularly relevant when faced with negative perceptions, attitudes or expectations; for this reason a consideration of 'attitude' or 'expectations' has been included in this study in order to explore the role that it plays in coaching effectiveness and address this research gap and within this study it has been labelled 'coaching attitude'. Within the coaching literature specifically, Bush (2004) does identify coaching attitude as an important element of successful coaching. Another rare observations made of 'attitude'

or ‘expectations’ within the coaching literature was reported in a study investigating predictability of coaching satisfaction and goal attainment, whereby goal definition and expectations at the beginning of the coaching process were found to be important predictors of coaching outcomes (Runde and Bastians, 2005).

2.3.13 Summary

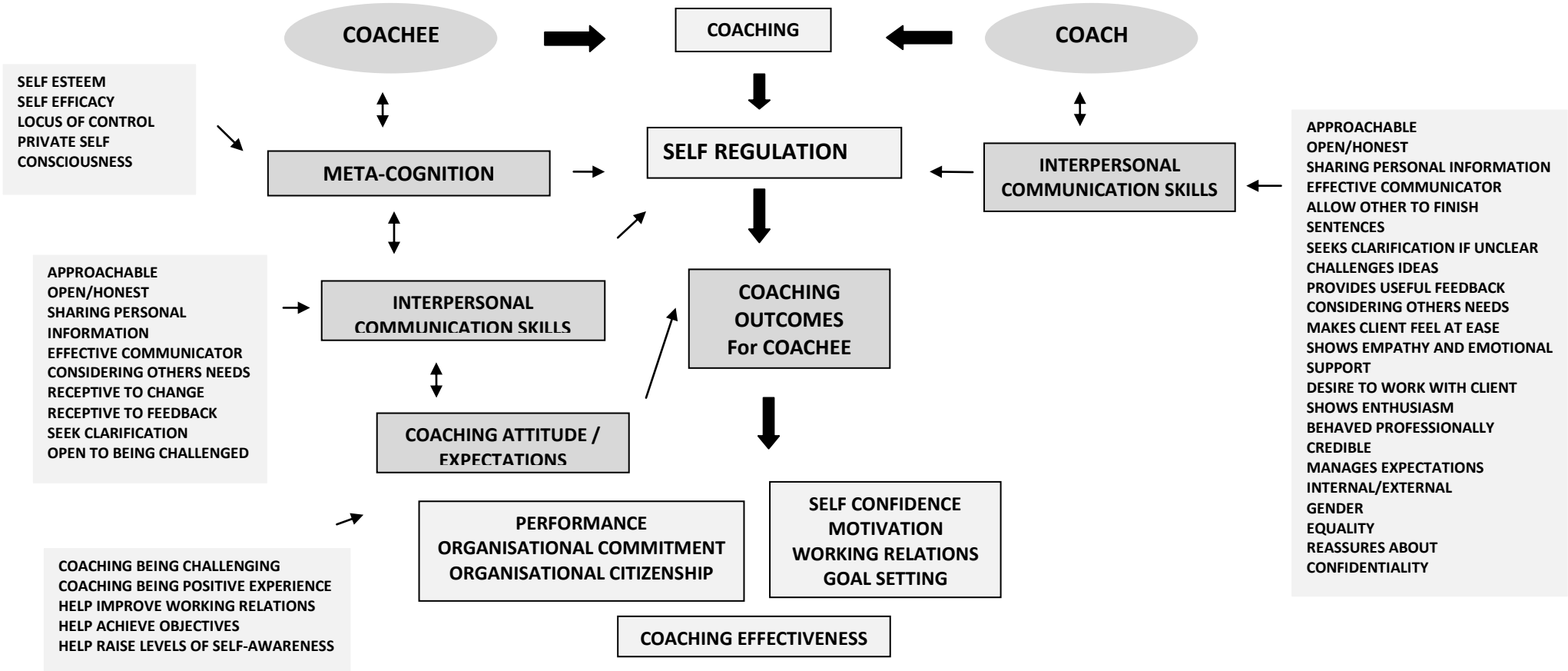
A review of the literature on coaching effectiveness indicates several key issues: from a practical perspective there are problems associated with evaluating coaching effectiveness; evidence is often subjective (Gale, Liljenstrand, Pardieu and Nebeker 2002), there is a lack of standardisation and clarity of definitions, and often sample sizes are small (Kilburg, 1996; Tobias, 1996). Theoretical models to measure effectiveness are useful for identifying factors which are thought to be relevant for measuring coaching effectiveness (Kirkpatrick, 1996; Kilburg, 2001), and although other outcomes have been discussed; satisfaction (Gegner, 1997), and increases in self-confidence, self-awareness and sensitivity towards others (Hall, Otazo and Hollenbeck, 1999), measurements of coaching outcomes have been dominated by performance measures (Olivero, Bane and Kopelman, 1997; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas and Kucine, 2003). In view of their contribution to organisational effectiveness (Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007) it appears that organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour are additional measures that are worth considering to evaluate coaching effectiveness, yet to date little research has been carried out in this area. A review of the empirical evidence reveals that there are very few studies which demonstrate effectiveness in coaching (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001; Grant, 2001; Feldman and Lankau, 2005) although some of the positive outcomes of coaching that have been reported include; increases in performance (Strayer and Rossett, 1994; Anderson, 2001); enhanced interpersonal communication and working relationships (Tobias, 1996; Diedrich, 1996); increased self-confidence and self-awareness (Peterson, 1996; Hall, Otazo and Hollenbeck, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003); improved goal setting (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas and Kucine, 2003); and increased satisfaction, where the importance of self-efficacy and communication skills have also been highlighted (Gegner, 1997). Factors which are thought to be of particular importance with regards the coachee include: engagement and commitment (Sztucinski, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008); the coachee’s attitude and openness to feedback (Bush, 2004); receptiveness to change and motivation (Bauer et al, 2006); and buy-in and willingness to participate (Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007), all of which have been linked to successful

coaching engagements. From the coach perspective, factors which have been identified as being important for effective coaching include: building trust (Kappenberg, 2008; Kilburg, 2000); good interpersonal and communication skills (Sztucinski, 2001); providing feedback (Crane, 2001; Kappenberg, 2008); building relationships and rapport (Skiffington and Zeus, 2001; Bush, 2004), showing empathy (Kilburg, 2000) and clarifying expectations (Crane, 2001). Interpersonal communication has also been highlighted as an important component of effective coaching (Kilburg, 1996; Gegner, 1997; Bush, 2004), although empirical evidence to support this is lacking (Kilburg, 1996). There are many tangible rewards of effective interpersonal skills (Hargie and Dickson, 2004) and it has been highlighted as being an important skill of an effective coach (Bergauist, Merritt and Phillips, 1999; International Coaching Federation, 1999; Sztucinski, 2001). This suggests that further evidence is required to understand more about the role of interpersonal communication in coaching effectiveness. Finally, it also appears there is a distinct gap in the literature exploring the role of attitude or expectations within the coaching process, and the impact this has on coaching outcomes or success (Feldman and Lankau, 2005). There are several implications of the empirical research literature for coaching: (1) the research suggests that there is a lack of evidence to demonstrate what influences coaching success, most of the studies report on outcomes but do not provide evidence of those factors which are critical for effective coaching; (2) there is a lack of evidence to support the theory relating to meta-cognitive functioning and the impact it has on coaching, this suggests that more case studies are needed to provide evidence and to help examine the role of meta-cognition in coaching, through longitudinal studies; (3) whilst the evidence does highlight communication and interpersonal skills as important factors for coaching, there is limited evidence to demonstrate their contribution to effectiveness in relation to both the coachee and the coach and the impact they have on coaching outcomes; (4) there is also a distinct lack of evidence exploring the role of coaching attitude within coaching and how attitude might influence coaching outcomes.

In order to help summarise and draw together some of the key themes that have emerged from a review of the literature relating to: (i) coaching psychology, and (ii) coaching effectiveness, an integrated model (see figure 2.4 below) has been created. The purpose of this model is to highlight those factors which have been identified within the literature as having an impact on coaching effectiveness; thereby addressing the fundamental aim of this research. The model draws a distinction between the coachee and the coach, highlighting on the left of the model, those factors which relate to the

coachee which include: *meta-cognition*, *interpersonal communication skills* and *coaching attitude/expectations*. To the right of the diagram the model highlights those factors relating to the coach which influence effectiveness, which includes *interpersonal communication skills.* Finally, the model also integrates *self-regulation* and *coaching outcomes* to complete the coaching process.

Figure 2.4: Integrated Model of Factors Influencing Coaching Effectiveness



A chapter summary is now presented to draw together some overall conclusions about the relative strength of the literature for a study on coaching effectiveness.

2.4 Chapter Summary

Throughout this chapter literature relating to coaching psychology and coaching effectiveness has been critically reviewed and strengths and weaknesses have been highlighted. However, there are some overall conclusions which may be drawn about the relative strength of the literature in terms of the contribution towards a study of coaching effectiveness. These conclusions are summarised as follows:

2.4.1 Self-Esteem and Self-Efficacy

There are four key conclusions to be drawn with regards self-esteem and self-efficacy: firstly, the evidence on self-esteem and self-efficacy makes an important contribution to our understanding about the relationship between: self-esteem and self-efficacy and three core elements of the coaching process: motivation, goal setting and performance. Recognising that self-esteem and self-efficacy are likely to influence motivation, goal setting and performance is particularly relevant for coaching because of the potential impact this has on: (i) levels of applied effort and perseverance to achieve goals; (ii) the influence on goal setting and the types of goals chosen, both of which have important consequences for performance and coaching effectiveness (Audia, Locke and Smith, 2000; Ehrlinger and Dunning, 2003). Secondly, the evidence contributes to knowledge by showing that there is an important relationship between self-esteem and self-efficacy beliefs and feedback, which is one of the core activities within the coaching process (Bouffad-Bouchard, 2001). Awareness of this relationship is useful for a study of coaching effectiveness because it highlights how self-esteem and self-efficacy beliefs can be strengthened through the provision of feedback, which has important implications for performance and coaching success. Thirdly, the evidence contributes to knowledge about how coaching could be made more effective, i.e. by tailoring feedback to reflect the different psychological needs of the individual, e.g. those with low self-esteem might need more emotional support during feedback, those with low self-efficacy might respond better to more task specific feedback. Evidence suggests that this could have important implications for coaching effectiveness. Fourthly, the evidence provides a useful indicator of how self-efficacy beliefs can be positively influenced using benchmarking (Bandura and Cervone, 1983). This has important implications for

motivation and performance, suggesting that using benchmarks within coaching could enhance coaching effectiveness.

2.4.2 Locus of Control

There are three key conclusions to be drawn about the contribution of the literature relating to locus of control: firstly, the evidence highlights that there is a relationship between locus of control, behaviour and performance outcomes, suggesting that there are variances in behaviour depending on whether the individual has an external or internal locus of control (Judge and Bono, 2001; Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger, 1998). Recognition of this link within coaching is important as it provides useful information about the influence of causal attribution on coaching outcomes, in particular performance, which is likely to have an impact on coaching effectiveness. Secondly, the evidence indicates that it is important to be aware of the relationship between the types of outcome faced, i.e. positive/negative and locus of control, as this has important behavioural consequences (Thomas et al, 2006; Ng et al, 2006). Internals and externals are likely to behave in a similar manner if the outcome is positive, however if the outcome is negative, they are likely to behave differently (Davis and Davis, 1972). This has important implications within coaching, as it shows that individuals are likely to behave differently depending on their psychological difference. Thirdly, the evidence suggests that a relationship exists between locus of control and decision making (Rotter and Mulry, 1965); this could have important implications for goal setting during coaching. Those with internal locus of control are likely to take longer to make decisions if the outcome is potentially negative (Davis and Davis, 1972).

2.4.3 Private Self-Consciousness

The evidence highlights that there is a relationship between self-awareness and private self-consciousness, indicating that there are links to many aspects of the coaching process such as: performance, interpersonal effectiveness, self-monitoring and self-evaluation (Carver and Scheier, 1998; Grant, 2001). From this perspective the literature is useful. However, with inconsistent results and mixed evidence (Franzoi and Sweeney, 1986; Hollenbeck and Williams, 1987; Briere and Vallerand, 1990) this indicates there is still a lack of empirical evidence to fully support the usefulness of private self-consciousness specifically as a measure of self-awareness. Given that self-awareness is so fundamental to the coaching process, this leads to the conclusion that further

validation of the private self-consciousness scale as a measure of self-awareness within a coaching setting is needed to provide empirical evidence of its efficaciousness.

In terms of meta-cognition, an overall conclusion can be drawn from a summary of the literature review, indicating that even though there are weaknesses and flaws in the evidence, clearly there are some strong relationships which exist between meta-cognition and many of the critical elements involved within the coaching process. Interestingly, however, the effects of meta-cognition within coaching, specifically coaching effectiveness, has not been explored within the coaching literature, highlighting an immediate research gap, which this thesis seeks to address in research objective one.

2.4.4 Coaching Effectiveness

The key weakness with regard the literature on coaching effectiveness is that much of the evidence lacks substance, and academic rigour, with a distinct gap in studies which have longitudinal or quantitative elements to them, or which highlight factors which influence outcomes. In conclusion however, the strength of the evidence is that it highlights areas which are relevant for coaching effectiveness such as: engagement, commitment, attitude, openness to feedback, receptiveness, trust etc (Kilburg, 2000; Sztucinski, 2001; Bush, 2004, Kappenberg, 2008). However, the literature points to some clear research gaps indicating that further evidence of the specific factors which influence coaching effectiveness is needed; particularly studies which adopt more rigorous research methodologies, which this thesis seeks to achieve.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed description of the research methodology used in this study. Firstly, it presents the overarching research objectives, followed by a more detailed account of the specific research questions that have been developed through the literature review presented in chapter two. The philosophical approach is explained, followed by a description of the four stage longitudinal design, outlining how the quantitative data were collected using a survey questionnaire design from a sample group of 29 coachees, and how the qualitative data were collected using qualitative research interviews from a sample group of 10 coachees. The methods of analysis for both sets of data are then addressed.

3.2 Research Objectives

The overarching aim of this research is to understand more about what influences coaching effectiveness. A comprehensive and extensive review of the literature outlined in chapter two highlights many of the positive effects of coaching, however, the extent of these effects are not fully understood. The research objectives therefore, seek to address this fundamental research gap by bringing together two important strands of research: (i) coaching psychology and (ii) empirical evidence of coaching effectiveness. From this review five distinct gaps have been identified: (1) a lack of understanding of the role of individual psychological difference in coaching, specifically in terms of the relationship between meta-cognition and coaching; (2) a lack of understanding of how the coachee's interpersonal communication skills and coaching attitude influence coaching outcomes and therefore, coaching effectiveness; (3) a lack of understanding about the role of the coach within the coaching process and how the coach's interpersonal communication skills influence coaching outcomes; (4) a lack of evidence and clarity regarding coaching outcomes and how they are used to measure effectiveness; (5) lack of evidence and clarity about the specific factors which are critical for improving coaching effectiveness. The following research objectives seek to address the gaps in the literature, and in so doing meet the aim of this research, providing crucial evidence of what influences coaching effectiveness. Coaching effectiveness is measured through three core coaching outcomes: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. It is believed that the evidence provided by this

study will make a substantial and original contribution to the empirical research literature. The research objectives are as follows:-

1. **To explore the relationship between individual psychological difference, specifically meta-cognition of the coachee and coaching outcomes.**

Much of the coaching literature adopts a 'practitioner' perspective covering issues relating to coaching delivery and techniques, with some reference to theoretical underpinnings (Grant, 2001; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). However, there is a distinct lack of research that addresses coaching from a psychological perspective (Kilburg, 2001) and in particular, research which explores the role of meta-cognition in coaching, examining how meta-cognitive processes may contribute to, or influence coaching outcomes (Grant, 2006). Meta-cognitive skills have been highlighted in the literature as being important elements of the self-regulation process (Grant, 2001) which are also thought to influence self-awareness (Carver and Scheier, 1998; Judge and Bono, 2001). This research objective seeks to directly address the gap in the literature by providing evidence to support the role of meta-cognition within coaching. The key areas of meta-cognition covered by this study are: self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and private self-consciousness.

2. **To explore the relationship between the coachee's interpersonal communication skills, coaching attitude and coaching outcomes.**

There are many studies which highlight the importance of interpersonal communication in the coaching process (Diedrich, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Cairo and Dotlich, 1999), very few of the studies however, explore how interpersonal communication influences coaching effectiveness, or acts as a moderator in coaching success (Sztucinski, 2001; Bush, 2004). In addition, a large proportion of the studies only make reference to interpersonal communication in terms of the core characteristics of a coach, neglecting the relationship with the coachee (Bergquist, Merritt and Phillips, 1999; International Coaching Federation, 1999; Caprioni, 2001). Interpersonal communication is an important mechanism through which crucial elements of the coaching process are mediated, namely; coachee receptiveness, openness and willingness to participate, often referred to in the literature as 'client engagement' (Bush 2004; Kappenberg, 2008) which, arguably, also reflects a coachee's attitude towards coaching. Expectations or attitude towards coaching has also been highlighted as an important but neglected topic

within coaching (Bush, 2004; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). This research objective is presented in two parts; firstly it seeks to address the research gaps by providing some important evidence and insights into how the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee influence coaching outcomes and secondly, it explores whether the coachee's attitude towards coaching has any impact on coaching outcomes, as very little empirical evidence has been provided to explore these topics to date (Feldman and Lankau, 2005).

3. **To examine the impact of the coach's interpersonal communication skills on coaching outcomes.**

From the coach perspective; interpersonal communication has been established as being a fundamental part of building rapport, establishing trust and demonstrating empathy within the coaching process, which research indicates are important elements of effective coaching (Caproni, 2001; Sztucinski, 2001). Other skills of the coach which have also been highlighted in the literature as being important elements of a successful coaching engagements include: clarifying expectations (Crane, 2001); honesty and openness (Edelstein and Armstrong, 1993); providing feedback (Grant, 2001); taking an interest in the client's needs (Kilburg, 2000); showing empathy (Kilburg, 2000) and being a good communicator (Hudson, 1999). However, as previously noted, there are very few studies which provide empirical evidence to support these claims (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001), highlighting a research gap. It is anticipated therefore, that by exploring the relationship between coaching and the interpersonal communication skills of the coach, this will provide some important evidence to demonstrate which skills of the coach are more critical for effective coaching.

4. **To explore the impact of coaching on coaching outcomes.**

There is surprisingly little empirical research to be found on the efficacy of coaching (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). Many studies report on coaching effectiveness in terms of the impact coaching has on a range of coaching outcome measures which are predominately measured through performance (Strayer and Rossett, 1994; Olivero, Bane and Kopelman, 1997; Anderson, 2001), although some studies do report on other outcome measures such as; self-confidence, self-awareness and motivation (Gegner, 1997; Hall, Otazo and Hollenbeck, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003); and interpersonal skills (Diedrich, 1996; Tobias, 1996). In order to

establish some consistency there are three core outcome measures which are used throughout this study to explore coaching effectiveness, these are: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

5. **To provide guidance and clarity about those factors which are critical for improving coaching effectiveness**

This research objective seeks to provide guidance to the coaching community, about which factors are critical for coaching effectiveness, there have been very few studies that have identified which factors are critical to coaching success or moderators of that success (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). This objective brings together the research findings from the other research objectives, thereby addressing the gaps identified in the literature with regards coaching effectiveness (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001; Feldman and Lankau, 2005) and seeks to provide recommendations for application in practice

3.3 Research Questions

The research questions have been generated from the literature review and directly address the research objectives; these are divided into five sections: (1) meta-cognition; (2) coachee's interpersonal communication skills and coaching attitude; (3) coach's interpersonal communication skills; (4) coaching outcomes; (5) critical factors and guidance for effectiveness. There are three core coaching outcome measures used to explore effectiveness which are: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. In total there are fourteen research questions which address the research objectives. It is expected that the effects of coaching will be positive, as supported by the literature (Grant, 2001, Kilburg 2001; Whitmore, 2002; CIPD, 2004); there is no evidence that coaching would have a negative impact therefore, all questions and hypotheses are based upon this assumption and seek to assess the extent of this positive effect. The questions are presented as follows;

3.3.1 Research Objective 1 - Meta-Cognition

The core areas covered by meta-cognition in this study include: self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and private self-consciousness. The core coaching outcomes

used to measure effectiveness are: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Question 1 *What is the impact of coaching on the meta-cognitive skills of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Question 2 *To what extent do the meta-cognitive skills of the coachee influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Question 3 *To what extent does meta-cognition moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Questions one, two and three are concerned with exploring the relationship between meta-cognition and coaching effectiveness, which is addressed from the coachee perspective. Question one seeks to explore the impact coaching has on meta-cognitive processes; question two is concerned with understanding the role meta-cognition has in influencing coaching outcomes, identifying those factors which are critical to coaching effectiveness and question three, seeks to explore the extent to which meta-cognition acts as a moderator of coaching effectiveness in order to examine the interactive effect between meta-cognition and coaching outcomes. The aim of question three is to explore whether certain conditions have more influence over outcomes than others, e.g. is there an interactive effect between high or low self-esteem and high or low job performance.

Meta-cognition has been highlighted as being an integral part of the process of self-regulation within the coaching cycle. Meta-cognitive processes are those internal psychological mechanisms which an individual (coachee) uses to self-evaluate by reflecting on; thoughts, feelings and behaviour (Grant, 2001). Key factors which are thought to influence the process of self-evaluation include; self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-awareness (private self-consciousness) and locus of control (Carver and Scheier, 1998; Judge and Bono, 2001). The reasons these specific meta-cognitive skills have been selected is because of their relationship with many elements of the coaching process and self-regulation. Self-efficacy and self-esteem have been linked to motivation and goal setting (Bandura, 1998; Bandura and Locke, 2003); performance (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998; Lee and Klein, 2002); decision making (Ehrlinger and Dunning, 2003); feedback (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001); and self-confidence (Brown and Marshall, 2006). Locus of control has been linked to performance (Spector, 1982; Blau, 1993; Judge and Bono, 2001); causal attribution (Davis and Davis, 1972); and decision making (Erez and

Judge, 2001). Self-awareness measured by 'private self-consciousness', has been associated with monitoring and self-evaluation (Grant, 2001); performance (Briere and Vallerand, 1990; Church, 1997); interpersonal effectiveness (Christensen, 1982); and psychological mindedness (Bluckert, 2005).

Whilst the theory demonstrates a clear link between meta-cognition and many of the elements of self-regulation, thus establishing the link with coaching, there is a distinct lack of empirical evidence which explores these relationships with coaching directly. As such, it appears there is very little empirical evidence which exists to demonstrate the impact coaching has on meta-cognition and the impact meta-cognition has on coaching effectiveness (Grant, 2001), specifically identifying those factors which are critical to success. By addressing these factors questions one, two and three will offer a psychological perspective to coaching effectiveness, which has been identified as being a gap in the coaching research literature (Kilburg, 2001; Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005).

3.3.2 Research Objective 2 (a) - Interpersonal Communication Skills – Coachee

This research objective is concerned with the coachee and is divided into two parts: (a) interpersonal communication skills; and (b) coaching attitude.

Question 4 *What is the impact of coaching on the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Question 5 *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Question 6 *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive*.

Questions four, five and six, seek to examine the role of interpersonal communication within coaching and explore the impact it has on effectiveness. This adopts the coachee perspective and measures effectiveness through coaching outcomes: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Within the empirical literature, communication and interpersonal skills are used interchangeably (Hargie and Dickson, 2004), although both have been highlighted as being important factors within coaching (Cairo and Dotlich, 1999; Bush, 2004). The emphasis in the literature however,

has focused on the communication skills of the coach (International Coaching Federation, 1999; Sztucinski, 2001), with some reference made to the impact of coaching on the communication skills of the coachee (Diedrich, 1996; Tobias, 1996) although, it appears that there are very few studies which explore interpersonal communication skills in any detail, especially in relation to the coachee. Question four addresses this research gap, by providing more detail about the impact coaching has on the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee; question five explores how the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee influence coaching outcomes and question six seeks to explore whether the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee act as a moderator of coaching effectiveness, by examining the interactive effect between interpersonal communication skills and coaching outcomes. The aim of question six is to explore whether certain conditions have more influence over outcomes than others, e.g., is there an interactive effect between high or low interpersonal communication skills and high or low job performance.

For the purpose of this study the definition of 'interpersonal communication skills' has been widened to include other factors associated with coaching effectiveness, specifically 'receptiveness'. Receptiveness to change, openness to feedback and openness to being challenged are areas which have been highlighted as being important mediators of coachee engagement, which is believed to be an important indicator of coaching effectiveness (Bush, 2004; Peel, 2004; Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007; Kappenberg, 2008). To incorporate the wider definition, interpersonal communication skills have been divided into three sub categories: (1) interpersonal skills, (2) communication skills, and (3) receptiveness. The specific items used are categorised in table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1: *Wider Definitions of Interpersonal Communication Skills*

Interpersonal Skills	Communication Skills	Receptiveness
Friendly and approachable	Open and honest	Receptive to change
Willingness to share personal information	Effective communicator	Receptive to feedback
Taking needs and feeling of others into consideration	Allowing others to finish their sentences	Receptive to being challenged
Willingness to seek clarification if unclear	Communication face/face; telephone; email	Receptive to working with others

3.3.3 Research Objective 2 (b) - Coaching Attitude – Coachee

Question 7 *What is the impact of coaching on coaching attitude*? It is expected the effect will be positive.

Question 8 *To what extent does coaching attitude influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Question 9 *To what extent does coaching attitude moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

As with the previous three questions in (2a), research questions seven, eight and nine, seek to explore the role of coaching attitude in relation to coaching effectiveness. This is addressed again from the coachee perspective and is measured through coaching outcomes: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. These questions seek to address the extent to which coaching has an impact on attitude, the extent to which attitude influences coaching outcomes and the extent to which interactive effects may be observed. To date it appears there has been very little written about coaching attitude and the role it plays in coaching effectiveness (Bush, 2004; Feldman and Lankau, 2005) which these research questions specifically aim to address.

3.3.4 Research Objective 3 - Interpersonal Communication Skills – Coach

Question 10 *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coach influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Question 11 *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coach, influence meta-cognition of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Question 12 *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coach influence the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

As the coaching literature has highlighted, interpersonal communication skills are important factors associated with successful coaching engagements often influencing the

client/coach relationship (Bergquist, Merritt and Phillips, 1999; Kappenberg, 2008). Core competencies thought to be of particular relevance to being an effective coach have been identified as; effective listening (International Coaching Federation, 1999); demonstrating empathy (Kilburg, 2000); providing feedback (Crane, 2001); building relationships and rapport (Skiffington and Zeuss, 2003); interest and concern for the coachee (Kilburg, 2000); clarifying expectations (Crane, 2001); good interpersonal and communication skills (Hudson, 1999; Sztucinski, 2001); and building trust (Caprioni, 2001; Kappenberg, 2008). Whilst these competencies have been highlighted as being important in the coaching relationship and relevant for coaching success, it appears that there is little evidence which explores which factors in particular influence or contribute to coaching effectiveness. Question ten, eleven, and twelve directly explore this research gap and seek to add value by highlighting the extent to which the interpersonal communication skills of the coach influence coaching outcomes and which factors in particular, are critical in this process. Additionally, they also seek to highlight the influence of the coach's skills on the coachee's meta-cognitive skills and also explore the extent to which they influence the coachee's interpersonal communication skills.

3.3.5 Research Objective 4 - Coaching Outcomes

Question 13 *What is the impact of coaching on a range of individual and organisational coaching outcomes and other outcome measures associated with coaching effectiveness? It is expected the effects will be positive.*

This question is concerned with examining the impact coaching has on a range of coaching outcome measures which will be used to evaluate coaching effectiveness. This meets one of the overarching aims of this study, to understand more about coaching effectiveness. The focus of attention in the empirical literature has predominately been on performance as an outcome measure of effectiveness (Strayer and Rossett, 1994; Olivero, Bane and Kopelman, 1997; Anderson, 2001), however, there are other measures of effectiveness that are also worth considering which have benefits for the coachee and the organisation. These include; affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Research indicates that commitment is an important factor in coaching success (Sztucinski, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008), and that there is a strong link between, affective commitment and performance (Meyer et al, 2002) and affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (Pratt and Ashforth, 2003; Silverthorne, 2005; Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007). It appears that there

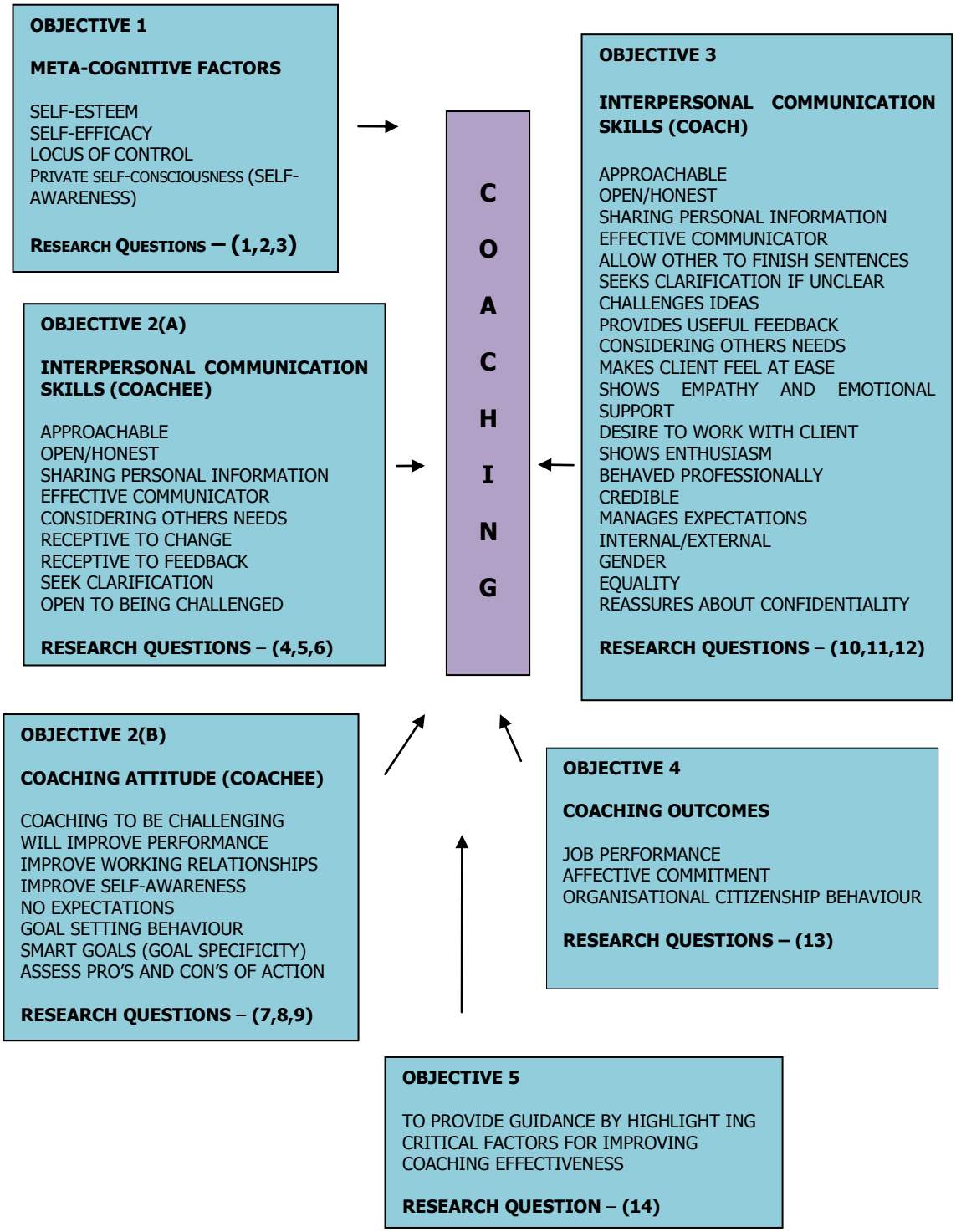
are no empirical studies which have attempted to use affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour specifically as coaching outcome measures, highlighting the original and unique contribution this study will make towards fulfilling this research gap.

3.3.6 Research Objective 5 - Guidance on Improving Coaching Effectiveness

Question 14 *What are the critical factors which influence coaching effectiveness and what are the implications of this research for coaching practice?*

The final research question aims to bring together the findings from the previous research questions and seeks to provide recommendations and guidance about those factors which are critical for effective coaching, thus providing guidance on how to improve coaching practices. The following diagram (figure 3.1) provides an outline of the factors addressed by the research objectives highlighting the links to the research questions.

Figure 3.1: Factors Addressed By Research Objectives



3.4 Philosophical Underpinnings

The methodological approach of any piece of research will be based on the ontological beliefs or worldview of the researcher, about the nature of reality. It is these basic set of beliefs or assumptions, about reality, that guide the research enquiry (Creswell, 1998). Two diametrically opposed paradigms expressing these worldviews are to be found in the purist perspectives articulated by positivists, on the one hand, and constructivists or interpretivists on the other. Positivists view the world objectively and attempt to keep their own values out of the research, whilst looking for causal explanations for reality (Creswell, 1998). They use deductive logic and primarily gather quantitative forms of data. The second purist view is presented by the constructivist or interpretivist perspective, which believes that reality, is socially constructed and becomes known through multiple subjective points of view, (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher, Perez-Prado, 2003). The interpretivist perspective takes on an inductive approach to formulating their view of reality.

Within psychology there has been an historical reliance on quantitative methods of data collection, dominated by the positivist paradigm. However, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) comment, that psychological research rarely does fit the single objective reality this paradigm suggests. Perceptions of reality have played an important part of psychological theory, with the assumption very often that behaviour has multiple causes and is affected by differing views of the environment. With the emergence of cross-cultural, ethnographic and clinical psychology a more inductive approach has been taken to understanding and generating theory. Whilst this current research study does adopt a positivist perspective, in that it seeks to find causal explanations, primarily through quantitative data collection methods, it also adopts the ontological position adhered to by the interpretive perspective, in that views are gathered about how the individual (coachee) interprets their views of the 'self' gathered by the qualitative data collection. The interpretivist view suggests that the way in which people socially construct their world will be guided by their values, their attitudes and their beliefs, which in turn will affect their behaviour (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). The role of the research is to fully understand this world. Smith and Heshusius (1986) commented, however, that the theoretical debate about paradigm incompatibility subsided as 'researchers became bored with philosophical discussion, and were more interested in getting on with the task of doing their research'.

Another worldview that has informed the design of this study lies in the pragmatic paradigm, which is primarily concerned with 'what works' and finding solutions to problems, instead of focusing on methods used (Howe, 1988; Patton, 1990; Patton, 1990; Datta, 1997; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). The important aspect of pragmatism is that the research focuses on the problem or question being studied, which in the case of this research is concerned with what contributes to coaching being effective. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) highlight some of the key tenets of the pragmatic paradigm approach, these can be summarised as follows; pragmatism rejects the forced choice between positivism and constructivism; the choice of research method will depend on the research question currently being posed at each stage of the research cycle; pragmatism presents a very practical applied approach to research; pragmatism views the research question as more important than either method being used; pragmatism avoids theoretical debates about 'truths'.

In addition to the pragmatic paradigm adopted in this study, it is important to highlight the links to *case study research*, which underpins the research design. Case study research is a type of research design where the investigator explores a bounded system or case over time through detailed in-depth data collection, involving multiple sources of data (Creswell, 1998). A more in-depth consideration of the case study approach including a critique, now follows. As a research strategy the case study seeks to examine contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context, and can be especially useful when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Yin, 1981). There are different types of case studies: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory, the one used in this current study is both exploratory, in that is seeks to explore factors which influence coaching effectiveness and explanatory, in that it seeks to add meaning to the research topics and areas of interest within this study specifically: meta-cognition, interpersonal communication and attitude and the role of the coach and coaching relationship. One of the challenges associated with case study research is how to analyse and present the data collected. Yin (1981) argues that case study narrative accounts should be organised around the key research topic areas, and whilst information needs to be recorded precisely, this may take the form of notes rather than narratives. To avoid the pit falls associated with lengthy narratives with no predictable structure which are hard to write and hard to read, Yin (1980) recommends that the case study is built on a clear conceptual framework and that narratives are replaced by a series of answers to a set of open-ended questions. In response to this, this current study makes use of the qualitative research interview (details below) to gather this type

of qualitative data. The evidence collected (both quantitative and qualitative) is presented in the results section in the order of the research design, i.e., stages 1 and 2 present the quantitative data, and stages 3 and 4 present the qualitative data. However, in accordance with Yin's (1981) recommendation, evidence (quantitative and qualitative) which addresses the same topic area should be integrated; this is done in chapter 5 in the discussion.

Yin (1981) remarks that there are no fixed recipes for building or comparing explanations about data or phenomenon, similar to the work of a detective, where a detective constructs an explanation for a crime, the case study researcher seeks to do the same, by constructing a case. In this current study the aim is to construct a case which provides depth and insight into what influences coaching effectiveness. This current study therefore, attempts to make use of theoretical frameworks from the research literature associated with meta-cognition and coaching, and specifically seeks to find meaning of these frameworks within an organisational context. It has been noted that without the discipline of theory, the case study is in danger of becoming a 'story' and risks producing detail without a wider meaning (Hartley, 1995). The case study is particularly useful for understanding and analysing organisational processes, where issues can be explored in depth in their context (Hartley, 1995), this makes the case study method especially useful for a study of the organisational process of coaching.

Some of the key criticisms and areas of concern associated with case study research relate to the difficulties of: (1) making generalisations; and (2) the subjective nature of the research (Hartley, 1995). The concern about how to make generalisations from a case study is grounded in the comparison with quantitative techniques of research, where generalisations rely on sample sizes and sampling frames to make generalisation from the sample to the population. However, even with quantitative methods, problems with generalisation still exist, e.g., what if the sample used isn't typical of the population, or the sample is very heterogeneous, or when the sample doesn't compare across industry sectors. In qualitative research, the evidence provides detailed knowledge of the 'processes' that underlie the behaviour, or detailed knowledge of the organisation, thus providing the context in which the evidence is grounded. In this case the evidence might specify conditions under which the behaviour can be expected to occur, therefore, in contrast to quantitative research, generalisations are made about the theoretical proposition, and not the populations. As Hartley (1995) points out, observation from a single case study may make a prediction about when change occurs, or when something

is more likely to be affected, recognising that there is some value in specifying processes, rather than variables.

In response to the criticism relating to subjectivity, Hartley (1995) points out that the researcher needs to be aware of the potential for bias from early impressions, and the need to guard against this. This can be achieved by making reference to existing literature, in order to raise questions about whether findings are consistent. Hartley also points out that the researcher needs to be aware where sources of difference need to be examined, which can become the source of creative theory development.

Other common misunderstandings relating to case study research are rejected in a comprehensive article written by the researcher Flyvbjerg (2006). A summary of the key criticisms levelled against case study research are: (1) theoretical knowledge is more valuable that practical knowledge; (2) one cannot generalise from a single case study therefore, the single case study cannot contribute to scientific development; (3) the case study is most useful for generating hypotheses, whereas other methods are more suited to hypotheses testing and theory building; (4) the case study contains bias toward verification; and (5) it is often difficult to summarise specific case studies.

Flyvbjerg responds to the above criticisms as follows: (1) theoretical knowledge is not more valuable than practical knowledge, moreover, he argues the case study method provides concrete, context-dependent knowledge, which is more valuable that the search for predictive theories and universals; (2) even if knowledge cannot be formally generalised, this does not mean that it cannot enter the collective process of knowledge accumulation. He argues that formal generalisations based on large samples or single case studies, are overrated as the main source of scientific progress, and suggests that the case study not only presents a balanced view, but is important for identification of cases which falsify a proposition. Flyvbjerg uses Popper's theory of *falsification* to support his argument, suggesting that in-depth research, such as the case study approach, can reveal rich detail about phenomena which at first may appear to be 'white', however, upon closer examination turn out to be 'black'; (3) rejects the criticism that case studies are only useful at the initial stage of hypotheses generation, instead he argues that case studies are useful for both generating and testing of hypotheses, and for clarifying deeper causes behind a given problem; (4) rejects the criticism that case studies serve to verify the researcher's views, and is therefore, biased and less rigorous, arguing instead that case study research has its own rigour, which is no less strict. As

others have also pointed out (Campbell, 1975), one further advantage of the case study is being able to 'close in' on real life situations, and test views directly in relation to the phenomena as they unfold in practice. Many researchers conclude that often their views and assumptions are wrong, and instead of verification, views and assumptions are revised (Ragin, 1992; Geertz, 1995); (5) finally, in response to the final criticism relating to summarising and making generalisations, which critics see as an ideal, Flyvbjerg responds by saying that this is not always desirable. The dense case study is more useful and interesting for social theory than either, factual 'findings', or the high-level generalisations of theory (Peattie, 2001). Flyvbjerg argues that the goal of the case study is to not be all things to all people, rather the goal is to allow the study to be different things to different people, and that potentially something may be lost by summarising.

3.5 Research Strategy

The research is based on a case study design using an integrative mixed methodology. Quantitative questionnaires were used to investigate the macro level organisational context. Qualitative interviews were used to provide micro level data from idiographic case studies of individual participants. The research was undertaken over a twelve month period in a large government department who were currently implementing a management coaching programme.

3.6 Triangulation

It has been observed that using multiple methods in research overcomes some of the limitations of using a single method (Campbell, 1998). Triangulation responds well to the argument that no single method can ever adequately solve a problem with rival causal factors, and this is best resolved by multiple methods of observation (Denzin, 1978). Triangulation is a method which seeks to strengthen a study by combining methods or data (Denzin, 1978; Campbell, 1998). This can include combining quantitative and qualitative evidence, or can involve the triangulation of participants. In view of the fact that this study seeks to examine coaching effectiveness from the coachee perspective the triangulation of participants from multiple participant sources was not deemed appropriate, however, this study does seek to strengthen the validity of the findings by triangulating methods using combined quantitative and qualitative evidence.

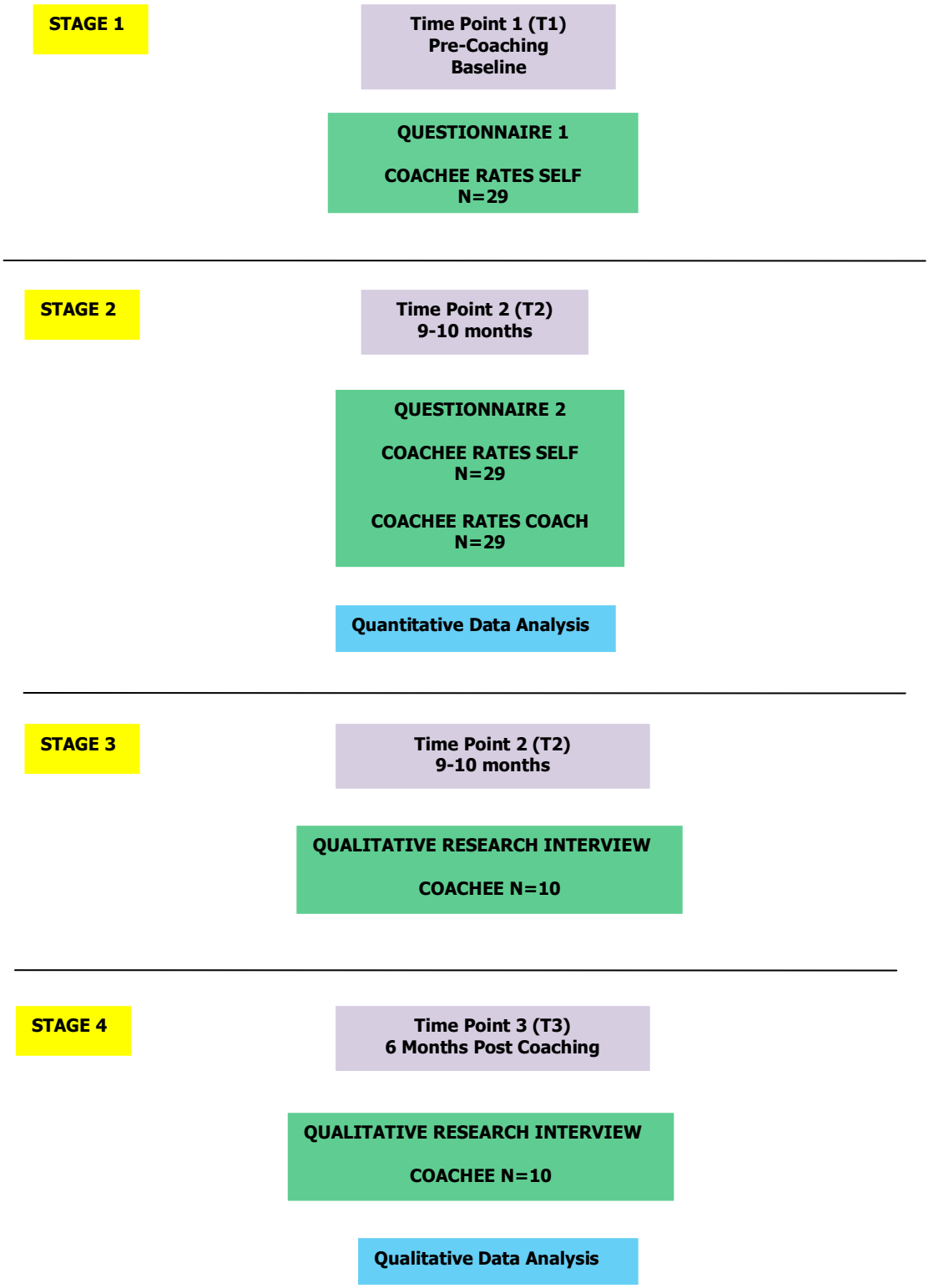
3.7 Research Design

This current study was based on a longitudinal case study design, gathering both quantitative and qualitative data. The data presents the coachee perspective and therefore, meets a research gap (Bush, 2004). The research was carried out in four stages, stages one and two gathered quantitative data through survey questionnaires, and stages three and four gathered qualitative data through qualitative research interviews. The rationale for using a longitudinal approach over three time points, was to allow sufficient time for coaching to take place so that changes in attitudes and behaviour over time could be captured and recorded. For the first two stages, two questionnaire instruments were designed and administered using an online questionnaire system. Stage one involved administering the first questionnaire before coaching took place, at time point one (T1), and was used to provide benchmark or baseline data. Stage two involved administering the second questionnaire and took place at time point two (T2) between nine and ten months after coaching (see Appendix D for details of questionnaires). The quantitative data collected at stages one and two were then analysed (details of method of analysis follow) to generate emergent themes about coaching effectiveness. Stages three and four of the research involved qualitative research interviews which were used to explore the emergent themes from the earlier stages. A summary of the research design and methods of data collection are presented in the following table (table 3.2), and figure (figure 3.2).

Table: 3.2 Summary of Research Design and Data Collection Methods

Stages	**Method of Data Collection**	**Purpose**
Stage 1	Survey Questionnaire 1	To collect quantitative evidence pre-coaching to provide benchmark data
Stage 2	Survey Questionnaire 2	To collect quantitative evidence post-coaching for comparative analysis overtime
Analysis	Quantitative Data Analysis	To generate emergent findings
Stage 3	Qualitative Research Interview 1	To collect qualitative evidence of coaching effectiveness. Stage 3 Interviews were used to collect more general and immediate views about coaching effectiveness
Stage 4	Qualitative Research Interview 2	To collect qualitative evidence of coaching effectiveness. Stage 4 interviews were more in-depth and were used to provide further detail and meaning to the emergent findings from stages 1,2 and 3.
Analysis	Qualitative Data Analysis	To analyse findings from stages 3 and 4
Integration	Quantitative and Qualitative Data Integration	To integrate findings from all stages for discussion

Figure 3.2: Research Design



3.8 Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure was carried out in four stages across three different time points, details are as follows:

3.8.1 Stage One

This occurred at time point one (T1) and involved collecting baseline data from the coachees using questionnaire one. It was important to collect these data before coaching sessions began, in order to establish pre coaching measures. Before participants were invited to complete the questionnaires, an introductory letter was sent out via email by the member of staff responsible for the coaching programme within the organisation (see Appendix B). The letter explained the rationale and aims of the research process, which were to provide the organisation with information to help assess the success of the coaching intervention. Participants were reassured about the anonymity of the process to help eliminate any anxieties or barriers to participation, and dispel any associated concerns over confidentiality. The invitation stressed that participation was voluntary to avoid selection bias, and was open to all who were involved in the coaching programme, irrespective of rank or time served in the organisation. The letter also reassured respondents that replies would be sent directly to the researcher who was independent of the organisation, and full contact details were provided at Manchester Business School so that participants could contact the researcher directly if they had any concerns they wished to discuss. After an introduction to the process, participants were then invited to complete questionnaire one; they were encouraged to do this through an online questionnaire system for ease of use, although they were also given the option to complete the questionnaire using a hard copy. Reminders were sent out by email by the organisation after an initial two week period to encourage an increase in numbers, as participation was slow to begin with.

3.8.2 Stage Two

This occurred at time point two (T2) between nine to ten months after coaching had begun and involved collecting longitudinal data post coaching from the coachees. Similarly as with stage one, the data collection procedure involved administering an online questionnaire (questionnaire two) to all the coachees taking part in the coaching programme. However, emphasis was placed on encouraging those participants who had

already completed the first questionnaire, in order to secure a matched sample group. A total of four reminders were sent out via email over a period of eight weeks by the organisation to help increase participation, with some additional reminder phone calls by the champion of the project. A final total matched sample group of 29 participants was established. There were some difficulties experienced in increasing the sample size, in some cases people had not completed the first questionnaire which made them ineligible for inclusion, and in other cases participants had either left the organisation, had not continued with the programme, or gone on maternity leave. Once again participants were given the choice of using a hard copy which was sent out via the post, as in some cases difficulties were experienced using the online system, e.g. if responses were not recorded within a certain time frame the on line system cut out and responses were lost, which increased the difficulties of collecting the data. As a safety measure, and to make the process more accessible to respondents, two weeks before the cut off point all remaining respondents were sent hard copies through the post with reply paid envelopes.

3.8.3 Stage Three

Stage three of the research design involved collecting qualitative data from 10 coachees of the original sample of 29. The data was collected at time point two (T2) nine-ten months post coaching, immediately after the coaching sessions had ended. The purpose of collecting data at this point was to capture thoughts and views about the coaching experience immediately after the process had finished so that views would be fresh in participant's minds. Participants were selected for interview on the basis on the intensity of their experience, i.e., only coachees with a minimum of six sessions were chosen from the group (sampling strategy detailed further on). The rationale for the interview sampling strategy in stage three and four is detailed further on in this chapter. The purpose of stages three and four of the research was to explore emergent themes from stages one and two, in order to provide a richer data set.

3.8.4 Stage Four

Stage four of the research involved in-depth interviews with the same 10 coachees from stage three. These interviews were carried out six months post coaching at time point three (T3) and were used to explore in greater depth the findings and emergent themes from stages one and two. The framework and structure of the interviews reflect the key

areas highlighted in the literature review which are captured in the research objectives and questions.

3.9 The Research Organisation

The research was carried out within a large government agency which was seeking to achieve performance management improvements through the introduction of a coaching culture. During the period when coaching took place the organisation was undergoing a period of transformational change driven by external and internal pressures. By 2010 there was a directive to reduce staff by 33% and to cut the administration budget by £30 million. Employees were facing redundancies and many job roles were under threat. During the time of research, 30% of the organisation's directors and 30% of the senior management team lost their jobs. A new executive board was selected with a new CEO appointed, and six months later a new organisational structure was introduced which involved radical changes to the organisation. Regional offices were centralised under three new directorates; corporate services, service delivery and commissioning. These changes proved difficult for the organisation as a large proportion of its work force comprised of long term employees who had been with the organisation for more than 15 years, and held a strong value for stability. Conceivably this represented a work force that was inflexible to manage change as effectively as was needed. The organisation also faced an additional dilemma in that over 95% of appraisal ratings were rated at success or exceptional, however, the organisation was only reaching 50% of their corporate targets. In recognition of the need to align skills, appraisal ratings and corporate targets, a decision was made to introduce a management development programme, supported by a coaching programme. The rationale behind the coaching intervention was to develop a coaching approach to improve performance management within the organisation. The aim was to develop potential of staff, and improve their capability to raise performance by strengthening management and leadership skills. Additionally, coaching was seen as a mechanism for equipping people with the necessary skills to engage in difficult conversations and thereby, assist in addressing under-performance issues. In terms of success, the organisation has recently been awarded the IIP accreditation (Investors in People) and one of the comments made in the audit was that the strong coaching culture of the organisation had been instrumental in facilitating this award. There were several reasons why the organisation invested in coaching these were: to support the organisation in dealing with future changes and re-structuring; to retain talent; to manage staff performance and to develop staff potential.

An investment of £150,000 was made to achieve these aims through developing a coaching culture within the organisation.

3.10 The Coaching Intervention

In order to enhance the organisation's performance management through the development of people, a *Management Skills Programme* was introduced, which was supported by a coaching programme. The coaching technique used in the coaching programme was designed around the Egan solution focused approach, based on the 5 'S' Model: Situation, symptoms, source, shift, solution (Egan, 1998); this provided the foundation and basic model used in the coach training. The coach training was designed to equip coaches with the knowledge to begin coaching and mentoring relationships and to develop confidence in managing these relationships. The focus of the training was on active learning through group discussions, skills practice and practical exercises. The coach training objectives were as follows:

- Distinguish between coaching, consulting, counselling and mentoring
- Contracting
- Conducting effective coaching skills
- Delivering constructive feedback
- Assessment of strengths and development areas
- Benchmarking against coaching standards

The number of coaching sessions and duration of the coaching varied from coachee to coachee; this was agreed on an individual basis during the initial contracting stage between the coach and coachee. It must be noted however, that this thesis does not seek to explore coaching models or techniques specifically and therefore, further exploration of the coaching technique used, i.e. the Egan model, is not carried out within this study. All coaches involved in the coaching programme were required to attend a three day intensive training programme. This provided the coaches with the necessary skills to begin working as a coach and established some consistency towards the delivery of coaching. In addition to the three day training programme all coaches were involved in an additional full day workshop of peer coaching; the purpose of this was to provide a safe environment where coaches could apply theory to practice, develop confidence and strengthen competency.

3.10.1 The Coaching Objectives

- Create a coaching contract that included Specific Measurable Attainable Realistic Timely coaching objectives
- Coaching objectives directly related to improving capacity to deliver business objectives
- Regular coaching sessions
- Coaching was designed to help accurately assess skills, knowledge and levels of competence
- Coaching serves as an enabler to drive performance and development

3.10.2 The Coaching Outcomes

- Demonstrate how coaching contributed to improving work performance
- Demonstrate how coaching resulted in organisational benefits (directly)
- Demonstrate how coaching resulted in organisational benefits (indirectly)
- Demonstrate how coaching enabled the coachee to contribute in ways they could not do before coaching
- Improve confidence in fulfilling job role
- Increase performance ratings
- More likely to stay with the organisation as a result of coaching
- Improve leadership skills

The coaching evaluation carried out as part of this research was intended to assist the organisation evaluate the coaching process by providing evidence in support of coaching effectiveness, measured by performance, commitment and 'extra-role' activities. Additional information about meta-cognition and interpersonal communication, will also provide some useful evidence, which links to the organisations coaching outcomes in terms of improved confidence levels, whether the individual is likely to stay with the organisation as a result of coaching, and by providing an indication about the coachee's capability to contribute more fully to the organisation as a result of coaching. However, it is worth noting that the coaching programme was carried out during a time of organisational transformation, which may have had an impact on outcomes and participation rates. This will inevitably also have had an impact on the psychological

disposition of the participants taking part in the evaluation to varying degrees. This needs to be taken into consideration as part of the research findings.

3.11 The Coaches

The coach/coachee selection process was fairly unstructured, all managers wanting to engage in coaching were able to select from a pool of eighty coaches, all of whom had undergone the same foundation level coach training described earlier. Selection was based on location, availability, workload and personal preference. Within the sample a total of eighteen coaches were involved in delivering coaching, twelve male coaches and six female coaches. However, whilst it is important to acknowledge the potential nested nature of the data, in that some coachees had the same coach, and coaches themselves differed in terms of age, gender, tenure and general life and work experience, during any coaching intervention differences of this nature are inevitable and unavoidable. It must be noted also that exploring the effects of coaching techniques and models on coaching outcomes is both interesting and necessary for coaching to advance; in terms of the current study this falls outside the research aims and objectives. From a practical perspective, an attempt to manage variance in coaching technique was dealt with by providing all coaches with the same coach training, which ensured some consistency in approach. From a methodological perspective details of how these types of variance were controlled for during data analysis is provided later on in this chapter.

3.12 Ethics

Whilst the researcher is not a member of the British Psychological Society (BPS), a commitment to respecting and adopting the BPS ethical guidelines was maintained throughout, as were the ethical guidelines set out by the University of Manchester and Manchester Business School. These were supported throughout the duration of the research to ensure good practice, and included confidentiality and anonymity reassurances and guarantees. (It should be noted that the researcher's supervisor and co-supervisor are both members of the British Psychological Society). Whilst there was no formal commitment or compulsory element of the evaluation, participants were encouraged to take part in the audit so that the organisation could help improve and refine further coaching programmes, and could also use the data collected to help validate and justify coaching support for the future. Participants were provided with the objectives and aims of the coaching audit and were reassured of the confidential nature

of the research. They were informed that identities would be kept anonymous and withheld from research findings. All questionnaire responses and interview data was submitted directly to the researcher, the contents of which were not revealed and were used for research analysis only. All communication with participants was undertaken with the full consent of the organisation and it was made clear that there would be no negative consequences for those who chose not to participate.

3.13 Sample

Employees from the research organisation who were taking part in the coaching programme were all invited to take part in the coaching audit; this original group included eighty five participants. Within the organisation individuals who had agreed coaching with their line manager as a way of meeting a performance development objective, were eligible for a coach. Priority was given to those members of the organisation who were part of the following development programmes: Management Skills programme (for new managers); Accelerated Development Programme (talent management); Relationship Manager Training Programme (individual's working with suppliers). The majority of the original group of eighty five were from the Management Skills Programme. Participation was done on a voluntary basis to encourage a random sample free from selection bias. The final sample comprised of 29 coachees, with approximately a quarter of the sample being male and three quarter's female. Although there were more respondents (n=34) for questionnaire one at the first time point (T1), a matched sample was required to track progress over time, therefore, only those respondents who completed both questionnaires at both time points were included in the final sample (n=29). The sample was not restricted to level or position within the organisation, the only pre-requisites for inclusion was participation in the coaching programme, and completion of both questionnaires. The sample for the qualitative research interviews also involved a matched sample of 10 coachees from the same initial sample of 29 (details of the sampling strategy follows). Each of the 10 interview participants were interviewed at both time points T3 (immediately after coaching) and T4 (six months after the final coaching session). The qualitative data from stages three and four is presented as idiographic case studies.

3.14 Attrition

As with any longitudinal piece of research it was anticipated that there would be participants who, would not be able to take part across all time points of the study. There are several reasons for this which includes: work commitments, absence, leaving the organisation and maternity. The original number of participants at time point one was 34, which reduced to 29 at time point two.

The following sections provide details of the methods of data collection and analysis, firstly for the quantitative data (stages one and two), and then for the qualitative data (stages three and four).

3.15 Quantitative Data Collection

The method of data collection used to gather the quantitative data was survey questionnaires, which involved designing two questionnaire instruments. The purpose of the questionnaires was to provide information pre and post coaching about the coachee, and post coaching data about the coach. The information was gathered from the coachee, thus providing the coachee perspective. The areas explored were those identified as being important to coaching effectiveness, where research gaps had been highlighted after a thorough literature review. The specific areas covered included: meta-cognition, interpersonal communication skills, and core competencies of the coach, expectations/attitude relating to the coaching process, and a range of individual and organisational coaching outcomes, including work performance, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Both questionnaire instruments used in this study use a seven point likert scale. This type of response scale is often used in questionnaire design where respondents are required to indicate their level of agreement to a statement. It is a bipolar scaling method that measures a positive or negative response to a statement. A seven point scale was used to increase the sensitivity of the responses and create more variance in the response data. A summary of the questionnaires is presented in table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3 - *Summary of the Survey Questionnaire Instruments*

Questionnaire	Completed by:	Stage	Time Point	Duration into study
Questionnaire one	Coachee rates Self	1	T1	Pre coaching
Questionnaire two	Coachee rates Self Coachee rates Coach	2	T2	9-10 months

3.16 Questionnaire - Core Content

Details of the content of each section of the questionnaires are described below: the core content was almost the same for both questionnaires (as repeat measures were sought) with two sections which differed. Section five relates to questionnaire two only, and section eight relates to questionnaire one only. Questionnaire one was used at time point one (T1) pre coaching, in order to establish base line data, questionnaire two was used post coaching at time point two (T2) to gather views after receiving coaching. An overview of the content of each questionnaire (one and two) is presented below in tables 3.4 and 3.5 respectively. This provides an outline of the different sections covered, detailing what each section seeks to measure, highlighting the link between each section and the research objectives and research questions. It also provides a summary of how many items are being measured for each section.

The measurement scales used in the questionnaires include a mix of established and bespoke measures; some of which have been developed by other researchers, and some of which have been designed specifically for use in this study by the researcher. A detailed description of the published scales and bespoke measurements follows later on in this chapter. (See Appendix C and D for full details of each questionnaire).

Table 3.4: *Questionnaire One – Stage One (T1)*

How Relates To Research Objectives	Section	Title	What Is Measured	Number Of Items
Meta Cognitive Skills **Objective 1** (Questions: 1,2,3)	Section 1	Individual Factors	Self-Esteem	7
			Self-Efficacy Coaching Objectives	20 1
			Private Self-Consciousness (Self-awareness)	21
	Section 2	About You and Work	Locus of Control	16
Interpersonal skills (Coachee) **Objective 2 (a)** (Questions: 4,5,6)	Section 3	Communication	Interpersonal Skills Communication Skills Receptiveness	4 6 4
Coaching Attitude (Coachee) **Objective 2 (b)** (Questions: 7,8,9)	Section 4	Coaching Process	Coaching Attitude	8
	Section 5	(Questionnaire 2 only)		
Coaching Outcomes **Objective 4** (Questions: 13)	Section 6	About You and the Organisation	Organisational Commitment (Affective Commitment)	9
			Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	10
	Section 7	Job Performance	Job Performance	1
Bio Data	Section 8	Demographics	Biographical Data	6

Table 3.5: *Questionnaire Two – Stage Two (T2)*

How Relates To Research Objectives	Section	Title	What Is Measured	Number Of Items
Meta Cognitive Skills **Objective 1** (Questions: 1,2,3)	Section 1	Individual Factors	Self-Esteem	7
			Self-Efficacy	20
			Private Self-Consciousness (Self-awareness)	21
	Section 2	About You and Work	Locus of Control	16
Interpersonal skills (Coachee) **Objective 2 (a)** (Questions: 4,5,6)	Section 3	Communication	Interpersonal Skills Communication Skills Receptiveness	4 6 4
Coaching Attitude (Coachee) **Objective 2 (b)** (Questions: 7,8,9)	Section 4	Coaching Process	Coaching Attitude Improvements to Process	8 3
Interpersonal skills (Coachee) **Objective 3** (Questions: 10,11,12)	Section 5	About Your Coach	Core Competencies Interpersonal skills Communication skills	14 4 3
Coaching Outcomes **Objective 4** (Questions: 13)	Section 6	About You and the Organisation	Organisational Commitment (Affective Commitment)	9
			Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	10
	Section 7	Job Performance	Job Performance	1

A detailed description of the different sections covered in the above tables (3.4 and 3.5) now follows:

Section 1 (Individual Factors) and **Section 2** (About You and Work), were designed to find out more about the meta-cognitive and self-evaluation processes involved in self-reflection to offer a psychological perspective and establish individual beliefs about the self. For section one there were seven items used to measure self-esteem, twenty items used to measure self-efficacy, twenty one items used to measure self-awareness (private self-consciousness). For section two, sixteen items were used to measure locus of control. These two sections were the same for both questionnaires. In questionnaire one, an additional item was also included to find out more about the coaching objectives.

Section 3 (Communication) was designed to measure behaviours and attitudes associated with effective communication, interpersonal skills and receptiveness. There were four items included to measure interpersonal skills, six items to measure communication skills and four items to measure receptiveness. The areas covered in this section involved views about being friendly and approachable, being an effective communicator, willingness to share personal information, openness to change, receptiveness to feedback etc. This section was the same for both questionnaires.

Section 4 (Coaching Process) was designed to measure a range of factors associated with expectations and attitude towards the coaching process, this included things like whether participants expected coaching to be challenging, if they believed it would help their levels of performance, raise their self-awareness, whether they believed it would help improve goal setting and goal attainment. There were eight core items used to measure attitude/expectations, however a further three items were included in questionnaire two to measure improvements, which explored things such as whether individuals found coaching worthwhile or whether they felt more motivated as a result of coaching.

Section 5 was used in questionnaire two only, the purpose of which was to explore the skills of the Coach (About Your Coach). This section was designed to explore a range of factors associated with the coach's role based around interpersonal communication. A total of twenty items were covered divided into core competencies (fourteen items), interpersonal skills (four items) and communication skills (three items) of the coach. This included things such as the communication style of the coach, views about whether it

was important to have a good relationship with the coach for coaching to be successful, was the coach enthusiastic, did they provide useful feedback, did they offer emotional support, were they credible, did they behave professionally, did the coach manage expectations and were they clear about what they could and couldn't offer, was the gender of the coach important for a good coaching relationship, was equality important and also would they have felt more reassured if the coach had been external.

The next two sections explored coaching outcomes. **Section 6** (About You and the Organisation), **Section 7** (Work Performance), Section 6 used nine items to measure organisational commitment (affective commitment) and ten items to measure organisational citizenship behaviour, both of which were designed to find out about levels of commitment towards the organisation and extra-role activity; Section 7 used one item to measure job performance.

Section 8 was included in questionnaire one only and was concerned with Demographics. This was designed to collect biographical data about the participant sample. A total of six items were used and the type of data collected included; gender, age, ethnicity, role within the organisation, management level and length of service.

3.17 Measurement Scales

The criteria for scale inclusion in the survey design was based on several factors: the reliability and validity of the scale; academic literature review and empirical evidence supporting the construct; suitability and appropriateness of the scale to measure the topic area; availability of alternative measures; length and ease of use and user compatibility. Details of the measures used in the questionnaires, including a justification for their selection follows, including a summary table of scale reliabilities.

3.17.1 Self-Esteem (Section 1)

Following a full review of the literature in chapter two, it appears that very little research has been carried out to examine the role of self-esteem within coaching. However, this appears to be an important area for further research, particularly because of the role of self-belief within self-regulation, which is an important part of the coaching process (Grant, 2001). Furthermore, research suggests that the impact of self-esteem on behaviour is important, (Chen, Gully, Eden, 2004), and links have been established also

with motivation (Gardener and Pierce, 1998). Within the coaching research literature however, there is little empirical research which examines the role of self-esteem in coaching, therefore, highlighting a research gap and justifying a strong rationale for inclusion of a measure of self-esteem. The scale used to measure self-esteem is the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) (Rosenberg, 1965), and the arguments for inclusion of this measure may be summarized as follows: (1) The RSE is the most widely used scale for self-esteem (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991) and has received more psychometric analysis and empirical validation than any other self-esteem measure (Byrne, 1996); (2) the scale has versatility and may be shortened without compromising the measurement (Gray-Little et al, 1997); (3) the scale is not too long and therefore, user friendly; (4) the scale has strong reliability, studies have reported cronbach's alpha reliabilities for the RSE ranging from .72 to .88 (Gray-Little et al, 1997); (5) the topic of self-esteem is established within the literature (Chen, Gully, Eden, 2004), although further investigation is needed within coaching research (Grant, 2001); (6) the construct of self-esteem is an important meta-cognitive process involved in self-regulation which is an important part of the coaching process, therefore, highly relevant for a study on coaching effectiveness offering a psychological perspective (Grant, 2001). In this current study the self-esteem scale comprised seven items with corrected cronbach's's alpha scores of .91 (time point 1) and .91 (time point 2). A seven point likert scale was used to record responses ranging from: 1 – strongly disagree to, 7 – strongly agree. A high score suggests high self-esteem and a low score indicates low self-esteem. A sample of the items used included: *I feel a strong sense of self-worth*, *I feel good about myself* and *I have a positive self-image.* Whilst there are a number of measures which exist to measure self-esteem, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) (Rosenberg, 1965) is by far the most widely used scale which has received more psychometric analysis and empirical validation than any other self-esteem measure (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991; Byme, 1996; Gray-Little et al, 1997) and for this reason, the scale was selected for use in the current study. Although alternative measures are available further research into their psychometric properties is still needed (Bosson et al, 2000). These measures include: Single Item Self-Esteem measure (SISE) (Robins et al, 2001); Self-Liking and Competence Scale (SLC) (Tafarodi and Swann, 1995); Self-Attributes Questionnaire (SAQ) (Pelham and Swann, 1989); Implicit Association Test (IAT) (Greenwald and Farnham, 2000); Collective Self-Esteem Scale (CSES). In terms of the single item measure scale (SISE), the main critique indicates that single item measures are less reliable than multiple item measures and have less construct reliability (Gray-Little et al, 1997). In terms of the implicit measures of self-esteem, such as those listed above

(SLC; SAQ; IAT), these were not used for two reasons: firstly they seek to tap into implicit or sub-conscious areas outside awareness, which is less relevant for this current study, and whilst this may be theoretically compelling, generalised self-esteem which looks at broad schemas and perceptions of the self which are explicit, was thought to be more aligned with the research objectives and appropriate for a study of coaching; and secondly, implicit measures have been criticised for their lack of psychometric validity and therefore, further research is needed (Bosson et al, 2000). With regards the Collective Self-Esteem Scale (CSES) this measure is less appropriate within the current study as it seeks to explore the social or collective identity as opposed to the self-concept relating to personal identity, which is more relevant for the area of coaching and current research objectives.

3.17.2 Self-Efficacy (Section 1)

Following a full review of the literature with regards self-efficacy in chapter two, it is clear that the relationship between self-efficacy, attitude and behaviour is important (Gardener and Pierce, 1998), and whilst is has raised some attention in the coaching research literature, (Diedrich, 1996; Grant, 2001), there are few studies which offer empirical evidence examining this relationship in any depth, highlighting a research gap. It has been established that self-efficacy plays an important role in job performance (Chen, Gully, Eden, 2004); motivation (Audia, Locke and Smith, 2000) and goal setting (Ehrlinger and Dunning, 2003), factors which are salient within coaching, therefore, providing a strong justification for inclusion of a measure of self-efficacy within the current study. The self-efficacy scale used in this research is based on the General Self-Efficacy Scale (SGSE) developed by Sherer et al (1982) and a summary of the rationale for including this measure may be summarized as follows: (1) The SGSE is the most widely used scale to measure general self-efficacy beliefs, and whilst initially developed for clinical and personality research, it has long and widely established use within organisational settings (Chen, Gully and Eden, 2001); (2) the measure shows good reliability with Cronbach's alpha scores of moderate to high, ranging from .76 to .89 (Gardener and Pierce, 1998); (3) the topic of self-efficacy is highly relevant for a study of coaching (Grant, 2001); (4) provides empirical evidence of self-efficacy within coaching; (5) the construct addresses coaching from a psychological perspective (Bluckert, 2005); (6) inclusion of a measure of self-efficacy meets a research gap and addresses the aims and objectives of this thesis. A twenty item scale was used in this research with cronbach's alpha scores of .95 (time point 1) and .88 (time point 2). A seven point likert

scale was used to record responses ranging from: 1 – strongly disagree to 7 – strongly agree. A high score indicates that someone has high self-efficacy and a low score indicates low self-efficacy. A sample of the items used included: *when I set goals for myself I rarely achieve them, if I am in trouble at my work, I can usually think of something to do,* and *I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events in my job.* Whilst alternative scales to measure generalised self-efficacy (Chen et al, 2001; Schwarzer and Jerusalem,1995) were considered, a decision was made to use Sherer's version of the measure, because it is the most established and widely used measure of generalised self-efficacy, with over 200 published studies to support it (Chen et al, 2001). Although the scale was originally developed for clinical and personality research, it has been used in organisational settings. It has good reliability and validity data to support it, reporting internal consistency reliability which has been moderate to high (.76-.89) (Cable and Judge, 1994; Gardner and Pierce, 1998). In comparison, the scale used in the current study uses a 17 item scale as opposed to 8 items in Chen et al's (2001) scale and 10 items in Schwarzer and Jersualem's (1995) scale, and reports a slightly higher cronbach alpha rating of .88, compared to .85 for the other two measures. All three measures are reported to be psychologically sound (Scherbaum et al, 2006) and therefore, the more comprehensive measure with the greatest amount of research to support it was selected.

3.17.3 Private Self-Consciousness (Section 1)

Following an extensive review of the literature, it appears that very little research currently exists which investigates self-awareness within coaching. Indications suggest however, that this would be a highly desirable area for further investigation (Grant, 2001) because many of the processes involved in coaching such as: self-monitoring and self-evaluation, require a certain degree of self-consciousness and self-awareness (Wicklund, 1975; Grant, 2000). Private self-consciousness has been discussed in the literature as a measurement of an individual's internal state awareness (Fenigstein et al, 1975) and therefore, appears to be an appropriate measure to include in the present study. There are several strong arguments in support of including a measure of private self-consciousness, these are summarised as follows: (1) the scale is supported by cronbach's alpha reliability scores of between .62-.8; (2) the construct has generated interest and discussion in the academic literature (Grant, 2001) and is linked to many areas of interest within this study, such as: performance (Hollenbeck and Williams, 1987; Church, 1997); psychological mindedness (Bluckert, 2005); attribution theory and locus

of control (Duval and Wicklund, 1973); interpersonal effectiveness (Christensen, 1982); self-reflection, self-awareness, self-evaluation and self-monitoring (Carver and Scheier, 1998; Grant, 2001); (3) private self-consciousness needs further investigation and empirical testing within a coaching context; (4) lack of viable alternative measures for self-awareness; (5) the construct addresses coaching effectiveness from a psychological perspective, thus meeting the research aims relating to meta-cognition; (6) inclusion of the measure addresses research gaps and therefore, meets the aims and objectives of the current study. Whilst acknowledging the criticisms of this scale relating to inconsistency of results (Anderson, Bohon and Berrigan, 1996) and associations with depressive and psychopathic tendencies (Trapnell and Campbell, 1988); the above reasons justify the inclusion of the scale in the current study. The scale used to measure self-awareness in this research was a modified version of the scale designed by Fenigstein, Scheier and Buss's (1975) to measure Public and Private Self-Consciousness. Items of interest relating to private self-consciousness were separated out from public self-consciousness questions in order to provide a more relevant scale for this study. The modified version consisted of seven items, with reported cronbach's alpha scores of: .80 (time point 1) and .62 (time point 2). A seven point likert scale was used to record responses ranging from: 1 – strongly disagree to, 7 – strongly agree. A high score on the scale indicates high private self-consciousness (high self-awareness) and low scores suggest low private self-consciousness (low self-awareness). The final seven items used to measure self-awareness in this study included: (1) I'm generally attentive to my inner feelings; (2) I'm alert to changes in my mood; (3) I'm concerned about my style of doing things; (4) I'm self-conscious about the way I look; (5) I'm usually aware of my appearance; (6) I have trouble working when someone's watching me; (7) I get embarrassed very easily. Given the lack of alternative measures which exist to measure internal state awareness, and more specifically, self-awareness within coaching, the Private Self-Consciousness measure (Fenigstein et al, 1975) was used in the current study.

3.17.4 Locus of Control (Section 2)

An extensive review of the literature reveals a strong link between locus of control and work behaviour, in particular performance (Judge and Bono, 2001), which is highly relevant for a study on coaching effectiveness. However, whilst it has been suggested that locus of control influences behaviour, there has been mixed results (Grimes et al, 2004) and combined with a lack of research within the coaching literature specifically,

further investigation is needed. In the current study the scale used to measure Locus of Control was taken from the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) developed by Spector (1988), which was designed to be used in work settings. A summary and rationale for the inclusion of a measurement of locus of control follows: (1) Locus of control is an important variable for measuring behaviour in work settings (Blau, 1993) and the WLCS has been specifically designed for use in work settings; (2) it is believed that personal control over work settings may affect organisational factors such as motivation and job performance (Thomas et al, 2006) which are highly relevant for a study of coaching effectiveness; (3) higher correlations between organisational variables and locus of control have been reported compared to more general control outcome measures (Rotter, 1966; Hoff-Macan, Trusty and Trimble, 1996); (3) the WLCS has strong reliability measurements .79 (Spector, 1988); (4) the construct addresses the psychological dimensions of coaching; (5) research into locus of control within coaching meets an important research gap; (6) inclusion of this measure meets the aims and objectives of this study, specifically in terms of meta-cognition. The WLCS used comprised a sixteen item scale with equal balanced items to measure internal and external locus of control. The corrected cronbach's alpha scores were .85 (time point 1) and .90 (time point 2). A seven point likert scale was used to record responses ranging from: 1 – strongly disagree to, 7 – strongly agree. A high score on the scale indicates an internal locus of control, and low scores indicate an external locus of control. Some of the items included in the measure are as follows: *A job is what you make of it, promotions are usually a matter of good fortune* and *people who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it.* There have been many measures of locus of control which have been discussed in the literature these fall into broadly four different categories including: (1) General scales – Locus of Control (Rotter, 1966); Multidimensional Locus of Control (Levenson, 1974); Internal Control Index (Duttweiler, 1984); (2) Health related scales – Multi-Dimensional Health Locus of Control (Wallston, Wallston and de Vellis (1978); Mental Health Locus of Control (Wood and Letak, 1982); Health Specific Locus of Control (Lau and Ware, 1981); Weight Locus of Control (Saltzer, 1982); (3) Age related scales – Locus of Control Scale for Children (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973); A New Multi-Dimensional Children Locus of Control Scale (Richaud de Minzi, 1991); (4) Work related scales – Safety Locus of Control Scale (Jones and Wuebker, 1985); Career Locus of Control (Trice, Haire and Elliott, 1989); Work Locus of Control (Spector, 1988). The general, health and age related scales were not used in the current study as they are not appropriate within a work setting and seek to establish measures which do not relate to a coaching context. A more domain specific and work related scale was therefore, used in the current study

as this was thought to be more appropriate for use in an organisational setting and for a study of coaching effectiveness.

3.17.5 Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coachee / Coach) (Section 3 and 5)

An extensive review of the coaching research literature highlights areas which are important for coaching effectiveness, specifically drawing attention towards ideas relating to receptiveness and engagement within coaching (Hudson, 1999; Cairo and Dotlich, 1999; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008) and areas which relate to interpersonal communication (Kilburg, 2000; Bush, 2004). However, the empirical evidence to support and validate coaching effectiveness remains incomplete, with very few studies that provide robust measurements of effectiveness, highlighting gaps in the research. In order to address these research deficits a scale was designed to explore three key areas: (i) interpersonal skills e.g. empathy and consideration towards others; (ii) communication skills e.g. being open and honest in communication and (iii) receptiveness, e.g. openness to change or feedback, this draws on the coaching research literature and research into interpersonal communication (Hargie and Tourish, 2000; Clampitt, 2001; Hargie and Dickson, 2004). Justification for inclusion of this scale may be summarised as follows: (1) the scale is based on research which is highly relevant for coaching effectiveness (Sztucinski, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008); (2) the scale reported very high cronbach's alpha reliability and validity scores ranging between .79-.94; (3) the scale addresses coaching effectiveness specifically thereby meeting the aims and objectives of this study; (4) the research provides empirical evidence of effectiveness thus meeting a research gap; (5) the scale addresses factors relating to the coach specifically, which were highlighted in the literature as being critical for coaching effectiveness (Kilburg, 2000; Bush, 2004) thereby providing a more complete view of what constitutes coaching effectiveness. Two scales were designed, the first comprising of fourteen items which was used for the *coachee's*, the second scale a twenty one item scale included similar items to scale one, with some additions and was adapted to measure the *coach's* skills. It must be noted that the measure of the coach's interpersonal communication skills, measures perceived skills by the coachee, and not the actual skills of the coach. Reliability scores for the two scales are as follows: scale 1 IPC (Coachee) .78 (time point 1) .89 (time point 2) and for scale 2 IPC (Coach) .94 (time point 2 only). A seven point likert scale was used to record responses ranging from: 1 – strongly disagree to, 7 – strongly agree. A high score on the scale indicates strong interpersonal communication skills, and low scores indicate poor interpersonal

communication skills. Some of the items included in scale one IPC (Coachee) include: *I am open and honest in my communication, I am receptive to change* and *I am open to being challenged,* items included in scale two IPC (Coach) included: *my coach made me feel at ease, my coach provided useful feedback* and *my coach was credible.* In the absence of any specific measures to capture behaviours within coaching, specifically, behaviours identified as being relevant and important for effectiveness relating to openness, interpersonal communication and communication skills within coaching, a bespoke questionnaire was designed.

3.17.6 Coaching Attitude/Expectations (Section 4)

The literature reviewed in chapter two highlighted two areas which are relevant for a study on coaching effectiveness, these relate to the coachee's expectations and attitude towards the coaching intervention. The coaching research literature draws attention to these factors highlighting their importance for coaching effectiveness, whilst recognizing also the need for further investigation into these areas as empirical evidence is lacking (Feldman and Lankau, 2005; Bowles et al, 2007). In order to address the research gaps identified, a scale was designed, the rationale and justification for inclusion is summarized as follows: (1) attitude has been highlighted as being critical for engagement and buy-in within coaching (Bowles et al, 2007); (2) expectations are likely to influence experience, which is believed to affect ownership within coaching, this is likely to impact on coaching effectiveness (Sztucinski, 2001); (3) the scale reliability reported high levels ranging from .73-.93; (4) research into this topic meets the aims and objectives of this current study; (5) measurement of attitude/experience within coaching provides empirical evidence which has been lacking and thus meets a research gap. A scale was designed to measure attitude towards coaching, in order to explore an individual's expectations about the coaching process. The original scale included eight core items, which were reduced to a four item scale for time point 1, and a six item scale for time point 2. This was carried out in order to improve the reliability of the scales. The reported cronbach's alpha coefficients for the two time points were; .73 (time point 1) and .93 (time point 2) respectively. A seven point likert scale was used to record responses ranging from: 1 – strongly disagree to, 7 – strongly agree. A high score on the scale indicates a positive attitude towards coaching, and low scores indicate a negative attitude towards coaching. The common items included at both time points explored areas such as; *expectations about coaching being challenging*, *expectations about coaching being able to help improve performance* and *expectations about coaching*

being able to help improve effective working with others. At time point 2, additional items were included to explore improvements such as: *coaching being a positive experience, coaching being a worthwhile activity* and *as a result of coaching feeling more motivated to achieve goals.* In the absence of any specific measures to capture behaviours within coaching, specifically, behaviours identified as being relevant and important for effectiveness relating to attitude and expectations within coaching, a bespoke questionnaire was designed.

3.17.7 Organisational Commitment (Section 6)

An extensive review of the literature draws an important link between organisational commitment, which has a long established history of research within the field of organisational psychology (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mowday, 1998) and factors which have been highlighting within the coaching research literature as being critical for coaching effectiveness, specifically, commitment and engagement (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008), and job performance (Smith et al, 2003; Gong et al, 2009). The research draws particular attention to affective commitment which concerns emotional attachments to the organisation and is thought to be more strongly associated with performance outcomes (Riketta, 2002), performance being a fundamental part of coaching (Whitmore, 1996; Parsloe, 1999). The theory with regards organisational commitment suggests a link also with motivation (Vroom, 1964; Schein, 1980) a factor which is thought to strongly influence coaching effectiveness, with associations to self-efficacy and meta-cognition (Bandura, 1986), and motivational intent (Audia, Locke and Smith, 2000). Based on the literature review, a summary of the rationale and justification for inclusion of a measure of organisational commitment follows: (1) affective commitment is highly correlated with performance outcomes, drawing a strong link with coaching (Riketta, 2002; Gong et al, 2009), performance being an important goal of coaching (Whitmore, 1996; Grant, 2001); (2) organisational commitment is an important measure of organisational success, thus serving as a useful outcome measure within coaching at an organisational level (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Tsui et al, 1997; Pfeffer, 1998); (3) provides important empirical evidence of coaching success as currently little evidence exists within coaching research literature to examine organisational commitment as a coaching outcome, thus meeting a research gap; (4) organisational commitment is linked to organisational efficiency relating to recruitment costs, thus providing a useful measure of effectiveness (Reichheld, 1996); (5) provides good cronbach's alpha reliability measures .79 (Meyer and Allen, 1991); (6) addresses

research gaps in the literature relating to commitment, meeting aims and objectives of this study. The original scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) was designed to measure three aspects of commitment: emotional attachment (affective); costs associated with leaving (continuance); feelings of obligation (normative). In view of the fact that affective commitment is positively correlated with performance (Riketta, 2002; Gong et al, 2009) and coaching is primarily concerned with enhancing performance, the original nine item scale was reduced to a three item scale in order to measure affective commitment more accurately. This produced corrected cronbach's alpha coefficients of .76 (time point 1) and .79 (time point 2). A seven point likert scale was used to record responses ranging from: 1 – strongly disagree to, 7 – strongly agree. A high score on the scale indicates high affective commitment, and low scores indicate low affective commitment. The three items used to measure affective commitment are as follows: (1) I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own; (2) I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation; (3) I feel emotionally attached to this organisation.

3.17.8 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (Section 6)

A review of the literature reveals a link between organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007), although within the coaching literature studies are rare, which reveals a gap in the research. There are many benefits associated with encouraging organisational citizenship behaviour, such as voluntary extra-role contributions from employees, increased commitment towards the organization, and it has been argued that organisational citizenship behaviour contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance (Organ, 1997). It has been suggested that human resource practices which encourage empowerment are likely to encourage employees to engage in citizenship behaviour and in spite of a long history of research (LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002), ambiguity remains and evidence is still incomplete. Further research is still needed to investigate the mechanisms through which organisational citizenship behaviour is influenced (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Wolfe Morrison, 1996). The rationale and justification for inclusion of this measure may be summarised as follows: (1) a measure of organisational citizenship behaviour offers a psychological perspective into behaviours related to organisational effectiveness (Organ, 1997); (2) research into this area meets a research gap identified in the coaching research literature; (3) reliability measures for this construct are of an acceptable level .75 (Smith, Organ and Near, 1983); (4) inclusion of this measure provides evidence of what

influences extra role behaviour which are subtle and therefore, difficult to capture and measure (Smith, Organ and Near, 1983) meeting an important research gap; (5) close links have been established between this measure and another organisational outcome measure included in this study, namely, organisational commitment, offering a greater insight into how to influence organisational effectiveness through coaching. The scale used in this research comprised a ten item measure designed around the research on organisational citizenship behaviour (Smith, Organ and Near, 1983) and reported corrected cronbach's alpha coefficients of .75 (time point 1) and .75 (time point 2). A seven point likert scale was used to record responses ranging from: 1 – strongly disagree to 7 – strongly agree. A high score on the scale indicates high organisational citizenship behaviour, and low scores indicate low organisational citizenship behaviour. Some of the items included in the measure are as follows: *I am willing to work additional hours if needed, I am willing to volunteer to undertake additional tasks outside my job description* and *I am willing to offer a fair days work.*

A summary of the reliabilities and number of items for each measurement scale used at time point 1 (T1) and time point 2 (T2) is presented below in table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Summary of Scale Reliabilities

	Time point 1 (T1)		Time point 2 (T2)	
Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Self-Esteem	.91	7	.91	7
Self-Efficacy	.95	20	.88	20
Private Self-Consciousness	.80	7	.62	7
Locus of Control	.85	16	.90	16
Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coachee)	.78	14	.89	14
Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coach)	-	21	.94	21
Coaching Attitude	.73	4	.93	6
Organisational Commitment	.76	3	.79	3
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	.75	10	.75	10

3.18 Data Analysis - Quantitative

There were two principal types of quantitative analysis carried out, these include: paired sample *t*-tests and longitudinal hierarchical regression analysis.

3.18.1 Paired Sample t-Tests

The *t*-test is a parametric test used to determine whether two means are significantly different from one another. There are three types of *t*-tests; however, the one used in this research is the paired sample *t*-test. The paired sample *t*-test is used when comparing the means of two sets of observations from the same individuals. All *t*-tests require that the data are of at least interval level of measurement, are normally distributed and have equal variances. As the sample in this research is a matched sample involving the same individuals at both time points of data collection, the *t*-test was the most appropriate test to use. The purpose of using the test was to observe changes that took place during the coaching intervention. Inferences were then drawn that these changes were a result of coaching. However, because a control group was not used, additional data was collected using interviews, in order to reinforce and strengthen the evidence, to support the view that the observed effects were due to coaching.

3.18.2 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis utilises the presence of an association between two variables, i.e., a correlation, to predict the value of one variable (dependent variable) from those of another variable (independent variable). In regression the purpose is to estimate or predict some characteristics using the knowledge of other characteristics by constructing a regression equation (Kinnear and Gray 1997). This analysis is useful for the current study, as it enables the researcher to examine which factors influence coaching outcomes. Thus, this technique is crucial in fulfilling the research aims and objectives, particularly with respect to exploring coaching effectiveness by examining the relationships between individual differences in terms of meta-cognition, attitude and interpersonal communication and coaching outcomes.

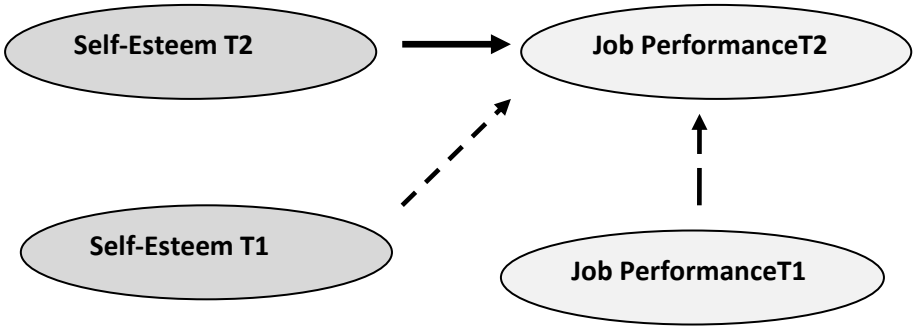
3.18.3 Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression

Longitudinal hierarchical regression analysis was the statistical test used to explore which factors are associated with change in coaching outcomes over time. This type of analysis builds upon inferences drawn from the *t*-test. The *t*-test identifies whether the independent variable increases or decreases during coaching, and the longitudinal regression then builds upon this analysis by exploring whether the increase/decrease in

the independent variable is associated with any additional change to the dependent variable (coaching outcomes) over time. The model uses a three step process, step one shows the dependent variable at T1 predicting the dependent variable at T2. Step two introduces the independent variable and tests the degree to which the independent variable at T1 is associated with the change in the dependent variable over time T1-T2. Step three introduces the independent variable at T2 and tests the degree to which the change in the independent variable T1-T2 is associated with change in the dependent variable T1-T2, exploring the degree to which change is associated with change. Statistically significant outcomes at step two indicate that the level of the independent variable T1 is an important factor to consider because it is associated with change in the dependent variable over time T1-T2, accounting for any additional variance which is observed. Significant results at step three indicate that change in the independent variable is associated with change in the dependent variable over time. When control groups are used, more definitive conclusions can be drawn about the causal and predictive relationships suggested by this type of regression analysis. In the absence of control groups, inferences may be drawn about the observed relationships with regards change over time, although further evidence to support this may be needed.

To illustrate and clarify the use of longitudinal hierarchical regression within a coaching setting an example is helpful involving self-esteem as the independent variable and job performance as the dependent variable (see figure 3.3 below). Using these variables the first stage uses the *t*-test to explore whether changes in self-esteem occur over time during coaching T1-T2 comparing mean scores against mean scores. In the second stage the longitudinal hierarchical regression draws upon the inference in stage one, i.e., that as a result of coaching changes occur to self-esteem, and seeks to explore the degree to which the level of self-esteem pre-coaching T1 predicts, or is associated with, changes in job performance over time T1-T2, up and above changes predicted by job performance at T1. Any additional variance that is predicted in step two therefore, suggests that the level of self-esteem T1 is an important factor to consider during coaching because of its relationship with changes in job performance over time T1-T2, suggesting that it is associated with, or predicts this change. In step three self-esteem at T2 is also introduced into the model to test the degree to which the change in levels of self-esteem over time T1-T2, is associated with, or predicts, the change in levels of job performance over time T1-T2, indicating that coaching may have a causal relationship, or be associated with this change, accounting for any additional variances in job performance being observed.

Figure 3.3 Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression – Three Step Model



(Job Performance DV – Self-Esteem IV)

Step One DVT1

Step Two DVT1+IVT1

Step Three DVT1+IVT1+IVT2

3.18.4 Longitudinal Hierarchical Moderated Regression

Moderation occurs when the relationship between two variables depends on the level of a third variable which is referred to as the moderating variable or the moderator. The effect of a moderating variable is characterised in statistical terms as an *interaction* effect. The moderator affects the strength of the relation between the dependent and independent variables. Specifically within a correlation analysis framework, a moderator is a third variable that affects the zero-order correlation between two other variables (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Moderating variables contrast with mediating variables, in that they pinpoint the conditions under which an independent variable exerts its effects on a dependent variable. An example may help to illustrate the effect of moderation within coaching in this study, see figure 3.4 below.

Figure 3.4: Moderation Regression Model within Coaching

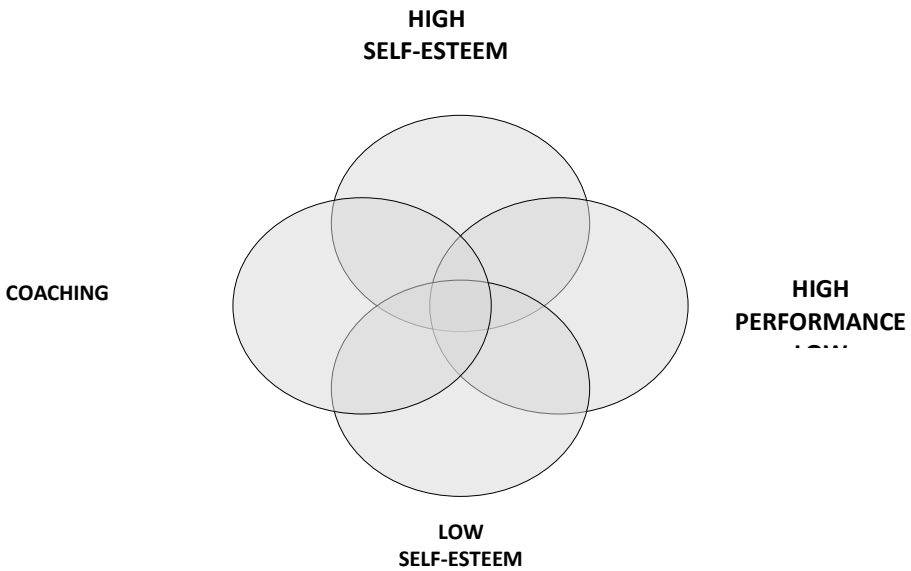


Figure 3.4 has been used as an example to help illustrate moderated regression analysis, and shows the interaction effect between self-esteem (high/low) and job performance (high/low) within coaching, where self-esteem acts as a moderator of performance, the strength of which influences the performance outcome. Moderation has been used in this research to help identify those groups who are more likely to be influenced by coaching, e.g. if there was a statistically significant result within this moderation regression, it might indicate that those with high self-esteem/low performance are more likely to be influenced by coaching than for example other groups within this category such as those with low self-esteem/low performance. Effects do not occur equally for all, and moderated regression analysis seeks to identify the specific groups affected, and highlight under which conditions these effects are likely to occur.

3.18.5 Controlling for Variables

There were a number of variables which were included in the study but which were not controlled for in the regression analysis these include: gender, age, tenure, ethnicity and job role. It was decided that these variables could not be included in the regression models, and thus controlled for, owing to the small sample size and the resultant loss of statistical power. Each time a control variable is added to a regression analysis one degree of freedom is lost, and any reduction in the degrees of freedom reduces

statistical power (Cohen, 1988). This is particularly relevant for small sample sizes (as in the current study), where there is less room for error. In order to maximise statistical power and therefore, the significance of the findings, which is especially relevant for small samples, it is important to keep the regression analysis simple, this can be achieved by limiting the number of variables which are introduced. A decision was made therefore, to carry out regressions using single variables, avoiding the problems associated with statistical power and multiple regressions which introduce multiple control variables, and reduce statistical power (Cohen, 1988).

The following example illustrates the effect on the degree of freedom each time a control variable is added to a regression analysis, highlighting the negative impact this has on statistical power. The equation for calculating degrees of freedom in a regression analysis is N-*k*-1, where N=sample size and *k*=number of variables. In the current study the sample size is 29 cases, the following examples illustrate the effect on the degrees of freedom when multiple variables are added in regression analysis;

Formula	N-*k*-1		
Stage 1:	(1 variable)	df=27	(29-1 variable, less 1)
Stage2:	(2 variables)	df=26	(29-2 variables, less 1)

3.18.6 Controlling for Coaches

It must be noted that several of the coachees had the same coach during the coaching process, which ordinarily might need to be controlled for during data analysis. However, for the same reasons described above, the same argument applies to the situation relating to the coach. A decision was made not to control for this variable as the introduction of multiple variables during regression reduces the statistical power of the analysis (Cohen, 1988). All coaches undertook the same basic coach training, based on the five ‘S’ model, which introduced some consistency in coaching approach. However, to control for any number of multiple variables, of which coaching style may be one, was avoided during regression in order to optimise statistical power. To overcome some of the problems associated with nested data of this type, additional data is provided about the coach in the qualitative findings which further strengthens the overall evidence.

3.18.7 Variables Excluded

The variables that were excluded from the regression analysis include: age, gender, ethnicity, tenure, grade, job role, coaches and coaching technique. The rationale for not controlling for these variables has been dealt with under the earlier section *3.18.5 Controlling for Variables* and concerns optimisation of power with small sample sizes (Cohen, 1988).

3.18.8 Missing Data

Current best practice would advocate the use of a multiple imputation model to deal with missing data (Little and Rubin, 1987; Schafer, 1997; Schafer and Graham, 2002). However, these methods require large data sets and so were not deemed appropriate for the current study. Traditional single imputation methods, such as mean imputation, are known to have a large effect on sample variances within small samples reducing the overall variance in the data set. Given the lack of statistical power within the current sample (*see controlling for variables*) the reduction in overall variance would make locating significant effects within the regression models difficult. Therefore single imputation methods were also deemed inappropriate. A pragmatic solution was adopted therefore, to not treat the missing values and instead to allow pairwise deletion within the regression models. Though not an ideal solution, as has been noted by Schafer and Graham (2002), this offers a simple solution when the amount of missing data is small. As previously discussed (under section *controlling for variables*), it is especially important within small samples to optimise statistical power and avoid any processes, which risks reducing the statistical power of analysis even further (Cohen, 1988). Though pairwise deletion will reduce the sample size, and therefore power, this was deemed more appropriate than using an imputation method, which may result in incorrect conclusions from the regression analysis. In summary, it was deemed that no results, due to the lack of statistical power, were preferable to biased results, due to inappropriate missing data methods.

3.19 Qualitative Data Collection

The principal method of data collection used to gather the qualitative data in the current study was the qualitative research interview. This method was used in stage three (T2, immediately after coaching) and stage four (T3, six months post coaching). The

rationale for using a qualitative research interview in particular, as opposed to other types of methods or interview techniques, e.g., structured interview, structured open-response interview etc., is that it fits well with the nature of the research. It is worthwhile considering the key arguments, criticisms and responses of this type of research method. The standardised and common criticisms of the qualitative research interview include: (1) lacks scientific rigour; (2) lacks objectivity; (3) unreliable; (4) lacks validity; (5) not a formalised method; (6) doesn't test hypotheses; (7) not inter-subjective; (8) not quantitative; (9) cannot generalise from the results; (10) results biased, not trustworthy (Kvale, 1994). In terms of the first criticism, that the qualitative research interview lacks scientific rigour, this leads to the question of how scientific knowledge is defined and without being drawn into the complexities of this debate it appears that the philosophical stance of the researcher, be it positivist or interpretivist will undoubtedly influence conclusions. Within psychology it has been argued that this philosophical debate has become outdated (Smith and Heshusius, 1986), whereby psychological research rarely fits a single objective paradigm (Tashakkor and Teddlie, 1998). When considering the other criticisms listed above (objectivity, reliability, validity etc), a common thread emerges which links to scientific rigour. The quantitative approach which is deemed scientific produces data which is testable, reproducible through repeated observations, yields the same results by different observers (inter-subjective) and produces data which can be generalised (Kvale, 1994). The argument suggests that in comparison, qualitative research is prone to researcher bias and is therefore subjective, typically producing large amounts of detailed information about a small number of settings, based on an assembly of anecdotes and personal impressions (Mays and Pope, 1995). This raises the important issue of reliability and validity which plagues the qualitative research interview method and lies at the heart of the criticism (Kvale, 1994; Mays and Pope, 1995). The quantitative researcher seeks to produce methods which can be reliably replicated by others, concerned that methods and approaches produce the same results across different samples and populations. The qualitative researcher in contrast, doesn't strive for the same level of objectivity, and rather than distancing themselves from the research, they seek to gain a richer overall picture of a topic (Kvale, 1983; Mays and Pope, 1995). Additionally, the potential for researcher or interviewer bias should not be ignored; the researcher needs to consciously set aside their prejudices or preconceived assumptions before data analysis, and should attempt to verify that the themes and coding used are reliable. This can be achieved using third party or inter-rater comparisons. It could be argued that all research is selective, and both types of research: quantitative or qualitative have their strengths and weaknesses. Just as the

quantitative researcher relies upon respondents sharing a uniform meaning, qualitative research faces the challenge that observations rely on a single researcher's interpretation, and it has been suggested that quantitative methods may be reliable but not valid, and qualitative methods are valid but not reliable (Britten and Fisher, 1993). In terms of qualitative research, the question of validity is concerned with whether the collection method actually measures what it claims to measure and a study may be considered valid if it is thought to truly examine the topic it claims to examine. The challenge therefore, for the qualitative research interview, is whether the interpretations made by the researcher are valid. One way to enhance validation may be through the use of multiple viewpoints from colleagues or fellow researchers, or through convergent validation using triangulation (Reason and Rowan, 1981).

Having considered the main criticisms levelled at the qualitative research interview and qualitative research in general, it is worth considering the many benefits of using this approach, which serve as justification and rationale for selection of this method in the current study. It has been argued that the qualitative research interview is an appropriate method of gathering data where a quantitative study has been carried out first, and where qualitative data are required to validate particular measures, or to clarify and illustrate the meaning of the findings (King, 1994), which is particularly relevant to the current study. One of the key strengths of using the qualitative research interview technique is that it allows flexibility for exploration within the interview, which is very important for successful qualitative interviewing (King, 1994). This method primarily seeks to gather data about the research topic from the perspective of the interviewee, to understand how and why he or she comes to have this particular perspective (Kvale, 1984). Whilst qualitative research interviews may vary in focus, in the current study a narrow focus has been adopted based on the specific research topics defined by the research objectives. The qualitative research interview is used to explore how the interviewee's perceive and understand the research topics. There are four steps to carrying out the qualitative research interview: (1) defining the research questions; (2) creating the interview guide; (3) recruiting participants; (4) carrying out the interview. These steps were carried out and then the data was analysed. In terms of data analysis King (1994) argues, that there are no single set of rules for analysis of data from qualitative research interviews, and even the notion of working from a set of instructions has been criticised for being in conflict with the aims of flexibility and openness to the data, which is at the heart of qualitative research (Hycner, 1985). The method of data analysis used in the current study is the template technique (Crabtree and Miller, 1992).

The rationale for selecting this method of analysis is because it provides some structure to the data, based on categories and themes which are relevant to the research questions, whilst also providing flexibility to allow for revision of themes as the analysis and interpretation emerges (Crabtree and Miller, 1992). The patterns and themes which emerge are then interpreted qualitatively, rather than statistically, which is particularly suited to research where sample sizes are smaller.

3.20 Qualitative Sampling Strategy

Whilst there are no rules for sample size in qualitative research (Patton, 2002) the aim of the researcher is to seek to minimise the ambiguities that are inherent in qualitative research, and with this in mind purposeful sampling strategies are used to help increase the validity, meaning and insights that are generated from qualitative inquiry, where the focus is on selecting information rich cases rather than sample size (Patton, 2002). Purposeful sampling strategies are preferable to random probability sampling, which cannot accomplish what in-depth, purposeful samples can (Patton, 2002). Often sample sizes may appear small in qualitative research, when compared to quantitative research methods, where the purpose is to make generalisations from the sample to the population. However, the aim of qualitative research is to add depth and richness to the topic of enquiry, therefore, the sample size is of less importance. Purposeful sampling strategies are quite different from quantitative sampling techniques, their principal aim is to support the purpose and rationale of the study, the sample, therefore, must be judged in context. In the current study the purpose of the study is to understand more about coaching effectiveness, particularly from a psychological perspective, therefore, the sampling strategy has been carefully chosen to reflect and support the key aim of the study. The sampling strategy used in the current study was a *purposeful intensity sampling strategy* (Patton, 2002). This sampling technique seeks to find information-rich cases that manifest the topic of interest intensely. The rationale which underpins the intensity sampling technique is that it seeks excellent or rich examples of the phenomena of interest; this differs from *extreme* sampling techniques which select highly unusual cases. This approach to sampling selects cases which seek to elaborate findings by adding richness, depth and credibility. In the current study participants were selected on the basis of having an intense experience of coaching which was deemed to involve a minimum of six coaching sessions. The interview sample comprised of ten participants which represents thirty percent of the overall sample.

3.21 Idiographic Case Study

The qualitative research interviews are presented as idiographic case studies which provide an in-depth study of individual cases exploring specific things relating to coaching effectiveness. The idiographic case study is ideally suited to presenting data of this type as it seeks to understand the unique aspects of the individual, where the individual is seen as an entity with properties that set him/her apart from other individuals, the term deriving from the Greek word 'idios' meaning 'own' or 'private'. The idiographic case studies make use of data from two interviews which helps to overcome the disadvantages of using a singular interview technique and reliance on retrospective experience or poor recall memory (Ruspini, 1999). The idiographic case study is ideally suited to presenting qualitative data as it presents valuable contextual data about the individual coachees which enriches the evidence. The ten cases which are presented have been selected on the basis that they each represent data-rich information from an individual perspective about the phenomena that this study seeks to understand more fully, namely factors which influence coaching effectiveness, particularly from a psychological perspective. The idiographic case studies build upon the emergent findings from stages one and two, leading to a fuller understanding of the subject matter, and therefore, addressing the research aims and objectives (Patton, 2002; Cresswell, 2003; Cassell and Symons, 2004; Hartley, 2004).

3.22 First Interview

The first interview formed part of stage three of the research design and took place immediately after coaching (9-10 months). The interview adopted a less structured approach; the principal aim was to capture general views about coaching effectiveness in order to provide a richer data set about the personal experiences of coaching from the individual coachee perspective. The key areas covered in the interview included: views about the experience of coaching, how did the coachee know coaching had made a difference, which factors coachees considered to be critical for coaching to be effective, thoughts on the relationship with the coach and views about whether the participant would recommend coaching.

3.23 Second Interview

The second interview formed stage four of the research design and took place 6 months after the coaching sessions had finished. The interview adopted a more structured and

focused approach, in order to explore in more depth emergent themes from the findings in stages one and two. For consistency purposes and the need to manage different types of data sets, interviews followed a similar structure to the survey questionnaire in stage one and two; this also ensured that the key aims and objectives of the research were addressed thoroughly. Locus of control and private self-consciousness were two areas which were covered in slightly more depth, as the findings from the quantitative analysis appeared to challenge evidence and theoretical propositions reviewed in the research literature.

The second interview was structured into four sections. The first section addressed research objective 1 and covered all four aspects of meta-cognition, followed by a more detailed exploration of locus of control and private self-consciousness. The second section addressed research objective 2 and covered interpersonal communication and attitude; the third section addressed research objective 3 and covered the relationship with the coach; and the fourth section addressed research objective 4 and covered coaching outcomes in general, and more specifically, the three outcomes of interest in this study: job performance, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.23.1 Section One - Meta-Cognition

This section addressed research objective 1: *To explore the relationship between individual psychological difference, specifically meta-cognition of the coachee and coaching outcomes.*

This section was used to provide evidence of the impact of coaching on things relating to the four key areas of meta-cognition: self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and private self-consciousness. To avoid any confusion regarding the use of technical language and terminology, broader definitions relating to self-belief were used. Participants were asked to reflect on things relating to: self-confidence, self-belief in being effective at work tasks, feelings about being in control of their work environment and levels of self-awareness, and to consider the extent to which they felt coaching had influenced these areas. After an initial open response to these prompts, participants were informed of the actual findings from stages one and two relating to these four areas of meta-cognition and asked to reflect upon these outcomes. These further prompts were used to help provide some detailed responses in order to confirm, explain and validate original findings. This was particularly relevant for ‘locus of control’ and ‘private

self-consciousness' whereby quantitative results were somewhat confusing (shift towards external locus of control; lower levels of private self-consciousness) and further evidence was required to help explain these unexpected findings.

With regards 'locus of control' participants were encouraged to reflect on the external environment, specifically their own experience of change within the workplace and threat of redundancies etc during the period of coaching. This reflection was only encouraged if the participant did not raise this issue for themselves. Evidence of the relationship between the external operating environment and instability associated with transformational change and coaching was sought directly, because the coaching took place during a period of instability, and in the absence of a control group further evidence was needed to help explain some of the observed changes and experiences reported in stages one and two. Participants were encouraged to reflect upon these issues, and discuss the extent to which the external environment had had a direct impact upon them specifically, and the degree to which they felt coaching had helped them manage this change.

With regards private self-consciousness participants were asked to comment on the degree to which the focus of their coaching had been on goal attainment or self-reflection. The purpose of this prompt was to explore more fully whether there had been a focus on self-reflection within the coaching engagement. A general definition relating to self-awareness was provided instead of the technical definition for private self-consciousness, although participants were encouraged to explore the distinction between self-awareness and behaviour associated with 'rumination' or the extent to which they felt they over-analysed issues. The purpose of exploring this specifically within the interview was to help validate and explore the unexpected finding relating to private self-consciousness and to provide evidence of its reliability as a construct to measure self-awareness. This could be used to help assess the suitability of the private self-consciousness scale as a measure within coaching specifically.

3.23.2 Section Two - Interpersonal Communication Skills and Coaching Attitude/Expectations

This section addressed research objective 2: *To explore the relationship between the coachee's interpersonal communication skills, coaching attitude and coaching outcomes.*

This section was split into two areas: interpersonal communication skills and attitude / expectations about coaching. A general definition of what was meant by interpersonal

communication skills was provided, to ensure consistency of understanding, and participants were encouraged to reflect on the extent to which they felt coaching had influenced their own interpersonal communication style, and to what extent they felt this was important for coaching to be effective. With regards attitude or expectations to coaching, participants were encouraged to reflect on the extent to which they felt their own attitude or expectations towards coaching had influenced the effectiveness of the process, and at each stage were encouraged to provide the reasons for their views. They were asked also to reflect on whether they felt attitude was important for coaching to be effective and why, and to explore what types of things they believed influenced this. After initial responses, participants were also encouraged to reflect on whether attitude/expectations influenced their level of engagement or receptiveness to the coaching process and why. They were also encouraged to comment on whether they felt it was important to manage expectations within the coaching process and why. This was particularly important to explore, as research findings from stage one and two suggested that expectations had not been met by experience and further evidence to validate this relationship was needed.

3.23.3 Section Three - The Coach

This section addressed research objective 3: *To examine the impact of coach's interpersonal communication skills on coaching outcomes.*

A general definition of what was meant by the coach's interpersonal communication skills was provided and participants were encouraged to reflect upon this, and consider the extent to which they felt this was important for coaching to be effective. Participants were asked specifically if they felt the core skills of the coach had a direct impact on the core coaching outcomes: job performance, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Technical definitions and terminology was avoided and wider general definitions were used throughout, especially for organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Participants were also encouraged to reflect on whether they felt the coach's skills had influenced or impacted on their own self-belief. They were also asked to consider what they felt were the most critical factors relating to the coach for the coaching process to be successful.

3.23.4 Section Four - Outcomes - Impact of Coaching

This section addressed research objective 4: *To explore the impact of coaching on coaching outcomes.*

Whilst participants were encouraged to respond specifically to the core coaching outcomes (performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship), they were also invited to explore the wider impact of coaching and what contributed to coaching effectiveness, in order to allow issues to be raised which were particularly relevant for them, in terms of coaching effectiveness. Participants were also encouraged to provide examples of any tangible evidence of coaching effectiveness such as enhanced performance, e.g., promotions etc.

A summary of the interview questions and how they link to the research objectives is presented in table 3.7 below.

Table: 3.7 A summary of the interview questions and links to research objectives and topic areas

Topic Area	Link to Research Objective	Interview Questions / Prompts
First Interview		
The Coach	Objective 3	• Describe your relationship with the coach? • How did this influence the coaching?
Outcomes	Objective 4	• How do you know coaching has made a difference?
Factors critical for coaching effectiveness	Objective 5	• What is critical for the coaching process to be effective?
Second Interview		
Meta-Cognition	Objective 1	To what extent do you think coaching influenced: • Self-confidence • Your belief in being effective at work • Your feelings of being in control of your environment • Your levels of self-awareness
Locus of Control	Objective 1	• Findings suggest that people felt less in control of their environment, did you experience this? • What do you think might have influenced this? • To what extent were you affected by the changes at work? • Did this affect the coaching outcomes? • To what extent did coaching help you deal with the changing environment?
Private Self-Consciousness	Objective 1	• To what extent was coaching focused on goals or self-refection? • Findings suggest that people were less self-aware as a result of coaching what do you think about this? • Do you think coaching has helped raise your levels of self-awareness? • Did coaching encourage you to be more self-reflective?
Interpersonal Communication	Objective 2	• To what extent do you think coaching influenced your communication style, how? • To what extent do you think communication is important for coaching to be successful, why?
Attitude / Expectations	Objective 2	• To what extent did your attitude or expectations of coaching influence the effectiveness of the process? • Do you think it is important to have a positive attitude for coaching to be successful, why? • What types of things influence attitude? • Does attitude affect engagement, how? • Is it important to manage expectations, why?
The Coach	Objective 3	• To what extent do you think the coach's communication style is important for coaching effectiveness? • Do you think the coach influenced outcomes? • What are the key qualities or most critical factors relating to the coach for coaching to be successful?
Outcomes	Objective 4	• To what extent do you think coaching influenced and why? • Performance • Levels of commitment to the organisation • Desire to do extra things for the organisation • Did coaching have an impact on any other outcomes?

3.24 Data Analysis - Qualitative

Analysis of the data collected via the qualitative research interview followed the template approach, using thematic content analysis. This approach is suited to studies which are fairly focused and structured in nature (King, 1994). The principal aim of the template analysis approach in the current study was to identify themes, sub themes and categories which relate to coaching effectiveness. In the current study five main themes formed the core structure: (1) meta-cognition; (2) interpersonal communication; (3) attitudes / expectations; (4) the coach; and (5) coaching outcomes. The first step in analysing the interview data was to content analyse the interview transcripts in a more rigorous way identifying sub-themes under each of the five core themes. For each sub theme, different categories emerged, and for each category, key factors were identified and coded. Descriptors were used to help guide the content analysis. For further details of the coding system for the thematic content analysis see Appendix E. An example to illustrate the method is presented below:

Sub Theme	Category	Key Factors	Code	Descriptor
Self-esteem	Psychological impact	Self-confidence Self-belief Positive thinking	SEST/P	What has been the psychological impact of coaching on self-esteem
	Behavioural impact	Risk taking Less self-critical Takes on challenges	SEST/B	Has behaviour changed as a result of coaching

3.25 Summary

To summarise this chapter, this research uses a mixed method, longitudinal design, based on a case study approach. Quantitative data was collected using survey questionnaires over two time points; pre coaching (T1) to establish base line measures, and post coaching (T 2) to capture changes over time. The data was analyzed to generate emergent themes which were then explored using qualitative research interviews. A case study approach was thought appropriate whereby the organisational perspective is presented to help contextualize findings, supported by individual idiographic case studies. This combined, mixed method approach to research design introduces a systematic framework, which underpins the quantitative methodology, an approach which is further enhanced and enriched by the qualitative research. Whilst the research is underpinned by a positivist philosophical approach which seeks to understand causal explanations, it also adopts an interpretive stance, in that it seeks to

understand how views and attitudes are socially constructed. Finally, the design of the study also falls within a pragmatic paradigm, whereby the research focuses heavily on the problem being studied, i.e., what contributes to coaching effectiveness? Participants were selected on a voluntary basis, resulting in a matched sample of 29 coachees who completed the survey questionnaire at T1 and T2. From this sample a group of ten coachees participated in two interviews which took place at T2 and T3. Methods of data collection were designed around a framework which reflected the research objectives and responded to the research questions; this framework originated from an extensive literature review. The research was carried out in a large government agency as part of an evaluation of their coaching programme. The aim of the programme was to introduce a coaching culture, the aim of the evaluation to understand more about how to improve coaching outcomes such as performance, commitment etc. The research method was designed primarily to address the fundamental aim of the study, which is to understand more about coaching effectiveness, particularly from psychological perspective. The principal method of data analysis for the quantitative data involved statistical analysis and used a mix of: t-tests, longitudinal hierarchical regression and hierarchical moderated regression analysis. The principal method of data analysis for the qualitative data gathered using research interview data was the template method, using a purposeful intensity sampling strategy. The validity of the findings is strengthened using triangulation of methodologies, which combines quantitative and qualitative data; findings are contextualized using organisational and idiographic case studies.

Chapter 4: Results - Quantitative

The results chapter are presented in two chapters; chapter four reports on the quantitative results, chapter five reports on the qualitative results. The results present the coachee perspective and therefore, the data reflects this. A summary is provided at the end of each chapter highlighting the key findings. At the end of chapter five, an overall summary is provided which integrates both sets of data.

4.1 Introduction

The quantitative data was gathered at stages one and two of the research. Stage one (T1) provided baseline data and was collected before the start of the coaching and stage two (T2), provided post coaching data (nine-ten months after the coaching). All participants engaged in the coaching programme (n=85) were invited to take part in the coaching audit and complete the questionnaires, this resulted in a total matched sample of 29 completed questionnaires for both time points. The results are presented in the same sequence as the research objectives, starting with the demographics followed by five distinct sections: (1) meta-cognition, (2a) coachee's interpersonal communication skills (2b) coachee's coaching attitude, (3) coach's interpersonal communication skills (4) coaching outcomes (5) critical factors for coaching effectiveness. The type of analysis used is discussed in detail in the methodology (chapter three), although to provide clarity throughout this chapter, reference is made to the specific statistical tests employed for each section, as appropriate. The results revealed numerous statistically significant outcomes and the discussion (Chapter 6) focuses on revealing these outcomes. With small samples often small effects usually won't become significant; therefore very strict significance levels are not very helpful and risk rejecting hypotheses which are actually true. With research of this type, there needs to be a balance between accepting a hypothesis which is untrue, with rejecting a hypothesis that is true (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004). Therefore, in the current study because of the small sample, less strict levels of significance were used. The level of significance was regarded as below one per cent ($p<.01$) and below five per cent ($p<.05$), (Colman and Pulford, 2006). However, to further explain trends and changes over time and to reduce the chance of 'Type II' error (i.e. failing to observe a difference when in truth there is one), due to the small number of study participants, significance is also shown at below ten per cent ($p<.10$) where appropriate (Pallant, 2005). Significant results only have been reported in this chapter. All non-significant results are presented in appendix A.

4.2 Demographic Information

The following section outlines the demographic details of the participants or coachees (n=29) who took part in the coaching programme, and who completed questionnaires at both T1 and T2 providing a matched sample. The demographic information collected relates to: gender, age, ethnicity, job role, length of service in the organization and level within the organisation.

4.2.1 Personal Demographics for the Coachee Group

Table 4.1 illustrates the personal demographics of the coachee members including: age, gender and ethnicity.

Table 4.1: *Personal Demographics of Coachees*

	Demographics	**Percentage (n=29)**
Gender	Male	24.0 (7)
	Female	76.0 (22)
Age	25-34	41.4 (12)
	35-44	31.0 (9)
	45-54	10.3 (3)
	55-64	3.4 (1)
	other	13.8 (4)
Ethnicity	Caucasian/White	75.9 (22)
	Ethnic Minority	6.9 (2)
	Other	3.4 (1)
	Missing	13.8 (4)

The gender split of the coachee sample was approximately three quarters female (n=22, 76 per cent), a quarter male (n=7, 24 per cent). Just under half the sample fell in the age range 25-34 years (n=12, 41.4 per cent). In relation to ethnicity, the vast majority of the sample were white, Caucasian (n=22, 75.9 per cent).

4.2.2 Job Role Demographics for the Coachee Group

Due to the small numbers involved in the sample, individual results will not be reported in order to protect identities of respondents, however, the range of different roles involved in the coaching audit include: support and administrative staff, supervisors and managers.

4.2.3 Length of Service and Level within the Organization Demographics for the Coachee Group

Table 4.2 (a): *Demographics for the Coachee Group - Length of Service and Level within the Organization*

	Demographics	**Percentage (n=29)**
Length of Service	Less than 1 year	6.9 (2)
	1-5 years	24.1 (7)
	6-10 years	24.1 (7)
	More than 10 years	31.0 (9)
	Missing	13.8 (4)
Level in the Organisation	A3 (entry level)	13.6 (4)
	B1	44.5 (13)
	B2	23.9 (7)
	Missing	17.2 (5)

Table 4.2 (a) details the demographics for *Length of Service* and *Level within the Organisation*. Results show that the majority of the sample group had been with the organization for 6 years or more (6 years+, n=16, 55 per cent). In relation to the level of management within the organization, the majority of the sample were in the lower middle management category (B1) (n=13, 44.5 per cent)

Table 4.2(b) below provides a description of the different job grades.

Table: 4.2(b) Description of Job Grades

Grade	Description
A1-A2	Support / Admin
A3-B1	Supervisor/Junior Manager
B2-B3	Junior Manager/Middle Manager
C	Senior Management
D	Director

4.2.4 Correlation Tables

A correlation test reports on the measure of association between two variables, if this outcome is not significant, then the variables will not predict variance in regression. As a result therefore, only variables which showed significance in the correlations were investigated in regression, and only those showing significance are reported within the results chapter. All non-significant results in regression are reported in the appendices. Correlations tables are presented below providing details of the means, standard deviations and reliability information for variables of interest at both time points T1 and T2 (tables 4.3 and 4.4 respectively), and for the longitudinal correlations T1/T2 (table 4.5).

Table 4.3: Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities of Independent Variables Time Point 1

	Mean	St.Dev	SEST1	SEFF1	LC1	PSC1	IPC(A)1	CATT1	JP1	OCOM1	OCIT1
SEST1	5.00	.92	(.91)								
SEFF1	3.88	1.19	.18	(.95)							
LC1	3.14	.69	-.38	-.27	(.85)						
PSC1	4.86	.99	.16	.20	-.09	(.80)					
IPC(A)1	5.37	.51	.41	-.09	-.13	-.31	.78)				
CATT1	5.93	.74	-.05	.25	.12	.27	.07	(.73)			
JP1	5.76	.87	.33	.38	-.22	-.18	.45*	-.25	-		
OCOM1	3.94	1.05	.45*	.08	.02	.19	.34	.23	.10	(.76)	
OCIT1	5.21	.71	.23	-.19	-.06	.36	.30	.28	.15	.61**	(.75)

Note: Cronbach's Alpha reliabilities are reported in the diagonal matrix **p<.01; *p<.05

(SEST=self-esteem; SEFF=self-efficacy; LC=locus of control; PSC=private self-consciousness; IPC(A)=interpersonal communication skills coachee; IPC(B)=interpersonal communication skills coach; CATT=coaching attitude; JP= job performance; OCOM= organisational commitment; OCIT= organisational citizenship behaviour)

Table 4.4: Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities of Independent Variables Time Point 2

	Means	St.Dev	SEST2	SEFF2	LC2	PSC2	IPC(A)2	IPC(B)2	CATT2	JP2	OCOM2	OCIT2
SEST2	5.30	.91	(.91)									
SEFF2	5.49	.56	.61**	(.88)								
LC2	2.97	.87	-.22	-.09	(.90)							
PSC2	4.16	.77	.09	-.03	-.21	(.62)						
IPC(A)2	5.77	.69	.74**	.68**	-.42*	-.03	(.89)					
IPC(B)2	5.85	.69	.39†	.20	-.35	.38†	.44*	(.94)				
CATT2	5.17	1.16	.57**	.28	-.03	.09	.28	.40*	(.93)			
JP2	5.83	.76	.27†	.41*	-.26	-.01	.62**	.46*	.20	-		
OCOM2	3.93	1.27	.23	.16	-.21†	.06	.08	-.26	.07	.08	(.79)	
OCIT2	5.18	.79	.46*	.59**	-.17	.25	.33	.24†	.45*	.16	.40*	(.75)

Note: Cronbach's Alpha reliabilities are reported in the diagonal matrix **p<.01; *p<.05; †p<.10

(SEST=self-esteem; SEFF=self-efficacy; LC=locus of control; PSC=private self-consciousness; IPC(A)=interpersonal communication skills coachee; IPC(B)=interpersonal communication skills coach; CATT=coaching attitude; JP= job performance; OCOM= organisational commitment; OCIT= organisational citizenship behaviour)

Table 4.5: Longitudinal Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities of Independent Variables Time Point 1 and 2

	Mean	St.Dev	SEST1	SEFF1	LC1	PSC1	IPC(A)1	CATT1	JP1	OCOM1	OCIT1	SEST2	SEFF2	LC2	PSC2	IPC(A)2	IPC(B)2	CATT2	JP2	OCOM2	OCIT2
SEST1	5.00	.92																			
SEFF1	3.88	1.19	.18																		
LC1	3.14	.69	-.38	-.27																	
PSC1	4.86	.99	.16	.20	-.09																
IPC(A)1	5.37	.51	.41	-.09	-.13	-.31															
CATT1	5.93	.74	-.05	.25	.12	.27	.07														
JP1	5.76	.87	.33	.38	-.22	-.18	.45*	-.25													
OCOM1	3.94	1.05	.45*	.08	.02	.19	.34	.23	.10												
OCIT1	5.21	.71	.23	-.19	-.06	.36	.30	.28	.15	.61**											
SEST2	5.30	.91	.57*	.20	-.24	-.11	.56**	.06	.22	.27	.25										
SEFF2	5.49	.56	.42*	.58*	-.07	-.22	.79**	.05	.44*	.41*	.47*	.61**									
LC2	2.97	.87	-.09	-.40	.75**	-.02	-.13	.17	-.34	.08	.01	-.22	-.09								
PSC2	4.16	.77	-.06	.36	-.12	.78**	-.14	.26	-.08	.07	.35	.09	-.03	-.21							
IPC(A)2	5.77	.69	.48*	-.12	-.43*	.26	.79**	-.12	.31	.14	.31	.74**	.68**	-.42*	-.03						
IPC(B)2	5.85	.69	.27	.17	-.39	.26	.03	.01	.15	-.18	.08	.39†	.20	-.35	.38†	.44*					
CATT2	5.17	1.16	.11	.10	-.16	-.12	.15	.56*	-.13	.13	.21	.57**	.28	-.03	.09	.28	.40*				
JP2	5.83	.76	.15	-.08	-.43*	-.12	.45*	-.24	.57*	.09	.15	.27†	.41*	-.26	-.01	.62**	.46*	.20			
OCOM2	3.93	1.27	.22	.20	-.06	.28	.20	.08	.01	.62**	.24	.23	.16	-.21†	.06	.08	-.26	.07	.08		
OCIT2	5.18	.79	.28	-.01	-.08	.15	.36	.24	.28	.60**	.73**	.46*	.59**	-.17	.25	.33	.24†	.45*	.16	.40*	

**p<.01; *p<.05; †p<.10

(SEST=self-esteem; SEFF=self-efficacy; LC=locus of control; PSC=private self-consciousness; IPC(A)=interpersonal communication skills coachee; IPC(B)=interpersonal communication skills coach; CATT=coaching attitude; JP= job performance; OCOM= organisational commitment; OCIT= organisational citizenship behaviour)

4.3 Objective 1 - Meta-Cognition

This section explores the role of meta-cognition within coaching from the coachee perspective and seeks to establish: (1) the impact of coaching on meta-cognition; (2) the role of meta-cognition in influencing coaching outcomes; (3) the role of meta-cognition as a moderator of coaching outcomes. The meta-cognitive skills throughout this section are: self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and private self-consciousness. The coaching outcomes throughout this section are: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.3.1 Question 1

What is the impact of coaching on the meta-cognitive skills of the Coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.

The test used to analyse the data for this research question, involved paired sample t-tests from coachee responses. Data collected at time point one was compared to data collected at time point two. The results for the total scale scores are presented below in table 4.6

Table 4.6: *Results of Paired Sample T-tests for Meta-Cognition - Total Scale Scores*

	mean Time 1	mean Time 2	SD Time 1	SD Time 2	t-test	d.f.
Self-Esteem	5.00	5.30	.92	.91	-1.73 *	26
Self-Efficacy	3.88	5.49	1.19	.56	-5.88 **	22
Locus of Control	3.14	2.97	.69	.87	1.36†	23
Private Self-Consciousness	4.86	4.16	.99	.77	5.60**	27

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Paired sample t-tests for meta-cognition reveal several statistically significant outcomes. Respondents report increased levels of self-esteem *(t=-1.73; df=26; p*<0.05), and increased self-efficacy *(t=-5.88; df=22; p*<0.01). However, results indicate decreased feelings of private self-consciousness *(t=5.60; df=27; p*<0.01) suggesting that respondents were reporting less self-awareness. The results for locus of control *(t=1.36; df=23; p*<0.10) show a decrease which suggests that respondents were reporting a shift to 'external' locus of control and feeling less in control of their environment. As these outcomes and changes have occurred during the period of the coaching intervention, this suggests a role for coaching in influencing these changes.

4.3.2 Question 2

> *To what extent do the meta-cognitive skills of the coachee influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

The test used to examine this question involved carrying out longitudinal hierarchical regression analysis (detailed in methodology chapter). This test explores the extent to which meta-cognition during coaching is associated with change in coaching outcomes at T2, up and above levels of coaching outcomes observed at T1. Essentially, this analysis builds upon inferences drawn from the *t*-test, i.e., that changes to meta-cognition have occurred as a result of coaching, the longitudinal regression explores the extent to which levels of meta-cognition is associated with change in coaching outcomes over time. This will highlight those factors which are important for coaching effectiveness. Results are presented in the following order: self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and private self-consciousness.

Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression for Self-Esteem

Table 4.7: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Self-Esteem** Time 2 predicting **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour** (OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.56	30.78** (24)
OCB T1	.80	.15	.75	5.54**		
Step 2					.01	.57(23)
OCB T1	.77	.15	.72	5.12**		
Self-Esteem T1	.09	.12	.11	.75		
Step 3					.09	5.60* (22)
OCB T1	.73	.14	.68	5.24**		
Self-Esteem T1	-.07	.12	-.09	-.59		
Self-Esteem T2	.30	.13	.36	2.37**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.7 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis, the model uses a three step process. Step 1 shows the dependent variable (DV) organisational citizenship behaviour T1 predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (β=.75; t=5.44; r square change =.56, f=30.78, d.f.=24). Step 2 introduces self-esteem as the independent variable and tests the degree to which self-esteem T1 is associated with the change in organisational citizenship behaviour over time T1-T2, (β=.11,t=.75; r square change =.01, f=.57, d.f.=23). Step 3 introduces self-esteem T2 and tests the degree to which the change in self-esteem T1-T2 is associated with the change in organisational citizenship behaviour over time T1-T2, (β=.36, t=2.37; r square change =.09, f=5.60, d.f.=22). Results for Step 3 show a statistically significant outcome (t=2.37) suggesting that change is associated with change, i.e. an increase in self-esteem T1-T2 is associated with a decrease in OCB T1-T2, accounting for an additional 9% of variance.

Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression for Self-Efficacy

Table 4.8: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 2 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.13	3.29* (21)
Job Performance T1	.43	.23	.37	1.81*		
Step 2					05	1.31(20)
Job Performance T1	.46	.23	.40	1.96*	.	
Self-Efficacy T1	.18	.16	.23	1.14		
Step 3					.12	3.16† (19)
Job Performance T1	.24	.25	.20	.93		
Self-Efficacy T1	.23	.16	.29	1.49		
Self-Efficacy T2	.50	.28	.40	1.78*		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.8 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether the change in job performance at T2 is positively associated with self-efficacy T2. The model uses a three step process, step 1 shows the dependent variable (DV) job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (β=.37,t=1.81; r square change =.13,f=3.29, d.f.=21). Step 2 introduces self-efficacy as the independent variable and tests the degree to which self-efficacy at T1 is associated with the change in performance over time T1-T2 (β=.23,t=1.14; r square change =.05,f=1.31, d.f.=20). Step 3 introduces self-efficacy T2 and tests the degree to which the change in self-efficacy T1-T2 is associated with the change in job performance over time T1-T2 (β=.40,t=1.78; r square change =.12,f=3.16, d.f.=19). Results for Step 3 shows a statistically significant outcome (t=1.78) suggesting that change is associated with change, i.e. an increase in self-efficacy T1-T2 is associated with an increase in job performance T1-T2, accounting for an additional 12% of variance.

Table 4.9: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 2 predicting **Affective Commitment** (AC)Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.42	14.67** (20)
AC T1	.78	.20	.65	3.83**		
Step 2					.14	6.06*(19)
AC T1	.75	.18	.62	4.10**		
Self-Efficacy T1	.52	.21	.37	2.46*		
Step 3					.01	.39* (18)
AC T1	.81	.21	.67	3.84**		
Self-Efficacy T1	.47	.22	.34	2.11**		
Self-Efficacy T2	-.24	.39	-.11	-.63		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.9 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis, the model uses a three step process. Step 1 shows the dependent variable (DV) affective commitment T1 predicting affective commitment T2 (β=.65, t=3.83; r square change =.42,f=14.67, d.f.=20). Step 2 introduces self-efficacy as the independent variable and tests the degree to which self-efficacy T1 is associated with the change in affective commitment T1-T2 over time (β=.37,t=2.46; r square change =.14, f=6.06, d.f.=19). Step 2 reveals a significant result (t=2.46) indicating that the level of self-efficacy T1 is associated with a decrease over time in affective commitment T1-T2, accounting for an additional 14% variance. Step 3 introduces self-efficacy T2 and tests the degree to which the change in self-efficacy T1-T2 is associated with change in affective commitment T1-T2 (β=-.11,t=-.63; r square change =.01,f=.39, d.f.=18).

Table 4.10: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Self-Efficacy*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *(OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.58	27.29** (20)
OCB T1	.83	.16	.76	5.22**		
Step 2					.01	.40(19)
OCB T1	.85	.16	.77	5.17**		
Self-Efficacy T1	.08	.21	.09	.63		
Step 3					.08	4.49* (18)
OCB T1	.67	.17	.61	3.89**		
Self-Efficacy T1	.11	.11	.14	1.01		
Self-Efficacy T2	.44	.21	.33	2.11*		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.10 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis, the model uses a three step process. Step 1 shows organisational citizenship behaviour T1 predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (β=.76,t=5.22; r square change =.58, f=27.29, d.f.=20). Step 2 introduces self-efficacy as the independent variable and tests the degree to which self-efficacy T1 is associated with the change in organisational citizenship behaviour over time T1-T2 (β=.09,t=63; r square change =.01, f=.40, d.f.=19) over time. Step 3 introduces self-efficacy T2 and tests the degree to which the change in self-efficacy T1-T2 is associated with the change in organisational citizenship behaviour T1-T2 (β=.33,t=2.11; r square change =.08,f=4.49, d.f.=18). Results show a statistically significant outcome at step 3 suggesting that change is associated with change, i.e. an increase in self-efficacy T1-T2 is associated with a decrease in organisational citizenship behaviour T1-T2 (t=2.11), accounting for an additional 8% of variance.

Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression for Locus of Control

Table 4.11: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Locus of Control*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.01	.28 (22)
Job Performance T1	.11	.20	.11	.54		
Step 2					.17	4.34* (21)
Job Performance T1	.02	.19	.02	.09		
Locus of Control T1	-.47	.22	-.42	-2.08*		
Step 3					.01	.25 (20)
Job Performance T1	.05	.20	.04	.22		
Locus of Control T1	-.60	.34	-.53	-1.76*		
Locus of Control T2	.14	.28	.15	.51		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.11 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis, the model uses a three step process. Step 1 shows job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (β=.11,t=54; r square change =.01,f=.28, d.f.=22). Step 2 introduces locus of control as the independent variable and tests the degree to which locus of control T1 is associated with the change in job performance over time T1-T2 (β=-.42, t=-2.08; r square change =.17, f=4.34, d.f.=21). Step 2 shows a significant outcome suggesting that the level of locus of control T1 is associated with an increase in job performance over time T1-T2, accounting for an additional 17% variance. Step 3 introduces locus of control T2 and tests the degree to which the change in locus of control T1-T2 is associated with change in job performance T1-T2 (β=.15, t=.51; r square change =.01, f=.25, d.f.=20).

Table 4.12: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Locus of Control*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *(OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.46	17.96*(21)
OCB T1	.70	.16	.67	4.24		
Step 2					.001	.002(20)
OCB T1	.70	.17	.68	4.13		
Locus of Control T1	-.01	.16	-.01	-.04		
Step 3					.07	2.96*(19)
OCB T1	.70	.16	.68	4.36		
Locus of Control T1	.28	.22	.29	1.26		
Locus of Control T2	-.31	.18	-.41	-1.72*		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.12 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis, the model uses a three step process. Step 1 shows organisational citizenship behaviour T1 predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (β=.67, t=4.24; r square change =.46, f=17.96, d.f.=21). Step 2 introduces locus of control as the independent variable and tests the degree to which locus of control T1 is associated with the change in organisational citizenship behaviour over time T1-T2 (β=-.01,t=-.04; r square change =.001, f=.002, d.f.=20). Step 3 introduces locus of control T2 and tests the degree to which the change in locus of control T1-T2 is associated with change in organisational citizenship behaviour T1-T2 (β=-.41, t=-1.72; r square change =.07, f=2.96, d.f.=19). Step 3 reveals a significant outcome (t=-1.72), suggesting that change is associated with change, i.e. a decrease in locus of control T1-T2 is associated with a decrease in organisational citizenship behaviour T1-T2, accounting for an additional 7% of variance.

4.3.3 Question 3

To what extent does meta-cognition moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.

The effects of coaching may not be equally beneficially for all those taking part in a coaching programme. Coaching may have more impact for a sub group. The test used to analyse this is, hierarchical moderation regression analysis. Controlling for the dependent variable, e.g. job performance at T1 leads to a situation where the dependent variable becomes a change variable. The T1 / T2 relationship of performance refers to the part of performance which is stable over time, when this part of performance is controlled for, other variables which are then introduced at step two, can only predict the change in performance. The test is hierarchical in that it is a two step process. Step one uses a pre-coaching measure of the dependent variable at T1, e.g. job performance, and step two introduces the predictor variable, e.g. self-esteem T2. As performance T1 predicting performance T2 accounts for the stable part of performance, self-esteem will predict change of performance. A positive beta-weight indicates an increase in performance, a negative beta-weight indicate a decrease in performance. Moreover, this strategy allows comparison of those who performed low at T1 and those who compared high at T1. This is of interest because coaching might have an effect on low performers but might not help to further increase performance of those who already performed well before the coaching.

To What Extent Does Self-Esteem Moderate Job Performance?

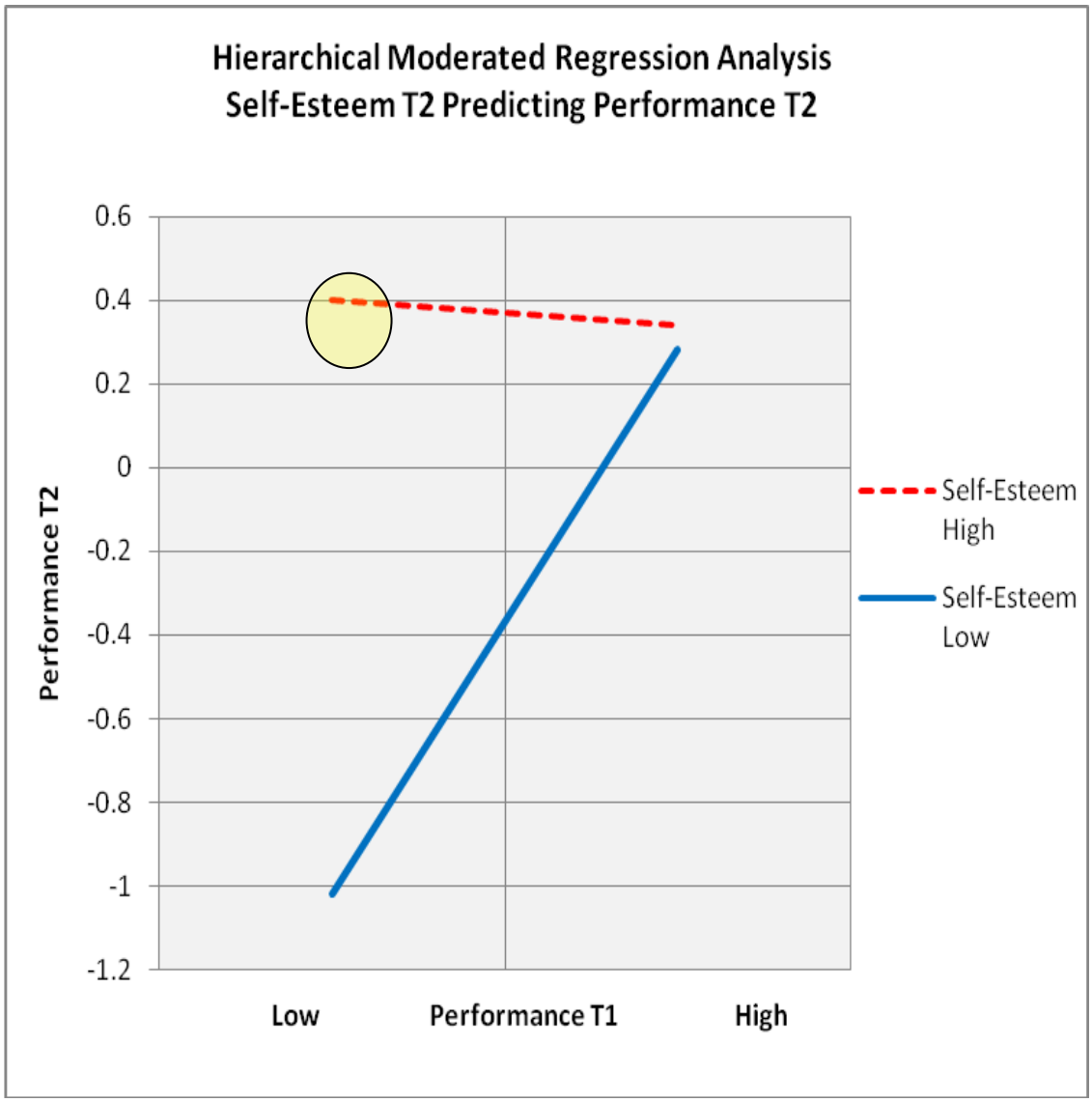
Table 4.13: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Esteem** Time 2 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.22**	**3.55*(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.36**	**.17**	**.40**	**2.20***		
Self-Esteem T2	**.13**	**.13**	**.18**	**.99**		
Step 2					**.07**	**2.42†(24)**
Job Performance T1	**.28**	**.17**	**.31**	**1.69†**		
Self-Esteem T2	**.29**	**.16**	**.37**	**1.75***		
Job Performance * Self-Esteem	**-.25**	**.16**	**-.34**	**-1.56†**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.13 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-esteem acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=2.20) and self-esteem T2 (t=.99) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=3.55, d.f.=25, r square change =.22), and step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=2.42, d.f.=24, r square change =.07). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant trend in the data (t=-1.56) suggesting that self-esteem acts as a moderator of job performance at T2, accounting for 7% of the variance.

Graph: 4.1:



Graph 4.1 above, shows the moderation effect of self-esteem T2 on job performance T2. Controlling for job performance T1 means that the residual job performance T2 measure indicates change. Thus the graph indicates that changes in job performance do not occur for everyone similarly. For those with low self-esteem T2, there is little change in performance, irrespective of the level of performance at T1. This means that for low self-esteem participants, low performance at T1 was related to low performance at T2 and high performance at T1 was related to high performance at T2. The same is true for those with high self-esteem and high performance at T1, little change is observed, which means for these individuals high performance T1 is related to high performance T2. However, for those with high self-esteem T2 and low performance T1

(yellow circle), there is a strong increase in performance from T1 to T2 during coaching, which means for these individuals low performance at T1 is related to high performance T2. In terms of the practical implications of this for coaching, this suggests that self-esteem is an important factor to consider during coaching. In particular, it highlights the relevance of high self-esteem for those with low performance, as this is likely to positively influence performance during the coaching process resulting in an increase in performance from low to high for this group of individuals during the coaching process.

To What Extent Does Self-Efficacy Moderate Job Performance?

Table 4.14: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 1 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

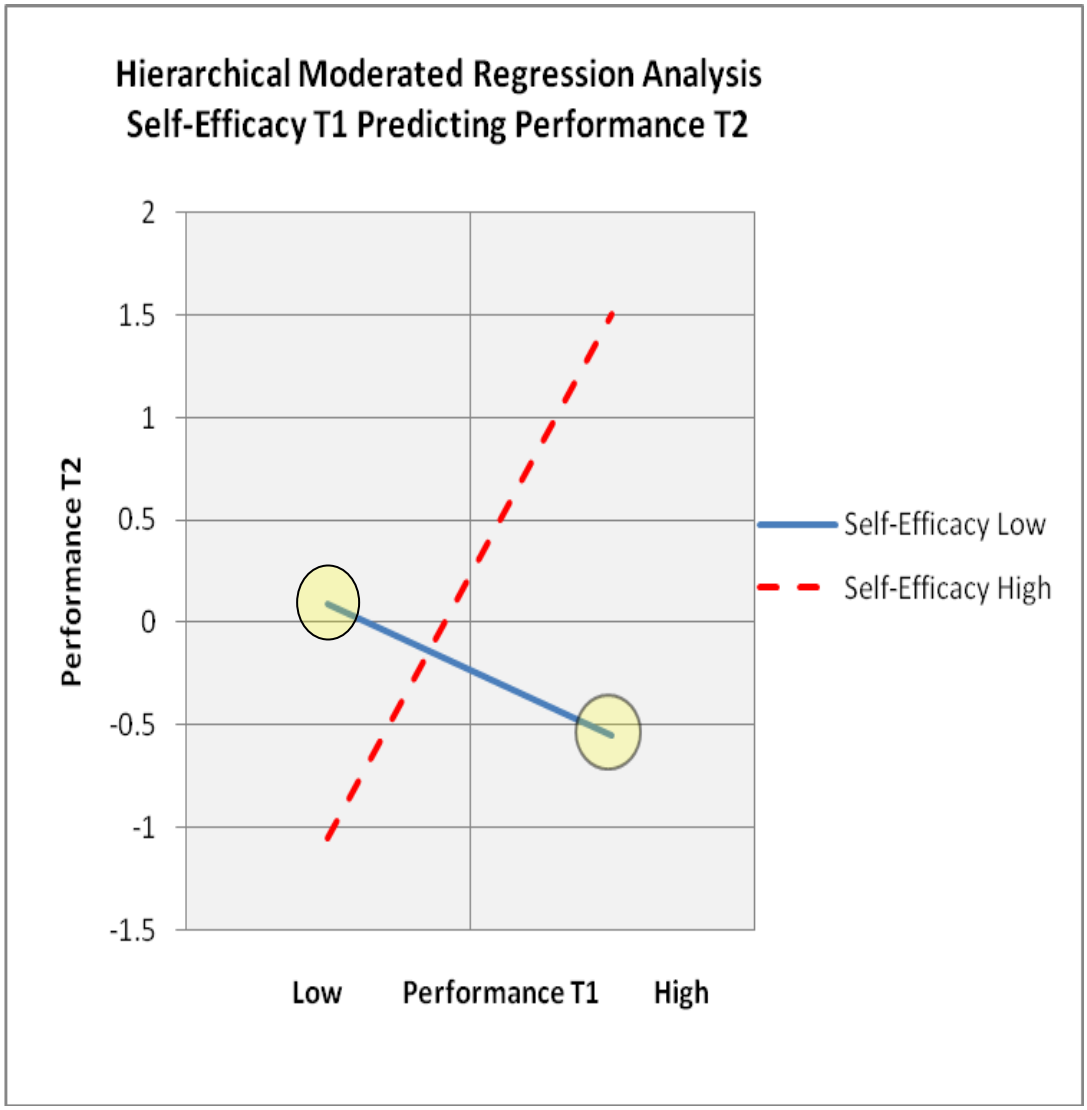
Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.02**	**.21 (23)**
Performance T1	**.09**	**.18**	**.12**	**.53**		
Self-Efficacy T1	**-.09**	**.17**	**-.12**	**-.54**		
Step 2					**.29**	**8.98**(22)**
Performance T1	**.38**	**.18**	**.48**	**2.11***		
Self-Efficacy T1	**.18**	**.17**	**.23**	**1.03**		
Performance * Self-Efficacy	**.30**	**.10**	**.80**	**2.30****		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.14 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-efficacy acts as a moderator of performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents performance T1 (t=.53) and self-efficacy T1 (t=-.54) showing their independent roles in predicting performance T2 (f=.21, d.f.=23, r square change =.02), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two

variables (f=8.98, d.f.=22, r square change =.29). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant result (t=2.30) suggesting that self-efficacy acts as a moderator of performance at T2, accounting for 29% of the variance

Graph 4.2:



Graph 4.2 above, shows the moderation effect of self-efficacy T1 on job performance at T2. Controlling for performance T1 means that the residual performance T2 measure indicates change. The graph indicates that changes in job performance do not occur for everyone similarly. For those with high self-efficacy T1 there is no effect on performance from T1 to T2 during coaching, irrespective of levels of performance T1, i.e. low performance T1 is related to low performance T2 and high performance T1 is

related to high performance T2. However, for those with low self-efficacy changes in performance over time T1 to T2 (yellow circles) occur for both sub-groups. For those with low performance T1, there is an increase in performance T2, for those with high performance T1 there is a decrease in performance T2. The practical implications of this finding for coaching are that it highlight the importance of the relationship between self-efficacy and performance, suggesting two things; (1) that for those individuals with low self-efficacy and low performance, performance is likely to increase during coaching; (2) for those with low self-efficacy and high performance, there is the potential for high performance to decrease during coaching. This highlight the need to focus attention to supporting all indivduals with low self-efficacy in order avoid decreases in high performance and to encourage increases in low performance.

To What Extent Does Locus of Control Moderate Job Performance?

Table 4.15: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Locus of Control** Time 1 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

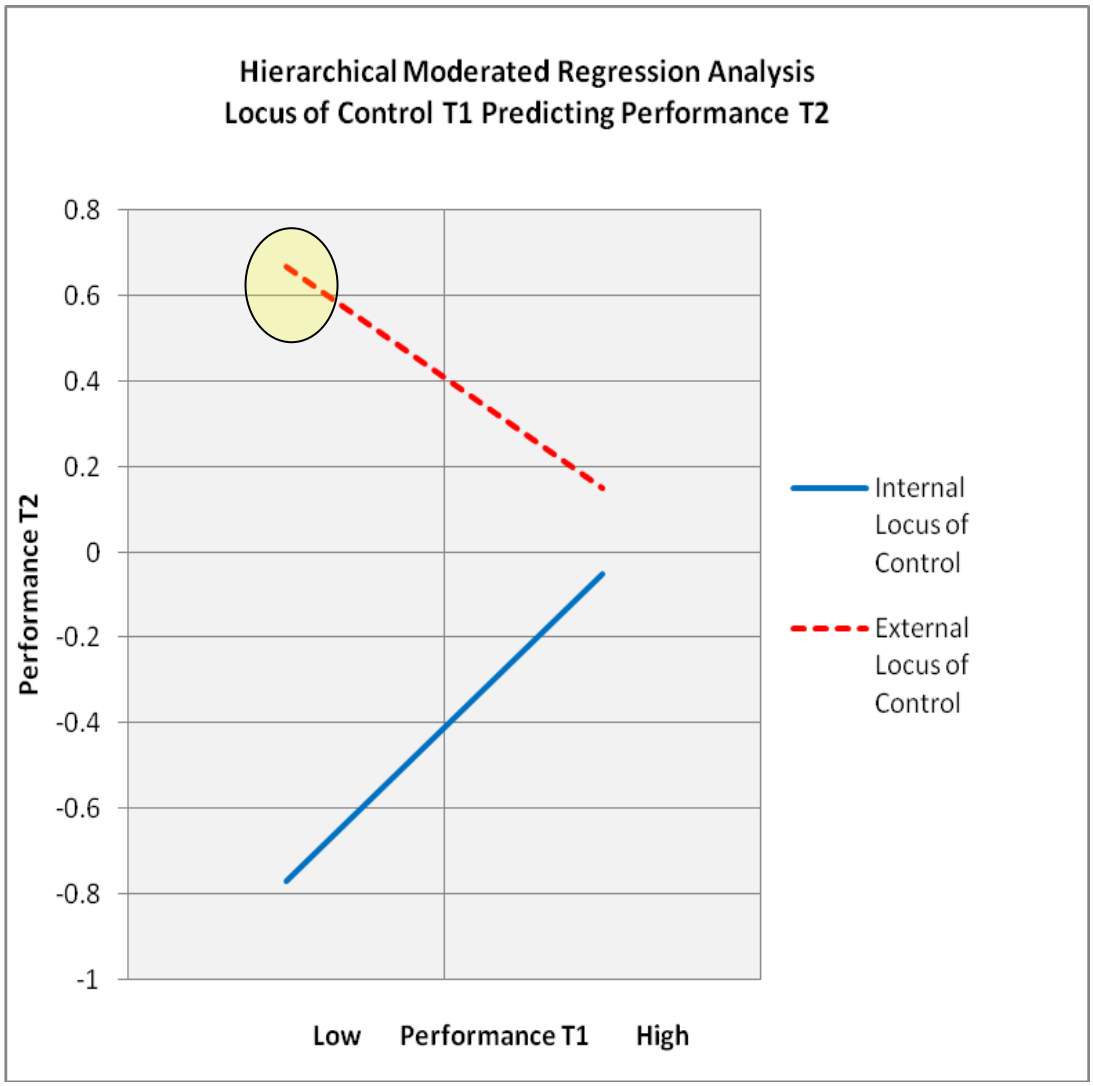
Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.19**	**2.84*(24)**
Job Performance T1	**.05**	**.15**	**.06**	**.32**		
Locus of Control T1	**-.33**	**.15**	**-.42**	**-2.23***		
Step 2					**.09**	**3.01*(23)**
Job Performance T1	**.04**	**.14**	**.05**	**.30**		
Locus of Control T1	**-.32**	**.14**	**-.41**	**-2.28***		
Job Performance * Locus of Control	**-.33**	**.19**	**-.31**	**-1.74***		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.15 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether locus of control acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=.32) and locus

of control T1 (t=-2.23) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=2.84, d.f.=24, r square change =.19), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=3.01, d.f.=23, r square change =.09). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant result (t=-1.74) suggesting that locus of control acts as a moderator of job performance at T2, accounting for 9% of the variance.

Graph 4.3:



Graph 4.3 above, shows the moderation effect of locus of control T1 on job performance at T2. Controlling for performance T1 means that the residual performance T2 measure indicates change. The graph indicates that changes in job performance do not occur equally for everyone. For those with an internal locus of

control T1 there appears to be little observed change in performance from T1 to T2 over time, irrespective of levels of performance at T1. Similarly, for those with an external locus of control and high performance T1, there was no observed change over time. This means that for these individuals, low performance T1 is related to low performance T2 and high performance T1 is related to high performance T2. However, for those with external locus of control T1 and low performance T1 (yellow circle) there has been a significant increase in performance between T1 and T2. This suggests that locus of control is an important factor to consider at the start of the the coaching process, as it is likely to have an interactive effect with performance during coaching, particularly for certain individuals. The practical implications of this for coaching highlights the importance of the relationship between locus of control and performance, suggesting that for individuals with an external locus of control and low performance at the start of coaching, performance is likely to increase from low to high during coaching. This suggests that levels of locus of control at the start of coaching (T1) are an important factor to consider, especially external locus of control and low performance as this group are more likely to be influenced during coaching.

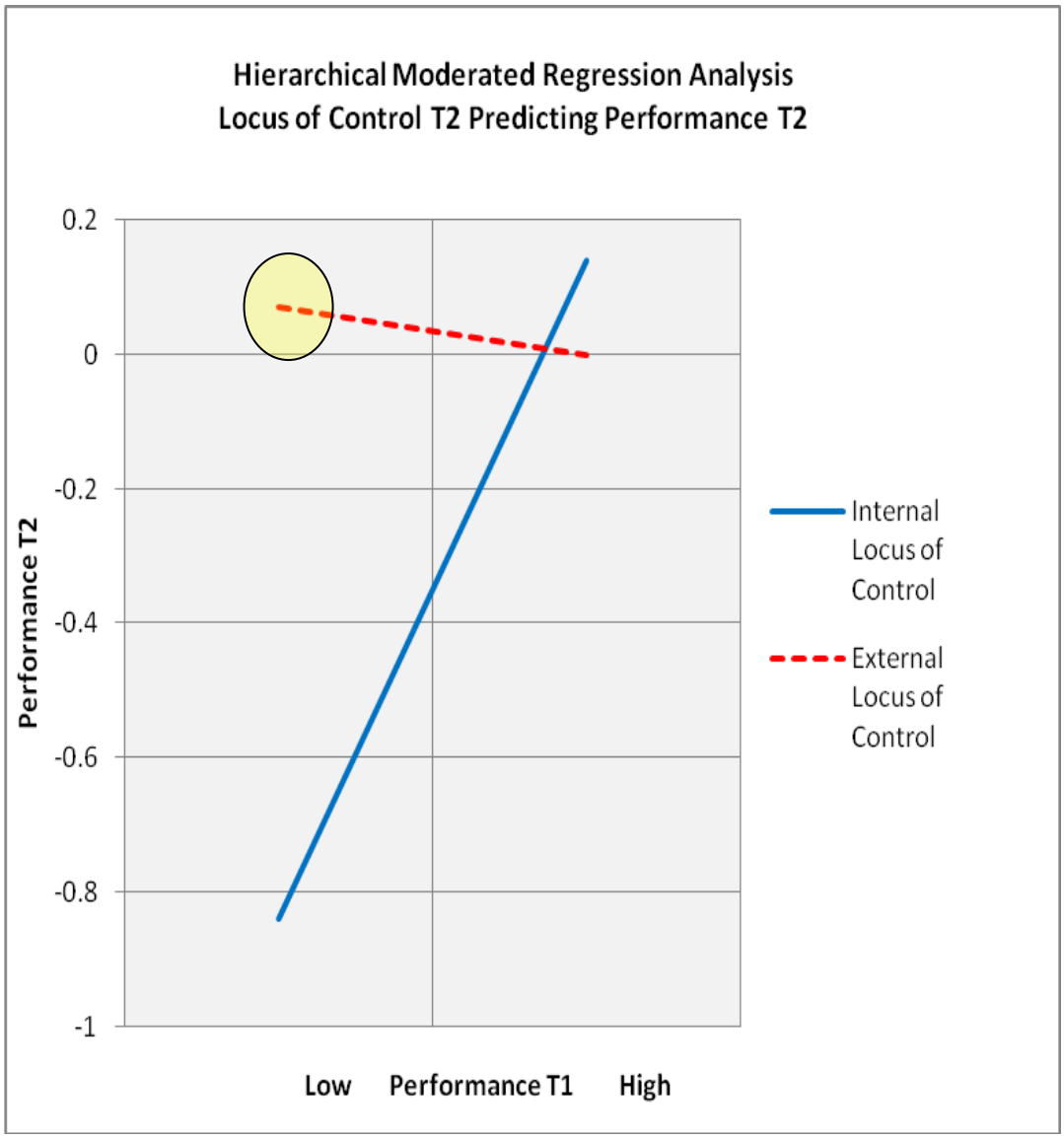
Table 4.16: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for* ***Locus of Control*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.07**	**.84(23)**
Job Performance T1	**.02**	**.17**	**.03**	**.12**		
Locus of Control T2	**-.20**	**.17**	**-.25**	**-1.17**		
Step 2					**.16**	**4.63*(22)**
Job Performance T1	**.05**	**.16**	**.07**	**.33**		
Locus of Control T2	**-.28**	**.16**	**-.35**	**-1.72***		
Job Performance * Locus of Control	**-.43**	**.20**	**-.42**	**-2.15***		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.16 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether locus of control acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=.12) and locus of control T2 (t=-1.17) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=.84, d.f.=23, r square change =.07), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=4.63, d.f.=22, r square change =.16). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant result (t=-2.15) suggesting that locus of control acts as a moderator of job performance at T2, accounting for 16% of the variance.

Graph 4.4



Graph 4.4 above, shows the moderation effect of locus of control T2 on job performance at T2. Controlling for performance T1 means that the residual performance T2 measure indicates change. The graph indicates that changes in job performance do not occur for everyone similarly. For those with an internal locus of control, there appears to be little observed change in performance between T1 and T2 over time, irrespective of level of performance at T1. Similarly, there was no observed change for those with an external locus of control T2 and high performance T1. This means that low peformance T1 is related to low performance T2 and high performance T1 is related to high performance T2. However, for those with an external locus of control T2 and low performance T1 (yellow circle), there was a significant increase in

performance between T1 and T2. This suggests that locus of control plays an important role in influencing performance during coaching, particularly for certain individuals. The practical implications of this for coaching highlights the importance of the relationship between locus of control and performance, suggesting that for those individuals with external locus of control (T2) and low performance, performance is likely to increase from low to high during coaching. This indicates that external locus of control during the whole coaching process is an important factor to consider in order to influence performance improvements during coaching, especially for those with low performance at the start of the coaching process.

Does Private Self-Consciousness Moderate Job Performance?

Table 4.17: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Private Self-Consciousness** (PSC) Time 2 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

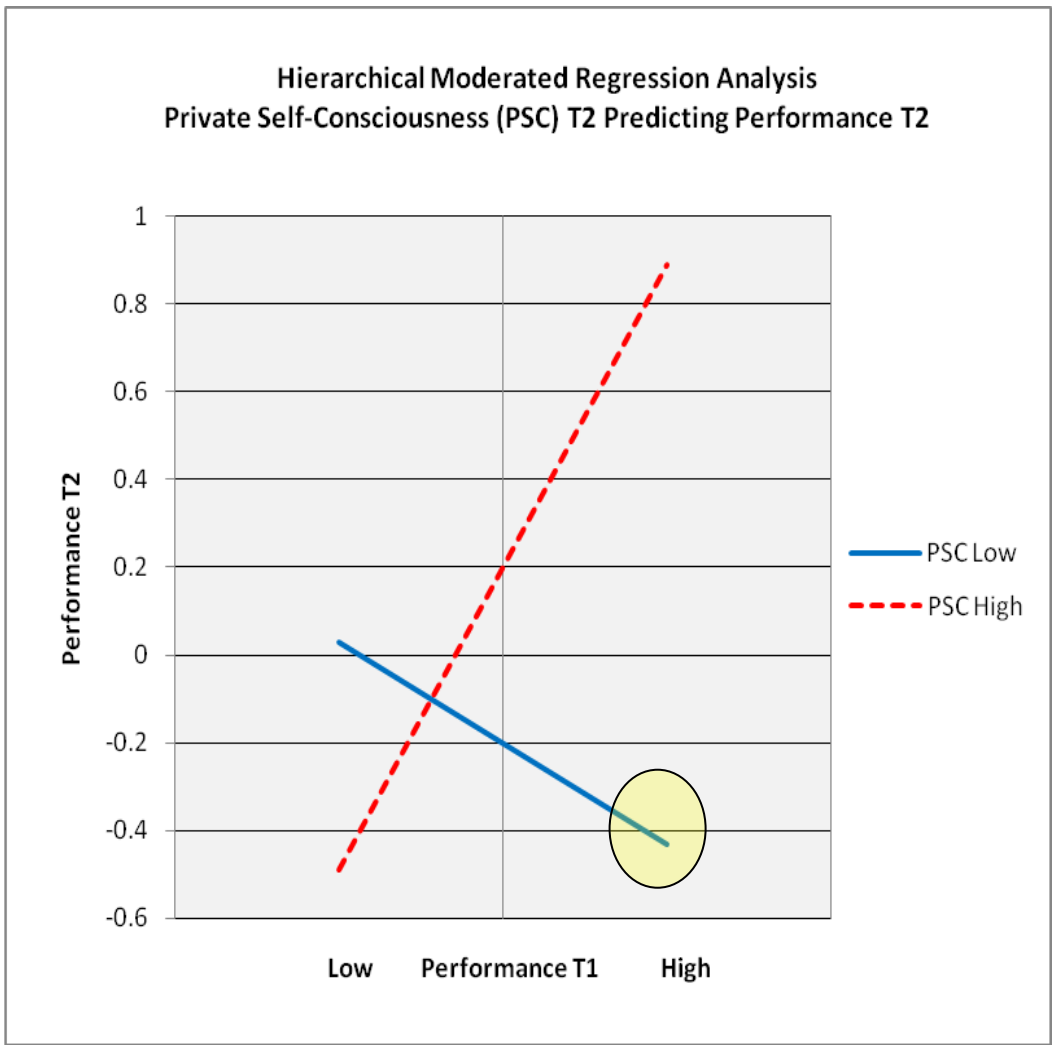
Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.02**	**.30 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.11**	**.15**	**.15**	**.78**		
PSC T2	**3.22**	**.15**	**.004**	**.004**		
Step 2					**.16**	**4.93*(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.17**	**.14**	**.23**	**1.24**		
PSC T2	**-.15**	**.15**	**-.20**	**-.97**		
Job Performance * PSC	**.36**	**.16**	**.46**	**2.22***		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-sided)

Table 4.17 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether private self-consciousness acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=.78) and private self-consciousness T2 (t=.004) showing their independent roles in

predicting job performance T2 (f=.30, d.f.=26, r square change =.02), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=4.93, d.f.=25, r square change =.16). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant result (t=-2.22) suggesting that private self-consciousness acts as a moderator of job performance at T2, accounting for 16% of the variance.

Graph 4.5



Graph 4.5 above, shows the moderation effect of private self-consciousness T2 on job performance at T2. Controlling for performance T1 means that the residual performance T2 measure indicates change. The graph indicates that changes in job performance do not occur for everyone similarly. For those with high private self-consciousness T2, there appears to be little effect on performance between T1 and T2 over time, irrespective of the level of performance at T1. The same is true for those

with low private self-consciousness T2 and low performance T1, little change in performance T1 to T2 is observed. This means that low performance T1 is related to low performance T2, and high performance T1 is related to high performance T2. However, for those low in private self-consciousness T2 and high performance T1 (yellow circle), there is a strong decrease in performance T1 to T2 over time. This means that private self-consciousness plays an important role in performance change, particularly for certain individuals. The practical implications of this for coaching highlights the importance of the relationship between private self-consciousness and performance, suggesting that for those individuals with low private self-consciousness (T2) and high performance (T1); high performance is likely to decrease during coaching. This indicates that in order to avoid a decrease in performance for those with high performance, it is important to take into account levels of private self-consciousness during coaching, in particular, those with low levels of private self-consciousness. This suggests that in order to maintain high performance, increasing levels of self-awareness and self-reflection for those individuals with low levels of private self-consciousness in particular, may prove beneficial for maintaining high performance levels.

4.4 Objective 2(a) – Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coachee)

The purpose of this section is to explore the relationship between coaching and the interpersonal communication skills and coaching attitude of the coachee. Results are presented into two parts: (a) coachee's interpersonal communication skills; and (b) coachee's coaching attitude. The coaching outcome measures used throughout this section include: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.4.1 Question 4

What is the impact of coaching on the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.

This question is explored using paired sample t-tests to examine the changes to interpersonal communication skills of the coachee after coaching, comparing pre and post coaching measures of interpersonal communication skills. Results of the paired sample t-tests are presented in table 4.18 below.

Table 4.18: *Results of Paired Sample T-tests for **Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills**: (Total Scale Scores).*

	mean Time 1	mean Time 2	SD Time 1	SD Time 2	t-test	d.f.
Interpersonal Communication Skills Coachee	5.37	5.74	.51	.69	-4.02 **	19

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Results in table 4.18 show a statistically significant result (t=-4.02; df=19; p<.01) in the mean scores which have increased between the two time points T1 (5.37) and T2 (5.74). This suggests that coaching may play a significant role in influencing the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee.

4.4.2 Question 5

Do the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.

Question five is explored using longitudinal hierarchical regression analysis to reveal the extent to which the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee predict change in coaching outcomes.

Table 4.19: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses **Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills** (IPC/A) Time 2 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.003	.07 (23)
Job Performance T1	.05	.20	.05	.27		
Step 2					.22	6.24**(22)
Job Performance T1	-.04	.18	-.04	-.23		
IPC/A T1	.37	.15	.48	2.50**		
Step 3					.17	5.80**(21)
Job Performance T1	-.05	.17	-.06	-.35		
IPC/A T1	-.05	.22	-.06	-.22		
IPC/A T2	.54	.22	.68	2.41**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.19 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis, the model uses a three step process. Step 1 shows the dependent variable (DV) job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (β=.05,t=.27; r square change =.003, f=.07, d.f.=23). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coachee) as the independent variable and tests the degree to which interpersonal communication skills (coachee) at T1 is associated with the change in performance between T1-T2 over time (β=.48, t=2.50; r square change =.22, f=6.24, d.f.=22). Results for Step 2 indicate a significant result (t=2.50), suggesting that the level of interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 is associated with an increase in job performance T1-T2 over time, accounting for an additional 22% of variance. Step 3 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T2 and tests the degree to which the change in interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1-T2 is associated with the change in job performance T1-T2, (β=.68, t=2.41; r square change =.17, f=5.80, d.f.=21). Results for Step 3 shows a significant result (t=2.41) suggesting that change is associated with change, i.e. an increase in interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1-T2 is associated with an increase in job performance at T1-T2, accounting for an additional 17% of variance.

Whilst ordinarily it might be more cohesive to assess the measurement scales in their entirety, it was thought useful to carry out more detailed analysis of the coachee's interpersonal communication skills scale by individual item, in order to highlight the specific factors relating the COACHEE which are most likely to have an impact on coaching effectiveness. To accomplish this, Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression was carried out with individual items from the coachee's interpersonal communication skills (IPC coachee) scale and job performance. The rationale for including this analysis for job performance only, is because job performance was the only coaching outcome measure to show statistical significance. (All non-significant results are attached in the appendix) Results are presented in tables: 4.20, 4.21, 4.22 and 4.23 below. In order to simply the output data, step 2 only has been reported for each of the individual scale items.

Table 4.20: *Summary of Results for Individual Items from Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable IPC Coachee T2 Individual Scale Items	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 2					**.27**	**9.77**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**-.03**	**.15**	**-.03**	**-.18**		
IPC Coachee 1 T2 I am friendly and approachable	**.42**	**.13**	**.55**	**3.13****		
Step 2					**.41**	**18.96**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**-.02**	**.13**	**-.03**	**-.16**		
IPC Coachee 2 T2 I am open and honest in their communication	**.46**	**.11**	**.67**	**4.35****		
Step 2					**.16**	**5.18*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**-.002**	**.17**	**-.002**	**-.01**		
IPC Coachee3 T2 I am willing to share personal information about myself	**.27**	**.12**	**.43**	**2.28***		
Step 2					**.18**	**5.67*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.003**	**.16**	**.003**	**.02**		
IPC Coachee4 T2 I am an effective communicator	**.31**	**.13**	**.44**	**2.38***		
Step 2					**.18**	**5.77*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.03**	**.16**	**.03**	**.18**		
IPC Coachee5 T2 I take people's needs and feelings into consideration	**.37**	**.16**	**.44**	**2.40***		
Step 2					**.17**	**5.31*(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.06**	**.16**	**.07**	**.40**		
IPC Coachee6 T2 I like working with others	**.40**	**.17**	**.42**	**2.30***		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.21: *Summary of Results for Individual Items from Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable **IPC Coachee T2** **Individual Scale Items**	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**	**R2 Change**	**F (d.f.)**
Step 2					**.01**	**.36 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.10**	**.17**	**.12**	**.60**		
IPC Coachee7 T2 I allow others to finish their sentences	**.08**	**.14**	**.12**	**.60**		
Step 2					**.09**	**2.51†(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.08**	**.17**	**.09**	**.47**		
IPC Coachee8 T2 I am receptive to change	**.21**	**.14**	**.30**	**1.59†**		
Step 2					**.17**	**5.33*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.10**	**.15**	**.11**	**.62**		
IPC Coachee9 T2 I am receptive and open to feedback	**.27**	**.12**	**.41**	**2.31***		
Step 2					**.17**	**5.49*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.02**	**.16**	**.02**	**.10**		
IPC Coachee10 T2 I will seek clarification if I am unclear about something	**.38**	**.16**	**.43**	**2.34***		
Step 2					**.10**	**2.91†(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.08**	**.16**	**.09**	**.49**		
IPC Coachee11 T2 I am open to being challenged	**.26**	**.15**	**.32**	**1.71†**		
Step 2					**.22**	**7.76**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.09**	**.15**	**.10**	**.60**		
IPC Coachee13 T2 I am happy to communicate Face to Face	**.46**	**.17**	**.48**	**2.79****		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.22: *Summary of Results for Individual Items from Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable IPC Coachee T2 Individual Scale Items	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 2					**.18**	**6.05*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.09**	**.15**	**.10**	**.58**		
IPC Coachee14 T2 I am happy to communicate by Telephone	**.30**	**.12**	**.43**	**2.46***		
Step 2					**.06**	**1.55 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.16**	**.17**	**.18**	**.95**		
IPC Coachee15 T2 I am happy to communicate Email	**.14**	**.11**	**.24**	**1.25**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.23 below provides a summary of the statistically significant results in order of significance, highlighting those items relating to the coachee's interpersonal communication skills which have the most influence on job performance, and therefore, are more critical to the coaching process in terms of effectiveness.

Table 4.23: *Summary of the critical individual factors relating to* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *predicting* ***Job Performance*** *in order of statistical significance*

Item Code	Item Description	Level of Statistical Significance
IPC Coachee1	I am friendly and approachable	p < .01
IPC Coachee2	I am open and honest in my communication	p < .01
IPC Coachee13	I am happy to communicate Face to Face	p < .01
IPC Coachee3	I am willing to share personal information	p< .05
IPC Coachee4	I am an effective communicator	p< .05
IPC Coachee5	I take people's needs and feelings into consideration	p< .05
IPC Coachee6	I like working with others	p< .05
IPC Coachee9	I am receptive and open to feedback	p< .05
IPC Coachee10	I will seek clarification if I am unclear about something	p< .05
IPC Coachee14	I am happy to communicate by Telephone	p< .05
IPC Coachee8	I am receptive to change	p< .10
IPC Coachee11	I am open to being challenged	p< .10
IPC Coachee7	I allow others to finish their sentences	NS
IPC Coachee15	I am happy to communicate by Email	NS

(NS Not significant)

Interestingly, most aspects of the coachee's interpersonal communication were found to be associated with change over time in job performance T1-T2, in particular, 'being approachable' and 'honest' and 'face to face' types of communication. However, there were: two aspects of interpersonal communication which were not found to be significant; these were being allowed to finish sentences during communication, and communicating via email, both of which were not considered to be important during coaching.

(All non-significant results are attached in the appendix)

4.4.3 Question 6

To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.

This research question is concerned with exploring the extent to which the coachee's interpersonal communication skills act as a moderator of coaching outcomes. These results will identify any interactive effects therefore, highlighting any sub-groups more likely to be influenced by a coaching intervention and draws attention to which conditions are more relevant for coaching success. Hierarchical moderated regression analysis is used to analyse the data. This has been carried out in two stages, first using pre-coaching measures of the independent variable and secondly using post-coaching measures of the independent variable. The purpose of using pre-coaching measures is to explore an individual's readiness for coaching and offer some insight into interpersonal communication skills before coaching and how this influences the coaching process. Using post-coaching measures examines the influence of coaching on the independent variable and then explores the interactive effect on coaching outcomes. Only significant results are included and are presented in the following order; self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, private self-consciousness. (See Appendix A for non-significant results).

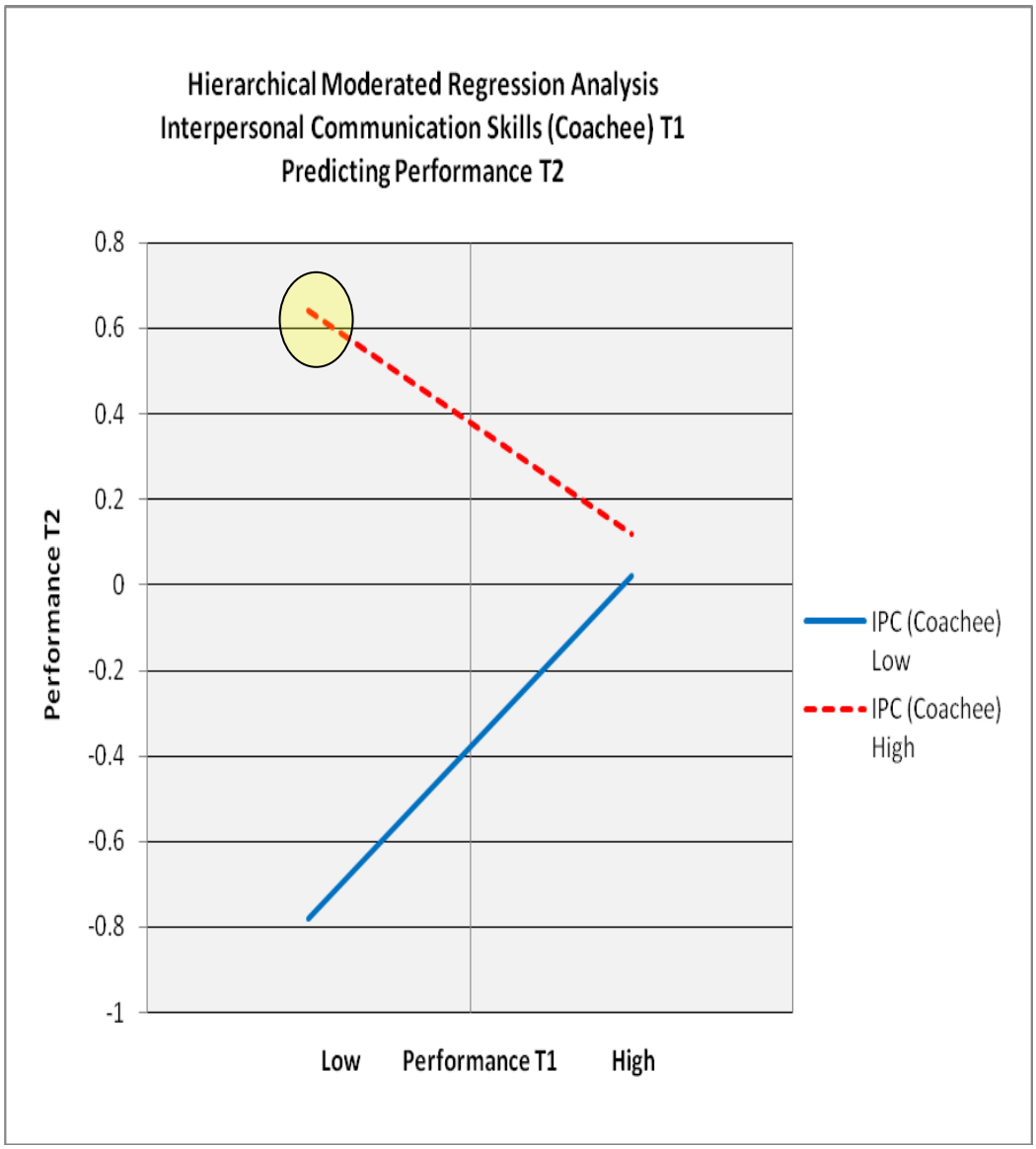
Table 4.24: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 1 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.22**	**3.17*(22)**
Job Performance T1	**-.04**	**.16**	**-.04**	**-.23**		
IPC (Coachee) T1	**.37**	**.15**	**.48**	**2.50***		
Step 2					**.09**	**2.85†(21)**
Job Performance T1	**.06**	**.17**	**.07**	**.36**		
IPC (Coachee) T1	**.29**	**.15**	**.38**	**1.95***		
Job Performance * IPC (Coachee)	**-.31**	**.18**	**-.33**	**-1.69†**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.24 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether interpersonal communications skills (coachee), acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=-.23) and interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 (t=2.50) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=3.17, d.f.=22, r square change =.22), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=2.85, d.f.=21, r square change =.09). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant trend (t=-1.69) suggesting that interpersonal communications skills (coachee) acts as a moderator of job performance at T2, accounting for 9% of the variance.

Graph 4.6



Graph 4.6 above, shows the moderation effect of interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 on job performance T2. Controlling for performance T1 means that the residual performance T2 measure indicates change. The graph indicates that changes in job performance do not occur equally for everyone. For those who have low interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 there appears to be little observed effect on performance between T1 and T2, irrespective of the level of performance at T1. The same is true for those with high interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 and high performance T1, little change in performance T1 to T2 can be observed over time. This means that low peformance T1 is related to low performance T2 and high

performance T1 is related to high performance T2. However, for those with high interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 and low performance T1 (yellow circle), there is a strong increase in performance during coaching between T1 and T2. This suggests that a coachee's interpersonal communication skills (coachee) are an important factor to consider at the start of coaching, as they are likely to have a significant influence on performance during coaching, particulary for certain individuals. The practical implications of this for coaching highlights the importance of the relationship between interpersonal communication skills (coachee) and performance, suggesting that for those individuals with high interpersonal communication skills (coachee) and low performance; performance is likely to increase from low to high during coaching. This indicates that high interpersonal communicaiton skills are an important factor to consider during coaching, as a way of positively influencing low performance.

4.5 Objective 2(b) – Coaching Attitude (Coachee)

4.5.1 Question 7

What is the impact of coaching on coaching attitude? It is expected the effect will be positive.

This research question is concerned with exploring the relationship between coaching and the coachee's coaching attitude, to examine the extent to which coaching attitude changes over time after receiving coaching. The test used to analyse the data involved paired sample *t*-tests from coachee responses, there were four items used to examine coaching attitude and results are presented in table 4.25 below for total score results, and individual item results.

Table 4.25: *Results from the Paired Sample T-Tests* ***Coachee's Coaching Attitude*** *between two time points (T1/T2), for total scores and individual item scores*

ITEM CODE	ITEM DESCRIPTION	T1		T2		t	df
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
	Coaching Attitude Total Score	5.93	.74	5.17	1.16	3.55**	28
	Coaching Attitude Individual Items						
EXP1	I expect to find/found coaching challenging	5.69	1.37	4.93	1.69	2.72**	28
EXP2	I believe coaching will improve my performance / help me achieve my objectives	6.14	.69	4.86	1.33	5.15**	28
EXP3	Coaching will help me work more effectively with others/has helped me work more effectively with others	6.00	0.60	4.86	1.46	4.21**	28
EXP4	Coaching will help/has helped raise my level of self-awareness	5.90	1.15	5.21	1.50	2.72**	28

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Results in table 4.25 reveal several statistically significant outcomes. The mean for the total score decreased from 5.93 to 5.17 (t=3.55; df=28; p<.011) suggesting that overall attitude or expectations were not matched by the coaching experience. To examine results more closely, all four individual items showed statistically significant results; *I expect to find coaching challenging* (t=2.72; df=28; p<.011); *I believe coaching will help improve my performance* (t=5.15; df=28; p<.0004); *coaching will help me work more effectively with others* (t=4.21; df=28; p<.0004); *Coaching will help raise my level of self-awareness* (t=2.72; df=28; p<.011). These results are important as they suggest that coachee's expectations were not matched by their experience of coaching as all four mean scores between the two time points T1 to T2 decreased. These results indicate several things; that respondents did not find coaching as challenging as they thought it would be; that coaching did not help them achieve their objectives or improve their

performance as much as they had thought it would; that coaching did not help them work more effectively with others; and that coaching did not help raise self-awareness as much as they thought it would. There may be several reasons to help explain these outcomes, which will be discussed further in the next chapter; however, it does indicate that expectations about the coaching process are unrealistic and not borne out by experience.

4.5.2 Question 8

> *To what extent does coaching attitude influence coaching outcome. It is expected the effect will be positive.*

This research question is concerned with exploring the relationship between coaching and coachee's coaching attitude, to examine the extent to which coaching attitude predicts change in coaching outcomes over time. The statistical test used to analyse the data involved longitudinal hierarchical regression analysis, results are presented as follows:

Table 4.26: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coaching Attitude*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.02	.63 (27)
Job PerformanceT1	.13	.16	.15	.79		
Step 2					.04	1.26(26)
Job Performance T1	.08	.17	.09	.49		
Coaching Attitude T1	-.22	.19	-.21	-1.12		
Step 3					.09	2.66†(25)
Job Performance T1	.09	.16	.11	.59		
Coaching Attitude T1	-.32	.20	-.32	-1.61		
Coaching Attitude T2	.20	.13	.31	1.63*		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.26 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis, the model uses a three step process. Step 1 shows job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (β=.15, t=.79; r square change =.02, f=.63, d.f.=27). Step 2 introduces coaching attitude as the independent variable and tests the degree to which coaching attitude T1 is associated with the change in job performance over time T1-T2

(β=-.21,t=-1.12; r square change =.04, f=1.26, d.f.=26) over time. Step 3 introduces coaching attitude T2 and tests the degree to which the change in coaching attitude T1-T2 is associated with the change in job performance T1-T2 (β=.31, t=1.63; r square change =.09,f=2.66, d.f.=25). Results show a significant outcome at step 3 suggesting that change is associated with change, i.e. a decrease in coaching attitude T1-T2 is associated with an increase in job performance T1- T2 (t=1.63), accounting for an additional 9% of variance.

Table 4.27: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coaching Attitude*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					.54	30.22** (26)
OCB T1	.82	.14	.73	5.50		
Step 2					.002	.09(25)
OCB T1	.08	.16	.72	5.10**		
Coaching Attitude T1	.05	.15	.04	.31		
Step 3					.10	6.66†(24)
OCB T1	.76	.14	.68	5.31**		
Coaching Attitude T1	-.08	.14	-.07	-.56		
Coaching Attitude T2	.25	.09	.34	2.58**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.27 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis, the model uses a three step process. Step 1 shows organisational citizenship behaviour T1 predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (β=.73, t=5.50; r square change =.54, f=30.22, d.f.=26). Step 2 introduces coaching attitude as the independent variable and tests the degree to which coaching attitude T1 is associated with the change in organisational citizenship behaviour over time T1-T2 (β=.04, t=.31; r square change =.002, f=.09, d.f.=25) over time. Step 3 introduces coaching attitude T2 and tests the degree to which the change in coaching attitude T1-T2 is associated with the change in organisational citizenship behaviour T1-T2 (β=.34, t=2.58; r square change =.10, f=6.66, d.f.=24). Results show a significant outcome at step 3 suggesting that change is associated with change, i.e. a decrease in coaching attitude T1-T2 is associated with a decrease in organisational citizenship behaviour T1-T2 (t=2.58), accounting for an additional 10% of variance.

4.5.3 Question 9

To what extent does coaching attitude moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.

The relationship between coaching attitude and coaching outcomes is explored in this question in order to highlight any interactive effects. The statistical test used involved hierarchical moderated regression analysis, results are presented as follows:

Table 4.28: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for* ***Coaching Attitude*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.07**	**.98 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.14**	**.15**	**.18**	**.94**		
Coaching Attitude T2	**.17**	**.15**	**.22**	**1.15**		
Step 2					**.17**	**5.49* (25)**
Job Performance T1	**.24**	**.14**	**.31**	**1.64†**		
Coaching Attitude T2	**.22**	**.14**	**.29**	**1.62†**		
Job Performance * Coaching Attitude	**-.36**	**.15**	**-.43**	**-2.34***		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.28 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether coaching attitude acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=.94) and coaching attitude T2 (t=1.15) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=.98, d.f.=26, r square change =.07), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=5.49, d.f.=25, r square change =.17). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant result (t=-2.34) suggesting that coaching attitude acts as a moderator of job performance at T2, accounting for 17% of the variance.

Graph 4.7

Graph 4.7 above, shows the moderation effect of coaching attitude T2 on job performance T2. Controlling for performance T1 means that the residual performance T2 measure indicates change. The graph indicates that changes in job performance do not occur for everyone similarly. For those who have a negative attitude or experience of coaching T2, there is little observed effect on performance T1 to T2, over time, irrespective of the level of performance at T1. Similarly, for those with a positve experience or attitude and low performance T1, there is little observed effect on performance T1 to T2. This means that low performance T1 is related to low performance T2 and high performance T1 is related to high performance T2. However, for those with a positive attitude or positive experience of coaching T2 and low

performance T1 (yellow circle), a significant increase in performance could be observed between T1 and T2. This suggests that an individual's experience of coaching or their attitude towards coaching is an important factor to consider in coaching, as it is likely to have a positive influence on performance, particularly for certain individuals. The practical implications of this for coaching highlights the importance of the relationship between attitude (coachee) and performance, suggesting that for those individuals with a positive attitude (coachee) and low performance; performance is likely to increase from low to high during coaching. This indicates that a positive attitude is an important factor to consider during the coaching process as this is likely to influence performance and therefore, can be used as a way of increasing performance especially for those with low performance at the start of coaching.

4.6 Objective 3 – Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coach)

This section explores the relationship between coaching and the coach's interpersonal communication skills (from the coachee perspective) and examines the impact of these skills on coaching outcomes.

4.6.1 Question 10

> *To what extent do the coach's interpersonal communication skills influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

The test used to analyse this research question is Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis. Due to the fact that there was only one time point measure of the coach's interpersonal communication skills (T2), a two step process, rather than a three step process was used. Results are presented as follows:

Table 4.29: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.03**	**.59 (23)**
Job Performance T1	**.15**	**.20**	**.16**	**.77**		
Step 2					**.20**	**5.52*(22)**
Job Performance T1	**.09**	**.18**	**.09**	**.48**		
IPC Coach T2	**.53**	**.23**	**.45**	**2.35***		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.29 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether the change in job performance T2 is predicted by the interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (f=.59, d.f.=23, r square change =.03, t=.77). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coach) as the independent variable and tests the degree to which interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2 predicts the change in job performance at T2 (f=5.52, d.f.=22, r square change =.20, t=.48) over time. Results do show a statistically significant outcome at step 2 (t=2.35) suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2 is a predictor of the change in job performance at T2, accounting for an additional 20% of the variance. Whilst ordinarily it might be more cohesive to assess measurement scales in their entirety, it was thought useful to undertake more detailed analysis of the interpersonal communication skills (coach) scale by individual item, in order to highlight the critical factors relating the COACH most likely to have an impact on coaching effectiveness. To accomplish this, Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression was carried out on the individual items of the interpersonal communication skills (coach) scale to assess the impact on job performance. The rationale for assessing the impact on job performance only, is because job performance was the only coaching outcome measure to show statistical significance at the higher level (*p< .05). In order to simply the output data, Step 2 only has been reported for each of the individual scale items. Results are presented in tables: 4.30, 4.31, 4.32, 4.33 and 4.34 below.

Table 4.30: *Summary of Results for Individual Items from Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable **IPC Coach T2** **Individual Scale Items**	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**	**R2 Change**	**F (d.f.)**
Step 2					**.40**	**17.31**(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.08**	**.14**	**.09**	**.60**		
IPC Coach1 T2 My coach had a friendly and approachable manner	**.71**	**.17**	**.64**	**4.16****		
Step 2					**.29**	**10.94*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.13**	**.14**	**.15**	**.90**		
IPC Coach2 T2 My coach was open and honest in their communication	**.65**	**.20**	**.54**	**3.31****		
Step 2					**.07**	**1.92† (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.10**	**.17**	**.11**	**.58**		
IPC Coach3 T2 My coach was willing to share personal information	**.20**	**.15**	**.26**	**1.38†**		
Step 2					**.21**	**7.06**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.08**	**.15**	**.09**	**.52**		
IPC Coach4 T2 My coach was an effective communicator	**.47**	**.18**	**.46**	**2.66***		
Step 2					**.30**	**11.40**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.11**	**.14**	**.13**	**.81**		
IPC Coach5 T2 My coach appeared to take my needs and feelings into consideration	**.53**	**.16**	**.55**	**3.38****		
Step 2					**.02**	**.43 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.07**	**.19**	**.08**	**.36**		
IPC Coach6 T2 My coach expressed a desire to work with me	**.12**	**.19**	**.15**	**.66**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.31: *Summary of Results for Individual Items from Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable **IPC Coach T2** **Individual Scale Items**	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**	**R2 Change**	**F (d.f.)**
Step 2					**.17**	**5.54*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.14**	**.15**	**.17**	**.94**		
IPC Coach7 T2 My coach allowed me to finish my sentences	**.43**	**.18**	**.42**	**2.35***		
Step 2					**.07**	**1.93†(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.11.**	**.17**	**.12**	**.62**		
IPC Coach8 T2 My coach did seek clarification if they were unclear about something	**.25**	**.18**	**.27**	**1.39†**		
Step 2					**.09**	**2.62†(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.10**	**.16**	**.12**	**.62**		
IPC Coach9 T2 My coach was able to challenge my ideas / thoughts	**.27**	**.17**	**.30**	**1.62†**		
Step 2					**.10**	**3.02†(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.14**	**.16**	**.16**	**.87**		
IPC Coach10 T2 My coach made me feel at ease	**.28**	**.16**	**.32**	**1.74***		
Step 2					**.05**	**1.53 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.09**	**.17**	**.10**	**.52**		
IPC Coach11 T2 My coach showed enthusiasm for the coaching process	**.21**	**.17**	**.24**	**1.24**		
Step 2					**.16**	**4.89*(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.10**	**.16**	**.12**	**.63**		
IPC Coach12 T2 My coach behaved in a professional manner	**.37**	**.17**	**.40**	**2.21***		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.32: *Summary of Results for Individual Items from Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable **IPC Coach T2** **Individual Scale Items**	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**	**R2 Change**	**F (d.f.)**
Step 2					**.18**	**6.03*(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.11**	**.15**	**.12**	**.69**		
IPC Coach13 T2 I felt reassured by the confidentiality of the process	**.33**	**.14**	**.43**	**2.46***		
Step 2					**.24**	**8.23**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.05**	**.15**	**.06**	**.33**		
IPC Coach14 T2 My coach provided useful feedback	**.42**	**.15**	**.49**	**2.87****		
Step 2					**.10**	**2.79†(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.11**	**.17**	**.13**	**.68**		
IPC Coach15 T2 My coach showed empathy and offered emotional support	**.28**	**.17**	**.31**	**1.67†**		
Step 2					**.11**	**3.24*(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.10**	**.17**	**.12**	**.62**		
IPC Coach16 T2 My coach was credible	**.31**	**.17**	**.34**	**1.80***		
Step 2					**.27**	**10.11**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.16**	**.14**	**.19**	**1.13**		
IPC Coach17 T2 Managing expectations – my coach was clear about what they could and couldn't do	**.33**	**.11**	**.52**	**3.18****		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.33: *Summary of Results for Individual Items from Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable **IPC Coach T2** **Individual Scale Items**	**B**	**SE B**	**β**	**t**	**R2 Change**	**F (d.f.)**
Step 2					**.001**	**.01 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.13**	**.17**	**.15**	**.78**		
IPC Coach18 T2 The gender of my coach was an important part of the coaching relationship	**-.01**	**.08**	**-.02**	**-.12**		
Step 2					**.02**	**.63 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.08**	**.18**	**.09**	**.46**		
IPC Coach19 T2 I would have felt more reassured if my coach had been external to the organisation	**-.09**	**.12**	**-.16**	**-.80**		
Step 2					**.22**	**7.31*(25)**
Job Performance T1	**.12**	**.15**	**.13**	**.77**		
IPC Coach20 T2 I felt there was equality in the relationship between myself and my coach	**.26**	**.10**	**.47**	**2.70***		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.34 below provides a summary of the statistically significant results in order of significance, highlighting those items relating to the Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills which have the most influence on job performance, and therefore, are more important to the coaching process in terms of effectiveness.

Table 4.34: *Summary of the critical individual factors relating to* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *predicting* ***Job Performance*** *in order of statistical significance*

Item Code	Item Description	Level of Statistical Significance
IPC Coach1	My coach had a friendly and approachable manner	p < .01
IPC Coach2	My coach was open and honest in their communication	p < .01
IPC Coach5	My coach appeared to take my needs and feelings into consideration	p < .01
IPC Coach14	My coach provided useful feedback	p < .01
IPC Coach17	Managing expectations – my coach was clear about what they could and couldn't do	p < .01
IPC Coach4	My coach was an effective communicator	p< .05
IPC Coach7	My coach allowed me to finish my sentences	p< .05
IPC Coach10	My coach made me feel at ease	p< .05
IPC Coach12	My coach behaved in a professional manner	p< .05
IPC Coach13	I felt reassured by the confidentiality of the process	p< .05
IPC Coach16	My coach was credible	p< .05
IPC Coach20	I felt there was equality in the relationship between myself and my coach	p< .05
IPC Coach3	My coach was willing to share personal information	p< .10
IPC Coach8	My coach did seek clarification if they were unclear about something	p< .10
IPC Coach9	My coach was able to challenge my ideas / thoughts	p< .10
IPC Coach15	My coach showed empathy and offered emotional support	p< .10
IPC Coach6	My coach expressed a desire to work with me	NS
IPC Coach11	My coach showed enthusiasm for the coaching process	NS
IPC Coach18	The gender of my coach was an important part of the coaching relationship	NS
IPC Coach19	I would have felt more reassured if my coach had been external to the organisation	NS

NS: not significant

The results indicate several important findings, suggesting that some of the most important factors relating to the coach which predict change in the coachee's job performance during coaching include things such as: the coach being friendly and honest, showing empathy, managing expectations and providing useful feedback. However, less important factors, which were found not to be significant in predicting change included: gender, being an external coach and showing enthusiasm, suggesting that these particular aspects relating to the coach are not as important for coaching success.

Table 4.35: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.46**	**18.76**(22)**
OCB T1	**.78**	**.18**	**.68**	**4.33****		
Step 2					**.05**	**2.02† (21)**
OCB T1	**.76**	**.18**	**.66**	**4.30****		
IPC Coach T2	**.25**	**.18**	**.22**	**1.42†**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.35 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether the change in organisational citizenship behaviour T2 is predicted by interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows organisational citizenship behaviour T1 predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (f=18.76, d.f.=22, r square change =.46, t=4.33). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coach) as the independent variable and tests the degree to which interpersonal communication skills (coach) predicts the change in organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (f=2.02; d.f.=21, r square change =.05, t=4.30) over time. Results for step 2 show a statistically significant trend in the data

(t=1.42), suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2 is a predictor of the change in affective commitment T2, accounting for an additional 5% of the variance.

4.6.2 Question 11

> *To what extent do the coach's interpersonal communication skills influence the meta-cognitive skills of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

This research objective explores the extent to which the skills of the coach influence self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control or private self-consciousness of the coachee. Longitudinal hierarchical regression analysis is used to examine the data and results are presented as follows:

Table 4.36: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses* ***for Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Self-Esteem*** *(Coachee) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.52**	**22.92**(21)**
Self-Esteem T1	**.87**	**.18**	**.72**	**4.79****		
Step 2					**.04**	**1.77† (20)**
Self-Esteem T1	**.80**	**.19**	**.67**	**4.33****		
IPC Coach T2	**.27**	**.20**	**.20**	**1.33†**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.36 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether the change in self-esteem T2 is predicted by interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2. (As noted previously, this is a measurement of perceived skills and not actual skills of the coach). Due to the fact there was only one

time point measurement of the coach's interpersonal communication skills at T2, post-coaching, a two step, rather than a three step model was used. Step 1 shows self-esteem T1 predicting self-esteem at T2 (f=22.92, d.f.=21, r square change =.52, t=4.79). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coach) as the independent variable and tests the degree to which interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2 is associated with the change in self-esteem T1-T2 (f=1.7, d.f.=20, r square change =.04, t=4.33) over time. Results for step 2 show a trend in the data (t=1.33†), suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2 is positively associated with change in self-esteem T1-T2, accounting for an additional 4% of the variance.

Table 4.37: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Private Self-Consciousness (PSC)*** *(Coachee) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.67**	**46.09**(23)**
PSC T1	**.65**	**.10**	**.82**	**6.79****		
Step 2					**.03**	**2.27†(27)**
PSC T1	**.61**	**.10**	**.77**	**6.33****		
IPC Coach T2	**.21**	**.14**	**.18**	**1.51†**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.37 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether the change in private self-consciousness T2 is predicted by interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2. Due to the fact there was only one time point measurement of the coach's interpersonal communication skills at T2, post-coaching, a two step, rather than a three step model was used. Step 1 shows private self-consciousness T1 predicting private self-consciousness at T2 (f=46.09, d.f.=23, r square change =.67, t=6.79). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coach) as the independent variable and tests the degree to which interpersonal

communication skills (coach) T2 is associated with the change in private self-consciousness T1-T2 (f=2.27†, d.f.=27, r square change =.03, t=6.33) over time. Results for step 2 show a trend in the data (t=1.51), suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2 is positively associated with change in private self-consciousness T1-T2, accounting for an additional 3% of variance.

4.6.3 Question 12

> *To what extent do the **coach's** interpersonal communication skills influence the **coachee's** interpersonal communication skills? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

This research question explores the extent to which the skills of the coach act as a predictor of change in the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee over time. Longitudinal hierarchical regression analysis is used to examine the data and results are presented as follows:

Table 4.38: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills** Time 2 predicting **Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.62**	**24.48**(15)**
IPC Coachee T1	**.10**	**.20**	**.79**	**4.95****		
Step 2					**.08**	**3.63*(14)**
IPC Coachee T1	**.96**	**.18**	**.78**	**5.31****		
IPC Coach T2	**.37**	**.19**	**.28**	**1.90***		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4.38 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether the change in interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T2 is predicted by interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2. Due to the fact there was only one time point measurement of the coach's interpersonal communication skills at T2, post-coaching, a two step, rather than a three step model was used. Step 1 shows interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 predicting interpersonal communication skills (coachee) at T2 (f=24.48, d.f.=15, R square change=.62, t=4.95). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coach) as the independent variable and tests the degree to which interpersonal communications skills (coach) T2 is associated with the change in interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1-T2 (f=3.63, d.f.=14, R square change =.08, t=5.31) over time. Results for step 2 show a statistically significant result (t=1.90), suggesting that the interpersonal communication skills (coach) T2 is positively associated with the change in interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1-T2, accounting for an additional 8% of variance.

4.7 Objective 4 - Coaching Outcomes

This section explores the impact of coaching on a range of individual and organisational coaching outcomes, specifically: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.7.1 Question 13

> *What is the impact of coaching on a range of individual and organisational coaching outcomes and other outcome measures associated with coaching effectiveness? It is expected the effects will be positive.*

The test used to analyse the data for this research question involved paired sample t-tests from coachee responses. Data collected at time point one was compared to data collected at time point two. Results are presented in table 4.39 below:

Table 4.39: *Results of Paired Sample T-tests for* ***Coaching Outcomes***:

	Mean Time 1	Mean Time 2	SD Time 1	SD Time 2	t-test	d.f.
Job Performance	5.76	5.83	.87	.76	-.35	28
Affective Commitment	3.94	3.87	1.05	1.27	.37	27
Organisational Citizenship	5.21	5.18	.71	.79	.27	27

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

There were no statistically significant results for the above coaching outcomes when taken as total scales, however there were two individual items on the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour scale which were found to be statistically significant, see table 4.40 below.

Table 4.40: *Statistically significant results from the Paired Sample T-Tests for individual items relating to,* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *(OCB) T1-T2*

ITEM CODE	ITEM DESCRIPTION	T1		T2		t	df
	ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**		
OCIT1	I am willing to offer a fair days work	6.14	1.06	6.69	0.47	-3.13**	28
OCIT8	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	3.41	1.59	2.76	1.73	2.22*	28

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

The results for organisational citizenship show statistical significance for two items measured; '*I am willing to offer a fair days work' (t=-3.13; df=28; p*<0.004); *'I would feel*

guilty if I left my organization now' (t=2.22; df=28; p<0.034). The importance of these findings are that they indicate that post coaching people report that they are more willing to offer a fair days work, after coaching than they were prepared to offer before coaching, showing an increased level of citizenship behaviour for these items. Results also show, however, that people are reporting to have fewer feelings of guilt associated with leaving the organization after coaching. This could be explained by several factors including: increased levels of self-confidence and a perception that people feel they have more options available to them now. Reduced feeling of guilt towards leaving the organization might also be linked to external factors relating to redundancies and job cuts.

A summary of the key findings for the quantitative results presented in chapter four are shown in the following table 4.41, a written summary follows:

Table 4.41: *Summary of Significant Results*

	Job Performance				Affective Commitment				Organisational Citizenship Behaviour			
	Longitudinal		**Moderate T1**	**Moderate T2**	**Longitudinal**		**Moderate T1**	**Moderate T2**	**Longitudinal**		**Moderate T1**	**Moderate T2**
	Step 2	Step 3			Step 2	Step 3			Step2	Step 3		
Self-Esteem	NS	NS	NS	†	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	**	NS	NS
Self-Efficacy	NS	*	**	NS	**	NS	NS	NS	NS	*	NS	NS
Locus of Control	*	NS	*	*	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	*	NS	NS
Private Self-Consciousness	NS	NS	NS	*	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coachee)	**	**	†	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Coaching Attitude	NS	*	NS	*	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	**	NS	NS
The Coach Interpersonal Communication Skills	NCO	*	NCO	NCO	NC0	NS	NCO	NCO	NCO	†	NCO	NCO
	Self-Esteem				**Private Self-Consciousness**				**Interpersonal Communication Skills Coachee**			
	Longitudinal (Step 3)				**Longitudinal** (step 3)				**Longitudinal** (step 3)			
The Coach Interpersonal Communication Skills	†				†				*			

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed), NS-Not Significant, NCO -Not carried out, NA -Not available

4.8 Summary of Quantitative Findings

The quantitative data was gathered using questionnaires then analysed using a combination of statistical tests including: t-tests, longitudinal hierarchical regression and moderated regression analyses. These tests provided evidence of the relationship between meta-cognition, interpersonal communication, attitude and expectations, the coach and coaching outcomes. The evidence also highlights the relationship of some of these items of interest with behavioural and attitudinal changes during the coaching process. This relates directly to the aims of the thesis by providing empirical evidence of factors which have an impact on coaching effectiveness. The evidence throughout provides the coachee perspective.

4.8.1 Meta-Cognition

The quantitative results reveal many interesting relationships between meta-cognition and the coaching outcomes of interest in this study. The evidence suggests two things: firstly, that all aspects of meta-cognition, self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and private self-consciousness to varying degrees appear to be influenced by the coaching process and secondly; that meta-cognition appears to influence change in coaching outcomes over time. The results provided by the regressions reveal some significant relationships between meta-cognition and job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. In terms of the regressions a number of important relationships were revealed, indicating some positive and negative associations between meta-cognition and coaching outcomes, these include: (1) self-esteem positively associated with change in organisational citizenship behaviour; (2) self-efficacy positively associated with changes in organisational citizenship behaviour, affective commitment and job performance; (3) locus of control negatively associated with job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour; (4) no observed relationships for private self-consciousness. In terms of the moderation effects there appears to be an association between all of the meta-cognitive skills and job performance, revealing different relationships and sub-groups where changes occur. Whilst it is not possible to draw more definitive conclusions of causal relationships due to lack of control measures, the evidence does provide an indication that meta-cognition positively influences change in a number of outcome measures associated with coaching effectiveness. This evidence suggests therefore, that it is important to consider meta-cognition during the coaching process because of the potential impact it has on coaching effectiveness.

4.8.2 Interpersonal Communication Skills

The quantitative findings provide evidence of the role of interpersonal communication skills in coaching, indicating: (1) that coaching has a positive impact on the coachee's interpersonal communication skills and; (2) that that interpersonal communication skills of the coachee are significantly positively related to changes over time in job performance. Evidence shows that during the coaching process interpersonal communication skills for the coachee increased, suggesting that coachees were becoming more open, more receptive to feedback and across a range of items demonstrated more effective communication. These findings are important as they make a link between openness and receptiveness and coaching outcomes, indicating that it is important to consider the coachee's receptiveness during the coaching process because of the likely impact this will have on coaching effectiveness.

4.8.3 Attitude / Expectations

Quantitative results provide evidence which suggests that there is an important relationship between attitude and expectations within coaching. There were two key findings: (1) coaching expectations were not matched by experience during the coaching process, and; (2) evidence reveals that attitude and expectations influence changes in job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour over time. This evidence is important as it indicates that attitude should be considered more fully within the coaching process because of the potential impact it can have on coaching outcomes, suggesting that an individual's perception of the likely benefits of coaching need to be managed carefully and matched to the reality of the experience, as this is likely to affect the success of the process.

4.8.4 Coach

The quantitative results provide evidence which indicates that the coach plays an important role within the coaching process, suggesting that there are a number of key skills and qualities which are relevant for coaching effectiveness. The main findings show two things: (1) the coach's skills are positively associated with changes over time in job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour; (2) the coach's skills are positively related to change in levels of self-esteem, private self-consciousness and interpersonal communication skills for the coachee. This evidence is important as it

suggests that the coach's skills are an important part of the coaching process because of the potential impact they have on effectiveness.

4.8.5 Outcomes

Whilst there was no direct evidence of coaching significantly impacting on all three coaching outcomes in the t-tests, i.e. there were no direct observable increases or decreases in the coaching outcomes, some significant results were observed in the regression analyses (as outlined above). The evidence suggests therefore, that to varying degrees, meta-cognition, interpersonal communication, attitude and the coach all have an impact on coaching outcomes.

In terms of the quantitative data it is important to recognise the problems associated with the small sample and lack of control group within this study. With regards small samples there are restrictions placed on the types of statistical analysis that can be carried out and also limitations relating to statistical power (Cohen, 1988); with regards a lack of control group, this makes it difficult to draw inferences about the direct effects of coaching. In order to help overcome these problems and strengthen the evidence, additional qualitative data was gathered which is presented in the next chapter. The main purpose of this was to help explore in more depth the emergent themes from the quantitative findings and contextualise these findings within a coaching setting. This approach seeks to build upon previous evidence reinforcing the link between coaching and factors which influence coaching effectiveness, thus meeting the research aims and objectives.

Chapter 5: Results – Qualitative

5.1 Introduction

Chapter five presents the qualitative evidence gathered during stages three and four of the research design. The method of data collection involved the qualitative interview technique (King, 1994), and evidence is presented in idiographic case study format. Adopting an idiographic case study approach permits a more detailed exploration of the subject matter, leading to a fuller understanding of the topics of interest (Cresswell, 2003; Hartley, 2004; Cassell and Symons, 2004) (See chapter three for further details of the qualitative methodological approach). A total of ten coachees were interviewed at two time points, which represents approximately one third of the total sample (n=29). The first interview took place immediately after the coaching (9-10 months); the purpose of this interview was to capture views about the coaching process immediately after coaching had taken place in an attempt to benefit from the recency effect of experience, where participants are more likely to have good recall memory. The second interview took place six months post coaching; the purpose of this interview was to build upon the emergent themes of the quantitative findings from stages one and two. As Yin (1981) points out, whilst there is no fixed recipe for writing up or building explanations about qualitative data, case study accounts should be organised around the key research topic areas and may take the form of notes rather than lengthy narratives; the second interview in particular, seeks to achieve this. A semi-structured interview format was adopted to allow flexibility, whilst ensuring consistency with the core aims and objectives, and a longitudinal approach, sought to overcome some of the disadvantages incurred by single method approaches (Ruspini, 2000; Patton, 2002). The qualitative interview data is presented in idiographic case study format, in order to provide more detailed information about the individual experience of coaching, this approach helps to contextualise the findings and offers a fuller understanding of the subject matter (Cassell and Symons, 2004; Cresswell, 2003). However, due to the large amount of detail gathered during the interview stage, it was felt an overview of the key points would be helpful in guiding the reader through this data set; the overview is followed by the detailed idiographic case studies. A summary integrating both data sets (quantitative and qualitative) is presented at the end of this chapter in table 5.22, linking the findings to the research objectives.

5.2 An Overview of Key Themes

Coaching appears to have a positive effect on an individual's self-esteem and self-efficacy and the relationship between these two aspects of self-perception appear to be interlinked, whereby increases in self-confidence influence a person's belief in their capability at work. The feedback process and the coach, in particular, seem to be important mechanisms through which these effects occur. In terms of locus of control, organisational restructuring and job insecurity were not reported as being contributory factors connected to feelings of control during coaching. However, deconstruction of the self during critical self-analysis during the coaching process does appear to be related to experiences of helplessness, which may be related to an unwillingness to take personal responsibility for outcomes. This evidence suggests a link between locus of control and processes which occur during coaching. In terms of private self-consciousness, this was understood in terms of self-awareness and self-reflection, and coaching appears to have raised levels of self-awareness, encouraging self-reflection.

In terms of interpersonal communication skills, these skills appear to be strengthened during coaching and evidence suggests this may be linked to a person's openness to change, receptiveness and attitudes towards the coaching process, all of which appear to influence levels of engagement, with implications for coaching effectiveness.

In terms of the coach, the ability of the coach to demonstrate empathy and build trust within a safe environment seems to be an important factor for coaching effectiveness, as well as the ability of the coach to challenge, listen and ask key questions. Some of the tangible outcomes of coaching which support coaching effectiveness include: promotions, improved management capability, improved decision making, increased delegation etc.

The detailed evidence of the qualitative data is now presented in idiographic case study format. Comments and quotations from the interviews are presented in Appendix H, and a summary of the coding systems and matrices for thematic content analysis for the qualitative interviews is presented in Appendix E.

5.3 Idiographic Case Studies

This section presents ten idiographic case studies, providing detailed evidence of what influences coaching effectiveness from an individual perspective. The primary criteria for

selection of the interview participants was based on candidates having an intense experience of the coaching process; this was deemed to involve a minimum of six coaching sessions, reflecting a purposeful intense sampling strategy (Patton, 2002). Each case study presents an overview of the participant providing demographic details about age, tenure, job role and coaching objective, followed by detailed evidence of both interviews. The first interview provides an overview and less detailed account of what influences coaching effectiveness, whereas the second interview is more detailed and covers the emergent themes and areas of interest in more depth. The evidence from the second interview provides a narrative account with quotations, which is presented under five key headings: meta-cognition; interpersonal communication; attitude / expectations; the coach; outcomes. For each case study the narrative accounts are followed by summary tables which capture the key themes to emerge from the interviews.

Before presenting the ten idiographic case studies table 5.1 below shows an overview of the demographics of the ten interviewees. The majority of those interviewed were in the mid twenties to mid thirties age range, however, two participants were below this age range and two were older, in the mid fifties plus range. Four of those interviewed had been with the organisation less than five years; however, most had been with the organisation longer than six years. Three were male and the rest were female. All interviewees had taken part in at least six coaching sessions, although several had been involved in more sessions. Out of those interviewed, job grades ranged from: A2 which involved support / administrative roles; A3/B1 grades which involved supervisory/junior management and; B2 which involved middle/senior manager grade. Individual coaching objectives varied, however, they included: building confidence, dealing with senior management, improving ability to influence decision making, career development and to improve general management capability.

Table 5.1: Summary of demographic information for idiographic case studies

Case Study	Participant	Gender	Age Range (years)	Length in Organisation (years)	Level in Organisation at start of coaching	Level in Organisation at the end of coaching	Number of coaching sessions	Coaching Objective
1	A	F	25-34	1-5	B1	B2	6	Build confidence, improve ability to manage upwards
2	B	M	25-34	6-10	B2	B2	6	Team management and general management capability
3	C	F	35-44	10+	A3	B2	6	Increase confidence in dealing with senior management, enhance credibility in her work role
4	D	F	35-44	10+	B1	B1	6	Career development
5	E	F	25-34	1-5	A3	B1	12	Management of others Dealing with senior management
6	F	F	25-34	1-5	A2	B1	10	Improving ability to influence upwards; improving confidence; improving ability to think and communicate under pressure
7	G	F	55-64	10+	B1	B1	7	Address self-doubt
8	H	F	55-64	6-10	A2	A3	8	to prove to myself that I have the ability to influence decision making at all levels Improve team management
9	I	M	25-34	1-5	A2	A2	7	Improving communication skills
10	J	M	25-34	6-10	A3	A3	8	General management skills Work more effectively with team

5.3.1 Case Study One: Participant A

5.3.1.1 An Overview of Participant A

Participant A is a female in her late twenties and has been employed in the organisation for five years. At the start of coaching her job grade was at the supervisory level B1, however over the course of the coaching period she secured a promotion to manager grade at B2. Her coaching objective was to develop self-confidence, specifically to help improve her ability to manage others within the role and improve her ability to manage upwards. She had a total of six coaching sessions, each lasting between one and half to two hours long. Overall, her experience of coaching was positive, albeit emotionally draining, resulting in a need to take time away from being coached. She reported a significant increase in self-confidence, evidenced by a positive impact on her ability to manage difficult conversations and situations.

5.3.1.2 First Interview

During the first interview Participant A reported that even though she had had a positive experience of coaching, she had found it emotionally draining, and as a result felt a need to disengage from the process for a period of time. She described factors which she felt were critical to coaching being effective in terms of the coachee being willing to engage in the coaching process, part of which involved having the right attitude. She also felt it was important for the person being coached to have realistic expectations, especially because coaching is hard work and she felt many would be ignorant of this fact. She also felt that it was important for the coach to challenge views and provide good feedback for the process to be successful. In terms of the impact of coaching, she felt that as a direct result of coaching she was more able to tackle difficult conversations and was more effective at influencing others to buy-in to her ideas, which provided some good examples and tangible evidence of the positive impact of coaching.

5.3.1.3 Second Interview

5.3.1.3.a Meta-cognition

Participant A discussed the impact of coaching on her self-confidence, expressing mixed views about this. She felt that the level of her self-confidence was dependent on the particular issue being discussed, for example, if an issue was discussed on the surface level she felt this didn’t negatively affect her confidence or self-esteem, however, when the issue being discussed was more deep rooted in nature relating to emotions and self-belief, she noticed that this had a much bigger impact on her levels of self-esteem, which

had a noticeable effect on reducing levels of self-confidence. This relates significantly to the objectives of her individual coaching engagement which was to address issues relating to self-belief.

> *'I sometimes felt that my self-confidence was lower after a coaching session and that I had made a step backwards, where I would leave a session and then would start to unpick the good work we had done'*

Overtime however, she felt her self-confidence had improved as a result of coaching which was evidenced by a new approach to work and her ability to deal with more difficult work situations.

> '*I now have the confidence to tackle difficult conversations'*

> *'I feel that coaching has given me the confidence to deal with people in the work environment'*

When asked to comment directly on her thoughts about her capability to be effective at work (self-efficacy), conflicting evidence was presented. On the one hand she commented that she didn't feel she had noticed very much impact with this regard, however, she did provide tangible evidence of improved self-efficacy in that she felt she was much more effective at dealing with difficult situations within the workplace as a result of the coaching, suggesting that self-efficacy had been strengthened.

Exploring her views about feeling in control at work (locus of control); she revealed that coaching had had a significant impact, which was linked to self-awareness. She felt coaching had helped her become more self-aware by encouraging her to reflect on the impact she was having on work outcomes. With enhanced levels of self-awareness this enabled her to understand more fully the role she played at work and how she was able to influence work outcomes, demonstrating both a positive impact on locus of control and a direct link with self-awareness (private self-consciousness).

> '*Yes, I feel much more in control now, before coaching I didn't feel I had any control over my work'*

> *'At the beginning I didn't fully take responsibility'*

> *'I am more aware now of other people's behaviour and how I react to this, I used to blame myself a lot, coaching has helped me be more realistic'*

'I feel more in control now at work, I used to let external factors influence me too much, coaching has encouraged me to self-reflect, I take more responsibility now'

She discussed the fact that coaching forced her to explore things about herself which were difficult, and as a result she admitted that coaching was emotionally tiring, commenting that she had no desire to engage in coaching for a while. This evidence suggests that whilst coaching may be perceived as positive, it is also challenging and involves hard work.

'*I have learnt a lot about myself but I don't feel I have had time to adjust or use what I have learnt – during coaching you deal with things that you don't like about yourself which is hard to deal with'.*

When asked specifically about the changes that were taking place within the organisation, she responded that during the year of coaching there had been a lot of restructuring, which had made her feel less in control of her work environment. She did comment however, that coaching had helped her deal with this instability, by helping her to be more aware of the things she could influence, and be more realistic about those things she was unable to control. This demonstrates the power of coaching to influence locus of control by raising awareness of the sphere of influence, and by establishing more realistic expectations.

'there has been a lot of restructuring at work and this is a process you can't control'

This provides evidence of the link between locus of control and the coaching process, highlighting, the positive impact of coaching to help individuals manage external factors within their environment more effectively.

5.3.1.3.b Interpersonal Communication

Participant A felt that coaching had had a significant impact on her communication style; she reflected that pre-coaching her style had been quite guarded and closed, finding it difficult to discuss things openly, whereas coaching had provided a safe environment for her to discuss her feelings more openly. She believed that the coach had been instrumental in creating this atmosphere, providing some clear evidence of the role of the coach and their ability to communicate and manage the coaching process, in enhancing coaching effectiveness.

'*I realised that it wasn't all bad, coaching helped remove the fear'*

‘coaching helped me to be more open about feedback and be more receptive not only to giving but receiving feedback’

‘coaching helped me realise my own style of communicating, during coaching I became more self-aware, I can now see that I need more time to process information for me to understand what it mean’

Participant A felt very strongly that being open and receptive towards the coaching process was very important for coaching to be successful and to enable the process to move forward. This demonstrates a strong link with the concept of receptiveness and engagement within coaching, providing some clear evidence that interpersonal communication style is a highly critical factor in effective coaching.

‘if you are closed it makes it very difficult to move forward or make progress, the sessions would be very short and it would hinder the process....I know because I used to be very closed’

5.3.1.3.c Attitude / Expectations

In terms of attitude, Participant A felt that she had a much more positive attitude towards coaching at the beginning of the process, which she thought was influenced by two things: the fact that it was a new experience for her and; secondly she had been influenced by her manager’s positive experience and approach towards coaching. On reflection, her expectations at the start of coaching were high, which were not matched by the experience. However, through experiencing her awareness of the coaching process had been increased, suggesting a clear link between attitude, expectations and experience within coaching.

‘my expectations of coaching at the start were high and these were not matched by reality’

‘*I now know what is involved and what is needed’*

Participant A expressed a strong opinion about the need for coachee’s to be open and willing to engage in coaching and that in the absence of this attitude the coaching engagement would be less effective. There was a fairly strong push towards coaching within the organisation; however, she felt not everyone was ready for this type of engagement or intervention, which might have been reflected in outcomes.

‘*people go along to coaching because they think they should, not everyone is ready for coaching’*

'the more open and receptive you are to coaching the more you get out of it'

In summary, she felt that people were influenced by peer pressure or pressure from management, which could lead to an ineffective coaching engagement. Overall, she felt coaching was 'over-hyped' and that more realistic expectations about the coaching process were needed in order to achieve successful outcomes. This provides evidence of the role of attitude and expectations within coaching, suggesting a strong link also with receptiveness and engagement for coaching effectiveness.

5.3.1.3.d The Coach

In order for coaching to be productive, Participant A felt that the coach needed to create trust within the coaching relationship. She felt strongly that the coach was responsible for encouraging participation; however, this should be achieved in the 'right' way, by demonstrating 'empathy', especially for those with low self-belief, as in her case. These views provide evidence of a strong link between the role of the coach and effective coaching engagements, suggesting that the coach needs to influence the relationship by providing a safe and trusting environment for coaching to be effective.

'*the coaching relationship is very important for coaching to work'*

'it takes very specific styles, the coach needs to match the coach, and if it doesn't work, you need to move on and find another coach'

Further discussion revealed that Participant A felt there were three critical factors that the coach needed to demonstrate and manage within the coaching relationship for the coaching process to be effective, this involved the coach: (1) showing empathy, (2) creating trust and (3) showing openness. However, she felt that this could not be done in isolation and that the coachee also had a responsibility to demonstrate the same qualities.

When prompted to rank three key areas in terms of priority for coaching to be effective, Participant A believed that all three elements were necessary, i.e. the psychological disposition of the coachee needed to be strong (self-confidence), the coachee needed to have the right attitude and be receptive, and the coach also needed to demonstrate strong interpersonal qualities relating to empathy, trust and honesty in order for coaching to be effective.

'*the coachee needs to be willing otherwise coaching won't work'*

5.3.1.3.e Outcomes

Participant A reported an overall positive experience of coaching. She felt the process had been effective in addressing self-belief, which was low at the start of the coaching, and had been one of the key objectives of the coaching. She felt coaching had helped raise levels of self-awareness, which had resulted in a more realistic view about work and the impact she had on others. As a result of coaching she understood more clearly her own motivations for goal attainment, and was more effective at using feedback to appraise performance. She felt coaching hadn't had a measurable impact on her levels of commitment towards the organisation, as this was already high, and whilst she hadn't noticed any specific change in her willingness to engage in citizenship behaviour, she felt as a result of increased self-confidence, she was more likely to volunteer for challenging assignments. Additional tangible evidence of coaching effectiveness was provided through promotion, where Participant A had moved from a junior administrative role (Grade A2) to a more senior supervisory/junior management role (Grade B1) within 18 months, which she directly attributed to coaching. She believed that as a result of coaching her self-confidence had increased which had encouraged her to apply for roles at higher grades. She is now responsible for managing a large team in a junior management role and without coaching she would not have had the self-belief to achieve this. Another positive outcome is that as a result of coaching she now works as a coach herself.

> '*I feel more confident in doing things now, before I was reluctant to volunteer for certain jobs because I didn't believe I could do them'*
>
> *'coaching has definitely given me the self-belief and confidence to tackle things that I wouldn't have dreamt of before'*

Participant A expressed the view however, that in terms of levels of commitment towards the organisation, coaching conceivably encourages individuals to pursue higher aspirations, and when these are not aligned with the organisational goals, or if these cannot be fulfilled within the same organisation, people may seek to realise their potential externally, which would be reflected in a negative effect on commitment.

In summary, Participant A provided evidence of a positive experience of coaching, the key areas of impact involved increased self-belief and self-confidence through raised self-awareness. Pre-coaching views with regards performance and ability were unrealistic and coaching helped eliminate some of these barriers to improvement, by eliminating fear and raising awareness of the power to influence outcomes directly.

Critical areas highlighted for effective coaching were the need for receptiveness and openness within coaching and the role of the coach in creating a safe and trusting environment. The psychological dimensions within coaching and the power of coaching to influence these, e.g. by reinforcing self-belief, improving self-efficacy, raising levels of self-awareness and increasing responsibility and awareness of how to influence outcomes was highlighted within the evidence, demonstrating a strong link between coaching and individual psychological factors of the coachee, and coaching effectiveness.

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in tables 5.2 and 5.3 below.

Table 5.2: Participant A: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• Can tackle difficult conversations, can get people to buy-in to her ideas
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Willingness of persons to engage and have the right attitude • Need realistic expectations, coaching is hard work • Coach creates the right atmosphere, friendly, relaxed • Coachee needs to take ownership
Relationship with the coach	• Coach challenged her • Provided some good feedback
Would you have coaching again	• Not for a while, found it emotionally draining

Table 5.3: Participant A: Second Interview – Key themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes*	Increased self-confidence with surface level issues Decrease in self-confidence when issues were more deep rooted Over time confidence increased More self-belief	More able to tackle difficult situations and conversations with staff
Self-efficacy	No	No specific evidence provided	General feeling of being more effective in dealing with difficult situations
Locus of Control	Yes**	Raised awareness of things she can control or influence More realistic about what she can influence or control	Takes more responsibility for action and outcomes Addresses areas of self-development
Private self-consciousness	Yes**	More self-reflective More aware of the impact of her role Found coaching emotionally draining	More aware of own behaviour and how she reacts to others More realistic approach to work situations
Interpersonal	Yes*	Pre-coaching very guarded, closed	More willing to engage in open

Communication		approach Raised awareness of own style of communication and how she processes information	discussions More receptive to feedback

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes**	Coachee needs to be open and willing to engage People influenced by peer pressure Need realistic expectations and knowledge about the process	Influenced by supportive manager Expectations at the start were too high Impacts on engagement Not everyone ready for coaching

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Yes**	Trust Encourage participation Empathy openness Matched relationship crucial Needs to create the right environment	No specific evidence provided

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	Yes	Increased self-confidence and self-belief encouraged her to apply for higher posts Increased levels of self-awareness	More realistic appraisal of performance Promotion to higher job grade
Organisational Commitment	No	No specific evidence provided General view that coaching encourages higher aspirations which could be counter-productive	No specific evidence provided Commitment already high
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Yes	More confidence to volunteer for tasks	No specific evidence provided
Other Evidence of Outcomes	No specific evidence provided		

** strength of view*

5.3.2 Case Study Two - Participant B

5.3.2.1 An Overview of Participant B

Participant B is a thirty one year old male. He has worked with the organisation for eight years, employed at Grade B2 management level. He works in the Service Development / Head Quarters department, where he is responsible for managing a team of up to forty people. He was involved in coaching over a nine month period, receiving six sessions of coaching during this period, lasting up to two hours per session. The coaching formed part of a wider management development programme and was used to support the programme and enhance development during this period. In summary, Participant B expressed overall satisfaction with coaching and his sceptical attitude towards coaching at the beginning of the process had been replaced with a more positive view about the benefits of coaching.

5.3.2.2 First Interview

During the first interview the participant revealed that coaching had been a positive experience and would be something of interest for the future. Factors which were thought to be important for coaching to be effective included: having enough time, being receptive and receiving good feedback. The relationship with the coach was also highlighted as being important, whereby the skill of the coach to probe in the right areas and to provide a bigger picture view was valuable. Gender was perceived as being unimportant, however, the opinions and feedback offered from a more senior and well respected coach was highly valued as was the capacity of the coach to get to the source of problems quickly.

5.3.2.3 Second Interview

5.3.2.3.a Meta-cognition

Whilst issues relating to self-esteem and self-confidence were not perceived as being relevant for Participant B, it was felt that coaching had had a positive influence on these factors. There had been a noticeable boost to self-confidence, especially in the short term, evidenced by an increase in confidence to make proposals to senior colleagues, which prior to coaching had not been present. It was felt also that coaching had strengthened confidence in dealing with difficult tasks, such as the budget, which had constantly been deferred.

> *'in the short term I think coaching gave me a boost of confidence'*
>
> *'coaching gave me the confidence to propose responses on how to manage the budget'*

Coaching also appeared to have a positive impact on self-efficacy beliefs, and as a result of the coaching conversations, Participant B felt more able to deal with difficult team issues such as the team's structure. It was felt that through discussion and challenging questioning, the coach had helped reframe things and encouraged a different style of thinking and approach towards work. In terms of tangible evidence of coaching success, Participant B had managed a huge IT services contingency exercise for the organisation, which prior to coaching he would not have had sufficient self-belief to undertake. The IT operating system had failed and his role had been instrumental in ensuring the manual system operated successfully within the contingency planning exercise, with important implications for the business. He recognised that coaching had influenced the way he perceived his own role and had given him the confidence to believe he could be effective

in managing such an important and large project. This evidence suggests a strong link between coaching, self-esteem and self-efficacy, highlighting the important role of the coach within this relationship; demonstrating also the link between coaching, meta-cognition and the coach.

> *'the coach asked me some key questions, he got me to think about different areas and to challenge the norm'*

> *'I noticed that when I was being coached I started to be more proactive at work'*

> '*being told that you are doing a good job reinforces the way you see yourself*'

In terms of the impact of coaching on self-awareness, Participant B gave a positive response, indicating that coaching had had a significant influence on this. The coaching sessions encouraged a more reflective approach, resulting in increased self-awareness, specifically in terms of working style preferences. During the periods of self-reflection Participant B observed that the coach encouraged a more strategic approach to work, contrasting this with the micro level, day to day approach that he had been adopting. As a result of the coaching Participant B felt he worked more strategically and had increased his self-awareness.

> *'I was getting bogged down with the minutiae of work and all the day to day small issues, coaching helped me to think about the way I was working, I hadn't realised I was neglecting the level at which I should have been managing the team and work more strategically'*

In terms of locus of control, Participant B revealed that during the period of coaching he had felt affected by the changes and restructuring that had taken place at work and as a result had experienced some discomfort. On reflection he felt that coaching had had a significant impact in helping manage feelings of not being in control, by raising confidence, improving self-perceptions and through positive feedback about performance, an increased feeling of security within an uncertain environment had been achieved. In particular, for Participant B, the status of the coach as a very senior member of the organisation operating at director level seems to have played a significant role in influencing the coaching process. Receiving praise and feedback from such a senior member of staff reinforced feelings of security, providing recognition and validation for work efforts, demonstrating a clear role for the coach in influencing coaching effectiveness, with important links to locus of control.

'the positive feedback I got from my coach, especially with his status at work, helped me recognise I was doing a good job, which made me feel more secure'

'Coaching helped me feel I could contribute more which made me feel more in control'

'I did feel a level of discomfort with the changes at work, the positive feedback helped'

5.3.2.3.b Interpersonal Communication

Participant B felt that being open and receptive during coaching was an essential part of the process and in the absence of this less progress would be achieved. Recognition was shown for the need to adopt an effective communication style during the coaching, which had been facilitated by the coach, who actively encouraged an open style of communication. Communication wasn't perceived to be of personal concern; however, for coaching in general, it was felt that communication played an important role in the coaching process as a whole.

5.3.2.3.c Attitude / Expectations

Participant B revealed a sceptical attitude towards coaching; he felt a degree of 'change fatigue' within the organisation, and with new initiatives constantly being introduced his expectations of coaching were low at the beginning. However, he provided evidence to show that in spite of a negative attitude his experience of coaching had been a positive one. He felt that the skill of the coach and personal qualities had contributed to this, with many references made to the fact that the coach held a very senior role within the organisation and was well respected. It was felt also that coaching provided space for individual time, which contributed to a positive attitude.

'new initiatives can be disappointing, I didn't have a huge faith in coaching'

'*I remember leaving the coaching sessions feeling enthused'*

5.3.2.3.d The Coach

Participant B identified that the key qualities of the coach that enhanced coaching effectiveness concerned: the ability of the coach to listen, show empathy, to provide good, intelligent feedback and to encourage thinking on a deeper level. Additionally, seniority and status of the coach within the organisation appears to have had a significant influence on Participant B's experience of coaching.

'my coach tried to get me to make decisions for myself'

'my coach was a good listener, was attentive and understood me and my situation well'

'my coach gave me some good feedback which was helpful, the fact that he was very senior and well respected in the organisation also helped'

'...personally, I would be put off if I felt the coach was rubbish'

5.3.2.3.e Outcomes

In terms of the impact of coaching on performance Participant B struggled to recall tangible evidence, although, indirect improvements were measured by being more proactive at work and achieving a more effective team structure with a clear chain of command, freeing time for more effective people management. Some of the focus of the coaching conversations had involved discussions about effective team management, revealing different styles of management. With regards commitment towards the organisation specifically, it was felt coaching had had a slight impact, whereby recognition was shown for the investment in coaching, resulting in an enhanced feeling of allegiance towards the job and the organisation and less willing to seek alternative employment in spite of uncertainty with job tenure.

'*I felt the organisation was investing in me as a person'*

'I didn't apply for other jobs'

'I felt I was becoming a better manager, coaching helped me create a better team structure, which freed up my time to focus on managing'

Participant B provided evidence during the interview to show that coaching had been a positive experience, although initially sceptical, an open mind and good coaching relationship contributed to this experience. A clear link was also shown between experience and attitude, whereby, a positive experience changed perceptions of the value of coaching. It was felt coaching helped strengthened confidence to deal with uncertainty and change by encouraging a more positive focus on how to contribute effectively within a management role. This provides some strong evidence of the benefits of coaching in strengthening self-esteem, and self-efficacy with positive links to locus of control and self-awareness, demonstrating a clear relationship between meta-cognition and the coaching process. In addition to this, status and seniority of the coach had a strong influence over perceptions of the coaching process and contributed significantly to the coaching experience being a positive one.

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in table 5.4 and 5.5 below.

Table 5.4: Participant B: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• Takes on more responsibility for outcomes • Clear actions • Raised own visibility in different parts of the business • Coaching raised awareness of how can achieve more in his role
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Need enough time • Being receptive • Good feedback
Relationship with the coach	• Fact that the coach was very senior and had a proven track record was very important, inspirational • Gender unimportant • Valued opinions of the coach • She got to the root of problems • Skill of coach is critical – needs to see the bigger picture, probe the right areas
Would you have coaching again	yes

Table 5.5: Participant B: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes	Boost to self-confidence (already high)	Makes more proposals to senior colleagues
Self-efficacy	Yes	More self-belief in tackling difficult work tasks Coaching changed his perception of his work role and how he operates	Deals with tasks that felt unsure about e.g. budget Successful implementation of a large IT project
Locus of Control	Yes	Felt uncomfortable with changes taking place, coaching helped him feel more secure and more in control	More proactive at work
Private self-consciousness	Yes	More self-reflective led to increased self-awareness	Operates more strategically
Interpersonal Communication	No	Already communicates well, feels it is essential part of coaching, felt own style helped support his progress	

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes	Negative attitudes need to be addressed for coaching to be successful	Good experience of coaching enhanced attitude Sceptical at start Felt 'change' fatigue but openness helped

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Yes**	Provide positive feedback Seniority of the coach Good listening skills Empathy	Gave validation to his work

		professional	

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	yes	Boost to self-confidence, self-belief and self-awareness	No tangible evidence More proactive at work Improved management capability
Organisational Commitment	Yes	Recognised the commitment shown in him by coaching felt sense of responsibility	Less willing to seek alternative employment despite instability at work
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	No	No evidence provided	No evidence provided
Other Evidence of Outcomes	No evidence provided		

** strength of view*

5.3.3 Case Study Three – Participant C

5.3.3.1 An Overview of Participant C

Participant C is a female aged forty one years. She has been with the organisation for twelve years and works in a human resource role, offering advice to service delivery teams. At the start of coaching she held a junior management position A3 grade, responsible for managing one team member at the end of coaching she achieved a promotion to B2 grade, middle management role. The coaching involved six sessions, spread over a twelve month period. The coaching sessions lasted approximately one hour and formed part of a management skills programme. The specific coaching objective was to increase confidence in dealing with senior management and to enhance credibility within the role.

5.3.3.2 First Interview

During the first interview Participant C discussed the coaching process as a positive experience which left her motivated to want to train to become a coach. Factors critical for coaching effectiveness included: having enough time; being challenged to find solutions; adopting a different outlook; having awareness of the process; and face to face contact. In terms of the relationship with the coach, gender was perceived as being unimportant for effective coaching, however, a similar personality was thought to be helpful. Other skills relating to the coach which were helpful for the effectiveness of the process included: effective questioning; sharing of ideas; and rapport. The outcomes from the process were both tangible in terms of promotion and less tangible, described as including: improved interpersonal skills; being more influential; being more assertive with senior management; adopting a more proactive approach to work; having more effective general management skills; and increased networking.

5.3.3.3 *Second Interview*

5.3.3.3.a Meta-cognition

Participant C felt that coaching had had a significant impact on self-confidence and the coaching discussions helped explore different perspectives and options for improving management style. One of the key aims of the coaching was to increase confidence to become more assertive at a senior level and enhance credibility within the senior management team. Coaching helped raise awareness of existing skill sets and experience, encouraging a wider perspective and helped her to identify how this approach could support her within her role as manager. She felt coaching had provided the safe environment in which to deal with sensitive issues relating to self-esteem. During coaching she observed that her levels of self-awareness although high increased further, as coaching encouraged her to move out of the comfort zone especially when communicating at a senior level. With regards self-efficacy initially, she felt this had not been influenced by coaching in a measurable way, as she already felt competent at work, but lacked confidence. However, as a result of coaching she is more effective in communicating with senior management and actively engages in more challenging types of communication. This provides evidence of the relationship between coaching, self-esteem and self-efficacy.

> *'in the coaching sessions I noticed that I had a block with communicating at different levels'*

> *'coaching helped me recognise that I had the experience and encouraged me to explore how to apply this by thinking through options'*

In terms of locus of control, Participant C expressed a desire to take control of events and circumstances and already felt competent to influence outcomes, therefore, she felt coaching hadn't directly influenced locus of control. In terms of the organisational restructuring and uncertainty, whilst she not directly affected by the changes, she felt coaching had supported her in a new business partner role by enhancing her self-confidence.

> *'I didn't feel coaching particularly influenced my feelings of being in control'*

It was felt that the coaching process and self-development in general involved hard work, and could be an emotionally destabilising experience for some individuals. It was commented on that coaching therefore, could be particularly challenging for those individuals with an external locus of control, where a lack of belief in the power to

influence outcomes could destabilise further. Adopting this perspective, this offers an alternative explanation as to why individual reactions to change may differ. When faced with instability and deconstruction of the 'self' during the coaching process, the potential exists for feelings of helplessness to arise, particularly if individuals already feel less able to control events. Specifically commenting on the organisational restructuring Participant C felt individual responses to the change process would depend very much on whether the individual was directly affected by the changes; however, throughout the organisation during the period that coaching took place it was noted that there was a lot of uncertainty.

> *'coaching involves going back in your career, I could see that this would bring about a range of emotions for some people, and could be destabilising'*

5.3.3.3.b Interpersonal Communication

With regards levels of communication or receptiveness, Participant C felt that she already had an open style of communication and as a result therefore, she did not notice any measurable change due to coaching specifically. She did feel quite strongly however, that if the coachee adopted a 'closed' approach, this would hinder the coaching process.

> *'it would make it more difficult for the coach if the coachee is closed down'*

5.3.3.3.c Attitude / Expectations

Participant C expressed some trepidation with regards the coaching process at the beginning, which was related to a lack of understanding of what was involved. It was felt that many entering into coaching were unaware of the intensity involved in working at a deeper level emotionally. Whilst personally unaffected, it was felt the impact could be negative for others, highlighting the crucial role of attitude within the coaching experience.

> *'people don't realise how much of themselves they have to 'give up' in coaching'*

> *'you have to reveal a lot about yourself, it involves digging deep and I felt a bit wary of the pressure'*

> *'to get the most out of coaching you have to be comfortable with working on yourself, it takes a lot of self-development'*

Participant C reported a more positive attitude towards coaching following the experience of coaching which had been achieved by gaining a deeper understanding of

the coaching process. On reflection, she observed that she had high expectations of coaching and believed that it would be successful, which had a positive effect on engagement during the process. It was also felt that remaining open-minded was essential especially if expectations were low.

5.3.3.3.d The Coach

In terms of the coach, Participant C felt that the most important qualities involved listening skills, and effective questioning to draw out information. She felt that the coach needed to influence the coachee but not provide answers, acting more as a catalyst for action. For the coaching relationship to be effective trust is essential, especially when working on a deeper level addressing sensitive, personal issues where individuals need to feel safe and secure. When asked to prioritise the key three factors for effective coaching, attitude was the main priority, followed by the coach, then self-belief or meta-cognition. It was felt that a lack of engagement lowered the chances of achieving a good outcome.

5.3.3.3.e Outcomes

Participant C provided evidence to suggest that coaching had impacted on performance indirectly, in that she now engages in more challenging work roles and in her new role she is required to directly challenge the senior management team, which pre-coaching would have been difficult for her to do. Whilst gaining promotion to a higher grade B2, wasn't attributed specifically to coaching, recognition was given to coaching for enhancing confidence, increasing assertiveness and raising effectiveness with senior management. She did comment that changes in performance were gradual and took place over a longer period of time. With regards commitment to the organisation no measurable change was noted during coaching, however, acknowledgement was given to coaching for the success achieved. With regards citizenship behaviour coaching had encouraged her to volunteer for extra responsibilities, e.g. to gain a coaching qualification.

> *'I don't think coaching necessarily made me feel more committed but I think it did help me get where I am now'*

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in tables 5.6 and 5.7 below.

Table 5.6: Participant C: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• Gained promotion • Increased networking • More assertive with senior management • More effective management skills • More influential • Identified ways to be more proactive • Improved interpersonal skills
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Enough time • Being challenged to find solutions • Adopting a different outlook and perspective • Understanding what is involved in the process, not spoon fed • Face to face
Relationship with the coach	• Wanted specific help with career aspirations, specialist knowledge • Similar personality perceived to be helpful • Gender unimportant • Coach very effective at questioning • Sharing ideas • Need rapport
Would you have coaching again	Yes, interested in training to be a coach

Table 5.7: Participant C: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes	Self-confidence increased	Engages in difficult conversations
Self-efficacy	Yes	More self-belief in being able to tackle senior managers More aware of own skill sets	Improved management style More effective communication with senior management
Locus of Control	No	Already felt in control	Not applicable for her, but could see others were experiencing helplessness with the instability and changes
Private self-consciousness	Yes	Self-awareness increased	Operates outside comfort zone when communicating at senior level
Interpersonal Communication	No	No – already good communicator Open style essential	No noticeable change

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes	Involves hard work Challenging process Need to be open minded	Had positive attitude but lacked knowledge of coaching therefore, uncertain what to expect Attitude and engagement improved as a result of a positive experience and better understanding of process

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Yes	Listening skills Effective questioning Influencing skills Catalyst for action	Improved engagement

		Trust Safe, secure environment	

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	Yes	More confidence	Promotion Takes on more challenging work More assertive with senior management
Organisational Commitment	No	No evidence provided	No evidence provided
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Yes	No evidence provided	Additional work, now coaches others
Other Evidence of Outcomes	No evidence provided		

5.3.4 *Case Study Four - Participant D*

5.3.4.1 An Overview of Participant D

Participant D is a thirty six year old female. She has worked in the organisation for twelve years; her principal job role involves delivery of human resource services, advising on the implementation of policy and offering support and advice to staff, with responsibility for one staff member operating at grade B1, junior management role. The coaching objective was career development and she engaged in six coaching sessions each lasting between one and one and a half hours. The experience of coaching was positive and the most critical factor for effective coaching was thought to concern attitude and the level of engagement in the process, which secures the necessary buy-in to achieve outcomes.

5.3.4.2 First Interview

Several factors were thought to be critical for coaching success, ranging from having clear boundaries and managing expectations, to understanding what is involved in the process and having an open-mind. In terms of the coach, it was felt the coach needs to ask probing questions, have good listening skills and have an objective, non-judgemental approach. Gender was not considered important, however, rapport was, which is best achieved if the coach has no direct line management responsibilities. The noticeable outcomes observed included: raised awareness of own skills and expertise, and a more proactive approach to work. Participant D reported coaching to be a positive experience.

5.3.4.3 Second Interview

5.3.4.3.a Meta-cognition

Participant D described herself as having a fairly high degree of self-confidence and therefore, coaching was perceived as not having a significant impact on this aspect of meta-cognition. The focus of the coaching had been on career development and therefore, the aim had not been specifically to build or strengthen self-esteem. It was felt however, that the coaching had encouraged reflection of work achievements and assessment of what was valued in terms of career aspirations. Indirectly the process may have strengthened self-efficacy beliefs by acknowledgement of work achievements, although, the measurable effects were not immediately apparent.

> *'the coaching encouraged me to look back at my achievements and explore how I felt about this and what I wanted from my career moving forward'*

With regards control of the work environment Participant D described herself as having an 'internal' locus of control' which might explain the lack of impact reported in this area. However, more responsibility for finding a mentor and role model was reported as a direct outcome of the coaching sessions, suggesting coaching had been a catalyst for action. She discussed the changes and restructuring within the organisation commenting that for many this represented an unsettling time, however, she personally had not been affected by the changes and therefore, it wasn't felt coaching had contributed much in this area and whilst coaching had triggered a career re-examination, little observable impact on locus of control was reported. When asked about her reflections of others and their experience of change within the organisation, it was felt that coaching involved taking a lot of responsibility for decision making and taking action which many work colleagues would be ill-prepared for. Having a clear understanding of what was involved in coaching, the hard work and level of responsibility required to take action, was thought to be critical for effectiveness.

5.3.4.3.b Interpersonal Communication

Participant D described herself as having a very open style of communication which contributed to the success of the coaching; this encouraged good discussion, enabled better access to thoughts, and provided more material for discussion.

'*I am happy to give my opinions and I think this really helped the coaching, this meant we had stimulating discussions, I was very open to respond and this provided a lot of material for discussion'*

This evidence demonstrates a clear role for good communication in effective coaching.

5.3.4.3.c Attitude / Expectations

In terms of attitude, Participant D entered the coaching process with full knowledge of what to expect which helped the process, not necessarily by making the coaching easier but by helping start the process. It was felt that a lack of knowledge of process would hinder the speed of outcomes, whereas a positive experience or good peer review could enable the process by shaping a healthy attitude. From a personal perspective she had a positive experience of coaching and her regional director was a strong supporter of coaching, which helped. It was felt that a cynical outlook would result in a lack of buy-in or non-engagement, with possible withdrawal.

'*If you go into coaching with cynicism you won't get a good outcome'*

'I had more realistic expectations about what to expect, this didn't make the coaching easier but I think it helped start the sessions and we moved quicker as a result'

5.3.4.3.d The Coach

In terms of the coach, Participant D felt the critical qualities needed included; trust, good listening skills, patience and objectivity. It was felt the coach needed to set clear expectations at the start of the process, with regards areas of responsibility, especially in terms of the hard work involved and the lack of spoon fed solutions. In terms of trust and issues relating to confidentiality, a level of detachment in the relationship was thought to be beneficial, the risks associated with familiarity needed to be avoided and previous knowledge of the individual could compromise this. The drawback however, with the coach being unfamiliar involves a longer time to build rapport and trust.

'*I think if the coach is known to you there is the risk that they may not be objective and they could use previous knowledge, although it may mean trust and rapport is built quicker'*

When asked to prioritise and summarise the three key factors required for effective coaching Participant D felt that the SELF relating to attitude and buy-in was the first priority, followed by having a good relationship with a good coach, then lastly the

psychological profile or meta-cognition of the coachee. For coaching to be effective Participant D felt that the coachee needed to have a positive attitude, a negative attitude was thought to make the process much harder for the coach to build engagement.

5.3.4.3.e Outcomes

With regards the impact of coaching on outcomes, Participant D felt that coaching had encouraged her to apply for a more senior management grade within the organisation (B1-B2 grade) and whilst she had not been successful, she felt reassured that she had succeeded in meeting the benchmark criteria for the post. The job had been in a very specialist area and other more qualified candidates had applied, however, coaching had given her the confidence to enter the selection process. Whilst there was a perception that coaching hadn't influenced self-esteem or self-efficacy, positive evidence of increased confidence contradicts this. The evidence suggests that coaching impacts positively on meta-cognition albeit unconsciously. With regards commitment and extra-role activities, high levels of commitment towards the organisation were reported prior to coaching, however, with regards organisational citizenship behaviour evidence suggests a positive impact of coaching with an increased willingness to volunteer for additional projects of a specialist nature, as a result of increased confidence developed through coaching.

> '*I have volunteered for a few specialist projects which have come up, I now think more openly about this having had coaching, I was less open to this before'*

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in tables 5.8 and 5.9 below.

Table 5.8: Participant D: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• More awareness of her own skills • More proactive
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Asking probing questions • Managing expectations • Clear boundaries • Understanding of what is involved in the process • Need to be ready and open
Relationship with the coach	• Good listening skills • Gender unimportant • Coach needs to manage expectations • Objective opinion helpful • Need good rapport

	• Better if no direct line management relationship • Non-judgemental
Would you have coaching again	• Yes

Table 5.9: Participant D: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	No	Already high levels of self-confidence	N/A
Self-efficacy	Yes	Reflection of achievements Strengthened her belief in her capability	N/A
Locus of Control	No	Already takes control	Catalyst for taking more responsibility for some work tasks
Private self-consciousness	No	Slightly more self-reflective	N/A
Interpersonal Communication	Yes	Own communication style is open, this helped discussion and progress	N/A

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes	To have full knowledge and clear expectations Support from line manager	Positive attitude helps start the process Increases buy-in and engagement

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Yes	Trust, confidentiality Good listening skills Patience Objectivity Set clear expectations Objectivity	N/A

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	Yes	Improved self-confidence to apply for more senior role	Shortlisted and therefore reached benchmark for a more senior job application
Organisational Commitment	Yes	Already high commitment levels	
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Yes	Increased belief in capability	Volunteered for extra projects of specialist nature
Other Evidence of Outcomes	N/A		

5.3.5 Case Study Five - Participant E

5.3.5.1 An Overview of Participant E

Participant E is a female in her mid-thirties. She was employed at Grade A3 junior management role during the period of coaching, within the finance and procurement division. She has been employed within the organisation for three years. She has responsibility within her role for large budgets and manages a staff of three people. She was involved in twelve coaching sessions each lasting two hours. During the period of

coaching she gained a promotion to a B1 grade which is at the higher scale of the junior management pay grade. Her experience of coaching was positive with reported increased self-confidence and work performance, and more effectiveness in dealing with senior management and managing her team. Additionally, self-awareness increased through feedback, which it was felt helped improve her management of people.

5.3.5.2 First Interview

Factors which were thought to be critical for effective coaching included: having an open-mind, having a good rapport with the coach and to engage in self-reflection. It was felt that no prior experience of the coach was beneficial to ensure objectivity and gender was perceived as being unimportant. In terms of outcomes, Participant E felt there were a number of noticeable improvements including: improved management of people, reduced hostility of new team as a result of improved working relationships, increased self-confidence and a memorable example of facilitating a large scale away-day, which prior to coaching she would not have had the confidence to attempt. The overall experience of coaching was positive.

5.3.5.3 Second Interview

5.3.5.3.a Meta-cognition

Participant E reported a significant impact on self-esteem as a result of coaching. She felt more confident to explore areas out of her comfort zone, e.g. dealing with senior managers, which had been achieved through feedback discussions, and exploration of how to deal with these types of situations. Evidence of being more confident to hold meetings with directors and facilitation of away days was provided, which prior to coaching would not have been attempted due to a lack of confidence. Coaching also provided valuable feedback about others perceptions of her, which helped reinforce her own views of 'self'. With regards self-efficacy, contradictory evidence was provided, (although this appears to be confusion of definition), on the one hand it was felt coaching hadn't had much impact on self-efficacy, as the main focus of coaching had been to manage tensions and issues relating to working with others, however, the evidence suggests increased effectiveness at work suggesting increased self-efficacy.

> '*I wasn't really aware of how other people saw me...coaching really helped build my confidence..... now I feel very comfortable to deal with senior director level management, which I would have found difficult before coaching'*

In terms of self-awareness, it was felt through feedback coaching helped raise self-awareness, resulting in taking increased responsibility for decisions. Coaching was compared to the therapeutic process, in that it provided the opportunity to explore new avenues and different options for dealing with difficult situations, e.g. discussions with staff about under-performance.

> '*coaching helped me look at the way I had an impact on others, but also helped me to explore avenues to deal with difficult situations...so I could address real issues'*

> *'coaching helped me explore whey I felt a certain way towards a situation which helped me be more effective'*

Participant E hadn't felt directly affected by the organisational changes and as a consequence hadn't felt insecure about her work role.

In terms of self-awareness specifically, prior to coaching she adopted an inflexible approach and as a result of coaching she gained a greater awareness of the impact of her behaviour on others with an increased understanding of team dynamics.

> '*I saw things in black and white before coaching, afterwards I felt much clearer and had a different view of the team and how I behaved'*

Overall, the evidence suggested that coaching had had a positive impact on meta-cognition, relating to self-confidence and self-awareness predominantly.

5.3.5.3.b Interpersonal communication

It was felt coaching had had a positive impact on communication style, with improved communication with a wider range of individuals, more regular meetings, and as a result of adopting a more proactive approach has more effective relationships with others.

5.3.5.3.c Attitude / expectations

Whilst Participant E had no previous experience or expectations of coaching her attitude was positive, resulting in a positive experience of coaching. It was felt that openness and honesty were critical, without which the process would be time wasted.

5.3.5.3.d The Coach

During coaching the coach was particularly effective at encouraging self-reflection, challenging ideas and providing feedback, all of which were perceived to contribute towards effectiveness. Additional qualities included the ability to create a safe and confidential environment for discussion of sensitive issues and approachability. It was

felt that self-belief, attitude and the coach were all equally important for an effective coaching experience.

5.3.5.3.e Outcomes

With regards coaching outcomes and the degree to which coaching had been effective; Participant E felt her performance had definitely improved as a consequence of being involved in coaching, confirmation of this was provided in 180 and 360 degree feedback reports where performance ratings had increased by a full indicator (3.2-4.2). Additional observations included her team working more effectively together and being more receptive to her management style, resulting in reduced hostility and a more open approach amongst the team. Further evidence of performance improvements included acting as facilitator for an away day for hundred and fifty people, which prior to coaching she lacked the confidence to attempt. In terms of organisational commitment and citizenship behaviour she observed no visible change as a result of coaching.

> '*I have always been keen to volunteer for extra work, I don't think coaching had much impact there'*

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in tables 5.10 and 5.11 below.

Table 5.10: Participant E: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• Improved management of people • Reduced hostility of new team • Increased self-confidence • Facilitated a large scale away day, would not have had the confidence or self belief to do this pre-coaching
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Open minded • Good rapport with coach • Self-reflect
Relationship with the coach	• Better if no previous work connection • Gender unimportant
Would you have coaching again	• yes

Table 5.11: Participant E: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes**	Increased self-confidence	Deals with difficult tasks that avoided

		Reinforced view of self	before
Self-efficacy	No	Increased self-esteem	Confident to hold meetings with very senior management Facilitated an 'away day' Tackles under-performance
Locus of Control	Yes	Increased self-awareness helped her be more aware of sphere of influence	Takes more responsibility for self and influencing situations
Private self-consciousness	Yes**	Increased self-awareness and how others perceive her Increased flexibility in thinking, enhanced understanding of team functioning	Improved management of her team
Interpersonal Communication	Yes	No specific evidence provided	Better communication in general More inclusive approach More proactive

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes	Need to be open and honest	Started with positive attitude No prior expectations, resulted in a positive experience

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Yes	Encourage self-reflection Good at challenging ideas Provided good feedback Created a confidential environment approachable	N/A

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	Yes*	Increased confidence Increased self-awareness	Promotion Positive feedback from colleagues in 360 More open management style Facilitation of an away day
Organisational Commitment	No	N/A	N/A
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	No	N/A	N/A
Other Evidence of Outcomes	N/A		

**strength of view*

5.3.6 Case Study Six - Participant F

5.3.6.1 An Overview of Participant F

Participant F is a female aged between in her late twenties. During the period of coaching her main work role involved assessing and processing claims and delivering training. She has been employed within the organisation for four years and received a total of ten coaching sessions, each lasting approximately one hour. Her job grade at the start of coaching was A2 (support/administrative role) which increased to B1 grade (supervisory/junior management) after coaching. Her coaching objective was to improve her self-confidence and her influential skills. In summary, her experience of coaching

was highly positive; specifically coaching helped strengthen confidence and self-belief, which in her view has significantly improved her performance. She had an open attitude towards coaching but felt that her coach played a key role in providing the right environment to build trust, which allowed her to work on her coaching objectives.

5.3.6.2 First Interview

Participant F described the coaching experience as positive. The factors which were thought to be critical for effective coaching included: time for reflection, need to accept help, knowledge of the coaching process, safe environment which was non-judgemental and willingness to be open to change. With regards the relationship with the coach it was felt that no prior knowledge of the coach was beneficial as this encouraged more openness, additionally it was important to be reassured of confidentiality and it was thought desirable to have a coach with a similar personality type which helped build rapport. Other qualities relating to the coach were the ability to challenge and push the coachee, being non-judgemental and creating trust. There were several outcomes which were attributed to coaching, these included: developing stress coping mechanisms, developing a different perspective, securing a promotion, increased self-reflection and eliminating self-sabotage.

5.3.6.3 Second Interview

5.3.6.3.a Meta-Cognition

The key focus of the coaching was to help improve issues relating to confidence and self-esteem and Participant F felt that coaching had made a significant impact in these areas. The coaching helped develop a more positive perspective and encouraged a more realistic view of capability. Coaching encouraged new patterns of behaviour, i.e. learning from mistakes, avoiding repetition. A noticeable difference in self-confidence was observed, e.g. as a result of coaching she felt encouraged to apply for a job two grade higher in which she was successful. In terms of self-belief in work capability she has learnt not to make the same mistake twice, to be more realistic about her capability, and not to be over self-critical.

> '*I was in a role that I didn't like and coaching gave me the confidence to apply for a job two grades higher'*
>
> *'the coaching helped me to be more realistic about my capability and to learn from my mistakes'*

She also felt that coaching had had a big impact on her levels of self-awareness, prior to coaching she was over anxious and not able to bring perspective in her work, with a tendency to dwell too long on negative aspects of her own performance. Coaching helped her put work into context, to take a wider perspective, and to be more aware of the impact she has on others and to notice the difference her work makes for others.

> *'before coaching I worried too much about everything and got so wound up about things, coaching helped me to put things into perspective'*

In terms of taking responsibility for work outcomes, Participant F observed that pre-coaching she was unable to influence other people, coaching has helped her to take more responsibility about her own role to influence others, and to be more aware of the environment within which she works. As a result of coaching she has become more proactive in addressing issues. Although not personally affected by the organisational changes, it was felt that coaching increased confidence and helped her feel comfortable to take risks, by assessing the impact of taking action more thoroughly, and encouraging her to be adventurous to try something new.

5.3.6.3.b Interpersonal Communication

Participant F felt that there was a positive impact on her interpersonal communication style during coaching, the coaching encouraged open discussion and provided a very focused time to talk about herself, exploring feelings, and although she would describe herself as a fairly open person, it was felt coaching helped her feel even more comfortable with this process. For coaching to be successful it was felt the coachee needed to be comfortable with talking openly, without which less progress would be achieved.

5.3.6.3.c Attitude / Expectations

Participant F felt that it was very important to enter into coaching with the right attitude, this involved being open and honest and showing willingness. It was felt a sceptical attitude at the start of the process would negatively affect engagement and therefore, the full benefit of coaching would not be gained. Additionally, with a negative attitude the process would be much slower. Furthermore, it was felt that for effective coaching it was critical for management to show their commitment to the process.

> *'if you are a less touchy feely person you may not see the benefits of coaching, I think it's very important to understand what is needed and what coaching is about to gain the full benefit'*

‘ there definitely needs to be commitment towards coaching at a senior level for it to be successful’

5.3.6.3.d The Coach

Participant F felt that it was imperative for the coach to be non-judgemental and show empathy, in order to create the right environment to build trust for the discussion of difficult issues. She described her relationship with her coach as good, this was based on trust, and her coach was very open and demonstrated lots of empathy which assisted her to talk about sensitive issues. It was felt that her coach understood her and allowed her the space to talk. Other qualities relating to the coach deemed to be critical were: being non-judgemental, being willing to challenge and push her to be more proactive in achieving goals. In terms of priorities for effective coaching it was felt that self-belief, attitude and the coach were of equal importance. Acknowledgement was also given to the need to be open and have a positive attitude, and in order to gain commitment, trust was essential for coaching to be fully effective.

‘*my coach gave me the space to talk and was very open, she was very understanding but still challenged me and pushed me to achieve higher goals’*

5.3.6.3.e Outcomes

Participant F felt that coaching had had a significant impact on performance, specifically by strengthening self-confidence, evidenced by a successful promotion two grades higher. Without coaching she lacked the self-belief or confidence to apply for the job. Additionally, coaching helped build confidence to influence others and to participate in and deal with new situations, evidenced by the fact she now works in a completely different field of work, which involves much more social interaction and management of people. In addition, coaching has helped her be more realistic about her capability, using this to raise work performance. With regards commitment levels, it was felt that commitment towards the organisation increased in the short to medium term, as confidence increased, but in the longer term, this could have a negative impact on organisational commitment as she now has the confidence to seek employment elsewhere. Little noticeable impact on organisational citizenship behaviour was observed, this has always been high.

It was felt levels of commitment may have decreased during the coaching period; there was a general feeling of malaise and being ‘hard done by’, and many felt they had been treated badly. This could help explain the decrease in affective commitment during the

period of coaching, and may also offer some explanation for the shift from internal to external locus of control.

> *'during coaching there was a lot of job insecurity for many people, a lot of people felt badly treated and hard done by'*

> *'the organisation was not good at communicating at that time, there was a lot of uncertainty'*

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in table 5.12 and 5.13 below.

Table 5.12: Participant F: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• Stopped the self-sabotage • Achieved a promotion – would not have even applied for post without coaching • Takes time to reflect on outcomes • Views situations differently as a result of coaching
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Coaching created a space for her to think about issues at work, helped her find techniques for dealing with stress when things felt out of control • Good relationship with the coach, rapport, confidence, safe space • Willingness to be open to the process and possibility of change • Accepting the need for help • Knowledge of the coaching process and what to expect • Safe environment where could speak openly and not be judged • Endorsement of the way she was feeling
Relationship with the coach	• Easier when don't already know the coach, allowed her to be more open • Confidentiality was critical • Gender unimportant • Coach had similar personality type to her which helped build rapport, used visual comparisons and metaphors • Coach challenged and pushed her • Non-judgemental
Would you have coaching again	• Yes, considering training to become a coach

Table 5.13: Participant F: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes**	Increased self-confidence and self-belief Less anxiety More positive thinking	Takes more risks Less self-critical
Self-efficacy	Yes	Thinks more realistically about own capability	Takes action to complete more challenging work tasks Learns from mistakes when things go wrong, changes her approach
Locus of Control	Yes	Believes can influence others Did not feel negatively affected by the transformational change in the organisation	Takes more action and responsibility in own role for influencing others Took action for promotion, applied for job 2 grades higher
Private self-consciousness	Yes	Increased self-awareness	Takes action to minimise the negative impact of own behaviour on others Assessment of own behaviour
Interpersonal Communication	Yes	More confidence to explore feelings Increased comfort with being open	More open discussion More focused time to talk Improved communication, faster process and more progress as a result

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes**	Need to be open and willing Need the right attitude for coaching to work	Positive attitude increases chance of success Process takes longer if negative attitude and hinders engagement

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach		Non-judgemental Empathy understanding Creates right environment - safe Trust Challenges / pushes	Enhances commitment Increased positive attitude Encouraged to prioritise action

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance		Increased self-confidence and self-belief to apply for jobs	Achieved promotion 2 grades higher More effective management of staff, more influential Applies lessons learned to raise performance
Organisational Commitment	Yes	none	Short term - Commitment increased Longer-term more confidence to move outside the organisation
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	No	none	none
Other Evidence of Outcomes	Observed people appeared less committed to the organisation because of their feelings of being treated badly		

*strength of view

5.3.7 Case Study Seven - Participant G

5.3.7.1 An Overview of Participant G

Participant G is a female in her mid-fifties. She has been employed in the organisation for more than ten years. Her job grade didn't change during coaching remaining at B1 grade, junior management. She had a total of seven coaching sessions which lasted approximately two hours each. Her main coaching objective was to address self-doubt. Overall, Participant G felt coaching had been a positive experience. She felt coaching had significantly helped her to self-reflect, especially when faced with self-doubt. Through coaching she has learnt to overcome self-doubt by being focused on things she does well. It was felt the role of the coach and trust were critical for coaching to be fully effective.

5.3.7.2 First Interview

Factors which were thought to be critical for coaching success included: good rapport with the coach, being open-minded, having clear boundaries, having good self-awareness and honesty. In terms of the relationship with the coach it was felt that the coach needed to be objective, professional and experienced. In terms of outcomes, as a result of coaching Participant G secured a secondment, has become less self-critical, more confident and more self-aware.

5.3.7.3. Second Interview

5.3.7.3.a Meta-cognition.

Participant G felt that overall coaching had had a positive impact on self-belief. Whilst fairly self-confident coaching has enhanced this further. Coaching strengthened confidence and self-belief which encouraged her to move out of her comfort zone and apply for a secondment in a completely different area of work involving project management. It was felt coaching helped overcome self-doubt, learning techniques to address this, by reflecting more on achievements, reinforcing levels of capability.

> '*if I started to doubt myself, coaching helped me to stop and reflect on what I did well and to remind myself to recognise the 'good bits'*

In terms of feeling in control at work, her approach to work is flexible and she deals comfortably with change. However, coaching helped raise awareness of areas outside her control highlighting the need to adapt. Although already self-aware, as a result of coaching she has become more aware of the impact she has on others, recognising the

need to moderate her response and enthusiasm for change when working with others less comfortable with changing situations.

> '*I became aware through coaching that I needed to moderate my enthusiasm for change with those less able to adapt, as a result I became more aware of my impact on others'*

Participant G felt coaching helped raise awareness of her influence on decision making and has encouraged her to take a broader view of available options for action. As a result her decision making has improved, and delegation has increased, freeing up time to take on a new challenge with an emergency secondment.

> '*as a result of coaching, I became more effective in my decision making, I considered a wider range of options, I delegated more, this freed up time to take on challenges which stretched me'*

5.3.7.3.b Interpersonal Communication

Participant G felt that coaching had not had a significant impact on her communication style; she already adopts an open and engaged style of communication. She did feel however, that being open, honest and having a good level of self-awareness was vital for coaching to be effective.

5.3.7.3.c Attitude / Expectations

It was felt that an open-mind was critical for coaching to be effective, and that pre-conceived ideas could lead to disappointment if coaching failed to deliver. It was felt that some individuals may resist coaching because of the emotional challenge. In terms of attitude within coaching it was felt there were three situations; some people felt pressured to do coaching, some saw it as promotion, and some people genuinely wanted to get something positive out of the experience. It was felt that for coaching to be effective the organisation had a responsibility to set realistic expectations about what coaching could deliver.

> '*I have had conversations with others about coaching and they describe it as being emotionally challenging which created some resistance'*

> *'if you have preconceived ideas about coaching it is more likely to be disappointing, you have to have an open mind about it'*

5.3.7.3.d The Coach

When discussing the role of the coach Participant G had mixed views, acknowledgement was given to the value of being familiar with the coach to build rapport; however, some level of distance was required to bring objectivity. It was felt that the coach had a clear responsibility for setting boundaries, which was important for understanding the ground rules. It was felt also that the coach needed to know their own limitations between being a coach/counsellor and that honesty was a key issue. The most important factors for effective coaching were considered to be: attitude, without the right attitude there would be no engagement, secondly, the coach and the coaching relationship, followed by self-belief.

5.3.7.3.e Outcomes

Whilst Participant F struggled to recall any direct impact of coaching specifically on the three outcomes of interest: performance, commitment and citizenship behaviour, as a result of coaching evidence was provided of improved decision making and increased confidence to commit to new challenges.

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in tables 5.14 and 5.15 below.

Table 5.14: Participant G: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• Secured a secondment • Less self-critical • More self-confident • More self-aware
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Good rapport with the coach • open-minded • Clear boundaries • Good self-awareness • honesty
Relationship with the coach	• Coach needs to be objective • Professional • Experienced
Would you have coaching again	• yes

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Table 5.15: Participant G: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes*	Increased self-belief Increased self-confidence	Applied for a secondment
Self-efficacy	Yes*	Increased belief in capability More reflection about things she did well	Secured a secondment in different area of work that was more challenging Stopped the self-doubt/sabotage
Locus of Control	Yes	Already very adaptable, increased awareness of how she could influence decision making	More delegation, freed up time
Private self-consciousness	Yes	Already high level of self-awareness Increased self-reflection More aware of others reactions Increased awareness of impact on others Increased awareness of decision making	Better working relationships because of enhanced self-awareness Moderates her response and enthusiasm to change to accommodate others
Interpersonal Communication	No	Already open and engaged style which she felt did help	Good communication helped the process

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes**	Critical to be open minded People might resist the emotional challenge of coaching Organisation needs to set realistic expectations	If pre-conceived ideas could negatively affect outcomes, lead to disappointment

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Yes	Balance needed between being familiar with the coach which helps build rapport, but retaining objectivity Need clear boundaries	N/A

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	No	More confidence	Indirect improvements re: management skills
Organisational Commitment	No	N/A	N/A
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	No	N/A	N/A
Other Evidence of Outcomes	Improved decision making, more confidence		

**strength of view*

5.3.8 Case Study Eight - Participant H

5.3.8.1 An Overview of Participant H

Participant H is a female who has been with the organisation for eight years and is in the 55-65 years age range. At the start of coaching her job grade was A2 (support /administrative) which increased to A3 (supervisor / junior management) at the end of

coaching. Her key responsibilities within her work role were to report on quality control systems, providing weekly reports to head office on progress. During coaching she was promoted to A3 grade acting up supervisor role seconded to policy division. She received eight face to face coaching sessions lasting two hours each. The key objective of the coaching was to help develop skills as a team manager so that she could prove her capability within this role.

5.3.8.1 First Interview

It was reported that coaching had been a positive experience. Factors considered critical for success included: rapport with the coach and openness. In terms of the relationship with the coach it was felt the coach needed to be non-judgemental, supportive, have no preconceived ideas and needed to be objective and external to the department. In terms of noticeable outcomes from the process, these included: increased confidence, gaining a different perspective, more self-reflection and increased self-awareness.

5.3.8.3 Second Interview

5.3.8.3.a Meta-cognition

Participant H felt that coaching had helped her to be more critical, she had a tendency to rescue people and coaching helped her to manage this more effectively. Through feedback she learnt to deal more positively with negative feedback, and also to provide negative feedback to others. Prior to coaching she was over-analytical and lacked conviction, coaching strengthened self-belief and increased confidence to take on new challenges. Additionally, as a result of coaching she has adopted a more positive view of the impact she has on others and has learnt to deliver a more structured response to others. As a result of coaching self-awareness and self-reflection has increased, which has improved her approach to work, e.g. she now thinks more about the consequences of her actions and the impact this has on others. It was felt also that coaching helped increase responsibility for initiating action, by strengthening confidence to take action. This suggests that coaching has had quite a significant influence on all aspects of meta-cognition; levels of self-belief increased, self-reflection increased and increased responsibility for action has been achieved.

> *'I have more self-belief now, I have learnt to be more critical and can now deliver negative feedback....I have also leant how to deal with negative feedback from others'*

'coaching has taught me to be more self-reflective'

' I now have the confidence to do work outside my sphere'

' I think much more now about the impact I have on others'

5.3.8.3.b Interpersonal Communication

Participant H felt as a result of coaching she has become more open and comfortable with receiving negative feedback and that her perspective has changed. It was felt that for coaching to be effective, good communication was important and sensitivity to different styles of communication was necessary, in order to influence the process in the coaching relationship.

5.3.8.3.c Attitude / Expectations

With regards attitude, Participant H felt that a negative attitude would influence an individual's level of openness, with a negative impact on coaching effectiveness. It was felt that scepticism was associated with a lack of knowledge about the benefits to be gained from coaching. Cynicism from more senior staff also had a negative impact on younger employees. For coaching to be effective it was felt the benefits and success stories needed promoting. Whilst having no expectations, an open mind assisted the process.

5.3.8.3.d The Coach

Interestingly, it was felt that the coach would probably have little impact on levels of commitment, but considerable impact on performance. Factors which facilitated an effective coaching process involved: the coachee being made accountable for actions, being treated as an equal, and the coach allowing the coachee to set the pace. She felt that the most critical factors involved: the coach demonstrating commitment to the process, making themselves available, providing reassurance, remaining open and not taking the lead. It was felt that an effective coach was essential, because of their influence on other factors, i.e. a person's attitude and self-belief.

' my coach went at my pace which was good for me, they also stayed quiet a lot of the time which forced me to respond, but I felt they never talked down to me which was important'

5.3.8.3.e Outcomes

Participant H felt that coaching had a fairly significant impact on performance, e.g. increased confidence to attempt more challenging work, confidence to take on project

management work. With regards levels of commitment or citizenship behaviour, little noticeable effect was reported.

> *'I have had some small successes at work which have definitely added value, coaching has given me the confidence to tackle work outside my sphere and I have been involved in a temporary promotion'*

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in tables 5.16 and 5.17 below.

Table 5.16: Participant H: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• More confidence • Helped her think differently about situations • More reflection • More self-awareness
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Need rapport with the coach • Need to be open to the process
Relationship with the coach	• Wanted someone external to her department for objectivity • Non-judgemental • Supportive • No preconceived ideas
Would you have coaching again	• yes

Table 5.17: Participant H: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes	Strengthened self-belief Increased confidence	Less self-questioning Takes on more challenges
Self-efficacy	Yes	Able to think more critically Thinks more positively Believes has a more positive impact on others	Stopped rescuing people Able to deliver negative feedback to others
Locus of Control	Yes	More confidence to make decisions	Takes more responsibility for initiating action
Private self-consciousness	Yes	More self-reflective	Different approach to work, considers impact and consequences before acting
Interpersonal Communication	Yes	Good communication important for effective coaching Views things differently	Positive impact on communication skills, more open to receiving feedback Communicates more sensitively

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes	Need to be open to the process	Negative attitude leads to poor outcome lack of engagement Older employee were more cynical which had a negative impact on younger staff

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness

Coach	Yes	Treated as an equal Keep at coachee's pace Make coachee accountable for action Show commitment to the process Make selves available	Potential to impact significantly on performance

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	Yes	Increased confidence	Taken on more challenging work Taken on more projects
Organisational Commitment	No	N/A	N/A
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	No	N/A	N/A
Other Evidence of Outcomes	N/A		

5.3.9 Case Study Nine - Participant I

5.3.9.1 An Overview of Participant I

Participant I is a male who has been with the organisation for four years and is in his mid twenties. At the start of coaching his job grade was A2 (support / administrative). Key responsibilities within his work role involved service development and support for head quarters. He received seven face to face coaching sessions lasting approximately two hours each. The key objective of the coaching was to strengthen and improve communication skills, particularly when liaising with senior colleagues.

5.3.9.2 First Interview

It was reported that coaching had been a positive experience. Factors which were highlighted as being critical for effectiveness included: being receptive and open to the process, having a positive attitude with no preconceived ideas, knowledge and awareness of what is involved. In terms of the coaching relationship, it was felt that the coach needed to: be objective, challenge and push forward, share views openly, build trust, rapport and be non-judgemental, although gender was not thought to be important. Reported outcomes as a result of coaching included: increased confidence, more proactive in role and improved communication.

5.3.9.3 Second Interview

5.3.9.3.a Meta-cognition

Participant I felt that coaching had helped increase confidence particularly with regards communicating with others at a senior level. Coaching sessions were useful for exploring different ways of approaching situations and the coach was good at providing feedback

about his communication style, resulting in a raised awareness of the impact on others. Different styles of communication and ways to adapt were explored. As a result of feedback he recognised that feeling intimidated during meetings with senior managers was a major barrier to effectiveness. Coaching helped explore different options to achieve better results and to focus on progress rather than failures. Feedback discussions were instrumental in understanding resistance or avoidance relating to certain types of communication, e.g. presenting views during meetings. The evidence suggests a strong link between self-esteem and self-efficacy, where coaching has been instrumental in building confidence and self-belief through discussion and feedback. This also seems to be supported by increased levels of self-awareness and more awareness of the impact on others.

> '*coaching really helped me to address the feelings of intimidation'*
>
> *'I knew I had to communicate differently but didn't have the confidence to do this with senior managers....coaching helped me to explore different approaches and test this out in a safe environment'*

Whilst Participant I was not directly affected by the organisational restructuring, feelings of insecurity was discussed, whereby uncertainty about job roles appeared to affect people's moods and attitudes within the organisation. A climate of low morale seems to have exacerbated feelings of helplessness. In that respect coaching had been useful to explore areas of influence and to think more widely about his work role and how to influence others through communication.

> *'even though my job wasn't affected directly by the changes, morale was low which did have a negative impact'*
>
> *' I remember feeling like I didn't have much control over things and feeling a bit helpless at the time, in that respect coaching did help me take a different perspective which was good....as a result I started to see areas where I could be more effective or could start to influence'*

5.3.9.3.b Interpersonal Communication

Whilst recognising the need to improve communication, Participant I lacked the confidence or knowledge to know how to achieve this. Coaching had a significant impact in this area, raising awareness of different communication styles and the impact this has on others. The coach helped him see the link between communication and achieving

goals. As a result of coaching he recognises that adapting his approach can achieve better results.

> *'I was too timid in meetings, I can see now how it was up to me to do things differently, coaching has helped me feel more confident, I am now much more able to share my own views in meetings'*

5.3.9.3.c Attitude / Expectations

A positive attitude towards coaching was shown, in spite of not receiving coaching before and with no previous knowledge of what to expect. Peer groups expressed mixed reviews about the usefulness of coaching, although this didn't negatively affect his own views, he could conceive that this would negatively affect others. It was felt that the depth of the coaching conversation could be a drawback to some, especially those with a negative attitude. Additionally, those who expected to be spoon fed solutions would be disappointed. It was felt also that a positive experience of coaching had influenced the process facilitating progress.

> '*I personally was looking forward to being coached; I hadn't done this before and was very positive about the whole experience'*

5.3.9.3.d The Coach

It was felt that the coach was critical for coaching success, for him, the coach had been very good at making him feel at ease creating a good environment to discuss emotions without being vulnerable, however, it was felt in the absence of this, less progress would be made. Key qualities of the coach appeared to centre on trust, where it was felt that this was particularly important at the beginning. Additionally, the coach needed to be non-judgemental and share their own experiences. It was felt that a good coach pushed with the right amount of challenge, without feeling uncomfortable. The coach not being directly related to his work also helped.

> *'although I knew who my coach was, we had never worked together which I was happy about'*

> *'I felt my coach didn't judge me and was very reassuring, this gave me a lot of confidence'*

In terms of priorities, it was felt that whilst having a good coach was very important, without the right attitude, or at least a positive attitude from the coachee, the coaching

wouldn't work or would take much longer. With regards self-belief, a good coach could help strengthen this.

5.3.9.3.e Outcomes

Participant I felt coaching had a significant impact on performance, providing evidence of being more effective during meetings, having more confidence to present views with impact and as a result achieving better outcomes. A positive reaction from others further reinforced his confidence to communicate. He also felt his written communication had improved and his report writing, in particular, was more precise, more objective and more influential as a result. He didn't feel his level of commitment to the organisation had changed significantly, although a sense of responsibility towards the organisation had increased with knowledge of the investment that had been made in him with coaching. No evidence was given for additional citizenship behaviour.

A summary of the key points raised in the interviews are presented in table 5.18 and 5.19 below.

Table 5.18: Participant I: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• Increased confidence • More proactive in role • More effective when communicating with others, better responses, creates more impact
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Being ready and open to the process • Having a positive approach with no preconceived ideas • Awareness of what is involved, hard work
Relationship with the coach	• Helps to get an objective opinion • Challenges and pushes • Made to feel normal • Safe to share views openly • Sharing real examples and experiences • Gender unimportant • Trust • Rapport • Non-judgemental
Would you have coaching again	• Yes

Table 5.19: Participant I: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes*	Increased confidence More self-belief	More proactive in communicating with senior management
Self-efficacy	Yes	More aware of strengths and development	Communicates more effectively, gets better responses Improved decision making
Locus of Control	Yes	More aware of areas he can / cannot control	More proactive in initiating contact
Private self-consciousness	Yes	More self-reflection More self-aware	Stopped being over self-critical More realistic approach More aware of impact on others
Interpersonal Communication	Yes	More confidence More awareness of own communication style	Able to communicate on different levels using different approaches to get results

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude Expectation	Yes*	Need to be ready for coaching Positive attitude Open mind	Resistance hinders progress and engagement

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Yes	Create a safe environment Non-judgemental Challenges Provides different perspective Shares own experience	Enhanced self-confidence Communicates more effectively with others More aware of impact on others

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	Yes	Improved confidence	More effective communication Get responses from others
Organisational Commitment	No	N/A	N/A
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	No	N/A	N/A
Other Evidence of Outcomes	More concise report writing, more confidence when dealing with more senior colleagues		

**strength of view*

5.3.10 Case Study Ten - Participant J

5.3.10.1 An Overview of Participant J

Participant J is male and has worked in the organisation for six years and is in the 25-34 years age range. He works in the claims division and his work activities involve dealing with the assessment and processing of claims. His job grade throughout coaching was grade A3 (supervisory / junior management). He received eight coaching sessions each last approximately one and a half hours. He is responsible for managing one team member. The key objective of the coaching was to improve general management skills and to work more effectively with his team.

5.3.10.2 First Interview

Whilst coaching was a positive experience there was no desire to engage in coaching again for a while. Factors which were thought critical for success included: being ready, self-awareness and having a good attitude. In terms of relationship with the coach it was felt there needed to be trust, honesty and a challenge. Some of the outcomes of coaching included: increased effectiveness when working with others, gaining a wider perspective, being more proactive.

5.3.10.3 Second Interview

5.3.10.3.a Meta-cognition

A high degree of self-confidence and ambition was demonstrated, therefore, it was felt coaching hadn't had a significant impact in these areas; however, it was felt that coaching encouraged reflection of skills and competence at work. This highlighted areas of success, and identified where he needed to be more critical and to extend more effort. With a tendency to be unrealistic, coaching helped create a more balanced approach to work. Whilst fairly driven, greater reflection on outcomes was needed; coaching helped by encouraging further thought about options, possibilities and areas for improvement.

> '*I don't think in the past I have really stopped and looked back at how I do things, I just push ahead, even when I'm not achieving what I want to, coaching has helped me be more reflective and be more realistic about my goals'*

> *'I definitely think I am more decisive now, or maybe it's just that my decisions are more effective, I stop and think more'*

This suggests therefore, that self-efficacy improved as a result of coaching, evidenced by a more productive approach to work, suggesting a link also with self-awareness as self-reflection increased.

In terms of locus of control, Participant J observed little impact, demonstrating a strong sense of control over environment. He felt unaffected by the organisational restructuring and reported to feel secure in his role. Conceivably, a high degree of confidence could explain feelings of control. However, for many colleagues a high degree of uncertainty and insecurity was shown during this period of change. It was felt that an optimistic outlook on life facilitated effectiveness in dealing with difficult situations.

5.3.10.3.b Interpersonal Communication

Although high levels of effective communication were reported, it was felt coaching helped improve performance in this area. This was achieved through focused discussions on communication style, and the impact of behaviour on others. Coaching had also been successful in raising awareness that people manage, and respond to change in different ways. Additionally, coaching has helped him consider outcomes more thoroughly before taking action, improving decision making as a result.

> *'I have found the coaching sessions very useful, I think I am much more reflective, I consider the impact I have on others more now and as a result I think I communicate much more effectively'*

5.3.10.3.c Attitude / Expectations

With regards attitude, Participant J presented an optimistic and open approach towards coaching. He felt knowledgeable about what to expect, having had a few coaching sessions previously, which facilitated progress. Recognition was given to the fact that coaching involved a lot of work. It was felt that a lack of expectations wouldn't negatively influence coaching, however, expectations which were too high may lead to disappointment and it was felt that there was a general misunderstanding and ignorance about the work involved in being coached. He felt strongly that awareness of what coaching entails creates a realistic understanding and therefore, more useful experience.

5.3.10.3.d The Coach

Participant J described the relationship with the coach as open and honest which was important. In his opinion, familiarity aids rapport building and it was felt that there needed to be a good connection for the relationship to work. It was felt credibility, professionalism and capability were critical factors within the coaching relationship and the coach needed to establish clear boundaries. Additionally, it was felt the coach needed to provide timely and appropriate feedback resulting in a different perspective. It was also felt that the coach needed to be able to challenge and provide an objective opinion.

> *'I had a good relationship with my coach, they challenged me and gave me good feedback which was really useful'*

Priorities for effective coaching included: willing to engage, without this he felt little progress would be made, followed by a good coach and strong self-belief.

5.3.10.3.e Outcomes

Whilst Participant J was aware that he had not been promoted and therefore, didn't have tangible evidence of improved performance, increased effectiveness at work was reported, evidenced by improved decision making and improved communication with others; positive 360 degree feedback reinforces this. With regards commitment and additional role behaviour no specific change was observed, this remained high throughout.

A summary of the key points raised during interview are presented in tables 5.20 and 5.21 below.

Table 5.20: Participant J: First Interview – Key Themes

First Interview	
Areas Covered	Key Factors
Experience of coaching	Positive
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	• More effective when working with others • Able to see bigger picture • More proactive at work
What is critical for the process to be effective	• Being ready for the coaching • Self-awareness • Good attitude
Relationship with the coach	• Need trust • Need to be honest • Need to be challenged
Would you have coaching again	• Yes but not for a while

Table 5.21: Participant J: Second Interview – Key Themes

Second Interview			
Category	Relevant	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Yes	Fairly confident already but slight increase in self-confidence	N/A
Self-efficacy	Yes*	More self-belief More belief in skills	Better decision making Better communication with staff
Locus of Control	No	Already feels in control	Bit more proactive in making decisions about own work
Private self-consciousness	Yes	Increased self-awareness Reflects more on impact his work has	More effective management of others
Interpersonal Communication	Yes*	More awareness of own communication style Already communicates well	More influential with others

		Important Factors	Implications
Attitude	Yes	Need to be open and positive, helps	If negative approach, won't work

Expectation		achieve results	

		Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Yes	Competent Professional trust	Facilitates solutions

		Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	No	N/A	More competent dealing with staff More decisive
Organisational Commitment	No	N/A	N/A
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	No	N/A	N/A
Other Evidence of Outcomes	Generally more proactive at work and more effective when dealing with staff		

**strength of view*

5.4 Summary of Key Themes

The findings from the interview data reveal some interesting results and provide some important evidence of coaching effectiveness. As might be expected, coachee experiences differed between individuals; however, there were some common themes which emerged which are now discussed. (see Appendix F for summary of Interview One; Appendix G for summary of Interview Two; Appendix E for coding systems used for thematic content analysis; Appendix H for summary of comments and quotations).

5.4.1 Meta-cognition

In terms of self-esteem and self-efficacy a range of evidence was provided to demonstrate two things: firstly that coaching had a positive impact on concepts of self-belief, in particular, levels of self-confidence; and secondly, that this positive effect on self-belief appears to have had a positive consequences for many work related outcomes, e.g. improved levels of performance, improved communications, improved management capability etc. From a psychological perspective this evidence demonstrates the effect of self-perception on behaviour. It is difficult to separate out from the interview data clear theoretical distinctions between self-esteem and self-efficacy, however, interviewees made consistent linkages between experiencing increased levels of self-confidence and feeling more confident in carrying out their work, which they attributed to a direct result of having coaching. Interestingly, the effects on levels of self-confidence appear to be positive for all those interviewed, irrespective of

levels of confidence prior to coaching, indicating a general positive impact of coaching, specifically on self-esteem. When describing the mechanisms through which coaching linked to increases in self-confidence, respondents made reference specifically to the feedback process and the coach. The relationship between the coach as the provider of feedback information appears to be an important one, whereby the coachee receives feedback about how they perform, skill acquisition etc. The opportunity to discuss experiences at work and to seek feedback from the coach about actual performance, or potential situations relating to performance appears to be important, particularly in terms of strengthening self-confidence and self perceptions. In terms of the consequences of reinforced self-esteem and self-efficacy as a direct result of the coaching sessions coachee's reported a range of positive behavioural outcomes which appear to be linked to meta-cognition, through enhanced self-belief. Some of the more tangible observed outcomes which were reported included promotions, however, other positive outcomes which were directly linked to coaching included: having the confidence to take on additional responsibilities at work, increased confidence to engage in difficult conversations, increased confidence to manage conflict more effectively, confidence to take on more challenging work, confidence to deal with under-performance, being less self-critical, improved decision making and a general increase in management capability.

In view of the fact that coaching took place during a period of transition for the organisation it was important to explore the effects of this restructuring and instability on feelings relating to locus of control. For most interviewees, in terms of redundancies and negative impact of the restructuring, direct effects were not reported. If anything, people felt that during this period of time coaching helped strengthen core self-belief, which helped people feel more in control within the work environment. The evidence suggests, therefore, that organisational restructuring during this period had minimum impact for those interviewed, thus to some degree eliminating this as a key factor influencing locus of control. In search of additional information to help contextualise the quantitative findings relating to an increase in external locus of control, the interview data provides some interesting evidence. For those describing high levels of internal locus of control, i.e., with a strong sense of feeling in control of their environment and desire to take personal responsibility for work outcomes, coaching appears to have had a positive impact by encouraging a more proactive approach to work. For those describing an external locus of control, i.e. with a low sense of feeling in control, there were two types of effects which were described, one relating to raised awareness, one relating to helplessness. For some, the effects of coaching appear to have raised awareness of the

external working environment, by helping individuals to become more aware of areas within their sphere of influence and when combined with increased self-confidence, the overall impact appears to have had a positive effect on feelings related to locus of control, however, this does not help explain the quantitative finding relating to an increase in external locus of control. The second effect described by coachees may provide a clearer explanation. Several participants revealed that coaching had helped them feel more secure in themselves, which had had a positive impact on their belief in influencing outcomes; however, respondents recognised that this overall process took some time. Respondents reported that the initial stages of coaching involved intense deconstruction of the self which required a high degree of critical self-analysis, and it was suggested, that during this stage of the coaching process many coachee's had experienced a level of discomfort and helplessness, which was linked to a reluctance to take personal responsibility for outcomes. As confidence, self-belief and self-awareness strengthened during the coaching process, feelings of control and belief in ability to influence outcomes increased. This evidence is important as it provides a link between the different stages and processes involved in coaching, providing a fuller understanding of the types of things which influence causal attribution, in particular, feelings of helplessness experienced during self-analysis.

In terms of private self-consciousness, during the interview this was interpreted as self-awareness and almost all participants reported a significant and positive impact of coaching on levels of self-awareness. The mechanism through which self-awareness appears to have been influenced was directly related to the relationship with the coach and through the feedback process. The coach's role in encouraging coachees to self-reflect and challenge perceptions appears to have had a positive effect on levels of self-awareness. The evidence provided during the interviews of the behavioural outcomes of increased self-awareness were numerous including: increased awareness of the impact of behaviour on others, better decision making, improved working relationships, better management of others etc. During coaching most respondents reported that the focus of the coaching had been balanced between self-reflection and goal attainment, thus providing evidence that coachees were encouraged to self-reflect.

5.4.2 Interpersonal Communication

In terms of interpersonal communication, even for those participants reporting high levels of these types of skills prior to coaching, all interviewees reported that coaching helped

strengthen communication skills. An important element of this construct involves an individual's receptiveness and openness to change, which all interviewees felt was an important factor to consider during a coaching process. There was considerable overlap between interpersonal communications skills relating to openness to change and receptiveness, and attitudes/expectations, which is explored in the next section. Interviewees felt that coaching had helped encourage open communication which was important for honest discussion. An iterative process was described whereby, it was felt that interpersonal communication skills were important for effective coaching, but also that coaching helped strengthen these skills, by helping people to be open, responsive and positive towards feedback. Coaching appears to have had a positive impact by raising awareness about the different ways to communicate, highlighting the overall importance of good communication and openness for an effective coaching process. Some of the positive effects of coaching on interpersonal communication skills include: being able to communicate more effectively with senior management, increased competence in managing others and increased willingness to be open to new ways of working.

5.4.3 Attitude / Expectations

In terms of the role of attitude within coaching and the impact on coaching effectiveness, open-mindedness was regarded as being essential for the process to work successfully. Evidence suggests that a positive attitude is strongly linked to engagement and success within coaching, by increasing the likelihood of engagement. In addition to a willingness to be open and having a positive attitude, expectations were also highlighted as being important for successful coaching engagements. More specifically, it was felt that when expectations were unrealistic or too high, this would have a negative impact on a person's willingness to engage in the process with negative consequences on experience. Information and knowledge about the coaching process was thought useful prior to coaching as a mechanism for helping manage more realistic expectations. This approach provides the coachee with useful information about how the process works, what can be achieved, what is involved etc., thus helping prevent negative experiences of coaching. Whilst some participants hadn't expected coaching to be hard work, it was felt that having an open mind and being willing to participate helped manage this experience positively. Additional factors which were highlighted as influencing attitudes and expectations were related to the views of others particularly peers, line managers and colleagues. Supportive managers influenced attitudes positively, however, those

exposed to cynics and critical peer reviews experienced a negative impact on expectations and attitudes. Overwhelmingly, it was felt that a positive attitude was desirable however; willingness to engage in the coaching process was deemed as more important for underpinning coaching effectiveness.

5.4.4 The Coach

There were a wide range of views that were offered about the core skills and qualities of the coach which influenced coaching success. Interestingly, gender was not thought to be important, however, trust, creating a safe environment and the ability of the coach to challenge, ask key questions and to listen, were highlighted as being very important. It was mentioned that during coaching sensitive issues are often discussed, where people feel a sense of vulnerability, therefore, the skill of the coach in building trust and helping people to feel safe to share their experiences was important. The ability of the coach to challenge and ask some difficult questions was seen as being an important part of a successful coaching process as this forced people to confront issues which were barriers to success. Other factors which were discussed included building rapport and familiarity, and whilst some knowledge of the coach was seen as an advantage, by expediting the relationship building process, the link between familiarity and the ability of the coach to remain objective was seen as a risk, however, a balance between the two was thought to be ideal. Objectivity was seen as important as this provided more useful feedback; however, an ability to show empathy was also highlighted as being important, as this helped build trust and show compassion when dealing with sensitive issues. The power of the coach to influence outcomes appears to be fairly strong, and seems to influence the whole coaching process, whereby the coach appears to act as the facilitator of coaching outcomes.

5.4.5 Outcomes

Half of the interview sample cited tangible evidence of coaching effectiveness in terms of promotions with one example of a promotion being secured two grades higher, which was directly attributed to the coaching experience. In this example, as a result of coaching the individual felt significantly more confident to apply for a position two grades higher. Additional evidence of positive coaching outcomes which were related to improved job performance include: increased management capability, improved decision making, enhanced delegation, taking on more challenging assignments, secondment to

a specialist area etc. With regards commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour specifically, very few respondents noticed any significant change as a direct result of coaching, most felt they already had fairly high levels of commitment to the organisation. A few commented that as a result of the investment the organisation was making in the provision of coaching, this had had a positive impact on feelings of loyalty towards the organisation. Others, however, recognised the fact that with enhanced self-esteem and self-belief, they would have more confidence to consider alternative employment outside the organisation. All respondents felt the experience of coaching had been positive, and most of the sample would be happy to engage in coaching again, although a few had found the experience emotionally draining and therefore, needed a break from it. A few from the sample were also considering training to be coaches themselves.

5.5 Summary – Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Key Findings

The table 5.22 below presents an overall summary of the main findings from chapter four and five. This summary seeks to integrate the quantitative and qualitative data, highlighting the overall key findings which have emerged from the research. A discussion of these findings follows in chapter six. In terms of addressing the research objectives, quantitative and qualitative findings from the previous chapters provide some useful evidence of coaching effectiveness. With regards research objective one, which seeks to explore the relationship between individual differences, specifically meta-cognition within coaching the quantitative data reveals some interesting themes, some of which were anticipated, others unexpected. For self-esteem and self-efficacy, there is good alignment between the two data sets; the qualitative evidence provides some richer detail about how confidence and capability is enhanced during the coaching process highlighting how this impacts on outcomes. For locus of control and private self-consciousness the evidence reveals some conflicting and unexpected findings which are less easily interpreted. In this case, the qualitative data provides important detail which helps explain the conflicting evidence, revealing a complex relationship between locus of control and private self-consciousness. The evidence suggests a relationship exists between raised self-awareness and deconstruction of the self during coaching and feelings of helplessness which appears to have negative consequences for causal attribution and feeling of control over outcomes. In terms of research objective two, which seeks to establish the role of interpersonal communication skills and attitude within coaching, the evidence highlights the importance of receptiveness, openness and good interpersonal communication skills for effective coaching. The evidence also indicates

the importance of managing expectations and shaping attitudes within coaching because of the consequences for outcomes. With regards research objective three which explores the role of the coach, there is good alignment between the data sets and for research objective four, the qualitative data provides rich detail about a wider range of outcomes which are linked to coaching effectiveness.

Table 5.22: Summary integrating key findings from quantitative and qualitative data

Link to Research Objectives	Topic	Quantitative	Qualitative
	Meta-Cognition		
1	Self-Esteem	• Increased • Longitudinal: OCIT • Moderates: JP	Levels of self-confidence increased significantly which has had a positive impact on: management capability, improved decision making, more effective working with senior management, dealing with difficult conversations, dealing with under-performance, less self-critical
1	Self-Efficacy	• Increased • Longitudinal : JP, OCIT, AC • Moderates: JP	Increased awareness of own skill sets, increased self-belief and confidence in own capability at work – positive impact on: better communication, improved decision making, tackles under-performance, more success on projects, more effective in dealing with new situations
1	Locus of Control	• Decreased • Longitudinal: JP, OCIT • Moderates: JP	Takes more responsibility for action, more proactive, more aware of things could influence Whilst most reported they were unaffected by organisational change, coaching did help some feel more secure and able to deal with the changing situation, others felt a degree of helplessness initially as went through deconstruction of 'self' process
1	Private Self-Consciousness	• Decreased • Moderates: JP	Most consistently reported increased levels of self-awareness, increased awareness of impact on others and better team management as a result
2	Interpersonal Communication Skills (IPC A)	• Increased • Longitudinal : JP • Moderates: JP	Most felt their communication skills helped the coaching process, being open and receptive was critical, helped strengthen rapport
2	Attitude / Expectations	• Decreased • Longitudinal: JP, OCIT • Moderates: JP	If expectations were unrealistically high, this lead to disappointment as experience didn't match the expectation, most felt a willingness to engage was critical, a positive attitude helped, some knowledge of the process helps manage the expectations, need to be realistic, coachee's can be influenced by peers
3	Coach (IPC B)	• Longitudinal : JP, OCIT, SEAT, PSC, IPC(A)	Trust, safe environment, listening, challenging, empathy, clear boundaries etc. Many felt that good rapport was important, whilst some familiarity was seen as helpful, objectivity and non-judgement was important, gender seen as unimportant
4	Outcomes		
4	Performance	• Longitudinal SEFF, IPC, ATT, Coach • Moderation: SEST, SEFF, LC, IPC, ATT, Coach	Many had received promotions, others had secured specialist secondments, other performance related outcomes include: improved decision making, taking on more challenging work, improved management style, better communication, applying lessons learnt
4	Organisational Commitment (AC)	• Longitudinal LC • Moderation: SEST	Whilst most reported high levels of commitment prior to coaching, there appears to have been little impact overall on commitment, some did express a sense of loyalty because of the investment made in them and as a result were reluctant to seek work elsewhere, whilst others felt more confidence to seek employment elsewhere
4	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	• Longitudinal: SEST, SEFF, CATT, Coach • Moderation: SEFF	Some felt more confident to take on extra work and more willing to volunteer for specialist roles, many were unaware of any significant impact

JP= Job Performance; AC= Affective Commitment; OCIT=Organisational Citizenship Behaviour; IPC A=Interpersonal Communication Skills (coachee); ATT=coaching attitude; SEST=self-esteem; SEFF=self-efficacy; LC=locus of control; PSC=private self-consciousness; ; IPC B=Interpersonal Communication Skills (coach)

Chapter 6: Discussion

This chapter presents a discussion of the research findings detailed in chapter four and five and seeks to address the research aims and objectives of this study, which is to understand more about coaching effectiveness, particularly from a psychological perspective. This is an area within coaching which has been under-researched and lacks empirical evidence (Kilburg, 2001; Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005). In order to avoid the pitfalls and challenges facing the researcher during integration of different data sets (Yin, 1981), the discussion adopts a clear conceptual framework, and the same framework has been used throughout the thesis, bringing together different strands of literature relating to: meta-cognition, interpersonal communication, attitude/expectations, the coach and coaching outcomes.

The quantitative results provide some important evidence of those factors which influence and moderate coaching outcomes. This enhances our understanding of *how effects occur*, which improves our knowledge of how coaching outcomes might be influenced, identifying those factors most likely to be critical for coaching effectiveness. The moderation effects increases our understanding of the *strength of relationships,* helping to identify sub-groups of individuals more likely to be influenced by coaching, and under which conditions this might occur.

The qualitative results investigate the quantitative findings in more depth, providing richer detail about the coachee experience of the coaching process, in order to help confirm, explain and validate outcomes. The core aim was to understand more fully the factors which influence coaching effectiveness, particularly from a psychological perspective. Coaching effectiveness has been measured against three core coaching outcomes: job performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour and the focus of the discussion will reflect this, although other factors which emerge and relate to effectiveness are included.

For each topic area the first set of results (quantitative) are discussed in detail, followed by a discussion of the qualitative findings relating to this section. A summary integrating both sets of data is then presented discussing the practical implications of the research, followed by a final conclusion chapter.

6.1 Research Objective 1- Meta-Cognition

The focus of this research objective was to explore the relationship between individual psychological difference, specifically meta-cognition (coachee) and coaching outcomes. The aim was to provide evidence to support the role of meta-cognition within coaching, in order to explore how it influences coaching effectiveness. The rationale for exploring meta-cognition specifically, is because meta-cognition (thinking about one's thoughts, feeling and behaviour) or 'core self-evaluations' (Judge and Bono, 2001) and the ability to be self-aware (Carver and Scheier, 1998), are all thought to underpin many of the processes involved in coaching (Grant, 2001). The findings with regards meta-cognition will be discussed in relation to the supporting literature, and will focus on the role of meta-cognition in influencing coaching effectiveness, whilst also highlighting the contribution to empirical knowledge.

6.1.2 ***Question 1*** *What is the impact of coaching on the meta-cognitive skills of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

The quantitative results indicate that coaching has had a significant impact on meta-cognition; increasing levels of self-efficacy ($p<.01$) and self-esteem ($p<.05$); and decreasing levels of private self-consciousness ($p<.01$) and locus of control ($p<.10$).

6.1.2.1 Self-Esteem / Self-Efficacy

These findings are important as they enhance our knowledge of the impact of coaching on meta-cognition, which is thought to play an important role in shaping the views we hold about ourselves, with important consequences for behavioural and performance outcomes (Grant, 2001). With regards self-esteem and self-efficacy, these findings are relevant as they bring many benefits to both the individual and the organisation. Research suggests that self-esteem and self-efficacy have positive associations with self-confidence (Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2004); performance (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998; Audia, Locke, and Smith, 2000); motivation (Gardner and Pierce, 1998); goal setting (Bandura, 1997; Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998; Locke and Latham 1990); and feedback (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001), all of which are important components of the coaching process. However, there is very limited empirical evidence within the coaching literature which demonstrates the impact coaching has on self-esteem and self-efficacy beyond subjective, anecdotal references (Gegner, 1997; Hall, Otazo and Hollenbeck, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). These research findings are important therefore, as they provide some quantifiable, objective evidence of the impact of coaching on self-esteem

and self-efficacy and in so doing, address this particular research gap. Mapping on to the quantitative findings, the interview data revealed supporting evidence suggesting that coaching had a significant positive effect on self-esteem and self-efficacy. Respondents consistently reported increased levels of self-confidence during the coaching process. This was true for all those interviewed, even participants who felt they already had high levels of self-confidence, experienced an increase in confidence. In particular, for those with low confidence levels before coaching, the effect appears more noticeable. Factors which respondents felt had contributed to this varied, from the coach providing a safe environment which encouraged discussion, to receiving positive feedback and encouragement. Coachees felt that reassurance from the coach about their skills and capability helped them to feel more confident, which had a positive impact on the way they perceived themselves at work, suggesting a link with self-efficacy beliefs.

6.1.2.2 Locus of Control

With regards locus of control, again there are very limited references within the coaching literature, which explore the impact of coaching on locus of control and in the wider literature there have been mixed findings (Majumder et al, 1977; Grimes et al, 2004). The quantitative findings of this current study suggest that during coaching, there is a shift from internal locus of control to external locus of control, whereby coachees are reporting more external locus of control. This indicates that during coaching people are reporting to feel less in control, or able to influence their external environment. This result might be explained by the fact that individuals who took part in coaching were undergoing a period of instability, with organisational restructuring and job insecurity. Arguably, such conditions might influence an individual's feeling of control over their environment, which might be reflected in the shift in locus of control from internal to external. However, in the literature there are very few references to factors which influence changes in causal attribution; the focus of the literature tends to draw distinctions between internals and externals and the relationship with performance (Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger, 1998; Brownell, 1981; Judge and Bono, 2001; Grimes et al, 2004). The literature does suggest that there is a link between locus of control, motivation and behaviour orientation (Thomas et al, 2006), indicating that internal locus of control is related to positive well being and high self-worth, and external locus of control is related to experiences of greater stress and lower self-worth (Bono and Judge, 2003). This provides a possible explanation for the findings in the current study, suggesting two things: (1) that focused attention on the self during coaching may have increased awareness of the external environment, and; (2) that respondents were

experiencing increased levels of stress and lower levels of self-worth, both of which could help explain a shift to external locus of control. These findings however, appear to reject the hypothesis and expectation that coaching would have a positive impact on internal self reflection resulting in taking greater personal responsibility for outcomes, and an increase in internal locus of control.

The qualitative findings offer additional evidence relating to locus of control. In order to understand more fully the relationship between coaching, organisational instability and behavioural change, coachees were encouraged during the qualitative interviews to explore more fully the personal impact of the organisational restructuring. Whilst a few of those interviewed did admit to feeling some degree of discomfort about the organisational change process, the majority reported that they had not been directly affected by the restructuring, both in terms of job role or job certainty, or redundancy. This evidence suggests therefore, that the shift towards external locus of control appears to be unrelated to organisational restructuring or job insecurity in this study. Further evidence however, was provided to suggest an alternative explanation for this unexpected finding. During the initial stages of coaching many of the coachees described the process of self-analysis and deconstruction of the self emotionally draining, leaving them experiencing a greater feeling of helplessness and uncertainty. The link between helplessness, increased levels of stress, uncertainty and external locus of control has been highlighted in the literature (Thomas et al, 2006) and may help explain increased levels of external locus of control and less willingness to take responsibility for outcomes during the coaching process. Due to the lack of control measures for the destabilising effects of organisational change on causal attribution within this study, the impact of organisational restructuring cannot be ruled out entirely as a contributory factor. However, qualitative findings provided here suggest that for some individuals' intense deconstruction of the self during coaching leads to a greater experience of helplessness, which appears to influence willingness to take control for outcomes, offering a plausible explanation for the shift towards external locus of control within this study.

6.1.2.3 Private Self-Consciousness

With regards the findings for private self-consciousness (a measurement of internal state awareness) the results are interesting, in that they indicate that coaching has had the effect of reducing levels of private self-consciousness. Whilst there is little evidence in the coaching literature which comments on the role of private self-consciousness within

coaching (Grant, 2001), it might be anticipated that development activities which are focused on the 'self', as in coaching, might raise levels of private self-consciousness, however, the evidence provided here rejects this hypothesis. Although untested within the coaching literature, the current quantitative findings suggest the reverse. One explanation might be that the scale for private self-consciousness is not an effective measure of self-awareness within a coaching setting and therefore, as a measurement tool it may have limitations, and inconsistent results in the empirical literature supports this view (Anderson, Bohon and Berrigan, 1996). A second explanation may be associated with the dysfunctional and maladaptive component of the private self-consciousness construct, where it has been suggested that excessive focus on the 'self' is thought to be detrimental (Trapnell and Campbell, 1999). This suggests that high levels of private self-consciousness are associated with excessive internal state awareness such as rumination and introspection, indicating therefore, that any decrease in private self-consciousness would be considered positive. However, it must be noted that this has not been empirically proven in the literature. Another possible explanation for a decrease in private self-consciousness might be that during the coaching process there was a stronger emphasis on goal attainment, rather than on self-reflection, which might result in lower scores on private self-consciousness. Additionally, it is possible that during the coaching process coachees have become more cognisant of the limitations of their awareness.

The qualitative findings provide some useful evidence relating to private self-consciousness. Almost all of those interviewed discussed in detail the positive effects of coaching on levels of self-awareness and levels of self-reflection. There was an overwhelming consensus that coaching had purposefully encouraged self-awareness and self-reflection. The qualitative evidence therefore, conflicts with the findings from the quantitative results. Coachees clearly report experiencing greater levels of self-awareness and self-reflection, which they directly attribute to coaching. This evidence suggests therefore, that the scale of private self-consciousness does not measure self-awareness or self-reflection as interpreted by the coachees in this study. Reference to the literature suggests that private self-consciousness measures internal state awareness and self-reflection (Fenigstein, Scheier and Buss, 1975), however, evidence in this study suggests that in terms of coaching, this claim in not substantiated, and the fact that results in the empirical literature have been inconsistent (Anderson, Bohon and Berrigan, 1996) concurs with the findings in this study. It is conceivable that interpretation of results and outcomes in relation to the private self-consciousness scale

are incomplete, suggesting that a clearer distinction is necessary, in order differentiate more clearly between the meanings of high and low scoring on this scale, with a clearer definition of optimum scoring. For example, it might be that an optimum score on the private self-consciousness scale would be a mid-range score, and that a high or low score are not desirable. A high score could reflect rumination and a tendency to over self-reflect, whereas a low score could suggest an absence of self-reflection, both of which are not desirable within coaching. When interpreted in this way, mid-scores could be viewed as optimum scores, indicating positive level of self-awareness. However, without further investigation, the reliability and efficacy of the scale remains incomplete. Qualitative evidence provided in this study clearly points to increased levels of self-reflection and self-awareness, which appear to relate to a mid-range score on the private self-conscious scale suggested by the quantitative evidence. Qualitative evidence did not suggest that the focus of coaching had been more on goal attainment rather than self-reflection, which refutes an earlier possible explanation. Overall, it would appear that further investigation into the reliability of the scale is required, as evidence provided here suggests that coachees report that coaching has a positive impact on self-awareness and self-reflection.

It is important to recognise the apparent conflict in the quantitative and qualitative evidence with regards locus of control and private self-consciousness and to try to interpret the meaning. In terms of revealing the meaning the qualitative evidence is useful in helping to contextualise the quantitative findings. Interview data suggests that coaching has a positive impact on self-awareness and self-reflection, and rather than this leading to an increase in internal locus of control, as might be anticipated, instead it suggests that increased self-awareness, may be connected to the process of deconstruction of the self during self-analysis, which leads to experiences of helplessness. As individuals become more self-aware they may experience a feeling of helplessness leaving them feeling less in control and more unwilling to take responsibility for outcomes. Viewed in this way, the link between increased self-awareness and external locus of control during coaching makes more sense, providing an alternative explanation as to why a shift in external locus of control occurred during coaching, alongside increased levels of self-awareness. Decreases in private self-consciousness are less easily interpreted, but as discussed earlier, this finding may be linked to the scale being more appropriate for clinical usage rather than within a coaching setting.

6.1.3 ***Question 2*** *To what extent do the meta-cognitive skills of the coachee influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

There were several significant results in response to this research question, which contributes some important evidence of the role meta-cognition plays in influencing coaching outcomes. Whilst the relationship between meta-cognition and coaching has been acknowledged within the literature (Grant, 2001), there still remains a distinct lack of empirical evidence which explores the psychological dimensions of coaching (Bluckert, 2005), a gap in the research which this question seeks to rectify. Out of the four meta-cognitive skills assessed by this question, quantitative results suggest that self-esteem, self-efficacy and locus of control, all play an important role in influencing coaching outcomes. Private self-consciousness however, does not appear to play a significant role in influencing any of the coaching outcomes measured. Results for each meta-cognitive skill will now be discussed.

6.1.3.1 Self-Esteem

In terms of the impact self-esteem has on coaching outcomes, findings suggest that an increase in self-esteem is associated with a decrease in organisational citizenship behaviour ($p<.01$) accounting for an additional 9% of variance (i.e., is associated with the additional 9% of the effect), but not for performance and affective commitment. This indicates that during coaching levels of self-esteem and an individual's sense of self-worth are important factors which influence organisational citizenship behaviour; suggesting that as levels of self-esteem increase, organisational citizenship behaviour decreases. Whilst there is no previous literature which makes a link between these two associations, this finding is important as provides an indication of the types of things which influence organisational citizenship behaviour, responding therefore to one of the challenges in the literature of how to capture a behaviour which is subtle and therefore more difficult to capture (Smith, Organ and Near, 1983; Wolfe and Morrison, 1996; Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007). These results address a research gap by providing some indication as to the types of things which influence organisational citizenship behaviour during coaching. This strengthens the argument therefore, that self-esteem is an important meta-cognitive skill which needs to be considered within the coaching process, because of its impact on coaching effectiveness. Although the literature provides few clues of an explanation for this result, it might be that during coaching as individuals increase in self-confidence they become more focused on achieving their personal goals, which may be to the detriment of engaging in citizenship behaviour.

With regards the other coaching outcomes however, it appears from the quantitative evidence that self-esteem is not associated with change in performance or affective commitment over time. With regard performance, this is a surprising result, as the research suggests that there is a strong link between self-esteem and performance (Renn and Prien, 1995). However, the empirical evidence to confirm this relationship is still limited, and the role of self-esteem as a predictor of change for performance within the coaching process, has still yet to be established empirically. In terms of the relationship between self-esteem and affective commitment, the empirical evidence to support this is also very limited; much of the literature on affective commitment is fairly dominated by the link with turnover (Meyer et al, 1989), with virtually no empirical evidence to demonstrate the relationship between self-esteem and affective commitment. These results do however; suggest that self-esteem is not associated with change for affective commitment within coaching. Exploring the effects of self-esteem on performance and affective commitment during coaching, might therefore be an avenue for future research.

Whilst it is difficult to map the qualitative evidence directly onto the specific analysis carried out for the quantitative results, qualitative evidence does reveal some interesting and important evidence in support of the role of self-esteem to influence coaching outcomes. During the interviews most of the coachees felt that as a result of coaching they experienced increased levels of self-confidence and self-belief, which had a positive impact on work outcomes, e.g., half of those interviewed secured promotions during coaching, attributing this success directly to coaching, and most of those interviewed felt they would not have had the confidence to apply for promotion prior to coaching. For others, positive outcomes as a result of coaching which were linked to increases in self-confidence and self-esteem included: tackling challenging work assignments, confidence to deal with senior management, confidence to be more decisive and confidence to be more assertive. Most people interviewed didn't notice any significant impact directly relating to citizenship behaviour, although one coachee did feel that as a result of increased self-esteem she now has the confidence to volunteer for extra work and more specialist work activities. Overall, both sets of evidence do suggest that self-esteem influences coaching outcomes, with many positive benefits for work outcomes.

6.1.3.2 Self-Efficacy

In terms of influencing coaching outcomes, results suggest that during coaching self-efficacy is associated with change over time in all of the coaching outcomes suggesting

therefore, as self-efficacy increases: performance increases ($p<.05$) accounting for an additional 12% of variance; affective commitment decreases ($p<.05$) accounting for 14% of additional variance; and organisational citizenship behaviour decreases ($p<.05$) accounting for an additional 8% of variance. With regards performance, this result is well supported within the wider research literature, whereby links between self-efficacy and performance have been well established (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is concerned with mechanisms such as motivation and goal setting, which are thought to underpin work related performance (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998), and which are also thought to play an important role in the coaching process through self-regulation (Grant, 2001). Within the coaching literature evidence to support the role of self-efficacy is limited, with the exception of the occasional reference (Gegner, 1997). The findings of this study therefore, provide some important evidence to confirm the role of self-efficacy in influencing performance during coaching, and thus address this research gap. This has important implications for coaching, as it suggests that coaching is a key mechanism through which self-efficacy may be enhanced, which in turn, has a positive impact on performance, one of the desirable outcomes of a coaching process. With regards affective commitment, evidence in the literature of the relationship with coaching and self-efficacy is limited (Gegner, 1997), however, in the wider literature research does suggest that high levels of self-efficacy are linked to high levels of affective commitment (Van Vuuren et al, 2007), although evidence provided in this current study suggests that as self-efficacy increases, affective commitment decreases. Evidence and research into this area is limited, and therefore, explanations are more difficult to establish, although, this could suggest that during coaching as individual's feel more competent at work they may experience less emotional attachment towards the organisation as they focus their effort and energy in other areas of work. However, it is a useful finding as it provides some indication of the types of things during coaching which are associated with change in commitment within the workplace, although further research into the nature of this relationship should be established. In terms of the relationship between self-efficacy and organisational citizenship behaviour, the research is limited, although findings provided here suggest that as self-efficacy increases, organisational citizenship behaviour decreases. Whilst there is little research to refer to within the literature, a link with empowerment, or the process of enabling an employee to participate and contribute to organisational objectives, has been discussed (Wolfe and Morrison, 1996). Whilst empowerment does provide a useful link between self-efficacy and organisational citizenship behaviour, both of which are concerned with an individual's capability to succeed, or contribute towards work achievements, the precise nature of this relationship

has not been fully established, suggesting that further research is needed. Findings provided here however, indicate that during coaching as individuals grow in confidence in their work capability they become less willing to engage in additional work activities.

In terms of self-efficacy beliefs the qualitative evidence provided, strengthens the quantitative results. Coachees made a strong link during the interviews between self-belief and thinking critically about their own capability and skills, and behavioural outcomes during the coaching process. As a result of coaching people felt that they had become more aware of their own emotions and capability to be effective at work. People felt that coaching had helped them to reflect more intently on options and solutions, and how their thought processes and behaviour impacted on work outcomes. These recollections and experiences of the coaching process made a clear link between self-efficacy and coaching, highlighting how the effect of strengthening self-efficacy beliefs through the coaching process had resulted in a number of different outcomes, some of which include: effectiveness in dealing with new and difficult situations, changing a behavioural approach, improved decision making, learning from mistakes, tackling under-performance, better communication, more success on projects, better management of people and promotions. Coachees directly attributed these work achievements and outcomes to coaching. In terms of the argument relating to empowerment raised earlier, whilst coachees did not directly discuss feeling more empowered as a result of coaching, they did describe being empowered, as self-efficacy strengthened throughout the course of the coaching process. The qualitative evidence therefore, provides some strong evidence confirming the findings of the quantitative results, suggesting that coaching has a positive impact on strengthening self-efficacy beliefs which, as a consequence has a positive impact on work outcomes.

6.1.3.3 Locus of Control

With regards locus of control the research findings provide evidence that during coaching locus of control is associated with change over time for job performance ($p<.05$), accounting for an additional 17% of variance, and for organisational citizenship behaviour ($p<.05$) accounting for an additional 7% of variance, significant results were not found for affective commitment. This suggests therefore, that external locus of control is associated with an increase in performance and a decrease in organisational citizenship behaviour over time. For locus of control most of the literature focuses on the relationship with performance (Judge, Locke, Durham and Kluger, 1998), with a distinct lack of research relating to organisational citizenship behaviour, however evidence in

general has been mixed (Grimes et al, 2004). In terms of the relationship with performance some research suggests that those with an internal locus of control perform better than those with an external locus of control (Majumder, MacDonald and Greever, 1977; Grimes et al, 2004), or that externals perform better (Brownell, 1981), or it been suggested that there is no relationship (Johnson, Luthans and Hennessey, 1984), or that it depends on which aspects of performance are being measured (Tseng, 1970). Within the coaching literature locus of control is unexplored. The current findings are important for coaching research as they provide some evidence to suggest that a relationship exists between external locus of control and an increase in performance during coaching, and a decrease in organisational citizenship behaviour. Although previous evidence has been mixed, these results appear to conflict with some of the theory relating to locus of control, which suggests internal locus of control is linked to taking personal responsibility for outcomes resulting in higher performance, and external locus of control is linked to external causal attribution and lower performance (Adler, 1980; Spector, 1982). Evidence provided here suggests, however that there is a link between external locus of control and increased performance, and therefore, locus of control is an important factor to consider during coaching, because of the relationship it has with change in coaching outcomes. In terms of organisational citizenship behaviour due to the lack of research into this topic within coaching it is difficult to draw further conclusions; however, evidence here suggests a link between taking personal responsibility for outcomes and a willingness to undertake additional responsibilities within the workplace on a voluntary basis, and when individuals are not willing to take responsibility for outcomes they are less willing to engage in these types of voluntary activities. Links have been made with internal locus of control and positive psychological well-being, the inference being, that external locus of control is associated with poor psychological well-being and feelings of helplessness (Ng et al, 2004; Grimes et al, 2006). The qualitative evidence helps contextualise the quantitative findings thus providing some interpretation of the results. It is conceivable that during coaching where deconstruction of the self and self-analysis takes place, this leads to an experience of helplessness, and when experiencing this state individuals are less able or willing to take personal responsibility for outcomes, which has a negative impact on performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. This would appear to offer a plausible explanation for the quantitative evidence.

In terms of the lack of significant results for affective commitment there are minimal references to affective commitment and locus of control in the coaching literature

therefore, it is difficult to draw further conclusions, and within the wider literature on organisational commitment the focus has predominantly been on turnover (Meyer et al, 1989). In terms of the coaching research literature, there are some references to commitment (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008), although this relates to engagement in the coaching process, rather than emotional commitment to the organisation, which affective commitment seeks to measure. In conclusion, therefore, the fact that there are very few references to locus of control within the coaching literature, this makes the current findings both original and significant, in terms of the contribution to empirical knowledge. With regards coaching, these findings are important as they suggest that a person's belief in their ability to control their environment plays an important role in influencing change in performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. The relationship between locus of control and coaching is discussed in more detail in question three.

6.1.3.4 Private Self-Consciousness

A lack of significant results in the quantitative evidence appears to reject the hypothesis that private self-consciousness positively influences coaching outcomes. This is a surprising outcome as the expectation would be that coaching would increase levels of private self-consciousness (self-awareness) with a positive impact on coaching outcomes. Interpretation of this finding relates to earlier discussions, which suggest that private self-consciousness may not be an appropriate measurement of self-awareness within coaching and the association of the scale with clinical dysfunctional aspect of personality appears to support this conclusion, suggesting appropriateness for clinical usage. The interview data helps contextualise the findings by providing some important evidence of the positive impact of coaching on self-awareness; almost all interviewees reported this positive effect. The issues relating to private self-consciousness and self-awareness within coaching are discussed in more detail in question three.

6.1.4 ***Question 3*** *To what extent does meta-cognition moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

This question seeks to understand more about how meta-cognition influences coaching outcomes by providing evidence about which individuals are more likely to be influenced by the coaching process. As changes do not occur for everyone equally, it was thought useful to explore under which conditions coaching is more likely to be effective. Moderation techniques have been used to help identify any interaction effects between

variables, which in this question involve, meta-cognition and coaching outcomes. There were two types of moderation carried out; the first using T1 measures of the independent variables and the second using T2 measures. The purpose of using T1 measures was to help explore readiness or receptiveness to the coaching process, in order to identify which aspects of meta-cognition pre-coaching are more likely to influence outcomes. The use of T2 measures of the independent variable examines the influence of coaching on meta-cognition, and then explores the impact of this on coaching outcomes. The discussion explores the interaction effects between the different variables and discusses how these findings might be used to enhance coaching effectiveness; results are presented in the same sequence previously adopted.

6.1.4.1 Self-Esteem

For the first moderation using self-esteem T1, findings revealed no significant results against all three outcome measures; performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. For the second moderation using self-esteem T2, results indicate a trend in the data for performance ($p<.10$) accounting for 7% of the variance, suggesting that there are interaction effects between self-esteem T2 and performance over time.

The first set of results using self-esteem T1 indicate that an individual's self-esteem at the start of coaching does not have an influence on coaching outcomes therefore, irrespective of whether self-esteem is high or low before coaching, there is little observed effect on the coaching outcomes measured. The relationship between self-esteem and affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour is relatively unexplored, however, the absence of a significant result for performance is surprising, as evidence within the self-esteem literature suggests that a relationship between self-esteem and performance does exist (Renn and Prien, 1995). However, it has been noted that the role of self-concept within an organisational setting remains incomplete (Marsh, 1998), and whilst research suggests that employees with high self-esteem are thought to perceive themselves as being important and capable (Chen, Gully and Eden, 2004), the direct link to performance has not been fully established empirically. Research within the coaching literature has commented on self-esteem as an outcome measure, reporting on increases in self-esteem during coaching (Peterson, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003), however, evidence which explores self-esteem as a moderator of coaching effectiveness is limited. Some research does exist to suggest that employees with high self-esteem exert more effort to perform well, and those with low self-esteem have a tendency to withhold work

efforts (Renn and Prien, 1995) however, this was not reflected using T1 measures in the current results. This might be explained to some extent by the fact that much of the research literature fails to differentiate between self-esteem as a pre or post intervention measure, making the evidence provided by this research unique. It has been suggested that self-esteem acts as a moderator of work behaviour and attitudes through self-efficacy (Gardner and Pierce, 1998), although the inter-relationship and moderation effect between self-esteem and self-efficacy specifically, falls outside the remit of this current study.

When exploring the moderation effect using T2 measures of the independent variable (i.e. self-esteem after coaching), the results show a trend in the data which suggests an interaction effect, indicating that self-esteem after a coaching intervention acts as a moderator of job performance ($p<.10$) accounting for 7% of the variance. Whilst this isn't a significant result, this trend does suggest that a relationship and interaction effect between high/low self-esteem and high/low performance exists. Results reveal that low self-esteem appears to have little effect on performance over time, irrespective of whether the performance was high or low at T1. The same is true for high self-esteem and high performance, little effect is observed. However, for those with high self-esteem T2 and low performance T1, there was a significant increase in performance T2 during coaching for this group. This is an important finding for many reasons: firstly, not only does it support previous research linking self-esteem and performance (Renn and Prien, 1995; Gardener and Pierce, 1998), but it builds on this research by providing detailed empirical evidence which demonstrates the role of self-esteem as a moderator of performance, differentiating between high/low self-esteem and high/low performance during coaching; secondly, these findings provide a unique insight into how low performance might be enhanced during coaching for a certain group of individuals; thirdly, it establishes the importance of self-esteem during coaching and the need to differentiate between high/low self-esteem if coaching is to be made more effective; fourthly, it makes an original contribution to the empirical coaching literature. The wider implications of this for coaching practice are discussed more fully in the final question in this chapter.

Whilst the interview data did not differentiate so clearly between participants in terms of individual profiles, it did provide some clear evidence of the positive impact of coaching on self-esteem, which respondents strongly attributed increases in performance to. Many respondents cited increased confidence as a result of coaching directly contributed

to performance improvements such as: better decision making, better management of people, increased effectiveness with senior management, promotions etc.

6.1.4.2 Self-Efficacy

With regards self-efficacy significant results were found using T1 measures of self-efficacy against performance only ($p<.01$) accounting for 29% of the variance. T2 measures of self-efficacy yielded no significant results. The moderation analysis explores the relationship between high/low self-efficacy and high/low levels of the outcomes measured. With regards performance, results indicate that high self-efficacy T1 has little effect on performance over time T1 to T2, irrespective of performance levels at the start of the coaching, little change is observed over time. However, interestingly, a significant change is observed for those with low self-efficacy T1 irrespective of levels of performance at T1, indicating that there are two sub-groups for which change in performance is significant; for those with low self-efficacy and high performance T1, performance decreases and those with low self-efficacy and low performance, performance increases. The link between self-efficacy and performance has been well documented in the literature, with the positive benefits for motivation, goal setting and job design (Bandura, 1997; Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). The current findings support the theory to some extent with regards performance, by highlighting the impact of low self-efficacy on performance outcomes, providing more detail of the moderating role of self-efficacy on performance, which has been relatively unexplored. In terms of an explanation for the negative effect of low self-efficacy on high performance, this result is not so surprising and might be explained by the fact that in order to maintain high performance a strong belief in one's own capacity to achieve a task is necessary and when this is not present, as in low self-efficacy, this starts to have a negative impact on high performance, thus reaffirming both the link between self-efficacy and performance, but more specifically, highlighting the need for a strong belief in self-efficacy to maintain high performance levels. However, contradictory evidence is also provided, suggesting that for those with low self-efficacy and low performance, performance increases, this finding is less easily explained. Theory suggests low self-efficacy is likely to have a negative impact on performance, not a positive one (Bandura, 1997). One explanation for this unusual and contradictory finding could be that change in performance from low to high relates to factors other than self-efficacy, such as self-esteem, attitude, interpersonal communication and the coach. The qualitative evidence supports this providing evidence that self-esteem is a significant factor in influencing performance outcomes. Most respondents reported that through the relationship with the coach and

the provision of positive feedback on performance, this strengthened and reinforced self-belief, in particular self-confidence resulting in many performance related outcomes such as improved management of others, and increases in promotion.
The results are surprising however, with regards high self-efficacy, as the theory suggests that high self-efficacy increases levels of motivation, which is thought to lead to higher performance (Audia, Locke and Smith, 2000), in which case, it would be anticipated that there would be a significant result for those with low performance and high self-efficacy, however, the findings of this study do not support this. Reference to previous literature reveals however, that with regards the predictive nature of self-efficacy on performance there have been mixed results and the relationship is unclear (Chen et al, 2000; Yeo and Neal, 2006; Judge et al, 2007). In addition, there are also many other factors which are thought to influence the self-efficacy/performance equation, and the complexity of this relationship might provide some explanation for the absence of a significant result with high self-efficacy. Some of the factors which are also thought to influence self-efficacy and performance include: benchmarking (Bandura and Cervone, 1983), goal dissonance (Locke and Latham, 1990), goal setting behaviour (Wood and Bandura, 1989), feedback (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001), specificity of performance measures (Yeo and Neal, 2006), however, these elements were not measured in this study as they fall outside the remit therefore, further inferences cannot be made. Nonetheless, recognition of these additional dimensions does offer some insight into the complexity of the relationship between self-efficacy and performance and may explain the absence of some results. The implications of this significant finding for coaching in particular are highly significant, as it suggests that coaching might be an important mechanism through which low self-efficacy might be enhanced, and evidence provided in question one, supports this. It also demonstrates that a clear understanding of the level of self-efficacy at the start of coaching is critical. Knowledge of this will help inform the coaching process, and may be used to influence performance by preventing any decrease in performance for those with low self-efficacy and high performance, in particular. These results highlight the need for coaching to be more focused, and they provide some important evidence of the utility of assessing an individual's level of self-efficacy at the start of coaching, which can be used to help inform a person's 'readiness' for coaching, with important consequences for performance outcomes.

In terms of the qualitative evidence, participants did not report any negative impact of coaching on performance, on the contrary, respondents tended to support the view that coaching had a positive impact on self-efficacy, which had a contributory effect on many

of the performance improvements described earlier. However, there was a tendency for the evidence to be more strongly associated with self-confidence and therefore self-esteem, rather than self-efficacy.

6.1.4.3 Locus of Control

The results for locus of control show significance for both the T1 and T2 measures of locus of control and performance (T1:$p<.05$, 9% of the variance; T2: $p<.05$, 16% of the variance), however, against affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour the results were non-significant for both T1 and T2 measures. With regards performance, results indicate that locus of control pre and post coaching plays an important moderating role. For both T1 and T2 measures of locus of control, the results show that for those with an internal locus of control there is no observed effect on performance over time T1 to T2, irrespective of level of performance T1. The same is true also for those with an external locus of control T1 and T2 and high performance T1, little change is observed over time. However, for those with external locus of control both at the start of coaching T1, and after coaching T2, and low performance T1, there is quite a significant increase in performance over time. These results indicate, not only that locus of control plays an important moderating role within coaching in terms of performance outcomes, but also highlights that those with an external locus of control and low performance are the group most likely to be influenced during coaching, with a positive effect on performance levels. The literature with regards locus of control and performance has produced some mixed results (Grimes et al, 2004), some research suggests that those with an internal locus of control perform better than those with an external locus of control (Majumder, MacDonald and Greever, 1977; Grimes et al, 2004), or that externals perform better (Brownell, 1981), or it been suggested that there is no relationship (Johnson, Luthans and Hennessey, 1984), or that it depends on which aspects of performance are being measured (Tseng, 1970). Within the coaching literature locus of control is unexplored. In trying to interpret these results, it is important to recognise that locus of control attempts to report on an individual's causal attribution for outcomes. 'Internals' are thought to attribute success to internal factors, such as ability, and as such are thought to experience more achievement effect than 'externals', who are thought to attribute success to external factors (Adler, 1980; Spector, 1982). The fact that these current findings report an absence of significant results for 'internals', is interesting, although not so surprising. This result might be explained by the fact that typically, 'internals' rely more heavily on their own internal resources, as a consequence they might be less influenced by the coach or by the coaching process. This explanation

would appear plausible, and would help explain why no observed effect was present for those with an internal locus of control. The converse could also be true however, in which case this result is surprising as internals are thought to take more personal responsibility for outcomes, therefore, one might expect to observe an increase in performance for internals during coaching, although this was not found. For those with an external locus of control and high performance, again little change in performance is observed, which has also been reflected within the literature, where it has been suggested that when outcomes are positive (as in high performance), there is little difference in behaviour between internals and externals (Seeman and Evans, 1962; Gore and Rotter, 1963). A contradiction with the literature can be found however, where the literature reports on negative outcome situations (as in low performance); the theory suggests that internals outperform externals, which is not supported by the current research findings. Current findings report that externals increase their performance when performance is low, with no increase in performance for internals. Whilst, this particular research objective is not specifically concerned with making a direct comparison of performance outcomes between internals and externals, this is an interesting finding, suggesting that individuals whose performance is most influenced during a coaching intervention, are those with an external locus of control and low performance, the effect being a positive one on performance. This finding does appear to conflict with previous research. This finding suggests that during coaching coachees are taking less personal responsibility for outcomes, which one would not expect to observe after an intervention such as coaching which is so individually tailored. One explanation for this could be that as previously discussed, there needs to be more focus on raising awareness about personal responsibility for causal explanations or outcomes during coaching and conceivably, the coach did not focus attention on this particular aspect. Interestingly, though, this does appear not to have had a detrimental effect on performance, as research suggests it might (Grimes et al, 2004; Ng et al, 2006). This result may be explained by the theory that 'externals' do not seek explanations for behavioural change from within themselves (Ng et al, 2006), rather, they seek external explanations, or causality for behaviour change, and as a consequence, conceivably are more likely to be open to influence from a coach during coaching. The relationship and interaction effect might be explained by the fact that the more an individual is aware of the external factors which influence the work environment, the more conscious they become of the different factors which are likely to influence performance and for those with low performance, this conceivably broadens their perspective and allows for more growth in performance, hence the increase in performance when performance is low.

However, when locus of control is viewed in terms of taking responsibility for outcomes, a shift in external locus of control is not easily explained in this study.

Evidence provided by the interview data offers some insight and explanation for this finding. During interview most respondents reported to be unaffected by organisational instability and change during the period of coaching, suggesting that job uncertainty was not the principal causal explanation for the shift towards external locus of control. In terms of the impact of coaching on locus of control, interview data suggests that those less accustomed to taking responsibility for outcomes (external locus of control) were more influenced by the coach and the coaching process through raised awareness of the sphere of influence, resulting in improvements to performance. For some however, coaching had an initial destabilising effect, where deconstruction of the 'self' in the early stage of coaching resulted in a feeling of helplessness, which would explain a shift towards external locus of control and less willingness towards internal causal attribution.

The implications of this finding for coaching are important as it provides some indication of the moderating effect of locus of control on performance. This offers some evidence to demonstrate that those with an external locus of control are more likely to be influenced by the coaching process than internals, and also that the effect on low performers is more noticeable. This research offers some indication therefore, of ways to influence poor performance; highlighting coaching as being an important mechanism through which locus of control might be influenced to achieve this. In terms of the practical implications of these findings for coaching practice, these results suggest that a measure of locus of control pre-coaching is useful, as it provides an insight into those individuals most likely to be influenced during coaching, i.e. low performance and external locus of control, suggesting that this type of information may prove useful for tailoring the coaching design in order to improve effectiveness. It should be noted also that these findings provide empirical evidence which to date has been seriously lacking within the coaching literature.

6.1.4.4 Private Self-Consciousness

For private self-consciousness findings reveal one significant result in the moderation regression for T2 measure of private self-consciousness against performance ($p<.05$) accounting for 16% of the variance, indicating that private self-consciousness T2 plays a moderating role with performance for certain individuals. For those individuals with high private self-consciousness scores T2, there is little observed effect on performance over

time, irrespective of performance T1, and the same is true for those with low private self-consciousness T2 and low performance T1, there is little noticeable effect on performance over time. However, for those with low private self-consciousness scores T2 and high performance T1, there is a strong decrease in performance during coaching, suggesting that private self-consciousness plays an important moderating role on performance for this group of individuals. In search of an explanation, previous research suggests that high levels of private self-consciousness are linked to higher performance and low private self-consciousness is linked to lower performance (Hollenbeck and Williams, 1987; Carver, 1996). This is reflected in the current finding, which reveals a negative effect for those with low private self-consciousness and high performance, whereby performance for this group of individual's decreases during coaching. This highlights the moderating role and interaction effect between private self-consciousness and performance during coaching, for certain individuals. One interpretation of this could be that in order to maintain high levels of performance, high levels of self-awareness are required, the more aware an individual is about themselves, the more likely they are to have a deeper insight into how they personally can influence their performance levels, with the positive effect of maintaining high levels of performance.

However, a more surprising result is that there was no increase in performance for those with high private self-consciousness and low performance, which conflicts with previous research. A possible explanation for this might be found in causal attribution theory. It has been proposed that those with high private self-consciousness attribute internal causality for outcomes, (Buss and Scheier, 1979; Briere and Vallerand, 1990), similar to those with an internal locus of control, and if this is the case, this might help explain the absence of performance change during coaching for this group. According to this theory therefore, those individuals with high private self-consciousness scores might be less influenced during coaching, seeking reasons for causality from within, instead of through feedback from a coach. Conversely, with regards low private self-consciousness, research suggests that these individuals frequently rely upon external sources of information for causality of behaviour, often through feedback and when feedback is unavailable, they are more likely to reflect internally on their own behaviours to find reasons of causality, with the consequence of lower performance (Briere and Vallerand, 1990). However, the discussion is complex as findings appear to conflict with the research, making interpretation confusing and difficult. According to the research, those with low private self-consciousness scores are more likely to be influenced by feedback, and in situations such as coaching where it might be assumed that feedback is available,

it might be anticipated that these individuals would be more open to influence from the coach, with a positive effect. Yet, in this study, the opposite effect can be observed, whereby, performance decreased significantly during coaching for those with low private self-consciousness and high performance T1. However, it must be noted, that this theory is based on the assumption that performance feedback was available during coaching, and because feedback is not one of the controlled variables in this study, it is difficult to draw parallels or conclusions based on previous research. The current finding reflects previous research into private self-consciousness in that results have been mixed and findings inconclusive (Frazoi and Sweeney, 1986; Briere and Vallerand, 1990), and coupled with the complex nature of private self-consciousness, with associations to psychopathic dysfunction (Trapness and Campbell, 1999), this suggests further validation and research is still needed.

In terms of the non-significant results, the evidence suggests that there is little interaction effect between private self-consciousness and affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Due to the lack of research into private self-consciousness within the coaching literature (Grant, 2000), and with inconsistent results in the wider literature (Franzoi and Sweeney, 1986; Briere and Vallerand, 1990) it is difficult to make inferences from the current findings. However, given that self-awareness is a strong component of coaching; where attention is placed on the individual, and awareness of the 'self' is encouraged within a cycle of self-regulation, (Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005), it is surprising that private self-consciousness has not played a more significant role during coaching than current findings suggest. Potential explanations have been discussed previously, suggesting that clearer definitions and further evidence is needed in order to validate and account more fully for the role of private self-consciousness within coaching. Evidence provided by the qualitative data derived from interviews suggests a very clear role for self-awareness within coaching, providing some convincing evidence that coaching has a positive impact on self-awareness by encouraging self-reflection, with many positive benefits for performance and effectiveness, such as: improved working relationships, improved management skills and better decision making.

The current research presents some conflicting evidence: the quantitative evidence suggests that private self-consciousness has a negative impact on performance for certain individuals during coaching; however, qualitative evidence suggests coaching has a positive impact. However, it must be noted that for the qualitative evidence, during interviews, private self-consciousness was interpreted more directly as self-awareness

and therefore, it is conceivable, that the quantitative and qualitative evidence measured different things. Whilst, it is difficult to fully interpret these results, it does suggest that private self-consciousness as a construct may need refinement in terms of definitions and validation of what is being measured, although, from the qualitative evidence, it does appear that coaching has a positive effect on self-awareness which appears to improve effectiveness of outcomes.

To summarise the findings on meta-cognition, evidence suggests that meta-cognition is an important factor to consider during coaching because of the influence it has on coaching outcomes. Findings show that the relationships are complex and interdependent. Coaching appears to have an impact on meta-cognition, which then has an impact on outcomes. With self-esteem and self-efficacy this relationship appears to be associated with positive changes and coaching appears to be an important mechanism through which these changes occur. For locus of control evidence indicates it is important to consider the impact of causal attribution within coaching because of the possible effects on coaching outcomes, in particular, there appears to be an important relationship between critical self-analysis and experiences of helplessness during coaching and a reluctance to take responsibility for outcomes. For private self-consciousness, evidence was mixed, quantitative results yielded no significant findings suggesting that a relationship between self-awareness and coaching did not exist, however, the qualitative evidence firmly established the importance of self-awareness within coaching; suggesting perhaps that the private self-consciousness scale may not be an appropriate tool for measuring self-awareness within a coaching setting.

6.2 Research Objective 2 (a) – Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coachee)

This research objective is concerned with the coachee and is divided into two parts: (a) interpersonal communication skills, and (b) coaching attitude.

The first part of this research objective is concerned with communication, which is a complex process whereby an individual adopts an intricate array of cognitive, perceptual and behavioural patterns in order to facilitate goal attainment (Hargie and Dickson, 2004). This suggests a strong link between communication and coaching, the central feature of which is goal attainment. Whilst there are many tangible rewards to be gained from developing effective interpersonal communication skills, with evidence to suggest strong links with effective management and academic performance (Brigman et al,

1999), there is very little research which explores the relationship between interpersonal communication skills and coaching. The coaching research literature does make reference to communication skills and interpersonal skills, suggesting that these are important components of the coaching process (Gegner, 1997; Bush, 2004), and it has also been suggested that one of the outcomes of a positive coaching experience is better communication skills (Kilburg, 1996), however, little is understood about the impact interpersonal communication has on coaching outcomes. Often the literature discusses interpersonal communication in terms of the coach, with limited reference to the coachee (Sztucinski, 2001). The evidence provided by the findings to this research objective therefore, address this research gap.

6.2.1 ***Question 4*** *What is the impact of coaching on the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

The quantitative results to this question reveal some important evidence to show the impact of coaching on interpersonal communication skills of the coachee, demonstrating that after coaching coachees show a significant improvement in their interpersonal communication skills ($p<.01$). A plausible explanation for this observed increase in interpersonal communication skills could be that the dedicated, focused attention given to the coachee during coaching allows the opportunity for the coach to build trust during the development of this relationship, which provides the right environment to encourage openness and receptiveness to change. During this exchange the coachee becomes more aware of their individual communication style, and the one to one approach during coaching allows for these specific skills to be strengthened. This has been supported to some extent within the coaching literature, where studies report improved interpersonal skills as a positive coaching outcome (Diedrich, 1996; Wasylyshyn, Gronsky and Haas, 2006); however previous research may be criticised for lacking empirical rigour by not providing sufficient detail of the methodological approaches used. Additional criticisms are levelled at the distinct lack of detail about which measures are being used to describe interpersonal skills and frequently results are not substantiated by empirical evidence, therefore remain highly subjective (Kilburg, 1996). The current finding therefore, builds on previous research by providing some quantifiable evidence of the impact of coaching on a coachee's interpersonal communication skills. This study also seeks to enhance theoretical underpinnings by providing more details about what constitutes effective interpersonal communication. In terms of providing evidence of coaching effectiveness this is a very encouraging result, as it suggests that coaching is a

useful mechanism for developing an important skill set, i.e. interpersonal communication skills, which research indicates have strong links with effective management (Clampitt, 2001) and which are an important element of coaching (Cairo and Dotlich, 1999; Merritt and Phillips, 1999).

In support of this evidence the qualitative findings reveal similar results. During the interviews coachees reported that coaching had helped to improve their communication skills, in particular, the coach appears to have been instrumental in facilitating this outcome. The types of factors which appear to have encouraged this include: safe environment to be open and disclose sensitive information; encouragement from the coach to be open; receiving positive feedback in a non-threatening environment; and raised awareness of own style of communication and impact on others. When analysing the components of interpersonal communication skills further, many of the coachees felt that the communication style of the coach played a crucial part in encouraging openness and receptiveness, and the ability of the coach to build rapport and create an environment where coachees did not feel judged, appears to be critical. Coachees felt quite strongly that in order for the coaching process to be effective, the coachee needs to be open, for some people this is less of a challenge, for others where this is more difficult, having an atmosphere conducive to openness appears important. Clearly, when combined, both sets of evidence suggest that during the coaching process the coachee's interpersonal communication skills, openness and receptiveness all improve, and this appears to be strongly linked to the coach.

6.2.2 ***Question 5*** *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

In terms of the impact of the coachee's interpersonal communication skills on outcomes during coaching, the quantitative findings indicate that interpersonal communication skills of the coachee is positively associated with change in job performance: for step 2 ($p<.01$) accounting for an additional 22% of variance; and for step 3 ($p<.01$) accounting for an additional 17% of variance. Step 2 results indicate that interpersonal communication skills before coaching at T1 has an impact on increasing performance over time T1-T2, suggesting that it influences this change. Step 3 results indicate that change is associated with change, i.e., that an increase in interpersonal communication skills T1-T2 is associated with an increase in performance T1-T2. Evidence to show a significant relationship with affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour was not

found. The importance of this result for coaching is that it demonstrates that interpersonal communication skills of the coachee are associated with changes in job performance during coaching, which suggests therefore, that this is a critical factor that needs to be taken into account during the coaching process because of the potential for this to improve effectiveness. A possible explanation for this relationship could be, that the more effective someone is in communicating with other people, paying attention to needs, and the more open and receptive they are to change and to feedback, then the more likely they are to be able to use these enhanced skills to achieve their goals, with a positive impact on job performance.

Combined with earlier results therefore, it appears that coaching is having a positive impact on the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee, which then has a positive influence on change in performance outcomes. This not only provides some indication of what makes a difference during coaching, in terms of what contributes towards coaching effectiveness with a positive impact on performance, but also provides some empirical evidence in support of the role of interpersonal communication skills within coaching. Much of the research literature treats interpersonal communication as an outcome measure, concerned with the impact coaching has on this (Diedrich, 1996; Wasylyshyn, Gronsky and Haas, 2006) and whilst this is useful, it fails to explore the role of interpersonal communication skills in influencing coaching outcomes, an area of research that has been neglected in the literature, particularly from the coachee perspective. More frequently references to interpersonal communication skills relate to the core competencies of the coach (Merritt and Phillips, 1999; International Coaching Federation, 1999). The current findings therefore, address this research gap, however, in order to gain the maximum benefits from this important finding, it was thought useful to examine more closely the specific items within the interpersonal communication skills scale which were found to be more significant in influencing change in performance. A closer examination of the scale reveals that it comprises different elements which, were highlighted within the literature as being important factors to consider, both with regards communication and coaching. The scale has been divided into three categories: interpersonal skills, communication skills and receptiveness. To establish which components of the scale were most relevant to coaching effectiveness individual item analysis was carried out. The findings of this analysis revealed some interesting results, highlighting which factors are important in influencing performance during coaching. These are shown in order of statistical significance in the figure 6.1 below

Figure 6.1: *Model of the Critical Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coachee) Influencing Job Performance during Coaching*

Within the coaching literature evidence exists to support these findings, research suggests that one of the key differentiators between successful and unsuccessful coaching is client or coachee engagement (Sztucinski, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). Within the literature the nature of client engagement however, is unspecific and ill-defined, although some key elements have been recognised which include: motivation, willingness to participate, openness to feedback and change, attitude, commitment and readiness for coaching. These have direct links with the interpersonal communication scale used in this study, particularly with regards 'openness' and 'willingness to participate'. Additionally, results indicate that being 'open and honest', 'adopting a friendly approach' and 'engaging in face to face contact' are common features of both coachee engagement and the interpersonal communication skills, which were identified as being the most critical in influencing change in performance within this study. Other factors which also showed significance include: adopting a 'receptive and open approach to feedback', 'sharing information' and 'communicating effectively with others'. Clearly, the more enhanced these skills are, the more likelihood there is that an individual is capable of securing their goals, as these skills can be used to gain access to things which influence performance, such as performance and behavioural feedback.

The qualitative findings reveal similar results to the quantitative findings, providing more details about the coachee's experience of coaching and how the coachee perceived the impact of interpersonal communication skills on outcomes. Almost all coachees interviewed felt quite strongly that being open and willing to engage was an integral part for coaching to be effective. A willingness to engage, to participate and be open-minded, appear to be connected to having a positive attitude. During the interviews, there was some overlap between interpersonal communication skills and attitude/expectations. When coachees were probed further, to describe what specifically about interpersonal communication influenced coaching outcomes, most discussed the need for the coachee to be open to the process, coachees felt that even if some individuals were cynical or sceptical about the process, if they remained open, then there could still be a successful outcome. The types of things that coachees discussed in terms of the impact of having an open and effective interpersonal communication style include: improved communication; increased willingness to be open; raised awareness of own communication style; more receptiveness to feedback; taking a more inclusive approach with others; improved management capability; and being more influential with others.

The combined evidence of the quantitative and qualitative results have some very important implications for coaching, which may be summarised as follows: (1) the findings suggest that coaching is an effective mechanism for enhancing interpersonal communication skills which have significant benefits for management effectiveness (Brigman et al, 1999; Clampitt, 2001); (2) they provide important evidence of the critical factors relating to interpersonal communication skills which are likely to positively influence change in job performance within the coaching process; (3) they extend the current research relating to coachee engagement and success within coaching, by providing more detail and clarity to this concept, making an important contribution to the empirical literature; (4) they provide mixed evidence combining quantitative and qualitative findings, much of the research within coaching has been biased towards qualitative data which is open to general criticisms that evidence is subjective, lacking standardisation, lacking clarity within definitions, and sample sizes are small (Kilburg, 1996; Tobias, 1996); (5) the current findings offer more robust evidence supported by academic rigour making links to theoretical underpinnings and thereby addresses a research gap; (6) the results provide some important clues as to how coaching effectiveness can be improved through developing interpersonal communication skills; (7) the results suggest that it might be useful to consider a coachee's interpersonal communication skills before a coaching engagement, as this is likely to have an impact

on outcomes; (8) the evidence enhances our understanding of the concept of coachee engagement, which has been identified as being an important differentiator in coaching success (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008).

6.2.3 ***Question 6*** *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

The moderation analysis carried out reveals one significant outcome for T1 measures of interpersonal communications skills and performance ($p<.10$) accounting for 9% of the variance. This result indicates a trend in the data, suggesting that for those with low interpersonal communication skills T1, there is little observed change in performance over time, irrespective of performance levels at T1. The same is true also for those with high interpersonal communication skills T1 and high performance at the start of coaching; there is little observed change in performance over time. However, for those with high interpersonal communication skills T1 and low performance T1, there is a significant increase in performance during coaching. As previously discussed, this finding could be explained by the fact that the more skilled a person is at communicating, the more open they are to feedback and the more open and receptive they are to change, then conceivably the more likely they are to have the necessary skills which allow them better access to their goals, e.g. if someone is very open to change, and is able to create an atmosphere conducive to open communication, they will probably be more likely to extract important feedback information and will seek further clarification when unclear. These types of skills will not only give them access to key information, but will allow the exchange of information more easily.

There is very little evidence reporting on the moderating role of interpersonal communication skills within the coaching research literature, which makes it difficult to benchmark results. There are occasional references made to interpersonal communication skills as outcome measures, where it has been reported that these skills have been enhanced through coaching (Tobias, 1996; Wasylyshyn et al, 2006), and it has been suggested that communication style and interpersonal style are important components of the coaching process (Gegner, 1997), however, much of this research, lacks a systematic approach and fails to provide accurate measurements or empirical evidence upon which to draw more satisfactory conclusions (Feldman and Lankau, 2005). Previous research does suggest that some of the key elements of a successful coaching relationship involves coachee engagement, which includes being open to

feedback and change (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008), and a willingness to participate (Judge and Powell, 1997), which is supported by the evidence found in this study. The significance of the current finding and previous research is that it highlights the importance of an individual's readiness or openness to the coaching process (as measured by the 'interpersonal communication scale'), identifying 'openness' as being a critical component of coaching success. This strengthens the current findings, as 'readiness' or 'receptiveness' are key features of the interpersonal communication scale used in this study. In addition to this, the fact that the T1 measure provided a significant result, also serves to reinforce the importance of this finding. This suggests that a coachee's readiness for coaching, their openness to change and their receptiveness to feedback, are particularly critical for those with low performance and high interpersonal communication skills. The implications for coaching are multi-faceted; it highlights the moderating role of interpersonal communication skills within coaching and provides an important indicator of how to raise low performance for a certain group of individuals. This provides some guidance on how to tailor coaching in order to improve effectiveness, through performance improvements and also demonstrates the utility of assessing a coachee's level of interpersonal communication skills before coaching begins. A pre-coaching assessment is likely to provide a useful indicator, which can be used within coaching to improve the process. These findings also make an important and unique contribution to the research literature, which is currently lacking in empirical evidence.

Also worth commenting on here are the non-significant results found. Based on previous research, it might be anticipated that interpersonal communication skills would prove significant for all groups, not just for those with high interpersonal communication skills and low performance. If this skill set is such a critical component of coaching success, as implied by the research on 'coachee engagement' (Sztucinski, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2006), one might expect to observe a wider range of effects across more groups, with a significant improvement in performance for all. However, the absence of this finding, might be explained by the fact that previous research has relied heavily upon qualitative and therefore, potentially more subjective evidence to support the claims (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). The current findings as a consequence, build on this research, by providing a mixed method approach offering more systematic evidence upon which to develop the theory relating to 'coachee engagement'. Whilst the concept of coachee engagement does appear to be a significant factor within coaching, in terms of moderation the current research findings suggest that the effects or influence of interpersonal communication skills do not occur equally for everyone. Moreover, the role

of interpersonal communication skills as a moderator of performance is more specific and appears to be more likely to have an impact on changes in performance for certain individuals.

6.3 Research Objective 2 (b) - Coaching Attitude – (Coachee)

Another area of research within the coaching literature which potentially plays an important role within coaching is coaching attitude, although empirical research in this area is minimal. The definition of coaching attitude within the literature is unclear and ill-defined; reference has been made towards attitude or 'expectation-setting' steps, where it has been highlighted that further investigation is needed (Feldman and Lankau, 2005). The absence of empirical evidence serves to justify further investigation into this area, which this research objective seeks to address. As previously noted, coachee engagement, receptiveness and openness are all important elements of successful coaching; however, the extent to which attitude might influence these factors, or have an impact on coaching outcomes, is unexplored and needs further investigation (London and Smither, 2002). This is true also of the concept of 'buy-in' towards the coaching process, where research suggests that the relationship with attitude or expectations is yet to be explored (Peel, 2004; Bowles, Cunningham and De la Rosa, 2007). Also related to these ideas is the theory regarding 'ownership' within coaching, which purportedly plays a role in the coaching experience (Sztucinski, 2001); however, the power of attitude or expectations to influence ownership also requires further investigation (London and Smither, 2002). In view of the fact that there is little research and theory upon which to base the concept of 'attitude', the measure used in this study has been based on an expectation of coaching being challenging and on expectations about coaching's ability to improve outcomes, e.g. working more effectively with others etc. (see chapter three for further details). The following questions seek to address the research gaps identified in the literature.

6.3.1 ***Question 7*** *What is the impact of coaching on coaching attitude? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Results indicate a significant outcome for the total score of a measure of 'coaching attitude' ($p<.01$) and also on individual items within the scale, showing a decrease in mean scores for 'attitude' or 'expectations' across all four measures included in the scale. This suggests that expectations or attitude towards coaching have not been

matched by the experience of coaching. This evidence suggests therefore, that coachee's had higher expectations of coaching's ability to influence things such as: working more effectively with others, raising levels of self-awareness, and improving performance or achieving objectives. Coachees also reported that they anticipated coaching to be more challenging than they found it to be. It is difficult to draw inferences about these findings from previous research, or draw conclusions based on the literature due to the scarcity of evidence, specifically relating to attitude within coaching. In terms of a link to some of the areas covered by 'attitude' in this study, there has been some research in the coaching literature reporting on the relationship between coaching and goal attainment (Strayer and Rossett, 1994; Anderson, 2001), with reports of increased self-awareness and increased sensitivity towards others (Hall, Otazo and Hollenbeck, 1999), however, the evidence may be criticised for being anecdotal and fairly subjective. Therefore, in terms of explaining the current findings, i.e. why expectations were not met by experience, previous research offers little steer. One theory might be that participants had unrealistically high expectations about the coaching process, expectations which were not matched by reality. Additionally, these findings might also be explained by the fact that the coaching intervention had been poorly promoted, and therefore, an attempt by the organisation to shape expectations prior to coaching taking place, had not been fully executed.

When some of these emergent themes were explored further in the qualitative interviews, evidence provided by the coachees revealed some interesting detail. Whilst there were a range of views that were discussed with regards the role of attitude and expectations within coaching, most of those interviewed agreed that being open minded was crucial. It was felt that even if there was cynicism or scepticism about the benefits of participating in coaching, if the coachee was open minded the coaching process could still be effective. It was felt that without an open mind, outcomes would be limited and the coaching process would be hindered. One of the factors which were thought to influence attitude involved line managers and peers, where it was felt they had an important role in shaping attitudes. Some coachees commented that having a supportive line manager was helpful in encouraging a positive attitude towards the process. Others, who had been surrounded by less supportive colleagues, had experienced a negative influence on their own attitude. There was a general consensus that prior knowledge and a clearer understanding of what was involved in the coaching process would be beneficial. As one coachee commented, 'most people have no idea how much hard work is involved and how emotionally draining the process is'. In order

to ensure experience matched expectations, it was thought necessary to establish realistic expectations about what is involved during coaching, with a more realistic understanding about how results are achieved, i.e., the coachee is required to do some hard work. Out of those interviewed, those with realistic expectations didn't experience disappointment with outcomes, although most of those interviewed admitted to the process being hard work and draining. It was also felt by many that the organisation needed to support the coaching process for it to be successful. Whilst having a positive attitude was thought desirable, this was not thought to be as critical as being open minded. Even with a negative attitude, it was felt that progress could be made if the coachee was at least willing to be open to the process.

The practical implications of these findings for coaching are significant, in that they suggest that it is important to ensure as far as possible that expectations about coaching are met in reality. Conceivably, if expectations are not met, this could lead to a negative experience of coaching, with the potential consequence of disengagement of the coachee from the coaching process, and as previous research shows, there is a strong link between coachee engagement and coaching success (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). Attention needs to be given to shaping positive attitudes by establishing realistic expectations, educating individuals about the process and being clear about what is involved and what can be achieved. Organisations or coaching practitioners therefore, would be advised to make sure that efforts are made to promote coaching beforehand, in an attempt to influence and shape expectations, so that attitudes, beliefs and expectations about coaching are more realistic and therefore, are more closely matched to experience, with important consequences for coachee engagement.

6.3.2 ***Question 8*** *To what extent does coaching attitude influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

The quantitative results show two significant results indicating that coaching attitude is associated with changes over time for job performance ($p<.05$), accounting for an additional 9% of variance, and organisational citizenship behaviour ($p<.01$), accounting for an additional 10% of variance. This suggests therefore, that a decrease in attitude/expectations is associated with an increase in performance and a decrease in organisational citizenship behaviour. As previously noted, there is very little reference to coaching attitude within the coaching literature making it difficult therefore, to draw inferences about the role of coaching attitude to influence coaching outcomes. The fact

that participants report that expectations were not met by experience further complicates an interpretation of these findings. Whilst expectations appear not to have been matched by experience within coaching, this does not seem to have had a negative impact on outcomes. Moreover, the findings suggest that as expectations become more realistic during the coaching process this appears to be positively related to increased performance. Nonetheless, encouraging a positive attitude within coaching is beneficial and likely to be associated with improved performance.

As discussed earlier, the qualitative results with regards attitude and expectations suggest that attitude and expectations are important because they influence an individual's involvement and engagement within the coaching process. Whilst having a positive attitude was thought to be desirable and a negative attitude undesirable, it appears that open-mindedness and willingness to engage is the most critical factor relating to attitude, because of the impact on coaching effectiveness. Focused attention on building, strengthening and maintaining a positive attitude therefore, appears crucial, because of the effects it has on engagement.

6.3.3 ***Question 9*** *To what extent does coaching attitude moderate coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Findings indicate one significant result for coaching attitude T2 with performance ($p<.05$) accounting for 17% of the variance.

With regards the significant outcome using a post coaching measure of coaching attitude against performance, moderation results indicate that for those who had a negative attitude towards coaching T2 there was no change in performance over time, regardless of the level of performance at T1. The same was true also for those with a positive coaching attitude T2 and high performance T1; little change was observed over time. However, for those who reported a positive attitude T2 and low performance T1, a significant increase in performance could be observed over time. Whilst there is little previous research against which to measure this outcome, this result should be regarded as an important finding, which provides some much needed empirical evidence, and one which has important implications for coaching. The significance of this result is that it highlights the moderating role of attitude on performance, and provides some crucial information about those individuals who are more likely to be influenced within the coaching process. This result indicates that a positive experience of coaching, which

results in a positive attitude, is likely to have a positive effect on performance for those with low performance at the start of coaching. This provides critical information about how to improve performance for certain individuals and suggests how a coaching intervention might be tailored. Whilst, the reverse (negative attitude, lower performance) was not found to be true (statistically significant), this result does highlight the value of encouraging a positive attitude within the coaching process because of the likely benefits for some individuals, in terms of performance improvements. Searching for an explanation for these findings, it might be that adopting a positive attitude towards coaching puts the coachee in the right frame of mind to be more receptive to the coaching process, and when an individual is open and receptive, they might be more influenced by the coach and the coaching process to make performance improvements. Certainly when performance is low there is potentially more room for improvements to be made. It might also be the case that to improve low performance, a positive attitude is the initial step, although as performance increases, potentially others factors become relevant, which could help explain why a positive coaching attitude does not have the same significant outcome for those with high performance. Possibly those with high performance are using their positive attitude towards coaching to maintain performance levels, however, in order to significantly raise performance which is already high, potentially, something else is required beyond a positive attitude. Perhaps additional goal setting techniques or other methods are required to help those who want to raise performance when it is already high. In terms of the findings regarding negative attitude, the results are not so surprising, although it might have been anticipated that there could have been a significant negative outcome for those with negative attitude and high performance. Perhaps this effect was not observed because those with high performance are being influenced more strongly by a combination of other things during coaching other than just attitude, and as previously noted, this does include things such as meta-cognition, which does appear to play a significant role in influencing coaching outcomes. These findings do suggest that there is some value in monitoring and evaluating coaching processes to provide more detailed assessments, which can be used to improve coaching design and increase coaching effectiveness.

As discussed earlier, the qualitative evidence further reinforces the effects of attitude within the coaching process, indicating that expectations need to be managed carefully as they are likely to influence attitude, and that whilst a positive attitude is desirable, an open mind may be more critical.

6.4 Research Objective 3 - Interpersonal Communication Skills – Coach

6.4.1 ***Question 10*** *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coach influence coaching outcomes? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Quantitative findings indicate that the coach's interpersonal communication skill is positively associated with change in job performance ($p<.05$) accounting for an additional 20% of variance and showing a trend in the data for organisational citizenship behaviour ($p<.10$) accounting for an additional 5% of variance, demonstrating that during coaching, the coach's interpersonal communication skills are influencing these coaching outcomes, no significant results were found for affective commitment. With regards performance, which showed a higher level of significance, it was thought useful to explore this particular outcome further, in order to provide more detail about which factors proved more critical within this relationship. A summary of the findings are presented below in figure 6.2:

Figure 6.2: *Model of the Critical Interpersonal Communication Skills (Coach) Influencing Job Performance during Coaching*

These findings are reflected in previous research which suggests that some of the important factors related to being a competent coach are similar to many of the items used in this study, these include: good interpersonal communication skills (Sztucinski,

2001); being a good communicator (Hudson, 1990); building trust (Guthrie, 1999; Kilburg 2000; Caproni, 2001; Kappenberg, 2008); providing feedback (Crane, 2001; Grant 2001); providing a safe environment (Kilburg, 2000); building relationships and rapport (Skiffington and Zeuss, 2000; O'Neill, 2000; Bush, 2004; Hunt, 2004); showing empathy (Kilburg, 2000); having an interest in coachee's issues (Kilburg, 2000); clarifying expectations (Crane, 2001); and being honest and objective (Edelstein and Armstrong, 1993). There is a noticeable absence of research however, which explores the influence of the coach's skills on outcomes. Two factors which have been associated with competencies of the coach and highlighted within the literature as being particularly important within the coaching relationship are feedback and trust (Kappenberg, 2008), elements which have also been reinforced by the findings in this study. These two elements are thought to contribute towards successful coaching engagements, by providing the coachee with honest opinions and by increasing a coachee's self-awareness. Also associated with the coach's role and coaching success, are empathy, benevolence and integrity (Kappenberg, 2008), factors which equally have been found to be significant in this current study. One finding which is particularly interesting is the item relating to 'managing expectations', which was shown to be highly significant within the coach/coachee relationship. This demonstrates a clear link between this finding and earlier findings in this study relating to coaching attitude, whereby it appears there is a need to manage the coachee's expectations within the coaching process, so that expectations more closely match experience. As previously noted, this has been shown to have important consequences for performance. Results indicate therefore, that managing expectations within coaching is a critical element of the coaching process, which is influenced by the coach's skills and interpersonal communication style. This suggests that there is a clear responsibility for the coach to manage the coachee's expectations within the coaching relationship, suggesting that when expectations are managed effectively by the coach, this has a positive impact on performance. A feasible explanation for this is that when things are made explicit and clear and not left ambiguous, this creates a clearer pathway for goals to be achieved.

Another interesting finding which, although falls outside the specific parameters of this current study, is still worth mentioning with regards the coach, is that neither gender, nor the distinction between an internal or external coach, appears to play a significant influential role within the coaching process. Coachees were asked to report on these items, but results were found to be non-significant, which could point to an area for future research. Whilst previous research offers some empirical support for the current

findings, caution remains, as much of the previous research has been based on subjective evidence of the coach's views, rather than the coachee's (Kappenberg, 2008), which fundamentally questions the validity of the research. The findings of this study, therefore, build on previous research, by providing the coachee's perspective, which not only contributes some original empirical evidence, but also provides more sound evidence, based on a strong methodological approach.

Building upon the quantitative evidence, the qualitative findings provide some strong evidence and richer detail, in support of the role of the coach within the coaching process. During the interviews there appeared to be a strong consensus that the coach needed to create the right environment for the coaching to be effective. Further detail of what was meant by this, revealed that coachees felt reassured and encouraged by an environment in which they felt safe and secure to discuss sensitive issues. This involved not being judged, and being able to explore ideas, scenarios and options. A safe environment was linked quite significantly to trust. The ability of the coach to create trust and a safe environment appears to be linked to: being credible, being honest, showing empathy and being non-judgemental. Other factors relating to the coach and coaching effectiveness include: effective listening, questioning and challenging skills; setting clear boundaries; being objective; providing useful and appropriate feedback; adopting a professional manner; showing patience; and sharing their own experience. None of those interviewed felt gender was important, although the relationship to the coach was discussed. Some were reassured by knowing their coach beforehand, as it was felt this helped build rapport, but it appears that a balance needs to be established between familiarity and objectivity. For some, knowing the coach beforehand risked compromising the relationship, and they feared previous knowledge might be used against them, they also felt that familiarity made it more difficult for the coach to be objective in their role.

The importance of the quantitative and qualitative findings for coaching is that they identify which factors relating to the coach are most critical within the coaching process and therefore, most likely to influence coaching outcomes. There are some useful applications of this research within coaching practice. These findings indicate that conducting skill assessments for coaches may provide a useful indicator of coach suitability and could equally be useful for benchmarking and selection purposes. In circumstances where organisations are considering offering internal coaching, assessments of this nature could prove invaluable by identifying areas for skill

improvement, highlighting those areas which are most likely to have a positive impact on coaching effectiveness.

6.4.2 ***Question 11*** *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coach, influence meta-cognition of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Quantitative findings show trends in the data, indicating that the coach's interpersonal communication skills have a relationship with change in the coachee's self-esteem ($p<.10$) accounting for an additional 4% of variance and for private self-consciousness ($p<.10$) accounting for an additional 3% of variance, but not for self-efficacy or locus of control. Evidence presented earlier shows that self-esteem was found to significantly increase during coaching, and the results indicate here, that the coach's skills influence this change during coaching. However, a negative effect was also found, indicating that during coaching private self-consciousness decreased, which appears to be influenced by the coach's skills. In the absence of research examining the role of the coach in influencing the meta-cognitive skills of the coachee during coaching, it is difficult to draw more informed conclusions however; the following interpretations are worth considering. One theory might be that by demonstrating empathy and consideration for the feelings and needs of the coachee, and by adopting an open and honest approach, the coach reinforces feelings of self-belief within the coachee, which has a positive impact on self-esteem. The results for private self-consciousness however, are less easily interpreted. It might be anticipated that with increased attention and focus on the individual and the 'self' during coaching there would be an increase in self-awareness (as measured by private self-consciousness), particularly with the use of feedback during this process. However, the quantitative findings here indicate the reverse, suggesting that the coach has had a negative effect on self-awareness of the coachee. One explanation as suggested earlier might be that increasing self-awareness was not the objective of the coaching intervention; however, a more convincing argument would indicate that the private self-consciousness scale does not directly measure self-awareness and inconsistent evidence in the literature appears to support this theory (Franzoi and Sweeney, 1986; Briere and Vallerand, 1990). Another explanation for this finding could be that coachee's had unrealistic estimations of their own levels of self-awareness pre-coaching and during coaching conceivably the coach was successful in establishing more realistic self-assessments of self-awareness post-coaching, which would be reflected in lower private self-consciousness scores. The absence of a significant finding

for self-efficacy and locus of control is less easily explained. For self-efficacy the result is surprising, as it might be anticipated that the coach would play a more influential role in shaping self-efficacy beliefs, through the use of feedback. However, if the coach does not specifically tailor the feedback to reflect things relating to self-efficacy, e.g. to encourage the coachee to reflect on their own capability to fulfil a work task, then, conceivably, a non-significant result might occur. For locus of control, again the result is somewhat surprising, in that it might be expected that the coach's role would be more influential in raising awareness of the operating work environment, resulting in individual's taking more personal responsibility for outcomes. However, as previously, noted in the literature, there are mixed results for locus of control (Majumder, MacDonald and Greever, 1977) which makes interpretation more difficult. As with self-efficacy, if the coach does not specifically tailor feedback to address causal attributions or encourage personal responsibility for influencing outcomes, it is possible a non-significant result would arise for locus of control.

In contrast to the quantitative results, evidence provided by the qualitative findings suggests that the coach plays an important role in strengthening self belief during the coaching process, specifically within the coach/coachee relationship. It was reported that the coach's ability to create a safe and confidential environment encouraged discussion of sensitive issues, which was thought to be critical for effective outcomes. In addition respondents felt that the provision of feedback helped strengthen and support self-belief. Coachees reported consistently to experience positive effects on self-esteem, as a direct result of reassurances provided by the coach. The entire sample interviewed reported that during coaching they had experienced a positive effect on levels of self-confidence and this was frequently discussed in terms of the coach. Numerous references were made to the coach being non-judgemental, showing empathy and providing some useful insights into the effects of behaviour on outcomes. In terms of private self-consciousness, coachees reported high levels of self-awareness and increased self-reflection, which they attributed to the coach specifically. It was felt that the coach had encouraged coachees to be observant and critical of the impact of their behaviour on others, and to reflect on how they could adapt or change their approach to achieve different outcomes. The interview data therefore, contrasts with earlier findings regarding private self-consciousness, suggesting that there is a significant positive impact on self-awareness during coaching, which appears to be directly influenced by the coach.

The significance of these combined findings for coaching is that they illustrate the importance of the coach's role within the coaching process. These findings suggest that the coach's interpersonal communication skills serve as an important mechanism through which the coachee's self-esteem and levels of self-awareness may be influenced. As previously discussed, there are many important benefits of raising levels of self-esteem and self-confidence with strong links to performance (Chen, Gully and Eden, 2004; Brown and Marshall, 2006). For private self-consciousness this finding suggests that the coach potentially creates the environment where more realistic self-assessments are made, and where self-awareness and self-reflection improves.

6.4.3 ***Question 12*** *To what extent do the interpersonal communication skills of the coach influence the interpersonal communication skills of the coachee? It is expected the effect will be positive.*

Quantitative findings reveal that the coach's interpersonal communication skills are related to positive change in the coachee's interpersonal communication skills ($p<.05$) during coaching, accounting for an additional 8% variance. Previous research within the coaching literature highlights the importance of interpersonal communication skills of the coach as a core competency (Sztucinski, 2001); however, there is very little research which explores the impact of the coach's skills on the skill set of the coachee. This finding is particularly significant, as it demonstrates the importance of the coach within the coaching relationship, and the need for the coach to have some highly developed interpersonal communication skills. When combined with earlier results, the multiple effects that can be observed are very interesting. Evidence provided in this study, demonstrates that the coach's interpersonal communication skills positively influence the coachee's interpersonal communication skills, which in turn have a positive influence on performance. This demonstrates a clear link between the coach, the coachee and performance and highlights a clear role for interpersonal communication skills within coaching. There are two critical skills, which have been highlighted within this study as being important for both the coach and the coachee within the coaching relationship, which are: 'open and honest communication' and a 'friendly and approachable' manner. Whilst this finding might not be so surprising, it does provide some important empirical evidence to support and confirm the role of interpersonal communication within coaching, providing a critical link between the coach, the coachee and coaching effectiveness.

The qualitative evidence further strengthens the quantitative findings by providing more detail about how the coach influences the coachee during coaching. Some of the coachees reported during the interviews that the coach's ability to provide reassurance within the coaching process helped them to be more open and receptive during the process. This appeared to be more relevant for those who described themselves as being 'closed'. For these individuals, the coach appeared to play a significant role in encouraging openness and receptiveness, factors which are measured by the interpersonal communication skills scale. Interestingly, coachees did not specifically highlight 'friendliness or being approachable' as being critical factors. Some did mention that the willingness of the coach to share information about themselves helped build rapport and through this, coachees felt more able to engage in self-disclosure. Empathy, and taking into account needs and feelings, was raised by a few coachees as being important, but perhaps less so that might have been expected.

Overall, the combined evidence provided by the quantitative and qualitative results provides a strong indication that the role of the coach within coaching is a crucial one, which has a positive impact on the coachee's receptiveness, openness and engagement within coaching.

6.5 Research Objective 4 - Coaching Outcomes

6.5.1 ***Question 13*** *What is the impact of coaching on a range of individual and organisational coaching outcomes and other outcome measures associated with coaching effectiveness? It is expected the effects will be positive.*

Quantitative findings do not reveal any significant results for all three coaching outcomes used to measure coaching effectiveness in this study, i.e. performance, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. This indicates that during coaching significant changes in these outcomes are not being observed. Part of the problems associated with quantitative analysis, as discussed earlier, relates to sample size (Cohen, 1988), conceivably, the small sample size in the current study limits the results which can be observed; a larger sample may yield a different result for quantitative analysis. Whilst initially, this result appears disappointing, as more significant results might have been anticipated, further analysis of these results reveal some important information. As highlighted throughout the discussion chapter, when

more in depth analysis is carried out (using hierarchical regression) more significant effects can be observed.

In contrast however, the qualitative evidence helps contextualise the findings by providing detail about the wider outcomes achieved during the coaching process, providing the coachee perspective which has largely been ignored (Bush, 2004). When asked about the impact of coaching on the core coaching outcomes used in the quantitative analysis, coachees described a range of outcomes. In relation to performance specifically, half of those interviewed (n=5) reported that as a direct result of coaching they had received promotions. They felt that without coaching they would not have had the confidence to apply for promotion. Other positive outcomes of coaching related to performance which were reported include: improved management capability; taking on more challenging work; dealing more effectively with under-performance; dealing with senior management more effectively; tackling difficult conversations; better communication; being more decisive; and being more assertive. In most cases, coachees described these outcomes in relation to three key things: increased self-confidence; increased self-belief; and increased self-awareness. In terms of organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour specifically, the interview evidence revealed that coachees had not observed any significant change as a result of coaching. Many of those interviewed felt they already had high levels of commitment, and prior to coaching already volunteered for extra work. When combined, both sets of evidence (quantitative and qualitative) indicate that during coaching, coachees are experiencing and achieving many positive outcomes, suggesting that coaching is an effective mechanism to achieve improved productivity and performance within the workplace. Less evidence was found to support changes in organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Several conclusions may be drawn from the evidence: (1) the findings demonstrate that the relationship between performance, affective commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and coaching is complex, and within this complex relationship a range of different influences and outcomes can be observed; (2) there appears to be more emphasis on performance outcomes than affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour; (3) the findings highlight that the impact on coaching outcomes do not occur equally for all, indicating that there are sub-groups for which significant outcomes are more relevant; (4) outcomes for job performance extend beyond tangible performance measures and encompass a much wider range of outcomes.

Some of the practical applications of all the findings are now brought together and discussed in the final question.

6.6 Research Objective 5 - Guidance on Improving Coaching Effectiveness

6.6.1 ***Question 14*** *What are the critical factors which influence coaching effectiveness and what are the implications of this research for coaching practice?*

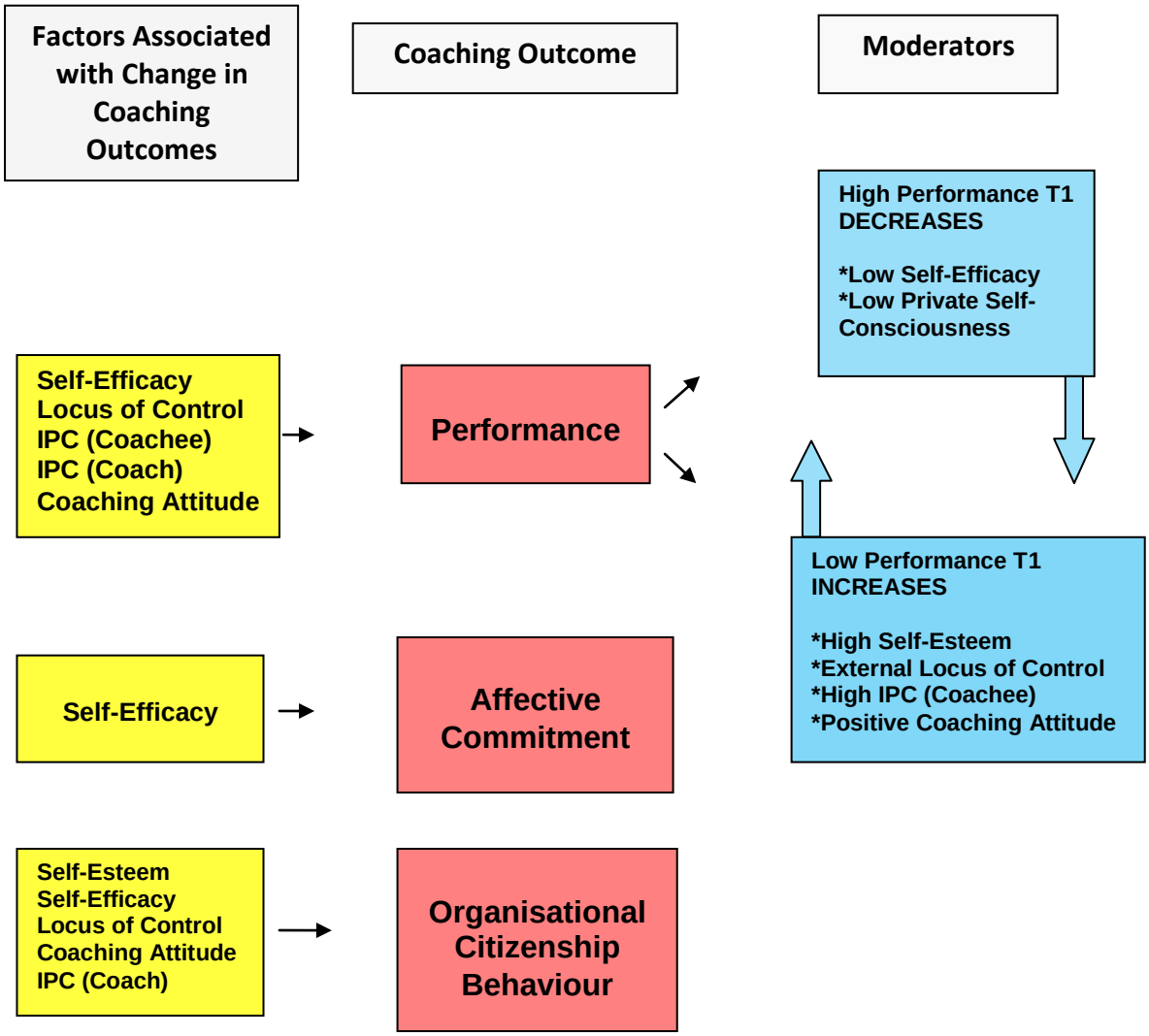
Whilst recognising the limitations imposed by a small sample, (as discussed in earlier chapters and under 'study limitations'), this research objective and final question seeks to highlight some of the practical implications of the research, offering guidance on how to improve coaching effectiveness. Most importantly this study provides evidence which confirms the role of meta-cognition, interpersonal communication skills and attitudes/expectations within coaching, and whilst further research using a much larger sample would be the next step forward, the current study does provide an early indication of how to improve coaching effectiveness, based on sound empirical evidence, which to date has been lacking within the coaching research literature. In terms of the audience it seeks to address, it is anticipated that the guidance and recommendations provided here will be of particular interest to the coaching community, and those responsible for the design and delivery of coaching programmes within the workplace. The contribution to academic research is also relevant, particularly for coaching research, providing some important empirical evidence, which from a psychological perspective in particular, has been lacking, thus addressing a research gap (Grant, 2001; Bluckert, 2005). The focus of the following discussion is on the practical application of the findings, providing guidance and recommendations for the coaching professional.

6.6.1.1 Practical Application - Guidance and Recommendations

In terms of the practical application of the evidence there are two distinct categories which emerge from the findings, which are relevant for improving coaching effectiveness, these include: (1) identification of factors which are associated with change in coaching outcomes; (2) identification of sub groups most likely to be influenced during coaching. With appropriate application, this knowledge provides a useful mechanism for enhancing coaching effectiveness. A summary of the quantitative findings are presented in figure 6.3 below: on the left '*factors associated with change in coaching outcomes'* (yellow); on

the right '*moderators*' (blue); in the centre '*coaching outcomes'* (red). Under the '*moderators*' heading, the impact of the interaction effect on the coaching outcome is indicated using arrows, the downward arrow indicates a decrease, upward facing arrow indicates an increase.

Figure 6.3: *Model of Factors Influencing Coaching Effectiveness (Significant Quantitative Results)*



IPC = Interpersonal Communication Skills

The qualitative evidence is less easily represented visually therefore; implications will be discussed within the text. The recommendations will concentrate on how the evidence can be used to influence coaching effectiveness, with a particular focus on performance, because of its relevance to coaching and predominance in the coaching literature.

6.6.1.2 Performance

The quantitative evidence in figure 6.3 indicates that factors which were found to influence performance during coaching include: self-efficacy, locus of control, interpersonal communication skills (of both the coachee and the coach) and coaching attitude. The qualitative evidence supports this and offers additional insights into other factors which influence performance improvements within coaching. In particular, self-esteem was highlighted as being an important factor which influences performance. Reference to the research literature indicates that there is a high correlation and direct link between self-esteem and self-efficacy (Sherer et al, 1982); therefore recommendations which follow apply to both these areas of meta-cognition. As previously noted, self-efficacy is closely associated with goal setting and motivation (Bandura and Locke, 2003), elements which are also central features of the coaching process (Grant, 2001). The practitioner should consider the potential for self-efficacy to influence goal setting and levels of motivation, in particular. The implication being, that if self-efficacy is strengthened, this is likely to have a positive impact on both goal setting and motivation, which in turn influences performance. In terms of goal setting, those with high self-efficacy are more likely to set challenging goals, which demonstrates the power of self-efficacy to influence goal choice (Wood and Bandura, 1989). It is important therefore, for the coach to be aware of the power of self-efficacy to influence goal choice, which is one of the critical stages of the coaching process, as this is likely to influence the rest of the coaching process. Effort should be invested therefore, in strengthening self-efficacy beliefs, because of the influence on goal choice. Other factors which research suggests also contribute to strengthening self-efficacy, leading to higher levels of persistence and performance are: support and encouragement for skill development and role clarity (Gardner and Pierce, 1998). It has been reported also that those with high self-esteem exert more effort to perform well (Brockner, 1988) and that there are strong links between self-esteem and role behaviour (Gardener and Pierce, 1998). The coach therefore, needs to make sure that they offer support, encouragement and ensure role clarity. Research indicates also that employees experiencing success early on in their careers, are more likely to experience a reinforcement of both self-esteem and self-efficacy (Gardner and Pierce, 1998), therefore, the coach should seek to encourage the celebration of early successes during coaching.

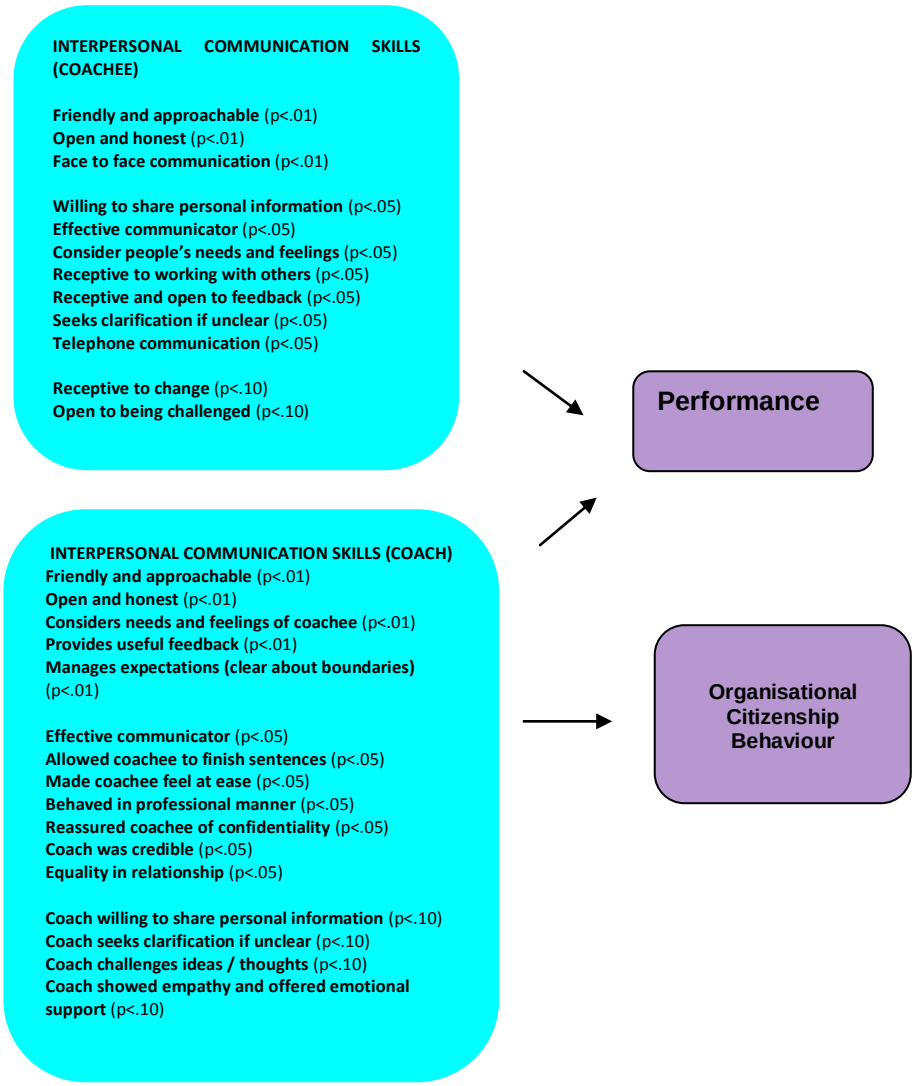
Motivation is another important factor that needs to be considered during coaching. The more motivated an individual is to achieve a goal, the more likelihood there is that they will persevere longer with a work task, an iterative process which reinforces self-efficacy

beliefs (Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). The motivation for sustained effort is also explained by commitment to a personal objective, which is something that should be considered during the coaching process. Coaches therefore, need to encourage commitment to goals, bearing in mind that the greater the personal attachment to the goal, the more likelihood there is of commitment. Research suggests that there is a strong link between high self-efficacy beliefs and levels of motivation, and that when appropriate strategies are applied to goals, this leads to higher performance (Audia, Locke and Smith, 2000). The coach therefore, needs to be aware of these links, and make sure that they apply this knowledge to their coaching practice. Self-doubt is another factor that needs to be considered during coaching, and whilst thought to be negative, research suggests that a certain degree of self-doubt could be considered positive, as it is thought to provide the incentive to acquire more knowledge and encourage planning (Bandura and Locke, 2003). The implications of this for coaching are that the coach needs to be aware of these issues during coaching to ensure that self-doubt does not have a detrimental effect on self-efficacy beliefs, but that it is used positively to raise motivation levels. Interview responses in particular, highlighted the need for positive reinforcement through feedback, as a mechanism for strengthening self-efficacy and self-esteem. This is particularly relevant for those experiencing helplessness as a result of deconstruction of the self and self-analysis. The coach needs to recognise the link between self-awareness, self-esteem, helplessness and locus of control, as it is possible that a feeling of helplessness may explain a reluctance to take personal responsibility for outcomes (external locus of control), with possible negative consequences for performance. In terms of self-efficacy, using benchmark information during feedback provides the coachee with important progress information which can be used to minimise the negative effects of goal dissonance (Bandura and Cervone, 1983), i.e. if performance falls very far short of a goal, this creates dissatisfaction and serves as a de-motivator, undermining self-efficacy beliefs. The coach's role therefore, becomes critical in ensuring that feedback is delivered with sensitivity and that dissonance between goals and performance progress is carefully monitored and managed during the coaching process, in order to avoid any negative impact on self-efficacy beliefs (Locke and Latham, 1990). Qualitative evidence during interview reinforced this, highlighting the need for honesty and openness during coaching. The coach needs to recognise that as the primary information provider through feedback, their role in social persuasion is important, which contributes significantly to the construction of self-efficacy and self-esteem (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001). Building trust within the coaching relationship therefore, is essential, as people are inclined to

trust the evaluations of those who have access to comparative performance data, which is a crucial element of the coach's role (Bandura, 1986). Interview evidence reinforces this, highlighting trust as being the foundation of a safe and secure coaching environment.

Interpersonal communication skills (coach and coachee) are also important factors which influence coaching success. Not only has evidence been provided in this study to show that coaching has the power to significantly increase interpersonal communication skills of the coachee, but findings also reveal that interpersonal communication skills of both the coach and the coachee influence performance within coaching. Factors which were highlighted as being of particular importance are shown in figure 6.4 below.

Figure 6.4: *Critical Skills (Interpersonal Communication) of the Coach and Coachee that Influence Coaching Effectiveness*



As figure 6.4 highlights, in terms of the coachee, factors of particular importance for coaching effectiveness include: face to face contact and being open, honest and friendly, which conceivably makes communication easier. The coachee's receptiveness and openness to the coaching process are also important. The implications of this for coaching are that the coach in particular, needs to be aware of how the coachee's communication style might influence coaching outcomes. The coach needs to ensure that any resistance to change or fear of change is considered and managed effectively during coaching, and ensure that any barriers to communication are eliminated, as these are likely to negatively influence the coachee's communication style. Any positive influence which encourages openness and reduces resistance to change or feedback is likely to have a positive effect on the coachee's interpersonal communication style and therefore, impact positively on performance outcomes. The coach needs to be reminded that during coaching, deconstruction of the 'self' is a difficult process which requires sensitivity and patience. Adopting effective strategies which seek to encourage engagement and openness in discussion is recommended. The coach needs to take responsibility for building trust within the coaching relationship, in order to create an atmosphere conducive to honest and open communication.

In terms of the coach's skills, evidence strongly suggests the need to adopt a friendly and approachable style of communication, which is open and honest, the coach needs to demonstrate empathy and consideration for the coachee's needs and feelings and manage boundaries and expectations effectively within the coaching relationship. Interview respondents discussed also the need to strike a balance between familiarity and objectivity, whereby familiarity might help build rapport but lead to subjective appraisals. Additional benefits of having clear boundaries are that they influence attitudes and help create realistic expectations, which as previously noted, helps ensure a match between expectations and experience, with positive effects of strengthening confidence and trust in the process. Evidence shows also that the coach needs to provide feedback which is useful, constructive and appropriate, through effective communication, part of which includes demonstrating respect for the coachee and allowing time for them to finish their sentences. The coach needs to put the coachee at ease, by being receptive to moods and demonstrating professionalism and credibility. Confidentiality and equality were also highlighted as being important for effective coaching, which is likely to be achieved by the coach sharing personal information. Additionally, the coach needs to demonstrate capability to challenge and seek clarification when something is unclear.

The implications of these findings for coaching are that the coach needs to be aware that there are certain types of behaviours that are more likely to contribute towards effective coaching practice. Evidence provided by this study, suggests that if the coach makes an effort to adopt the types of behaviours discussed above, this is likely to significantly contribute towards positive coaching outcomes of improved performance and increased organisational citizenship behaviour. In addition to enhancing their own interpersonal communication style, the coach also needs to be aware that encouraging effective communication in the coachee is also likely to enhance the coaching outcomes, particularly performance. There also might be a role for the organisation, or those responsible for conducting coaching programmes, in promoting a positive coaching culture within the workplace. This approach could help eliminate any fears or barriers to effective communication, and encourage participants to be more open and receptive to change, to feedback and to the coaching process itself.

In terms of the moderators of performance (see figure 6.3) which reveal interaction effects, the quantitative evidence identified certain sub-groups as being more influenced during the coaching process. This provides useful information about how to tailor feedback and coaching design to suit individual needs. In terms of performance change, evidence suggests a change in performance from high to low, for those with low self-efficacy and low private self-consciousness, and a change in performance from low to high, for those with high self-esteem, external locus of control, high interpersonal communication skills and a positive coaching attitude.

The implications of these results for coaching practice have been discussed at length in earlier questions within this chapter; however, this does highlight the need for the coach to be more aware of the role of individual difference within the coaching process and that observed effects are not universal. The coach therefore, needs to be sensitive to which groups of individuals are most likely to be influenced during coaching, and be aware of the different conditions where these effects are likely to occur. The evidence suggests that to avoid a decline in high performance, strengthening self-efficacy and raising levels of self-awareness (private self-consciousness) is necessary. To increase low performance, self-esteem, external locus of control, interpersonal communication skills (coachee) and a positive coaching attitude are important. The coach needs to use this information to help design a more tailored approach to coaching if they are to enhance coaching effectiveness. A pre-coaching assessment might be a useful indicator of individual needs.

6.6.1.3 Affective Commitment

Quantitative evidence (see figure 6.3) indicates that there is a significant relationship between affective commitment and locus of control, suggesting that externally focused belief about control of environmental factors, influences commitment to the organisation. Whilst interview data did highlight the role of locus of control within coaching, this was not specifically related to affective commitment; therefore, some caution is needed. Nonetheless, evidence does suggest that an 'external' locus of control has a negative influence on affective commitment, which has also been reflected in previous research (Ng et al, 2006). The more aware the coachee becomes of their external environment, broadening their perspective of influential factors at work, the less emotionally attached to the organisation they appear to be, and whilst the change in affective commitment was not found to be significant in this study, the influencing role for locus of control was found to be significant. As previously discussed, the link between locus of control and affective commitment is not easily explained; however, there are implications of this finding for coaching. The coach needs to be aware this relationship exists and recognise that an external locus of control could potentially negatively influence affective commitment and levels of emotional attachment towards the organisation. Research does indicate that psychological health and well-being are positively associated with 'internal' locus of control, which does influence affective commitment (Ng et al, 2006). The coach needs to ensure therefore, that the coachee has a balanced view of causal factors within the work environment, to ensure that the coachee engages in self-reflection, considering more fully their own contribution to causal attributions. The coach needs to be aware that any efforts to encourage a balanced view of causal attributions within the workplace, could have a positive influence on affective commitment, or at least, avoid any negative influences or decreases in affective commitment, with positive outcomes for well-being (Ng et al, 2006). Interview data did provide further detail about the role of locus of control within coaching, suggesting that coaching involves deconstruction of the 'self' which leads to feelings of helplessness and it was suggested that during this stage, participants were less inclined to take personal responsibility for outcomes. Awareness of this could help improve coaching effectiveness, by recognising the influential role of locus of control within coaching.

6.6.1.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Four areas in particular, were highlighted in the quantitative evidence as being relevant for coaching effectiveness, these include: self-esteem, self-efficacy, coaching attitude/experience and the coach's interpersonal communication skills. Qualitative

evidence revealed very little in terms of detail about what influenced citizenship behaviour, most respondents felt they were already prepared to volunteer for additional responsibilities at work and that coaching had had little impact in this area. Quantitative evidence does suggest however, that higher levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy and a positive attitude towards coaching are likely to have a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour, and an ideal mechanism through which this might be achieved, could be through a coach who has a well developed interpersonal communication skill set. The coach can use these core competencies and skills to raise self-esteem and self-efficacy, leaving the coachee with a positive experience of coaching, and the likelihood is that this will encourage coachee's to engage in more organisational citizenship behaviour. The coaching practitioner also needs to be aware of the link between attitude/experience of coaching and the potential for this to influence organisational citizenship behaviour. To enhance citizenship behaviour the coach needs to consider promoting a positive attitude towards coaching both pre-coaching and during the process, to ensure the coachee's experience of coaching is maximised. As previously discussed, attitude towards coaching appears to be linked to the experience of coaching and therefore, the coach needs to establish a realistic expectation to ensure congruence between expectations and experience. The coach's role in managing this experience and thereby, managing expectations is a crucial one, which should be maximised to improve coaching effectiveness.

6.7 Summary of the Contribution to Empirical Coaching Research

The evidence presented in this study provides a unique contribution to the coaching research literature, both from a theoretical and an empirical perspective. The complexity of evaluating coaching effectiveness should not be underestimated and this study has made an important step towards bridging the gap between the theoretical knowledge relating to meta-cognition, and the empirical evidence relating to coaching effectiveness. Bridging the gap between these two seemingly unrelated areas of research, requires exploring complex relationships, and as a result has succeeded in enhancing our understanding of what contributes to coaching effectiveness.

From a theoretical stand point, this study makes a contribution, in two distinct areas which have been under-researched within the coaching literature: (i) psychological perspective explored through meta-cognition; and (ii) theory relating to coaching effectiveness (Kilburg, 2001; Grant, 2001; Feldman and Lankau, 2005; Bluckert, 2005).

In terms of meta-cognition, this study enhances the theory relating to locus of control and private self-consciousness, in particular. During coaching it might be anticipated that focus on the 'self' with 'one to one' contact with a coach, would facilitate self-reflection, encourage personal responsibility and ownership for causality, enhance self-awareness and would as a consequence, result in an increase in certain types of behaviours, namely increased 'internal' locus of control and increased self-awareness (private self-consciousness) (Fenigstein et al, 1975; Briere and Vallerand, 1990; Bono and Judge, 2003; Ng et al, 2006). However, mixed results were reported in this study, suggesting that during coaching individuals were reporting more 'external' locus of control, and lower levels of private self-consciousness, although increased levels of self-awareness were reported. As discussed previously, this apparent conflict in the evidence and unexpected results may be explained by a link between raised self-awareness and experiences of helplessness during deconstruction of the self. The interpretation being, that during the coaching process as an individual becomes more self-aware this may result in a sense of helplessness, particularly in the early stages of coaching and during this process there may be less willingness to take responsibility for outcomes. Decreases in private self-consciousness however, are more difficult to interpret, it is conceivable that respondents over-estimate levels of self-awareness at the start of coaching, which could account for the lower scores in private self-consciousness observed in the quantitative findings, however, it may also be linked to the scale being more appropriate within a clinical setting rather than a coaching setting. In terms of the theory relating to locus of control and private self-consciousness in coaching therefore, this study suggests there is a link between causal attribution and self-awareness, but not necessarily with the private self-consciousness scale, which may be inappropriate within coaching. Findings highlight therefore, the need for sensitivity during coaching, particularly where uncertainty and change occurs, however, this appears to be more closely linked to deconstruction of the self, rather than organisational change, or instability. The significance of this study for the coaching research literature is that it enhances our understanding of what contributes towards coaching effectiveness. It suggests that the external, operating work environment, and how an individual responds to this environment (as reflected in their locus of control), are important factors that need to be considered during coaching. More importantly, the study indicates that it is important to recognise that the process of deconstruction and self-analysis during coaching is a difficult process resulting in feelings of helplessness and a reluctance to take personal responsibility for outcomes for some individuals. Indications suggest that application of theory to practice of this empirical study is likely to enhance coaching effectiveness, whereby the coach's role in

influencing and encouraging the coachee to self-reflect, to be self-aware and to take more responsibility for their personal contribution towards outcomes, is a crucial one.

In terms of the theory relating to coaching effectiveness within the coaching literature specifically, this study also makes an important contribution. This is achieved notably by the contribution it makes to ideas relating to successful coaching engagements, building upon previous research (Szutzinski, 2001; Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). Through the study of interpersonal communication skills and attitudes, this study succeeds in broadening the theoretical knowledge relating to concepts of coachee engagement and receptiveness, and also with regards the role of the coach in influencing coaching outcomes. This study contributes to knowledge by suggesting that the coachee's interpersonal communication skills, attitude, receptiveness, openness and response to feedback and change are all highly relevant for effective coaching. Moreover, the theory relating to the coach's role is also enhanced through this study, demonstrating the important role of the coach in influencing coaching outcomes and therefore, coaching effectiveness.

An attempt to unite these two areas of research and fulfil the aims of this study has been complex due to the disparate nature of the relationships being explored. One of the key challenges has been to find the unifying thread which brings these strands of theoretical knowledge together. This study has succeeded in this endeavour, forming a sound theoretical foundation for an evaluation of coaching effectiveness, which is based on individual psychological difference and ideas relating to engagement and receptiveness. The theory proposed in this study is, that the coachee's meta-cognition, their interpersonal communication skills and their attitude all play an important role in coaching effectiveness, which is influenced by the coach. It should also be noted that the theoretical knowledge put forward by this study has been strengthened by the empirical evidence provided by the quantitative and qualitative data. This is an important contribution to the coaching research literature in particular, which is distinctly lacking in research and evidence of this type. This study therefore, is unique in its contribution both to theory and to the empirical body of evidence which exists. Longitudinal studies of this nature, within coaching are extremely rare and this study marks the start in what will hopefully become a more established area of research, which is very much needed, if coaching is not to become a passing fad (Tobias, 1996; Kilburg, 1996; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). This study also contributes to the empirical literature by highlighting factors which are critical to changing behaviours and attitudes, providing indications of

how coaching translates to greater organisational effectiveness, to date evidence of this nature has been lacking (Feldman and Lankau, 2005).

A further original contribution this study makes to coaching research is the use of two outcome measures which have not previously been used in coaching evaluations, these include: affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Inclusion of these aspects of organisational behaviour provides an important link between behaviours which are associated with performance and organisational success (Meyer et al, 2002; Maharaj and Schlechter, 2007). Whilst results were less forthcoming and therefore, disappointing for these two dimensions, it does suggest an avenue for future research, whereby the contribution from this study makes a promising introduction.

Finally, it should also be noted that this study makes a useful contribution by providing quantitative and qualitative evidence, based on a sound mixed methodological approach. Within the coaching research literature in particular, this type of evidence is rare, often the approach is purely qualitative and therefore, open to subjectivity, measurement errors and sampling biases (Ng et al, 2006). To succeed in establishing a longitudinal study of this type, with an intervention such as coaching, which is highly confidential in nature and therefore, sensitive, is not to be under-estimated and more research of this kind is needed to advance coaching research.

6.8 Study Limitations

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of this research, the key ones being: (1) the self-report data; (2) the small sample size; (3) lack of a control group; and (4) the lack of additional tangible measures of performance. With regards self-report measures, the questionnaires relied solely upon coachee responses for the data source, which has inherent complications regarding inaccuracies and the lack of acknowledgement of external influences on responses (Leavitt, 1985). Relying heavily upon one data source limits the accuracy of the information provided with potential for distortion. Whilst quantitative evidence was further supported and strengthened with qualitative evidence, this still provided a single view point, i.e. the coachee's. Future research should seek to include additional data sources such as: line managers, peers and the coach. Whilst this approach was initially included in the original research design, it had to be abandoned due to lack of response from the triangulated participants, and in the absence of sufficient responses which failed to provide a fully matched sample, the final approach of

coachee responses only, was used. For future studies the inclusion of additional sources of triangulated data would be highly recommended.

A further limitation of this study was the small sample size, (quantitative n=29; qualitative n=10). For quantitative data analysis specifically, small samples sizes present many challenges, the main problem being associated with statistical power and levels of significance (Cohen, 1988). When carrying out statistical analysis on small samples the loss of statistical power is problematic and limits the type of analysis which can be carried out, the risk being that significant results are not highlighted. In the current study a decision was made to use single variables in the regressions, multiple regressions which introduce multiple control variables is known to reduce statistical power and therefore, for small samples is not recommended (Cohen, 1988). It needs to be recognised that there is no ideal method or solution for carrying out statistical analysis with small samples, and therefore, a more pragmatic approach to analysis was adopted in the current study, in order to reveal significant result and maximise statistical power. To overcome some of the difficulties arising from the small sample, evidence was reinforced and supplemented by the qualitative data; however larger sample sizes, particularly for quantitative analysis would be recommended in future studies. Within coaching research much of the empirical evidence is reliant upon qualitative data only, which has been criticised on the grounds of reliability and validity (Gale et al, 2002), therefore, the use of a mixed methodology in the current study seeks to provide a more holistic approach to the research and overcome some of the problems associated with small samples. It is conceivable that there is currently a lack of studies of this type within the coaching research literature for several reasons: (i) difficulties encountered in establishing longitudinal data; (ii) problems associated with attrition; (iii) issues relating to confidentiality and sensitivity. The scarcity of similar studies points to some of these difficulties and highlights the uniqueness of the current study.

The lack of a control group is another limitation of the current study, inclusion of which would have greatly enhanced the outcomes. In the absence of a control group questions arise as to the contributory factors which influence outcomes. A relevant example of this in the current study relates to the problems associated with the organisational restructuring which was taking place during the period of coaching. Without a control group it is more difficult to establish precise causal factors influencing behavioural change and to determine the degree to which outcomes are influenced by coaching or organisational instability. An attempt to overcome some of the difficulties associated with

the lack of a control group was made by the use of additional evidence gathered through qualitative interviews and individual case studies to help contextualise findings and provide richer detail about the types of things which influence coaching effectiveness. However, a strong recommendation is made to include a control group in future studies, as a way of avoiding many of the complications and problems encountered in the present study.

Finally, the current study could have been further enhanced by the inclusion of additional measures of performance, and whilst an attempt was made to capture this in performance management data such as appraisal ratings and promotions, quantitative data of this type was unavailable. An attempt to overcome this was made during the qualitative data gathering stage, which did provide supplementary data of a wider range of performance related outcomes. It would be recommended that in future studies a more comprehensive range of performance related outcome measures be included as a way of capturing more detailed evidence of the outcomes of coaching.

6.9 Avenues for Future Research

During the course of the research several areas of interest have been prompted which has identified topics for future research. Exploring further the role of expectations within coaching is one area that has been highlighted by previous researchers as being an interesting area to pursue within coaching research (Feldman and Lankau, 2005). Further research would provide more detail about how an individual's expectations with regards coaching might influence the coaching process and therefore, the coaching outcomes, building upon the evidence presented here. It might also be useful to explore in more depth the different stages of coaching, as defined through self-regulation (Grant, 2001) to understand more about the relationship between goal setting, feedback and evaluation processes, specifically capturing this type of information in more precise measures, using more stringent metric criteria and methodologies. This would provide some much needed empirical evidence about which stages within coaching are more critical for coaching to be effective. To date, the coaching literature has been reliant upon subjective, anecdotal accounts, additional studies which include more systematic and objective measures should also be encouraged to ensure the advancement of coaching research. Another area which has emerged as being deficient in the coaching literature has been the measurement of coaching outcomes. Two areas in particular, which this study has initiated research into, but areas which still remain academically

under-researched are: organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Both these measures have positive benefits for organisational effectiveness (Beck and Wilson, 2000; Bishop and Scott, 2000) and therefore, seem appropriate to use as measures for coaching effectiveness. Affective commitment specifically, has strong links with performance (Meyer and Allen, 1997), but research within coaching is limited. The same is true also for organisational citizenship behaviour, a highly desirable organisational outcome, which has strong links with organisational commitment (Maharaj and Schlechter 2007). Another area for future research, which has been mentioned within the literature, but for which empirical evidence is still lacking, is the link between self-esteem and affective commitment and performance. Whilst some evidence supporting the link between self-esteem and performance was provided by the qualitative data, additional quantitative evidence would strengthen this further (Renn and Prien, 1995). This is particularly relevant for coaching, because self-esteem has been established as being such a fundamental element of perceptions relating to the 'self', and attitudes, which underpin behaviour, in particular performance; also because of the strong link between self-esteem and motivation (Chen, Gully and Eden, 2004). The connection between self-esteem, performance, motivation and coaching, have been discussed and established within this study, although further research should be encouraged.

Additional areas for future research relate to the measurement of self-awareness. The private self-consciousness scale which has been used in this study has provided some mixed results both in the current study, and in previous research (Franzoi and Sweeney, 1986; Briere and Vallerand, 1990). Potentially as a measurement of self-awareness the scale has limitations, suggesting that further investigation is needed in order to provide more consistent evidence. The association of the scale with dysfunctional psychopathic tendencies (Franzoi and Sweeney, 1986) adds to the complexity of the scale as a useful measure of self-awareness within a work setting in particular within coaching, suggesting that it might have more appropriate use within a clinical setting. Qualitative evidence provided in this study highlights the importance of self-awareness within coaching, and in view of the fact that self-awareness is so closely linked to many activities within the coaching cycle of self-regulation (Grant, 2001), it would appear that a more accurate measurement of self-awareness would be highly useful within the field of coaching research.

Whilst, acknowledged as being outside the parameters of the current study, areas that might be of interest for future research relate to gender within the coaching relationship. In the present study, coachees did not report that gender was a significant factor; further investigation could be worthwhile across a larger sample, to consider more fully if gender does contribute to effective coaching. In a similar vein, the concept of internal versus external coaching and how this might impact on coaching effectiveness, might also be worthy of closer inspection and an avenue for future research.

Finally, the concepts relating to readiness, receptiveness and engagement are still areas within coaching which require further investigation. This study has made an important contribution to this area of research, building upon previous research (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008), specifically exploring these ideas from a psychological perspective, through meta-cognition, interpersonal communication style and attitudes, although, limitations imposed by the current study suggest, further research is necessary to build upon this primary research. Understanding more about the early stages of coaching, where the coachee begins the coaching process, would conceivably, bring many benefits to both the individual and the organisation, saving time and expense, by adapting and tailoring coaching more specifically to meet individual needs, based on individual difference and receptiveness, or readiness to the coaching process.

Chapter 7: Final Conclusions

The aim of this chapter is to bring together the findings of the research and to draw some overall conclusions of the implications of the research for coaching effectiveness, considering the wider impact on individuals and organisations. The principal aim of the research has been to understand more about what influences coaching effectiveness, by evaluating the impact of individual difference on coaching outcomes, thus providing a psychological perspective. There are two key outcomes of this study: (1) it provides empirical evidence relating to coaching effectiveness which enhances coaching research; (2) the findings have important implications for coaching practice offering guidance on how to improve coaching effectiveness. Throughout the thesis the role of individual difference has been explored through the concepts of meta-cognition, interpersonal communications skills and attitude, with a consideration also for the role of the coach within the coaching relationship. A critical review of the literature reveals a myriad of complex relationships, yielding mixed results, and within the coaching research literature in particular, empirical evidence is very limited. Longitudinal studies therefore, which measure changes over time, gathering a range of different types of evidence, as in the current study, marks an important step towards bridging the research gaps. Coaching research is dominated by qualitative, narrative accounts, with very few studies using quantitative methods. Using a combination of methods therefore, seeks to build upon existing approaches. The quantitative data has taken a more scientific and metric driven approach, which the qualitative data has helped contextualise within a coaching setting, providing some valuable evidence of the types of things which influence coaching effectiveness. In terms of meta-cognition, self-perceptions relating to self-esteem and self-efficacy appear to be very relevant for coaching. Findings presented in this study establish the importance of strengthening self-confidence in particular, as this appears to underpin many other factors within coaching. Self-efficacy has also been highlighted as being important because of its association with change over time and the influence it appears to have on all of the coaching outcomes. In terms of locus of control, whilst it might be expected that coaching would influence individuals to take more personal responsibility for outcomes this was not found. Instead, findings suggest greater levels of external locus of control. Organisational restructuring and instability may help explain a shift towards external locus of control, accounting for why people appeared to feel less in control of their environment during this period. However, whilst this cannot be ruled out completely, due to the lack of control measures, interview data suggests otherwise, indicating that locus of control may be more strongly associated with feelings of helplessness which may occur during self-analysis, particularly as self-

awareness increases. The findings indicate however, that locus of control and causal attributions are important factors to consider within coaching because of their relationship with change in outcomes over time. Quantitative results did not reveal any significant relationships between private self-consciousness and coaching. This was a surprising result which conflicted with the qualitative evidence, which strongly asserted the importance of self-awareness within coaching. Conclusions may be drawn therefore, that as a measurement of self-awareness the private self-consciousness scale may not be appropriate within a coaching context. In terms of interpersonal communication, which relates to communication skills and openness to change, this study provides evidence to suggest an individual's ability to communicate is important, which is closely linked to openness and receptiveness to change.

Attitude is also highlighted within this study as being important for coaching effectiveness, revealing that whilst a negative attitude is undesirable, the most important factor relating to attitude appears to relate to open-mindedness because of the relationship with levels of engagement. This links closely to previous studies highlighting the importance of engagement within coaching (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). The role of the coach has also been highlighted as being important for coaching effectiveness, indicating that the coach acts as a facilitator of many of the other processes and coaching outcomes identified within this study. The coach appears to be instrumental in creating the right environment for the coaching dialogue, which is built upon trust. However, the coach also needs to demonstrate credibility, professionalism and skill by listening and asking challenging questions.

In conclusion, by drawing all of the evidence together, it appears that an important relationship exists between individual difference, specifically meta-cognition, attitude and interpersonal communication and coaching effectiveness, which links closely to receptiveness and engagement within coaching. In terms of receptiveness and engagement in particular, this study is relevant as it provides some important indication of the critical areas which are likely to influence a coachee's willingness to engage, or be receptive to the coaching process. In terms of the wider impact of this research for the individual, this research highlights the importance of focusing on the role of individual difference within coaching, particularly in relation to self-perception, as this is likely to influence outcomes. It is likely that individual responses to coaching will differ, therefore, paying attention to this is important as it is likely to influence change over time. Additionally, self-perceptions appear to have an important role to play in influencing

receptiveness and engagement within coaching, which previous studies have already highlighted as being important for coaching success (Bush, 2004; Kappenberg, 2008). From an organisational perspective, the implications of the research suggest that organisational outcomes such as performance, commitment and citizenship behaviour, are linked to coaching success. The link between individual psychology, attitude and receptiveness therefore, appear to be critical factors which need to be considered more thoroughly within coaching because of the impact they are likely to have on change in these organisational outcomes.

A recommendation of this study based on the findings therefore, is that accurate assessments of meta-cognitive skills, interpersonal communication skills and attitudes, are useful in establishing benchmarks for measurement against a wide range of coaching outcome measures. This is likely to provide useful information about levels of readiness, receptiveness, and willingness to engage, with important implications for outcomes, evaluation and design. Whilst this study has made an important step towards bridging the gaps in coaching research, further studies should be encouraged, using stricter control measures, larger samples and more comprehensive performance measures, in order to build upon the evidence presented here. This would offer a more complete understanding of the role of individual difference within coaching, particularly from a psychological perspective, with important consequences for coaching effectiveness.

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Appendix A Non-Significant Results

Table 1: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Self-Esteem** Time 2 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.19**	**6.14**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**.46**	**.19**	**.44**	**2.48 ** **		
Step 2					**.03**	**.98 (25)**
Job Performance T1	**.42**	**.19**	**.40**	**2.20 * **		
Self-Esteem T2	**.15**	**.15**	**.18**	**.99**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 1 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether job performance is mediated by self-esteem. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (f=6.14, d.f.=26, r square change=.19, t=2.48). Step 2 introduces self-esteem as the independent variable predicting performance at T2 (f=.98, d.f.=25, r square change =.03, t=2.20). Results however, for self-esteem predicting job performance at T2 were not statistically significant (t=.99), suggesting that self-esteem is not a mediator of job performance in the coaching process.

Table 2: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Self-Esteem** Time 2 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.40**	**16.7** (25)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.74**	**.18**	**.63**	**4.09****		
Step 2					**.004**	**.004 (24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.74**	**.19**	**.63**	**3.86****		
Self-Esteem T2	**-.001**	**.23**	**-.001**	**-.01**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 2 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether affective commitment is mediated by self-esteem. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows affective commitment T1 predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=16.7, d.f.=25, r square change =.40, t=4.09). Step 2 introduces self-esteem as the independent variable predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=.004, d.f.=24, r square change =.004, t=3.86). Results however, for self-esteem predicting affective commitment at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-.01), suggesting that self-esteem is not a mediator of affective commitment in the coaching process.

Table 3: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 2 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.39**	**14.97** (23)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.74**	**.19**	**.63**	**3.87****		
Step 2					**.03**	**.94 (22)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.82**	**.21**	**.70**	**3.92****		
Self-Efficacy T2	**-.38**	**.40**	**-.17**	**-.97**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 3 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether affective commitment is mediated by self-efficacy. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows affective commitment T1 predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=14.97, d.f.=23, r square change =.39, t=3.87). Step 2 introduces self-efficacy as the independent variable predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=.94, d.f.=22, r square change =.03, t=3.92). Results however, for self-efficacy predicting affective commitment at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-.97), suggesting that self-efficacy is not a mediator of affective commitment in the coaching process.

Table 4: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Locus of Control** Time 2 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.01**	**.31 (24)**
Job Performance T1	**.10**	**.18**	**.11**	**.55**		
Step 2					**.05**	**1.37 (23)**
Job Performance T1	**.02**	**.19**	**.03**	**.12**		
Locus of Control T2	**-.23**	**.19**	**-.25**	**-1.17**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 4 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether job performance is mediated by locus of control. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (f=.31, d.f.=24, r square change =.01, t=.55). Step 2 introduces locus of control as the independent variable predicting job performance at T2 (f=1.37, d.f.=23, r square change =.05, t=.12). Results however, for locus of control predicting job performance at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-1.17), suggesting that locus of control is not a mediator of job performance in the coaching process.

Table 5: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Locus of Control*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *(OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.47**	**20.60** (23)**
OCB T1	**.70**	**.15**	**.69**	**4.54****		
Step 2					**.03**	**1.48 (22)**
OCB T1	**.70**	**.15**	**.69**	**4.60****		
Locus of Control T2	**-.14**	**.12**	**-.18**	**-1.22**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 5 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether organisational citizenship behaviour is mediated by locus of control. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows organisational citizenship behaviour T1 predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (f=20.60, d.f.=23, r square change =.47, t=4.54). Step 2 introduces *locus of control* as the independent variable predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (f=1.48, d.f.=22, r square change =.03, t=4.60). Results however, for locus of control predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-1.22), suggesting that locus of control is not a mediator of organisational citizenship behaviour in the coaching process.

Table 6: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Private Self-Consciousness** (PSC) Time 2 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.02**	**.63 (27)**
Job Performance T1	**.13**	**.17**	**.15**	**.79**		
Step 2					**.004**	**.004 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.13**	**.17**	**.15**	**.78**		
PSC T2	**4.17**	**.19**	**.004**	**.004**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 6 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether job performance is mediated by private self-consciousness. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (f=.63, d.f.=27, r square change =.02, t=.79). Step 2 introduces private self-consciousness as the independent variable predicting job performance at T2 (f=.004, d.f.=26, r square change =.004, t=.78). Results however, for private self-consciousness predicting job performance at T2 were not statistically significant (t=.004), suggesting that private self-consciousness is not a mediator of job performance in the coaching process.

Table 7: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for **Private Self-Consciousness** Time 2 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.38**	**16.14** (26)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.74**	**.19**	**.62**	**4.01****		
Step 2					**.004**	**.20 (25)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.75**	**.19**	**.62**	**3.98****		
PSC T2	**-.12**	**.27**	**-.07**	**-.45**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 7 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether affective commitment is mediated by private self-consciousness. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows affective commitment T1 predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=16.14, d.f.=26, r square change =.38, t=4.01). Step 2 introduces private self-consciousness as the independent variable predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=.20, d.f.=25, r square change =.004, t=3.98). Results however, for private self-consciousness predicting affective commitment at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-.45), suggesting that private self-consciousness is not a mediator of affective commitment in the coaching process.

Table 8: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Private Self-Consciousness*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *(OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.54**	**30.22** (26)**
OCB T1	**.82**	**.15**	**.73**	**5.50****		
Step 2					**.001**	**.05 (25)**
OCB T1	**.81**	**.16**	**.72**	**4.98****		
PSC T2	**.03**	**.15**	**.03**	**.22**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 8 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether organisational citizenship behaviour is mediated by private self-consciousness. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows organisational citizenship behaviour T1 predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (f=30.22, d.f.=26, r square change =.54, t=5.50). Step 2 introduces private self-consciousness as the independent variable predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (f=.05, d.f.=25, r square change =.001, t=4.98). Results however, for private self-consciousness predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 were not statistically significant (t=.22), suggesting that private self-consciousness is not a mediator of organisational citizenship behaviour in the coaching process.

Table 9: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for **Self-Esteem** Time 1 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.04**	**.45 (25)**
Performance T1	**.08**	**.16**	**.11**	**.52**		
Self-Esteem T1	**.09**	**.16**	**.12**	**.57**		
Step 2					**.05**	**1.24 (24)**
Performance T1	**.10**	**.16**	**.13**	**.63**		
Self-Esteem T1	**.11**	**.16**	**.15**	**.69**		
Performance * Self-Esteem	**.19**	**.17**	**.22**	**1.11**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 9 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-esteem acts as a moderator of performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=.52) and self-esteem T1 (t=.57) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance.T2 (f=.45, d.f.=25, r square change =.04), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.24, d.f.=24, r square change =.05). Results were not statistically significant (t=1.11) suggesting that self-esteem T1 does not act as a moderator of job performance at T2.

Table 10: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for **Self-Esteem** Time 1 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.36**	**6.74** (24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.76**	**.23**	**.61**	**3.34****		
Self-Esteem T1	**-.04**	**.22**	**-.03**	**-.16**		
Step 2					**.01**	**.28 (23)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.73**	**.24**	**.59**	**3.05****		
Self-Esteem T1	**-.08**	**.24**	**-.07**	**-.34**		
OCB * Self-Esteem	**-.08**	**.14**	**-.10**	**-.53**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 10 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-esteem acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.34) and self-esteem T1 (t=-.16) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment.T2 (f=6.74, d.f.=24, r square change =.36), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.28, d.f.=23, r square change =.01). Results were not statistically significant (t=-.53) suggesting that self-esteem T1 does not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 11: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for* ***Self-Esteem*** *Time 1 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.57**	**15.4**(23)**
OCB T1	**.55**	**.11**	**.72**	**5.13****		
Self-Esteem T1	**.08**	**.11**	**.11**	**.76**		
Step 2					**.03**	**1.69 (22)**
OCB T1	**.55**	**.11**	**.72**	**5.16****		
Self-Esteem T1	**.06**	**.11**	**.08**	**.60**		
OCB * Self-Esteem	**.15**	**.12**	**.18**	**1.30**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 11 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-esteem acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=5.13) and self-esteem T1 (t=.76) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour.T2 (f=15.40, d.f.=23, r square change =.57), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.69, d.f.=22, r square change =.03). Results were not statistically significant (t=1.30) suggesting that self-esteem T1 does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 12: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Esteem** Time 2 predicting **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour** (OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.62**	**19.26**(24)**
OCB T1	**.53**	**.10**	**.66**	**5.06****		
Self-Esteem T2	**.30**	**.10**	**.29**	**2.21***		
Step 2					**.003**	**.17(23)**
OCB T1	**.53**	**.11**	**.66**	**4.98****		
Self-Esteem T2	**.21**	**.12**	**.26**	**1.83***		
OCB * Self-Esteem	**.05**	**.13**	**.06**	**.41**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 12 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-esteem acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=5.06) and self-esteem T2 (t=2.21) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour.T2 (f=19.26, d.f.=24, r square change =.62), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.17, d.f.=23, r square change =.003). Results were not statistically significant (t=.41) suggesting that self-esteem does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 13: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 1 predicting **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.61**	**17.46**(22)**
OCB T1	**.66**	**.11**	**.80**	**5.91****		
Self-Efficacy T1	**.17**	**.11**	**.14**	**1.05**		
Step 2					**.01**	**.62 (21)**
OCB T1	**.68**	**.12**	**.82**	**5.90****		
Self-Efficacy T1	**-.004**	**.19**	**-.04**	**-.02**		
OCB * Self-Efficacy	**.14**	**.17**	**.19**	**.79**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 13 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-efficacy acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=5.91) and self-efficacy T1 (t=1.05) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=17.46, d.f.=22, r square change =.61), and step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.62, d.f.=21, r square change =.01). Results were not statistically significant (t=.79) suggesting that self-efficacy T1 does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 14: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 2 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.23**	**3.45*(23)**
Job Performance T1	**.26**	**.19**	**.28**	**1.38†**		
Self-Efficacy T2	**.21**	**.15**	**.28**	**1.39†**		
Step 2					**.03**	**.79(22)**
Job Performance T1	**.22**	**.19**	**.24**	**1.12**		
Self-Efficacy T2	**.24**	**.16**	**.31**	**1.51†**		
Job Performance * Self-Efficacy	**-.16**	**.18**	**-.17**	**-.89**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 14 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-efficacy acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=1.38) and self-efficacy T2 (t=1.39) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=3.45, d.f.=23, r square change =.23), and step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.79, d.f.=22, r square change =.03). Results were not statistically significant (t=-.89) suggesting that self-efficacy does not act as a moderator of job performance at T2.

Table 15: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 2 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.42**	**7.93**(22)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.87**	**.22**	**.70**	**3.92****		
Self-Efficacy T2	**-.22**	**.22**	**-.17**	**-.97**		
Step 2					**.01**	**.25(21)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.86**	**.22**	**.70**	**3.86****		
Self-Efficacy T2	**-.25**	**.23**	**-.20**	**-1.05**		
Affective Commitment * Self-Efficacy	**.14**	**.28**	**.09**	**.50**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 15 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-efficacy acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.92) and self-efficacy T2 (t=-.97) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=7.93, d.f.=22, r square change =.42), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.25, d.f.=21, r square change =.01). Results were not statistically significant (t=.50) suggesting that self-efficacy does not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 16: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 2 predicting **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour** (OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.60**	**16.05**(22)**
OCB T1	**.42**	**.12**	**.56**	**3.65****		
Self-Efficacy T2	**.24**	**.12**	**.32**	**2.10***		
Step 2					**.01**	**.50(21)**
OCB T1	**.40**	**.12**	**.54**	**3.34****		
Self-Efficacy T2	**.25**	**.12**	**.33**	**2.11***		
OCB * Self-Efficacy	**.07**	**.11**	**.10**	**.71**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 16 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-efficacy acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=3.65) and self-efficacy T2 (t=2.10) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=16.05, d.f.=22, r square change =.60), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.50, d.f.=21, r square change =.01). Results were not statistically significant (t=.71) suggesting that self-efficacy does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 17: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for **Locus of Control** Time 1 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.47**	**9.98**(23)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.87**	**.20**	**.67**	**4.42****		
Locus of Control T1	**-.15**	**.20**	**-.12**	**-.76**		
Step 2					**.001**	**.03 (23)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.87**	**.20**	**.68**	**4.33****		
Locus of Control T1	**-.16**	**.21**	**-.12**	**-.77**		
Affective Commitment * Locus of Control	**-.04**	**.21**	**-.03**	**-.18**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 17 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether locus of control acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=4.42) and locus of control T1 (t=-.76) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=9.98, d.f.=23, r square change =.47), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.03, d.f.=23, r square change =.001). Results do not indicate a statistically significant result (t=-.18) suggesting that locus of control does not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 18: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for* ***Locus of Control*** *Time 1 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.53**	**13.17**(23)**
OCB T1	**.59**	**.12**	**.73**	**5.10****		
Locus of Control T1	**-.03**	**.12**	**-.04**	**-.27**		
Step 2					**.003**	**.16 (22)**
OCB T1	**.61**	**.14**	**.76**	**4.56****		
Locus of Control T1	**-.02**	**.12**	**-.02**	**-.15**		
OCB * Locus of Control	**-.06**	**.14**	**-.07**	**-.39**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 18 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether locus of control acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=5.10) and locus of control T2 (t=-.27) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=13.17, d.f.=23, r square change =.53), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.16, d.f.=22, r square change =.003). Results do not indicate a statistically significant result (t=-.39) suggesting that locus of control T1 does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 19: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Locus of Control** Time 2 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.40**	**7.26**(22)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.80**	**.22**	**.60**	**3.63****		
Locus of Control T2	**-.30**	**.21**	**-.24**	**-1.45†**		
Step 2					**.004**	**.16 (21)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.82**	**.23**	**.62**	**3.56****		
Locus of Control T2	**-.28**	**.21**	**-.23**	**-1.33†**		
Affective Commitment * Locus of Control	**-.11**	**.28**	**-.07**	**-.40**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 19 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether locus of control acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.63) and locus of control T2 (t=-1.45) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=7.26, d.f.=22, r square change =.40), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.16, d.f.=21, r square change =.004). Results do not indicate a statistically significant result (t=-.40) suggesting that locus of control does not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 20: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for* ***Locus of Control*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *(OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.51**	**11.25**(22)**
OCB T1	**.50**	**.11**	**.69**	**4.60****		
Locus of Control T2	**-.13**	**.10**	**-.18**	**-1.22**		
Step 2					**.001**	**.04 (21)**
OCB T1	**.50**	**.11**	**.69**	**4.47****		
Locus of Control T2	**-.12**	**.11**	**-.18**	**-1.13**		
OCB * Locus of Control	**-.02**	**.12**	**-.03**	**-.19**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 20 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether locus of control acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=4.60) and locus of control T2 (t=-1.22) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=11.25, d.f.=22, r square change =.51), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.04, d.f.=21, r square change =.001). Results do not indicate a statistically significant result (t=-.19) suggesting that locus of control does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 21: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for **Private Self-Consciousness** Time 1 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.03**	**.38 (25)**
Performance T1	**.10**	**.16**	**.13**	**.64**		
PSC T1	**-.07**	**.16**	**-.09**	**-.46**		
Step 2					**.06**	**1.69 (24)**
Performance T1	**.04**	**.16**	**.05**	**.24**		
PSC T1	**-.12**	**.16**	**-.15**	**-.74**		
Performance * PSC	**.23**	**.17**	**.27**	**1.30**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 21 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether private self-consciousness acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=.64) and private self-consciousness T1 (t=-.46) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=.38, d.f.=25, r square change =.03), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.69, d.f.=24, r square change =.06). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=1.30) suggesting that private self-consciousness T1 does not act as a moderator of job performance at T2.

Table 22: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for **Private Self-Consciousness** Time 1 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.43**	**9.06**(24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.78**	**.20**	**.62**	**3.92****		
PSC T1	**.18**	**.20**	**.14**	**.88**		
Step 2					**.01**	**.28 (23)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.82**	**.22**	**.65**	**3.79****		
PSC T1	**.22**	**.21**	**.17**	**1.00**		
Affective Commitment * PSC	**.10**	**.20**	**.10**	**.53**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 22 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether private self-consciousness acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.92) and private self-consciousness T1 (t=-.88) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=9.06, d.f.=24, r square change =.43), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.28, d.f.=23, r square change =.01). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=.53) suggesting that private self-consciousness T1 does not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 23: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for* ***Private Self-Consciousness*** *Time 1 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.54**	**14.00**(24)**
OCB T1	**.61**	**.12**	**.76**	**5.12****		
PSC T1	**-.08**	**.13**	**-.09**	**-.60**		
Step 2					**.03**	**1.53 (23)**
OCB T1	**.69**	**.13**	**.86**	**5.17****		
PSC T1	**-.07**	**.13**	**-.08**	**-.57**		
OCB * PSC	**.15**	**.12**	**.20**	**1.24**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 23 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether private self-consciousness acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=5.12) and private self-consciousness T2 (t=-.60) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=14.00, d.f.=24, r square change =.54), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.53, d.f.=23, r square change =.03). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=1.24) suggesting that private self-consciousness T1 does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 24: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Private Self-Consciousness** (PSC) Time 2 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.39**	**7.92**(25)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.79**	**.20**	**.62**	**3.98****		
PSC T2	**-.09**	**.21**	**-.07**	**-.45**		
Step 2					**.03**	**1.34 (24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.81**	**.20**	**.64**	**4.10****		
PSC T2	**-.09**	**.21**	**-.07**	**-.42**		
Affective Commitment * PSC	**.35**	**.30**	**.18**	**1.16**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 24 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether private self-consciousness acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.98) and private self-consciousness T2 (t=-.45) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=7.92, d.f.=25, r square change =.39), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.34, d.f.=24, r square change =.03). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=1.16) suggesting that private self-consciousness does not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 25: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Private Self-Consciousness** (PSC) Time 2 predicting **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour** (OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.54**	**14.58**(25)**
OCB T1	**.57**	**.12**	**.72**	**4.98****		
PSC T2	**.03**	**.12**	**.03**	**.22**		
Step 2					**.02**	**1.21 (24)**
OCB T1	**.60**	**.12**	**.75**	**5.11****		
PSC T2	**-.002**	**.12**	**-.003**	**-.02**		
OCB * PSC	**.13**	**.12**	**.15**	**1.10**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 25 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether private self-consciousness acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=4.98) and private self-consciousness T2 (t=.22) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=14.58, d.f.=25, r square change =.54), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.21, d.f.=24, r square change =.02). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=1.10) suggesting that private self-consciousness does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 26: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Affective Commitment*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.37**	**14.80**(25)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.75**	**.19**	**.61**	**3.85****		
Step 2					**.004**	**.17 (24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.76**	**.20**	**.62**	**3.80****		
IPC T2	**-.13**	**.31**	**-.07**	**-.41**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 26 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether affective commitment is mediated by the coachee interpersonal communication skills. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows affective commitment T1 predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=.14.80, d.f.=25, r square change =.37, t=3.85). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coachee) as the independent variable predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=.17, d.f.=24, r square change =.004, t=3.80). Results however, for coachee's interpersonal communication skills (coachee) predicting affective commitment at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-.41), suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coachee) are not a mediator of affective commitment in the coaching process.

Table 27: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *(OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.54**	**28.78**(25)**
OCB T1	**.86**	**.16**	**.73**	**5.36**		
Step 2					**.01**	**.62 (24)**
OCB T1	**.82**	**.17**	**.70**	**4.83****		
IPC T2	**.13**	**.17**	**.11**	**.78**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 27 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether organisational citizenship behaviour is mediated by the coachee's interpersonal communication skills. The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows organisational citizenship behaviour T1 predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (f=28.78, d.f.=25, r square change =.54, t=5.36). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coachee) as the independent variable predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 (f=.62, d.f.=24, r square change =.01, t=4.83). Results however, for interpersonal communication skills (coachee) predicting organisational citizenship behaviour at T2 were not statistically significant (t=.78), suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coachee) are not a mediator of organisational citizenship behaviour in the coaching process.

Table 28: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 1 predicting* ***Affective Commitment*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.47**	**9.13**(21)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.95**	**.23**	**.74**	**4.18****		
IPC T1 (Coachee)	**-.24**	**.25**	**-.17**	**-.96**		
Step 2					**.001**	**.05 (20)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.97**	**.24**	**.74**	**4.06**		
IPC T1 (Coachee)	**-.23**	**.25**	**-.17**	**-.93**		
Affective Commitment * IPC (Coachee)	**.07**	**.30**	**.04**	**.23**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 28 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether interpersonal communication skills (coachee) act as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=4.18) and interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 (t=-.96) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=9.13, d.f.=21, r square change =.47), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.05, d.f.=20, r square change =.001). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=.23) suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coachee) do not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 29: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 1 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.60**	**15.60**(21)**
OCB T1	**.62**	**.13**	**.74**	**4.91****		
IPC T1 (Coachee)	**.08**	**.13**	**.09**	**.58**		
Step 2					**.001**	**.06 (20)**
OCB T1	**.62**	**.13**	**.73**	**4.77****		
IPC T1 (Coachee)	**.08**	**.14**	**.10**	**.61**		
OCB * IPC (Coachee)	**-.03**	**.13**	**-.04**	**-.25**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 29 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether interpersonal communication skills (coachee) act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=4.91) and interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T1 (t=.58) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=15.60, d.f.=21, r square change =.60), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.06, d.f.=20, r square change =.001). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=-.25) suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coachee) do not act as a moderator organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 30: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.39**	**8.43**(26)**
Job Performance T1	**-.04**	**.12**	**-.05**	**-.31**		
IPC T2	**.49**	**.12**	**.64**	**3.99****		
Step 2					**.03**	**1.14 (25)**
Job Performance T1	**.01**	**.13**	**.02**	**.09**		
IPC T2	**.48**	**.12**	**.63**	**3.95****		
Job Performance * IPC	**-.15**	**.14**	**-.17**	**-1.07**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 30 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether interpersonal communication skills (coachee) act as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=-.31) and interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T2 (t=3.99) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=8.43, d.f.=26, r square change =.39), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.14, d.f.=25, r square change =.03). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=-1.07) suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coachee) do not act as a moderator of job performance at T2.

Table 31: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Affective Commitment*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.39**	**7.90**(25)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.79**	**.20**	**.63**	**3.97****		
IPC T2	**-.08**	**.20**	**-.06**	**-.41**		
Step 2					**.03**	**1.36 (24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.81**	**.20**	**.65**	**4.10****		
IPC T2	**-.10**	**.20**	**-.08**	**-.49**		
Affective Commitment * IPC	**.35**	**.30**	**.18**	**1.17**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 31 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether interpersonal communication skills (coachee) act as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.97) and interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T2 (t=-.41) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=7.90, d.f.=25, r square change =.39), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.36, d.f.=24, r square change =.03). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=1.17) suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coachee) do not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 32: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for* ***Coachee's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *(OCB) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.55**	**15.46**(25)**
OCB T1	**.56**	**.11**	**.70**	**5.06****		
IPC T2	**.10**	**.11**	**.13**	**.93**		
Step 2					**.02**	**1.24 (24)**
OCB T1	**.57**	**.11**	**.72**	**5.19****		
IPC T2	**.11**	**.11**	**.14**	**1.02**		
OCB * IPC	**-.12**	**.11**	**-.15**	**-1.11**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 32 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether interpersonal communication skills (coachee) act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=5.06) and interpersonal communication skills (coachee) T2 (t=.93) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=15.46, d.f.=25, r square change =.55), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.24, d.f.=24, r square change =.02). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=-1.11) suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coachee) do not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 33: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coaching Attitude*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Job Performance*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.02**	**.63 (27)**
Job Performance T1	**.13**	**.17**	**.15**	**.79**		
Step 2					**.05**	**1.33 (26)**
Job Performance T1	**.16**	**.17**	**.18**	**.94**		
Coaching Attitude T2	**.14**	**.13**	**.22**	**1.15**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 33 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether job performance is mediated by the coaching attitude (coachee). The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows job performance T1 predicting job performance at T2 (f=.63, d.f.=27, r square change =.02, t=.79). Step 2 introduces coaching attitude (coachee) as the independent variable predicting job performance at T2 (f=1.33, d.f.=26, r square change =.05, t=.94). Results however, for coaching attitude (coachee) predicting job performance at T2 were not statistically significant (t=1.15), suggesting that coaching attitude (coachee) is not a mediator of job performance in the coaching process.

Table 34: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coaching Attitude*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Affective Commitment*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.38**	**16.14**(26)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.74**	**.19**	**.62**	**4.02****		
Step 2					**.001**	**.06 (25)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.75**	**.19**	**.62**	**3.94****		
Coaching Attitude T2	**-.04**	**.17**	**-.04**	**-.23**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 34 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether affective commitment is mediated by the coaching attitude (coachee). The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows affective commitment T1 predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=16.14, d.f.=26, r square change =.38, t=4.02). Step 2 introduces coaching attitude (coachee) as the independent variable predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=.06, d.f.=25, r square change =.001, t=3.94). Results however, for coaching attitude (coachee) predicting affective commitment at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-.23), suggesting that coaching attitude (coachee) is not a mediator of affective commitment in the coaching process.

Table 35: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for **Coaching Attitude** Time 1 predicting **Job Performance** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.07**	**.95 (26)**
Performance T1	**.07**	**.15**	**.10**	**.49**		
Coaching Attitude T1	**-.17**	**.15**	**-.22**	**-1.12**		
Step 2					**.01**	**.26 (25)**
Performance T1	**.07**	**.15**	**.09**	**.46**		
Coaching Attitude T1	**-.14**	**.16**	**-.19**	**-.90**		
Performance * Coaching Attitude	**-.08**	**.16**	**-.10**	**-.51**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 35 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether coaching attitude acts as a moderator of job performance. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents job performance T1 (t=.49) and coaching attitude T1 (t=-1.12) showing their independent roles in predicting job performance T2 (f=.95, d.f.=26, r square change =.07), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.26, d.f.=25, r square change =.01). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=-.51) suggesting that coaching attitude T1 does not act as a moderator of job performance at T2.

Table 36: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for **Coaching Attitude** Time 1 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.40**	**8.17**(25)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.63**	**.16**	**.64**	**4.04****		
Coaching Attitude T1	**-.11**	**.16**	**-.11**	**-.71**		
Step 2					**.01**	**.53 (24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.61**	**.16**	**.63**	**3.82****		
Coaching Attitude T1	**-.10**	**.16**	**-.10**	**-.64**		
Affective Commitment * Coaching Attitude	**.15**	**.20**	**.12**	**.73**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 36 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether coaching attitude acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=4.04) and coaching attitude T1 (t=-.71) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=8.17, d.f.=25, r square change =.40), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.53, d.f.=24, r square change =.01). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=.73) suggesting that coaching attitude T1 does not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 37: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis for* ***Coaching Attitude*** *Time 1 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.54**	**14.64**(25)**
OCB T1	**.73**	**.14**	**.72**	**5.10****		
Coaching Attitude T1	**.04**	**.14**	**.04**	**.31**		
Step 2					**.02**	**.83 (24)**
OCB T1	**.78**	**.15**	**.77**	**5.10****		
Coaching Attitude T1	**.02**	**.15**	**.02**	**.11**		
OCB * Coaching Attitude	**.13**	**.14**	**.13**	**.91**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 37 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether coaching attitude acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=5.10) and coaching attitude T1 (t=.31) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=14.64, d.f.=25, r square change =.54), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=.83, d.f.=24, r square change =.02). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=.91) suggesting that coaching attitude T1 does not act as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour at T2.

Table 38: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for* ***Coaching Attitude*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Affective Commitment*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.38**	**7.80**(25)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.79**	**.20**	**.62**	**3.94****		
Coaching Attitude T2	**-.05**	**.20**	**-.04**	**-.23**		
Step 2					**.03**	**1.11 (24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.69**	**.22**	**.54**	**3.11****		
Coaching Attitude T2	**.02**	**.21**	**.01**	**.09**		
Affective Commitment * Coaching Attitude	**.25**	**.23**	**.19**	**1.05**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 38 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether coaching attitude acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.94) and coaching attitude T2 (t=-.23) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=7.80, d.f.=25, r square change =.38), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.11, d.f.=24, r square change =.03). Results do not show a statistically significant result (t=1.05) suggesting that coaching attitude does not act as a moderator of affective commitment at T2.

Table 39: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Affective Commitment*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.33**	**10.74**(22)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.73**	**.22**	**.57**	**3.28****		
Step 2					**.04**	**1.14 (21)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.68**	**.23**	**.54**	**3.04****		
IPC Coach T2	**-.32**	**.30**	**-.19**	**-1.07**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 39 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether affective commitment is mediated by interpersonal communication skills (coach). The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows affective commitment T1 predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=10.74, d.f.=22, r square change =.33, t=3.28). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coach) as the independent variable predicting affective commitment at T2 (f=1.14, d.f.=21, r square change =.04, t=3.04). Results however, for interpersonal communication skills (coach) predicting affective commitment at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-1.07), suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coach) are not a mediator of affective commitment in the coaching process.

Table 40: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses for* ***Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Self-Efficacy*** *(Coachee) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.08**	**1.44 (17)**
Self-Efficacy T1	**-.17**	**.14**	**-.28**	**-1.20**		
Step 2					**.07**	**1.37 (16)**
Self-Efficacy T1	**-.20**	**.14**	**-.34**	**-1.43**		
IPC Coach T2	**.21**	**.18**	**.28**	**1.17**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 40 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether self-efficacy is mediated by interpersonal communication skills (coach). The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows self-efficacy T1 predicting self-efficacy at T2 (f=1.44, d.f.=17, r square change =.08, t=-1.20). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coach) as the independent variable predicting self-efficacy at T2 (f=1.37, d.f.=16, r square change =.07, t=-1.43). Results however, for interpersonal communication skills (coach) predicting self-efficacy at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-1.17), suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coach) are not a mediator of self-efficacy in the coaching process.

Table 41: *Summary of Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression Analyses* ***for Coach's Interpersonal Communication Skills*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Locus of Control*** *(Coachee) Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.58**	**27.15**(20)**
Locus of Control T1	**.85**	**.16**	**.76**	**5.21****		
Step 2					**.04**	**.21 (19)**
Locus of Control T1	**.82**	**.18**	**.73**	**4.55****		
IPC Coach T2	**-.08**	**.18**	**-.07**	**-.46**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 41 reports on the outcome of the Longitudinal Hierarchical Regression analysis used to test whether locus of control is mediated by interpersonal communication skills (coach). The model uses a two step process, step 1 shows locus of control T1 predicting locus of control at T2 (f=27.15, d.f.=20, r square change =.58, t=5.21). Step 2 introduces interpersonal communication skills (coach) as the independent variable predicting locus of control at T2 (f=.21, d.f.=19, r square change =.04, t=4.55). Results however, for interpersonal communication skills (coach) predicting locus of control at T2 were not statistically significant (t=-.46), suggesting that interpersonal communication skills (coach) are not a mediator of locus of control in the coaching process.

Table 42: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Esteem** Time 2 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.40**	**8.02**(24)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.78**	**.20**	**.63**	**3.85****		
Self-Esteem T2	**-.001**	**.21**	**-.001**	**-.01**		
Step 2					**.10**	**4.37*(23)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.75**	**.19**	**.61**	**3.92****		
Self-Esteem T2	**-.05**	**.20**	**-.04**	**-.23**		
Affective Commitment * Self-Esteem	**.64**	**.30**	**.31**	**2.09†**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 42 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-esteem acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.85) and self-esteem T2 (t=-.01) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=8.02, d.f.=24, r square change =.40), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=4.37, d.f.=23, r square change =.10). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant result (t=2.09) suggesting that self-esteem acts as a moderator of affective commitment at T2, accounting for 10% of the variance

Table 43: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for **Self-Efficacy** Time 1 predicting **Affective Commitment** Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.43**	**8.24**(22)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.82**	**.21**	**.63**	**3.90****		
Self-Efficacy T1	**.17**	**.21**	**.13**	**.79**		
Step 2					**.05**	**1.83†(21)**
Affective Commitment T1	**.85**	**.21**	**.66**	**4.12****		
Self-Efficacy T1	**-.01**	**.25**	**-.01**	**-.06**		
Affective Commitment * Self-Efficacy	**.53**	**.39**	**.26**	**1.35†**		

**p < .01, *p< .05, † p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 43 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether self-efficacy acts as a moderator of affective commitment. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents affective commitment T1 (t=3.90) and self-efficacy T1 (t=.79) showing their independent roles in predicting affective commitment T2 (f=8.24, d.f.=22, r square change =.43), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=1.83, d.f.=21, r square change =.05). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant trend in the data (t=1.35) suggesting that self-efficacy acts as a moderator of affective commitment at T2, accounting for 5% of the variance

Table 44: *Summary of Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses for* ***Coaching Attitude*** *Time 2 predicting* ***Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)*** *Time 2*

Variable	B	SE B	β	t	R2 Change	F (d.f.)
Step 1					**.64**	**21.71**(25)**
OCB T1	**.53**	**.10**	**.67**	**5.39****		
Coaching Attitude T2	**.26**	**.10**	**.32**	**2.58****		
Step 2					**.03**	**2.15†(24)**
OCB T1	**.52**	**.10**	**.66**	**5.44****		
Coaching Attitude T2	**.29**	**.10**	**.35**	**2.87****		
OCB * Coaching Attitude	**.14**	**.09**	**.18**	**1.47†**		

******p < .01, *****p< .05, **†** p< .10 (one-tailed)

Table 44 reports on the outcome of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis used to test whether coaching attitude acts as a moderator of organisational citizenship behaviour. The model uses a two step process, step 1 presents organisational citizenship behaviour T1 (t=5.39) and coaching attitude T2 (t=2.58) showing their independent roles in predicting organisational citizenship behaviour T2 (f=21.71, d.f.=25, r square change =.64), and Step 2 explores the interactive effect between these two variables (f=2.15, d.f.=24, r square change =.03). Results of the interactive effect indicate a statistically significant trend (t=1.47) suggesting that coaching attitude acts as a moderator organisational citizenship behaviour at T2, accounting for 3% of the variance.

Appendix B - Introduction Letter to Coachee Participants

Dear all

This year I am carrying out the coaching audit in conjunction with Jodi O'Dell an Occupational Psychologist who is looking at the contribution coaching makes to organisations as part of her PhD thesis.

This will involve on line questionnaires to be filled in by:

- Your clients at the start and end of the process
- Their line manager at the end of the process
- You at the end of the process

The survey takes about 5 minutes to complete and go directly to Jodi. Your personal identities will be kept anonymous, as your responses will be treated with the strictest of confidence. The Results of the survey are for research purposes only. They will be used to evaluate the success of the coaching intervention as a process and will provide me with an indication of the impact coaching is having on the business

If you want to check out the link:

http://surveyor.mbs.ac.uk/ss/wsb.dll/25/survey1.htm

What you need to do

When you start a 1 on 1 coaching relationship (e.g. as part of the management skills programme) please

Explain to your client about the audit

Send Jodi your

1. Coach name and email address
2. Client's name and email address
3. Their Line manager name and email
4. Start date of coaching
5. Coaching Group if relevant e.g. Management Skills, RM training, Talent

If you have any concerns or questions, please contact Jodi O'Dell or me on 2177 at jodi@changeinc.co.uk.

Many thanks. I really appreciate this. Your input will help inform the way forward, what needs to be done and how we can build on what is working. I know you also have Jodi's thanks as you will be contributing to a major piece of research with will also give us a comparison against other organisations.

Regards Elizabeth

Appendix C - Survey Questionnaire One

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

Your responses to the survey will be treated with the strictest of confidence. Results of the survey are for research purposes only and will be used to evaluate the success of the coaching intervention as a process. Completed survey will be sent directly to the researcher and personal identities will be kept anonymous. If you have any concerns, please contact Jodi O'Dell at Jodi@changeinc.co.uk.

The survey will take approximately 5 minutes to complete. Please select one response per question and answer as openly and honestly as possible.

Survey 1 About You (Individual Factors)

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I feel a strong sense of self worth	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel self confident	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel I have a lot to offer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to co-operate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel useful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel good about myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a positive self-image	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know when to speak about my personal problems to others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I expect that I will do well on most things I try	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other people find it easy to confide in me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
when my mood changes, I see new possibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I expect good things to happen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**	
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I like to share my emotions with others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I seek out activities that make me happy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have control over my emotions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I compliment others when they have done something well	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I help others feel better when they are down	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm always trying to figure myself out	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Generally, I'm not very aware of myself I reflect about myself a lot	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm often the subject of my own fantasies	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I never scrutinize myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**	
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I'm generally attentive to my inner feelings	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm constantly examining my motives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I sometimes have the feeling that I'm off somewhere watching myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm alert to changes in my mood	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm aware of the way my mind works when I work through a problem	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm concerned about my style of doing things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm concerned about the way I present myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm self-conscious about the way I look ☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I usually worry about making a good impression ☐		☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
One of the last things I do before I leave my house is look in the mirror	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm concerned about what other people think of me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm usually aware of my appearance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
It takes me time to overcome my shyness in new situations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have trouble working when someone is watching me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I get embarrassed very easily	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't find it hard to talk to strangers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel anxious when I speak in front of a group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Large groups make me nervous	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

About You and Work

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
A job is what you make of it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On most jobs, people can pretty much Accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In order to get a really good job you need to have family members or friends in high places	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important that what you know	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To make a lot of money you have to know the right people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

money, is luck

Communication

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I am friendly and approachable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am open and honest in my Communication	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am willing to share personal i communication about myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am an effective communicator	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take people's needs and feelings into consideration	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like working with others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I allow others to finish their sentences	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am receptive to change	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am receptive and open to feedback	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I will seek clarification if i am unclear about Something	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am open to being challenged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am happy to communicate in the following ways;							
Face to face	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Telephone	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Email	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel enthusiastic about the coaching process	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Coaching Process (Coaching Attitude)

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I expect coaching to be challenging	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe coaching will help me improve my performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel coaching will help me work more	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

effectively with others

I think coaching will raise my levels self-awareness	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have no expectations of coaching	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't usually set goals for myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I set goals, I always set SMART goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I usually assess the pro's and con's of taking action	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

About You and the Organization

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
It would take little change in my current working circumstances to cause me to seriously consider leaving the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I often think about leaving the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel emotionally attached to this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization right now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Not at all Willing						Very Willing
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Willingness to offer a fair days work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to work additional hours if needed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Willingness to volunteer to undertake additional tasks outside your job description	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to accept a job transfer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to give maximum notice, if taking a job elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to fulfill the roles and responsibilities in your job description	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to present a positive image of the organization to outsiders	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
This organization deserves my loyalty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I owe a great deal to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

You and Performance

	Very Poor					**Very High**	
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
How would you rate your current level of performance?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Demographics

Gender Male ☐ Female ☐

Age
under 25 years ☐
25-34 years ☐
35-44 years ☐
45-54 years ☐
55-64 years ☐
Other ☐

Ethnicity
Caucasian/White ☐
Indigenous/Aboriginal ☐
Other ☐

Length of Service
Less than 1 year ☐
1-5 years ☐
6-10 years ☐
More than 10 years ☐
Other ☐

Level in the Organisation
A3 (entry level) ☐
B1 ☐
B2 ☐
Other ☐

What are your coaching objectives?

Appendix D - Survey Questionnaire Two

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS (to be completed by Coachee – follow up survey)

Your responses to the survey will be treated with the strictest of confidence. Results of the survey are for research purposes only and will be used to evaluate the success of the coaching intervention as a process. Completed survey will be sent directly to the researcher and personal identities will be kept anonymous. If you have any concerns, please contact Jodi O'Dell at Jodi@changeinc.co.uk.

The survey will take approximately 5 minutes to complete. Please select one response per question and answer as openly and honestly as possible.

Survey 1 About You (Individual Factors)

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I feel a strong sense of self worth	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel self confident	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel I have a lot to offer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like to co-operate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel useful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel good about myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a positive self-image	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know when to speak about my personal problems to others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I expect that I will do well on most things I try	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other people find it easy to confide in me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
when my mood changes, I see new possibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I expect good things to happen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I like to share my emotions with others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I seek out activities that make me happy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have control over my emotions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I compliment others when they have done something well	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I help others feel better when they are down	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm always trying to figure myself out	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Generally, I'm not very aware of myself I reflect about myself a lot	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm often the subject of my own fantasies	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I never scrutinize myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I'm generally attentive to my inner feelings	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm constantly examining my motives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I sometimes have the feeling that I'm off somewhere watching myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm alert to changes in my mood	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm aware of the way my mind works when I work through a problem	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm concerned about my style of doing things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm concerned about the way I present myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm self-conscious about the way I look	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I usually worry about making a good impression	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
One of the last things I do before I leave my house is look in the mirror	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm concerned about what other people think of me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I'm usually aware of my appearance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It takes me time to overcome my shyness in new situations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have trouble working when someone is watching me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I get embarrassed very easily	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I don't find it hard to talk to strangers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel anxious when I speak in front of a group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Large groups make me nervous	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

About You and Work

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

A job is what you make of it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On most jobs, people can pretty much Accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In order to get a really good job you need to have family members or friends in high places	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When it comes to landing a really good Job who you know is more important that what you know	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To make a lot of money you have to know the right people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money, is luck	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Communication

	Strongly Disagree					**Strongly Agree**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

I am friendly and approachable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am open and honest in my communication	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am willing to share personal information about myself	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am an effective communicator	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take people's needs and feelings into consideration	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like working with others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I allow others to finish their sentences	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am receptive to change	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am receptive and open to feedback	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I will seek clarification if i am unclear about Something	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am open to being challenged	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am happy to communicate in the following ways;							
Face to face	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Telephone	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Email	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel enthusiastic about the coaching process	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Coaching Process (Coaching Attitude)

	Strongly Disagree						**Strongly Agree**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I found coaching challenging	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel coaching has been a positive experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Coaching has helped me improve my goal setting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Coaching has helped me achieve my objectives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Coaching has helped me raise my	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

level of self-awareness							
Coaching has helped me work more effectively with others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Coaching has been worthwhile and given the choice, I would take part in coaching again	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
As a result of coaching, I feel more Motivated to achieve my goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

About Your Coach

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
My coach had a friendly and approachable manner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach was open and honest in their communication	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach was willing to share personal information	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach was an effective communicator	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach appeared to take my needs and feelings into consideration	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach expressed a desire to work with Me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach allowed me to finish my sentences	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach did seek clarification if they Were unclear about something	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach was able to challenge my ideas / thoughts	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach showed enthusiasm for the coaching process	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach made me feel at ease	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach behaved in a professional Manner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I felt reassured of the confidentiality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach provided useful feedback	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach showed empathy and offered	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

emotional support

My coach was credible	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Managing expectations – My coach was Clear about what they could and couldn't do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The gender of my coach was an important Part of the coaching relationship	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would have felt more reassured if my Coach had been external to the organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I felt there was equality in the relationship between myself and my coach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

About You and the Organization

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
It would take little change in my current working circumstances to cause me to seriously consider leaving the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I often think about leaving the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel emotionally attached to this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization right now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Not at all Willing **Very Willing**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Willingness to offer a fair days work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to work additional hours if needed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to volunteer to undertake additional tasks outside your job description	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to accept a job transfer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to give maximum notice, if taking a job elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to fulfill the roles and responsibilities in your job description	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Willingness to present a positive image of the organization to outsiders	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
This organization deserves my loyalty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I owe a great deal to my organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

You and Performance

	Very Poor						Very High
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
How would you rate your current level of performance?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix E - Coding Systems and Matrices for Thematic Content Analysis of Qualitative Research Interviews

Main Theme: Biographical Data

Sub Theme	Category	Code	Descriptor
Demographics	Gender	DEM/G	Gender of participant
	Ethnicity	DEM/E	Ethnicity of participant
	Age	DEM/A	Age of participant
	Job tenure	DEM/JT	Length of time in the organisation
	Level in organisation at start of coaching	DEM/LS	Level or grade within the organisation at the start of coaching
	Level in organisation at end of coaching	DEM/LE	Level or grade within the organisation at the end of coaching
	Number of coaching sessions	DEM/S	Number of coaching sessions
	Coaching objective	DEM/O	Coaching objective

Main Theme: Meta-Cognition

Sub Theme	Category	Key Factors	Code	Descriptor
Self-esteem	Psychological impact	Self-confidence Self-belief Positive thinking	SEST/P	What has been the psychological impact of coaching on self-esteem
	Behavioural impact	Risk taking Less self-critical Takes on challenges	SEST/B	Has behaviour changed as a result of coaching
Self-efficacy	Psychological impact	Self-belief Awareness of skills	SEFF/P	What has been the psychological impact of coaching on self-efficacy
	Behavioural impact	More effective behaviour Changed approach tackling under-performance	SEFF/B	Has behaviour changed as a result of coaching
Locus of control	Psychological impact	Awareness of sphere of influence	LC/P	What has been the psychological impact of coaching on locus of control
	Behavioural impact	Responsibility for action proactive	LC/B	Has behaviour changed as a result of coaching
Private self-consciousness	Psychological impact	Self-awareness Self-reflective	PSC/P	What has been the psychological impact of coaching on private self-consciousness
	Behavioural impact	Impact on others	PSC/B	Has behaviour changed as a result of coaching

Main Theme: Interpersonal Communication

Sub Theme	Category	Key Factors	Code	Descriptor
Interpersonal Communication	Impact of coaching	Awareness of own style	IPC/I	Does coaching have an impact on interpersonal communication
	Impact on effectiveness	Receptiveness Feedback Inclusive Influential	IPC/E	Does interpersonal communication have an impact on effectiveness

Main Theme: Attitude / Expectations

Sub Theme	Category	Key Factors	Code	Descriptor
Attitude / Expectations	Important Factors	Willingness Knowledge Open minded Positive Realistic	ATT/IF	What are the important factors relating to attitude or expectations
	Implications	Experience engagement Attitude success	ATT/I	What are the implications of attitude / expectations on the coaching process and outcomes

Main Theme: The Coach

Sub Theme	Category	Key Factors	Code	Descriptor
The coach	Qualities / Key Factors	Safe environment Trust Empathy Questions Listens Challenges Experience Non-judgemental professional	CQ	Which coach qualities are important in the coaching relationship
	Impact on effectiveness	Commitment Positive attitude Increases self-confidence Improved communication Facilitates performance	C/E	How does the coach influence coaching effectiveness

Main Theme: Outcomes

Sub Theme	Category	Key Factors	Code	Descriptor
Performance	Psychological Impact	Self-confidence Self-belief Self-awareness	PERF/P	Psychological impact on performance levels
	Behavioural impact	Promotion Proactive Improved management skills More decisive	PERF/B	What is the behavioural impact of coaching on performance levels

		More assertive Takes on more challenging work More realistic		
Organisational Commitment	Psychological impact	-	OC/P	Does coaching have a psychological impact on levels of commitment
	Behavioural impact	Confidence to move on	OC/B	What is the behavioural impact of coaching on commitment levels
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Behavioural impact	-	OCIT/B	What is the behavioural impact of coaching on additional role behaviour
Other	Further evidence of impact of coaching	More competence to deal with others Confidence with more senior staff Improved report writing	OO	What other behavioural or psychological outcomes are evident as a result of coaching

Appendix F: A Summary of the key themes from Interview 1 (Stage 3)

(N) – Number of participants responding

Interview 1	
Areas Covered	Key Themes emerging
Experience of coaching	Positive (10)
Outcomes How do you know coaching has made a difference	Promotion (5) Increased self-confidence (4) Increased self-awareness (4) Takes more responsibility (4) Different outlook (3) Improved interpersonal skills (3) More effective mgt skills (2) Gets buy-in to ideas (1) Tackles difficult conversations (1) Increased networking (1) More assertive (1) More influential (1) Facilitation of away day (1) Stopped self-sabotage (1) Raised visibility in the business (1) Sees bigger picture (1)
What was critical for the process to be effective	Willingness to engage (7) Knowledge of process (4) Good rapport with coach (3) Enough time (3) Positive attitude (2) Right atmosphere (2) Self-reflection (2) Realistic expectations (1) Adopting different outlook (1) Open minded (1) Validation from coach (1) Good feedback (1) Manage expectations (1) Clear boundaries (1) Challenging (1)
Relationship with the coach	Gender unimportant (6) Challenges, questions (5) Rapport (4) No previous relationship (4) Non-judgemental (3) Objectivity (2) Similar personality (2) Senior/experienced (2) Trust (2) Sharing ideas (1) Confidentiality (1) Supportive (1) Good feedback (1) Good listening skills (1) Manage expectations (1) Safe environment (1) Honesty (1)
Would you have coaching again	Yes (8) Not for a while (2)

Appendix G: A summary of the key themes from Interview 2 (Stage 4)

(N) – Number of participants responding

Interview 2		
Category	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Self-esteem	Increase self-confidence (7) Increase self-belief (4) Already high confidence (4) More positive thinking (1) Less anxiety (1)	Tackle difficult conversations/tasks (3) Less self-critical (2) More proactive with senior management (1) Applied for secondment (1) Takes more risks(1)
Self-efficacy	More self-belief (7) More awareness / belief in own work/skills (7) More reflection on achievements(1) More positive thinking (1) Thinks more critically (1)	More effective in dealing with situations (3) Changes approach (3) Tackles underperformance (2) More proactive (2) Better communication, better outcomes (2) Improved decision making (2) Learns from mistakes (1) Tackles difficult tasks (1) Successful with new projects (1) Applied for secondment (1)
Locus of Control	Already takes control (5) Raised awareness of what can control (4) More belief in being able to influence outcomes (2) Confidence to make decisions (1) More realistic (1) Not affected by changes (1) Felt uncomfortable with change (1)	More responsibility for action (5) More proactive (3) More delegation (1) Deals with self-development (1)
Private self-consciousness	Increased self-awareness (7) More self-reflective (7) Already very self-aware (1) More flexible thinking (1)	Increased awareness of own behaviour and impact on others (4) Better team management (1) More strategic (1) Better management of others (1) Better working relationships (1) Less self-critical (1) More realistic (1)

	Important Factors	implications
Interpersonal Communication	Already communicates well (6) More aware of own style (4)	Improved communication (5) Increased willingness to be open (2) More receptive to feedback (2) More inclusive approach (1) No change (1) More influential (1)
Attitude Expectation	Need to be open minded (6) Need positive attitude (4) Need to be willing to engage (2) Need to be realistic (2) Need knowledge of process (2) Need to be honest (1) Knowledge of process (1) Support from line manager (1)	Positive experience increases engagement and success (4) Negative attitude poor outcome (3) Cynics negatively influence others (1) Positive attitude increases buy-in (1) Pre-conceived ideas affects outcome (1) Not everyone ready (1) Too high expectations impacts on engagement (1)

	Important Qualities / Factors	Impact on Effectiveness
Coach	Trust (5) Safe environment (5) Listening skills (3) Challenges (3) Empathy (3)	Positive impact on performance (2) Enhances commitment (1) Increases positive attitude (1) Better prioritising (1) Validation (1)

	Equality (2) Good feedback (2) Non-judgemental (2) Clear expectations, boundaries (2) Experienced (2) Professional (2) Objective (2) Makes coachee accountable (1) Encourage participation (1) Effective questioning (1) Influencing skills (1) Shows commitment (1) Confidentiality (1) Patience (1) Shares own experience (1)	Increase self-confidence (1) Better communication with others (1) More aware of impact on others (1) Facilitates solutions (1)

	Psychological Impact of coaching	Behavioural Impact of coaching
Performance	Increased self-confidence (9) Increased self-belief (3) Increased self-awareness (2)	Promotion (5) Improved management style (5) Takes on more challenging work (3) More assertive (1) Applies lessons learned (1) More decisive (1) Better communication (1) Short listed for more senior specialist role (1)
Organisational Commitment	No evidence (7)	No evidence (4) More confidence to move on (2) Didn't seek other jobs to show commitment (1)
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	No evidence (5) More confidence to volunteer (1)	No evidence (3) Takes on additional work (1) Volunteered for specialist projects (1)
Other Evidence of Outcomes	Observation that people in the organisation were feeling badly done to(1) Improved decision making (1) Improved report writing (1) More confidence with senior staff (1) More proactive (1) More competent dealing with others (1)	

Appendix H: Summary of comments and quotations from the Interviews

Research Objective	Topic Area	Comment
1	Meta-cognition	
1	Self-Esteem	• Coaching really helped build my confidence • I now have the confidence to deal with senior director level management, which I would have found difficult before coaching • If I started to doubt myself coaching helped me to stop and reflect on what I did well and to remind myself to recognise the good bits • I have more self-belief now
1	Self-Efficacy	• Coaching gave me the confidence to propose responses on how to manage the budget • Coaching helped me recognise my experience and to explore how to apply this by thinking through options • Coaching helped me be more realistic about my capability and to learn from my mistakes
1	Locus of Control	• I feel much more in control now, before coaching I didn't feel I had any control over my work • I noticed that when I was being coached I started to be more proactive at work • I did feel a level of discomfort with the changes at work, the positive feedback helped • I didn't particularly feel coaching influenced my feelings of being in control • Coaching involves going back in your career, I could see that this would bring about a range of emotions and could be de-stabilising
1	Private Self-Consciousness	• Being told you are doing a good job reinforces the way you see yourself • I wasn't really aware of how other people saw me • Coaching has helped my explore why I felt a certain way towards a situation which helped me be more effective • I saw things in black and white before coaching, afterwards I felt much clearer and had a different view of the team and how I behaved • Coaching helped me put things into perspective • Coaching has taught me to be more self-reflective • I think much more now about the impact I have on others
2	Interpersonal Communication	• It would make it difficult for the coach if the coachee is closed down • I am happy to give my opinions, I think this really helped coaching, this meant we had stimulating discussions • I was too timid in meetings, coaching has helped me to feel more confident, I am now much more able to share my own views in meetings
2	Attitude/Expectations	• My expectations of coaching at the start were very high and these were not matched by reality • People don't realise how much of themselves they have to give up in coaching • To get the most out of coaching you have to be comfortable with working on yourself, it takes a lot of self-development • If you go into coaching with cynicism you won't get a good outcome • I think it is important to understand what is needed and what coaching is about to gain full benefit
3	The Coach	• The coach tried to get me to make decisions for myself • My coach was a good listener, attentive and understood my situation well • I think if the coach is known to you there is a risk that they may not be objective My coach gave me the space to talk and was very open • She was very understanding but still challenged me and pushed me to achieve higher goals • Although I knew my coach we hadn't worked together which I was happy about and she didn't judge me which was very reassuring
4	Outcomes	•
4	Performance	• I was in a role I didn't like, coaching helped me get a job 2 grades higher
4	Organisational Commitment	• I felt the organisation was investing in me as a person, I didn't apply for other jobs • I don't think coaching necessarily made me feel more committed but I think it did help me get where I am now
4	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	• I feel more confident in doing things now, before I was reluctant to volunteer for certain jobs because I didn't believe I could do them • I have always been keen to volunteer for extra work, I don't think coaching had much impact there • I have volunteered for a few specialist projects which have come up, I now think more openly about this having had coaching, I was less open before
4	Other	• I definitely think I am more decisive now • My decisions are more effective