The effectiveness of business coaching:
An empirical analysis of the factors that contribute to successful outcomes

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STATEMENT ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF OTHERS

I recognise James Cook University for providing a PhD scholarship which provided financial support throughout my degree. I also recognise that the university provided grants to attend conferences and workshops that aided in the progress and completion of the PhD thesis.

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I recognise the JCU Ethics Committee for ensuring that all research conducted for this PhD thesis met ethical standards and received approval.

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DECLARATION ON ETHICS

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted within the guidelines for research ethics outlined in the *National Statement on Ethics Conduct in Research Involving Human (1999),* the *Joint NHMRC/AVCC Statement and Guidelines on Research Practice (1997),* the *James Cook University Policy on Experimentation Ethics, Standard Practices and Guidelines (2001),* and the *James Cook University Statement and Guidelines on Research Practice (2001).* The proposed research methodology received clearance from the James Cook University Experimentation Ethics Review Committee (H 1912, H 2354).

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ABSTRACT

Many companies make substantial investments in a variety of development programs for executives (R Fulmer, Gibbs, & Goldsmith, 2000). These programs are seen as a source of competitive advantage for the organisation. One particular type of executive development is coaching. Coaching aims to help executives improve their own performance and consequently the performance of the overall organisation (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1996b). While there have been many articles written about what coaching is, and how to coach, little critical empirical research has been published (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Grant & Cavanagh, 2004; Kilburg, 1996a, 1997, 2001; Lowman, 2005; Orenstein, 2002; Sherman & Freas, 2004) about how effective or beneficial the coaching process is to the individual or the organisation they work for (Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004), or into the processes involved in coaching. A few authors have conducted empirical studies but the majority are still mainly marketing claims coming from the coaching industry itself (Grant & Zackon, 2004) leaving the practice of coaching as an "unregulated, poorly defined area" (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998, p. 41).

Despite this lack of critical research, business coaching is a growing field. This thesis seeks to address this lack of research by conducting systematic and critical research into the business coaching process with a particular focus on participant or coachee perspectives on its effectiveness. As much of the

previous research is focused on claims made by coaching companies, it was important to have research on the experiences of coachees and to gain their perspectives on what is critical in making the coaching process effective.

Due to the lack of critical analysis of business coaching, the overall aim of this thesis was to develop and empirically examine a conceptual model of business coaching. This model was built from existing research and theory referred to in the business coaching literature, theory and research in related areas from psychology. In order to determine what factors needed to be included in this model two studies were designed to test the coaching model.

The first study analysed participant perspectives on the factors that make coaching effective and identified further variables that should be included in any explanatory framework for the coaching process. The findings in the first study focused on the main components involved in the coaching process: the coach, the coachee, the organisation and the coaching process. A number of variables within these core elements were measured in a questionnaire designed by the researcher using both open and closed ended questions to determine their importance in the coaching process. The specific aims for Study 1 were to:

- o   assess the relative importance of the components and factors listed in the preliminary model, to perceived coaching effectiveness
- o   to identify factors to include in a revised model of coaching effectiveness

Three key themes emerged from this first study, they included; the importance of coach experience and technical expertise, the idea that key processes change in significance in different phases of coaching and the need for greater attention to coachee goals. These three themes were therefore carried forward into the next study.

A second study included a workshop and series of individual coaching sessions which were designed to compare one-on-one coaching with workshops. The workshops were conducted with two different industry groups, namely the tourism sector and the education sector. The tourism sector has paid little attention to career development or leadership skills (Blackman et al., 2004; Moscardo, 2005). The education sector, by way of contrast has clear career pathways and a history of leadership training and development. In addition the researcher wanted to explore further the relative importance of general coaching skills (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003) versus industry specific coaching skills as this was a feature noted by respondents in the first study.

There is very little empirical research into the field of business coaching, especially into its effectiveness (Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004). This research provided empirical evidence into the effectiveness of business coaching. It has confirmed the critical importance of the three main components of coaching; the

coach, the coachee and the coaching process. It also provides empirical evidence to suggest that coaching is effective and that the respondents felt that coaching was helpful and effective in assisting them achieving their goals. When analysing the results to the first study where participants nominated features they felt were important for a coach to have, they listed communicating clearly, being organised, maintaining confidentiality and having industry experience. However, after the second study and as the analysis became more in-depth it was revealed that these variables were not the factors that made a significant contribution to the effectiveness of the coaching process. Rather it was the degree of similarity between coach and coachee, coachee commitment to the process and a focus on goals.

The results of the second study showed that coaching does not necessarily have to be one-on-one in order for it to be beneficial, with the participants of this research project reporting similar benefits from the workshops (Kets de Vries, 2005) as from the one-on-one sessions (Bacon & Spear, 2003; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; McCauley & Hezlett, 2001; Orenstein, 2002). The key themes in this study suggested that it is not the delivery mode (workshop or one-on-one) of coaching that is important, it is the content (e.g. goal setting) of the sessions and the need for there to be a good match between the coach and coachee (similarity - in terms of similar values, goals and personality were again important).

This research has implications for the coaching practice field as there is now empirical research into coaching's effectiveness. A conceptual model of coaching has also been developed incorporating the literature on coaching and theories related to coaching. This model has integrated useful theory and research from literature from persuasive communication, counselling psychology and coaching related areas. The new model provides coaches with information on the different types of pathways that a coachee can take depending on where their motivations lie and how much experience they have. There are also different variables of importance for the coaching process, the coach and the organisation depending on what stage the coachee is at in the coaching process. This model will hopefully stimulate further empirical research into this area. This research also provides an agenda for further research. Additional research into the areas that were found to be of vital importance for the coaching process to be effective can now be further investigated.

A number of sections from the thesis have already been through the peer review process and are either published or currently going through the process of being published. The researcher has also published in other publications and has commercialized parts of the research in coaching programs. The following section lists each of the publications.

Refereed Journals/Book Chapters

Blackman, A. (2007). Coaching: Predicting perceived effectiveness. *The Journal of Consulting Psychology: Research and Practice* submitted and accepted with changes 2007 (in press).

Blackman, A. (2007). Perspectives on leadership coaching for regional tourism managers and entrepreneurs. In G. Moscardo (Ed.). Building Community Capacity for Tourism Development. Wallingford: CAB International (in press).

Blackman, A. (2006). Factors that contribute to the effectiveness of business coaching: The coachees perspective. *Business Review*, *Cambridge*,5: 98 - 104

Other publications/commercialisation

Blackman, A. (2007). Core elements coaching model. Poster presented at the International Coaching Federation Conference, Melbourne, 2-5 October, 2007.

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Blackman, A. (2005). Coaching – fad or here to stay. *Training Australia Magazine*, 5(4), 14-15.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Introduction

Many companies make substantial investments in a variety of development programs for executives (R Fulmer, Gibbs, & Goldsmith, 2000) . These programs are seen as a source of competitive advantage for the organisation. One particular type of executive development is coaching. Coaching is aimed at helping executives improve their own performance and consequently the performance of the overall organisation (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1996b). Proponents of coaching argue that through the coaching process confidence, trust and cooperation between staff and management can develop and may result in an increased commitment and performance by all (Tovey, 2001). It is also suggested that coaching has the potential to overcome some of the limitations associated with other training or developmental approaches, including low transfer of training and lack of work relevancy (Eggers & Clark, 2000; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997). Coaching is claimed to be more than a training program in that it takes a wholistic approach to the individual's work, corporate values, personal needs and career development and helps employees to interlink each aspect of their life so that they work together rather than against one another (King & Eaton, 1999). A coach is said to be someone who establishes options, introduces challenges and initiates alternative behaviours (Witherspoon & White, 1996b).

There are several different approaches to business coaching including using an external coach to work with executives or internal human resource staff to deliver

developmental activities. For the purpose of this thesis the first type of coaching will be examined. While there have been many articles written about what coaching is, and how to coach, little critical empirical research has been published about how effective or beneficial the coaching process is to the individual or the organisation they work for, or into the processes involved in coaching. Despite this lack of critical research, business coaching is a growing field. Capuzzi (2003) claims that there are tens of thousands of coaches in the USA while Hyatt (2003) claims there are over 50,000 globally (Grant & Zackon, 2004). This thesis seeks to address this lack of research by conducting systematic and critical research into the business coaching process with a particular focus on participant perspectives on its effectiveness.

1.2 Business Coaching Definitions

Kinlaw (2000) in Tovey (2001, p. 296), defines business coaching as "a natural conversation that follows a predictable process and leads to superior performance, commitment to sustained improvement, and positive relationships". There are four parts to this definition of understanding coaching that are consistent with many other definitions. Firstly, it is a process and in order to achieve results it must be applied in an organised, efficient and systematic way (Belf, 1996; Grant, 2005a; Haber, 1996). Secondly, the aim is for performance to be improved to an agreed level (Belf, 1996; Grant, 2005a). Thirdly, on top of existing performance, coaching endeavours to secure long-term continuous performance improvement from the individual being coached (Haber, 1996).

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Finally, coaching focuses on relationships between people and the positive and ongoing development of these relationships (Grant, 2005a). Witherspoon and White (1996a) see coaching as more personal and individualised than other forms of organised learning such as workshops. They state that working one-on-one recognizes that no two people are alike and that each person has a knowledge base, learning pace, and learning style that is unique and that this is a key element of coaching. It should be noted that many managers, co-workers and clients will also make judgements as to what is effective business coaching in regard to participants with whom they later come in contact; those judgements will likely be made not just on what happens within the actual coaching process but also upon other criteria, such as the motivations and behaviours of the participants subsequent to the actual process.

Kilburg (1996a) offers a more critical definition in the following quote.

> As it is currently practiced, executive coaching appears to be an eclectic mix of concepts and methods that are being applied by a variety of consultants who have accepted assignments to work with individual executives. Traditional organization development methods, adult education, management training, industrial –organizational psychology, and generic consultation skills are being blended together (Kilburg, 1996a, p. 59).

It is this definition that will be used in the present thesis. Before reviewing the available research into coaching key features of coaching will be discussed. In

particular, claims about the role of the business coach, the business coaching process, models of business coaching and goals and benefits of coaching will be summarised. In addition business coaching will be compared to other forms of development or training.

1.3 The Role of the Business Coach

A business coach is said to be someone who establishes options, introduces challenges and initiates alternative behaviours (Witherspoon & White, 1996b). According to Eggers and Clark (2000) and Evers, Browers and Tomic (2006) a business coach is someone who is able to prompt the coachee (the person being coached) with questions so that they are able to discover the answers themselves. The role of a coach is to provide feedback about the executive's behaviour and the impact that behaviour is having on others both within and outside the organisation (O'Neill, 2000; Witherspoon & White, 1996b). It is argued that with this feedback executives are able to gain an increase in their performance and that of their team with an increased sense of self-awareness, self-esteem, and better communication with their work colleagues (Kilburg, 1996b). In turn this should lead to increased morale, productivity, and higher profits (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; L. Smith, 1993).

Eggers and Clark (2000) also argue that a business coach requires skills and expertise in being a coach and does not necessarily need expertise in the coachee's particular domain or field. It is the person who is being coached who

will determine the agenda of each coaching session and it is the job of the coach to assist the coachee in defining their goals, helping them to realise the possibilities and to commit to a plan of action (Eggers & Clark, 2000).

1.3.1 Business coaching processes

Business coaching advocates have identified a number of key elements that underlie the coaching process; these include:

- o a committed and motivated coachee (Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b; Peterson & Hicks, 1996)

- o the gathering of specific information (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993, 1994; Newell, 2002)

- o drawing up specific action plans to target skills or set goals (Diedrich, 2001; Kilburg, 1996b; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Rich, 1998)

- o development of trust and a supportive environment (Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003)

1.3.2 A committed and motivated coachee

Several authors argue that for the coaching process to be a success the person being coached must take responsibility for their own performance and want to be coached (B. Lewis, 1999; Peterson & Millier, 2005). According to Belf (1996) the coachee must be able to realise their own vision, goals or desires and use the coaching process to build their level of awareness and responsibility. Through

the coaching process the coachee should be able to accept their shortcomings

and any fears they may have about change should be worked out with the coach

(Olalla & Echeverrria, 1996). The most important element seems to be the

willingness of the coachee to change (Burdett, 1998; B. Lewis, 1999; Olalla &

Echeverrria, 1996).

1.3.3 The gathering of specific information

According to coaching proponents, the primary task facing the coach is to gather

data from the coachee and from those with whom the coachee works

(Wasylyshyn, 2005) in order to "view the various realities (i.e. models of

perceptions and expectations held) and to assist the executive in planning

strategies for imposing congruence, as well as building skills that foster continual

monitoring and maintenance of congruent cognitive models" (Giglio, Diamante, &

Urban, 1998, p. 94). Burdett (1998) suggests identifying key roles where the

coachee makes the greatest contribution, defining the behaviour that

differentiates the coachee from other employees and enhancing the self-

awareness of the coachee.

1.3.4 Drawing up specific action plans to target skills or set goals

The third element identified for coaching processes is the development of

specific action plans. King and Eaton (1999) argue that the coachee must

explore the current situational problem in terms of personal problems,

possibilities and how they have reacted to the situation thus far when defining

specific goals and long-term aims. The coachee must also identify options to

achieve certain goals set with an action plan that has a realistic timeline for goals

to be accomplished (King & Eaton, 1999; Schnell, 2005).

One of the main aspects of coaching is the setting of goals. This part of the

process can be linked to Latham and Locke's (1979) model of goal setting.

Below is an expanded model of the goal setting theory. "Goal setting has also

been demonstrated to enhance perceived self-efficacy" (Olivero, Denise Bane, &

Kopelman, 1997, p. 466).
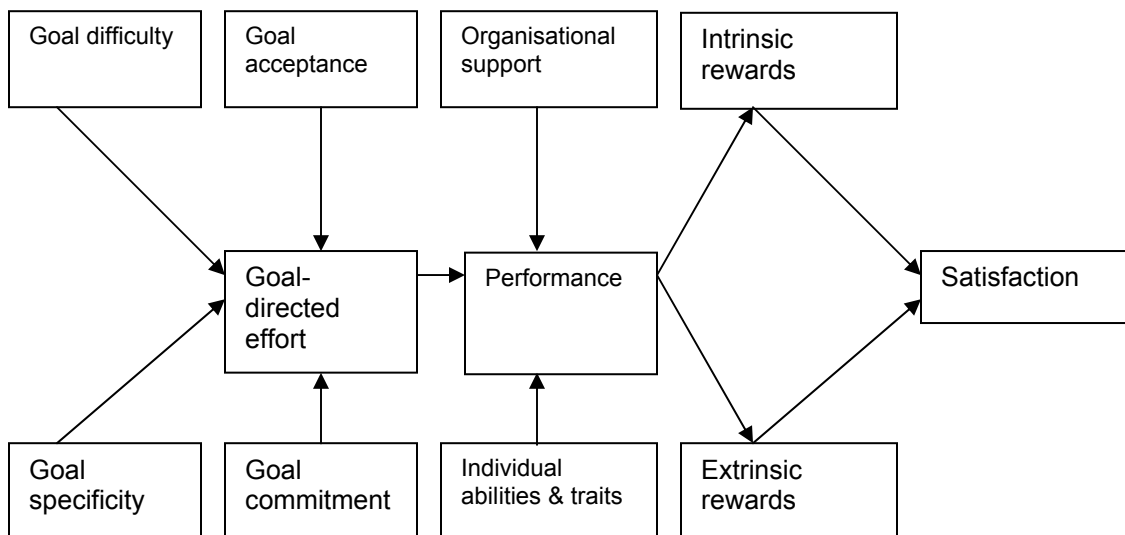
Figure 1.1: Expanded model of goal setting from Latham and Locke (1979) in

McKenna (2000).

1.3.5 Development of trust and a supportive environment

Finally, it has been suggested that creating an environment that is supportive of

the coachee exploring new possibilities or solutions is a very important part of the

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coaching process (Hellervik, Hazucha, & Scheider, 1992; King & Eaton, 1999; Peterson, 1993, 1996; Peterson & Hicks, 1993, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2005; Winum, 2005). In Kilburg's (1996b) experience, the client's success is often dependant on whether the coach provided a supportive relationship, inspired the client to explore new ideas and behaviours and assisted the coachee in working through resistance to change. Qualities that are internal such as self-awareness and confidence encourage certain external competencies of management: these include assertiveness, work/life balance, managing stress and understanding differences. Through the use of communication skills coaching is able to increase the effectiveness of the coachee's development of self, management development and the overall organisation's effectiveness (Wales, 2003).

1.4 Types of Business Coaching Models

Zeus and Skiffington (2002) offer seven different types of coaching models.

1. *Appreciative inquiry (AI).* This model was developed by David Cooperrider and its main focus is on the coachee's strengths, resources, competencies and opportunities rather than specifically on a problem. The coach is there to affirm and reinforce the strengths of the coachee and to help guide them to resolve and manage the problem at hand. This is very similar to Witherspoon and White's (1996a) coaching for skills and is also supported by Lowman (2005).

2. *Reflective coaching.* In this model the coach is there to help the coachee to reflect on their own issues and is not there to solve the problem for them. Frequently, managers and executives are expected to know everything but

during these coaching sessions they are allowed to have an 'I don't know' mind and to reflect and deeply consider the situation without having to provide an answer. The coach is there to challenge the coachee's basic assumptions. An alternative way to see this type of coaching is as coaching for general performance (Witherspoon & White, 1996a).

3. *Observational coaching.* This model has three stages, that of collecting data about the coachee through observation or 360 degree feedback. The data is then analysed to find out what issues are of concern and then a formulation of strategies and action plans are implemented.

4. *Business practice coaching.* This model is specifically designed for those individuals who wish to start up their own company or are entrepreneurs and this is referred to by Witherspoon and White (1996a) as coaching for development.

5. *Peer coaching.* This type of coaching can occur in two ways. Firstly, one person can be an expert in a particular line of work where they give the other person feedback, support and alternative suggestions to certain problems. The other way is for two people with the same expertise or knowledge observing and giving feedback and support to each other.

6. *Systems coaching.* The aim of this model is for key stakeholders, key business units, or departments in the organisation to align with the organisation's goals and mission. Coaching involves letting the individual know how they fit into the system and how what they do will affect the system as a whole.

7. *Group or team coaching.* This usually involves the coach working with a group of managers with a common issue in the form of a series of workshops (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002).

Antonioni (2000) adds an extra dimension and argues that coaching can take place in two ways. The first is called performance management coaching and this occurs when there is a gap between what the coachee is currently doing and what they should be doing. The second is called performance enhancement coaching which occurs when a coachee is meeting the standard performance requirements but would like to perform at a higher level or wants to develop new skills.

Not only are there different types of coaching techniques, but also different types of coaches. Coaches have a number of backgrounds which include to name a few: "business consultancy, management, teaching, workplace training, learning and development, clinical, organizational and sports psychology" (Grant & Zackon, 2004, p. 1).   Eggers et al. (2000) state that there are different types of business coaching including situations where an external coach works with executives in a coaching role and situations where internal consultants or human resource managers deliver developmental activities in a coaching role. For the purpose of this thesis the first type of coaching will be examined more closely.

1.5 Goals and Benefits of Business Coaching

The different types of business coaching reflect different goals or expected benefits. In general business coaching has been put forward as a way of dealing with current conditions of rapid change and uncertainty (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001). Coppola (1995) argues that there are two main goals of coaching; increasing skill levels and modifying behaviour by removing undesirable behaviours and finding more effective and desirable ones. Kilburg (1996b) however, lists seven goals of executive coaching. These seven goals are also supported by other authors in the field of business coaching.

1. Increasing the range, flexibility and effectiveness of the client's behavioural repertoire (Bloch, 1995; Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Redshaw, 2000; Russo, 2000; Wales, 2003).

2. Increasing the client's capacity to manage an organisation through improving planning, organising, staffing, leading, controlling, cognitive complexity and decision making skills (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Wales, 2003).

3. Improving a client's psychological and social competencies (Goleman, 1995; Levinson, 1996; Teal, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2005) by increasing:

   o   psychological and social awareness and understanding,

   o   tolerance of ambiguity,

   o   tolerance and range of emotional responses,

   o   flexibility in and ability to develop and maintain effective interpersonal relationships within a diverse workforce,

- the client's awareness and knowledge of motivation, learning, group dynamics, organisational behaviour, and other components of the psychosocial and organisational domains of human behaviour,

- decreasing acting out of emotions, unconscious conflicts, and other psychodynamic patterns,

- improving the client's capacity to learn and grow,

- improving the client's stress management skills and stress hardiness.

4. Enhancing the client's ability to manage self and others in conditions of environmental and organisational turbulence, crisis and conflict (Goleman, 1995; Rowe, 1997; Sperry, 1993).

5. Improving the client's ability to manage his or her career and to advance professionally (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2005).

6. Improving the client's ability to manage the tensions between organisational, family, community, industry and personal needs and demands (Bagshaw, 2000; Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001; Wasylyshyn, 2005).

7. Improving the effectiveness of the organisation or team (Bagshaw, 2000; R. Brown, 1997; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Wales, 2003; Wasylyshyn, 2005; Witherspoon & White, 1996a).

Wales (2003, p. 276) argues that if an individual's internal qualities are developed then support for their external competencies is provided. It is through

the use of high quality communication skills that "effective delivery and receipt of ideas, concepts, knowledge and vision in to the behaviours and competencies of leadership and management" can be facilitated. This can be further explained in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1

Key benefits from coaching

Internal development	Mediated through	External development
Self-awareness	Communication skills	Leadership and management
Confidence		Assertiveness
		Understanding difference
		Stress management
		Work/life balance

Source: (Wales, 2003, p. 276)

Wales (2003) states that coaching can be used on its own or as a support mechanism for other training programs. Wales (2003) also states that the coaching relationship is very important to the outcome. It provides the support for the coachee in implementing changes that need to be made. Coaching helps external aspects of leadership and management to develop, encouraging qualities of self-awareness and confidence which are internal (Wales, 2003). Figure 1.2 provides an explanation of Wales' (2003) model of the coaching process and its benefits.

Leadership/
Management

Work/Life
Balance

communication skills

Self-awareness
Confidence

Assertiveness

communication skills

Stress
Management

Understanding
Differences

Figure 1.2: Internal and external model of development (Wales, 2003, p. 277)

One of the main arguments for coaching is that improvements in interpersonal dynamics encourages people to get along better with those they work with and in turn staff become more focused, innovative and eager to contribute in a collaborative style. This type of work environment allows for the organisation to work in a more efficient and systemised way that supports constant change and growth necessary for business success. According to Adams Hart (1997) not only is it beneficial to the organisation but approval and recognition in the work place are psychological energizers for the person being coached.

Many authors have also suggested that coaching helps develop relationships, helps the coachee learn new things more quickly, adapt to change more effectively and become proactive learners. This in turn contributes to higher levels of motivation, more practical solutions to problems, increased job

satisfaction, advancement within the organisation and the development of 'soft' skills in business (Bloch, 1995; Redshaw, 2000; Russo, 2000). It has also been claimed that coaching benefits the organisation as well (Russo, 2000). It has been suggested that employees who have been coached are more likely to stay with an organisation and the initial dollar investment that the organisation makes in coaching is far less than the cost of having to replace the employee if they were to leave (Russo, 2000). Bagshaw (2000) feels that coaching provides the coachee with skills and confidence which benefit customers, the company and themselves. Olivero, Denise Bane and Kopelman (1997) support the idea that executive coaching not only benefits the executive but also the company they work for. They argue that executives that experience coaching find it to be a positive endeavour, with increased satisfaction and productivity in their work.

1.6 History of Business Coaching

Business coaching history can be dated back to Socrates, who took the view that people learn best when they have ownership of a situation and take personal responsibility for the outcomes (L. Edwards, 2003). Coaching appears to have been used in business as early as 1958 by Myles Mace in 'Developing Executive Skills' (Mace & Mahler, 1958). At this early stage managers used coaching in order to increase productivity amongst workers by using it as a job development tool. Other research suggests that coaching dates back to 1937 (Gorby, 1937). However, it was not until the 1980s that business coaching started to became a

distinct field of its own (Hudson, 1999; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1996a, 1996b; Olesen, 1996; Tobias, 1996).

According to Harris (1999) there were three periods in the history of executive coaching. Firstly, the period between the years 1950 and 1979, "when few professionals used a blend of organizational development and psychological techniques in working with executives" (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001, p. 207). Secondly, there was a middle period between 1980-1994 characterised by increasing and standardizing of professional services (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001). The third period runs from 1995 to the present. In this period there has been an increase in publications and the establishment of professional organisations for business coaching (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001). It is in this present stage that the demand for business coaching has reached a peak (Kilburg, 1996b). During this present period there has also been a collective push for more standardization of services and research into the effectiveness of coaching.

1.7 Coaching and Related Activities

As business coaching is a relatively new area, it draws from a number of different areas and related concepts as set out in Figure 1.3. As can be seen coaching can be related to mentoring, training, counselling and consultancy. Each of these areas will be discussed in further detail.

Figure 1.3: What is coaching? (Grant, 2005a, p. 25)

1.7.1 Mentoring

Mentoring has traditionally been seen as older more senior people who informally take on a guiding role for the younger, newer employee (T. Brown, 1990). More recently, however, organisations have begun to set up formal schemes where experienced colleagues are used as mentors to help develop other staff. Mentoring is said to be a one-on-one process helping individuals to learn and develop new skills and it takes a longer-term perspective on the development of that person's career (Tabbron, Macaulay, & Cook, 1997). In the workplace it is generally acknowledged that the mentoring process, because of its ongoing, close and often amicable nature, is not merely concerned with domain-specific knowledge, but can often involve personal, administrative and career dilemmas confronting the mentee. It has become increasingly popular for organisations, both public and private, to implement mentoring programs (Birley & Westhead, 1992; Bisk, 2002; Garvey & Galloway, 2002; Shane & Kolvereid, 1995).

While there are similarities between mentoring and coaching the main difference is that a mentor is someone who is an expert in that particular field and has the technical knowledge to be able to do the mentoree's particular job. By way of contrast, a business coach is not usually a technical expert in the coachee's particular job. The coach focuses instead on helping the coachee work through problems and allows the coachee to come up with the solutions themselves. According to Grant (2005a, p. 24) the main differences between mentoring and coaching are that

A. "Mentoring is a hierarchal relationship

B. Mentoring is about passing on personalised, domain-specific knowledge

C. Coaching is about facilitating self-directed learning and development

D. Traditionally mentoring is a wise senior and grateful junior".

Mintor and Thomas (2000) have provided a more detailed comparison as set out in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2

Coachee and mentoree model assumptions

Coaching	Mentoring
The coachee: o Is a strong performer o Requires a low level of supervision o Utilizes time effectively o Assumes a high level of accountability o Exhibits a high level of energy o Is a self-starter o Requires little direction o Is an effective communicator – keeps management and others informed o Has high potential for career mobility o Exhibits high levels of competency on most, if not all, corporate expectations o Is an effective team player o Is current in the knowledge and skills required to do the job o Can be trusted to follow through on assigned responsibility and authority o Assumes a high level of initiative	The mentoree: o Exhibits standard or average performance behavior on a continuous basis o Has the capacity and potential to improve the quality/quantity of performance beyond the standard, but needs additional training and experience o Has potential to become a strong team player o Is not yet meeting performance expectations because the employee is new to the job or company o Requires specific instruction in skill/knowledge areas to develop the necessary abilities and willingness to meet performance expectations o Requires moderate to close supervision o Has difficulty assuming higher levels of accountability at this time due to the employee's current state of knowledge or skill/ability levels o Is unable to bring about improvement on his/her own initiative o Requires a manager or designated individual to work side-by-side with the employee on selected critical tasks in order to bring about significant performance improvement o Needs to demonstrate improvement in selected areas to be retained on the current job o Demonstrates performance concerns that relate more to the employee's knowledge, skill or ability levels than to attitudinal or behavioural problems

Source: (Minter & Thomas, 2000, pp. 44-45)

1.7.2 Training

Training usually consists of workshops conducted over a day or a more extended

time in a teaching environment (Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997).

Grant (2005a, p. 24) suggests that the main differences between training and coaching are:

    A. "In training, the agenda is fixed by the trainer

    B. In coaching, the client sets agenda (often fluid)

    C. Training tends to involve hierarchal style and procedural behavioural skills acquisition

    D. Coaching is about creating sustained shifts in behaviour, feelings and thinking".

According to Eggers and Clark (2000) coaching overcomes some of the key limitations that have been identified for training approaches. Table 1.3 summarises this argument.

Table 1.3

How coaching can overcome training limitations

• Low transfer of training as coaching is training that is on-the-job • Lack of relevancy, here the client sets the agenda, so discussions are about what is most relevant to the coachee • Barriers to change in the work environment are overcome because coaching is a program that usually lasts for a few months and is not a short-term event like many training programs. Thus, there is time to work through barriers, blockages and regressions • Good coaching programs are tailored to the individual coachee and delivered on a one-on-one basis so that individual differences in learning readiness and style are met. The coach is able to adjust to the preferences and needs of the coachee, not making the coachee adjust to the coach • Coaching is extremely rewarding and productive, if for nothing else it satisfies a deeper inner need that all human beings have, the desire to be heard and understood without judgement

Source: (Eggers & Clark, 2000).

1.7.3 Counselling

Coaching has been closely linked to a number of psychological theories and practices related to counselling (Somerville, 1998). According to Grant (2005a, p. 24) some of the main differences between coaching and counselling are:

> "A. Counselling/therapy tends to look for causes of problems
>
> A. Coaching emphasizes new competencies
>
> B. Different rhythm, different tempo
>
> C. Counselling/Therapy tends to be reactive, coaching is pro-active".

The table below outlines the differences between counselling/therapy and coaching.

Table 1.4

Differences between counselling and coaching

Counselling	Coaching
o Focus is often on interpersonal health and an identifiable issue (e.g. Depression or relationship problems) interfering with clients level of functioning (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Focus is often retrospective (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Can involve medication, adjunct therapies and coordination of services (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Depth to which issues are pursued and processed (Kilburg, 2000) o Typically occurs in 45-50 min intervals (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001) o Assumption that client is often 'damaged', lower functioning, or in crisis (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Dual relationships are taboo (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Tend to rely more on a traditional expert (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Focused on diagnosis-bound behaviour (Richard, 1999) o Clinical work is patient centred and process oriented (Richard, 1999) o Measured mainly by client self-report (Richard, 1999; Saporito, 1996) o Normally face to face (Richard, 1999) o Normally the client or health insurance pays for sessions (Richard, 1999)	o Occurs in the workplace (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001) o Intention of improving interpersonal skills and work performance (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Richard, 1999) o Issue-focused (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Richard, 1999; Sperry, 1993, 1996) o Occurs in a broader array of contexts (e.g. Face to face, meetings with other people, observation sessions, telephone, email and at locations away from work) (Richard, 1999; Sperry, 1993, 1996) o Can last from a few minutes to a few hours (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001; Sperry, 1996) o Data collected from many sources (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Diedrich, 1996; Harris, 1999; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996a; Peterson, 1996; Richard, 1999; Witherspoon & White, 1996a) o Able to be more directive (Levinson, 1996; Richard, 1999) o Relationship between coachee and coach more collegial (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001; Levinson, 1996; Tobias, 1996) o Need for self-disclosure not as great (Saporito, 1996) o Measured in numerical terms (e.g. Bottom line performance for executive and business) (Richard, 1999; Saporito, 1996) o Orientation is prospective, focuses on goals, untapped potential and success factors, action based, outwardly defined (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Normally the client's company pays (Richard, 1999)

Researchers have also identified a number of similarities between

counselling/therapy and coaching. These are summarised in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5

Similarities between counselling and coaching

o Both are based in similar theoretical constructs (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Similar issues may arise in each (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Both are based on ongoing, confidential, one-to-one relationships (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Clients come to both wanting change (Hayden & Whitworth, 1995; Stiles, Shapiro, & Elliot, 1986) o Both professions assume that change will occur over time (Hayden & Whitworth, 1995) o Similar methods of inquiry, propensity for advice, giving, boundary issues, and potential for power differentials that exist (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001) o Characteristics of the therapist/coach (Stiles, Shapiro, & Elliot, 1986) o Characteristics of the clients (Stiles, Shapiro, & Elliot, 1986) o Characteristics of the relationship (Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Stiles, Shapiro, & Elliot, 1986)

Given these similarities it is not surprising to find arguments that psychology

offers the most for coaches (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998).   While

psychologists may claim to be a more appropriate 'fit' for coaching, Richard

(1999, p. 30) states that "the executive coaching label is much more palatable

than the terms counseling and therapy because it has a more positive

connotation and focuses on outcomes". Garmen, Whiston and Zlatoper

(2000) report that media attention towards executive coaching has increased

over the years. They also claim that psychology training, contrary to Brotman

et al., (1998) "is neither regularly nor universally recognized as useful or even

relevant to practice in the field of executive coaching" (Garman, Whiston, &

Zlatoper, 2000, p. 203).

1.7.4 Consulting

Consulting is yet another area from which coaching draws. According to Grant (2005a, p. 24) the key differences between consulting and coaching are:

A. "Consultants tend to be experts in their area, coaches need only be experts in facilitating the coachee's learning and goal attainment

B. Consultants have professional expertise, privileged knowledge and know the best way to proceed – coaches help the client find their own solutions

C. Consultants tend to tell – coaches ask the right questions".

There are a number of key claims made about coaching these include the following:

o It is an effective development/training tool

o It creates improved performance by increasing the coachee's self awareness and self esteem

o Coaches don't need to be experts in the coachee's field

o Coachee has to be involved and willing to change

o Trust and support are important

o Setting goals and action plans are important.

1.8 Empirical Research Into Coaching

"The silence of the empirical literature on most subjects related to coaching executives remains one of the most stunning characteristics of the field" (Kilburg,

2001, p. 254). As the practice of coaching is considerably more advanced than the depth of coaching research, dangers lie in coaches "self-awareness and advocacy for particular methods and techniques and argument and experience being used as a basis for action" (Lowman, 2005, p. 93).

Diedrich and Kilburg (2001) have also voiced the need for a continued focus on efforts to define both the concepts and practices of coaching as a rapidly expanding and largely ill-defined competency area of consultation. Even though coaching has recently received much attention it still "remains an unregulated, poorly defined area" (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998, p. 41). At this time there is little empirical evidence in the coaching-specific literature and hardly any information is known about coaches or the coaching industry in general (Kilburg, 1996b; Lowman, 2005). Information about coaching is mainly marketing claims from the coaching industry itself (Grant & Zackon, 2004). However, there is a growing field of researchers working to overcome this (Jarvis, 2004; Jarvis, Lane, & Fillery-Travis, 2006).

While there have been numerous papers written on the benefits of coaching there are very few empirical studies, especially in the areas of effectiveness (Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004; Wasylyshyn, Gronsky, & Hass, 2006). According to Grant (2005b), as of March 2005, only 175 articles in peer-reviewed behavioural science journals have been published on business coaching. Of these only twenty four were empirical studies of business coaching. These empirical

studies along with other empirical articles found in other sources were further

categorised into three sub areas for this thesis:

1. Eleven articles that include coaching in their approach/or as one part of
   their methodology (11 identified)

2. Sixteen articles that discuss the characteristics of coaching (16 identified).
   Out of these 16 studies half looked at how effective the coaching process
   was: these are indicated by ** in the following table.

3. Eight case or field studies that included coaching (8 identified)

Table 1.6 provides a summary of these 35 empirical studies.

Table 1.6

Overview of empirical articles on coaching

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
Coaching as an approach of the study				
(Blok, Fukkink, Gebhardt, & Leseman, 2005)*	Meta-analysis	Review of 19 studies into the effectiveness of early intervention programs	Effect sizes were found to depend on delivery mode	Cognitive development
(Cleary & Zimmerman, 2004)	Adolescent students	Self-Regulation Empowerment Program (SREP), graphing, cognitive modelling, cognitive coaching and structure practice sessions.	Students learnt how to set goals, select and monitor strategy effectiveness, make strategic attributions, and adjust their goals and strategies	Social-cognitive theory

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(Craik, 1988)*	90 head occupational therapists	Survey rating the degree of helpfulness of MDAs	Made some use of management development activities (MDA)	Management by objectives, coaching, action learning, job rotation and self development
(Douglas & McCauley, 1999)	Representatives of 300 US corporations	Interview by phone to examine use of formal developmental relationships as a management development strategy	Organisations with initiatives in place tended to employ more individuals and have larger sales volumes than organisations with no programs in place	One-on-one mentoring, coaching, peer coaching, executive coaching, action learning and structured networks
(Grant, 2003)*	20 adults	Used life coaching as a means of exploring key metacognitive factors involved as individuals move towards goal attainment	Enhanced mental health, quality of life and goal attainment, levels of self-reflection decreased and levels of insight increased	
(Jarrett, Sullivan, & Watkins, 2005)*	Adolescents in three youth programs	Qualitative interviews	Relationships with community adults were found to develop in stages, these relationships provided youth with access to adult resources	
(Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000)	Study 1: data from 1309 subordinates' ratings of 424 managers Study 2: 84 managers	Leader Empowering Behavior Questionnaire (LEBQ) developed from data, then relationships of LEBQ scales to psychological empowerment and job satisfaction and organisational commitment	LEBQ appears to be a practical tool for providing feedback and coaching managers	Empowerment

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(P. Miller, 2003)	35 managers of a public hospital	1. 2 day seminar on performance management of 6 critical areas of knowledge, 2. Self-selection of managers into 1 of 3 action learning sets, 3. Implementation	N/A	
(W. Miller, Yahne, Moyers, Martinez, & Pirritano, 2004)*	140 licensed substance abuse professionals	Audiotaped practice samples were analysed at baseline, post-training, and 4, 8, and 12 months later	The 4 trained groups showed larger gains in proficiency	
(Scherer, Canty, Peterson, & Cooper, 1995)	267 federal health care managers	Factor analysis	6 underlying dimensions were indicated: coaching, responding, planning, self-developing, problem solving, and controlling. Recommendations for use of these dimensions in organisational training and development activities	Manager's Individual Needs Assessment Inventory
(Topman, Kruise, & Beijne, 2004)*	N/A	Web site was created which lead to Digital Coaching (a web based project) dealing with procrastination	On the basis of positive experiences with the web site Digital Coaching was developed	Psychopathology

Character of Coaching				
Study	**Sample**	**Methods**	**Key Findings**	**Theory/Concept**
(Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006)**	60 (US) Managers of the federal government were divided into two groups: one group followed a coaching program, the other did not.	Quasi-experiment

A questionnaire was constructed that measured outcome expectations and self efficacy beliefs of the experimental and the control group. Was sent to participants either by mail or email once before coaching started and then four months later. | Results showed that the coached group scored significantly higher than the control group on two variables: outcome expectancies to act in a balanced way and self-efficacy beliefs to set one's own goals. | Whitworth, Kimsey-House & Sandahl's (1998) co-active coaching model |
| **(Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000)** | 72 articles (1991-1998) | Content analysis of publications concerning executive coaching | Although executive coaching is generally viewed favourably, psychologists are not universally viewed as uniquely valuable service providers | |
| **(Gegner, 1997)**** | 48 executives returned surveys 25 were interviewed | Surveys and interviews | Respondents said that coaching had positively affected their personal lives by affecting their interactions with people, helping them establish balance in their lives, and helping them prioritise and make decisions about how they use their time | |

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993)**	87 account representatives who worked for 13 sales managers involved in the coaching skills program	Interviews	Significant increases were obtained in five behaviour areas including; clarity in performance expectations, providing feedback, and rewarding performance Program had a positive impact on manager's coaching behaviours	
(Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1994)**	81 account representatives who worked for 13 sales managers trained in a coaching skills program	Asked to rate their supervisor's coaching skills and provide a rationale for their rankings	Behaviours associated with high and low ratings of coaching skills included; communicating clear performance expectations, providing regular performance feedback, considering all relevant information when appraising performance, observing performance with clients, developing self-improvement plans, and building a warm relationship	

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999)	75 executives, 15 executive coaches, unspecified number of HR personnel	Interviews	External coaches were described as most appropriate under conditions requiring extreme confidentiality. Regarding effectiveness, executives felt that good coaching was results oriented. Good coaching also needed to be honest, provide challenging feedback and helpful suggestions according to executives. Coaches agreed with the executives about what constitutes good coaching but felt that the relationship and the coaching process was the main focus	
(Judge & Cowell, 1997)	60 coaches	Survey regarding their qualifications and backgrounds; characteristics of the coaching industry; including fees and contractual agreements; and the process and assessments used in coaching.	Coaches come from a wide range of educational backgrounds. The most common requests for coaches was to help the coachee modify their interaction style, deal more effectively with change and help them build trusting relationships.	
(Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996)	1 male executive used in case study	Systems-oriented approach and Case study	Development is perceived from a wholistic point of view, with benefits to the organisation accruing through increased effectiveness in any areas of the client's life	Systems-oriented approach

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(Laske, 1999b)	6 executives	Interviews Developmental Structure/Process Tool	In order to experience transformative (ontic developmental) effects of coaching, one must be developmentally ready to experience them and coaching may have transformative (ontic-developmental) effect, but the developmental level of the coach must also be such that it allows the coach to co-generate these effects in the coaching relationship.	Behavioural learning and ontic development
(Levy, Cober, & Miller, 2002)	132 participants	Vignette	Leadership style (transformational leader) was significantly related to higher feedback-seeking behaviour. Findings also suggest that not only does exposure to a certain leader affect feedback-seeking behaviour, but also perceptions of a certain characteristics of leader's behaviour are important.	Transformational/ Transactional Leadership

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(Morgan, 1989)	385 managers and parallel form ratings were collected from 1,965 subordinates, peers and superiors	Factor analysis of leader behaviour items produced 13 leadership assessment scales	The 13 scales had high internal consistency, strong inter-rater reliability and moderate convergence of self-ratings and aggregated ratings by others. Scales were also useful in explaining subjective ratings of influence and leadership, as well as self-reported salary and salary progression.	
(Norlander, Bergman, & Archer, 2002)	15 employees of an insurance company	Sub longitudinal experiment	Only 4 of the personality variables were altered on completion of the training program: the participants' self-evaluations were elevated, the stability of their norms and system of values was reinforced, their emotional stability was reinforced, and their receptivity to new ideas/innovations was reinforced.	
(Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997)**	31 participants	Phase 1 consisted of class room training emphasizing managerial competencies. Phase 2 provided managers the opportunity to practice and obtain feedback regarding the managerial competencies they learned in Phase 1.	Phase 1 participants reacted favourably to the training, knowledge of managerial competencies scores had a statistically significant increase. Increase in productivity of 22.4% from training alone. 65.6% increase in productivity when coaching and training were used.	

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004)**	First study: 30 MBA students in Canada Second study: 23 EMBA managers in Australia	A one-factor between-groups repeated measure design was used. The procedure for coaching consisted of three steps, namely the development of behavioural observation scales (BOS), training in how to use BOS to set goals and provide feedback, and the training to increase objectivity in the observation of behaviour	In both studies the external coach was perceived by participants to have higher credibility than their peers. Satisfaction with the coaching was highest among the managers who had an external coach.	Goal setting theory
(Wales, 2003)**	The Head of the Sales and Marketing department and 15 of his managers	Semi-structured questionnaires	Coaching substantially increases the effectiveness of the links between self-development, management development and organisational effectiveness	Phenomenological approach

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(Wasylyshyn, 2003)**	87 Executives coached between 1985-2001	Survey sent to 106 executives coached by author during the period of 1985-2001. High response rate due to strong relationships established and maintained by author.	Found that when behavioural change sustained over time is the desired goal of coaching, coaching must incorporate face to face contact, good chemistry with the coach, trust, confidentiality and having the coach available. Coaches that were effective were ones that maintained momentum, were truthful but constructive, and those that cared about the executives/coachee's they worked with.	
(Wasylyshyn, Gronsky, & Hass, 2006)**	33 VISTA alumni who had completed coaching between 1996 and 2002. 17 former and current bosses were also surveyed to go beyond self-report data.	Survey instrument was composed of several rating scales as well as open-ended items	Results indicated sustained learning and behaviour change among program participants over an extended period. Successful outcomes appeared to be related to the careful scrutiny of program participants, a collaborative model, an insight-oriented coaching approach and persistent efforts to brand the program as a developmental resource.	Time limited dynamic psychotherapy

Case studies				
Study	**Sample**	**Methods**	**Key Findings**	**Theory/Concept**
(Ahern, 2003)	30 UK practitioners within a large provider	Involved a process of gaining assent and a mirroring competency system involving self-assessment, which linked in to continuing professional development.	Benefits included the value of explicitness, the potential for better matching, and using the introduction of competencies as a process for lessening structural divisions between internally competing teams and coaches	
(Diedrich, 1996)	1 male executive	Ongoing 360-degree assessment and counselling sessions	Results showed significantly different and more positive and functional leadership behaviour	
(Foster & Lendl, 1996)	4 individuals	Assessment of pre and post EMDR physical symptoms, negative emotions and behaviour outcomes Case study	Study found that EMDR can be an effective method for desensitising distressing workplace experiences and helping participants develop more positive beliefs about themselves regarding upsetting workplace incidents to replace negative beliefs	
(Maurer, Solamon, & Troxtel, 1998)*	Voluntary participation	Participation in interview coaching sessions	Attendance at a coaching session was significantly related to interview performance	

Study	Sample	Methods	Key Findings	Theory/Concept
(Sauer, 1999)	CEO succession project	Case study	Failure occurred because the new CEO was excessively independent and the firm had become too large and complex for his management skills. Stronger initial leadership and appropriate use of models of organisational evolution, organisation culture and CEO assessment would have been helpful	
(Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003)**	1,361 senior mangers who received multisource feedback, 404 of these worked with a coach	Quasi-experimental field study	Managers who worked with a coach were more likely than other managers to set specific (rather than vague) goals and to solicit ideas for improvement from their supervisors	
(Strayer & Rossett, 1994)	Major real estate sales organisation	Describes the experiences of the staff within the organisation while they were revamping their in-office training	Data reveal the need for a solution system comprised of training, incentives, performance support materials and the introduction of a coach into each office	

* Seven out of the 35 articles that claimed to include coaching in their approach or used it to describe a case study did not actually use business coaching but other fields that were related to the field of business coaching, for example, counselling in a health care institution.

** Indicate articles that included studies about the effectiveness of coaching.

Two key trends or research issues can be identified from this table.

1. As previously noted many studies are not directly focussed on coaching

2. There is very limited use of theoretical or conceptual frameworks to guide the research. Half of these papers were based on exploratory descriptions of specific cases.

Only ten studies focused specifically on coaching effectiveness, Gegner's (1997) was a masters thesis which was not published, therefore leaving only nine published articles; Evers, Browers & Tomic (2006), Graham, Wedman & Garvin-Kester (1993), Graham and colleagues again in (1994), Olivero, Denise Bane & Kopelman (1997), Sue-Chan & Latham (2004), Wales (2003), Wasylyshyn (2003), Smither and colleagues (2003) and Wasylyshyn, Gronsky and Hass (2006).

All except one are categorised under the section that discusses the characteristics of coaching. Gegner (1997) completed a study on executives being coached. She found that 84% of the respondents had positive thoughts about being involved in a coaching process prior to the actual intervention. Once the coaching process was completed she found that obstacles to the coaching process included the element of time, the corporate culture and other people (Gegner, 1997). All of the respondents agreed that coaching had an influence over other areas of their lives. In regard to their personal lives, they noticed changes in interactions with other family members and relationships, helping

them to find a balance in their lives. It also helped them to decide what was

important and how to use their time more effectively. This seemed evident in the

component of self efficacy, raising their awareness and responsibility and

therefore creating a greater sense of mastery for the executive. "Three themes

emerged when the respondents were asked if there was anything about the

coaching process they would like to comment on. The themes revolved around

the 'coaching process', the 'coach' and 'self'" (Gegner, 1997, p. 69).

Evers, Browers and Tomic (2006) wanted to determine whether coaching helped

individuals to achieve their goals. The study consisted of participants that were

divided into two groups one that completed a coaching program and one that did

not. A pre and post test method was used by the researchers to measure self-

efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies. The results revealed that participants

that had completed the coaching program scored significantly higher on two

variables; "outcome expectancies to act in a balanced way and self-efficacy

beliefs to set one's own goals" (Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006, p. 174). They

also claim that the results from their research provide practical value to the field

of coaching as they have proven that

> coaching is not an expensive fad: for the first time empirical facts
>
> suggest that coaching is effective. Moreover, added comments of
>
> the participants of our quasi-experiment gave evidence of
>
> satisfaction with the possibilities they had been offered to not only
>
> reflect on their skills, but also to improve the effectiveness of their

functioning, in particular in the domain of acting in a balanced way

and goal setting (Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006, p. 180).

Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester (1993) conducted a study to evaluate the effectiveness of a coaching skills program for sales managers. This study was an internal coaching program that used the managers as coaches, it did not use external coaches. Their analysis showed that there were significant increases in ratings on five of the eight coaching behaviours identified by Schelling (1991). They also found that employees who had not worked with their coach for long tended to give lower ratings and those coaches that had fewer coachees received higher scores. Graham and colleagues suggest that successful coaching is a "complex interaction between management behaviours, time, and the manager/employee relationship… and that effective coaching behaviors could improve the subordinates' work performance" (Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993, p. 11).

Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester in (1994) followed this research with another article about their study with sales managers. Again this focused on internal managers being the coaches. However, some of the points raised by the researchers are congruent with what has been suggested makes a successful and effective coach. In this article the researchers identified several behaviours that can lead to either successful or unsuccessful coaching skills. "Many of these behaviors related to the managers' ability to identify clear performance

expectations, provide accurate feedback, offer suggestions when working with clients, and develop warm working relationships with their subordinates" (Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1994, p. 91). Overall they found that the "more insightful, genuine, and specific managers could be, the more effective they were perceived to be on the eight coaching skills" (Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1994, p. 91). The most successful coaches were those who were rated as perceptive, had good people skills, were good communicators, could help the employee see the big picture and set clear expectations, went out of their way to seek rewards for their employees and gave useful advice. They also determined that coaching was not effective as a one time event, it needs to be an ongoing process.

Olivero, Denise Bane and Kopelman (1997) found that employees who had participated in training only increased their productivity by 22.4%, while those employees who had participated in coaching as well as training increased productivity by 88.0%. They found that "coaching is an important way of ensuring that knowledge acquired during training actually emerges as skills that are applied at work" (Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997, p. 467). This was because the coaching including goal setting lead to higher transfer levels (J Anderson & Wexley, 1983; M. Feldmen, 1981; Locke & Latham, 1990; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Wexley & Baldwin, 1986).

Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) conducted an exploratory study looking at who is the most effective as a coach; external coaches, peer coaches or self-coaches. Two studies were conducted in different countries, the first involved MBA students in Canada and the second involved EMBA managers in Australia. They found that an external coach was perceived to have more credibility than a peer coach. Students from the first study who had worked with an external coach or who were self-coached had significantly higher grades than those that used a peer coach. In the second study results showed that having an external coach was more credible than using a peer coach. Overall satisfaction amongst participants was greater with those that had used an external coach. This theory is with results reported in the social psychology literature on persuasion (Cialdini, 2001).

Wales (2003) conducted a qualitative study exploring the experiences of managers taking part in an externally provided coaching program. From her research she was able to develop the 'Inner and Outer Model of Development' "that describes how the internal qualities of self-awareness and confidence enable and stimulate the five external competencies of management, assertiveness, understanding difference, stress management and work/life balance. Acting as a conduit and mediator between these two groups are communication skills" (Wales, 2003, p. 275). The results from this research showed that coaching "substantially increases the effectiveness of the links

between self-development, management development and organisational effectiveness" (Wales, 2003, p. 275).

Wasylyshyn (2003) found that when behavioural change sustained over time is the desired goal of coaching, coaching must incorporate face to face contact, good chemistry with the coach, trust, confidentiality and having the coach available. Coaches that were effective were ones that maintained momentum, were truthful but constructive, and those that cared about the executives/coachee's they worked with. Wasylyshyn also found that

> the top three indications of successful coaching were a) sustained behavior change (63%), b) increased self-awareness and understanding (48%), and c) more effective leadership (45%). Two themes merit mention. The first is the importance of emotional competence as a learning and behavior change vehicle for coached executives…. The second, less apparent, theme is the importance of coaches managing relationships with sponsors, that is, the internal collaborators (boss and HR) (Wasylyshyn, 2003, p. 102).

Wasylyshyn, Gronsky and Haas (2006) conducted a survey focusing on the effectiveness of a specific coaching program for a company that wanted to develop their employees emotional competence. Due to the number of different challenges that businesses face in today's environment they suggest that executives need to develop stronger and deeper connections with people, that

"acts of leadership are significantly relational and require a behavioral repertoire of self awareness, resilience, empathy, authenticity, optimism and courage" (Wasylyshyn, Gronsky, & Hass, 2006, p. 77).

Smither et al., (2003) completed a coaching effectiveness survey and asked respondents to rate the effectiveness of their coach on six items:

- o "helping you interpret your feedback results by asking questions to uncover reasons for the feedback;

- o helping you link your feedback to your business plan/situation;

- o offering you useful suggestions, advice or insights to set goals for development;

- o helping you identify ways to share feedback with your raters and to solicit ideas for improvement;

- o encouraging you to coach and give feedback to others; and overall,

- o contributing to your job performance and career development" (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003, p. 33)

The analysis of this survey showed that 86.3% of senior managers would work with a coach again and had favourable encounters with their coach and the coaching process (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003). However, they did not explore the factors that contributed to these outcomes.

1.9 Summary

It has been argued that business coaching allows the coachee to see where their blind spots are and helps with self awareness. "Coaching raises awareness and helps the coachee take responsibility for change and move into action" (Grant, 2005a, p. 18). With increasing unpredictability in the work and personal environment many people are now turning to coaching in order to grow and help fill the need for continuity in their lives (Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001). In response, the professional field of business coaching is also growing rapidly with estimates of over 50,000 coaches worldwide (Hyatt, 2003).

Coaching draws on a number of areas and related concepts, namely, mentoring, training, counselling and consulting. Despite this diversity in theoretically grounded areas, empirical evidence of its benefits and effectiveness is very limited. Only ten studies have been completed that are focussed specifically on business coaching effectiveness (Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Gegner, 1997; Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993, 1994; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004; Wales, 2003; Wasylyshyn, 2003; Wasylyshyn, Gronsky, & Hass, 2006).

Through the analysis of the literature a number of claims about coaching effectiveness have been made, some are supported by evidence while others are claims made by the coaching industry without any empirical evidence. Overall

however, the coaching field is in need of more empirical research into the

effectiveness of coaching. The following table provides an overview of claims

made about coaching from existing studies, some are empirically supported while

others are not.

Table 1.7

Claims made about coaching

Claim	Supported by Research	Empirical Studies
Helps to achieve goals	Yes	(Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003)
Increasing skill levels	Yes	(Wales, 2003)
Modifying behaviours	Yes	(Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993; Wales, 2003; Wasylyshyn, 2003; Wasylyshyn, Gronsky, & Hass, 2006)
Improving psychological and social competencies	No	
Improving/Establishing work/life balance	Yes	(Gegner, 1997)
Improve effectiveness of organisation or team	Yes	(Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Wales, 2003)
Improve/advance career development	Yes	(Wales, 2003)
Improve self awareness	Yes	(Wales, 2003)
Increase confidence	Yes	(Wales, 2003)
Improvements in interpersonal dynamics	No	
Helps to develop relationships	Yes	(Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993)
Adapt to change more effectively	No	
Higher levels of motivation	No	
Increased job satisfaction	Yes	(Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997)
Benefits the organisation	Yes	(Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997)
Increased productivity	Yes	(Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997)
Used as a support mechanism for other training programs	Yes	(Wales, 2003)
Able to deal with stressful situations more effectively	No	
Better communication	Yes	(Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993)

This table outlines a number of beneficial claims made about coaching. However, not all have been researched and many others have very limited research to back up these claims. It has been acknowledged that for coaching to be credible it must have a more theoretical grounding (Ellinger & Stalinski, 2004). This increasing awareness amongst coaches of the need for a more theoretical approach to coaching is also creating pressure for coaching-related research (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004).

A number of gaps have been identified in the coaching literature which demonstrate the need for more empirical research. Specific variables to do with the coach, coachee, organisation and the coaching process have been identified by the researcher and a more detailed look at what coachees feel is important to have can provide valuable insight into what makes the coaching process effective. Other gaps in the literature include what type of coaching is more effective, one-on-one coaching or workshop training style? Are there differences between industries? Is there a need for the coach to have industry or sector experience especially since the claims made by the coaching industry are that coaches do not need to have industry experience only experience in coaching (Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006). These topics will be empirically researched in this thesis, thereby contributing to the knowledge and literature on coaching.

1.10 Overall Research Aims

Given the need for critical analysis of business coaching the overall aim of this thesis is to develop and empirically examine a conceptual model of business coaching. This model will be built from existing research and theory referred to in the business coaching literature, theory and research in related areas and empirical evidence from two studies. This thesis will be set out as follows.

Stage 1: Develop conceptual model

Stage 2: Exploratory study of the model

Stage 3: Specific research questions

Stage 4: Empirical study

Stage 5: Refinement of the model
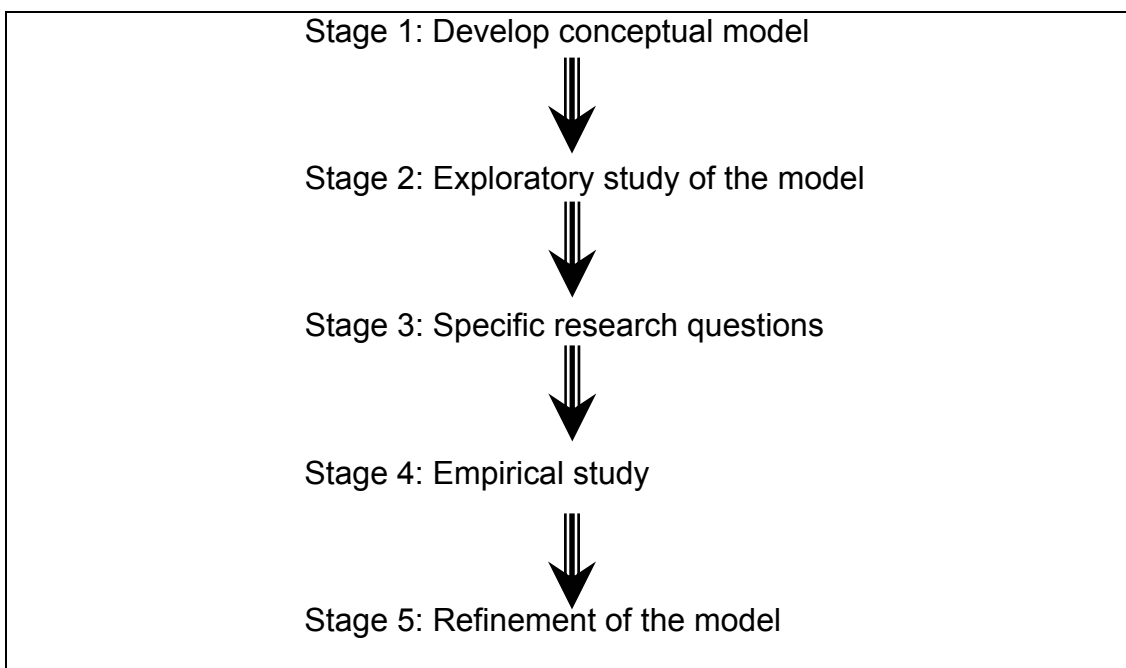
Figure 1.4: Thesis stages

The remaining chapters in the thesis cover each of the different stages in the thesis. Chapter 2 details the development of the conceptual model of business coaching. Chapters 3 and 4 cover thesis stages 2, 3 and 4, where specific research questions were developed for empirical studies in exploration of the

model. Chapter 5 provides a summary and final refinement of the coaching

model.

CHAPTER 2: DEVELOPING A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF BUSINESS COACHING

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with building a preliminary conceptual model of coaching using theory and research evidence from both persuasive communication in social psychology and counselling psychology. Discussions of theory in the existing business coaching literature and empirical research were reviewed to assist in designing the coaching model. From these reviews it was found that two areas of theory could be useful when designing a coaching model - persuasive communication and counselling psychology.

Persuasive communication was chosen as the definitions and goals of coaching in the previous chapter highlighted changes in coachee awareness, attitudes and behaviours, research and theory. The area of persuasive communication is focused on behaviour and attitude change and so corresponds with the goals of business coaching. Counselling psychology was chosen because much discussion in the coaching literature stresses the importance of the relationship between the coach and coachee. This relationship importance has also been identified as very important to the successful outcomes of counselling psychology. Firstly, however, key steps in developing theory need to be discussed. This next section outlines the process of developing a theory through both inductive and deductive approaches.

2.2 Building Theory

"Certain basic elements are shared by all approaches to science. The most important of these are data (empirical observations) and theory (organization of concepts that permit prediction of data)" (Elmes, Kantowitz, & Roediger, 1989, p. 19). There are two different aspects in research that are closely related, these include theory building and theory testing. A theory explains through related statements a variety of occurrences (Elmes, Kantowitz, & Roediger, 1989). Theory building allows the researcher to develop a new theory or to adapt an older theory in order to explain "known but previously unexplained empirical generalizations" (Brewer & Hunter, 2006, p. 21). Theory testing also allows the researcher to deduce predictions from an existing theory. The researcher then empirically tests these hypotheses to see if they are valid and also tests the validity of earlier explanations (Brewer & Hunter, 2006).

It is clear that theory building and theory testing require variety. When building a theory it is easier to discriminate amongst the numerous possible theories that might explain a particular generalisation if the empirical generalisations are more varied. When testing theories, if the predictions are more varied then the researcher will be able to more easily discriminate amongst competing theories (Brewer & Hunter, 2006).

Theory building and theory testing are parallels to what are known as inductive and deductive research approaches. The inductive approach to research

consists of a researcher working from data to develop a theory. For example, a researcher may imply reasoning from a specific case in order to generalise to the larger population or to general cases (theory building) (Elmes, Kantowitz, & Roediger, 1989). In the inductive approach conclusions are drawn from facts "the conclusion explains the facts, and the facts support the conclusion" (Cooper & Schindler, 2001, p. 35). The deductive approach (theory testing) consists of reasoning that has come from an existing theory down to particular data. For example, a researcher may imply reasoning from a general theory to a specific case they are researching (Elmes, Kantowitz, & Roediger, 1989). In the deductive approach conclusions can be made only if they fit with the reasons given. In order for deduction to be correct, it has to be both valid and true. The reasons given for a particular conclusion must agree with the real world, therefore, be true, and the conclusion has to follow on from the reason, therefore, be valid. If it is impossible for the conclusion to be false due to the reasons being true then the deduction is valid. If one of the reasons is false or the argument is invalid then the conclusion is untrue (Cooper & Schindler, 2001).

Research ultimately needs to be able to do two things. First being able to determine what type of evidence is needed to either confirm or reject a particular hypothesis and second being able to design methods in order to "discover and measure this other evidence" (Cooper & Schindler, 2001, p. 36). While arguments have raged (Harrison, 2002) about which of the two approaches is better able to represent true scientific method, Wallace (1971) in Harrison (2002)

believes that a combination of both inductive and deductive approaches, shown

in Figure 2.1, while doing empirical research is better as both approaches are

intimately related.
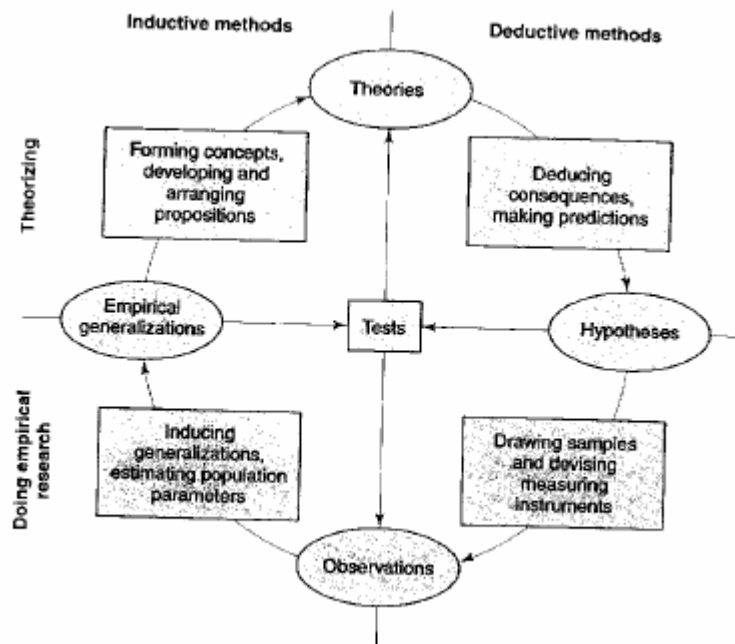
Figure 2.1: Combining inductive and deductive strategies after Wallace (1971)

(Harrison, 2002, p. 160)

In Figure 2.1, the distinction between induction and deduction is no longer so

definite; it is a "cyclical relationship between theory and evidence" (Harrison,

2002, p. 159). Blaikie (1993) and Ragin (1994) call this combination of the two

methods retroduction. "Observed relationships between phenomena lead to

postulation of the existence of structures or mechanisms which, if they existed,

would explain the relationships. These are then tested by further research

activity designed to isolate or observe them, or to eliminate alternative explanations" (Harrison, 2002, p. 159).

In the case of business coaching, research in this area has come from both inductive and deductive approaches. Much of the research and literature that does exist on business coaching has been done in small case studies and then generalised to the larger population of those that have been through coaching (Ahern, 2003; Diedrich, 1996; Foster & Lendl, 1996; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; P. Miller, 2003; Sauer, 1999; Strayer & Rossett, 1994). In many of these cases the researcher was able to draw conclusions based upon the facts of that specific case and then went on to generalise these conclusions to the broader coaching community using an inductive approach.

Other researchers have taken the deductive approach where they have adapted constructs and concepts from existing theory from the fields of training, psychology, consulting and mentoring (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Diedrich, 1996; Grant, 2005a; Harris, 1999; Hart, Blattner, & Leipsic, 2001; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996a, 2000; Levinson, 1996; Minter & Thomas, 2000; Peterson, 1996; Richard, 1999; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1993, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Witherspoon & White, 1996a). Here the researchers applied existing theories to draw conclusions about the business coaching process. An example of such a deductive approach would involve using concepts from persuasive

communication research to explain coaching processes and outcomes.

Coaching highlights the need for changes in the coachee's awareness, attitudes and behaviours; this is central to the persuasive communication literature (Ajzen, 1992).

There is very limited research in the area of business coaching especially when it comes to any particular model or conceptual scheme (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004). According to Moscardo (2005) to bridge the gap between the literature and practice a conceptual scheme must be developed. The following terms are defined below:

Concept – 'a bundle of meanings or characteristics associated with certain events, objects, conditions, situations and behaviors' (Cooper & Schindler, 2001, p. 39).

Construct – sets of interrelated or connected concepts.

Conceptual scheme – set of propositions connecting concepts and constructs to each other, often presented as a diagram.

Model – 'a more detailed representation which describes the behavior of elements in a system where theory is inadequate or non existent' (Cooper & Schindler, 2001, p. 52).

Theory – 'a set of systematically interrelated concepts, definitions and propositions that are advanced to explain and predict phenomena' (Cooper & Schindler, 2001, p. 51) (Moscardo, 2005, p. 28).

To develop a theory one must take a long term approach and use both the inductive and deductive methods interchangeably in order to use the strengths of both approaches. Using only one process could lead to scepticism about the theory as it is a very narrow point of view. Using both processes to develop a theory is supported by numerous researchers (Brewer & Hunter, 1989, 2006; Collis & Hussey, 2003; Cooper & Schindler, 2001; Elmes, Kantowitz, & Roediger, 1985, 1989; Harrison, 2002; Kuhn, 1970; Moscardo, 2005) giving the researcher the ability to use a repetitive cycle. Meredith (1993) argues for the use of an iterative process (See Figure 2.2) using descriptive models to expand the "explanatory frameworks which are tested against reality until they are eventually developed into theories… the result is to validate and add confidence to previous findings, or else invalidate them…" (Meredith, 1993, p. 3).
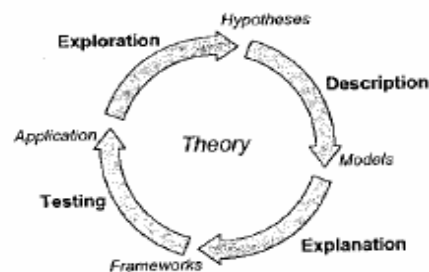
Figure 2.2: Exploration – description – explanation – testing cycle Meredith (1993) in Harrison (2002, p. 161).

2.3 The Process Proposed for This Thesis

The thesis has three main stages. The first deductive stage involves reviewing theory discussed in the coaching literature with a particular emphasis on

counselling psychology and statements made about coaching effectiveness.

This review will be used to develop a preliminary conceptual scheme of

coaching. The second inductive stage will empirically examine the model and

incorporate evidence from coaching participants into the process. The third and

final deductive stage involves revision of the model and setting out predictions for

further study. The rest of this chapter describes the first deductive stage of the

process. In terms of the thesis plan the model was designed in order to help

explore and describe the field of coaching using the two different theoretical

areas, with the aim of helping to improve an explanation of the factors of

effectiveness.

2.4 Existing Discussion of Theory in Coaching

Coaching has been closely linked to a number of psychological theories. This

next section reviews the literature on coaching and researchers that favour a

deductive psychological approach for coaching. Coaching is seen as a way to

improve learning: many coaches have found this to be their common ground no

matter what background they may have. Many definitions have revolved around

the coaches' job of "facilitating the learning required to improve performance"

(Bluckert, 2004, p. 55).

Within the psychological approaches there are those with a psychotherapeutic or

counselling background and then there are those with a clinical and occupational

psychology background. Bluckert (2004) has found that many authors in the field

of coaching argue over what the 'best fit' in terms of psychological background for coaching is. Cognitive behavioural psychology is strongly recommended by some coaching psychologists (JP Anderson, 2002; Decker & Nathan, 1985; Druckman & Bjork, 1991; Grant, 2005a; Hrop, 2004; Lazarus, 1976, 1997; Mahoney, 1991; Peterson, 1996; Prochaska, DiClemente, & Norcross, 1992; Richard, 1999). Laske (1999a) provided a model of coaching derived from constructive-developmental psychology, family therapy and theories of organisational cognition.

There is also research relating coaching to Reality Theory and Choice Theory (Howatt, 2000) and Adlerian perspectives (Page, 2003). Goodstone and Diamante (1998) have argued that Rogerian type therapy is just as effective as psychodynamic therapy, behavioural therapy and other approaches to individual change. Coaching has also been conducted using Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy as a theoretical grounding (JP Anderson, 2002; Bendersky Sacks, 2004; Ellis & Blau, 1998; Ellis & Dryden, 1997; Ellis & MacLaren, 1998). However, they also state that it isn't any one particular theory that is better but rather the actual realisation of the discrepancy between how one sees oneself and how others perceive them.

Some authors have argued for adopting a psychodynamic approach (Berglas, 2002; Delgado, 1999; Foster & Lendl, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997, 2001; Laske, 1999a; Levinson, 1996; O'Neill, 2000; Orenstein, 2000; Richard, 1999;

Rotenberg, 2000; Sperry, 1993, 1997; Tobias, 1996). Alternatively,

"constructive-development psychology, humanistic and existential psychologies

such as gestalt and psycho-synthesis form the overarching frameworks for other

practitioners. Neuro linguistic programming (NLP) is the defining influence for yet

other coaches" (Bluckert, 2004, p. 56). Smith (1993) feels that some coaches

assume a more behavioural focus and others employ a more psychoanalytic

focus. Most, however, exist somewhere in between (Kampa-Kokesch &

Anderson, 2001). While Garman, Whiston and Zlatoper (2000) and Thach and

Heinselman (1999) believe that coaching has psychological roots, they also state

that "there are currently no universally recognised standards of expertise in

executive coaching related to training in applied psychology – or any other facets

of the practice, for that matter" (Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000, p. 201).

Bluckert (2004) argues that while a number of researchers are busy fighting over

which theoretical background is the 'best fit' for coaching, it would be better to

see which researchers are prepared to learn from other areas in order to

incorporate a number of skills from different areas in the coaching process. Each

approach needs to be empirically assessed and discarded or adapted if it is

found lacking.

Another form of coaching is Ontological Coaching. This particular type of

coaching focuses on behaviour and communication and is closely linked to the

area of humanistic psychology. It specifically targets the quality of conversations

in the workplace and how these impact on the relationships within the workplace.

"Ontological Coaching is the practice that has developed to facilitate ontological learning and support people to make important shifts in their way of being" (Sieler, 2003, p. 3). The following diagram shows 'how way of being underpins behaviour and performance'.
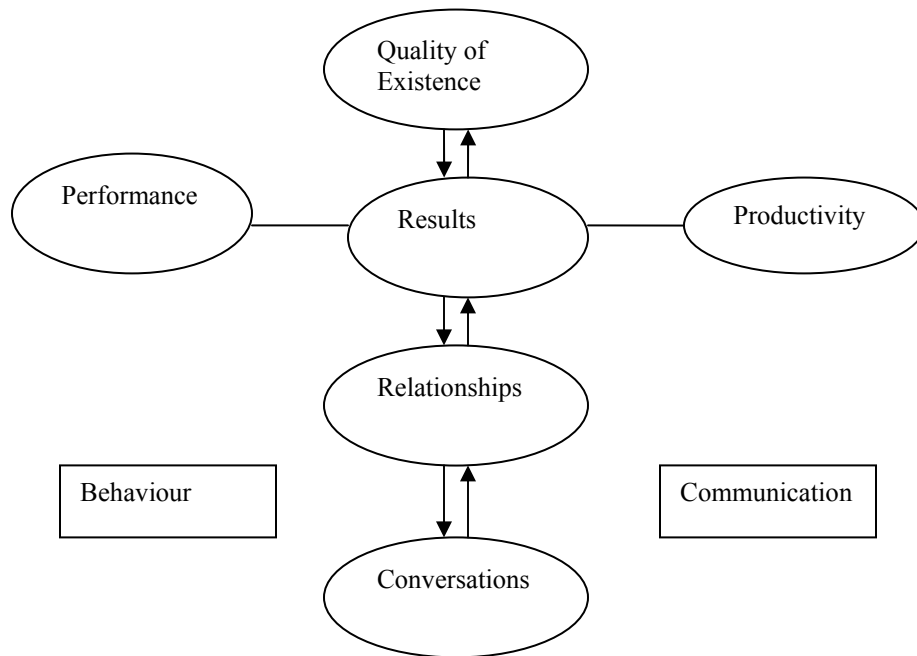
Figure 2.3: How way of being underpins behaviour and performance (Sieler, 2003, p. 3)

Sieler (2001) states that by coaching to 'way of being' the opportunity for deeper learning to provide sustainable change not just for the individual but for teams and the organisation can more likely occur. By changing our way of being we are able to observe ourselves and our situations differently. This in turn can lead to different courses of action and new opportunities. Sieler believes that body language and even small and subtle shifts in the body can have profound effects on mood and how people feel about themselves and the actions that they take

due to this change. He states that one must be able to transform our 'way of being' both individually and collectively (Sieler, 2001). While Ontological Coaching is not psychotherapy it is interesting to note that "similar developments in the utilisation of a new understanding of language have occurred in psychotherapy" (Sieler, 2003, p. 9).

This ontological approach is firmly rooted in humanistic psychology. Coaching and humanistic psychology both see people as generally good, healthy and rational but sometimes in need of change. People may be unhappy but they are not sick, they are incongruent. According to Eggers and Clark (2000) the coachee's self-image and their everyday experience is distorted. It is the coach's job then to provide a supportive, non-judgemental environment which motivates the coachee to explore their options and to find the answers themselves. In this environment trust is easily established which leads to a basis for successful discovery, ownership, action and positive change. It is this relationship which is the key to the coach's power to achieve change quickly and successfully. A successful coach is able to understand the world as the coachee does. They are able to convey this understanding to the coachee enabling them to see themselves and the problems more clearly (Eggers & Clark, 2000).

Grant and Cavanagh (2004) state that "despite the rapid increase in peer-reviewed literature, empirical evidence for the efficacy of these theoretical models, techniques and methodologies remains elusive" (Grant & Cavanagh,

2004, p. 15). Grant (2005a, p. 18) goes on to say that "Coaching Psychology involves the application of the research, theory and practice of the behavioural science of psychology to the enhancement of life experience, work performance and personal growth of normal (i.e., non-clinical) populations".

Therefore, there is no single coherent theoretical approach summarised in the coaching literature. Many coaching supporters adopt a particular theory as a way of supporting the value of the proposed outcomes of coaching rather than as identifying variables likely to contribute to those outcomes. Further, very few proponents of these different approaches to coaching provide any empirical evidence to support their position. The review of theoretical discussion in the coaching literature does however suggest that psychology might be the best place to seek appropriate theory.

2.5 How Persuasive Communication Relates to Coaching

Bettinghaus (1973) defines persuasion as a communication process in which the communicator (the coach) seeks to elicit a desired response (getting the coachee to take part in a particular action or change a particular behaviour). The difference between communication and persuasive communication lies in the intent of the source. Persuasive communication is when the source of the message hopes the receiver will respond in a particular way to their message. The intent of the message is to change the behaviour or influence the behaviour of the receiver in a specified manner (Bettinghaus, 1973). Persuasive appeals

aim to motivate the reader to take some form of action (Dwyer, 1999). The figure

below illustrates the communication process in the context of coaching.
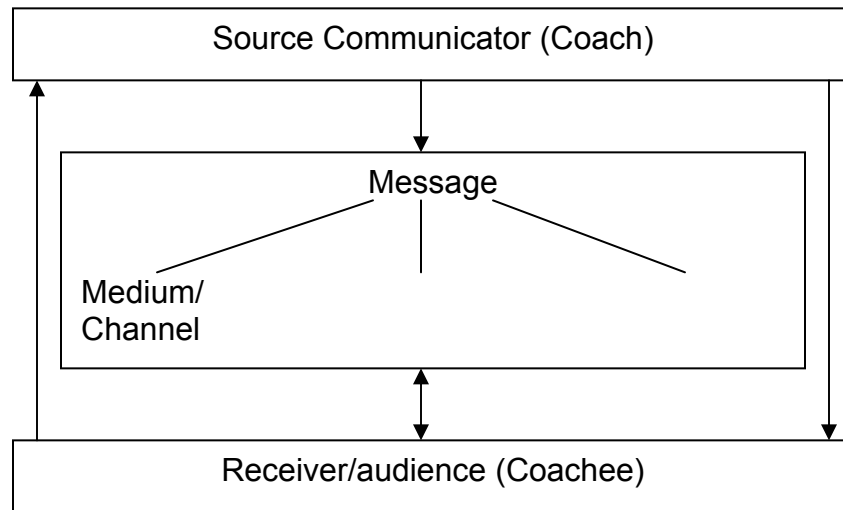
Figure 2.4: Basic model of communication adapted from Moscardo (1999)

This model when applied to the coaching process, sees the source

communicator as the coach and the receiver/audience as the coachee. The

message has three components to it. The first component has to do with the

content of the message and the way in which that content is organised. The

structure of the message "refers to such things as providing a list of facts versus

telling a story or asking questions versus providing a set of answers" (Moscardo,

1999, p. 33). The third component has to do with how the message is presented

or sent to the receiver (the medium/channel). In the case of coaching this could

be either in one-on-one sessions, in workshops and/or for varying time periods.

Persuasive communication is one way to characterise the interpersonal relationship between the coach and coachee. Further, many of the claims made in the coaching literature about what contributes to effective coaching are similar to factors identified in the persuasive communication literature as contributing to attitude and behaviour change. The table below lists some of these factors common to both persuasive communication and coaching.

Table 2.1

Factors of persuasive communication that relate to coaching

COMMUNICATOR/COACH
1. self confidence (Ajzen, 1992)
2. intelligence (Ajzen, 1992)
3. familiarity with the issues (Ajzen, 1992)
4. making sure that the coachees are not pre-occupied with other matters (Ajzen, 1992; Bless, Bohner, Schwarz, & Strack, 1990; G. Bower, 1981; Clark & Isen, 1982; Mackie & Worth, 1989; Petty, Gleicher, & Baker, 1991)
5. clarity of presentation (Ajzen, 1992)
6. mannerisms (Ajzen, 1992)
7. facial expressions (Ajzen, 1992)
8. hand and body movements (Ajzen, 1992)
9. credibility (Ajzen, 1992)
10. trustworthiness (Ajzen, 1992)
11. perceived expertise of the coach (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984)
12. professional background (Berman & Norton, 1985)
13. likeable (Chaiken, 1980; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983)
14. organised (Muchinsky, 2003)
15. creative (Sternberg, 1997)
16. calm (Maier, 1955)
17. not being distracted (Ajzen, 1992; Petty, Wells, & Brock, 1976)
18. being available for meetings (Alba & Marmorstein, 1987; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984)

AUDIENCE/COACHEE
19. motivation (Ajzen, 1992; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002)
20. self determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996)
21. goal striving (Ajzen, 1992; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002)
22. being involved in the process (Ajzen, 1992)
23. having enough time (Ajzen, 1992)

OTHER
24. number of people thought to endorse the message (Axsom, Yates, & Chaiken, 1987; Wood, 2000)
25. the number of meetings and their length (Alba & Marmorstein, 1987; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984)

Within the area of persuasive communication there are two main themes in the research – what contributes to changes in attitude and what contributes to changes in behaviour (Crano & Prislin, 2006). In the first theme one of the key theories is the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) while in the second theme a dominant approach is the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

2.5.1 Elaboration Likelihood Model

Attitude change has become a key focus for persuasion researchers (Crano & Prislin, 2006; Morris, Woo, & Singh, 2005). Morris, Woo, Greason and Kim (2002) found that a positive or negative change in affect due to a change in the stimuli could be linked to behaviour changes. This confirmed Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) study where they were also able to conclude that behaviours and attitudes are strongly linked. Wood (2000) states that there are three central motives that can help to generate attitude change and resistance. These include concerns with the self, with others and whether there will be a reward or punishment related and thirdly, for the receiver to have a valid understanding of reality. Therefore, for the attitude and behaviour to change one must want to change the self, ensuring the coherence and favourable evaluation of the self, or one must want to be accepted into a particular group or have satisfactory relations with a particular group or wants to make sure that they are informed and factual in their understanding of the issue in the appeal (Wood, 2000). "The

desire for an informed, correct position supposedly orients message recipients to process the content of the appeal and results in enduring private change in judgement" (Wood, 2000, p. 541).

Morris, Woo and Singh (2005) state that the perceived lack of support for a strong link between attitude and behaviour change lead to the development of models such as Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM). Dual-process models such as the ELM argue that if the receiver is properly motivated, they can then elaborate or analyse particular persuasive messages. If the message is informative and supported by data and is presented logically than it will persuade, if it isn't then it will fail to persuade (Crano & Prislin, 2006). The ELM model suggests two routes for attitude change, the central route and the peripheral route. Morris, Woo and Singh (2005, p. 79) state that "the central route emphasises a high relevance of the message to the individual". The central route deals with the content used in the message and the extent to which the receiver is encouraged to process or 'elaborate' on the arguments presented. This means that if an individual feels that the message is relevant and of interest to them then they will be more likely to think about the message in detail. However, if the receiver is unmotivated or unable to interpret the message they will use auxiliary features called peripheral cues or heuristics to form temporary attitudinal response (Crano & Prislin, 2006). The peripheral route centres on the message cues includes aspects such as: pictures, the use of colour and the representation of people and lifestyles. "The

peripheral route is said to be the path taken when the message had little or no relevance to its receiver. In the peripheral route, the individual concentrates on heuristic cues like attractive expert sources and number rather than the content of arguments employed by the message in order to process it" (Morris, Woo, & Singh, 2005, p. 81). "Such attitudes are less resistant to counterpressures, less stable, and less likely to impel behavior than are those formed as a result of thorough processing" (Crano & Prislin, 2006, p. 348). The model suggests that a change in attitude is more likely to occur through cognition (central route) rather than through emotion (peripheral route).

A number of factors have consistently been found to encourage elaboration of messages or taking a central route to attitude change, including:

- o personal relevance of the topic to the message recipient
- o recipients who have a higher need for cognition, higher intelligence, greater expertise in the topic area and higher self-esteem
- o the recipients are involved in group discussions of the topic
- o the topic is related to the values and/or goals of the recipient
- o the message is framed around positive arguments and or contains unexpected or surprising elements
- o topic area is associated with strong, accessible attitudes (Ajzen, 2001; Fiske, 2004; Moscardo, 1999; Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997; Wood, 2000).

In addition the research suggests (Ajzen, 2001; Fiske, 2004; Moscardo, 1999; Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997; Wood, 2000) that when these conditions exist the characteristics of the source or communicator are not influential, rather it appears that communicator characteristics become important when these other conditions do not exist (Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997). In this latter situation it seems that credible or expert communicators are more likely to be effective than attractive ones (Baron & Byrne, 1997), with credibility being dependent on perceived intelligence and familiarity with the topic.

This method of message elaboration can be related to coaching in several ways. Firstly, there are connections through discussions of motivation. It has been argued that the coachee must want to change their own particular behaviours or attitudes (Gegner, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003). They may want to conform to a groups attitudes (i.e. the organisation) due to specific rewards or punishments that are provided and this can be linked to coaching wanting to help the coachee align their personal goals with that of the organisations goals (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Rich, 1998). Or they are seeking to be more informed and accurate about a particular topic so that they can make the correct choice (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996).

Secondly, a consideration of the ELM approach suggests that the credibility of the coach should be an important factor in situations where the coachee is inexperienced or has less expertise, has unclear goals, or is less committed to the process. Other suggestions that could be developed include:

- a focus on personal rather than organisational goals should produce a more favourable attitude towards coaching

- coachees with greater competence, experience and expertise should hold more favourable attitudes towards coaching

- combinations of group and individual sessions should work better than either alone

- an alignment of between the values and goals of the recipient should produce more favourable attitudes towards coaching

- a focus on the coaching content and process should be related to greater perceived coaching effectiveness.

2.5.2 Theory of Planned Behavior

Coaching is about both changes in coachee attitudes and behaviour. The Theory of Planned Behavior helps to explain the link between attitude and behaviour change in people. This theory states that people usually behave in a way that is generally favourable with respect to things and people they like and to display unfavourable behaviours toward things and people they dislike. The theory suggests a fundamental sequence of events in which actions follow from behavioural intentions (Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004). The intentions are

consistent with the attitude toward the object and this attitude derives from

prominent beliefs about the object. Therefore, barring unforseen events, people

translate their plans into actions (Ajzen, 1988). The figure below outlines the key

components and processes of the Theory of Planned Behavior.

```
┌─────────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────────┐
│ The person's belief │─────▶│ Attitude toward the  │
│ that the behaviour  │      │ behaviour            │
│ leads to certain    │      └──────────────────────┘   ┌───────────┐
│ outcomes and their  │                                  │ Enabling  │
│ evaluations of      │                                  │ Context   │
│ these outcomes      │      ┌──────────────────────┐    └───────────┘
└─────────────────────┘      │ Relative             │
                             │ importance of        │    ┌───────────┐   ┌───────────┐
┌─────────────────────┐      │ attitudinal and      │    │ Intention │──▶│ Behaviour │
│ The person's belief │      │ normative            │    └───────────┘   └───────────┘
│ that specific       │      │ considerations       │
│ individuals or      │      └──────────────────────┘
│ groups think they   │
│ should or should not│
│ perform the behaviour│     ┌──────────────────────┐
│ and their motivation│─────▶│ Subjective norm      │
│ to comply with the  │      └──────────────────────┘
│ specific referents  │
└─────────────────────┘
```

Figure 2.5: Factors determining a person's behaviour adapted from Ajzen &

Fishbein (1980)

Generally speaking, the Theory of Planned Behavior is based on the assumption

that human beings are usually quite rational and that they make systematic use

of the information available to them. Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) argue that people

consider the implications of their actions before they decide to engage or not

engage in a given behaviour. Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) believe that a person's

intentions are derived from two basic factors, one personal in nature and the other related to social influences. The personal factor relates to how the individual evaluates the outcome of performing a particular behaviour. The individual may deem this outcome positively or negatively. This factor is called the attitude toward the behaviour. The second determinant of whether an individual will perform a behaviour or not is related to how a person perceives the social pressure placed upon them (Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004). As this factor deals with perception it is called the *subjective norm*.

According to the Theory of Planned Behavior, attitudes are a function of beliefs. Usually, an individual who believes that performing a behaviour will lead to mostly favourable outcomes will have a positive attitude toward performing the behaviour. Whereas an individual who believes that performing a behaviour will lead to mostly negative outcomes will be more likely to hold an unfavourable attitude towards the behaviour. The beliefs that underlie a person's attitude toward the behaviour are termed *behavioural beliefs* (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Subjective norms are also the function of beliefs. However they are the beliefs of a specific individual or group and how they think the behaviour should be performed. Beliefs underlying an individual's subjective norm are called *normative beliefs*. If it is socially expected that an individual behave in a particular way then they will be more likely to conform to that behaviour. Where it is socially unacceptable or less favourable to act in a particular way, the

individual will be less likely to perform the behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Finally the TPB notes that various factors also mediate the link between intention

and behaviour including the individuals actual ability to perform the behaviour

and the availability or otherwise of the resources and tools necessary to

complete the behaviour.

The Theory of Planned Behavior can also be related to coaching. The coachee

realises that if a particular behaviour change is going to result in either rewards

or punishments than they could be more likely to engage in the behaviour or

attitude change. The coachee could look more favourably at a particular

behaviour or attitude change if the organisation is supportive.

It is important to note the double arrow between the message and receiver in

Figure 2.4. This highlights the fact that receivers are not passive in the

communication process but can choose to be active and provide feedback to the

source communicator, therefore providing a cyclical communication process.

Interpersonal communication is also part of the coaching model that Quick and

Macik-Frey (2004) use. They favour this approach because "it reaches beyond

the superficial mask of control, drive and competition and develops within the

executive an awareness, understanding and management of the emotions that

are fundamental to his or her being" (Quick & Macik-Frey, 2004, p. 71). The

main purpose of using deep interpersonal communication is for the executive to

have that need for someone to listen to them and for them to be able to have a

personal connection where they are able to express their ideas, wants and pains in a safe environment. This highlights the importance of the continuing and close interpersonal relationship between the coach and coachee and this suggests that the literature on therapy or counselling psychology would be a valuable area to examine.

2.6 How Counselling Psychology Relates to Coaching

Counselling psychology provides a number of techniques and methods which many coaches draw on. As in previous sections there are a wide range of diverse views reported in the coaching literature Levinson (1996), for example states that psychoanalytic consultants tend to help clients to take responsibility for their behaviour and achieve the freedom to make their own choices. Whereas, a coaching consultant offers suggestions and guidance to the coachee that are within the context of the organisation.

Goodstone and Diamante (1998) however, argue for the psychodynamic approach as it highlights the need for the individual to change by doing some hard thinking in order to understand their feeling toward the therapist. This is contrasted with cognitive therapy where they suggest that "illogical thinking or reasoning must be overcome through Socratic logic or other convincing methods" (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998, p. 155). Goodstone and Diamante (1998) also believe that it is Carl Rogers' Person Centred Therapy that appears to be the

best match with the theory of self awareness as the central ingredient in achieving change.

Lazarus (1989) believes that a coach is able to facilitate improvement by encompassing seven dimensions of personality using cognitive behaviour therapy. In this case it is suggested that the coach needs to continually ask the following questions:

1. Which behaviours need to be increased or decreased?
2. What feature in the make up of executives affect is dominant?
3. Does the coachee list any physical sensations that associate with the problem?
4. What sorts of images are described by the coachee's language?
5. What sorts of internal beliefs does the coachee have about what is expected of them?
6. How does the coachee relate to others they have to work with?
7. Are there any other factors that are affecting the coachee's performance?

Once the initial assessment of the coachee is completed the coach can plan how to intervene on each of the seven modalities (Richard, 1999). This model focuses on coaching as a continual process within a developmental context. This approach may seem as though it is solely intended for a cognitive – behavioural consultant, however, Lazarus (1997), states that this is not so. He feels that the model can be used by therapists or coaches in a number of fields

including; family therapy, helping someone with their organisational development,

or using it for creative problem solving.

As with persuasive communication, counselling psychology also has a number of

factors that are similar to those made in the coaching literature. These are listed

in the table below.

Table 2.2

Factors of counselling psychology that relate to coaching

COACHING PROCESS
Short term treatment 3 to 20 sessions(Bendersky Sacks, 2004)
Using methods of inquiry and goal-setting, with follow-up on results
(Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; Presby Kodish, 2002)
Meeting with clients in person and/or by telephone (Presby Kodish, 2002)
Tailoring structure of work to suit each client (Presby Kodish, 2002)
Confront the executive on the reality of their behaviour (Brotman, Liberi, &
Wasylyshyn, 1998)
Use the executive's developmental history and test data to identify
themes in the executive's life (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998)
Ability to listen, empathize, provide feedback, create scenarios,
challenge, and explore the executive's world (Brotman, Liberi, &
Wasylyshyn, 1998; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Expectancy x Value Models (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen, 1977)
Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, &
Chicoine, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996)
Self determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; R. Ryan, Sheldon,
Kasser, & Deci, 1996)
Telic theory (Affleck et al., 2001; Emmons, 1986; Omodei & Wearing, 1990;
Palys & Little, 1983)
Locus of control (Muchinsky, 2003)
Allegiance to a particular process (Barber, Crits-Christoph, & Luborsky,
1995; Shaw et al., 1999)
Style and choice of intervention (Robinson, Berman, & Neimeyer, 1990)
Client and therapist need to mutually agree on tasks (Bordin, 1976)
Endorse and value goals of treatment (Bordin, 1976)
Adherence to treatment approaches (Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien,
& Auerbach, 1985)
Reactions to client and therapists' behaviour directly affect outcome
(Strupp, 1973)

COACH

Holding clients accountable for their actions and reactions (Kilburg, 1996b; Presby Kodish, 2002)

Graduate training in psychology (Berglas, 2002; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Walker & Smither, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2001, 2003)

Age (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)

Gender (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)

Race (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)

Credible (Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981)

Experience (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989)

Values (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)

Attitude (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)

Emotional wellbeing (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)

Beliefs (orientation) (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989)

Empathy (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)

Warmth (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)

Unconditional regard (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)

Congruency (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)

Competency (Barber, Crits-Christoph, & Luborsky, 1995; Shaw et al., 1999)

COACHING EMPHASIS

Self efficacy (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Want to move to a higher level of functioning (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Want to learn new skills (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Seek a better, more balanced life (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Seek self-understanding (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Seek focus and motivation (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Interested in learning how to change (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Focusing on learning and developing potential (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Looking for solutions to internal blocks to change in behaviour (Presby Kodish, 2002)

Active involvement by patient (Michalak & Schulte, 2002; Schulte & Eifert, 2002)

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PATIENT AND THERAPIST

Unconditional client acceptance by therapist (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Bendersky Sacks, 2004; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)

Establishes safety in relationship (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998)

Relationship between patient and therapist (Eaton, Abeles, & Gutfreund, 1988; Freud, 1913, 1958; Greenson, 1965; Horvath & Luborsky, 1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Krupnick et al., 1996; Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998)

There are a number of similarities between the psychology related research and the results of research in persuasive communication, but there are differences that might be important to coaching. In most cases persuasive communication deals with a larger audience that has not had to make any commitment to participation in the activity. In coaching and counselling however, the person being coached or counselled is usually in a one-on-one situation and the activity has a much greater profile in their lives. Thus there is a greater emphasis on both the participant, their relationship and the effort and commitment of those involved. Therefore it could be expected that a combination of these two theoretical areas would be most valuable to coaching.

It can be seen that coaching can draw from both communication theoretical backgrounds and counselling theoretical backgrounds. Appendix A provides a more detailed analysis of the factors related to effective outcomes in both therapy and persuasive communication. This analysis notes where these factors have also been proposed as important in the business coaching literature. This analysis produced an extensive list of potential variables to be considered. One way to shorten this list is to return to the business coaching literature to seek summary approaches. Kilburg (2001) provides such a summary in his descriptive model of coaching effectiveness.

2.7 Kilburg's Model of Coaching Effectiveness

Kilburg (2001) argued that the factors that contribute to the overall effectiveness of coaching can be organised into a set of eight key elements. These include:

- o coachee (client) commitment
- o coach's commitment
- o nature of the problems and issues
- o structure of coaching
- o coachee (client) – coach relationship
- o coaching interventions used by the coach
- o adherence to protocol
- o organisational setting

He argues that each of the eight key elements helps to determine whether a coaching assignment will achieve its long-term goals and result in the process being effective (Kilburg, 2001).
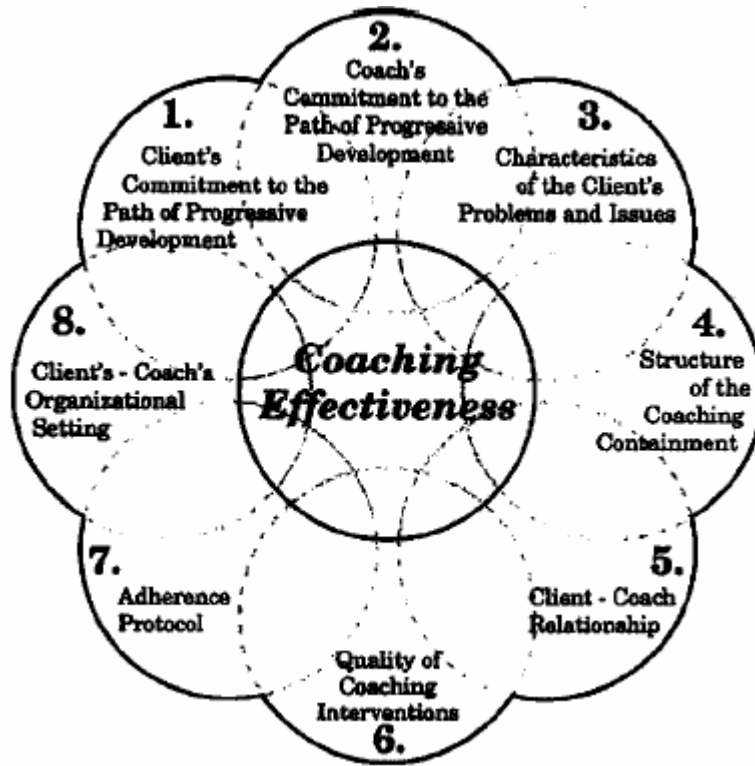
Figure 2.6: A model of coaching effectiveness (Kilburg, 2001, p. 256)

The following table according to Kilburg (2001) illustrates how each of the variables consist of a number of components that must be considered by the coach and coachee during the coaching process. This list can be used to direct attention to a shorter list of variables to be included in the coaching model for the present study.

Table 2.3

Key elements in a model of coaching effectiveness (Kilburg, 2001, p. 257).

Table 1
Key Elements in a Model of Coaching Effectiveness

1. Client's commitment to the path of progressive development; levels of:
   - Self-awareness and understanding of problems and issues
   - Adherence behavior
   - Competence–cognitive complexity
   - Psychosocial development
   - Curiosity, ability, and willingness to learn; sufficient inquiry and communication skills
   - Courage
   - Diversity dimensions
   - Development drive and motivation
2. Coach's commitment to the path of progressive development; levels of:
   - Self-awareness and understanding of problems and issues
   - Adherence behavior
   - Competence–cognitive complexity
   - Psychosocial development
   - Curiosity, ability, and willingness to learn; sufficient inquiry and communication skills
   - Courage
   - Diversity dimensions
3. Characteristics of the client's problems and issues
   - Frequency
   - Intensity
   - Duration
   - Degree of jeopardy present
   - Degree of defensiveness present
   - Degree of conflict present
   - Degree of emotionality present
4. Structure of the coaching containment
   - Clarity of the agreement

- Goal specificity
- Resources committed
- Roadblocks and barriers identified
5. Client–coach relationship
   - Sufficient trust and mutual respect
   - Accurate empathy
   - Warmth
   - Nonpossessive positive regard
   - Tolerance for interventions
   - Tolerance for defensiveness and conflicts
   - Diversity dimensions
   - Playful challenge
   - Tactful exchanges
   - Authenticity and genuineness
6. Quality of coaching interventions
   - Constructive use of levels of reflection
   - Wise choice of interventions
   - Client openness to technique/method chosen
   - Interventions are necessary and sufficient
   - Interventions are accurate and timely
7. Adherence protocol
   - Anticipates client resistance and adherence problems
   - Adherence methods are necessary and sufficient
   - Techniques are customized to client needs
   - Anticipates coach's resistance and adherence problems
   - Makes appropriate use of client motivators
   - Makes appropriate use of client and coach strengths
8. Client's and coach's organizational setting
   - Support for coaching
   - Degree of resilience or regression

2.8 A Preliminary Model of Coaching using Persuasive Communication and Counselling Psychology

Figure 2.7 below is a coaching model designed to summarize the different parts involved in the process and is built from the areas of persuasive communication and counselling psychology and from Kilburg's (2001) eight key elements.
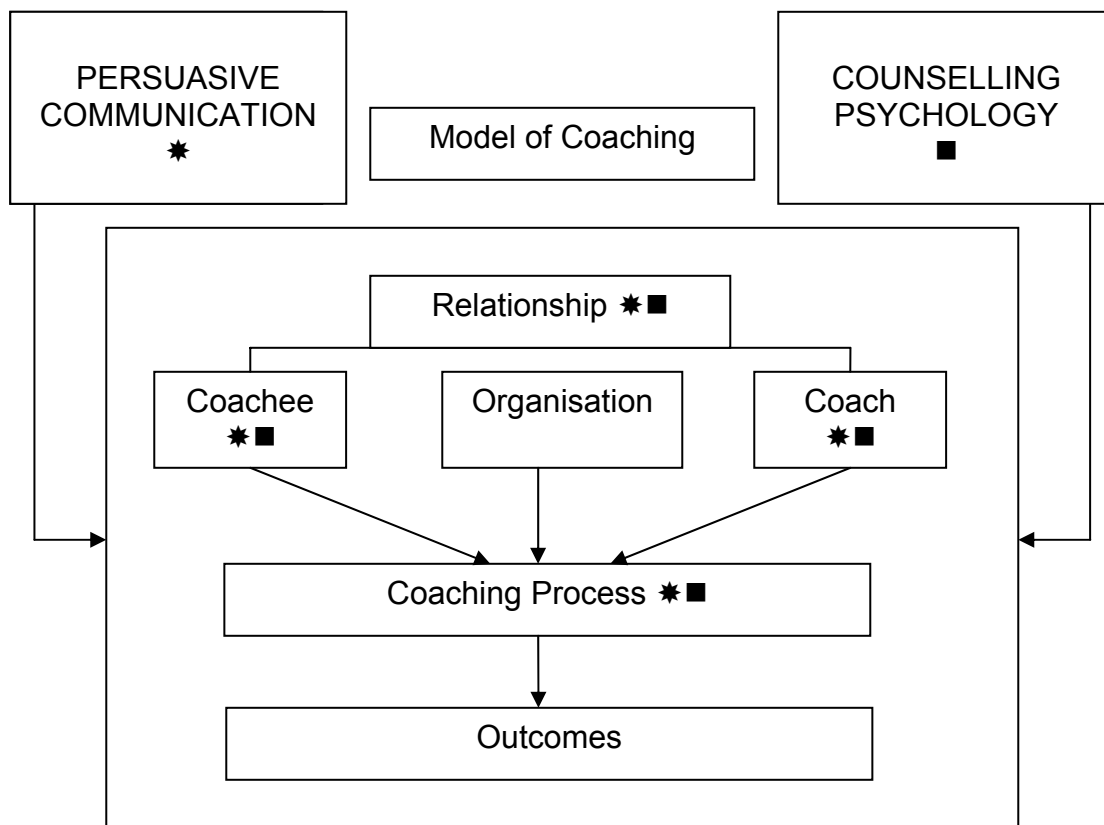
Figure 2.7: Preliminary coaching model

This model is a broad framework to help organise the more specific variables of each section involved in the coaching process. The two areas of theory used in this thesis (persuasive communication and counselling psychology) are presented and shown entering the model. Within the Model of Coaching the three main elements that make up the coaching process are displayed; the coachee, the organisation, the coach. These three variables lead into the coaching process, but it is important to note that the relationship between the coach and coachee is also important and is also depicted in the diagram. The coaching process then leads into the specific outcomes. The specific areas of theory are also shown in each variable that they affect.

2.8.1 Overview of the different parts of the model

The following section overviews each of the major components that make up the preliminary coaching model in Figure 2.7. The next sections will look at the variables that might be included in each component. In particular variables common to both theoretical areas and the coaching literature will be examined.

2.8.1.1 Coach

Coaches come from a number of different backgrounds (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998). These backgrounds include psychiatry, psychology, education, human resources and general business (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004). Each specialised area claims they have the necessary competencies and approaches for professional leadership development. While the debate over

whether being psychologically trained is essential to being a coach continues, a

number of specific factors/competencies are also being proposed. The following

list represents a number of core competencies that have been proposed as

critical for effectiveness in the coaching literature.

Table 2.4

Factors a coach should possess

1. Experience in psychology (Berglas, 2002; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
2. Experience in organisational development (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003)
3. Experience in human resources (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003)
4. Relevant industry experience (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003)
5. Trustworthy (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003)
6. Approachable (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003)
7. *Be able to establish a long lasting relationship (Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003)
8. Be supportive (Witherspoon & White, 1996a)
9. *Enhance the skills the coachee already has (Wales, 2003; Witherspoon & White, 1996a)
10. *Enhance quality of life (Gegner, 1997; Gooding, 2004)
11. Check the quality of information (Wade, 2004)
12. Check that coaching is the best strategy for the individual and the circumstances (Wade, 2004)
13. Maintain confidentiality (Wade, 2004)
14. Able to make the coachee aware of the coach's skills, working style and limitations (Wade, 2004)
15. Making sure the coachee is committed to the process (Wade, 2004)
16. Experience in business (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
17. Credible (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
18. Interpersonal effectiveness (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
19. *Have good listening skills (Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
20. Be empathetic (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
21. Have patience (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
22. Have analytical problem solving skills (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
23. Be creative (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
24. Have a sense of humor (Wasylyshyn, 2003)

* Factors that have been identified in empirical studies

While some researchers favour a psychologically trained coach, others state that

it is important for a psychologist in the coaching field to have an understanding of

how the business world works. Wasylyshyn (2003) suggests that those who

have not held business roles should increase their business knowledge through training experiences and absorb themselves in the business literature. Diedrich and Kilburg (2001, p. 203) agree that in order for a coach to be successful a required amount of "knowledge about organizations, management, leadership, economics, and a host of other disciplines" is essential. Psychologists who enter into the coaching profession don't have to be executives themselves, however, they need to have an in-depth understanding of how these people work and how they can successfully intervene with them (Diedrich & Kilburg, 2001).

Levinson (1996) states that the coach must have experience or a comprehensive understanding of the field in which they are coaching. They need to be able to demonstrate a certain amount of authority in relation to the coaching process, the business world and the political implications for the organisation that the coachee is working for in order for the coaching process to be successful.

Having an external coach (which is the main focus of this thesis) can provide a number of benefits. Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) found that an external coach is seen to be more credible than a peer coach, which is consistent with social psychology literature on persuasion. They have also found that external coaches were more effective in bringing about changes in executives performance than peers, this is consistent with a previous study by Hillery and Wexley (1974). Effectiveness in the coaching process is more likely if the coach is credible, Sue-

Chan and Latham (2004) provide some empirical support for the use of a credible external coach. Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) also found correlations between credibility and satisfaction which are likely to determine whether a person will be effective as a coach.

Grant's (2005a, p. 26) situational coaching model provides an understanding of the different types of roles a coach may take on, depending on the situation surrounding the client/coachee.

3 **Coach as** **Personal Facilitator** Shared ownership. Partnering. Collaborative brainstorming and creation of personal reflective space.	**2** **Coach as** **Trainer/Teacher** Psycho-educational approach. Coach explains and teaches models and methods for change.	
4 **Coach as Mentor** Minimal direction given by coach. Probably infrequent meetings. High degree of self-directed learning and development from coachee.	**1** **Coach as Consultant** Coach drives coaching agenda, offers suggestions based on expertise, leads and directs coaching process.	

HIGH / LOW — Level of Supportive Behaviours

LOW — Level of Directive Behaviour — HIGH

Figure 2.8: Situational coaching (Grant, 2005a, p. 26), adapted from (Blanchard, 1985; Chapman, Best, & Van Casteren, 2003)

The following table summarises a number of factors that have been found in both counselling psychology and communication literature on the different factors a

coach needs for effective outcomes. The highlighted areas indicate those factors

that have been selected for examination in the first study. Not all factors could

be analysed due to constraints of the doctorate. Those chosen reflect their

coverage in the coaching literature as important for overall effectiveness. Some

factors were also chosen because there is debate over their value in the

coaching literature. For example, perceived expertise or professional

background is seen by some to be important while others argue that it is the

expertise in coaching that is more important (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark,

2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, &

Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003).

Table 2.5

Coach factors

Biological/Demographic Factors
- age (Ajzen, 1992; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)
- gender (Ajzen, 1992; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)
- race (Ajzen, 1992; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)
- religion (Beutler, Machador & Neufeldt, 1994)
- height (Ajzen, 1992)
Personality Traits
- self confidence (Ajzen, 1992)
- extraversion (Ajzen, 1992)
- credible (Ajzen, 1992; Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981)
- trustworthiness (Ajzen, 1992)
- perceived expertise (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984) /professional background (Berman & Norton, 1985)
• degree (Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989)
• training/skill level (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989)
• years of experience (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989)
- likeable/attractive (Chaiken, 1980; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983)
- values (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)
- attitudes (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)
• cultural attitudes (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)
• emotional wellbeing (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)
- beliefs (orientation) (Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989)
- empathy (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)
- warmth (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)
- acceptance of patient (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)
- unconditional regard (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)
- congruency (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)
- organised (Muchinsky, 2003)
- creative (Sternberg, 1997)
- calm (Maier, 1955)
Other
- competence (Barber, Crits-Christoph, & Luborsky, 1995; Shaw et al., 1999)
- allegiance to a particular brand (process) of psychotherapy (Barber, Crits-Christoph, & Luborsky, 1995; Shaw et al., 1999)
- ethical (Laske, 1999a; Rich, 1998)
- communication style (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
- supportive (Witherspoon & White, 1996a)

■ both persuasive communication and counselling psychology theory

■ counselling psychology theory only

■ persuasive communication theory only

■ coaching literature

2.8.1.2 Coachee

In order for the coaching process to work effectively the coachee must want to change and develop. The aim of coaching is to encourage change and growth in coachees as their own insights enable them to develop (Brouwer, 1964). According to Kiel et al., (1996) many coachees are not 'psychologically minded', most even rebel against the idea of having a coach or anything to do with the 'soft side' of business. Therefore as Wasylyshyn (2003) pointed out a coach must not use psychological jargon when dealing with the coachee as this could have a detrimental effect on the process.

The coachee's responsibilities during the coaching process include:
- o being able to contribute equally to the setting of objectives, the process and the measurement of success
- o being able to demonstrate commitment by completing agreed assigned tasks
- o being able to give direct feedback (goals, needs, wants) (Wade, 2004).

The coachee needs to be able to do all of these tasks if they want the coaching process to work and be successful. The following table displays the different factors provided by literature from both psychological theories and communication theories that a coachee needs or could be influenced by during the coaching process. Again factors highlighted have been chosen for further analysis in the first study. Also due to constraints of the doctorate not all factors could be analysed. For example, some of the factors (e.g. intelligence, self

esteem) would have required the researcher to conduct a separate study to

obtain data and this was not possible in the time frame of the doctorate.

Table 2.6

Coachee factors

Biological/Demographic Factors
- gender (Ajzen, 1992)
Social Properties
- social status (Ajzen, 1992)
Personality Traits
- self esteem (Ajzen, 1992)
- self efficacy (Gegner, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
- intelligence (Ajzen, 1992)
- motivation/self determined goal striving (Ajzen, 1992; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002)
• Telic Theory (Affleck et al., 2001; Emmons, 1986; Omodei & Wearing, 1990; Palys & Little, 1983)
• Expectancy x Value Models (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen, 1977)
• Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Deci, 1975; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996)
• Self Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996)
- locus of control (Muchinsky, 2003)
- confidence (Ajzen, 1992)
Other
- involvement (Ajzen, 1992)
- familiarity with issues (Ajzen, 1992)
- pre-occupation with other matters (mood) (Ajzen, 1992; Bless, Bohner, Schwarz, & Strack, 1990; G. Bower, 1981; Clark & Isen, 1982; Mackie & Worth, 1989; Petty, Gleicher, & Baker, 1991)
- cognitive ability (ability to interpret the message) (Ajzen, 1992)
- lack of time (Ajzen, 1992)
- number of other people thought to endorse the message/position (Axsom, Yates, & Chaiken, 1987)
- *message repetition (external factors) (Ajzen, 1992)
- *clarity of presentation (external factors) (Ajzen, 1992)
- effort (Atkinson, 1957; Deci, 1975; Heckhausen, 1977; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996)
- paying attention (S. Stevens, Hynan, & Allen, 2000)

* overlaps with the coaching process

■ both persuasive communication and counselling psychology theory

■ counselling psychology theory only

■ persuasive communication theory only

2.8.1.3 Coaching process

The professional coaching process is supposed to be used to help the coachee develop self-directed learning and achieve personal growth (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004). The main focus of coaching should be on constructing solutions rather than analysing problems. It is usually distinguished by its collaborative and egalitarian approach, rather than an authoritarian, relationship between the coach and coachee. Emphasis is placed on a collaborative goal setting approach between the coach and coachee. This is used to support an argument that the coach does not need specific expertise in the coachee's chosen area of work (Grant & Cavanagh, 2004).

According to Witherspoon and White (1996a) the coaching process involves four steps, these include:

1. A commitment to the coaching process

2. Defining goals

3. Developing an action plan and taking action through building competence, commitment and confidence

4. Ensuring continuous improvement by actually measuring and monitoring the results of the coaching.

Tovey (2001) illustrates the coaching process in the following diagram. Here he lists the skills the coach must have in order for factors in the coaching process to be achieved. The individual is then able to achieve certain outcomes.

THE COACHING PROCESS

Coach	Coaching	Individual
Skills: communication, Interpersonal, Training and development, Technical Subject expertise	- A process - Aims to improve performance - Focus on long-term improvement - Builds positive relationships	Improved performance More developed skills and knowledge Greater job satisfaction
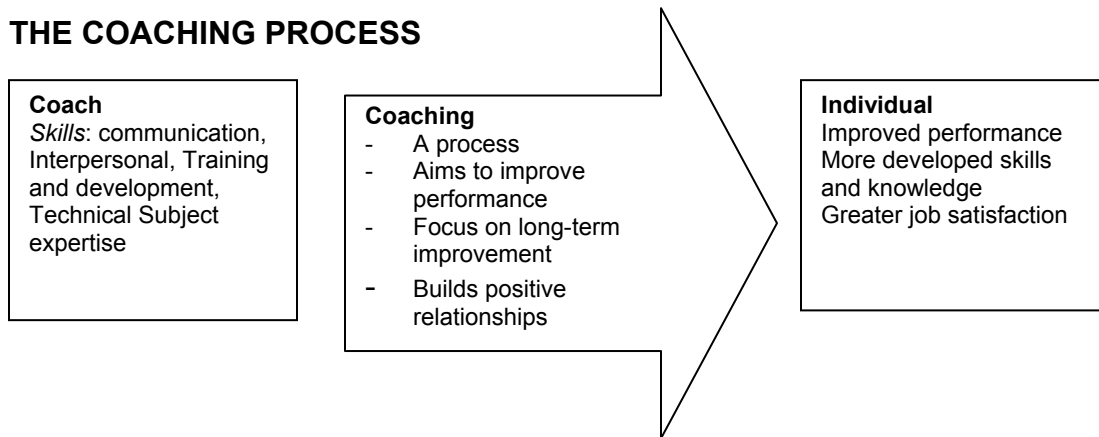
Figure 2.9: The process of coaching (Tovey, 2001, p. 297)

Kinlaw (2000) suggests several criteria that need to be met in the coaching process. The coaching process has to be problem-focused, change-oriented and follow an identifiable sequence that requires the use of specific communication skills. It is argued that the coaching process must be planned and have specific objectives for the coachee or else it will fail (Kinlaw, 2000; Tovey, 2001). Flaherty (1999) adds another point to this criteria, the coach needs to adapt to the client. Each coachee is different, especially if they have already gained life experiences, so the coach needs to tailor their coaching process to fit with each individual coachee.

The process can involve a coach and coachee working together on a relatively narrow goal over a number of small meetings or it could involve a longer lasting relationship with multiple and more complex goals (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003). By gaining knowledge about how one is perceived by others the coachee is then able to adapt their management style in order to be more effective (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998).

Table 2.7

An abbreviated list of potential coaching methods or techniques (Kilburg, 1996b,

p. 141)

1.	Assessment and feedback (intelligence, leadership style, personality dimensions, interpersonal style and preferences, conflict management and crisis management approaches, knowledge, ability, skills)
2.	Education
3.	Training
4.	Skill development: description, modelling, demonstration, rehearsal, practice, evaluation of life experience
5.	Stimulations
6.	Role playing
7.	Organizational assessment and diagnosis
8.	Brainstorming (strategies, methods, approaches, diagnostics, problem solving, intervention plans, evaluation approaches, hypothesis testing, worst case analysis)
9.	Conflict and crisis management
10.	Communications (active-empathic listening/silence, free association, open and closed questions, memory, translation, interpretation, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation questions)
11.	Clarifications: restatements of client's communications; explanations of coaching communications
12.	Confrontations (verbal interventions to direct the client's attention to issues, behaviours, problems, thoughts, or emotions that are evident to both the client and the coach)
13.	Interpretations (verbal interventions to direct the client's attention in a meaningful way to issues, behaviours, problems, thoughts, or emotions that are evident to the coach but are out of the client's conscious awareness)
14.	Reconstructions (attempts based on what is present in and missing from the client's communications, memories, etc., to fill in an apparently important gap in recollection of some life event along with its actual emotional and reality repercussions)
15.	Empathy and encouragement
16.	Tact
17.	Helping to set limits
18.	Helping to maintain boundaries
19.	Depreciating and devaluing maladaptive behaviours, defences, attitudes, values, emotions, fantasies
20.	Punishment and extinction of maladaptive behaviours
21.	Establishing consequences for behaviours
22.	Behavioral analysis: gathering and assessing information
23.	Group process interventions
24.	Working relationship interventions (usually with key subordinates or superiors)
25.	Project and/or process-focused work on structure, process, and content issues in the organization or on input, throughput, or output problems or issues
26.	Journaling, reading assignments, conferences and workshops
27.	Other interventions, using organization development or training technologies

Table 2.7 provides a list of techniques that coaches can use during the coaching process. As can be seen in this table, a coach has a wide variety of methods available. According to Kilburg (1996b), through the use of these approaches the coachee should be able to identify various critical dimensions of their behaviour. The list in Table 2.7 also provides the coach and coachee with an outline to work with during the coaching process (Kilburg, 1996b). Some of the techniques provide the opportunity for growth and stimulate the coachee to try out new behaviours. Methods such as communication, clarification, confrontation, interpretations and reconstructions can help coachees deal with emotions in response to their relationships, jobs or personal lives. Other techniques can help the coachee deal with workplace problems, for example: crisis management, behavioural analysis, group process interventions, and relationship interventions with subordinates or superiors. Kilburg (1996b) states that a coach using these techniques must have the appropriate training and experience.

The following table provides factors from both persuasive communication and counselling psychology that underlie the coaching process. Highlighted areas will be included in the first study. The factors chosen for the study from persuasive communication theory also reflect the fact that there are a number of barriers with the coaching process. How effective the coaching process is will depend on how focussed the coachee is and what types of barriers they will encounter. In regards to the counselling psychology literature and coaching literature the study focussed on how the coachee went about achieving goals set.

This one particular area was chosen by the researcher as it is a major component of the coaching process. It does not come from persuasive communication or counselling psychology literature but is stressed in the coaching literature (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Rich, 1998) and is a key element in the second study.

Table 2.8

Coaching process factors

Persuasive Communication Theory

- message repetition (Ajzen, 1992)
- clarity of presentation (Smith and Shaffer, in press)
- lack of time (Ajzen, 1992)
- noise, distraction (Petty, Wells & Brock, 1976) (Ajzen, 1992)
- number of arguments (Alba and Marmorstein,1987)(Petty and Cacioppo, 1984a)
- length of argument (Wood, Kallgren & Priesler, 1985)
- context (Petty, Kasmer, Havgtvedt & Cacioppo, 1987)
    • forewarning (Ajzen, 1992)
    • one versus two sided presentations (Ajzen, 1992)
    • emotional versus non-emotional appeals (Ajzen, 1992)

Counselling Psychology Theory
- treatment relationship (Orlinsky & Howard, 1986) - style and choice of intervention (Robinson, Berman & Neimeyer, 1990) - active involvement by the coachee (Michalak & Schulte, 2002)(Schulte & Ekfert, 2002) - client and therapist need to mutually agree on the 'tasks' in sessions (Bordin, 1976) - endorse and value the 'goals' of treatment (Bordin, 1976) - form personal 'bonds' (Bordin, 1976) - adherence to treatment approaches (Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien & Auerbach, 1985)
Coaching Literature
- Challenge the coachee to do what they want to do (L. Edwards, 2003) - Develop flexible, personal training based on an individuals specific needs (L. Edwards, 2003; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003) - Help the coachee set better goals and achieve them (Gooding, 2004; Wade, 2004) - Help the coachee to learn, grow and change (Witherspoon & White, 1996a) - Impart specific skills (Witherspoon & White, 1996a) - Address performance issues on the job (Gooding, 2004; Witherspoon & White, 1996a)

2.8.1.4 Relationship between coach and coachee

The coaching literature emphasizes the importance of the coach/coachee

relationship in producing individual change (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998). It

has been argued that an extremely important ingredient in achieving positive

change is the therapeutic relationship between the coach and coachee

(Goodstone & Diamante, 1998). Factors that appear to be present in an effective

coaching process are also factors that are known in the clinical and counselling

literature as being effective for the relationship (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998).

In order for coaching to be effective a number of key factors have been identified,

these are displayed in the table below.

Table 2.9

Factors contributing to the effectiveness of the coaching relationship

1. The coachee must trust the coach in order to be influenced to change (Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996)
2. Realisation that the nature of the relationship is key to producing a positive change by the coachee (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Whiston & Sexton, 1993)
3. Accurate empathy (Kilburg, 2001)
4. Positive regard (Kilburg, 2001)
5. Authenticity and genuineness (Kilburg, 2001)
6. Playful challenge (Kilburg, 2001)
7. Tactful exchanges (Kilburg, 2001)
8. Tolerance for interventions made (Kilburg, 2001)
9. Commitment by both the coach and coachee to the process (Kilburg, 2001)

Laske (1999a) argues that it is not the approach used, whether it be behavioural,

constructive, developmental, cognitive or psychodynamic but the relationship

between the coach and coachee that is most important. While the coaching

relationship generally focuses on the present behaviour of the coachee, the

coach can also draw attention to problems that are recurring. The client may not

even recognise these problems (e.g. discomfort with bosses while seeking their

approval) and needs the coach's help to identify them (Levinson, 1996). In his

Person-centred therapy Rogers (1980) in Goodstone and Diamante (1998, p.

155) argues that in order for a positive change to occur three conditions need to

be met. The three conditions are "a) genuineness, b) unconditional positive

regard, and c) empathetic understanding". In order for the coach/coachee

relationship to work Macik-Frey, Quick and Quick (2005) feel that deep

interpersonal communication is key. They believe that in order for people to be

able to work together a healthy, supportive relationship is required. This is also

consistent with Flaherty's (1999) argument that coaches need to adapt to client

needs.

2.8.1.5 Organisation

Coaching is different from other management consulting interventions in that it

provides its services directly to an individual and the organisational benefits are

achieved indirectly through the individual's improved development (Garman,

Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000). Wade (2004, p. 74) lists a number of responsibilities

the organisation must take on if they are to enter into coaching for their

employees. These include:

- o   "providing agreed resources
- o   clear communication
- o   contributing to determining the framework within which the coaching takes place
- o   ensuring appropriate organizational climate is present to support coaching
- o   contributing to determining what constitutes success and how it will be evaluated".

It is this organisational environment that is of the utmost importance to the

success of coaching (Wade, 2004).

Participants in a developmental process such as coaching must have a minimum level of support for activities, including sufficient time and financial resources. The organisational environment of the client must provide sufficient room for experimentation with new behaviours and approaches and allow the coachee feedback on the progress being made (Kilburg, 2001). Wasylyshyn (2003) states that some companies have decided to position coaching as an executive perk. Therefore creating a culture of investing in their best employees has a positive effect on both the coachee and the organisation and the coach/coachee working alliance.

2.8.1.6   Barriers to coaching effectiveness

Kilburg (2001) provides a list of possible problems that could cause the break down of the coaching process and these are listed in Table 2.10. Highlighted areas are variables that will be included in the model. Some of these barriers are linked to specific variables already included, for example, organisational support and coachee commitment. The list does, however, suggest that coachee competence could be an important variable to include in the model.

Table 2.10

Major client and coach problems contributing to nonadherence (Kilburg, 2001, p. 263)

1.	Insufficient agreement or goal clarity
2.	Lack of commitment to path of progressive development
3.	Insufficient client competence-cognitive complexity
4.	Insufficient coaching competence-cognitive complexity
5.	Client-coach defensiveness, conflicts, emotionality
6.	Regression in coach's or client's organizational environments

2.9 The Proposed Coaching Model

The preliminary coaching model identified five components as keys to understanding the coaching process and its outcomes. A review of the coaching literature, results from persuasive communication research and principles from evaluations of counselling psychology suggested a number of variables that could be included in each of these components. Figure 2.10 provides these lists of variables. There was no consensus in the literature about the relative importance of each of the five key components or of the factors within these components. It is therefore currently a descriptive framework rather than a model that can be used to generate predictions.

COACHING

COACH	**COACHEE**	**ORGANISATION**	**COACHING PROCESS**
• Self confidence • Outgoing • Experienced with coaching • Experienced within my industry • Likeable • Empathetic • Warm • Accepts coachee • Similar goals • Organised • Creative • Calm • Communicates clearly • Honest • Maintains confidentiality	• Self efficacy • Motivation/self determined goal striving • Locus of control • Confidence • Commitment • Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation • Involvement • Pre-occupation with other matters • Lack of time • Effort • Ability/ Competence	• Support	• Encourages taking appropriate action • Uses priorities and timelines • Relates personal goals to organisational goals • Focuses on my successes, rather than on my failings • Identifies blind spots • Constructively views difficult issues • Free from interruption

RELATIONSHIP

• Similarity/matching between coach and coachee • One-on-One/ personal interaction

Figure 2.10: Detailed list of factors in coaching model components

While this is a preliminary framework it is possible to suggest some expected

patterns based on the areas of theory used to build the framework. For example,

the Theory of Planned Behavior suggests that personal and organisational commitment to desired workplace behaviours should be the critical element in coaching effectiveness. The Elaboration Likelihood Model, however, would place a greater emphasis on the relevance and features of the coaching process. Finally, the literature on counselling psychology would suggest that trust in a coach and coachee commitment and effort would be the most important factors. Specific predications can't be made but it is important to explore these possibilities because they have practical implications.

2.10 Overview of the Thesis Research

There is a need to include quantitative and qualitative approaches due to the exploratory nature of the topic and because the researcher is interested in investigating participant perspectives. This is also suggested to be of benefit rather than choosing one specific approach over another (Neuman, 2003). Therefore, there are two main data collection exercises.

Study 1: Survey of coaching participants

This study consisted of mostly structured questions to allow quantitative analysis. The specific aims of this study were to:

- o assess the relative importance of the factors listed in the model to perceived coaching effectiveness
- o to identify factors to include in a revised model of coaching effectiveness

This study focussed on four main components; coach, coachee, organisation and the coaching process.

Study 2: Participant evaluations of coaching workshops and one-on-one

coaching sessions

This study used mostly open-ended questions to allow descriptive qualitative analysis, the specific aims for this study were to determine:

- o What if any differences are there between the two different sectors in relation to coaching?

- o Does providing the opportunity for networking make the coaching process more effective?

- o Is the coaching process more effective if one-on-one follow up coaching sessions are held compared to attending a one day workshop?

- o Is it important for the coach to have specific industry knowledge or can the coaching process be effective with the coach having only general coaching knowledge?

- o To examine variables in the coach – coachee relationship component of the model.

For this thesis effectiveness was defined from the coachee's perspective. Much of the coaching literature presented either focuses on the perspective of the coach in terms of providing advice to coachees or concentrates on improved workplace performance. The coaching literature not only lacks empirical support for many of the claims made, it also provides little insight into the perspective of the participants. This can be measured in a quantitative way in that someone can state how little or how much they felt they were effective in completing a

particular behaviour. "Neumann and colleagues (2004) showed that explicit measures of attitudes assessing deliberate, reflective evaluations (eg, questionnaires) were better predictors of self-reported, deliberative behavioural intentions" (Crano & Prislin, 2006, p. 360). Therefore, it was important to capture the coachees perspective on what they felt made the coaching process effective.

Kampa and White (2002) suggest that coaching may positively affect the productivity of an individual which has the potential to increase the productivity of the entire organisation. They also state that coaching results in increases in self-awareness and development, increases in learning and produces more effective styles of leadership which all ultimately may have an impact on the return of investment for the organisation. In all of these the coachees perceptions are a key element.

From the review of the studies on effectiveness they suggest that there is some preliminary evidence for successful outcomes from coaching. These variables included self-efficacy, the coaches communication style, the coaching relationship, the developmental level of the coach and coachee being aligned, coaching needed to be provided by high-calibre or experienced coaches (Kampa & White, 2002). Other important factors included support from the organisation for the coachee, aligning the goals of the individual to that of the organisation and frequent contact. These factors along with a number of others identified by the researcher will be tested and analysed further in the next two chapters.

CHAPTER 3: COACHING EFFECTIVENESS

STUDY 1: SURVEY OF COACHING PARTICIPANTS

3.1 Introduction

It has been stated that there is a need for more empirical research in the

coaching field (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Evers, Browers, & Tomic,

2006; D. Feldmen & Lankau, 2005; Kilburg, 1996b, 2001; Lowman, 2005;

Sashkin, 2005; J. Stevens, 2005; Wasylyshyn, Gronsky, & Hass, 2006) and even

more for research into the effectiveness of coaching (Sue-Chan & Latham,

2004) in order to meet this need a study was designed to explore participant

perspectives on coaching effectiveness. This study was guided by the

preliminary conceptual model set out in Figures 2.7 and 2.10 The specific aims of

this study were to:

- assess the relative importance of the components and factors listed in the
  model to perceived coaching effectiveness
- to identify factors to include in a revised model of coaching effectiveness

A number of factors were measured in a questionnaire designed by the

researcher using both open and closed ended questions to determine their

importance in the coaching process. This chapter will describe the data

collection, questionnaire design, data collection procedures, sampling techniques

and research limitations encountered. It will also discuss the results and

implications for the second study.

3.2 Methodology

The primary data were gathered from a questionnaire designed by the researcher (See Appendix B) with both quantitative and qualitative questions. Neuman (1997) states that quantitative research questions collect data in the form of numbers, whereas qualitative research questions gather data in the form of words or pictures and that qualitative and quantitative dimensions of research should be used to complement each other. Consistent with this approach a six page questionnaire asking questions relating to the coach, the coachee and the coaching process was designed containing both structured and unstructured questions. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. Firstly, open ended questions were used to determine the respondent's views on factors that they felt made the coaching process effective. The second part included scale items developed from the literature on best practice in the coaching process. By asking these questions the researcher was able to explore the factors respondents felt were effective and determine factors that need to be included in the coaching process in order for it to be successful. The closed ended questions provided a check for the answers given to the open ended questions and a means to identify the relative importance of factors included in the proposed coaching model.

The advantages to this survey methodology include being able to generate a broad range of data about the characteristics of a population and its cost efficiency (Babbie, 2005; Collis & Hussey, 2003; Neuman, 2003; Sommer &

Sommer, 1980; Williamson, Karp, Dalphin, & Gray, 1982). It is also seen as not

taking up much time and is relatively anonymous (Veal, 1997) therefore, resulting

in a higher completion rate (Babbie, 1998). The limitations with using a

questionnaire include questions that ask the respondent to provide a self

evaluation or diagnosis. Williamson and colleagues (1982) argue that people are

not adequately aware of their own beliefs or views and cannot correctly describe

themselves while completing a questionnaire. However, Veal (1997, p. 72)

disputes this and states that one of the key features of a questionnaire is that it

allows respondent's to report on their own "accounts of behaviour, attitudes or

intentions". Two other possible limitations regarding survey technique include

the varying degrees of motivation evidenced by prospective respondents to take

part and the degree to which the questions might contain material that arouses

discomfort or even distress in potential respondents. Whilst the second issue is

relatively rare in a great deal of business and social research, the variability

associated with the first issue is always present to some degree.

3.2.1   Survey procedure

A pilot study of the questionnaire was conducted to test the questionnaire

wording, the layout of the questionnaire, familiarity with respondents, estimate

response times, rates and test the analysis procedures (Veal, 1997). Pilot

respondents were contacted by email asking them if they would volunteer for the

pilot study. This pilot study was also used to allow the researcher to identify any

problems with the survey. Once the testing of the questionnaire was completed it was ready for distribution to actual respondents.

Respondents were sought through contacts made by the researcher with companies and organisations that were known to have employees that had been through the coaching process or were currently being coached. Coaching companies were also contacted and asked to participate, thus allowing the researcher the opportunity to source respondents and the likelihood of them responding to the questionnaire so that a respectable response rate could be achieved.

The researcher attended a conference in Brisbane held by Training Australia Magazine in May 2005 titled *Return on Investment (ROI) from training and performance improvement programs*. At this conference the researcher made a number of contacts who agreed to pass the questionnaire on to others that had been coached or were currently being coached. A search on the web for other organisations also led the researcher to send the questionnaire to government organisations, individual coaches, business organisations, banks and academics.

A website was also designed which had the questionnaire on it. The website was used due to ease of access and cost efficiency (Neuman, 2003). This website was outsourced to an IT company who designed the website so that respondents were able to complete the questionnaire online. The researcher

was able to send the web link to potential respondents via email allowing them to fill out the questionnaire in their own time.

The questionnaire was available online from January 2005 until 4th July 2005. However, during the period of January to April 2005 a problem was encountered with the online survey which did not occur during the pilot study. It was found that the data from the questionnaires were not being sent to the database it was supposed to be linked to, therefore, eventuating in a three month loss of potential data. The actual amount of data lost is not known. This problem was rectified and from April to July 2005 responses were recorded successfully. It was then decided that the questionnaire be available in hard copy to be posted, faxed or emailed to prospective respondents as well as having the website. This gave the researcher a three month data gathering period. During this period a number of hard copies were also sent out to people who did not have internet access but had stated their willingness to respond. These surveys were returned to the researcher either via post, fax or email. During the period of data collection a total of 114 responses were obtained. An overall response rate could not be determined because of the earlier technical problems. Originally the researcher was expecting a response rate of approximately 500, this would have allowed for a wider range of statistical techniques to be used. However, due to the technical problems encountered the study had to become more exploratory in nature.

3.2.2 Instrument

The questionnaire contained a covering letter on James Cook University (JCU) letterhead informing respondents about the researcher and why the research was being conducted. It also informed respondents of confidentiality and where further information could be obtained. The ethics approval number was H1912.

The majority of the questionnaire contained closed ended questions and rating scales. However, there were five open ended questions included in the questionnaire. Questions that are constructed in a closed ended format limit the participants opportunity for response. However, there are advantages for researchers using closed ended questions. These include ease of data coding and analysis, ensuring the desired information is obtained and increasing the reliability of the study (Pierce, 1995). While there are a number of advantages there are also a number of limitations including only a selected number of variables being collected and therefore the possibility that some areas are not addressed. Participants may become frustrated with closed ended questions and may try to expand on their answers. Finally, it is hard to know if respondents purposely did not answer the question due to the given answers not fitting their desired response or if it was missed inadvertently (Pierce, 1995). As the researcher did not want to lead the respondents into particular answers, the open-ended questions gave respondents the opportunity to write freely without having to categorise answers into a given response. The open ended questions also provided a check for the researcher to make sure that no important variables had been left out of some of the closed ended questions. The figure below is of

the preliminary coaching model designed by the researcher. Each stage of the

questionnaire can be related back to the features included in the model.

```
┌─────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────┐      ┌─────────────────┐
│   PERSUASIVE    │      │ Model of Coaching │      │  COUNSELLING    │
│  COMMUNICATION  │      └──────────────────┘      │   PSYCHOLOGY    │
│       ✸         │                                │       ■         │
└─────────────────┘                                └─────────────────┘
```
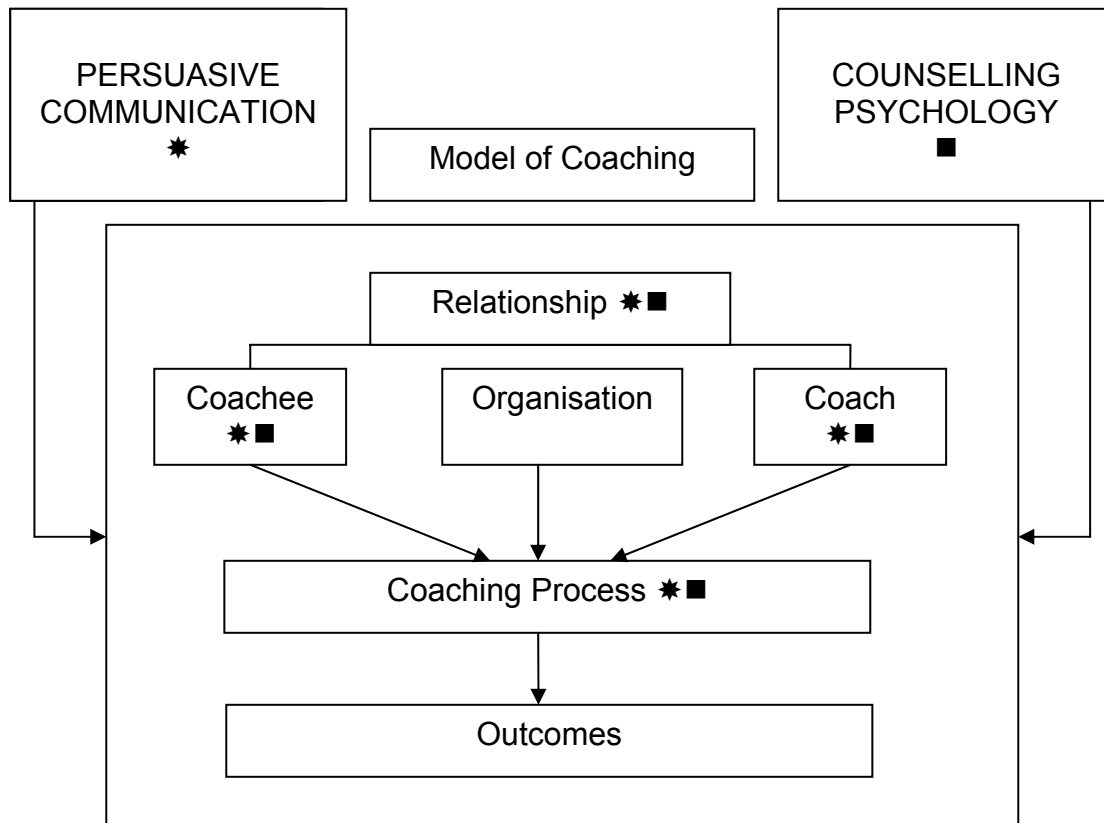
Figure 3.1: Preliminary coaching model

3.2.2.1 *Section 1 – Setting the Context*

The questionnaire was divided into six sections (see Appendix B). The first

section was used to determine whether respondents were currently going

through the coaching process or not. The first question was designed so that the

researcher would be able to analyse the rest of the questionnaire and compare it

to whether people were rating the coaching process while they were going through it or were reflecting on their coaching experience.

The researcher then asked respondents questions about how long the coaching process was, whether they had a set finishing date or not, who initiated the coaching session, how often they met with their coach and how long each session went for. It also asked respondents whether they would participate in coaching again and if they would recommend coaching to their colleagues. The researcher then asked respondents to rate how effective they thought coaching was and to rank in terms of effectiveness the coach, the person being coached and what the coach does from most important to least. Section 1 gave respondents the opportunity to state if there was anything during the coaching process that they thought wasn't very effective. Respondents who were not currently in the coaching process were asked the same questions except in a past tense.

Section 1 used research from persuasive communication and psychology to identify key variables to measure (Alba & Marmorstein, 1987; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984; Wood, Kallgren, & Priesler, 1985). The questions in Section 1 looked at how long the relationship between the coach and coachee had been going on, how frequent the meetings were, how long each session went for and whether there was a set finishing date or not. These questions helped to determine what sort of relationship the coachee had with the coach and how often the coachee

was able to source the coach. These questions were later used to see if there

was any correlation between how effective the respondent felt the process was

and whether frequency or duration of meetings had any impact.

The question 'Who initiated the coaching session?' (Robinson, Berman, &

Neimeyer, 1990) was designed to determine whether people who initiated the

coaching process themselves found it to be more effective. It would also help the

researcher to understand whether people who feel they had to participate in

coaching because the organisation demanded it, found any benefit in the process

or were just going because someone had told them they had to. The questions

'Would you participate in coaching again?' and 'Would you recommend coaching

to your colleagues?' were designed to see if the respondents viewed coaching in

a positive light. These questions would also help the researcher to see if people

who had viewed coaching in a positive light and wanted to participate again

viewed it as effective. This lead the respondent onto the next question in the

survey 'How effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?' and

gave respondents the opportunity to rate the process on a scale of 1 to 5 with 1

being not effective at all and 5 being very effective (Strupp, 1973).

The next question asked respondents to rank in terms of contribution to overall

effectiveness the importance of the coach, the person being coached and what

the coach does. Gegner (1997) found that three themes emerged from her study

as to the most important parts in the coaching process. These included the

coaching process and its benefits, the coach including aspects such as

personality and skills used and the coachee and aspects such as "self growth,

being receptive to change and having more self-confidence" (Gegner, 1997, p.

58).   Because there are three main parts to coaching (Gegner, 1997) it was

important to find out what people thought was the most important ingredient

overall in coaching. Finally, respondents were given the opportunity to state

openly any features that they felt weren't very effective during their coaching

experience. The questions allowed the researcher to determine not only what

people felt made the coaching process a success and therefore effective but also

aspects that could limit the process and make it less effective.

Sections 2 – 5 were divided into each of the components from the Model of

Coaching designed by the researcher, namely, features of the coach, features of

the coaching process, questions about the organisation and questions about the

coachee.

3.2.2.2 Section 2 – Features of the coach

Three questions were asked in Section 2. Firstly an open ended question asking

respondents to rank five of the most important features they felt a coach should

have. Having an open ended question first ensured that respondents were not

lead into any one particular feature by the researcher. It also allowed the

researcher to see if the features listed in the next set of questions were seen as

important to respondents by providing a check and to identify factors not

considered in the preliminary model. The next two questions listed 19 features

that were suggested in the persuasive communication literature and counselling

psychology literature and coaching descriptions as being important for a coach to

have. Biological factors such as age and gender were included (Ajzen, 1992;

Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Laske,

1999a) to see if these factors were seen as important to respondents. For

example: whether it is important to have a coach the same gender as the person

being coached or whether a more senior executive feels it is important to have

someone closer in age to them or whether they would still feel comfortable if they

had a coach that was 20 – 30 years younger than them. Would this affect the

coaching process? Personality features and personal characteristics were also

tested and the list in Table 3.1 presents each of the features tested.

Table 3.1

List of personality variables tested in questionnaire

1. *Displays self confidence* (Ajzen, 1992)
2. *Is outgoing* (Ajzen, 1992)
3. *Has experience with coaching* (Berman & Norton, 1985; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996)
4. *Has experience within my industry* (Ajzen, 1992; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984)
5. *Is likeable* (Chaiken, 1980; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983)
6. *Has similar values to me* (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)
7. *Is able to see things from my point of view* (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)
8. *Displays warmth* (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)
9. *Displays acceptance of me* (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Bendersky Sacks, 2004; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)
10. *Shares the same goals as me* (Bordin, 1976)
11. *Is organised* (Muchinsky, 2003)
12. *Is creative* (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Sternberg, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003)

13. *Is calm* (Maier, 1955)
14. *Has similar personality to me* (Banning, 1997; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Laske, 1999a)
15. *Communicates clearly* (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Gegner, 1997; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Monoky, 1996; Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996; Wade, 2004)
16. *Is honest* (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Richardson, 1996)
17. *Maintains confidentiality* (Ajzen, 1992; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b; Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003)

These features were chosen because they continuously came up in the coaching literature as being important to the coaching process. Two features that were included had to do with how experienced the coach was within the coachee's industry and with the coaching process itself. These two were specifically included due to the fact that persuasive communication and psychology literature state that if the person doing the talking or therapy is seen as credible or an expert than the outcome is likely to be more effective and successful (Ajzen, 1992; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984). A number of coaching proponents, however, argue that while it is important for the coach to have experience in coaching it is not important for them to have experience necessarily in the coachee's field of work (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). Respondents were then asked to pick three of the most important features and rank them in terms of importance. This was done as a check to see if features that had been individually scored as important were still seen as important overall.

3.2.2.3 Section 3 – Features of the coaching process

In Section 3 questions were asked about features of the coaching process. The first question listed seven features from the literature that were said to be important in determining whether the coaching process was effective. Again these questions were designed around theories from persuasive communication and counselling psychology and to measure variables mentioned in coaching literature but not empirically analysed. The first feature was 'The coaching process encourages me to take appropriate action' (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999). This feature was included so that the researcher could see how important motivation and encouragement through the coaching process was to the coachee. It could also test whether the coaching process led them to take appropriate action. This is one of the main components of the coaching process, getting people to set goals and then finding a way to achieve their goals through an action plan (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Rich, 1998).

The second feature was 'The coaching process uses priorities and timelines' (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1997). This concept was used to determine how important it is for tasks to be prioritised and timelines set in order to achieve goals set. Having a timeline can help the coachee see what needs to be done and when. Setting the priorities helps them to understand what needs to be done sooner and what can be left until a later date.

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The third feature was 'The coaching process helps me relate my personal goals to organisational goals' (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Wasylyshyn, 2003). This feature makes sure that the coachees own personal goals are aligned with the organisations goals, making them more effective and productive from an organisation's point of view. It will also help them to be motivated to achieve organisational goals if they are somehow related to their own personal goals.

The fourth feature was 'The coaching process focuses on my successes, rather than on my failings' (Lowman, 2005; Richardson, 1996; Witherspoon & White, 1996b; Zeus & Skiffington, 2002). Here it is argued that this is an effective way to support the coachee through the coaching process (Deci, 1975; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; Presby Kodish, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996). If the coach helps the coachee by emphasizing the things that they are doing well the coachee will be more likely to keep going and achieve their goals. While pointing out a failure is not necessarily detrimental, the coachee needs to be able to learn from a failure and to turn it into a positive rather than focusing on it or having someone else (i.e. the coach) constantly tell them what they are doing wrong without being constructive.

The fifth feature was 'The coaching process is able to identify my blind spots' (Bowerman & Collins, 1999; Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003). This feature has been prominently discussed throughout the coaching literature as a core element of coaching (Bowerman & Collins, 1999). Coaching helps you to identify things you can't see that others can, ultimately identifying your blind spots. The researcher included this feature to determine whether respondents felt it was as important as the coaching literature suggests.

The sixth feature was 'The coaching process helps me to constructively view difficult issues' (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003). This feature helps the coachee to view difficult issues in an environment where they can work through a particular problem or situation without the fear of repercussion or of being judged (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Witherspoon & White, 1996a). Here the researcher wanted to determine how important it was for the coaching process to provide a safe environment where coachees would be able to work through difficult problems or situations constructively with their coach.

The seventh and final feature was 'The coaching process is free from interruption by outside influences' (Ajzen, 1992; Petty, Wells, & Brock, 1976). Persuasive communication and psychology literature states that in order for the process to be effective it must be free from interruption. In order for coaching to be effective

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the coachee and coach must be able to have time to sit and talk through issues without being constantly interrupted, for example, by either phones or co-workers.

Respondents were then asked to list and rank the three most important to them out of the possible seven. This again provided a check against what features respondents had individually scored as important and how important overall they felt the features were.

3.2.2.4 Section 4 – Questions about the organisation

Section 4 asked questions about the organisation. In the coaching literature authors state that for the coaching process to be effective or successful the coachee must have the support of the organisation or else it is likely to fail (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Peterson, 1996). Therefore, two questions were asked in this section. First was a scale question asking 'How supportive was/is your organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?'. Respondents were asked to pick from a scale rating of not at all supportive through to very supportive. This question could then be tested against whether people thought that the coaching process was effective or not, helping the researcher determine the coachee's perception of the support of their organisation. The second question asked whether the organisation they worked for paid for their coaching sessions. This question was chosen as payment for coaching could be seen as support for the coachee from the organisation. It

could also lead to assumptions about whether respondents would have gone through the coaching process if they needed to pay for it themselves.

3.2.2.5 Section 5 – Questions about the coachee

Section 5 asked questions about the coachee. The first two questions were open ended and asked 'What personal goals did you have at the start of coaching?' and 'What organisational goals did you have at the start of coaching?' respectively. Here the researcher again did not want to lead the respondents in any particular direction and so left the question open. One of the features of coaching is being able to align a coachee's personal goals with their organisational goals (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Wasylyshyn, 2003), so it was important for the researcher to find out what sort of personal and organisational goals respondents had. Respondents were allowed to list five goals under each heading. The next question asked them to pick the most important outcome/goal overall from the previous two questions and then they were asked to rate how important that benefit was/is to them on a scale of highly unimportant to highly important.

Respondents were then asked to say how much they agreed with a number of statements on a scale rating of 1-5 with 1 being strongly disagree and 5 being strongly agree. Each of these questions related to the goals/outcomes respondents had just discussed. The statements were 'Coaching was/is the best

way to achieve this outcome' here the researcher was trying to determine

whether respondents felt that coaching was instrumental to them achieving their

goal or not. 'The effort I put in to achieve this outcome was/is worth it' was the

next statement, here the researcher was trying to determine whether the amount

of effort people put in to achieve a particular goal relates to their satisfaction with

the process. This is related to expectancy theory (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen,

1977) and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory (Deci, 1975; Koestner, Lekes,

Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996). 'I was/I am

very committed to the coaching process' here the researcher wanted to be able

to determine whether those respondents who felt that the coaching process was

not very effective were affected by how committed they were. It is also related to

the theory of locus of control (Muchinsky, 2003). 'I was/I am confident of being

able to achieve this outcome' here the researcher wanted to find out if having

realistic goals helps the coachee to achieve them. When setting goals one must

make sure that they are attainable and can be achieved in a reasonable amount

of time (Latham & Locke, 1979).

The next question following on from the statements asked respondents 'How

much effort do you feel you have put into or are prepared to put into the coaching

process'. This question has to do with the theory of self efficacy (Gegner, 1997;

Wasylyshyn, 2003) which proposes that where one feels that the effort put into a

particular action will be rewarded with a positive outcome. It can also be related

to locus of control, which is the belief that you have control over what will happen

and can influence the outcome (Muchinsky, 2003). This question can also be related to the expectancy theory where people expect that when they do a particular action a particular outcome will be the result (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen, 1977).

As stated in chapter 2 persuasive communication has a number of links to these questions, with many related to Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) Theory of Planned Behavior (Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004). This theory states that people usually behave in a way that is generally favourable with respect to things and people they like and to display unfavourable behaviours toward things and people they dislike. The theory suggests a fundamental sequence of events in which actions follow directly from behavioural intentions. The intentions are consistent with the attitude toward the object and this attitude derives from prominent beliefs about the object. Therefore, barring unforseen events, people translate their plans into action (Ajzen, 1988; Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004).

The final question for Section 5 was a list of barriers that may affect the coachee from achieving a successful outcome. Respondents had to state whether they agreed or disagreed with the following statements. A Likert Scale was used with 1 being strongly agree and 5 being strongly disagree, a sixth scale item was used for respondents to answer 'Don't know'. Barriers included 'Preoccupation with other work matters', 'Preoccupation with other personal matters' and 'lack of time' and a space for 'Other' where respondents were free to write anything else

they felt was a barrier. These barriers were used because they had been cited in the literature (Ajzen, 1992; Petty, Wells, & Brock, 1976) as being things that could harm the process. It was important for the researcher to find out if these barriers were considered to be important by respondents and also to find out if there were any other barriers that respondents felt were important to note.

3.2.2.6 Section 6 – Demographics

The last section of the questionnaire was titled Section 6 Demographics. This final section of the survey aimed at extracting a general profile of the participants in terms of gender, age, marital status and whether they had children or not and if so how many. It has been said that the coaching process can be most beneficial to those that have children because of its help with providing a whole life balance between the work and personal lives of executives (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Riddle, 2001; Wasylyshyn, 2003). Respondents were also asked what their occupation was and what sector/industry they worked in. These were left open so as not to leave any particular industry out and give respondents the opportunity to describe their work themselves without feeling pigeon holed.

The next question asked how long they had been in their current position and a scale was used with a) being less than 12 months, b) being 1-2 years, c) being 3-5 years, d) being 6-10 years and e) being more than 10 years. This scale was

used to determine whether new people were more likely to be coached than those that may have worked in the organisation for a number of years. Workers that have been with an organisation for a number of years may have worked their way up to a senior position technically but may not necessarily have the right people skills for management and may require coaching. The final question asked respondents what types of qualifications they had. This question was included so that the researcher could get a general profile of the respondent's education.

A final page was included which invited respondents to enter a draw to win a six month subscription to a magazine. The details for the competition were separate from the questionnaire ensuring that confidentiality was maintained. The competition was used as an incentive for respondents to participate.

3.2.3 Sample

The sample consisted of 61 females and 52 males. One respondent did not answer this question. The mean age was 40 years. Five people chose not to answer this question. Table 3.2 provides a more in-depth look at the ages of the respondents.

Table 3.2

Age of respondents

Age Category	Number of Respondents
<20 years	2
20-29 years	23
30-39 years	27
40-49 years	31
50-59 years	21
60+ years	5

Sixty-eight respondents were married, 31 were single, eight were either widowed, divorced or separated and six were in a defacto relationship. Sixty-seven respondents said that they had children and the majority of these had two children. Respondents were also asked what their occupation was. Sixteen respondents stated that they were currently studying, 15 stated that they were a business manager or owner, 14 respondents stated that they were a project manager of some sort, while 11 respondents were academics. Administration and educator were the next highest occupations listed with 10 respondents each. The largest group of respondents (24.1%) said they were in the education industry. Insurance and business (9.8% each) were the next most commonly listed industries. Maintenance/manufacturing and health followed with 7.1% each.

When asked how long respondents had been in their current position, 31 (27.4%) stated they had been in their position for 1-2 years. This was followed closely by 30 respondents who stated 3-5 years (26.5%), 23 respondents had been in their position for more than 10 years, 18 had been in their position for less than 12

months and 11 had been in their position for 6-10 years. Thirty-nine respondents

(34.5%) had a postgraduate degree, while 30.1% (30) had an undergraduate

degree. Fifteen percent (17) had completed high school and 12.4% (14) had

gone to a technical college.

3.3 Results and Discussion

Figure 3.2 sets out the three main stages in the data analysis. Stage 1 involves

conducting frequency analyses to provide an overall picture of the responses

given in each section of the questionnaire. This stage also provides

opportunities to engage in data reduction strategies for later stages of the

analysis. In addition the answers to the open-ended questions could be used to

directly address the second aim of the study which was to identify additional

variables to include in a revised model of coaching effectiveness.

Stage 1: Description of responses in each questionnaire section

Stage 2: Examine influence of sample characteristics and coaching experiences on responses

Stage 3: Analyse relative contributions of the variables measured to overall coaching effectiveness
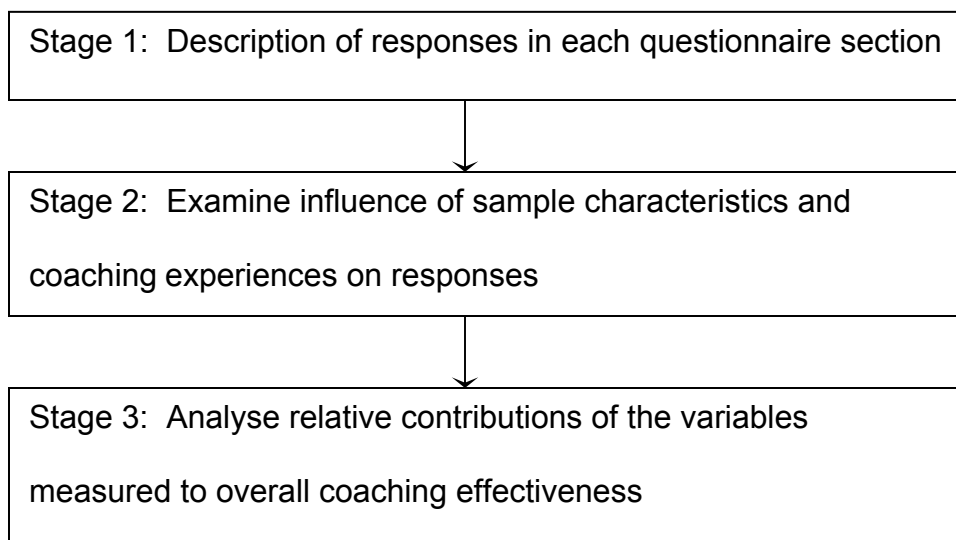
Figure 3.2: Overview of three data analysis stages for the questionnaire

Stage 2 involves examining the influence of sample characteristics on overall responses. The key characteristics to be examined here were gender, whether or not the respondent had children, whether or not the respondent was currently being coached and different coaching patterns.

The final stage focussed on the first aim of the study which was to determine the relative contributions of the main components and the variables within them to overall coaching effectiveness. This stage can be further broken down into two approaches;

- o one which explored the respondent's perceptions of the importance of the broad areas of coach, coachee and coaching process to overall effectiveness (from Question 8)
- o one which analysed in more detail the contributions of the variables in the different components to an index of overall coaching effectiveness.

3.3.1 Stage 1: Overall description of responses

3.3.1.1 Section 1: Setting the context

The first question of the survey was 'Are you currently being coached?'. Fifty-eight (50.9%) of respondents replied with 'no' while 53 (46.5%) stated 'yes'. Three responses were missing for this question. If respondents answered 'yes' to the first question they were then asked 'How long have you been with your current coach?'. The following table displays the results to this question.

Table 3.3

Respondents currently going through the coaching process and how long they have been with their current coach

Time	Frequency	%	Total %
Less than 1 mth	5	4.4	9.4
1-3 mths	10	8.8	18.9
3-6 mths	7	6.1	13.2
6-12 mths	10	8.8	18.9
More than 12 mths	21	18.4	39.6
Total	**53**		**100.0**

Respondents were then asked 'Who initiated the coaching sessions?' 25 respondents stated that the organisation they work for initiated the coaching sessions followed closely by 'self' with 21 responses, four respondents stated that the coach initiated the coaching sessions. The categories 'self and coach', 'self, organisation and coach' and 'self and organisation' all received one response each.

Respondents were also asked 'How often do you meet with your coach?' Only 10 respondents actually answered this question, with 'as required' being the most popular answer with five responses. 'How long are the sessions you have with your coach?' was the next question asked to respondents. Twenty-one replied 1-2 hours, 15 stated less than one hour, nine responded with 2-3 hours and four stated that their coaching sessions went for half a day.

Respondents were then asked if they had a set finishing date for their current coaching process and if 'yes' 'How long would their coaching process last for?' 25 respondents noted that they did not have a set finishing date while 27 did. Of those that did have a set finishing date the highest response (n=19) stated that it would last for more than six months.

If respondents stated that they were not currently going through the coaching process they were asked a set of slightly different questions. Firstly, 'When did their most recent coaching experience finish?'. Most of the respondents answered more than six months ago. They were also asked 'Who initiated the coaching session?', 'organisation' rated the most popular with 37 responses followed by 'self' with 18. The 'coach' received just one response as did 'self and organisation'. Respondents were next asked 'How often did you meet with your coach?'. The table below sets out the results to this question.

Table 3.4

Respondents not currently going through the coaching process, 'How often did you meet with your coach?'

Frequency	Number	%	Total %
Fortnightly	14	12.3	25.5
Weekly	11	9.6	20.0
Monthly	9	7.9	16.4
Other	7	6.1	12.7
As required	6	5.3	10.9
Quarterly	5	4.4	9.1
Once	3	2.6	5.5
Total	**55**		**100.0**

Finally respondents were also asked 'How long did each session go for?' 25 stated 1-2 hours, while 14 stated less than one hour, six responded with a full day, four listed a half a day while 2-3 hours and 'other' each received three responses.

The next three questions were asked to both sets of respondents (ie those that were currently going through coaching and those that had already completed the coaching process). They were 'Would you participate in coaching again?' to which 108 respondents stated 'yes' nearly 95% and 'Would you recommend coaching to your colleagues?' to which 110 respondents stated 'yes' nearly 97%. Respondents were asked 'How effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?' they had to rate this question on a scale from 'not effective at all' to 'very effective'. Fifty-one respondents rated it effective and 34 rated it very effective. Twenty-one rated it a '3' which represented 'neither' effective or not effective and only five rated it a '2' or '1' which represented 'not really effective' or 'not effective at all' respectively. Due to a positive skew on the rating scale the three variables were combined creating one variable called an overall coaching index.

This Overall Coaching Index was the summation of the questions 'Would you participate in coaching again?', 'Would you recommend coaching to your colleagues?' and 'How effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?'. Respondents who stated yes to the questions 'Would you participate in

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coaching again?' and 'Would you recommend coaching to your colleagues" were

given the rating of 1. No was given the rating of 0. The responses to the

question 'How effective do your think the coaching you participated in was?' were

rated on a scale from 1 – 5, therefore giving those respondents who stated yes to

both questions and rated it a 5 on the effectiveness scale an overall rating of 7.

The results are displayed in Table 3.5 below. The table demonstrates that the

majority of the respondents viewed coaching as effective and had a positive

attitude towards participating again and recommending it to colleagues.

Table 3.5

Overall coaching index

	Overall Rating	Frequency	Percent	Total Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	1	.9	.9	.9
	3.00	2	1.8	1.8	2.7
	4.00	3	2.6	2.7	5.4
	5.00	20	17.5	18.0	23.4
	6.00	51	44.7	45.9	69.4
	7.00	34	29.8	30.6	100.0
	Total	111	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.6		
Total		114	100.0		

It has been said that the effectiveness of coaching depends on three main

components, the coach, the coachee and what the coach does (Gegner, 1997).

Respondents were asked to rank each component from 1-3 with '1' for the most

important to '3' for least important in terms of effectiveness. A standard

frequency analysis was completed on each component with each totalling nearly

a third as most important. The coach was rated most important overall with 35.1% giving it a most important ranking. What the coach does (coaching process) came second with 33.3% of respondents ranking it first and finally the coachee came in third with a ranking of most important from 28.9% of the sample.

Respondents were also asked if there were any features they felt were not very effective during their coaching experience. The top three answers were 'no' that they didn't have anything to report as not effective (37.3%), not enough time or contact with the coach was rated highly with 17.9% and 13.4% of respondents felt that their coach was not very effective. Other responses to this question can be seen in Appendix C. All of the responses in the complete list were covered by other questions in the questionnaire except for one which had to do with the venue chosen to do the coaching. However, this could be related to features of the coaching process where respondents were asked if the coaching process was free from outside influences.

Apart from the response of 'no' that coachees felt that they did not have anything to report as not effective, the other aspects that were listed as not very effective can be related back to Kilburg's (2001) list of Major client and coach problems contributing to nonadherence (Table 2.10 in chapter 2). There are overlaps between what Kilburg has stated as problems that can contribute to the coaching process not being effective and the responses from the survey.

3.3.1.2 Section 2 – Features of the coach

The next set of questions came from Section 2 – Features about the coach.

The open ended questions were analysed through a content analysis

(Williamson, Karp, Dalphin, & Gray, 1982) where the researcher looked for

certain themes amongst the answers given. These themes were then

categorised and a frequency analysis of the categories carried out. With the

closed questions factor analysis was used to determine certain factor groupings

or themes amongst the answers (Williamson, Karp, Dalphin, & Gray, 1982).

The first question in Section 2 asked respondents 'What features do you feel are

most important for a coach to have?' Here respondents had to list their five most

important features in order from most to least important.   A multiple response

analysis was carried out on this question as respondents were able to list five

possible features. Overall the top ten responses are listed in the table below.

The full set of responses are given in Appendix D. Only two variables were

identified by respondents that were not linked to questions already incorporated

into the questionnaire, these were that the coach be "good looking", and that the

coach provide networks for the coachee. Much of the coaching literature focuses

on empathy (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997;

Wasylyshyn, 2003) and trust (Banning, 1997; Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn,

1998; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Kiel, Rimmer,

Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996; Richardson, 1996;

Wasylyshyn, 2003) and these do appear in the survey responses. In addition

knowledge (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson,

2001; Laske, 1999a; Wasylyshyn, 2003), skills (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn,

1998; Filipczak, 1998; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goodstone &

Diamante, 1998; Harris, 1999; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Laske,

1999a; Levinson, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Wasylyshyn,

2003) and credibility (Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981) are also common in the

coaching and counselling psychology literature as is the need to adapt to the

coachee (Presby Kodish, 2002). The importance of credibility skills, experience

and knowledge is consistent with the persuasive communication literature (Ajzen,

2001; Fiske, 2004; Moscardo, 1999; Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997; Wood,

2000).

Table 3.6

Ten most important features for a coach to have according to respondents

Feature	Count	% of responses
Good communication skills	73	13.6
Credible/experienced	52	9.7
Empathetic	48	9.0
Knowledgeable	43	8.0
Sufficient contact time	25	4.7
Good personality/attitude	22	4.1
Ability to develop rapport with coachee	22	4.1
Patient	22	4.1
Technical experience	21	3.9
Friendly/approachable	17	3.2

* The frequencies are only indicative of relative importance as themed categories are not equal in size

The next question listed a number of factors that were considered to contribute to

a coach's effectiveness from the literature. Respondents were asked to rate

each of the factors from highly unimportant to highly important and were also

allowed to rate it as 'don't know' for those that were unsure. A principal

components factor analysis was conducted on these features in order to find out

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if any of the features could be grouped together to reduce the number of

variables for further analysis (See Table 3.7). Given that the sample size for this

study was small, it is important to note that this technique was used as a data

reduction tool and not as a way to determine key underlying dimensions.

Table 3.7

Results of factor analysis of features of the coach (N = 110)

Label		Mean Importance rating (Std dev)	Factor Headings				
			1	2	3	4	5
	% of Variance		41	10	7	6	5
	Eigenvalues		7.752	1.926	1.422	1.123	1.035
Calm and Organised	Is honest	4.60 (1.068)	.866				
	Communicates clearly	4.62 (.995)	.841				
	Maintains confidentiality	4.64 (1.064)	.830				
	Is organised	4.48 (1.011)	.723				
	Is calm	4.21 (1.076)	.720				
	Has similar personality to me	4.10 (1.108)	.623				
	Is creative	4.10 (1.004)	.504				
	Has experience with coaching	4.10 (1.117)	.492				
Confidence and Acceptance	Is outgoing	3.45 (1.072)		.780			
	Displays warmth	3.85 (.988)		.688			
	Is able to see things from my point of view	4.00 (1.092)		.682			
	Displays self-confidence	4.37 (1.003)		.612			
	Displays acceptance of me	4.15 (.975)		.558			
	Is likeable	3.97 (.981)		.547			
Similarity	Is similar in age to me	2.20 (1.132)			.896		
	Is the same gender as me	2.01 (1.071)			.854		
Values	Has similar values to me	3.43 (1.153)				.879	
Congruence	Has experience within my industry	3.97(1.358)					.855
	Shares the same goals as me	3.18 (1.175)					.687

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

The mean ratings of the features of the coach indicated that the five most important features were: maintains confidentiality, communicates clearly, is honest, organised and self-confident. The factor analysis suggested that all the variables could be reduced to five summary features based on the factor scores. A repeated measures non-parametric ANOVA was conducted in order to find out if any of the rated features of a coach were significantly more important than any others. The results showed that the variables 'is honest', 'communicates clearly' and 'maintains confidentiality' were significantly more important than the other variables. The results also showed that the bottom ranked four variables 'has similar values to me', 'is the same gender as me', 'is similar in age to me' and 'shares the same goals as me' were rated as less important factors for a coach to have. The table below illustrates the results of this test.

Table 3.8

Results of repeated measures ANOVA on coach features

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's Trace	.807	21.420	18.000	92.000	.000	.807
Wilks' Lambda	.193	21.420	18.000	92.000	.000	.807
Hotelling's Trace	4.191	21.420	18.000	92.000	.000	.807
Roy's Largest Root	4.191	21.420	18.000	92.000	.000	.807

The final question for Section 2 asked respondents to pick three of the most important features from the previous question and rank them from most to least important. Since respondents were able to give three different features as

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answers to this question and in order to find out which feature was considered

the most important overall a multiple response analysis was again carried out.

The results are presented in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9

Most important features for a coach to have

Feature	Count	% of Responses
Communicates clearly	54	16.6
Is organised	36	11.0
Maintains confidentiality	29	8.9
Is honest	28	8.6
Has experience within my industry	27	8.3
Displays self confidence	26	8.0
Has experience with coaching	25	7.7
Is able to see things from my point of view	17	5.2
Displays acceptance of me	14	4.3
Is creative	13	4.0
Has similar values to me	10	3.1
Is likeable	10	3.1
Displays warmth	9	2.8
Is calm	8	2.5
Is outgoing	6	1.8
Has similar personality	5	1.5
Is similar in age to me	4	1.2
Shares the same goals as me	3	.9
Is the same gender as me	2	.6

It is interesting to note that there seem to be three themes amongst all the results

for this section. First that features that have to do with the process such as

communicating clearly (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran,

Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Gegner, 1997; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske,

1999a; Monoky, 1996; Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996; Wade, 2004), being

organised (Muchinsky, 2003) and maintaining confidentiality (Kiel, Rimmer,

Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b; Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003) are rated very highly by respondents. Second, that features that have to do with the coaches personality such as honesty (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Richardson, 1996), self confidence (Ajzen, 1992) and empathy (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003), are also rated highly but not as highly as the features that had to do with the process. The third theme was that of experience (Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996) and credibility (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984; Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981) which is demonstrated by the features of having experience in the coachee's field and experience in coaching.

3.3.1.3   Section 3 – Features of the coaching process

Section 3 – Features of the coaching process was the next section to be analysed with frequencies. There were only two questions in this section. The first question asked respondents to rate how important they felt certain features were to the coaching process. Table 3.10 presents the mean importance ratings. A principal components factor analysis resulted in a one factor solution so it was decided at this stage to leave these items as separate variables for later analysis and to create a single factor labelled 'Processes' using the single factor score. When analysed by the mean importance rating the top features were 'is able to identify my blind spots', 'encourages me to take appropriate action' and 'helps me to constructively view difficult issues'.

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Table 3.10

Mean importance ratings

Feature	Mean Importance Rating	Std dev
Is able to identify my blind spots	4.39	.987
Encourages me to take appropriate action	4.27	.877
Helps me to constructively view difficult issues	4.20	.984
Uses priorities and time lines	3.95	.962
Is free from interruption by outside influences	3.81	1.062
Helps me relate my personal goals to my organisational goals	3.77	.905
Focuses on my successes, rather than on my failings	3.70	1.071

Again a repeated measures non-parametric ANOVA was conducted to see
which, if any, of the rated features of the coaching process were significantly
more important than any others. The results showed that the top three variables
listed in Table 3.11, 'Is able to identify my blind spots', 'Encourages me to take
appropriate action' and 'Helps me to constructively view difficult issues' were
seen as significantly more important to the coaching process than any of the
other features. Research into the Theory of Planned Behavior indicates the
behaviour change is more likely when an individual translates broader goals into
specific behavioural intentions or actions and when these are framed in a positive
manner (Ajzen, 2001; Fiske, 2004).

Table 3.11

Results of repeated measures ANOVA on the coaching process

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's Trace	.476	15.774	6.000	104.000	.000	.476
Wilks' Lambda	.524	15.774	6.000	104.000	.000	.476
Hotelling's Trace	.910	15.774	6.000	104.000	.000	.476
Roy's Largest Root	.910	15.774	6.000	104.000	.000	.476

The next question in the survey asked the respondents to pick the three most

important features and rank them from most important to least important. Again

because respondents could choose three features a multiple response analysis

was carried out to determine which feature was the most important overall. The

features are listed in order of importance in the table below. As can be seen, the

three most important features were all related to assisting the coachee in some

form of self awareness or self direction and were consistent with the mean

ratings.

Table 3.12

Important features in the coaching process

Feature	Count	% of Respondents
Is able to identify my blind spots	79	24.2
Helps me to constructively view difficult issues	67	20.6
Encourages me to take appropriate action	61	18.7
Focuses on my successes, rather than my failings	36	11.0
Helps me to relate my personal goals to organisational goals	33	10.1
Is free from interruption by outside influences	29	8.9
Uses priorities and time lines	21	6.4

Some interesting points to note from the findings were that coachees surveyed

wanted to have an external person (coach) to help with taking action and dealing

with trouble. This may be related to having an environment that is supportive of

the coachee exploring new possibilities or solutions (Hellervik, Hazucha, &

Scheider, 1992; King & Eaton, 1999; Peterson, 1993, 1996; Peterson & Hicks,

1993, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2005; Winum, 2005). The results also showed that

respondents were not strong on matching personal to organisational goals which

could be a problem for employers as the coaching literature places a heavy

emphasis on links between matching the coachee's own personal goals to that of

the organisational goals to improve the organisation's performance. A note for

future/further research is to include more questions on goals as goal setting

could be one of the major components involved in coaching.

3.3.1.4 Section 4 – Questions about the organisation

When respondents were asked how supportive the organisation that they work for was towards coaching, most stated that their organisation was supportive with 41.2% stating that their organisation was very supportive. 32.5% stated that their organisation was generally supportive which means that 73.7% of respondents overall stated that their organisation was supportive in the coaching process. 13.2% stated that their organisation was 'neither' supportive or unsupportive. Only 7.0% felt their organisation was generally unsupportive and 2.6% revealed that their organisation was not at all supportive. Respondents were also asked if their organisation paid for their coaching sessions. Seventy-seven (67.5%) stated 'yes' and 33 (28.9%) stated 'no'. Four people did not answer this question.

3.3.1.5 Section 5 – Questions about the coachee

In section 5 respondents were asked to list five personal goals and five organisational goals that they had at the start of the coaching process. Since respondents had to list five goals for each question a multiple response analysis was carried out for each. The top five responses for both questions are listed in the tables below. Appendices E and F contain each full list.

Table 3.13

Top five personal goals

Goal	Count	% of Responses
Personal development	33	9.9
Acquire knowledge	31	9.3
Develop skills	29	8.7
Learn new approaches/techniques	20	6.0
Identify blind spots/ strengths/weaknesses	18	5.4

Table 3.14

Top five organisational goals

Goal	Count	% of Responses
Get a promotion/ career development	22	7.3
None	20	6.6
Add value to organisation/ assist organisation	19	6.3
Able to do my role better/ more potential	18	6.0
More effective	18	6.0

After listing their five goals both personal and organisational, respondents were asked to state their most important goal overall. The most important goal overall was to 'acquire knowledge/better education' with 9.6%. Second was to 'achieve goals/complete a task' with 7.9%. In third place were four goals, each with 6.1%, they were 'better understanding of a specific issue or skill', 'better staff relations', 'passing on skills to staff' and 'being more effective'.

Respondents were asked to keep the goal they rated as most important overall in mind for the next question which was 'How important was/is that benefit (goal) to

you?' 86% rated it either important or highly important. While 4.4% rated it

'neither' and only 8.8% rated it either highly unimportant or unimportant. Table

3.15 displays these results.

Table 3.15

How important was/is that benefit/goal to you?

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Highly important	75	66.4
Important	23	20.4
Neither	5	4.4
Unimportant	2	1.8
Highly unimportant	8	7.1
Total	113	100.0

Respondents were then asked to state whether they agreed with a number of

statements in relation to their goals. The first statement was 'Coaching was/is

the best way to achieve this outcome' 66.6% felt that coaching was the best way

to achieve this outcome. Only 10.5% felt that coaching was not the best way to

achieve the outcome, 21.9% stated 'neither', one person did not answer the

question. The next statement was 'The effort I put in to achieve this outcome

was/is worth it'. Again respondents agreed with this statement with 86% of

respondents stating either agree or strongly agree. When respondents were

asked 'I was/I am very committed to the coaching process' 78.1% stated either

agree or strongly agree, only 9.6% felt that they disagreed with this statement by

selecting either disagree or strongly disagree. The last statement was ' I was/I

am confident of being able to achieve this outcome' again respondents did agree

with this statement with 79.8% of respondents stating agree or strongly agree,

again a very small percentage 8.8% stated disagree or strongly disagree with this statement. No significant differences in the importance ratings were found between these statements. As with the coaching process variables, a single variable was created for later multivariate analyses using scores from a principal components analysis. Table 3.16 displays the mean rating for each statement.

Table 3.16

Statements in relation to respondents' goals

Statement	Mean Rating	Std dev
Coaching was/is the best way to achieve this outcome (n = 113)	3.78	1.041
The effort I put in to achieve this outcome was/is worth it (n = 113)	4.16	.960
I was/I am committed to the coaching process (n = 113)	4.06	1.046
I was/I am confident of being able to achieve this outcome (n = 113)	4.04	.999

(1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neither, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)

The agreement shown to these statements by the respondents suggests that they believed that they were committed and confident that the effort they were putting into the coaching process was going to help them achieve their desired goals or outcomes. This is consistent with the theories of locus of control (Muchinsky, 2003), self determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996), intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996) and the expectancy x value models (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen, 1977).

Next respondents were asked to rate on a scale from 1-5 with '1' being none and '5' being a lot, how much effort they felt they had to put into or were prepared to put into the coaching process. Again this supports the theories mentioned above since 46.5% of respondents rated the amount of effort they would put into the coaching process as a '5' (being a lot) and 33.3% rated it a '4'. It is important to note that these are self reported measures and so likely to be subject to a positive attributional bias (Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982; Muchinsky, 2003).

A list of possible barriers to the success of the coaching process was given to respondents and they were asked to rate on a scale whether they agreed or disagreed that these were barriers in their coaching process. 66.7% of respondents felt that their preoccupation with other work matters was a barrier to their coaching process. When asked whether preoccupation with other personal matters was a barrier, the responses were more evenly distributed with 11.4% for strongly agree, 36.8% for agree, 19.3% for neither, 16.7% for disagree, 12.3% for strongly disagree and 2.6% stated that they didn't know. Lack of time was the final barrier that was listed, respondents replied with 21.9% stating strongly agree, 28.1% for agree, 15.8% for neither, 13.2% for disagree, 14.9% for strongly disagree and 5.3% stated they didn't know. Respondents were also given the opportunity to list any other barriers they felt they had during the coaching process. Responses included no support or commitment from the organisation, lack of organisation, features to do with the coach, features to do with the coachee and communication between the coach and coachee. No new features,

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that is features that were not already covered in the questionnaire, were reported.

3.3.1.6 Summary of stage 1

Figure 3.3 is a modified version of Figure 2.10 in that the key factors under each variable have been placed in order of importance in accordance with the results from this first stage, Study 1. It can be seen that with features of the coach the three most significantly important features were 'is honest', 'communicates clearly' and 'maintains confidentiality'. With features of the coaching process the three most significant features in terms of importance were 'is able to identify my blind spots', 'encourages me to take appropriate action' and 'helps me to constructively view difficult issues'. The most important features that were related to the coachee included 'effort' which was related to self efficacy theory and the motivation theories and 'pre-occupation with other matters' which is also related to 'lack of time' as these were both barriers for the coachee.

COACHING

COACH	COACHEE	ORGANISATION	COACHING PROCESS
• **Is honest** • **Communicates clearly** • **Maintains confidentiality** • Is organised • Has experience within my industry	• Effort • Preoccupation with other work matters	• Support	• **Identifies blind spots** • **Encourages taking appropriate action** • **Constructively views difficult issues**

RELATIONSHIP

• **One-on-One/ personal interaction**
• Similarity/matching between coach and coachee

Figure 3.3: Detailed list of factors in order of importance

This first stage of analysis tends to lend itself more towards the two theories of persuasive communication reviewed in the previous chapter and is highlighted by the significant variables noted in Figure 3.3.   Persuasive communication is a way to characterise the interpersonal relationship between the coach and coachee. By the coach being honest, maintaining confidentiality and communicating clearly to the coachee a certain amount of trust is built up. This trust in the relationship and coach have an ultimate effect on how much effort the coachee is willing to put into the coaching process.

The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 2001) suggests that it is not just one's intentions to complete a particular task that is the ultimate motivational driving force behind someone doing something but that one needs to take into consideration the possible effects of 'perceived behavioral control' on the achievement of certain goals. "Whereas intentions reflect primarily an individual's willingness to try enacting a given behavior, perceived control is likely to take into account some of the realistic constraints that exist" (Ajzen, 1988, p. 133). This can be related to the variable 'preoccupation with other work matters'. Someone might have all the intentions of doing something but a real constraint such as another work matter may be what determines whether they will be actually able to complete the task.

It appears from these descriptive analyses that the coaching process must provide an environment in which the coachee feels that the coach is understanding of certain aspects and is trustworthy. This type of environment may help to motivate the coachee to explore their options and to find the answers themselves, ultimately helping the coachee to achieve the three most important variables listed under coaching process in the revised coaching model, 'identifies blind spots', 'encourages taking appropriate action' and 'constructively views difficult issues'.

It is important to note that there was an equal distribution of perceived importance of the three main components (coach, coachee, coaching process)

which requires more detailed analysis. The point to note is that the results are self reported or stated behaviours. Further analysis is needed to get beyond this to the underlying patterns.

3.3.2 Stage 2: Examining demographic and context variables in more detail

The next stage in the analysis examined the influence of demographic and coaching context variables on responses to the survey questions, using crosstabulations and means difference tests such as independent t tests and one-way ANOVAS. A cross tabulation is defined as "a tabular presentation of a frequency distribution which presents bivariate data" (Collis & Hussey, 2003, p. 345). Cross tabulations are very helpful in analysing nominal data and this was the reason for conducting cross tabulations. Independent t-tests were used to find out if there were any significant differences between the groups examined and the significance levels for all analyses was p<.05. It is recognized that with large numbers of significant tests that a lower significance level might be set, however, given the exploratory nature of this research it was decided it be left at .05. The demographic variables examined were gender, age, industry, time in current position and whether or not the respondent had children. Dependent variables examined in all cases were 'Are you currently being coached?', 'How long have you been with your current coach?', 'Do you have a set finishing date for your current coaching process?', if 'Yes, how long will your current coaching process last for?', 'When did your most recent coaching experience finish?', 'Who initiated the coaching session?', 'How often do/did you meet with your coach?',

'How long does/did each session go for?', 'Would you participate in coaching again?', 'Would you recommend coaching to your colleagues?' and 'How effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?'. The overall coaching index was also examined. Respondents were asked to rank the importance of 'the coach', 'the person being coached' and 'what the coach does'. The 19 features that could contribute to the coach's effectiveness included 'is similar in age to me', 'is the same gender as me', 'displays self-confidence', 'is outgoing', 'has experience with coaching', 'has experience within my industry', 'is likeable', 'has similar values to me', is able to see things from my point of view', 'displays warmth', 'displays acceptance of me', 'shares the same goals as me', 'is organised', 'is creative', 'is calm', 'has similar personality to me', 'communicates clearly', 'is honest' and 'maintains confidentiality' which were done individually and then by the five summary factors. The five factors were labelled as 'Calm and Organised', 'Confidence and Acceptance', 'Similarity', 'Values' and 'Congruence'. Differences in the lists of the three most important features were also examined.

Features of the coaching process were next to be analysed with respondents asked to rank certain features such as 'the coaching process encourages me to take appropriate action', 'the coaching process uses priorities and time lines', 'the coaching process helps me relate my personal goals to organisational goals', 'the coaching process focuses on my successes, rather than on my failings', 'the coaching process is able to identify my blind spots', 'the coaching process helps

me to constructively view difficult issues', 'the coaching process is free from interruption by outside influences'. Respondents again had to pick and rank the three most important to them from this list. Other features included features of the organisation, such as 'how supportive the organisation was with regards to them going through the coaching process' and whether 'the organisation paid for their coaching or not'. Respondents were asked to choose the most important outcome from their coaching overall. They were also asked how important this outcome was to them. Respondents had to answer a number of statements about coaching and whether they agreed with these statements or not. The first statement was 'coaching was/is the best way to achieve this outcome', 'the effort I put in to achieve this outcome was/is worth it', 'I was/I am very committed to the coaching process', 'I was/I am confident of being able to achieve this outcome'. Respondents reported on how much effort they felt they had put into or were prepared to put into the coaching process. A list of barriers that could affect how successful the coaching process was displayed to the respondents and they were asked to state whether they agreed or disagreed. These included 'preoccupation with other work matters', 'preoccupation with other personal matters', 'lack of time' and 'other' where they could include anything else they felt was a barrier. Finally the last section included some of the other demographic variables. These included variables such as 'marital status', 'occupation' and finally 'qualifications'.

3.3.2.1 *Gender*

When looking at gender significant differences found were for eight of the features of the coach and the summary factors 'Calm & Organised' and 'Congruence'. These results are depicted in Table 3.17. From the table it can be seen that each of these features while important to both males and females, were more important for females except for the variable 'Is similar in age to me' where females tended to rate this less important than males. It is not understood why females tended to rate these variables more importantly than the males, however, this would be an interesting topic for further research.

Table 3.17

Significant variables in relation to gender

Variable	Mean	Std dev	t	Sig. (2 tailed)
Is similar in age to me	Female – 2.00 Male – 2.44	Female – .902 Male – 1.327	-1.992	.050
Has experience within my industry	Female – 4.28 Male –3.60	Female – 1.166 Male – 1.485	2.645	.010
Is organised	Female – 4.73 Male – 4.18	Female – .660 Male – 1.257	2.807	.006
Is calm	Female – 4.45 Male – 3.92	Female – .675 Male – 1.368	2.498	.015
Has similar personality to me	Female – 4.30 Male – 3.86	Female – .979 Male – 1.212	2.065	.042
Communicates clearly	Female – 4.90 Male – 4.28	Female – .511 Male – 1.294	3.187	.002
Is honest	Female – 4.83 Male – 4.32	Female – .642 Male – 1.377	2.426	.018
Maintains confidentiality	Female – 4.95 Male – 4.26	Female – .502 Male – 1.397	3.319	.002
Calm and Organised	Female – .3146625 Male – -.3775949	Female – .62254567 Male – 1.22110799	3.634	.001
Congruence	Female – .1906632 Male – -.2287958	Female – .86367621 Male – 1.10832857	2.181	.032

P<.05

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3.3.2.2 Age

In these analyses significant differences were found for only two variables. The variable 'how effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?' was most highly rated by respondents in the 50-59 age bracket followed closely by those in the 30-39 age bracket. Respondents in the age groups of 20-29 and 60+ also rated it highly. Those in the 40-49 and <19 age bracket did not rate this variable as highly as other respondents however, they still rated it highly overall.

Most respondents did not think that having a coach the same age as them to be important, however, respondents from the 60+ age group rated this variable as more important than the other respondents. This suggests that older coachees may not feel comfortable having a coach that could be much younger than them. It may also reflect the assumption that the older you are the more experienced you are and therefore the more credible as a coach. This could be related to the psychology and persuasive communication literature where someone who is seen to be experienced in a particular field is more likely to be credible (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984; Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981). Table 3.18 displays these results.

Table 3.18

Significant variables in relation to age

Variable	Mean	Std dev	F	Sig.
How effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?	<19 – 3.50 20-29 – 4.00 30-39 – 4.15 40-49 – 3.71 50-59 – 4.50 60+ - 4.00	<19 – .707 20-29 – .798 30-39 – .784 40-49 – 1.006 50-59 – .688 60+ - .000	2.476	.037
Is similar in age to me	<19 – 1.50 20-29 – 2.04 30-39 – 2.38 40-49 – 1.77 50-59 – 1.70 60+ - 3.50	<19 – .707 20-29 – 1.065 30-39 – 1.388 40-49 – .762 50-59 – .571 60+ - 1.732	3.141	.011

P<.05

3.3.2.3 Industry

Due to the large number of different responses for 'what industry/sector do you work in' the researcher narrowed these fields down into four groups. These included *Business and Finance* which consisted of responses such as small business owner, accounting, administration, banking, business, catering/hospitality, consulting/recruitment, economics, insurance, property, services and telecommunications. *Education,* which consisted of responses such as research and education. *Heavy Industries* included agriculture, building/construction, maintenance/manufacturing and transport. A final category was developed called *Other* these responses did not fit into any of the previous categories and so were grouped together, this group consisted of responses such as health, aviation, entertainment/media, government, home duties, ICT, public, sport and tourism. The only significant difference found in the analyses for

the industry sector in which the coachees' were employed in was the variable

'the coaching process helps me to constructively view difficult issues'.

The Education group rated the factor 'the coaching process helps me to

constructively view difficult issues' more highly than the other groups. Business

and Finance and Other also rated this factor quite highly. Heavy Industries rated

this variable the lowest overall compared to the other three groups. Again it is

not clear why this industry did not rate this variable as highly as the other

industries. It is possible that people working in different sectors face different

types of issues and a more detailed study of sectoral differences in responses to

coaching would be valuable. The results can be seen in Table 3.19 below.

Table 3.19

Significant variables in relation to industry sector

Variable	Mean	Std dev	F	Sig.
The coaching process helps me to constructively view difficult issues	Business & Finance – 4.13 Education – 4.62 Heavy Industries – 3.83 Other – 4.18	Business & Finance – 1.005 Education – .561 Heavy Industries – 1.249 Other – .795	3.073	.031

P<.05

3.3.2.4 Time in current position

A significant difference was found for the variable 'displays acceptance of me'

and 'has similar personality to me' when analysed by the amount of time the

respondent had spent in their current position. With the first variable 'displays

acceptance of me', those that had been in their current positions for 1-2 years and 6-10 years equally rated that variable more highly than the other groups. Those that had been in their position for >10 years also rated this variable quite highly. Respondents who had been in the position for <1 year and 3-5 years did not see 'displays acceptance of me' as important as the other groups. Respondents may feel that by the coach showing acceptance of them helps to create a particular bond in the relationship between the coach and coachee which is very important (Eaton, Abeles, & Gutfreund, 1988; Freud, 1913, 1958; Greenson, 1965; Horvath & Luborsky, 1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Krupnick et al., 1996; Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998). Please refer to Table 3.20 for these results.

For the variable 'has similar personality to me' respondents in the 6-10 years group rated this variable more highly than any other group. Groups in the >10 years and 1-2 years gave this variable a mean rating of 4.36 and 4.32 respectively. While <1 year and 3-5 year groups still found this variable important they did not rate it as highly as the other groups. Again if the coach is seen to have a similar personality to the coachee this may also help in building the relationship. Similar personalities may also encourage feelings of acceptance.

Table 3.20

Significant variables in relation to time in current position

Variable	Mean	Std dev	F	Sig.
Displays acceptance of me	<1 yr – 3.83 1-2 yrs – 4.45 3-5 yrs – 3.79 6-10 yrs – 4.45 >10 yrs – 4.27	<1 yr – 1.249 1-2 yrs – .723 3-5 yrs – 1.031 6-10 yrs – .934 >10 yrs – .827	2.707	.034
Has similar personality to me	<1 yr – 3.61 1-2 yrs – 4.32 3-5 yrs – 3.71 6-10 yrs – 4.73 >10 yrs – 4.36	<1 yr – 1.335 1-2 yrs – 1.137 3-5 yrs – 1.013 6-10 yrs – .647 >10 yrs – .902	3.527	.010

P<.05

3.3.2.5   Children versus no children

Significant results were only found for three features of the coach when coachees with children were compared to those with no children (See Table 3.21). When looking at the results to this table it is interesting to note that on all three significant factors respondents who have children rated each variable generally more important than those that did not have children. It is not certain why these features were seen to be more important to those with children. Further research into what people with children consider as important to include in the coaching process or for a coach to have may help to explain some of these preliminary findings.

Table 3.21

Significant variables in relation to children versus no children

Variable	Mean	Std dev	t	Sig. (2 tailed)
Displays self-confidence	No children 4.07 Children 4.59	No children 1.340 Children .583	-2.510	.015
Is honest	No children 4.30 Children 4.81	No children 1.280 Children .833	-2.357	.021
Maintains confidentiality	No children 4.33 Children 4.86	No children 1.351 Children .732	-2.433	.018

P<.05

What is interesting here is that there were differences on the questions to do with

effort, commitment and confidence in believing coaching was the best way to

achieve specific outcomes, how much effort the coachee felt they had put into

the coaching process to achieve a specific outcome and what sorts of barriers

they felt they had with the coaching process. This is not consistent with an

argument that people with children might have more problems with work-life

balance.

3.3.2.6 *Examining coaching experiences in more detail*

The next set of analyses compared respondents who were currently being

coached with those who had completed their coaching. Significant differences

were found for nine of the variables analysed. With each of the significant results

it can be seen that respondents that were currently going through the coaching

process at the time the questionnaire was administered, rated each variable as

more important than those that had already completed the coaching process and

were now reflecting on their experience. These results are listed in Table 3.22

below. Generally, time for reflection moderates responses across all the

variables and being in the process right now heightens awareness and leads to

stronger responses.

Table 3.22

Summary of significant variable differences between those being coached and

respondents that had completed the coaching process

Variable	Mean	Std dev	t	Sig. (2 tailed)
How effective you thought the coaching you participated in was	No – 3.76 Yes – 4.28	No – .924 Yes – .744	-3.307	.001
Displays self confidence	No – 4.14 Yes – 4.63	No – 1.099 Yes – .817	-2.706	.008
Is outgoing	No – 3.12 Yes – 3.81	No – 1.077 Yes – .951	-3.553	.001
The coaching process encourages me to take appropriate action	No – 4.10 Yes – 4.46	No – .852 Yes – .874	-2.172	.032
Coaching was/is the best way to achieve this outcome	No – 3.59 Yes – 3.98	No – 1.060 Yes – 1.000	-2.008	.047
The effort I put in to achieve this outcome was/is worth it	No – 3.84 Yes – 4.50	No – 1.056 Yes – .728	-3.820	.000
I was/I am very committed to the coaching process	No – 3.79 Yes – 4.37	No – 1.104 Yes – .908	-2.980	.004
I was/I am confident of being able to achieve this outcome	No – 3.86 Yes – 4.27	No – 1.050 Yes – .910	-2.178	.032
How much effort do you feel you have put into, or are prepared to put into, the coaching process?	No – 3.98 Yes – 4.38	No – 1.000 Yes – .911	-2.206	.030

P<.05

For respondents who had completed the coaching process a significant

difference was also found for the variable 'is similar in age to me' depending on

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who initiated the coaching sessions. Respondents who answered that they
themselves and the organisation had initiated the coaching process felt the
variable of 'is similar in age to me' to be more important than any of the other
groups. While this factor was not rated very highly overall it may be that those
respondents that had completed the coaching process had more time to reflect
on their experience and may have felt that having someone who is similar in age
to them would be more effective. There were no other significant findings for
those that were currently going through the coaching process and those who had
initiated the coaching process. These results are displayed in Table 3.23 below.

Table 3.23

Significant findings for respondents who had completed the coaching process
and where the coaching process was initiated by self

Variable	Mean	Std dev	F	Sig.
Is similar in age to me	Coach – 1.00 Org – 2.00 Self – 2.56 N/A – 3.50 Self & Org – 3.00	Coach – . Org – .882 Self – 1.149 N/A – 2.082 Self & Org – .	2.727	.038

3.3.2.7 Summary of stage 2

Stage 2 looked at the influence of demographic details in relation to responses
from the survey questions. The five demographic variables included 'gender',
'age', 'industry', 'time in current position' and 'children versus no children'.
Females tended to rate the significant variables more highly in importance than
males, while all age groups felt that the coaching they participated in was

effective. Significant differences were found between 'time in current position' and the variables 'displays acceptance of me' and 'has similar personality to me'. Respondents who had children tended to rate each of the variables 'displays self confidence', 'is honest' and 'maintains confidentiality' as more important than those respondents without children.

Major differences were found between those being coached and those that had already completed the coaching process. When it came to how effective respondents felt the coaching process was it was shown that all age groups felt it was effective but those that had completed the coaching process rated it more highly than those still going through the coaching process. The only other variable that was highlighted as significant in two areas was 'displays self confidence' this was proven to be significant for the variables 'is currently being coached or not' and 'children versus no children'.

Overall those that had completed the coaching process rated each variable more highly than those that were still currently going through the coaching process. This may be due to the fact that once the coaching process is complete respondents are able to put in place techniques learnt to achieve certain benefits or outcomes and are more reflective about what they did learn during the process. Those that are still going through the process may not be aware of where they will end up and whether they will actually achieve their goals set.

Overall, there were no clear patterns linking demographics and coaching context factors with other responses. A note of caution needs to be emphasised here with the use of $p < .05$. Given the large number of tests run it is most likely that in this case no major relationships were detected. However, there were slight differences between certain factors such as what industry the coachee worked in and how long they had been in that particular position, whether they were male or female, whether they had children or not and whether the coach was a similar age, due to the sample size of this study it would be interesting to look at each of these variables in more detail in the future.

3.3.3 Stage 3: Determining the relative effectiveness of the factors

This final stage focussed on the first aim of the study which was to determine the relative contribution of the key components and the variables within them to overall coaching effectiveness. This stage was further broken into three parts. The first part looked at the overall importance ranking of the coach, coachee and what the coach does (coaching process). The second part involved a series of bivariate analyses designed to identify which variables were significantly related to overall coaching effectiveness. From these results a smaller set of variables were identified and used in the third part in a multiple regression analysis of overall coaching effectiveness.

3.3.3.1 Examining the overall importance ranking of the coach, coachee and coaching process

Respondents were asked to rank overall the importance of the coach, coachee and what the coach does (the coaching process) to the effectiveness of coaching. These three themes have been suggested as important to the coaching process (Gegner, 1997). In addition, the persuasive communication literature suggests that different conditions should result in different emphasis being given to these different areas (Fiske, 2004). The results showed that each of the three areas received nearly equal ratings of importance, with 35.1% of respondents ranking the coach as the most important, 33.3% ranking what the coach does as most important and finally, 28.9% of respondents ranked the coachee as the most important factor. The following sections examined the differences between these three responses and the dependent variables.

3.3.3.1.1 Section 1 – Setting the context

In section 1 the results showed that respondents who had been through the coaching process for less than six months felt that the coach was the most important factor while those respondents who had been through the coaching process for more than six months felt the coachee was the most important factor. If the coach or organisation had initiated the coaching process it was found that the coach was the most important factor overall. For respondents who were still in the coaching process the coach and what the coach does were rated as most important overall if the coaching sessions lasted for 1-2 hours, while those that

had completed the coaching process found that the coach and coachee were most important overall when the coaching session lasted for 1-2 hours. The relevant significant chi-square results for the analyses of each of the three variables are provided in Table 3.24.

Table 3.24

Results of chi-square tests for section 1

Factor	Chi-square	Asymp. Sig
If yes (are you currently being coached) how long will your current coaching process last for?	25.214	.000
When did your most recent coaching experience finish?	28.880	.000
Who initiated the coaching session?	91.967	.000
How often did you meet with your coach?	76.763	.000
How long did each session go for?	73.727	.000
Would you participate in coaching again?	99.324	.000
Would you recommend coaching to your colleagues?	107.036	.000

P<.05

3.3.3.1.2 Section 6 - Demographics

Males tended to rate the coachee as the most important factor overall while females rated what the coach does as the most important factor. Respondents with children also tended to rate the coachee as the most important factor overall. Those respondents with more than two children rated the coachee or what the coach does as the most important factor. Respondents with a post graduate degree also rated the coachee as the most important factor. A chi-square test was also performed on each factor in section six to see if there were any significant differences: none were found.

3.3.3.1.3 Summary of bivariate analyses

This section looked at who respondents rated as the most important variable in coaching. These results suggest that coaching participants differ systematically in their personal characteristics, expectations and perceptions of the coaching process. Respondents who said that the coach was the most important had been with their current coach for more than one year, expected the coaching process to last for one month, had sessions that went for less than one hour, had the coaching sessions initiated by the organisation, had been in their current position for 1-5 years and had a high school education. They also stated that it was important for the coach to have a good personality/attitude, be friendly, be patient and have the ability to build a rapport. In regards to personal goals those who wanted to use the coaching process in order to identify blind spots, learn approaches, become more confident and develop skills also felt that the coach was the most important variable. In regard to organisational goals respondents who felt the coach was the most important feature stated that they wanted to increase their chances of getting a promotion and wanted to become more efficient. This group also tended to have more females.

With regard to those respondents that stated that the coachee was the most important feature, these were respondents who had been with their current coach for 6-12 months, felt that the coaching process would last for 6-12 months, their sessions usually went for 1-3 hours, they were male, married and had two or more children. They had been in their current position for 6-10 years, they had

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post graduate qualifications and stated that they would participate in coaching again, they tended to like a coach with technical experience and one that provided sufficient contact time. When stating their organisational goals, they wanted to add value to the organisation and many did not have any organisational goals when they started the coaching process.

The final group examined were those who rated the coaching process as most important. Here respondents had been with their coach for 3-6 months, their sessions went for less than one hour, they had initiated the coaching themselves, they were female, single with no children. They had either TAFE qualifications or an undergraduate degree. They felt it was important for the coach to provide sufficient contact time and were generally respondents who wanted to acquire knowledge and enhance their personal development. They also wanted to be able to perform their role at work better.

Table 3.25

Summary of coaching contact and demographic factors that differed significantly

between the three groups

Factor	% of group	% of total sample
Coach is most important		
Been with current coach > 1 year	50	40
Coaching process will last 1 month	22	14
Sessions are < 1 hr	37	31
Organisation initiated process	75	51
Been in current position 1-5 yrs	65	54
Have high school education	20	14
Coachee is most important		
Been with current coach 6-12 months	25	19
Coaching process will last 6-12 months	67	57
Sessions are 1-3 hrs	80	61
Male	58	46
Married	73	60
Have children	67	58
Organisation did/is not paying	36	30
Been in current position 6-10 yrs	18	10
Have postgraduate qualifications	46	36
Would participate in coaching again	6	3
Coaching process is most important		
Been with current coach 3-6 months	24	13
Sessions are <1 hr	40	31
Initiated coaching process themselves	39	30
Female	70	54
Single	38	28
No children	49	42
Have TAFE/undergraduate qualifications	54	44

As suggested from persuasive communication studies, characteristics of the

coach were more important for those with less experience of coaching itself, less

formal education and less work experience. In addition those respondents who

focussed on the coach were also less likely to have initiated the coaching, to

have shorter sessions, to have less confidence and perceived skills and to be

motivated by promotion rather than personal development. These are all

conditions that the ELM would predict encourage peripheral processing of

information and increased attention to characteristics of the coach. The results

of the present study further demonstrate that as coachees become more familiar

or experienced with coaching itself they tend to shift their attention to the actual

processes. Those participants with goals more closely linked to learning and

development were most likely to pay greater attention to the coaching process

suggesting a focus on elaboration of messages. Those with high levels of

education and experience were also more likely to be pursuing a central route to

attitude change. Finally, those who had finished their coaching experience

reported an emphasis on themselves as key determinants of the outcomes. This

suggests that there may be significant shifts in key processes across different

phases of the coaching process.

3.3.3.1.4 Section 2 – Features of the coach

A series of Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed on the questions which asked

respondents to rate the importance of the features of the coach. No significant

differences were found between those who ranked the coach, the coachee or the

coaching process on the ratings of importance for features of coach. A

crosstabulation was also conducted on the multiple response question of 'What

features do you feel are most important for a coach to have?' Respondents who

stated that it was most important for the coach to; have a good

personality/attitude, be friendly, be patient and have the ability to develop a

rapport found the coach to be the most important feature. Respondents who felt

that the most important factor for a coach to have was their technical experience

stated that the coachee was the most important factor. While respondents who

answered providing sufficient contact time was the most important factor felt that

the coachee and what the coach does were the most important features.

3.3.3.1.5 Section 3 – Features of the coaching process

A series of Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted on the questions in Section 3

and no significant differences were found. A check was also conducted to look

for differences on the overall factor scores and again no significant differences

were found.

3.3.3.1.6 Section 4 – Questions about the organisation

A chi-square test was performed on each factor in section four to see if there

were any significant differences (see Table 3.26). Those who said the coachee

was most important were less likely to have had their coaching paid for by their

organisation compared to those who said coach was most important and those

that said the coaching process was the most important.

Table 3.26

Results of chi-square test for section 4

Factor	Variables (N)*	Chi-square	df	Asymp. Sig
Did the organisation you work for pay for your coaching session?	Coach - 40 Coachee - 33 Coaching Process - 38	17.600	1	.000

* number in each group who stated the organisation paid

3.3.3.1.7 Section 5 – Questions about the coachee

A crosstabulation was also conducted on the multiple response questions of

'What personal goals did you have at the start of coaching?' and 'What

organisational goals did you have at the start of coaching?'. With regard to

personal goals respondents who wanted to use the coaching process in order to

identify blind spots, learn approaches, become more confident and develop skills,

were more likely to state that the coach was the most important element.

Respondents who wanted to acquire knowledge and enhance their personal

development were more likely to rate what the coach does as most important.

When respondents were asked to list their organisational goals those that stated

that they wanted to increase their chances of getting a promotion and become

more efficient felt the coach was the most important factor. Respondents who

listed that they wanted to add value to the organisation and those that stated that

they didn't have any organisational goals felt that the coachee was the most

important factor. While respondents who answered being able to do their role at

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work better felt that what the coach does was the most important factor. A full list of all personal and organisational goals listed by respondents is presented in Appendix E and Appendix F. The survey was designed so that the open ended questions could be checked against what was noted in the literature to be important. Rating scales listing a number of variables were included for respondents to rate how important each variable was to them. This was then checked against what was listed in the open ended questions for respondents to list their organisational and personal goals. A check was also carried out to determine if there were any significant differences on the factor scores, however, none were found.

3.3.3.1.8 Discriminant analysis

Further analysis on the differences between these three groups was carried out in the form of discriminant analysis. Researchers classify inter alia in order to achieve a better understanding of the dimensions along which people/objects/events differ. Discriminant analysis "joins a nominally scaled criterion or dependent variable with one or more independent variables that are interval or ratio scaled" (Cooper & Schindler, 2001, p. 580). Discriminant analysis is a way to simultaneously examine a whole series of variables and determine their relative contribution to distinguishing between different outcomes on dependent variables. Correlations were conducted first on all the ordinal and interval variables previously examined to check for multi-collinearity. A few problems were identified in that some of the variables had correlations of 0.4 or

higher. This included between the variables 'how often do you meet with your coach?' or 'how often did you meet with your coach?' and questions that had to do with the outcomes of the coaching process and coaching process features. In the first case the variable of frequency of meetings was excluded from further analysis. In the second case the two single factor analysis scores, 'Outcomes' and 'Processes' which were used in an attempt to overcome these high correlations between the questions[1]. A second check showed that the two factors were still significantly correlated with each other. Thus the discriminant analysis was carried out twice with only one of these new factors used at a time. The other independent variables used in the analysis are listed in Table 3.28.

The discriminant analyses that used the factor 'Outcomes' was found to be the more appropriate one to use (See Table 3.27) because Function 1 had the highest eigenvalue, explained 75.9% of the variance, had the highest Chi-square statistic and was the only function that was significant. The dependent variable used in the discriminant analysis was labelled RANK and referred to whether the coach, coachee and coaching process was ranked as the most important component of the process. The independent variables of Function 1 are explained by the 'Outcomes' factor, the variable ('how supportive was/is your

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[1] The 'Outcomes' factor included the variables ('how important was/is that benefit to you?', 'coaching was/is the best way to achieve this outcome', 'the effort I put in to achieve this outcome was/is worth it', 'I was/I am very committed to the coaching process' and 'I was/I am confident of being able to achieve this outcome'). While the 'Processes' factor was made up of the variables ('the coaching process encourages me to take appropriate action', 'the coaching process uses priorities and timelines', 'the coaching process helps me relate my personal goals to organisational goals', 'the coaching process focuses on my successes, rather than on my failings', 'the coaching process is able to identify my blind spots', 'the coaching process is free from interruption by outside influences').

organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?'), the 'Confidence and Acceptance' coach factor which was made up of the following variables ('is outgoing', 'displays warmth', 'is able to see things from my point of view', 'displays self confidence', 'displays acceptance of me' and 'is likeable') and finally the variable 'preoccupation with other personal matters'.

Table 3.27

Discriminant analysis

Function	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %	Canonical correlation
1	.421a	75.9	75.9	.544
2	.133a	24.1	100.0	.343
Test of Function(s)	**Wilks' Lambda**	**Chi-square**	**df**	**Sig.**
1 through 2	.621	45.750	30	.033
2	.882	12.022	14	.605

3.4   First 2 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

It is interesting to note that the four most highly rated factors or variables each represent a part of the coaching model, that is, the coaching process which is represented by the 'Outcomes' factor, the organisation which is represented by the variable 'How supportive was/is your organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?', the coach by the factor 'Confidence and Acceptance' and the coachee with the variable 'Preoccupation with other personal matters'. This shows that each component of the model is important and it helps to direct the researcher into what specific parts are of more importance to respondents.

Table 3.28 shows the function coefficients for each of the functions in discriminant analysis. It can be seen that the top four factors from Function 1 were firstly the factor 'Outcomes' which included the variables ('how important was/is that benefit to you?', 'coaching was/is the best way to achieve this outcome', 'the effort I put in to achieve this outcome was/is worth it', 'I was/I am very committed to the coaching process' and 'I was/I am confident of being able to achieve this outcome'). Secondly, the variable ('How supportive was/is the organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?'). The third factor 'Confidence and Acceptance' is made up of the following variables ('is outgoing', 'displays warmth', 'is able to see things from my point of view', 'displays self-confidence', 'displays acceptance of me' and 'is likeable'). The fourth most important variable was 'Preoccupation with other personal matters'.

Table 3.28

Standardised canonical discriminant function coefficients

	Function	
	1	**2**
Outcomes	**-.601**	**-.538**
How supportive was/is your organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?	**.448**	**.231**
Confidence and Acceptance	**.401**	**-.385**
Preoccupation with other personal matters	**.381**	**-.372**
How much effort do you feel you have put into, or are prepared to put into the coaching process	-.367	.064
Coachee Qualifications	.334	.260
Length of time in position	-.317	.381
Congruence	.304	.170
Lack of time	-.281	-.086
Calm and Organised	.274	.231
Preoccupation with other work matters	-.190	.672
What is your age?	-.155	-.232
Values	-.164	-.384
Similarity	.004	.399
Processes	.003	.611

It can be seen from the table above that the four most important factors in order

of importance when looking at who respondents said was the most important in

terms of the coach, the coachee or what the coach does, are the 'Outcomes'

factor (-.601), followed by 'How supportive was/is your organisation with regards

to you going through the coaching process?' (.448). While the factor 'Confidence

and Acceptance' (.401) came in third and finally the fourth most important

variable was 'Preoccupation with other personal matters' (.381).

In order to understand the nature of the relationship between these four variables and whether the respondent saw the coach, coaching process or coachee as more important, oneway ANOVAs were conducted on the top four variables in Table 3.29. This gave the researcher a more in-depth look at what specific individual variable respondents felt was most important. Those respondents that felt the coach was the most important individual variable overall rated highly the factors 'Confidence and Acceptance' and 'Preoccupation with other personal matters'. While respondents who listed the coaching process as the most important individual variable rated highly the factor 'How supportive was/is your organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?'. Those that rated the coachee as the most important individual variable overall listed the 'Outcomes' factor highly. These results can be seen in the table below.

Table 3.29

Top four factors in relation to overall most important individual variable

Factor	Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Outcomes	Coach	-.0504230	1.07966147
	Coachee	**.1529365**	**.94471672**
	Coaching process	-.0786618	1.00143948
How supportive was/is your organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?	Coach	3.25	1.808
	Coachee	2.64	1.817
	Coaching process	**3.46**	**1.660**
Confidence and Acceptance	**Coach**	**.1874778**	**.94701898**
	Coachee	-.2168881	1.00362937
	Coaching process	-.0092379	1.03854781
Preoccupation with other personal matters	**Coach**	**3.00**	**1.198**
	Coachee	2.55	1.175
	Coaching process	2.92	1.441

Respondents who rated the 'Outcomes' factor as most important also said that the coachee was the most important variable overall, this could be related back to the expectancy x value model theories (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen, 1977), the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theories (Deci, 1975; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996), the self determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996) and the theory of locus of control (Muchinsky, 2003) where the amount of effort you put in to do something is rewarded at the end by an expected outcome.

Having the support of the organisation was rated highly by respondents who felt that it was the coaching process that was the most important variable overall. This may be that the support from the organisation for the coaching process made it more enjoyable and therefore more effective because the culture in which they received the coaching was positive. This proposal is also endorsed by Goodstone and Diamante (1998), Kiel and colleagues (1996), Kilburg (1997), Laske (1999a) and Peterson (1996).

While the respondents who rated the coach as the most important variable overall felt that the coach needed to be someone who was outgoing and confident but also needed to be a person who was compassionate and empathetic towards the coachee making them more likeable and at times the coachee felt that they needed to be more like them. If someone is seen to be

similar to you then you are more likely to find them likeable and attractive (Chaiken, 1980; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). While having a coach that is confident and outgoing is seen as something to be admired (Ajzen, 1992; Chaiken, 1980; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). A coach that is seen as warm and empathetic was also strongly admired by the coachees and is supported in the literature of persuasive communication, psychology and coaching (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967; Wasylyshyn, 2003).

This is consistent with the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). There is a need for elaboration of the message in order to have the recipient change attitudes or behaviours and for them then to develop specific intentions. However, they also need the social or organisational support to implement these changes.

3.3.3.2 A more detailed examination of the features and their relationship to perceptions of overall perceived coaching effectiveness

The final section of the analyses explored the relative contributions of key variables to the overall index of coaching effectiveness. It has been previously determined that there were no significant differences in overall perceived coaching effectiveness for the coaching context variables and demographics

except for age and those currently going through the coaching process versus those that have already completed.

In order to further explore perceived effectiveness a multiple regression test was performed to determine what variables were most important with regard to the coaching index. The coaching index was made up of three questions from the questionnaire. These included 'Would you participate in coaching again?', 'Would you recommend coaching to your colleagues?' and 'How effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?'. As with the discriminant analysis in the previous section, tests were conducted to check for multi-collinearity. The final list of independent variables used is given in Table 3.32. As a result two analyses were conducted, one with the 'Outcomes' variable and one with the 'Process' variable. The R square for 'Outcomes' was .288 which was significant but not strong. The 'Outcomes' factor was used in the analysis as it was a better overall solution. The results are shown in Tables 3.30 and 3.31 below. It was found that only two factors were significant these were the factors 'Similarity' and 'Outcomes'.

Table 3.30

Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.614(a)	.377	.288	.81074	.377	4.274	13	92	.000

a Predictors: (Constant), REGR factor score   1 for analysis 3, REGR factor score   5 for analysis   1 , Preoccupation with other personal matters, REGR factor score   2 for analysis   1 , REGR factor score   4 for analysis   1 , How supportive was/is your organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?, What is your age?, REGR factor score   1 for analysis   1 , REGR factor score   3 for analysis   1 , Are you currently being coached?, Lack of time, How much effort do you feel you have put into, or are prepared to put into, the coaching process?, Preoccupation with other work matters

Table 3.31

Coefficients

	Unstandardized	Coeffecients	Standardized Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Calm and Organised	.024	.088	.024	.278	.782
Confidence and Acceptance	.001	.086	.001	.013	.990
Similarity	**.251**	**.084**	**.264**	**2.976**	**.004**
Values	-.073	.084	-.077	-.872	.386
Congruence	-.080	.084	-.084	-.955	.342
What is your age?	.003	.007	.032	.360	.720
Are you currently being coached?	.163	.183	.085	.893	.374
How much effort do you feel you have put into, or are prepared to put into, the coaching process?	.174	.129	.165	1.343	.183
Preoccupation with other work matters	.005	.080	.008	.067	.947
Preoccupation with other personal matters	.047	.077	.061	.616	.540
Lack of time	-.082	.076	-.131	-1.082	.282
How supportive was/is your organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process?	-.046	.046	-.085	-.995	.322
Outcomes	**.411**	**.132**	**.407**	**3.113**	**.002**

a Dependent Variable: coachind

The 'Similarity' factor included the features of the coach 'is similar in age to me' and 'is the same gender as me'. While the 'Outcomes' factor included variables 'how important was/is that benefit to you?', 'coaching was/is the best way to achieve this outcome', 'the effort I put in to achieve this outcome was/is worth it', 'I was/I am very committed to the coaching process' and 'I was/I am confident of being able to achieve this outcome'.

The factor 'Similarity' has also been proven to be important in the counselling psychology and persuasive communication literature (Ajzen, 1992; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994). This could be explained by the coachee thinking that if the coach is similar to me then they will have the same values and interests as me and therefore the relationship between the two grows stronger resulting in a more effective coaching process (Banning, 1997; Diedrich, 2001; Eaton, Abeles, & Gutfreund, 1988; Freud, 1913, 1958; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Greenson, 1965; Horvath & Luborsky, 1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997, 2000; Krupnick et al., 1996; Laske, 1999a; Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985; Newell, 2002; O'Neill, 2000; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998; Wasylyshyn, 2003).

The analysis from Stage 1 found that the results were very similar to aspects of persuasive communication and that components of the coaching process that are important to be included are also important in persuasive communication. The

Stage 3 of analysis however, has highlighted how important counselling

psychology theories are to coaching. This is evident in the two significant factors

'Similarity' which has been previously proven to be important in psychological

therapy literature in achieving 'Outcomes'. The therapist is seen more favourably

and therefore more likeable if they are similar to the patient or have similar

beliefs, values or interests (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt,

1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler,

& Truax, 1967). It is this similarity with the coachee and the coach's ability to

display empathy towards the coachee that make the coaching process more

effective resulting in the achievement of goal oriented outcomes. Overall this

confirms the researchers belief that coaching is related to both the theories of

counselling psychology and persuasive communication.

3.4 Summary and Conclusion

Overall the sample consisted of nearly equal representation of males and

females, there was also a good representation of respondents from all age

groups. One of the main findings that came out of the description of responses

to the questions in the questionnaire was that when respondents were asked to

rate the most important variable overall out of the coach, the coachee and

coaching process, that each received nearly a third of the responses, this then

lead to further investigation by the researcher.

The researcher developed an overall coaching index which consisted of the summation of questions 'Would you participate in coaching again?', 'Would you recommend coaching to your colleagues?' and a rating scale question 'How effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?'. The results showed that the majority of respondents viewed coaching as effective and had a positive attitude towards participating in coaching again and recommending it to colleagues.

It was found that the three most important variables for a coach to have were honesty and maintaining confidentiality which centred around trust (Banning, 1997; Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003) and being able to communicate clearly (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Gegner, 1997; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Monoky, 1996; Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996; Wade, 2004). These were found to be significantly more important than the other variables listed from the literature. While the bottom ranked variables of 'has similar values to me', 'is the same gender as me', 'is similar in age to me' and 'shares the same goals as me' were rated as less important factors for a coach to have. When it came to features of the coaching process it was found that overall the top three responses were 'Is able to identify my blind spots', 'Helps me to constructively view difficult issues' and 'Encourages me to take appropriate action'. All three

features were related to assisting the coachee in some form of self awareness or self direction and were consistent with the mean ratings.

Respondents revealed that they believed they were committed and confident of the effort they were putting into the coaching process and that this effort was going to help them achieve their goals. This was also consistent with theories of locus of control (Muchinsky, 2003), self determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996), intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996) and the expectancy and value models (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen, 1977).

The next stage in the analysis looked at the influence of demographic and coaching context variables on responses to the survey questions. The five demographic variables included 'gender', 'age', 'industry', 'time in current position' and 'children versus no children'. Females tended to rate each variable more highly than males with the exception of 'is similar in age to me'. Each of the different age groups rated the effectiveness of their coaching experience highly and having a coach with the same gender was rated quite low by all respondent age groups except for those in the 60+ age category. The only significant variable for specific industries when analysed was the variable 'the coaching process helps me to constructively view difficult issues' this variable

was rated highly by nearly all industry groups except by the Heavy Industries group which rated highly but not as highly as the others.

Respondents revealed that they wanted to have the coach accept them and be similar to them depending on how long they had been in their current position. This may have made them feel more accepted by the coach and helped to create a particular bond in the relationship which is very important for the coaching process (Eaton, Abeles, & Gutfreund, 1988; Freud, 1913, 1958; Greenson, 1965; Horvath & Luborsky, 1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Krupnick et al., 1996; Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998). Significant results were also found for those respondents with children versus those without, these included the variables 'Displays self confidence', 'Is honest' and 'Maintains confidentiality'.

The next step was to analyse the variables in more detail by looking at those respondents who had completed their coaching process with those that were still going through the coaching process. It was found that overall those respondents that had completed the coaching process rated each variable more highly than those that were still going through the coaching process. This may be that those that have completed the coaching process are able to be more reflective about what they have learnt and what they have achieved. They are able to see the end result. There were no clear patterns however linking demographics and coaching context factors with other responses.

The final state of analysis focused on determining the relative contribution of the variables measured to overall coaching effectiveness. The first part looked at the overall importance ranking of the coach, coachee and the coaching process. While the second part identified which variables were significantly related to overall coaching effectiveness. Each section of the questionnaire was examined in relation to how important respondents had rated the coach, the coachee and the coaching process. For each variable a number of features were found to be important, these findings were summarised in Table 3.25.

The next step in the analysis was to conduct discriminant analysis. Correlations were conducted first on all the ordinal and interval variables previously examined to check for multi-collinearity. Due to some of the variables being highly correlated two factor analyses were used to create two single variables 'Outcomes' and 'Processes'. A second check was carried out and showed that the two new factors were still correlated with each other and so the discriminant analysis was carried out twice with only one of the factors used at a time. It was found that the 'Outcomes' factor was the more appropriate one to use.

During the discriminant analysis the dependent variable was RANK and the four most important independent variables of Function 1 were the 'Outcomes' factor, the variable 'How supportive was/is your organisation with regards to you going through the coaching process', the 'Confidence and Acceptance' factor and the

variable 'Preoccupation with other personal matters'. Further analysis in the form of an oneway ANOVA determined whether respondents saw the coach, coaching process or coachee as more important in terms of each variable. Those that felt the coach was the most important had rated the factors 'Confidence and Acceptance' (Ajzen, 1992; Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Chaiken, 1980; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Lambert, 1992; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967; Wasylyshyn, 2003) and 'Preoccupation with other personal matters' more highly. While those that had listed the coaching process as the most important individual variable thought that the support received from their organisation was most important (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Peterson, 1996). Respondents that rated the coachee as most important felt the 'Outcomes' factor should also be rated highly. The 'Outcomes' factor is related to the expectancy and value models, the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theories, the self determination theory and the theory of locus of control.

The only barrier that was revealed was 'Preoccupation with other personal matters'. This variable was rated evenly over the scale from the original frequency analysis, however, it was the variable 'Preoccupation with other work matters' that was rated more highly on the original scale frequencies. It is not understood why this has shown up but further investigation and future research into this area would be beneficial to the coaching industry.

A multiple regression test was then performed to determine what variables were

most important in regards to the coaching index. The only two variables that

showed a significant difference were 'Similarity' and 'Outcomes'. While the factor

'Similarity' has been proven to be important in the counselling psychology and

persuasive communication literature this variable was not rated highly in

importance in the frequency analysis   (Ajzen, 1992; Banning, 1997; Beutler,

Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Diedrich, 2001; Eaton, Abeles, & Gutfreund, 1988;

Freud, 1913, 1958; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Greenson, 1965;

Horvath & Luborsky, 1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, &

Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997, 2000; Krupnick et al., 1996; Laske, 1999a;

Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985; Newell, 2002; O'Neill,

2000; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998; Wasylyshyn,

2003). Respondents also felt that the coaching they participated in was effective,

that they would participate in it again and that they would recommend it to their

colleagues which seems to justify the claims made by many coaching

companies.

A revised version of the detailed list of factors (previously Figure 2.10 and Figure

3.3) is outlined below. This version now takes into consideration the findings

from the in-depth analysis carried out. It also relates back to the Elaboration

Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and the Theory of Planned Behavior

(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Due to coaching being tailored to the individual needs

of the coachee, different coachee's may take different pathways. These different

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pathways may involve particular stages or steps. For example, the coachee

needs to elaborate on the messages received and then to develop particular

intentions to cause a change in attitude or behaviour. This will be further

enforced with the amount of organisational or social support that the coachee

receives.

COACHING

COACH	**COACHEE**	**ORGANISATION**	**COACHING PROCESS**
• Is honest • Communicates clearly • Maintains confidentiality • Similar to coachee • Outgoing • Likeable • Empathetic • Warm • Accepts coachee	• Effort • Preoccupation with other personal matters • Locus of control • Commitment • Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation	• Support	• Identifies blind spots • Encourages taking appropriate action • Constructively views difficult issues • Outcomes

RELATIONSHIP

• Similarity/matching between coach and coachee
• One-on-One/ personal interaction

Figure 3.4: Revised list of factors

This study has helped to confirm the importance of the three main parts of coaching; the coach, the coachee and what the coach does (the coaching process). It has also provided empirical evidence to suggest that coaching is effective and that the respondents felt that coaching was helpful and effective in them achieving their goals. It has shown that the three most important factors for a coach to have are honesty, being able to communicate clearly and being able to maintain confidentiality. In terms of the coachee, they must put in the effort to be able to achieve the results desired, however, they need to be able to overcome the barrier of other personal matters and commit to the process in order for it to be successful. It has also been determined that the support the organisation gives to the coachee can affect their overall coaching experience. In terms of the coaching process it was found that most respondents feel coaching is used to help them identify blind spots, encourage them to take appropriate action and constructively view difficult issues. If each of these things are done then the process seems to be more effective and successful.

There are some limitations to this research firstly the sample size is not very large and so the findings are more exploratory rather than being used to generalise to the wider population. However, the findings were significant and could be used to determine future paths of research within the coaching area. Time was another limitation, with the problems encountered with the website survey it is not known how much potential data was lost during the time that the

link was not established. Three months worth of data was lost and this time in terms of a PhD was costly.

While a number of areas of interest for future research were identified, three themes consistently emerged from the results to direct the next stage of the thesis:

- The importance of coach experience and technical expertise
- The idea that key processes change in significance in different phases of coaching
- The need for greater attention to coachee goals

Overall the results were consistent with the ELM in that participants with lower experience and less personal connection did place the greatest emphasis on coach characteristics. However, the results also indicated that those who had completed the coaching and who were focussed on applying changes saw the technical expertise of the coach as important. It is possible that a coach with industry specific experience may be better placed to help a coachee translate goals into specific action plans. These results also highlight the second theme of changes over time and in particular suggest a more complex relationship between coachee goals and the coaching process. These three themes were therefore carried forward into the next study.

CHAPTER 4: LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

STUDY 2: PARTICIPANT EVALUATIONS OF COACHING WORKSHOPS AND ONE-ON-ONE COACHING SESSIONS

4.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2 it was noted that theory is developed through an iterative process moving between inductive and deductive processes. In this cycle it is argued that observations lead to suggestions about possible key variables and/or processes that in turn generate new observations. It was also argued that combining quantitative and qualitative approaches was also important. The second study of this thesis therefore sought to add some qualitative data to the coaching model development, to extend our understanding of coaching with a greater focus on the coach-coachee relationship and to further explore themes identified in the literature review and first study.

Coaching is often used as a tool for organisations wanting to develop leaders or enhance skills of key employees to gain a competitive advantage (Day, 2001; McCall, 1998; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998). Therefore, it is important to discuss the different theoretical approaches of leadership and the impact of coaching on building leadership and achieving specific organisational benefits and outcomes. This chapter includes literature on leadership and leadership development. A review of the literature on leadership and coaching in the Education and Tourism industry sectors is also presented.

In order to further explore the effectiveness of coaching, a workshop and series of individual coaching sessions were designed to compare one-on-one coaching with workshops. The workshops were conducted with members of two different sector groups, namely the Tourism sector and the Education sector. This choice also provided the opportunity to compare and contrast two very different industry sectors. The Tourism sector has paid little attention to career development or leadership skills (Blackman et al., 2004; Moscardo, 2005), whereas the Education sector, by way of contrast, has clear career pathways and a history of leadership training and development. In addition, the researcher wanted to explore further the relative importance of general coaching skills (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003) versus specific coaching skills as this was a feature noted by respondents in the first study.

This study enabled the researcher to analyse three different aspects of coaching and leadership development. First there was the difference between participants who only attended the coaching workshop compared with those that participated in the workshop and in the one-on-one coaching sessions over a number of months. Second, the researcher was able to examine participants' feelings about only having generic coaching skills covered compared to the sector specific coaching skills. This is particularly important to the coaching industry as many authors and coaching businesses argue that a coach does not have to have industry experience in order to coach in that specific industry (Berglas,

2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). The respondents in the first study, however, placed a great deal of importance on the credibility of the coach.

The third part of the analysis compared the differences between the very specific career paths of Education sector professionals to that of the very broad and open career path of Tourism sector professionals. The Theory of Planned Behavior suggests that coaching might be more effective in those areas where goals can be more clearly linked to organisational practice.

4.2 Leadership

Leaders who keep learning may be the ultimate source of sustainable competitive advantage. With that understanding many companies are investing in leadership development (programs that help key executives learn leadership skills (R Fulmer, Gibbs, & Goldsmith, 2000, p. 1).

Coaching is often used as a tool for organisations wanting to develop leaders. Therefore, it is important to review the different theoretical approaches to leadership and the role of coaching in building leadership and achieving specific organisational benefits and outcomes. Definitions and theoretical approaches to leadership can be grouped into three different types: trait, behavioural and situational. It has been argued that a number of qualities and attributes are needed to develop a leader in a business. These include trustworthiness, fairness, unassuming behaviour, listening, open-mindedness, sensitivity to

situations, sensitivity to people, initiative, good judgment, broad-mindedness, flexibility and adaptability, capacity to make sound and timely decisions, capacity to motivate and a sense of urgency (M. Bower, 1997). These qualities are at the core of the first approach to leadership, that is, the trait approach in leadership theory. In this approach it is proposed that in order to be a leader one must have and develop these traits (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Muchinsky, 2003).

The second approach to leadership theory is the behavioural approach. With this approach it is argued that leaders are not born but learn the skills of leadership through training and development. Research into individuals in positions of authority to determine their effectiveness as leaders (Bales, 1954; Stogdill & Coons, 1957; and Kahn & Katz, 1953; Likert, 1961; Mann, 1965) has identified two different classes of leader behaviours, those that are task oriented and those that are person oriented (House & Aditya, 1997). Behaviours that are centralised around 'structure' for example, people who schedule the work to be done or emphasize the meeting of deadlines are task oriented. Whereas someone who is concerned with 'consideration' for example, is friendly and approachable or makes group members feel at ease when talking to them. This is a person oriented leadership approach (Muchinsky, 2003).

Finally, there are authors who focus on how leaders deal with certain situations, which is the third leadership approach (the situational approach). Bennis in Cairns states that "no matter how bad or good a situation can get we always

have control over how we deal with it" (Cairns, 1998, p. 3). With the situational

approach it is believed that leaders need to have both traits and behaviours to be

able to deal successfully with particular situations. In this tradition, it is how

effectively people deal with each situation that determines their success as a

leader (Fiedler, 1964, 1996).

Within this situational approach Bass and Avolio's (1994) theory of

transformational leadership is a dominant approach that can be directly related to

coaching. According to Bass and Avolio (1994, p. 2) "transformational leadership

is seen when leaders:

- o Stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from
  new perspectives,

- o Generate awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organization,

- o Develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential
  and

- o Motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests
  toward those that will benefit the group".

The transformational leader achieves better results by utilising what Bass and

Avolio (1994) term the four I's. These include; idealized influence, inspirational

motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. With

idealized influence the leader is a role model for fellow workers, they are

admired, respected and trusted. The leader puts the needs of others before their

own. With *inspirational motivation* the leader communicates clearly to fellow workers what is required, seeks input from colleagues and provides motivation and inspiration in order to attain commitment from all. *Intellectual stimulation* is where the transformational leader is creative, innovative and provides an environment where creative problem solving and new approaches are welcomed and supported. No one is criticized because their approach differs from that of the leader. With *individualized consideration* the transformational leader acts as a mentor to other employees and helps them to reach successively higher levels of potential by recognising each individual's needs.

Clayton (2004) argues that leadership is not just something that is work related, that in fact, leadership is prominent in all aspects of peoples lives. His Three-Domain Leadership theory includes aspects such as personal, priority/people and professional. The *personal domain* is centered around the individual as a person and includes features such as: self-awareness, personal objectives, philosophy and concept of meaning, values, likes and dislikes and psychological wellbeing, including self-esteem. The *priority people domain* realises that there are a number of key people and relationships in an individual's life that are most important to that individual. Clayton lists a number of these possible relationships: the primary relationship, with parent(s), siblings, biological relations, children, friends (including close work colleagues), mentees and priority groups/communities. This domain represents the close circle that surrounds an individual and is their link to the outer lying community in which they live. The

final domain is the *professional domain*. These are professional relationships

that could include employers, acquaintances, competitors and other individuals

that may have different points of view. "Professional relationships may be totally

consistent with the growth and direction of your organisation without necessarily

having to be congruent with the growth and direction of you as an individual

working within it" (Clayton, 2004, p. 8).

Clayton argues that leadership is therefore not just a part of an individual's work

life but also their home life. It affects their intentions, their personal commitment

and perseverance, their actions, including their initiative and willingness to take

risks and their relationships with others, which includes the influencing and

monitoring of their performance at work and at home (Clayton, 2004). This

philosophy of seeking a balance between work and home life is consistent with

that often proposed for coaching (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson,

2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a;

Wasylyshyn, 2003). In both approaches it is argued that one must be able to

have a whole life balance in order to be an effective leader.

4.3 Leadership Development

Many organisations are investing heavily in the development of their leaders and

see this as a source of competitive advantage (Bass, 1998; Boaden, 2006; Day,

2001; RM Fulmer, 1997; R Fulmer, Gibbs, & Goldsmith, 2000; Gasper, 2003;

Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; McCall, 1998; Patterson, Fuller,

Kester, & Stringer, 1995; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998). "Leadership development is defined as expanding the collective capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes" (Day, 2001, p. 582). According to Day (2001) and Lepak and Snell (1999) one of the main reasons that companies invest so heavily in leadership or leader development is to enhance their human capital. In order to get the individual to think and act in new ways, the individuals' skills, abilities and knowledge are emphasised (Coleman, 1988). The types of

> intrapersonal competence associated with leader development initiatives include self-awareness (e.g. emotional awareness, self confidence, self-regulation (e.g. self-control, trustworthiness, adaptability), and self-motivation (e.g. commitment, initiative, optimism) (Manz & Sims, 1989; McCauley, 2000; Neck & Manz, 1996). It is argued that these capabilities contribute to enhanced individual knowledge, trust and personal power, which have been proposed as the fundamental leadership imperatives (Zand, 1997), at least from a traditional individualistic leadership perspective (Day, 2001, p. 584).

Day (2001), Brass and Krackhardt (1999) and Burt (1992) explain that in addition to companies investing in their human capital they need to work on the social capital of their organisation, this is in the form of work relationships. Instead of just focusing on the individual's skills, abilities and knowledge the focus with social capital is to enhance networking relationships and to enhance cooperation between individuals and the resource exchange to provide organisational value

(Bouty, 2000; Day, 2001; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). Social capital can occur when interpersonal exchanges occur (Bourdieu, 1986). The main emphasis in leadership development is to use these interpersonal exchanges to build interpersonal competence.

> Key components of interpersonal competence include social awareness
> (e.g. empathy, service orientation, and developing others) and social skills
> (e.g. collaboration and cooperation, building bonds, and conflict
> management) (Goleman, 1995; McCauley, 2000). The emphasis is on
> the social nature of this competence, and the idea that effective
> development best occurs in an interpersonal (i.e. social) context (Day,
> 2001, p. 585).

This is also consistent with the Elaboration Likelihood Model, in that behaviour change is more likely to occur if the individual wants to be accepted by a particular group (Wood, 2000).

A number of different practices have developed to implement leadership development in organisations. These often include 360-degree feedback (Giber & Friedman, 2006) which is used to collect the perceptions of an individual's performance from a variety of relevant sources. Day (2001) suggests however that while 360-degree feedback is strong on assessment of an individual's work it lacks in challenge and support for the individual.

Another form of practice to help develop leadership is the use of coaching (Giber & Friedman, 2006). This practice helps to focus the individual on particular goals through the use of one-on-one sessions which help with learning and behavioural change (Day, 2001; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Peterson, 1996). The link between the use of goal setting to produce higher organisational performance has been established in the literature (Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Locke & Latham, 1990).   The approach is more of a longer term practice and is supposed to be more comprehensive in terms of assessment, challenge and support, especially when it is linked back with 360-degree feedback (Day, 2001). Day (2001) suggests that for coaching to be even more effective a social network analysis should be conducted in a team or group of which the individual is a part. "Network centrality results from strong ties with others that build loyalty, trust, mutual respect, and emotional commitments (Brass & Krackhardt, 1999)" (Day, 2001, p. 592).

Mentoring is another practice that can be used in leadership development in the form of a formal relationship where on-the-job experience is used. Mentoring has traditionally been seen as older more senior people who informally take on a guiding role for the younger, newer employee (T. Brown, 1990). Mentoring is said to be a one-on-one process helping individuals to learn and develop new skills and it takes a longer-term perspective on the development of that person's career (Tabbron, Macaulay, & Cook, 1997). In the workplace it is generally acknowledged that the mentoring process, because of its ongoing, close and

often amicable nature, is not merely concerned with domain-specific knowledge, but can often involve personal, administrative and career dilemmas confronting the mentee. While Van Velsor and Leslie (1995) warn of the potential for over-dependence by the mentee, Day (2001) argues that the benefits from the mentoring practice far outweigh any risks of over-dependence. Networking is one of these benefits and a highly recommended practice in the field of leadership development. One of the important initiatives of leadership development is to develop leaders that are able to go beyond the knowing of *what* and *how* and into the *who* in terms of resources and support for the individual and the organisation. "In this way, networking is about investing in and developing social capital with a primary developmental emphasis on building support" (Day, 2001, p. 596).

Job Assignment (Giber & Friedman, 2006) has also been recognised as a practice for developing leadership. Job Assignments help individuals to learn through specific roles, responsibilities and tasks assigned to them at work (Day, 2001). The experience gained on the job helps the individual to learn, acquire leadership skills, undergo change, work better within their roles, responsibilities and tasks encountered within their jobs (Day, 2001; McCauley & Brutus, 1998). While Job Assignment may be highly regarded by some in the development of leadership, Day (2001) argues that this approach can "lack the kind of intentionality in terms of implementation and follow-up to be confident in

understanding the amount and type of development that has occurred" (Day, 2001, p. 600).

Action Learning is similar to Job Assignment in that learning is done on the job, the difference being that the process of learning is reflected upon and supported by other colleagues to get the job done (Day, 2001). The practice of Action Learning assumes that individual's learn more effectively when they work on real-time business problems (Revans, 1980). Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) found that "a strong action learning approach, using direct personal and business issues as the focus of activity, encouraging and expecting participants to implement changes in their work environments, and having the strong support of senior management and the support of line managers" was effective for leadership development (Boaden, 2006, p. 19).

Classroom programs (workshops) are also used widely within organisations as one particular practice for leadership development (Day, 2001). These workshop or classroom environments allow for participants to interact and develop social capital through the use of networking. They also help with the increasing difficulty of participants being able to find time in their busy work schedules to attend leadership development (Boaden, 2006). Workshop or classroom programs can, however, suffer from transfer of training problems and the cost involved.

Collins and Holton (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of the literature on leadership development programs and their effectiveness. They found that this field was limited in reporting on what is or what is not effective especially when it came to organisation outcomes. Many of the leadership development programs varied in their effectiveness with some rating highly effective while others rated poorly. The research was not able to identify exactly which programs were effective and which were not. Previous research had identified that management training had made a difference and was effective in the form of "significant financial payoffs" (Collins & Holton III, 2004, p. 217) however calls were made for further research (Burke & Day, 1986; Huselid, 1995; Jacobs & Jones, 1995; Lam & White, 1998; Swanson, 1994; Ulrich, 1997; Zhang, 1999). Thus, Conger and Benjamin (1999) found that many organisations were committed to the education of their employees, were concerned about leadership inadequacies and were investing in leadership development programs to help employees develop their skills. Collins and Holton (2004) also noted that individuals who participate in these programs differ greatly and that in order for a program to be effective it needs to be tailored to the individual's ability and learning style.

Coaching can often include a number of different leadership development tools and can either focus on one specific tool or combine a number of different tools to help maximise effectiveness. The use of workshops to relay generic coaching skills and the follow up one-on-one coaching sessions in this study allow for skills to be learned and incorporated at different levels hopefully making it more

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effective for participants. The use of one-on-one coaching sessions can help to overcome some of the challenges of other approaches as it is a continual process that can be held over a longer time frame. This type of approach of using a workshop environment and then follow-up one-on-one coaching sessions is also supported by Damon (2007). The next two sections focus on coaching literature in the Education and Tourism sectors as these were the two professions that were chosen for the second study.

4.4 Leadership and Coaching in the Education Sector

Although educational leadership has been extensively investigated over the years (Spillane, 2003), educational coaching as a form of leadership development has not been as well researched. This raises the question - can coaching help to create a teacher-leader?

The literature is replete with allusions to the new, improved teacher – the teacher-leader. This new breed of teacher should be intimately involved in the decision making processes that impact student learning (Moran, 1990), curricular imperatives (Berry & Ginsberg, 1990), budget allocations (K. Ryan & Cooper, 2000), personnel selections (Darling-Hammond, 1988) and the assessment of outcomes (K. Ryan & Cooper, 2000) (Quinn, Haggard, & Ford, 2006, p56).

Quinn and colleagues (2006) suggest that without support for the development of leadership talents and the chance to climb the career ladder many teachers will leave the teaching sector in search of other career opportunities that will provide an outlet for their interests and talents. This view is supported by McCreight (2000) who also notes that some teachers leave because they are unprepared for the realities of teaching. Coaching is potentially a way to help teachers fulfil, support and encourage their leadership talents. Being able to employ management and leadership skills is said to be a major determinant of success or failure in education. Teachers who believe that they can make a difference are more likely to see coaching as a tool that can help them expand and strengthen their teaching skills (Ross, 1992). Teachers who fail to implement their own particular style of management may struggle with control and instruction and often cannot work beyond basic tasks (Gilles, Cramer, & Hwang, 2001). Teachers who are able to discuss the practices and innovations in a non-threatening and analytical way have a valuable skill in that they are able to participate more in change processes (Quinn, Haggard, & Ford, 2006). As has been stated before, coaching not only directly benefits the coachee but also indirectly benefits the organisation. Smith and Sharma (2002, p. 197) believe that "it will be critical for all employees, not just its formal leaders, to take responsibility for shaping the organisation and its resultant performance".

According to Veenman and Denessen (2001) and Veenman, Denessen, Gerrits and Kenter (2001) coaching is a form of support for teachers providing them with

feedback and therefore stimulating the "self-reflection and self-analysis needed to improve instructional effectiveness" (Veenman & Denessen, 2001, p. 385). These authors propose that coaching can be seen as a way to help teachers become more reflective and analytic, enabling them to identify particular areas that may need improvement and by being more self directed. It can also help them to implement the behavioural changes identified (Pajak, 1993; Veenman & Denessen, 2001). Similarly, Costa and Garmston (1994) and Quinn et al (2006) believe that coaching can be a vehicle to help teachers identify where they are and enabling them to get to where they want to be. They also argue that coaching can positively influence self-confidence, self-awareness, management skills and styles and communication between colleagues. Coaching is also seen as something positive for teachers by Veenman and Denessen (2001), Bush and Glover (2005) and Ross (1992). Ross (1992) found in his study that teachers who interacted more comprehensively with their coaches had higher student achievement rates in their classrooms. He also concluded "that all teachers, regardless of their level of efficacy, were more effective with increased contact with their coaches" (Ross, 1992, p. 62).

4.5 Leadership and Coaching in the Tourism Sector

The Tourism sector is one in which an employee can choose a number of different career paths, from cruise ship operator to travel agent. Due to the diversity in possible employment opportunities the questions such as 'Are general coaching skills that are employed over many organisations satisfactory to

the Tourism sector?' or 'Is there a need for more sector specific coaching skills to be incorporated into the coaching process in order to make it more effective?' are being asked in this study. To date there is no empirical literature on coaching in the Tourism sector (Moscardo, 2005).

Research into the role that leadership plays in developing tourism in regional areas has been conducted in a wide range of countries including Australia (Kenyon & Black, 2001), Norway (Holmefjord, 2000), Portugal (J. Edwards & Fernandes, 1999), the Slovak Republic (Clarke, Denman, Hickman, & Slovak, 2001), the US (J. Lewis, 2001), Croatia (Petric, 2003) and Romania (Muica & Turnock, 2000). Leadership was identified as a key factor in developing tourism in regional areas and one of the key features associated with effective tourism leaders was the access that they had to business networks (Long & Nuckolls, 1994; Teare, 1998; Wilson, Fesenmaier, Fesenmaier, & Van Es, 2001). This finding is similar to the work conducted by House and Aditya (1997) who argue that networking is a beneficial way to develop leadership skills. The research into effective business settings to develop leadership skills is growing (Moscardo, 2005).

Moscardo (2005) lists a summary of key leadership features and one of the specific themes for community leadership in the Tourism sector is to have extensive local networks. She puts forward three reasons for this. Firstly, that it is unlikely that one person would be able to provide all of the skills and support

necessary. This view is further supported by Sorensen and Epps (1996).

Secondly, it would be difficult for one person to have enough time to support the

number of activities needed for rural regional development (Blackman et al.,

2004). Thirdly, an individual would have to deal with a large number of stresses

alone and having a network could help lessen the burden placed on the

individual leader (Hartley, 2002; Kirk & Shutte, 2004; McKenzie, 2002; Teare,

1998; Wilson, Fesenmaier, Fesenmaier, & Van Es, 2001; Wituk et al., 2003). In

support of this view, Wilson and colleagues (2001) stress the importance that

sector relations play in making tourism successful. The coaching workshops in

this study enabled the researcher to provide networking opportunities to

participants. The use of one-on-one coaching sessions allowed the researcher

to compare the two different business settings to find out which was more

effective in the coaching process.

4.6 Summary of Literature

In summary, the literature from the Education sector and the Tourism sector is

sparse. Both fields have research in the areas of leadership development but

there is a need for more in-depth knowledge on the part that coaching can play in

leadership development. Through the use of workshops and one-on-one

coaching sessions the researcher aimed to be able to determine the level of

effectiveness of the two different leadership development tools. The aims in the

following section set out specifically the research questions for this second study.

4.7 Aims of the Study

For the second study it was decided that a number of different hypotheses could be tested. Firstly, two different sector groups would be studied to determine if the coaching process differed between sector groups. Secondly, group coaching in the form of a workshop was compared for effectiveness with a more traditional one-on-one format. The workshops also allowed the researcher to determine if networking and discussing issues with colleagues was important to coachees, as these could only be carried out in a workshop environment. The researcher was able to determine how important it was for participants to continue the coaching process by having follow-up one-on-one coaching sessions at later dates. Thirdly, the study would determine whether it was important for the coach to have some industry knowledge of the field in which they were to conduct coaching.

In summary, the specific questions were:
- o What if any differences are there between the Tourism and Education sectors in relation to coaching?
- o Does providing the opportunity for networking make the coaching process more effective?
- o Is the coaching process more effective if one-on-one follow up coaching sessions are held compared to attending a one day workshop?
- o Is it important for the coach to have specific industry knowledge or can the coaching process be effective with the coach having only general coaching knowledge?

The research from this second study enabled the researcher to determine what needs to be included in the coaching process on a general basis and what needs to be included in sector specific areas such as Tourism, which to date has not been studied (Blackman et al., 2004; Moscardo, 2005) and Education, where some research has been undertaken (Mowat, 2006). Having a tourism background allows an individual to work in a number of different areas, for example, business, eco-tourism and travel to name a few, whereas education usually means that people follow the career path of a teacher. These two career paths provide an opportunity to evaluate two very different areas and skill sets: tourism with its broad skills set and education with its more specific skills set. The two different areas also offered the opportunity of researching coaching in a regional area. Therefore, this research has a regional focus whereas most of the published research on coaching is conducted in larger cities.

The first study was a survey that incorporated mostly closed ended questions that were of a quantitative nature. The second study was more of a descriptive qualitative approach as it was a smaller sample of participants where more in-depth information could be collected. The researcher did use an evaluation form, however many of the questions were open ended allowing participants to express how they felt about the workshop and one-on-one coaching sessions. The use of both quantitative and qualitative aspects of this research provide a balance between the more quantitative style of the first study with the more descriptive qualitative approach of the second study. The qualitative and

quantitative dimensions of research should be used to complement each other (Neuman, 2003).

4.8 Methodology

The first stage of the second research project consisted of two one day workshops held with 18 Education sector professionals and eight Tourism sector professionals. Stage two consisted of a series of one-on-one coaching sessions with three participants from each sector group starting one month after the initial workshop. This allowed the participants enough time to implement the strategies that were discussed at the workshop. At this stage participants were able to go over the goals that they set in the workshop and to decide on what the next step should be. The one-on-one coaching sessions were conducted at the participants' work or at a nominated area close to their work place. Evaluations were conducted at the conclusion of each workshop and with all participants at the end of the one-on-one sessions. A quasi experimental methodology was used to set up a framework for exploring the key research questions. The framework consisted of a 2 x 2 design, that is, firstly evaluations could be analysed on the workshop alone participants versus the workshop and one-on-one participants and secondly participant's evaluations could be analysed depending on what sector they came from, Tourism or Education. The figure below outlines this framework.

Workshop only participants	X	Workshop and one-on-one session participants		Tourism sector participants	X	Education sector participants
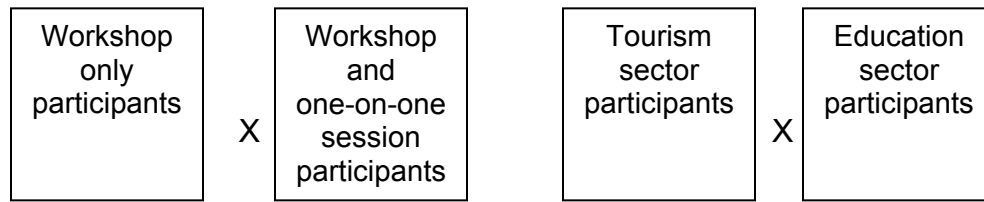
Figure 4.1: Workshop evaluations

Quasi-experiments are beneficial for real life settings where randomization of participants is not possible. Due to the workshops being voluntary and the participants signing up to do the workshops themselves randomization could not occur. While quasi-experiments may have some limitations (Cooper & Schindler, 2001) especially in terms of control, they can have higher external validity.

4.8.1 Developing the workshops

The workshops were developed with the intention of examining the coaching process with two different sector group professionals. The workshops were identical in outline and covered the same topics. The only difference in the layout of the workshops between the two groups was the guest speaker who discussed sector trends, opportunities and possible challenges to be faced by the participants in their particular industry.

Goal setting is a key point of connection between leadership and coaching. Goal setting provided the conceptual basis of the workshop content. This part of the process can be linked to Latham and Locke's (1979) model of goal setting. This

model details the different aspects of goal setting, including how difficult the goal

is, how specific it is, how much commitment the person is willing to put in to

achieve the goal and whether the goal is going to be accepted. These

components lead to the effort directed toward the goal. This goal directed effort

leads to the performance of the individual which takes into consideration the

organisational support for achieving the goal and what abilities and traits the

individual has. This performance can then lead to either an intrinsic or extrinsic

reward which eventually leads to satisfaction. This can also be related to the

Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and the Theory of

Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). It is similar in that in order to

achieve a central route change in behaviour or attitude there needs to be some

sort of reward or punishment attached. This will lead to the individual wanting to

take part or avoid a particular behaviour. Figure 4.2 is an expanded model of the

goal setting theory.
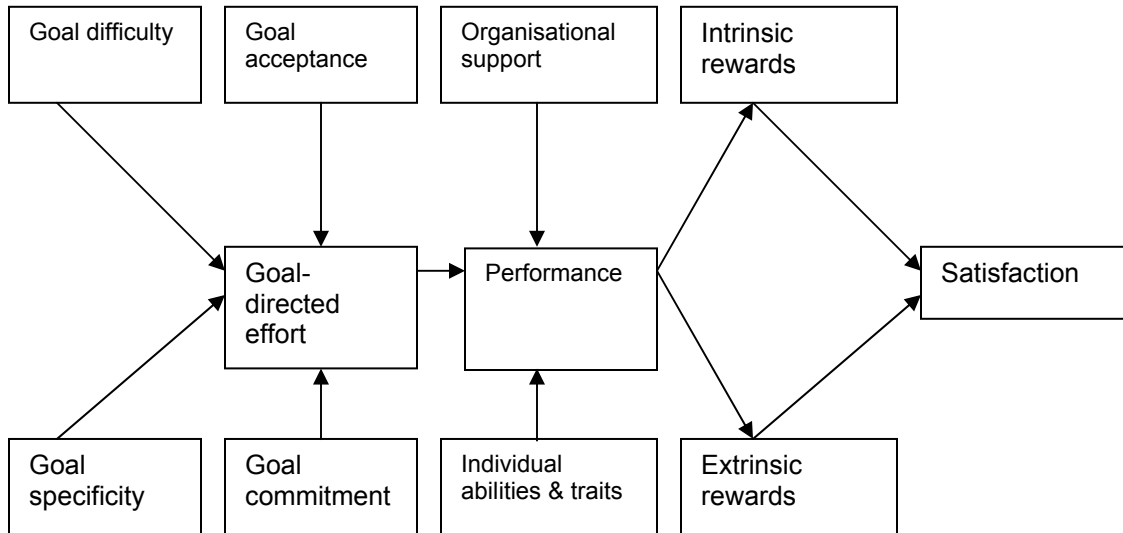
Figure 4.2: Expanded model of goal setting from Latham and Locke (1979) in McKenna (2000)

Through the coaching relationship the coachee should be able to realise their vision, goals or desires. The process of inquiry and personal discovery can be used to build the coachee's level of awareness and responsibility and provides support, structure and feedback (Belf, 1996).

To be able to coach with results King and Eaton (1999) suggest a four-step model. Defining specific goals and long-term aims in the coaching process, the coach and coachee must explore the current situational problem in terms of personal problems, possibilities and how they have reacted to the situation thus far. Options for the coachee must be identified with achievable goals set and an action plan with a realistic timeline must be committed to by the coachee in order for goals to be accomplished that were set earlier. The coach must believe that

the coachee will be able to achieve the goals set in the time provided. The coach

must also believe that the coachee is the true expert about what is achievable for

themselves and their work. According to King and Eaton (1999) coaching should

focus on closing the gap between the current situation/performance and what is

desired, as well as creating an environment for the coachee to explore new

possibilities or solutions and to develop action plans. The coach should provide

continuous support and feedback for the coachee throughout the coaching

process (King & Eaton, 1999).

According to Drucker (1954) six key questions in relation to the creation of

objectives should be asked. They are:

"1. What are my aims and how will I know that they have been achieved?

2. What do I have to do to realise these aims?

3. What standards must I reach for top performance?

4. What specific objectives must I meet in the week, month, quarter, year?

5. Am I linking my individual aims to those of the work group and the

organisation?

6. What feedback do I have to check my results against my aims?" (Clayton,

2004, p. 295).

When goal setting, it is important to follow the steps suggested by the researcher

in order to be able to achieve these goals. Coachees need to start off setting

goals that are broad and long-term, identifying not only what their organisation

expects from them, but also what goals they would like to achieve on a personal

level. Once these broad/general goals have been set, objectives must be set. Objectives are more specific, quantifiable, realistic targets that are able to measure the accomplishment of a goal over a specific time. While setting the objectives it is important for the coachee to identify any critical success factors: these are things that must go right in order to achieve the objectives. After the goals, objectives and critical success factors have been identified the coachee must develop strategies in order to be able to attain the goals and objectives. These strategies take into consideration the broad activities needed to achieve an objective, to control critical success factors or to overcome particular barriers that might be faced. Next an action plan needs to be developed. This is a series of specific steps that need to be taken to implement the strategy. Here the coachee needs to identify who needs to do what and when it must be done.

Each step in the goal setting process starts with a broad general goal and works down to smaller and more specific steps, so that the broad or general goal is achievable. These steps are also supported by Tice (1997), however Tice includes an extra item which is to gather support from others. It is also important to remember when setting goals to think in terms of what one's particular interpersonal competencies are, what skills one wants to develop and what organisational resources and capabilities are available (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002).

According to Burdett (1998) managing expectations, monitoring the performance and giving feedback are also important elements in the coaching process. The behaviours that the coach and coachee should focus on are identifying key roles where the coachee makes the greatest contribution, defining the behaviour that differentiates the coachee from other employees and enhancing the self-awareness of the coachee. The coachee must be willing to change, they must have the capability to achieve the desired behaviours set and the coachee must have the opportunity to practice the new behaviour (Burdett, 1998).

The workshop went for approximately six hours and the day was broken into four different sessions (for format see Appendix G). The first session included the introduction of the researcher and a little background information. Respondents were also asked to introduce themselves to the rest of the group. The researcher then went through what goal setting was and how it could benefit them: the group then defined their individual values and vision. The second session consisted of setting goals, objectives, identifying critical success factors and developing strategies. The third session helped participants to develop an action plan and the fourth and final session included a guest speaker from each respective industry. This final session also allowed for a group discussion with the guest speaker about any particular sector challenges or opportunities. Participants were then asked at the end of the workshop to fill out an evaluation form for the workshop (see Appendix H). Participants were also informed that the researcher would be conducting follow-up one-on-one coaching sessions

with those that were interested as part of a research study. This would allow participants to revisit their goals at a later date and to work more individually with the researcher on their goals.

4.8.1.1 Workshop evaluations

The workshop evaluation form consisted of an informed consent form outlining for participants what was involved in the research and asked if they were interested in volunteering to take part in the one-on-one coaching sessions. Ethics approval was granted for the workshops and one-on-one coaching sessions. The ethics approval number was H2354. The actual evaluation of the workshop was three pages (see Appendix H) and consisted of mostly closed ended questions asking respondents to rate their satisfaction with the workshop and the different sessions included throughout the day. It also asked them to rate how helpful they felt the workshop was in helping them identify their goals, relating their personal goals to organisational goals, using timelines and priorities, encouraging participants to take appropriate action and providing an opportunity to network.

Respondents were also given some open ended questions which asked them to list the three best things about the workshop and to list three things they felt could have been changed or improved about the workshop. Respondents were then asked whether they had any previous experience in either attending any work related workshops or business coaching workshops. The final part of the

evaluation asked respondents for demographic details such as age, gender, work title and length of time in that position. The final question let respondents state if there were any further comments they would like to make about the workshop that they felt had not already been covered in the evaluation form. This evaluation form contained a number of open ended questions allowing for a more qualitative approach. Themes were able to be identified by the researcher from the open ended responses.   A copy of the evaluation form can be seen in Appendix H.

4.8.2 One-on-one coaching sessions

Individual coaching sessions were set up with each of the volunteer participants (three from the Education sector and three from the Tourism sector) about one month after the initial workshop and then another session was held about a month after that. This allowed the researcher to hold two one-on-one coaching sessions with each participant over a three month period. A week before each session participants were asked to email an agenda of topics they wanted to discuss. This allowed the researcher time to collate any information needed for the session and gave the participants the opportunity to use the time more efficiently as they knew exactly what would be achieved in each session. The sessions were centred around what the participant wanted and needed and so were directed by the coachee. Each session lasted from one to two hours.

4.8.3 Final evaluation

During the final one-on-one coaching session participants were given a final evaluation form. A similar form was posted to all participants from the workshop. The final evaluation form was posted two months after the workshop. The participants that had only participated in the workshop received a six question survey (see Appendix I) asking them what they remembered most from the workshop, what had they been able to implement since the workshop and if they hadn't, why not? It also asked them if they could choose to do more to develop their leadership skills what would they do and provided a list from which they could choose including; 'attend another coaching workshop, have one-on-one coaching sessions, keep working on the goals and strategies set at the workshop on your own, do more networking or other'. Participants were also asked if there was anything else they would like to cover if they were to attend another workshop. Finally, they were asked if there were any other comments about the workshop experience that they would like to make.

Respondents that participated in the one-on-one coaching sessions received an evaluation sheet similar to the others, but were also asked some extra questions (see Appendix J) including 'Overall how satisfied were you with the one-on-one coaching sessions?' Where they were asked to rate this question on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being very dissatisfied and 10 being very satisfied. Respondents were also asked 'What three things they liked best about the coaching sessions?' and 'What three things could be changed/improved about the one-on-one coaching sessions?'. Respondents were then asked 'How important they felt it

was to have a good relationship with their coach?' which they had to rate on a scale of 'very important' to 'not at all important'. They were also asked 'How supportive was your organisation in regards to you attending one-on-one coaching sessions?'. Respondents had to rate this question on a scale from 'very supportive' to 'not at all supportive'. Respondents were finally asked an open ended question 'Any further comments about the one-on-one coaching session?'. The results are discussed in the following section.

4.9   Results

4.9.1   Overview of data analysis stages

The results are organised into three stages matching the research questions listed for the study. The first stage compares the two sector groups and their responses to the workshops and then the one-on-one coaching sessions. The first part of stage one explored the open-ended questions as more descriptive qualitative data and a series of non-parametric tests were conducted on the structured questions. The comparisons of the two groups for the one-on-one sessions were analysed qualitatively only in a descriptive manner. The second stage compared the workshops alone to workshops and one-on-one sessions. Stage three analysed the descriptive qualitative data more generally to explore respondent perspectives on the coach and specific sector knowledge. Veal (2006) and Bryman and Bell (2003) suggest that is now common day practice for the two approaches of quantitative and qualitative methods to be used to compliment one another. Consistent with this approach the evaluation form

contained both structured and unstructured questions. Veal (2006) states that one method is not better than the other that it is how the data was collected and is to be analysed which is important.

4.9.1.1   Samples

The sample was made up of 26 participants and included 21 females and five males. Eighteen participants were from the Education sector while eight participants were from the Tourism sector. The mean age of participants was 35 years.   Thirteen participants stated that they were teachers, three were involved in research, two were curriculum developers, two were assistant principals of religious education, two were project officers, two were small business owners, one was a festival director and one was a museum curator. The mean length of time participants were in their current position was 5.9 years. There were no sector group differences on socio-demographic variables. The groups did, however, differ significantly in terms of previous experiences.

Respondents were asked if they had 'any previous experience attending work related workshops?' Fifteen respondents stated yes and 11 stated that they had not. Eight respondents from the Education sector and seven respondents from the Tourism sector had experienced work related workshops. The next question then asked if they had 'any previous experience with business coaching before?'. Only two respondents stated that they had previous experience with business

coaching while the remaining 24 respondents had no previous experience. These two respondents came from the Tourism industry.

4.9.1.2   Comparisons of results from the two workshops

The first question on the evaluation form asked respondents 'Overall how satisfied were you with the workshop?' and asked them to rate this question on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being very dissatisfied and 10 being very satisfied. Four people responded with a rating of 7, one person rated the workshop 7.5, 11 respondents rated it an 8, three an 8.5 and five respondents rated the workshop highly with a 9, while two respondents rated it a 10 for very satisfied. The mean rating overall for this question was 8. This meant that overall most participants in the workshop were quite satisfied with the day. A Mann-Whitney U test on potential differences in responses to the question 'Overall how satisfied were you with the workshop?' for the two sector groups was conducted. This test was chosen because analysis between two populations was needed and because of the small sample size and non parametric nature of the data. A significant difference at the $p<.05$ (chi-square = 70.15) was found. The mean score for the Education group was 8.03 and the mean score for the Tourism group was slightly higher at 8.69.

The second set of questions asked respondents to rate a set of comments on a scale of helpfulness with 1 being very helpful and 5 being very unhelpful. The first comment was 'Helped me identify my goals', 11 respondents rated this as

very helpful and 15 rated it at helpful. The second comment was 'Related my

personal goals to organisational goals', five respondents rated this very helpful

and 20 respondents rated it helpful while one respondent rated it neither. The

third comment was 'Used priorities and timelines ', six respondents rated this

comment as very helpful, 19 rated it as helpful and one respondent rated it

neither. The fourth comment was 'Encouraged me to take appropriate action', 10

rated it very helpful, 15 listed it as helpful and again one rated it as neither helpful

nor unhelpful. The final comment for this set of questions was 'Provided an

opportunity to network', three respondents listed it as very helpful, 18 rated it as

helpful and five rated it neither. All comments were rated highly overall, with

most receiving a mean rating between one and two meaning that participants

found the workshop either helpful or very helpful in these areas. The table below

details these findings.

Table 4.1

Workshop helpfulness

Comment	Mean	Response	Frequency	Valid Percent
Helped me identify my goals	1.5769	Very helpful	11	42.3
		Helpful	15	57.7
		Neither	-	-
Related my personal goals to organisational goals	1.8462	Very helpful	5	19.2
		Helpful	20	76.9
		Neither	1	3.8
Used priorities and timelines	1.8077	Very helpful	6	23.1
		Helpful	19	73.1
		Neither	1	3.8
Encouraged me to take appropriate action	1.6538	Very helpful	10	38.5
		Helpful	15	57.7
		Neither	1	3.8
Provided an opportunity to network	2.0769	Very helpful	3	11.5
		Helpful	18	69.2
		Neither	5	19.2

A series of Mann-Whitney U Tests were performed on this ordinal data to compare the responses of the two sector groups. These Mann-Whitney U tests indicated one significant difference between the two sector groups (p<.05). It was found that only the variable 'Provided an opportunity to network' was significantly different for the two groups, with the Education sector group having a higher mean score of 2.22 compared with the Tourism sector group's mean score of 1.75 (Mann-Whitney U test = 43, p<.05).

The third section of the evaluation form asked respondents to rate each session during the workshop on how useful the session was to them on a scale from one being 'very helpful' and five being 'not at all helpful'. The first session was the 'Values and Vision session' and the mean rating for this session was 1.88, indicating that the majority of participants found this session quite useful. The second session was the 'Goal Setting session'. Here respondents rated this a mean score of 1.73 rating it slightly higher than the 'Values and Vision session'. The third session tested was the 'Critical Success Factor session' respondents rated this a 2.04 so slightly less helpful than the other two previous sessions. The fourth session rated how helpful the 'Developing Strategies session' was, respondents rated this session a 2.06 again slightly less helpful than the first two sessions tested. The fifth session was 'Developing an Action Plan' respondents rated this at a mean score of 1.96. The final session tested was the 'Guest Speaker session'. This received the highest mean rating score with 1.60 implying that this session was very helpful for participants. In summary, in order of

helpfulness the sessions were Guest Speaker, Goal Setting, Values and Visions, Developing an Action Plan, Critical Success Factors and Developing Strategies.

Again Mann-Whitney U tests were performed on these scale questions to determine any significant differences between the two sector groups. Four significant differences were found, these included the variables; 'Values and Vision session', 'Critical Success Factor session', 'Developing Strategies session' and the 'Guest Speaker session'. Results are displayed in the table below. Overall, all four features were rated as more helpful by the Tourism group.

Table 4.2

Mann-Whitney test results

Variable	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Mean Education Industry	Mean Tourism Industry	Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)
Values and Vision session	40.000	76.000	-2.046	2.06	1.50	.041
Critical Success Factor session	33.500	69.500	-2.292	2.28	1.50	.022
Developing Strategies session	39.500	75.500	-1.957	2.25	1.63	.050
Guest Speaker session	39.500	75.500	-2.045	1.81	1.13	.041

$P < .05$

Respondents were then asked a set of open ended questions, firstly, 'What were the three best things about the workshop?'. The responses were content

analysed and key categories emerged. A multiple response analysis was

conducted on this question to determine what three responses were rated most

highly overall. Table 4.3 lists all the key themes identified.

Table 4.3

Best things about the workshop

Themes	% of responses
Goals	
1. Clearly setting out what my values are	13.2
2. Identifying my goals	13.2
3. Taking goal setting more seriously	2.6
4. Relating values to personal/professional goals	1.3
5. Realising I am already doing goal setting	1.3
Strategy	
1. Now know what to do/developing an action plan	17.1
2. Understand where I am at and where I am going	6.6
3. Locating barriers and how to overcome them	5.3
4. Developing strategies	5.3
5. Opportunity to prioritise	1.3
Workshop	
1. Guest speaker	14.5
2. Networking	9.2
3. Motivated me to do something	2.6
4. Information from the coach	2.6
5. Workbook	1.3
6. Very clear process	1.3
7. Atmosphere	1.3

Responses were grouped into three main categories – goals, strategies and the

workshop itself. The category 'goals' included any response that had to do

specifically with either developing goals or the Goal Setting session or with

defining values. Examples of comments here included:

"Motivated me to set some goals"

"Being able to clearly articulate my values"

"Identifying values – making me think about this"

"Setting/identifying goals"

"How important it is to set goals"

"Approach to defining values"

Under the term 'goals' respondents seemed particularly concerned with 'setting values' and 'identifying goals'. Values need to be determined before one can set goals; respondents needed to understand and define what they valued so that they could go on to set goals for themselves that were in line with their values. The 'Defining Values session' did seem to be very interactive and participants were commenting on how much fun it was during the workshop. The importance of setting goals and values is consistent with the literature (Diedrich, 2001; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; Newell, 2002; Presby Kodish, 2002). Responses related to clearly setting out what values were more common from the Education sector than from the Tourism sector. Similarly the theme 'identifying my goals' was more likely to be mentioned by participants from the Education group.

Under the theme of 'strategy', participants commented on being able to identify and learn specific tasks that were completed during the workshop which could then be taken away with them to be used again later. The idea of wanting to learn new skills is supported by Presby Kodish (2002). Many participants felt that

actually being shown how to develop an action plan was one of the best things about the workshop. Responses like 'now know what to do/developing an action plan' were the most common overall and included nine responses from the Education sector and four from the Tourism sector. The theme 'understand where I am at and where I am going' was noted by four participants from the Education sector, but only one from the Tourism sector group.

During the workshop participants were asked to reflect on goals set for themselves in the past and analyse the reasons why some of these goals may not have been achieved. This technique of analysing past goals is recommended by other coaching researchers (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Newell, 2002). Through this step participants were able to identify particular barriers and could realise how to overcome them by developing certain strategies. Participant responses for this theme included:

"Developing an action plan"

"Action plan session"

"Critical success factor session"

"The workshop forced me to look at how I do or do not complete tasks"

"Made me realise I need to stop and plan for success – Action plan"

"Now have an action plan"

"Made me think about where/what I want to be/do"

"Developing specific strategies"

The final category that the responses were grouped under was 'workshop'.

Under this theme responses were grouped according to specific things about the

workshop, that is, these things could only have been executed in the workshop.

As stated previously workshops are useful in providing participants the

opportunity to network, and receive information on a number of topics (Day,

2001). 'Networking' was noted by seven respondents from the Education sector,

but none from the Tourism sector. This may be due to the way the room was set

out and the number of participants in each workshop. Those in the Education

sector had smaller groups that they worked in throughout the day and so may

have felt that they were able to network amongst their smaller group. Whereas

the Tourism sector had smaller numbers at the workshop and so everyone was

placed into one group. Participants may have felt that they were not given an

opportunity to network as it was all the one group and everyone participated

together. Alternatively, it could be that the tourism group were so different that

networks weren't valuable.

The majority of participants felt that the best thing about the workshop under the

'workshop' theme was the 'guest speaker'. Six participants from the Education

sector and five from the Tourism sector rated this the highest. Each of the guest

speakers was able to provide specific knowledge, trends and particular barriers

for each industry sector. While participants thought that the general coaching

skills gained were beneficial, the use of a guest speaker to provide specific

sector knowledge was highly supported. This goes against much of the coaching literature that states coaches only need to have general coaching skills and are able to coach across any number of industries (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). However, research by a number of authors does suggest that having an awareness of business, management and political issues is also necessary to be effective (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Filipczak, 1998; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Harris, 1999; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Laske, 1999a; Levinson, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003).

Also noted by participants as being one of the best things about the workshop was the information from the coach, the goal setting process followed, the workbook provided and the atmosphere of the group workshop. Participant comments about the workshop included:

"Opportunity to meet with like minded people"

"Discussion with other staff members"

"Discussing career opportunities"

"Being with like minded peers"

"Listening to others who share similar goals"

"Guest speaker"

"Guest speaker was excellent"

"Guest speaker – reinforced what we're doing already"

"Very clear processes generally for each component/task very nicely done"

The Elaboration Likelihood Model predicts greater change in attitudes where people have an opportunity to discuss material with others. The second open ended question asked respondents 'What three things could be changed/improved about the workshop?' Again because respondents could answer a number of different times a multiple response analysis was carried out. Responses have again been grouped into the three main categories of goals, strategies and the workshop itself.

Table 4.4

Things that could be changed/improved about the workshop

Themes	% of responses
Goals	
1. Follow up sessions	5.7
Strategy	
1. Strategy section was confusing	8.6
2. Refining the timeline	5.7
3. Having to complete the action plan	5.7
4. Make it more related to industry	5.7
5. Relating it more to leadership roles	2.9
Workshop	
1. More examples	17.1
2. More networking time	17.1
3. More time to write or take notes	8.6
4. Making the day shorter	5.7
5. More instructions for the action plan	5.7
5. More reflection time	2.9
6. Not so much time spent refining action plan	2.9
7. Guest speaker to have more time	2.9
8. Room environment	2.9

The theme of 'goals' included only the response about the follow up sessions. This was because follow up sessions are another tool used by coaches to implement leadership development (Alba & Marmorstein, 1987; Day, 2001; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984). It is interesting to note that the two respondents who did nominate this suggestion decided not to take up the offer of follow-up one-on-one coaching sessions at a later date with the researcher.

Under the 'strategy' category, 8.6% of participants had problems with the strategy section of the workshop as it was seen as a bit confusing to some participants in the Education sector due to some of the terminology used by the researcher. For example, "I found the strategies part a little confusing. I would need further clarification and examples", "The part on strategies was a little unclear". It was terminology more business oriented than education related. For example, "Make it more relevant to teaching". Refining the timeline and having to complete the action plan were considered aspects that could be improved. They were also listed as some of the best parts about the workshop. This may be an individual perspective where some people are happy to work within the workshop environment to complete certain tasks and others preferring to do it in their own time. The other two sets of comments for the 'strategy' category from the participants included responses about relating the material more to leadership roles and their specific industry. Other specific responses included:

"Pretty good maybe the relationship to leadership roles?"

"More discussion in relation to the education industry"

"There needs to be a step before the strategies session. Maybe going through

an example of a goal being broken down to that level"

"Some links/steps between sections a bit brief (some steps lost)"

The final category of 'workshop' included the most responses. From the table it can be seen that providing more examples to explain the process and having more networking time were rated the most highly by respondents. The use of networking is supported by Day (2001) as an effective tool for leadership development and seems to be something that participants felt would make the coaching experience more effective. Respondents stated that having examples that depicted their sector would have been more helpful and would have allowed them to relate more easily to the examples. This view is also supported by the literature by Brotman and colleagues (1998), Filipcazk (1998), Garman and colleagues (2000), Goodstone and Diamante (1998), Harris (1999), Kiel and authors (1996), Laske (1999a), Levinson (1996), Saporito (1996), Sperry (1996), Tobias (1996) and Wasylyshyn (2003). However, it is important to note that these two points (industry sector experience and networking opportunities) are not generally supported by the coaching literature (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). The need for the coach to have industry experience to be able to provide industry examples and giving coachees the opportunity to network is something that is also not included in a

typical coaching approach as coaching is often one-on-one (Bacon & Spear, 2003; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; McCauley & Hezlett, 2001; Orenstein, 2000).

Other responses under the category 'workshop' included topics to do with the logistics of the day such as providing more time for certain sessions or tasks. One person felt that the room environment could have been changed to make it more effective. Responses from participants for this category included:

"Room could have been slightly warmer"

"Have guest speaker for longer"

"Clearer instructions for action plan"

"To more clearly differentiate terms like goals, objectives and strategies, people often get confused with these terms"

"Length (perhaps three hours would be sufficient to cover the sessions)"

"Examples may have been helpful for filling in some unfamiliar materials"

"Being able to give examples in educational (rather than business) context"

"Probably more examples of how to complete the plans etc"

"Give examples related to teaching"

"A bit more discussion time"

"Maybe shorten the duration of each session"

"Give more examples for each area"

The three top responses of 'more examples', 'more networking time' and 'strategy section was confusing' were only noted by those in the Education

sector. The researcher's background is in business and so business examples were used and the Education sector participants felt that education examples would have been more appropriate. This again confirms that these coachees prefer to have coaches with industry sector experience and knowledge. This response contradicts what the coaching literature says about this topic (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003) which states that coaches don't have to have industry experience, only generic coaching skills. While the other variable rated highly 'more time to write or take notes' was only noted by those respondents from the Tourism sector.

The final question asked if the respondents would like to add any further comments about the workshop. This basically gave the respondents the opportunity to write down anything they felt had not been covered in the evaluation sheet. Most opted to write some words of thanks to the researcher. However, four respondents stated that the workshop had allowed them the time to think about their personal and professional aims and how important these were to them. The following table lists these responses.

Table 4.5

Any further comments about the workshop?

Response	Frequency	Percent
no response	14	53.8
thinking about personal and professional aims/importance of	4	15.4
motivating	2	7.7
very useful	2	7.7
better understanding/new knowledge	2	7.7
good to revisit goals set at a later date	1	3.8
enjoyed the workshop	1	3.8

Other responses included:

'It would be good to revisit next year and look at how we've moved on in our

goals'

'Demonstrating the importance of valuing goal setting – actually stopping to think

about professional and personal aims'

'Useful to look at goal setting'

'Thank you for today I found it very interesting'

'Thank you for a great and motivating day'

'Very enlightening – define and focus goals and strategies very useful'

'Thank you. It was worthwhile to break goals down and clearly articulate these.

Good to have the opportunity to reflect on future directions'

'I have enjoyed the workshop and will use the workbook for future activities'

'Was doubtful at start of session as to any benefit of this course. I am happy to

say that after working through workbook, sessions and hearing guest speaker

talk, I have a better understanding of the principles etc…Greatly enjoyed

workshop! Many thanks'

'It was great to take the time to identify my goals. I am excited about achieving them!!'

'I thank you for your time. I am pleased I attended and feel sure I will use the skills I learned to improve myself'

'This has helped motivate me and inspire me to do what I know I've needed to do for some time – Thank you'

One respondent did respond with the following quote:

'Found the guest speaker session so useful and interesting that I left late for an appointment. Although not directly in my field I could adapt the concepts and immediately change some plans/goals/strategies based on that; maybe its new knowledge/better knowledge from any field that helps you produce better outcomes'

This respondent felt that the skills learnt during the workshop could be applied to any field. The person felt that even though the topics that the guest speaker spoke about weren't directly related to their field of work that they would still be able to apply certain strategies. This point of view is similar to that of Eggers and Clark (2000) and Evers, Browers and Tomic (2006) Berglas (2002), Smither and colleagues (2003) and Wasylyshyn (2003).

4.9.1.3 Summary of sector group differences

Crosstabulations were also conducted on the multiple response questions of 'What were the three best things from the workshop?' and 'What three things

could be changed about the workshop?'. Within the Education sector the top five responses were 'now know what to do/developing an action plan' with nine responses, 'identifying my goals' with eight responses, 'networking' and 'clearly setting out my values' each had seven responses from the Education sector and six respondents listed the 'guest speaker' as the best thing about the workshop. Within the Tourism sector the top results were 'guest speaker' with five responses, 'now know what to do/developing an action plan' with four responses and 'clearly setting out what my values were' with three responses.

With regard to what three things could be changed about the workshop Education sector participants felt that more examples were needed (six responses), more networking time was needed (six responses) and the strategy section was confusing (three responses). The Tourism sector participants felt that more time was needed to write or take notes during the workshop (three responses) and more instructions for the action plan would have been helpful (two responses).

The final question of the questionnaire asked respondents if they would like to write any further comments about the workshop. Most of the respondents left this question blank, the top response however, from those that did respond from the Education sector felt that the workshop had allowed them to think about the importance of their personal and professional aims and how they interacted with each other (three responses). Within the Tourism sector the top response was

that they now had a better understanding or had gained some new knowledge from the workshop (two responses).

Overall, participants found the coaching workshop experience effective. This supports the Elaboration Likelihood Model where it has been shown that the opportunity to discuss material with others does encourage greater elaboration (Wood, 2000). It is interesting to note that the two main themes that came out of the evaluations were for the coach to provide more industry sector related examples and for the participants, especially from the Education sector, to have more networking opportunities. These findings challenge common assumptions of the coaching research literature, but are consistent with the Theory of Planned Behavior where it is recognised that the more detailed behavioural intentions are and the more closely they are linked to specific work or organisational contexts, the more likely they are to be translated into behaviours (Ajzen, 1992, 2001; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

4.10 Comparisons of Results from the One-on-one Coaching Sessions

The final evaluation form was posted to participants about three months after the initial workshop. A stamped return addressed envelope was provided for participants. From the Education sector 14 out of a possible 18 evaluation forms were returned to the researcher after a number of reminder letters were sent out. From the Tourism sector seven out of a possible eight were returned after a number of reminder letters had been posted. This gave the researcher a

response rate of 80.1%. All participants that took part in the one-on-one coaching sessions returned the final evaluation form, suggesting that the relationship developed between the researcher (coach) and participant (coachee) may have influenced participants to return the evaluation forms.

The first five questions of the evaluation form were asked to both one-on-one coaching participants and those that had only attended the workshop. The first question on the final evaluation form asked respondents to think back to the workshop to see if they had been able to implement anything that they had learnt at the workshop. This question was important as a common limitation to workshops is that they are a one off training session which does not produce any transfer of training once the workshop is completed.

Nearly all respondents listed something about looking at their future and where they would like to be or what directions they should be taking. They were able to do this by listing goals and then using the processes outlined in the workshop to make sure that goals could be actioned and attained. Some had already achieved specific goals set for themselves during the workshop. Only one person said they had not implemented anything from the workshop. Some of the responses for this question are detailed below.

"Yes, I have now a clear idea of what I want in the future. I have prioritised what needs to be done and taken positive action to implement my plan"

"It has made me more aware of the directions I want to take in life"

"I worked in the manner described in the workshop before I attended the workshop. It was interesting to note this during the day"

"I've taken strategies and implemented them particularly goal setting and setting achievable targets for myself. I have also transposed this into my personal life"

"It made me reflect on my goals, writing them down has made me think about where I am headed"

"The one strategy I have used was prioritising the goals in my life to a limited set of defined goals"

"Yes – I have used goal setting in my personal and professional life for some time now. The workshop reinforced/affirmed the techniques I was already using"

"Goal setting session – very useful for checking if you're on track – also to see how much you've achieved"

"I've been able to share some of my goals to others within my workplace so that they have a vision of where I would like my future to head"

"To break goals into small steps. Setting goals over a 5 year period"

"Yes, I have begun to make small changes to my daily life structure"

"Able to work on goals. Given me more motivation to make small changes to enable me to meet goals. Become more reflective about direction of career"

"It has definitely helped me realise goals that I would like to work towards"

"I have learned that among other things I was in a mess. I had no goals set and no defined tasks. I have since coaching set and achieved short term goals. I am constantly working to a goal"

The comments from the first question suggest that participants were able to take away with them what they learned during the workshop and implement it into their daily lives so that their goals could be achieved. The strategies used during the workshop of making the participants actually go through goal setting and writing an action plan meant that the participants had done all the hard work of deciding where they wanted to go and what they needed to do. All that they then had to do was follow the steps that they had set out for themselves.

The second question asked respondents 'if they hadn't been able to implement anything why not?' Only one respondent had actually stated that she hadn't implemented anything from the workshop and this was due to the fact that she had just commenced a new job.

"At this stage due to the newness of my employment this year I have not been able to successfully implement any of the strategies"

One other respondent had stated that they found it hard to implement certain things due to time constraints but had also commented that they had been able to implement linking their goals to their values. All other respondents left this question blank. The overwhelming response to the first question with nearly all respondents stating that they had been able to implement something and then only one respondent saying that they had not indicates that the skills learnt

during the workshop were able to be transferred into the participants work and personal lives after the coaching workshop.

The third question asked respondents "What do you remember most about the workshop?". Again the majority of the respondents felt that reflecting and looking at future directions was the main thing that they remember from the workshop. Going through the goal setting process and helping them to prioritise their goals and put them into manageable steps was also mentioned as memorable. A few respondents noted the values activity as the most memorable thing from the workshop as did a few about the guest speaker. It is interesting to note that at both the Education sector workshop and the Tourism sector workshop the guest speaker was rated very highly in terms of usefulness which would suggest that coaches need industry experience, but when it came to what respondents remembered most about the workshops they mostly listed the goal setting process. Detailed responses are listed below for this question.

"It helped me to polarise my plans for my future. Put everything into place and made me really think about future direction"

"Breaking up large goals into manageable steps. Actually reflecting on where life is going"

"The whole thing was informative and interesting"

"Defining goals and breaking them down into an achievable fashion"

"It made me think about the future and what I want to achieve"

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"I remember setting goals and exploring strategies and methods at being more productive"

"It provided me with some uninterrupted time to reassess my direction and plan my future intentions"

"How important thinking for future employment is"

"Importance and effectiveness of goal setting"

"Writing my own personal goals and balancing them between home and work"

"Defining my vision for the future. Difference between coaching and mentoring"

"That most of what happens in my life is controlled by me. If I am not happy with how things happen I can make changes"

"How to articulate and analyse directions"

"The workshop encouraged me to focus on what goals I wanted to achieve and steps to take to achieve the goals I had set"

"The values that we had to cross off the list of 100 – it really made me think about what is important to me"

"the paperwork"

"the importance of goal setting"

"It reinforced what we already knew, but motivated me to put it into practice"

"Value selection. Converting to goals. Format for developing objectives. Guest speaker"

"I really enjoyed the first activity on values and the guest speaker's presentation"

The fourth question was a closed ended question "If you had the opportunity to do something more on your leadership skills, which of the following would you choose?". Here participants could tick the relevant boxes. Responses included 'attend another coaching workshop', 'have one-on-one coaching sessions', 'keep working on the goals and strategies set at workshop on your own', 'do more networking' and 'other'. Cross tabs for each response were then conducted between the two different sector groups. The first response of 'attend another coaching workshop' was chosen by seven respondents with three from the Education sector and four from the Tourism sector. The next option was to 'have one-on-one coaching sessions'. Again seven respondents responded yes to this option with three from the Education sector and four from the Tourism sector. 'Keep working on the goals and strategies set at workshop on your own' was the next response with 15 participants choosing this option. Ten were from the Education sector and five were from the Tourism sector. 'Do more networking' was next with nine respondents choosing this option with six from the Education sector and three from the Tourism sector. The final option was 'other' and only two respondents listed this and they were both from the Education sector. Responses for this option included *"work with a buddy"* and *"achieve and attain goals"*. The table below demonstrates these findings.

Table 4.6

Sector differences on developing their leadership skills

Option	Education sector	Tourism sector	Total
Attend another coaching workshop	3	4	7
Have one-on-one coaching sessions	3	4	7
Keep working on the goals and strategies set at workshop on your own	10	5	15
Do more networking	6	3	9
Other	2	0	2

Overall, the Education sector participants felt that being able to work on the goals

and strategies set at the workshop by themselves was the best option. Those

from the Tourism sector felt that being able to work on strategies and goals set at

the workshop are important but also listed attending another coaching workshop

and having one-on-one coaching sessions as important. More than half of the

respondents from the Tourism sector noted these three options as something

that they would like to do. The Tourism sector seemed to be more willing to

participate in more coaching activities than the Education sector participants.

This may be due to the fact that two different approaches were used to

encourage people to take part in the study. The Education sector professionals

were specially selected and encouraged to participate in the coaching workshop

by the Director of Catholic Education, their CEO. These were participants that

had shown leadership potential in their current positions and the Director was

implementing a leadership development program. While the Tourism participants

were notified of the upcoming coaching workshop and it was left up to the

individual to register to attend. This meant that one group had been approached

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by a superior figure in their organisation letting them know that they thought highly of them and they had been nominated to attend the workshop while the Tourism sector professionals had taken it upon themselves to attend the workshop, obviously feeling that some sort of benefit would come of them attending: they were self motivated.

Each groups' motives can be related back to the Elaboration Likelihood Model, where attitude or behavioural change can be due to concerns with the self (as in the case of the Tourism sector participants) or with others and whether there will be a reward or punishment (as in the case of the Education sector participants). The results seem to support the theory of attitude/behaviour change related to self (Wood, 2000). The coachee needs to have the motivation, take an active involvement and have the desire to achieve the goals set in order for the coaching process to be effective (Michalak & Schulte, 2002; Presby Kodish, 2002; Schulte & Eifert, 2002). Each group did feel that they now had the skills to be able to work on their goals and strategies on their own, which meant that the generic coaching skills had been effective for the workshop participants. One respondent from the Education sector did mention that if they were in more of a business type of career then they would participate in another coaching workshop and would like to attend one-on-one coaching sessions. The first three options of 'attend another coaching workshop', 'have one-on-one coaching sessions' and 'keep working on the goals and strategies set at workshop on your own' were the most popular answers given.

The next question asked participants 'If you were to attend another workshop what areas would you like to see included?'. Responses to the question covered a number of topics. Six respondents chose not to answer this question. Six respondents, all from the Education sector felt that more industry sector related topics needed to be covered in the workshop. Responses included:

"More focussed towards education. The initial workshop was fairly generic and didn't always align with the field of education"

"I enjoyed the guest speaker from industry"

"Specific skills related to middle or upper management in schools"

"I'd like to see the career paths for those seeking to move up the 'ladder' in education clearly defined"

"Things that are more closely linked to the Educational institute environment"

"Some more information on how our industry can support us"

Another theme that emerged was that of attaining specific skills, three areas were specifically highlighted by respondents. These areas included 'people management and communication skills', 'time management skills' and 'networking'. Each of these areas is a sub-area in the coaching process that is used to help individuals achieve better productivity and effectiveness. Some of the responses to this question included:

"people skills (managing people)"

"time management skills"

"time management and prioritising"

"staff/people management/ time management/networking/group brainstorming"

"leadership and ability to communicate knowledge to others"

There were seven responses for these areas to be included in a workshop. Two respondents stated that they thought it would be good to have a guest speaker in to talk about how they had achieved success, what motivated them, what were their experiences to share with workshop participants.

"Outside speakers/guest speakers who have attained success in either sport or work to share their experiences and tips they use for personal motivation"

"More guest lectures from people who have succeeded – from a variety of cultural and social backgrounds (eg Indigenous, Non-English speaking, disabled)"

Again, these responses can be related back to the Elaboration Likelihood Model and the Theory of Planned Behavior. These respondents noted having someone come in to speak about their experiences and success (rewards) with coaching. In the theories of Elaboration Likelihood Model and the Theory of Planned Behavior one of the central motives that can help to generate attitude/behaviour change is a concern of what others think and whether there will be a reward or punishment related to a behaviour or attitude change (Ajzen, 2001; Wood, 2000).

Two participants were happy with the way the workshop was run and wouldn't change it in any way. One response from one of the participants explained it like this; "I believe the workshop was run well with good content. I would not be inclined to change it a great deal and I would benefit from sitting through the same again. I think we would all pick up more a second time around". Other responses included the option of having one-on-one sessions for participants and another respondent felt that all staff in their organisation should take part in the coaching workshop process.

The final question asked participants who attended the workshop and those that had one-on-one coaching sessions if they had any further comments about their workshop experience. Most respondents commented on the presenter and the materials used. Others felt that they had gained useful skills that could be used in their everyday lives and that they had incorporated these skills to achieve the goals set by themselves during the workshop. A few commented on their overall experience of the day and how they had enjoyed it. Responses included:

"Prompted me into action. Have now met all the goals I had for this year and am really pleased I had the opportunity to do this. Thank you!"

"Very helpful experience. I aimed to get tasks completed so that I would be organised when I met with my coach. It was relaxed, informal, friendly atmosphere"

"Well presented and eager to answer questions"

"It was a very insightful day that helped me remember particular strategies that are useful in everyday life"

"It was an enjoyable day"

"The experience was well worth the time"

"Well run and very effective. I appreciated the time and effort put in to preparation and presentation. Also appreciated the opportunity to attend. Well done"

"Very worthwhile experience"

"Very well presented, great booklet to keep. Easy to follow and nice to meet other people in workshop"

"I think personal coaching is not just discussing something superficially and in short term. Should focus more on further contacts and conversation"

"Thank you! You were very professional, well presented and knowledgeable. I am pleased to have had this time and will value it"

"Our coach was very professional and we could relate to her easily. She understood our business and what we were trying to achieve which made it more effective"

"More info in booklet to refer back to"

"I really enjoyed it"

Five extra questions were asked to those respondents that participated in the one-on-one coaching sessions (see Appendix J). These were questions specifically about the one-on-one coaching sessions they had participated in. Six

volunteers from the workshops to participate in the one-on-one sessions, three from the Education sector and three from the Tourism sector. The first of the five extra questions was a scale question that asked the participants 'Overall how satisfied were you with the one-on-one coaching sessions?' with 1 being very dissatisfied and 10 being very satisfied. All but one participant rated the one-on-one coaching sessions a 10. The other participant rated it an 8, giving the one-on-one coaching sessions a mean rating of 9.67 overall resulting in participants rating the sessions very highly.

The next question asked participants 'What were the three best things about the one-on-one coaching sessions?". Participants felt that the individual focus on them was good and that having to meet up with a coach at a specified time meant that they had to make sure something had been achieved or worked towards before they met, ultimately helping them to achieve their goals. Some respondents also liked that they were able to get more personalised advice from the coach. Some of the responses to this question included:

"Individual focus, clarify goal settings, impartial yet sound advice"

"Meeting goals, feeling as if achieved, setting up realistic targets"

"It 'encourages' me to think about my goals that are 'out there' and perhaps act on them sooner than 'one day'"

"The personal approach, the shared information"

"One-on-one made me look at what I had done and at what I had not. We or at least I tend to get lazy and think I will do it soon. Coaching helps eliminate that"

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"They kept me motivated"

The responses reaffirm that having an ongoing process where participants are returning to goals set and continuously working on their goals as being a more effective strategy for achievement (Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; Presby Kodish, 2002). Also having a coach that is outside the organisation where participants felt they were in a safe environment and could discuss any topic was also a benefit of the one-on-one coaching sessions (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Witherspoon & White, 1996a).

The next question asked respondents "What three things could be changed/improved about the one-on-one coaching sessions?". Only three respondents answered this question with one stating that they would like to have *"more guest speakers"* which was about the workshop rather then the one-on-one sessions. The other two responded with comments about how they were happy with the sessions the way they were:

> *"I was happy with my experience of the one-on-one coaching sessions"*
>
> *"I do not see that I would alter anything. I was very pleased"*

The final two questions were Likert scale questions asking participants 'How important do you feel it is that you have a good relationship with your coach?' with 1 being very important and 5 being not at all important and 'How supportive was your organisation in regards to you attending one-on-one coaching sessions?' with 1 being very supportive and 5 being not at all supportive. All

respondents rated the importance of the relationship as very important

reinforcing empirical literature from the psychology field (Krupnick et al., 1996;

Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998) and the coaching literature (Diedrich, 2001;

Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997, 2000; Laske,

1999a; Newell, 2002; O'Neill, 2000; Wasylyshyn, 2003) of the importance of the

relationship. With regard to how supportive their organisation was to them

attending one-on-one coaching sessions two out of the three Education

participants felt that their organisation was supportive and one rated the support

received as very supportive. All three Tourism participants responded with very

supportive for organisation support. This was good to see as organisational

support can be something that can affect the effectiveness of the coaching

process (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996;

Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Peterson, 1996).

Overall, participants that attended the workshop and those that participated in the

one-on-one coaching sessions saw benefits for themselves. Those that did

participate in the one-on-one sessions felt that they had a more personalised and

individual service provided and found that the relationship between the coach

and coachee was important. The sessions were rated very highly and

participants commented that not much was in need of change for future one-on-

one sessions. The findings also confirmed the importance of the relationship

between the coach and coachee and the support offered by the organisation in

the coaching process to achieve outcomes. The Theory of Planned Behavior

(Ajzen, 2001) again relates to the findings of those respondents who participated in both the workshops and one-on-one sessions. The workshops encouraged elaboration and a positive attitude towards change, while the one-on-one sessions then allowed for the maintenance of change and further development.

4.11 Comparisons of Results from Participants who Participated in the One-on-one Coaching Sessions with those that Participated in the Workshop Only

One of the aims of the study was to determine if working in a workshop was more helpful for coachees in the coaching process or whether the use of one-on-one coaching sessions was more effective. Five of the questions from the final evaluation form were asked to both participants that participated in the workshop and those that participated in the one-on-one coaching sessions. The first question asked respondents to think back to the workshop and to list what they had been able to implement or use since the workshop. Respondents that had one-on-one coaching sessions all mentioned that it was the process of goal setting that they had been able to implement since the workshop, with most stating that they had taken steps to implement and prioritise goals set at the workshop. Some had even achieved the goals that they had set for themselves. Those that had attended the workshop only also stated that goal setting and prioritising was the main thing that they had taken away from the workshop.

The second question asked respondents if they had not been able to implement anything then why? Only one person had stated that they had not and that person was from the group that had only attended the workshop. The reason for them not being able to implement anything was due to them starting a new job and so they "had not been able to successfully implement any of the strategies".

The third question asked respondents what they remembered most about the workshop? Those respondents that had attended one-on-one coaching sessions mentioned the fact that the workshop had helped them to put certain steps in place for the future, that it had given them the opportunity to reflect on the past and helped them to break up large goals into more manageable steps. Responses centred around the idea of goal setting and how to achieve it. Responses for this question from the one-on-one coaching session participants included:

"It helped me to polarise my plans for my future. Put everything into place and made me really think about future direction"

"Breaking up large goals into manageable steps. Actually reflecting on where life is going"

"The whole thing was informative and interesting"

"The workshop encouraged me to focus on what goals I wanted to achieve and steps to take to achieve the goals I had set"

"The importance of goal setting"

"It reinforced what we already knew, but motivated me to put it into place"

Respondents that had only attended the workshop tended also to list goal setting as the main thing that they remembered about the workshop, with only one respondent stating that it was "how to articulate and analyse directions" that they remember most about the workshop. It seems that for the first three questions of the final evaluation there were not really any differences between those that did participate in the one-on-one coaching sessions compared with those that only participated in the workshop. They all seemed to feel that it was the generic coaching skills of goal setting that were most memorable and able to be implemented since the workshop.

The next question asked respondents to choose from a list provided by the researcher as to what they would like to do to increase their leadership skills. Options included; 'attend another coaching workshop', 'have one-on-one coaching sessions', 'keep working on goals and strategies set at workshop on your own', 'do more networking and other'. Out of the six one-on-one coaching session participants four of them listed 'attend one-on-one coaching sessions'. 'Attend another coaching workshop', 'keep working on the goals and strategies set at the workshop on your own' and 'do more networking' all received three responses and 'other' received one response. Respondents that had only attended the workshop listed 'keep working on the goals and strategies set at the workshop on your own' the most frequently with 12 responses, while 'do more networking' received six responses. 'Attend another coaching workshop' totalled

five responses and 'attend one-on-one coaching sessions' received four votes. 'Other' received only one response. The table below illustrates these findings.

Table 4.7

Developing your leadership skills

Option	One-on-one participants	Workshop only participants	Total
Attend another coaching workshop	3	5	8
Have one-on-one coaching sessions	4	4	8
Keep working on the goals and strategies set at workshop on your own	3	12	15
Do more networking	3	6	9
Other	1	1	2
Total	14	28	

All participants who attended one-on-one sessions returned their final evaluation forms which could be an indicator of the relationship built between the coach and coachee. Of those that only attended the workshop 15 out of a possible 20 returned the final evaluation form. While this was still a good response rate it was interesting to note that it was only participants of the workshop only that did not return the final evaluation form.

Half of the one-on-one coaching participants felt that they would like to attend another coaching workshop, work on their goals by themselves and do more networking, whereas five (one third) of the workshop only participants felt that

they would like to attend another workshop. Four decided that they would like to have one-on-one coaching sessions and six chose more networking as an option to further develop their leadership skills.

The main difference between the two groups was the option of 'keep working on the goals and strategies set at the workshop on your own' only three one-on-one participants selected this option while 12 from the workshop only group selected this option. Those that did participate in the one-on-one coaching sessions tended to choose more of the options available while many of the workshop only participants chose the work by themselves option. This may be due to them feeling that they had learnt the generic skills of goal setting and now felt that they could do it themselves and so did not need to do anything else whereas the respondents that participated in the one-on-one coaching sessions could now see the benefits of the sessions and where more open to this option. It could also be related to the possibility of dependency by the coachee for the coach. Further research is needed in this area to draw any real conclusions.

The final question asked participants what they would like to see included in another coaching workshop. The one-on-one group participants stated that they would like it to be more industry focused (these were also responses from participants in the education sector), for one-on-one coaching sessions to be available, and for there to be a guest speaker. Those that attended the workshop only felt that it was important for the workshop to be industry aligned (again all from the Education sector), for there to be a session on people

management skills, for there to be guest speakers and for time management to be covered. One respondent noted that they would like networking to be included. It must also be noted that a number of respondents stated that they wouldn't change anything that they liked the workshop the way that it was run.

4.12 Conclusions

Minter and Thomas (2000) state that an individual who assumes a high level of initiative is more suited to coaching. Participants that nominated themselves for the one-on-one coaching sessions tended to be those that had a high level of initiative: for them, the coaching sessions were more of a way to initiate the achievement of the goals set at the workshop. The participants felt that they had to have things done when they met with the coach and so therefore were able to achieve a number of their goals by the time they returned the final evaluation form. The actual commitment to one-on-one sessions were another motivating factor in their self improvement.

The findings from this study again can be related back to the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) which places a greater emphasis on the relevance and features of the coaching process. This is supported by participants' responses that the most memorable aspect of the coaching workshops and one-on-one sessions was goal setting. The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) also suggests that personal and organisational commitment to desired workplace behaviours should be the critical

element in coaching effectiveness. While this was true to a certain extent in that many participants wanted to improve certain aspects of their workplace behaviours, the most important aspect was the generic coaching content and the processes provided (goal setting). The counselling psychology literature would further suggest that it is the trust in the coach and coachee commitment and effort that are most important. This was certainly demonstrated in the responses from participants, especially those that completed the one-on-one sessions and is further evidenced in the fact that all participants in the one-on-one sessions returned the evaluation forms.

Changes in the importance of different factors at different times in the coaching process was also a key theme that emerged in this study. The workshop provided a key platform as the start of the coaching process to encourage elaboration and a positive attitude towards change. In this first phase sector specific information was valuable in helping participants to formulate detailed goals and translate these into action plans. The one-on-one sessions then allowed for maintenance of change and further development. In this maintenance phase the coach's general skills and support become more important than their technical expertise or sector experience (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). The respondents who reported on this second phase also expressed a desire to engage in a wide range of development activities including more workshops. This suggests that an

effective development approach could be a cycle between group and individual

work (Damon, 2007) and that a key skill of coaches that has not been given

much attention could be that of finding sector specific resources to support

coachee development.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

In the introduction to this thesis it was reported that many companies make substantial investments in a variety of development programs for executives (R Fulmer, Gibbs, & Goldsmith, 2000). These programs aim at providing a competitive advantage to the organisations that use them (Day, 2001; McCall, 1998). Coaching is one of the programs used by these organisations and is a growing field that is aimed at helping executives improve their own performance and consequently the performance of the overall organisation (Joo, 2005; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1996b). Despite the growth of the coaching field in a practical sense there is a considerable lack of critical empirical research (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Grant & Cavanagh, 2004; Kilburg, 1996a, 1997, 2001; Lowman, 2005; Orenstein, 2002; Sherman & Freas, 2004) especially in the area of the effectiveness of coaching (Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004). During the three years of this doctoral thesis there have been many new publications in the world of coaching, a few have included empirical studies but the majority are still mainly marketing claims coming from the coaching industry itself (Grant & Zackon, 2004) leaving the practice of coaching as an "unregulated, poorly defined area" (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998, p. 41).

The key claims made about coaching identified in the broader literature review included:

- o   It is an effective development/training tool

- It creates improved performance by increasing the coachee's self awareness and self esteem

- Coaches don't need to be experts in the coachee's field

- The coachee has to be involved and willing to change

- Trust and support are important

- Setting goals and action plans are important

Due to the lack of critical analysis of business coaching, the overall aim of this thesis was to develop and empirically examine a conceptual model of business coaching. This model was built from existing research and theory referred to in the business coaching literature, theory and research in related areas (persuasive communication and counselling psychology) and empirical evidence from two studies. Much of the research is focused on claims made by coaching companies, it was therefore important to have a sample that consisted of coachees and to gain their perspectives on what is important to include in the coaching process to make it effective. The research for this thesis consisted of coachees only and so results are from the coachee perspective.

The main stages of the thesis were originally set out in Figure 1.4, this figure has been adapted summarizing the key features of what happened in each phase, see Figure 5.1 below.

Stage 1: Develop conceptual model ⇓	After reviewing the existing business coaching literature and empirical research it was found that persuasive communication and counselling psychology could be useful for the design of the coaching model.
Stage 2: Exploratory study of the model ⇓	The preliminary coaching model identified five components as keys to understanding the coaching process and its outcomes. This led to a detailed list of factors for the components included in the coaching model (Figure 2.10).
Stage 3: Specific research questions ⇓	There was a need to include quantitative and qualitative approaches due to the exploratory nature of the topic. Specific research questions or aims were designed for Study 1: Survey of coaching participants and Study 2: Participant evaluations of coaching workshops and one-on-one coaching sessions (these are noted below).
Stage 4: Empirical study ⇓	For Study 1 primary data was gathered from a questionnaire designed by the researcher with both quantitative and qualitative aspects included. Study 2 consisted of a workshop and series of one-on-one individual coaching sessions for two different professional groups.
Stage 5: Refinement of the model	After completion of the empirical studies refinement of the model and the key components was carried out (Figure 3.4).

Figure 5.1: The main stages of the thesis

Study 1: Survey of coaching participants

This study consisted of mostly structured questions to allow quantitative analysis. The specific aims of this study were to:

- o assess the relative importance of the factors listed in the model to perceived coaching effectiveness
- o to identify factors to include in a revised model of coaching effectiveness

This study focused on four main components; coach, coachee, organisation and the coaching process.

Study 2: Participant evaluations of coaching workshops and one-on-one coaching sessions

This study used mostly open-ended questions to allow descriptive qualitative analysis, the specific aims for this study were to determine:

- o What if any differences are there between the Tourism and Education industry sectors in relation to coaching?
- o Does providing the opportunity for networking make the coaching process more effective?
- o Is the coaching process more effective if one-on-one follow up coaching sessions are held compared to attending a one day workshop?
- o Is it important for the coach to have specific industry knowledge or can the coaching process be effective with the coach having only general coaching knowledge?
- o To examine variables in the coach – coachee relationship component of the model

This study again focused on the main components of the model; coach, coachee, organisation and coaching process. However, it also included a focus on the fifth component, the relationship between the coach and coachee.

5.1.1 Limitations and cautions

There were some limitations to the research. Due to the problems encountered with the website for Study 1 three months of potential data was lost and this was costly in terms of time with the PhD thesis research. This had further implications as it meant that the researcher could not develop the model in as much detail as was originally planned because the sample size was much smaller than anticipated. This led to the analyses being more exploratory and limited in terms of generalisation to the wider population.

The sample did, however, have good representation from both males and females for the first study and all age categories were represented. The mean age of the first study was 40 years. There was also a good representation of respondents in each relationship category. Responses represented a number of different industries and lengths of time participants had been in their current positions. Many of the respondents had higher education qualifications with the majority having either a postgraduate or undergraduate degree. In Study 2 the sample consisted of mostly females with only five males participating. There were also more participants from the Education sector than from the Tourism sector. However, there were no group differences on socio-demographic

variables. This was also the first time that many of the participants had engaged

in any type of business coaching before with only two respondents from the

Tourism sector stating that they had previous experience with business coaching.

However, key patterns of findings were consistent and can be used to direct

future paths of research within the coaching area. It is also critical to note that

the sample consisted of coachees only and so results are from the coachee

perspective and not others involved in the coaching process. However, this

could be seen as more of a benefit rather than a limitation. This is confirmed in

the statement made by Joo (2005, p. 483) "because executive coaching is still in

its infancy and most case studies were based on the perspective of coaches,

interpretive research using a phenomenological approach that examines the

perspectives of executives being coached could add significantly to knowledge

about executive coaching". The researcher in this case was also the coach, it

needs to be noted that this may have influenced some of the results.

5.2 Key Descriptive Themes Emerging From the Research

A number of key themes emerged from this research, including more details on

the important aspects of coaching effectiveness, the desirability of matching

characteristics of the coach and coachee, the differences in commitment and

experience of coachees and lastly, the importance of goal setting. Each of these

will be discussed in detail.

5.2.1 Important aspects of coaching effectiveness

The first study helped to confirm the importance of the three main parts of coaching, the coach, the coachee and what the coach does (the coaching process). It also provided empirical evidence to suggest that coaching can be effective and that respondents felt that coaching was effective in helping them achieve their goals. According to participants the most important factors for a coach to have are honesty, being able to communicate clearly, being able to maintain confidentiality and being similar in age and gender. This contradicts statements made by Joo (2005) that the most important characteristics for a coach to have are integrity (Sherman & Freas, 2004), confidence, experience and a high developmental level. It also contradicts Sherman and Freas (2004) where they state that the coach needs to have acute perception, sound judgement and be able to resolve conflicts. Bacon and Spear (2003) state that the coach should have credibility, knowledge and experience.

In terms of the coachee, the thesis results suggested that they must put in the effort to be able to achieve the results desired. They also need to be able to overcome the barrier of other personal matters and commit to the process in order for it to be successful, which is consistent with the claims of Laske (1999a), Joo (2005), Bacon and Spear (2003) and Hodgetts (2002). In terms of the coaching process it was found that most respondents feel coaching is best used to help them identify blind spots, encourage them to take appropriate action and

constructively view difficult issues. However, it was also noted that the coaching

process should be tailored to the individual needs of the coachee (Harris, 1999;

Joo, 2005; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; O'Brien, 1997; Witherspoon &

White, 1996a).

In the second study, participant responses from the first evaluation form indicated

that the coaching workshop experience was effective. Two main themes that

came out of these evaluations from the Education sector were for the coach to

provide more industry related examples and for the participants to have more

networking opportunities. It is interesting to note that at both the Education

sector workshop and the Tourism sector workshop the guest speaker was rated

very highly in terms of usefulness which would suggest that coaches need

industry experience, but when it came to what respondents remembered most

about the workshops in the final evaluation the goal setting process was rated as

most memorable.

While there appeared to be no additional benefits from one-on-one coaching

compared with those that just attended the workshop, those that did participate in

the one-on-one coaching sessions felt that the individual focus (Harris, 1999;

Joo, 2005; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; O'Brien, 1997; Witherspoon &

White, 1996a) on them was good and that having to meet up with a coach at a

specified time meant that they had to make sure something had been achieved

or worked towards before they met, ultimately helping them to achieve their

goals. Some respondents also liked the fact that they were able to get more personalised help and advice from the coach. The responses from the one-on-one coaching sessions support an argument that having an ongoing process where participants are returning to goals set and continuously working on their goals as being a more effective strategy for achievement. This contradicts some authors, such as Joo (2005), who state that coaching should be short term. Overall participants that attended the workshop and those that participated in the one-on-one coaching sessions all saw benefits for themselves. The findings from this study also confirmed the importance of the relationship between the coach and coachee and the support offered by the organisation in the coaching process to achieve outcomes. The findings from the evaluation forms were reflective of the coachee's experiences, more differences between the workshop and one-on-one sessions may have emerged if questions seeking Return on Investment had have been asked by the researcher.

Findings from the thesis research and claims made by coaching industry have been organised in the table below.

Table 5.1

Summary of claims made in the literature and findings from thesis research

Factor	Confirmed by	Contradicts	No research to date	Significant thesis findings
Similarity of coach to coachee	(Ajzen, 1992; Banning, 1997; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Diedrich, 2001; Eaton, Abeles, & Gutfreund, 1988; Freud, 1913, 1958; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Greenson, 1965; Horvath & Luborsky, 1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997, 2000; Krupnick et al., 1996; Laske, 1999a; Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985; Newell, 2002; O'Neill, 2000; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998; Wasylyshyn, 2003)			✓
No industry experience/ knowledge of coachee's field is needed		(Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999)	✓	✓

Factor	Confirmed by	Contradicts	No research to date	Significant thesis findings
Knowledge of business management, leadership and political issues is needed	(Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Filipczak, 1998; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Harris, 1999; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Laske, 1999a; Levinson, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003)			✓
Support coaching being one-on-one	(Bacon & Spear, 2003; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; McCauley & Hezlett, 2001; Orenstein, 2002)	(Collins & Holton III, 2004; Kets de Vries, 2005)		✓
Support coaching being conducted in workshop format	(Kets de Vries, 2005)	(Bacon & Spear, 2003; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; McCauley & Hezlett, 2001; Orenstein, 2002)		✓
Importance of goal setting	(Belf, 1996; Bloch, 1995; Redshaw, 2000; Russo, 2000)			✓

5.2.2 Matching of coaches with coachees

5.2.2.1 Importance of similarities between the coach and coachee

In order to achieve positive change in the coachee it has been argued in the

coaching and counselling psychology literature (Bacon & Spear, 2003;

Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Hodgetts, 2002) that the relationship between

coach and coachee is of vital importance. It is argued that it is not the approach used by the coach that is of most importance but the relationship between the two (Laske, 1999a). The literature states that the coaching process helps the coachee to identify recurring problems (Levinson, 1996), the coach should be genuine, show unconditional regard and be empathetic towards the coachee (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998). The relationship also needs to be healthy and supportive (Macik-Frey, Quick, & Quick, 2005) and adaptable to the clients needs (Flaherty, 1999; Harris, 1999; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; O'Brien, 1997; Witherspoon & White, 1996a).

Hodgetts (2002) also states that factors such as gender, socioeconomic background and life experiences are important to consider in order to make effective coaching matches. However, the coaching literature overall does not seem to concentrate on the importance of the coach being similar both in age and gender to the coachee. The findings from the research in this thesis suggest, however, that the similarity of the coach to the coachee in terms of values, goals, personality, gender and age is important and is consistent with major claims in both the counselling psychology and persuasive communication literature (Ajzen, 1992; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994). It seems that if the coachee thinks the coach is similar to them in values and interests this will help to build the relationship between the two, resulting in a stronger bond leading to a more effective coaching process. Therefore one can begin to suggest propositions for further research.

Proposition 1: If a good match between the coach and coachee is achieved then the coaching process and outcomes will be more effective.

5.2.2.2 Industry experience of the coach

Most authors in the coaching profession argue that in order to be a coach you don't have to have industry experience in the coachee's particular field (Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). This is consistent with the fact that there doesn't seem to be any universal coaching credential to identify competent coaches (Joo, 2005). As much of coaching involves goal setting and that this can be used across disciplines and does not need to be industry specific this may be why coaching companies feel that specific industry or sector experience is not necessary for a coach. However, a number of researchers do believe that to be effective in business coaching, coaches do need to have sound general knowledge in business, management, leadership and political issues (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Filipczak, 1998; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Harris, 1999; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Laske, 1999a; Levinson, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003).

The educational background of coaches is also in debate. Does a coach need to have psychology training as suggested by some authors (Arnaud, 2003; Berglas, 2002; Kilburg, 1997, 2000)? Others have argued that coaches do not need to be

trained psychologists (Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goldsmith, Lyons, & Freas, 2000; Niemes, 2002; Sherman & Freas, 2004), while there are those that feel that coaches should have grounded knowledge in both business and psychology (Wasylyshyn, 2003).

The respondents included in this thesis research highlighted the need for more industry or sector related examples from the coach. While the general coaching techniques involving goal setting are able to be used across different industries, respondents felt that the coaching process would have been more effective if industry specific examples could have been given. This may start to overlap with a mentor type of coach were the coach uses the general skills of coaching with a coachee but is able to provide industry specific examples to further demonstrate a particular point. It is also possible that a key coaching skill could be that of mobilising sector or workplace specific resources to support coachee development. Joo (2005) and Judge and Cowell (1997) argue the need for evidence into how a coach's style impacts on the coaching process and outcomes and this leads to proposition 2.

> *Proposition 2: The background of the coach will determine the type of coaching approach used, this in turn will have different affects on the coaching process and outcomes.*

5.2.2.3 Different perspectives of coachees on who is most important

Another issue surrounding the matching of the coach with the coachee is that of the different perspectives that coachees have of who or what is the most important aspect of the coaching process. The results from the bivariate analyses in the first study suggested that coaching participants differ in their personal characteristics and expectations and these were related to differences in their perceptions of the coaching process. Respondents who said that the coach was the most important had been with their current coach for more than one year, expected the coaching process to last for one month, had sessions that went for less than one hour, had the coaching sessions initiated by the organisation, had been in their current position for 1-5 years and had a high school education. They also stated that it was important for the coach to have a good personality/attitude, be friendly, be patient and have the ability to build a rapport. With regards to personal goals those who wanted to use the coaching process in order to identify blind spots, learn approaches, become more confident and develop skills also felt that the coach was the most important variable. In regard to organisational goals respondents who felt the coach was the most important feature stated that they wanted to increase their chances of getting a promotion and wanted to become more efficient.

Respondents who stated that the coachee was the most important feature, were most likely to have been with their current coach for 6-12 months, to report that the coaching process would last for 6-12 months, that their sessions usually went

for 1-3 hours. They were also more likely to be male, married and to have two or more children. They had been in their current position for 6-10 years, they had post graduate qualifications and stated that they would participate in coaching again, they tended to like a coach with technical experience and one that provided sufficient contact time. When stating their organisational goals, they wanted to add value to the organisation and many did not have any organisational goals when they started the coaching process.

The final group examined were those who rated the coaching process as most important. Here respondents had been with their coach for 3-6 months, their sessions went for less than one hour, they had initiated the coaching themselves, they were female, single and had no children. They had either TAFE qualifications or an undergraduate degree. They felt it was important for the coach to provide sufficient contact time and were generally respondents who wanted to acquire knowledge and enhance their personal development. They also wanted to be able to do their role at work better.

Further analysis gave the researcher a more in-depth look at what specific individual variables respondents felt were most important. Those that felt the coach was the most important had rated the factors 'Confidence and Acceptance' (Ajzen, 1992; Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Chaiken, 1980; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Lambert, 1992; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967; Wasylyshyn, 2003)

and 'Preoccupation with other personal matters' more highly. While those that had listed the coaching process as the most important individual variable thought that the support received from their organisation was most important (Bacon & Spear, 2003; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Peterson, 1996). Respondents that rated the coachee as most important felt the 'Outcomes' factor should be rated highly.

To date there does not seem to be any research into whom or what is seen as the most important part of the coaching process. As stated previously much of the research has focused on the coach's perspective (Joo, 2005) and so the question of importance between the coach, coachee or coaching process does not seem to have been asked before. This lead to the third proposition, where coachees with internal motivation and those that have more experience in their role at work are more likely to find coaching effective. This is supported by the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) where the message has a high degree of relevance to the individual (Morris, Woo, & Singh, 2005), therefore, motivating them to translate their goals into action plans.

Proposition 3: That coachees with greater competence, experience and expertise should hold more favourable attitudes towards coaching.

5.2.3 Differences in commitment and experience of the coachee

In order for the coachee to achieve the most from the coaching process it has been suggested in the literature that they be motivated to learn and develop new skills to function at a higher level (Ajzen, 1992; Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996; Presby Kodish, 2002; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001; Wade, 2004; Wasylyshyn, 2003). It is proposed that this in turn helps them to be more satisfied and productive (Rich, 1998). In order to achieve this they need to seek a better, more balanced life (Ajzen, 1992; Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Presby Kodish, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003). Minter and Thomas (2000) state that an individual who assumes a high level of initiative is more suited to coaching. Those participants that nominated themselves for the one-on-one coaching sessions in Study 2 tended to be those that had a high level of initiative and showed proactive tendencies, the coaching sessions were more of a way to initiate the achievement of goals set at the workshop. In order for coaching to be successful the coachee must be open to feedback and willing to change (Bacon & Spear, 2003; Hodgetts, 2002) otherwise the other factors involved in making the coaching process effective will not matter.

In Study 1 respondents who were currently being coached and those that had completed the coaching process were examined. Significant differences were found for nine of the variables analysed. With each of the significant results it

was found that respondents that were currently going through the coaching process at the time the questionnaire was administered rated each variable as more important than those that had already completed the coaching process and were now reflecting on their experience (Table 3.22). Generally, time for reflection moderates responses across all the variables and being in the process right now heightens awareness and leads to stronger responses.

5.2.4 The importance of goal setting for coaching effectiveness

It has been suggested that coaching helps develop relationships which in turn help the coachee to learn more things more quickly, adapt to change more effectively and become proactive learners. This then leads to the development of soft business skills resulting in higher levels of motivation, more practical solutions to problems, increased job satisfaction and advancement within the organisation for the coachee (Bloch, 1995; Redshaw, 2000; Russo, 2000). Goal setting is a key point of connection between where the coachee is and where they want to be. It is the motivational variable that is expected to affect the amount of effort given during learning (Fisher & Ford, 1998). Through the coaching relationship the coachee should be able to realise their vision, goals or desires. The process of inquiry and personal discovery can be used to build the coachee's level of awareness and responsibility and provides them with support, structure and feedback (Belf, 1996). It is through the process of goal setting that the coachee is able to see what they are striving to achieve and what they need

to do to get there, this provides a feeling of accomplishment once they have achieved a goal that has been set.

The importance of goal setting was reinforced by the research conducted for this thesis. In Study 2 respondents rated the goal setting process as one of the most beneficial parts of the coaching workshops and one-on-one coaching sessions. Respondents from both industries felt that the process of working through goal setting was effective and beneficial.

> *Proposition 4: Goal setting is an integral part of the coaching process and coachee's need to work through the goal setting process in order for coaching to be effective.*

5.5 The Development of the Model of Coaching

The preliminary coaching model identified five key components to understand the coaching process and its outcomes. A review of the coaching literature, results from persuasive communication research and principles from evaluations of counselling psychology suggested a number of variables that could be included in each of these components. Figure 2.10 provided the list of variables. There was no consensus in the literature about the relative importance of each of the five key components or of the factors within these components. It was therefore more of a descriptive framework rather than a model that could be used to

generate predictions. The results from the two studies conducted in this thesis

supported two key areas of development for the model:

- o a narrowing of focus onto a smaller set of variables,

- o evidence of key phases or stages in the coaching process where both the

     relative importance of variables and the processes linking these variables

     change.

5.5.1 The final key variables

The list of variables for each of the key components for the model of coaching

that was developed for Figure 2.10 has now been narrowed down to a list of

smaller more specific variables for Figure 5.2.

COACH	**COACHEE**	**ORGANISATION**	**COACHING PROCESS**
• Communication • Expertise/ Experience • Integrity • Similarity	• Motivation • Self efficacy • Experience and skill	• Support • Links between its goals and employee's goals and values	Focus on: • Goals • Opportunities to develop detailed and specific action plans
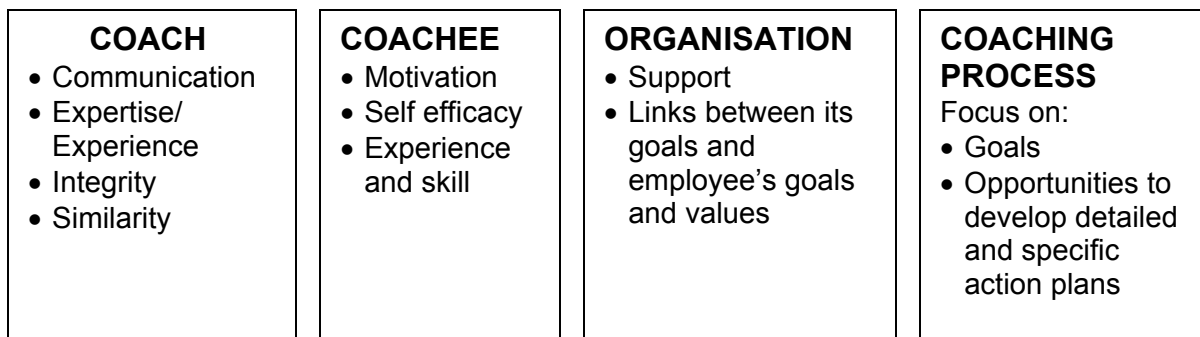
Figure 5.2: Final key variables

For the coach, the coachees in the thesis studies reported that the most

important variables were good communication skills, the expertise or experience

of the coach within the coaching field and their industry or sector, integrity of the

coach and how similar they were to the coachee in terms of goals, values and

interests. For the coachee, the most important variables were the nature of the

motivation for participation coaching, self efficacy and the level of experience or

skill that they had as an individual in their particular job. For the organisation the

most important variables considered by coachees sampled were for the

organisation to provide support and for the personal goals of the coachee to align

with the organisational goals and values. With regard to the coaching process,

the respondents felt that the most important variables were to focus on setting

goals and being given the opportunity to develop specific and detailed action

plans to achieve the goals set.

The initial descriptive framework identified four main sets of variables, those

related to the coach, the coachee, the coaching process and the organisation

and proposed that the key explanatory power lay within the relationships

between these elements. The results from the thesis studies suggest a different

approach should be taken to these explanatory processes based on movement

through different phases in the coaching process. Kilburg (2001) suggested a

cycle approach when he designed his set of eight key elements for coaching

effectiveness where each of the eight key elements helps to determine whether a

coaching assignment will achieve its long-term goals and result in the process

being effective. While Tovey (2001) suggested that there are different phases in

the coaching process and that coach and coachee require certain skills in order

for the coaching process to be achieved.

The idea of stages or phases can be related back to the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) as well. The coachee must want to change a particular attitude or behaviour and be motivated to go through the coaching process, they will be more likely to make a change if this attitude or behaviour is then seen favourably or is supported by a group (i.e. organisation) and they can see a reward attached to the attitude or behaviour change. Finally, they are more likely to make a change if they are given all the facts and are able to make a decision based on accurate and correct information (Ajzen, 2001; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Wood, 2000).

In these different phases different factors within each of the main elements comes into play Figure 5.3 provides an overview of these phases and the key variables within them. Note that the review phase and role of the organisation sections are more speculative then the other components. These emerged from additional comments made by participants and from extending arguments made in other components rather than directly from research results.

	Establishment Phase →	Maintenance Phase →	Review Phase
Core activities in coaching process	○ establish effective coach-coachee relationships ○ determine coachee values and goals ○ translate goals into action plans ○ encourage elaboration	○ support change in behaviour ○ identify blind spots ○ constructively manage issues	○ review progress ○ identify new areas for development
Key coach characteristics	○ ability to highlight similarities with coachee – develop a match between coachee and process ○ ability to establish credibility - expertise in coaching - expertise in field - ability to identify relevant expertise	○ ability to develop and maintain trust and empathy	○ ability to motivate coachee to further development
Role of organisation	○ provide support for process ○ highlight their values and goals	○ support ○ willingness to respond positively to change	○ preparedness to review itself

Figure 5.3: Overview of key phases and variables

What is suggested here is that there are different stages in the coaching process

and that different variables and processes are more or less important in different

phases. Depending on the coachee and where they are in their particular career

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will determine what phase in the coaching process they fall into. Under each of

these phases a number of key variables can be identified for the coaching

process, the coach and the role the organisation will play.

5.5.2 Core activities in the coaching process

During the establishment phase the core activities in the coaching process

include building an effective coach-coachee relationship. This was supported by

the results from this research overall and in particular from the second study. It

is also supported in the counselling psychology literature (Horvath & Luborsky,

1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Krupnick et al., 1996; Svartberg, Seltzer, &

Stiles, 1998) and coaching literature (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, &

Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997, 2000; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; O'Neill,

2000; Wasylyshyn, 2003). During the establishment phase it is important to

determine the coachee's values and goals as a core activity in the coaching

process. The coachee then has to translate those goals into specific steps in an

action plan. This was noted as clearly important in the second study were the

respondents stated that the most important part of the workshops and one-on-

one sessions was working through the process of goal setting. This step is also

related to the Theory of Planned Behavior where the coachee can see that a

favourable behaviour will incur a favourable outcome. The coachee is able to

determine what needs to be done to achieve a particular outcome (Ajzen, 2001;

Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Goal setting is also supported in the coaching

literature, where coachees are encouraged to identify outcomes expected and to

set goals (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Rich, 1998). The other key variable in the coaching process at the establishment phase is for elaboration to be encouraged (Wood, 2000). This method of message elaboration can be related to coaching in several ways. There are connections through discussions of motivation. It has been argued that the coachee must want to change their own particular behaviours or attitudes (Gegner, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003). They may want to conform to a groups attitudes (i.e. the organisation) due to specific rewards or punishments that are provided and this can be linked to coaching wanting to help the coachee align their personal goals with that of the organisations goals (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Rich, 1998). They may also be seeking to be more informed and accurate about a particular topic so that they can make the correct choice (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996).

The next proposed phase is the maintenance phase where the coaching process needs to include core activities such as supporting a change in behaviour, identifying blind spots and constructively managing issues. In this phase the coachee must feel that they are receiving support for a particular behaviour change from the coach and organisation and they also need to feel that the actual coaching process is supportive of their behaviour change. Coaching is

said to be a process that helps the coachee deal more effectively with change

(Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Newell, 2002;

Wasylyshyn, 2003). Responses from the participants in the studies did indicate

that they wanted to identify and achieve specific goals. This also involved a

process of identifying blind spots for the coachee (Brotman, Liberi, &

Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Newell, 2002;

Wasylyshyn, 2003) so that the coachee would be able to see the behaviours that

needed to be changed and then manage specific issues or barriers that arose in

order to change a particular behaviour.

The next phase is the review phase, here the coaching process is used to review

the progress made by the coachee and to then identify new areas for

development. This stage in the coaching process is again supported by

coaching literature (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen,

Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Diedrich, 1996; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Grant &

Cavanagh, 2004; Harris, 1999; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, &

Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996a, 1996b; Koonce, 1994; Levinson, 1996;

Lukaszewski, 1988; Monoky, 1996; O'Brien, 1997; Olesen, 1996; Peterson,

1996; Richard, 1999; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1993, 1996; Tobias, 1996;

Witherspoon & White, 1996a, 1996b, 1997). It was also something that was

noted by respondents in the second study, a number of respondents stated that

they felt it would be beneficial for them to attend either another coaching

workshop or for them to receive one-on-one coaching to further assist them to

achieve the goals they had set themselves. This ongoing process of reviewing

and identifying new areas for development leads to this model being a continual

process rather than a step by step process where the coaching process finishes

once the coachee has completed each phase.

5.5.3 Key coach characteristics

Like the coaching process there are also a number of key characteristics that the

coach must have during the establishment phase. These include; firstly, the

ability to highlight similarities with the coachee which helps to develop a match

between the coachee and process and secondly, the ability of the coach to

establish expertise in coaching, expertise in the specific industry or sector and/or

the ability to identify relevant expertise. The respondents from this research

stated that they felt the coaching process was more effective if they had a coach

that had similar values and attitudes to them. They felt that they were able to

relate more to the coach if this was the case. Having these similarities may help

the coach to tailor the coaching process to suit the coachee more (Harris, 1999;

Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; O'Brien, 1997; Witherspoon & White,

1996a).

The results from the first study indicated that the respondents would like a coach

that is credible and experienced in the field of coaching (Berglas, 2002; Eggers &

Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, &

Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003) and one that has expertise in

their specific industry. This, however, was not confirmed in the second study as

respondents noted that it was the goal setting process that was the most

important factor not the industry experience the coach had that was important.

Instead it appeared that the respondents wanted a coach that could identify

relevant expertise for the coachee. Therefore, the respondents didn't want a

coach with industry expertise, what they wanted was a coach who could provide

industry networks, sources or information needed. This seems to be a new

finding for the field of coaching and an area worthy of further examination.

During the maintenance phase respondents wanted the coach to have the ability

to develop and maintain trust and empathy. This is supported by the counselling

psychology literature (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin,

Kiesler, & Truax, 1967), the persuasive communication literature (Ajzen, 1992)

and the coaching literature (Banning, 1997)

(Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Judge &

Cowell, 1997; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997;

Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003). These

characteristics of the coach are crucial to coaching being effective as the

coachee needs to feel that they are able to trust the coach that they are working

with and that the coach understands their issues.

In the review phase the coach needs to have the ability to motivate the coachee

to develop further. In this stage the coach is required to help the coachee review

what they have achieved so far and to seek out other possible opportunities to develop or improve. While self motivation is a key element in the coaching process (Gegner, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003) it is also important for the coach to be able to motivate and direct the coachee towards achieving a higher level of functioning (Presby Kodish, 2002). This can be achieved during the review process where further development opportunities are identified.

5.5.4 Role of organisation

It has been established that the role the organisation does play and the support given to the coachee can determine how effective the coaching process will be (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Peterson, 1996). During the establishment phase the organisation needs to provide support for the process, this could be in the form of paying for the coaching process or providing a culture that is supportive of coaching. One way for the organisation to support the coachee is for them to highlight the organisation's values and goals so that the coachee is able to align their personal goals with that of the organisation.

In the maintenance phase again the organisation does need to provide support but they also need to be willing to respond positively to change. In this phase the coachee needs to feel that they have the support of the organisation not only to identify behaviour or attitude changes but that the organisation will support them and respond positively toward the changes that are being made. At this stage

there does not seem to be any literature surrounding this topic in coaching other than broad claims that the organisation should be supportive.

The review phase for the role of organisation requires the organisation to review itself, therefore, not just asking the coachee to change but the organisation as a whole. The organisation needs to be prepared to review its own processes and culture in order to enhance change. It does need to be noted that role of the organisation section is more speculative than the other components as these emerged from additional comments made by participants.

Once a coachee has worked through each of the phases and is reviewing the coaching process they may need to return to the establishment phase and start working through each of the different phases again. This is why there is a feedback arrow incorporated above the key phases in Figure 5.3. However, this would be done at a different level as the coachee strives to achieve new skills (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996) and reach a higher level of functioning (Presby Kodish, 2002).

The studies conducted in the thesis also indicated that there might be different pathways through the process depending on the initial motivation and experience of the coachee. As predicted by the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), coachees with an internal motivation such as self development or education and/or greater work experience and qualifications were more likely

to pursue a central route to change than those whose motivation was more

external in focus. Figure 5.4 shows the different pathways taken by these two

different types of coachees.

	Establishment Phase →	Maintenance Phase →	Review Phase
Internal motivation and more experience	o focus on translating goals into action plans o coach needs to establish expertise in coaching	o constructively manage issues	o seek further self development goals
External motivation and less experience	o focus on establishing effective coach-coachee relationship o focus on identifying values and goals o coach needs to highlight similarities o establish credibility in the field	o support change in behaviour	o motivate coachee to further development with a stronger internal focus

Figure 5.4: Pathways of coachee motivation

Coachees that have more of an internal motivation or drive and those that have

more expertise in their particular career follow a different pathway than coachees

who are driven by more external motivations and don't have as much experience

in a specific career.   During the establishment phase the coachee driven by

internal motivation (Ajzen, 1992), focuses on translating their goals into action

plans and needs a coach that has expertise in coaching (Berglas, 2002; Eggers & Clark, 2000; Evers, Browers, & Tomic, 2006; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; VanFleet, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). This phase is related to the Elaboration Likelihood Model where the "central route emphasises a high relevance of the message to the individual" (Morris, Woo, & Singh, 2005, p. 79). This means that if an individual feels that the message is relevant and of interest to them then they will be more likely to think about the message in detail. If the coachee feels that the coaching process is supporting their internal motivations then they will be more likely to elaborate on the messages and translate their goals into action plans. They need a coach that is able to help them work through the goal setting process, someone that has expertise in the coaching field.

Coachees that had more of an external motivation and less career experience felt that during the establishment phase there needed to be a focus on establishing an effective coach-coachee relationship (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997, 2000; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; O'Neill, 2000; Wasylyshyn, 2003), there needed to be a focus on identifying values and goals (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Rich, 1998), that the coach needed to highlight similarities (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, &

Crago, 1989) and establish credibility in the field (Ajzen, 1992; Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981).

This was supported by the findings from the research studies. The findings from the first study were consistent with the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) where participants with less experience and less personal connection did place the greatest emphasis on coach characteristics. However, the results also indicated that those who had completed the coaching and who were focussed on applying changes saw the technical expertise of the coach as important. It is possible that a coach with industry specific experience may be better placed to help a coachee translate goals into specific action plans during the establishment phase. These results also highlight the importance of recognising changes over time and in particular suggest a more complex relationship between coachee goals and the coaching process.

The findings from the second study can again be related back to the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). This is supported by participants' responses that the most memorable aspect of the coaching workshops and one-on-one sessions was goal setting. The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) also suggests that personal and organisational commitment to desired workplace behaviours should be the critical element in coaching effectiveness. While this was true to a certain extent in that many participants wanted to improve certain aspects of their workplace behaviours, the

most important aspect was the generic coaching content and the processes provided (goal setting). The counselling psychology literature would further suggest that it is the trust in the coach and coachee commitment and effort that are most important (internal motivators) (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; Muchinsky, 2003; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996).

During the maintenance phase coachees that are internally motivated need to be able to work with the coach to constructively manage issues, they are able to take a more proactive role in managing the process and any issues that may arise. Coachees that are externally motivated, those that are going through the coaching process because the organisation said so need support in changing their behaviour. The Elaboration Likelihood Model also provides support for this proposal. If a change is supported by the organisation than the coachee will be more likely to follow through in order to feel accepted or to receive a reward from the organisation (Wood, 2000).

In the review phase coachees with internal motivation and those that have more experience seek to further their self development goals again striving to achieve or perform at a higher level (Presby Kodish, 2002). While the coachees with more of an external motivation and less experience need to be motivated for further development with a stronger internal focus. This was supported by the findings from the second study where changes in the importance of different

factors at different times in the coaching process was a key theme that emerged.

The workshop provided a key platform at the start of the coaching process to

encourage elaboration and a positive attitude towards change. In this first phase

sector specific information was valuable in helping participants to formulate

detailed goals and to translate these into action plans. The one-on-one sessions

then allowed for maintenance of change and further development. The

respondents who reported on this phase also expressed a desire to engage in a

wide range of development activities including more workshops. This suggests

that an effective development approach could be a cycle between group and

individual work (Damon, 2007) and that a key skill of coaches that has not been

given much attention could be that of finding sector specific resources to support

coachee development.   After the review stage the feedback arrow again comes

into play where the coachee can start again at the establishment phase with new

goals or priorities but functioning at a higher level.

This discussion of the different pathways taken by coachees with different

characteristics and motivations suggests that it might be best to view the whole

process over time as a spiral rather than a simple cycle. That is, the review

phase does not simply return the coachee back to the same starting point; rather

changes in each cycle encourage the coachee to become more internal in their

motivation and to seek higher level goals or functioning. With experience over

time an effective coaching exercise should shift all coachees towards a pathway

based on greater elaboration.   Figure 5.5 below illustrates this spiral cycle.
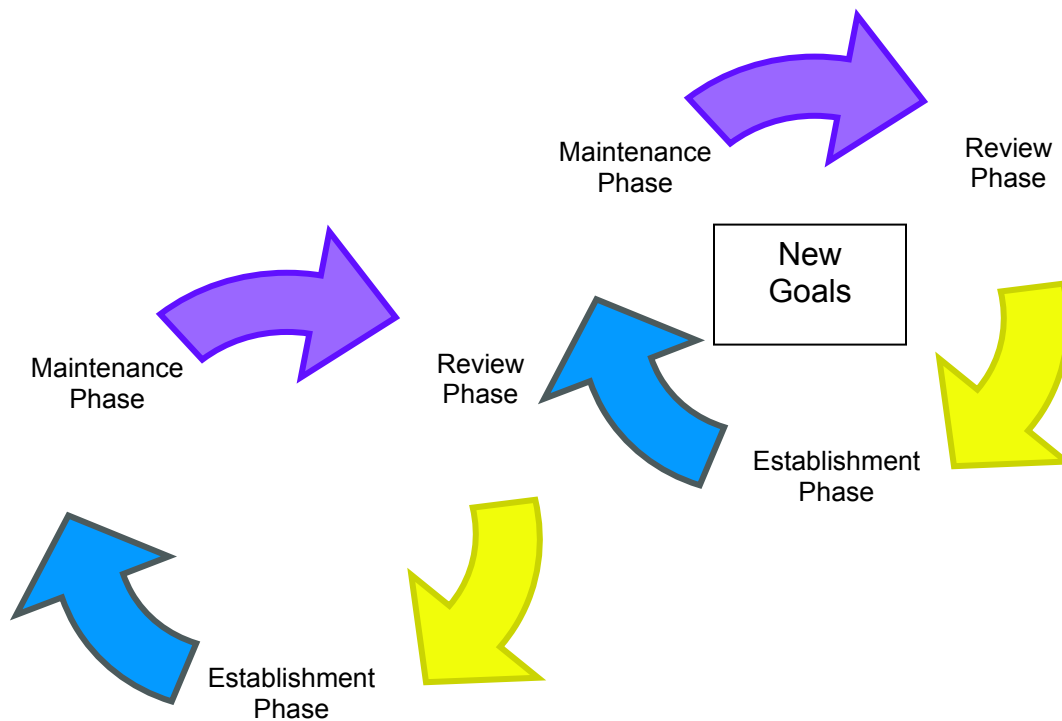
Figure 5.5: Spiral of coaching

The results from the two empirical studies helped the researcher to develop a more conceptual model of coaching where specific steps can be incorporated to make it more practical. The first step is for the coachee to want to undertake coaching. Effectiveness can be related to self efficacy, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) where the person is able to put in a desired amount of effort to achieve a particular result. They believe that if they are to engage in a specific behaviour that will be successful than it will be effective in their mind. With coaching this seems to be key, the coachee must want to go through the

coaching process and to believe that it is going to be successful or of benefit for them to achieve an effective result. While this is not the only decisive element it is a critical one.

Once it has been determine that coaching is wanted by the coachee the second step is the need for there to be a good match between the coach and coachee (similarity). This helps for rapport to be built and the relationship develop, which is supported by the counselling psychology literature (Eaton, Abeles, & Gutfreund, 1988; Freud, 1913, 1958; Greenson, 1965; Horvath & Luborsky, 1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Krupnick et al., 1996; Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998).   A coach who is similar and understands the coachee will be able to help the coachee with topics related to their values and/or goals.

The third step is elaboration of the message. If the topic has personal relevance for the coachee and is associated with strong accessible attitudes it is more likely to have an affect on attitude and behaviour change (Crano & Prislin, 2006). The main goal of coaching is to have the coachee change their attitude or behaviour from where they are to where they want to be. If the message from the coach is informative and supported by data and is presented logically than it will persuade (Crano & Prislin, 2006). The content that the coach uses in the message needs to have a high degree of relevance for the coachee to be motivated to elaborate or process the message (Morris, Woo, & Singh, 2005). This could be more

effective if the coach has industry experience as they will be seen as more credible. They will also be able to give more relevant examples to explain the message to the coachee.

The final step is to have the coachee implement the new behaviour in order to achieve a goal. This is supported by the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), where if the behaviour is seen to be one that is supported by the group (organisation) and the outcome includes a reward than the individual is more likely to act on that behaviour (Wood, 2000). This is made more effective if one-on-one sessions are used in conjunction with a workshop (Damon, 2007).

The spiral model has integrated useful theory and research from literature in the persuasive communication, counselling psychology and coaching related areas. Due to the limited research in the coaching field, this model will hopefully stimulate more empirical research into this area.

5.6 Implications of Results for Coaching Practice

So what does this all mean for the field of coaching? As previously stated there is very little empirical research into the field of business coaching, especially into the effectiveness of it (Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004). This research actually provides empirical evidence into the effectiveness of business coaching. It has confirmed the importance of the three main parts of coaching, the coach, the

coachee and the coaching process. It also provides empirical evidence to suggest that coaching is effective and that the respondents felt that coaching was helpful and effective in them achieving their goals. When analysing the results from the first study where participants nominated what they felt was important for the coach to have, they listed communicating clearly (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Gegner, 1997; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Monoky, 1996; Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996; Wade, 2004), being organised (Muchinsky, 2003) and maintaining confidentiality (Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b; Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003) and having industry experience. However, after the second study and as more in-depth analysis was conducted it was revealed that these superficial factors were not the factors that actually contribute to making the coaching process effective. It was the factors of similarity between coach and coachee (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994) and the factor 'Outcomes' and working on goals (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Rich, 1998) . The results also showed that coaching does not necessarily have to be one-on-one in order for it to be beneficial, the participants of this research project found benefit in the workshops (Kets de Vries, 2005) and in the one-on-one sessions (Bacon & Spear, 2003; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; McCauley & Hezlett, 2001; Orenstein, 2002). This is further supported by Damon (2007) who states that the use of workshops and then follow-up one-on-one sessions is most effective. It is not the delivery

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mode (workshop or one-on-one) of coaching that is important, what is important is the content (e.g. goal setting) of the sessions and the need for there to be a good match between the coach and coachee (similarity).

A conceptual model of coaching has also been developed incorporating the literature on coaching and theories related to coaching. The new model provides coaches with information on the different types of pathways that a coachee can take depending on where their motivations lie and how much experience they have. There are also different variables of importance for the coaching process, the coach and the organisation depending on what stage the coachee is at in the coaching process.

This research has implications for the coaching practice field as there is now further empirical research into coaching's effectiveness, something that has been basically marketing claims by coaching companies up until now. It can help coaches to see what needs to be included in the coaching process to make it beneficial and effective for the coachee. This research also provides an agenda for further research. Additional research into the areas that were found to be of vital importance for the coaching process to be effective can now be further investigated.

5.7 A Future Research Agenda

The thesis research has helped to confirm the importance of the three main parts of coaching: the coach, the coachee and the coaching process. It has provided empirical evidence to suggest that coaching is effective and that the respondents felt coaching was helpful and effective in them achieving their goals. Due to the severe lack of empirical research into the coaching field there are still a number of different future research avenues. A few areas that were touched on in the research for this thesis but still require further research may include a more in-depth look at how different industries perceive the effectiveness of coaching. Is a coach's industry experience a factor that is looked upon more favourably rather than a coach who has no industry experience? Do people with children require different coaching techniques to those that don't have children? Is it better to provide networking opportunities for coachees through coaching workshops rather than through the typical one-on-one technique of coaching?

Joo (2005, p. 483) notes that "research on the antecedents, process, and outcomes of executive coaching would enhance the theoretical understanding of executive development, feedback processes, and behaviour change". In order for this to happen there needs to be criteria developed for assessing and evaluating coaching effectiveness. There needs to be more related and longitudinal studies into coaching effectiveness. Also, important variables that may be missing in the coaching model can be added and refined as the research into coaching grows. The research for this thesis consisted of responses from

the coachee perspective only, for future research the responses from all involved in the coaching process should be examined. This would help to deepen the understanding of the relationship between the coach and coachee and help to eliminate any bias (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). Business coaching provides benefits for the development of individuals involved which indirectly benefits the organisations that support its use. The field of coaching is worthy of more critical academic attention.

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Appendix A:

Common factors across counselling psychology, persuasive

communication & coaching

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY	PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION	COACHING
COACHING PROCESS		
Short term treatment 3 to 20 sessions (Bendersky Sacks, 2004)	**Number of meetings** (Alba & Marmorstein, 1987; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984)	**Anywhere from a few months to a year** (Diedrich, 1996; Levinson, 1996; McGovern et al., 2001)
Using methods of inquiry and goal-setting, with follow-up on results (Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; Presby Kodish, 2002)	**Length of meetings** (Wood, Kallgren, & Priesler, 1985)	**Has six stages: relationship building, assessment, feedback, planning, implementation and evaluation and follow-up** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Diedrich, 1996; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Grant & Cavanagh, 2004; Harris, 1999; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996a, 1996b; Koonce, 1994; Levinson, 1996; Lukaszewski, 1988; Monoky, 1996; O'Brien, 1997; Olesen, 1996; Peterson, 1996; Richard, 1999; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1993, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Witherspoon & White, 1996a, 1996b, 1997)
Meeting with clients in person and/or by telephone (Presby Kodish, 2002)	**Number of people thought to endorse the message/position** (Axsom, Yates, & Chaiken, 1987)	**Deal more effectively with change** (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003)

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY	PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION	COACHING
Tailoring structure of work to suit each client (Presby Kodish, 2002)	**Message repetition** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Confront the executive on the reality of their behaviour, strengths and weaknesses** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Confront the executive on the reality of their behaviour (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998)	**Clarity of presentation** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Use the executive's developmental history and test data to identify themes in the executive's life** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Newell, 2002)
Use the executive's developmental history and test data to identify themes in the executive's life (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998)	**Paying attention** (S. Stevens, Hynan, & Allen, 2000)	**Provide challenging feedback** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Kilburg, 1997; Newell, 2002; Waclawski & Church, 1999)
Ability to listen, empathize, provide feedback, create scenarios, challenge, and explore the executive's world (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Wasylyshyn, 2003)	**Context** (Ajzen, 1992; Petty, Kasmer, Haugtvedt, & Cacioppo, 1987)	**Helpful suggestions** (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Kilburg, 1997)
Expectancy x Value Models (Atkinson, 1957; Heckhausen, 1977)		**Individually tailored nature of coaching** (Harris, 1999; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; O'Brien, 1997; Witherspoon & White, 1996a)
Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975; Koestner, Lekes, Powers, & Chicoine, 2002; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996)		**create scenarios** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kilburg, 1997)
Self determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; R. Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996)		**challenge and explore the executive's world** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Newell, 2002)

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY	PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION	COACHING
Telic theory (Affleck et al., 2001; Emmons, 1986; Omodei & Wearing, 1990; Palys & Little, 1983)		**Awareness of impact on executive and process** (Diedrich, 1996, 2001; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Witherspoon & White, 1997)
Locus of control (Muchinsky, 2003)		**Identifying outcomes expected/set goals** (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Peterson, 1996; Rich, 1998)
Allegiance to a particular process (Barber, Crits-Christoph, & Luborsky, 1995; Shaw et al., 1999)		**Role modelling** (Richardson, 1996)
Style and choice of intervention (Robinson, Berman, & Neimeyer, 1990)		**Use of collaborative efforts** (Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Diedrich, 2001; Kilburg, 1997; Monoky, 1996)
Client and therapist need to mutually agree on tasks (Bordin, 1976)		**Use of clear and sound coaching methodology** (Laske, 1999a; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Endorse and value goals of treatment (Bordin, 1976)		**Use of client testimonials** (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Adherence to treatment approaches (Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985)		**Organisational support** (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Peterson, 1996)
Reactions to client and therapists' behaviour directly affect outcome (Strupp, 1973)		**Define roles** (Newell, 2002)
		Praise (Richardson, 1996)

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY	PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION	COACHING
COACH		
Holding clients accountable for their actions and reactions (Kilburg, 1996b; Presby Kodish, 2002)	**Gender** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Coach does not have direct authority over the executive, is unbiased, non-judgemental** (Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Witherspoon & White, 1996a)
Graduate training in psychology (Berglas, 2002; Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989; Olivero, Denise Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Walker & Smither, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2001, 2003)	**Social status of coach and coachee** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Trustworthiness** (Banning, 1997) (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Age (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)	**Self esteem/self confidence** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Solid reputation** (Banning, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Gender (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)	**Intelligence** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Presence** (O'Neill, 2000)
Race (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)	**Familiarity of issues** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Confidentiality** (Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b; Newell, 2002; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Credible (Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981)	**Confidence** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Have awareness of business, management, and political issues is also necessary to be effective** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Filipczak, 1998; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Goodstone & Diamante, 1998; Harris, 1999; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Laske, 1999a; Levinson, 1996; Saporito, 1996; Sperry, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Experience (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989)	**Age** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Knowledge of leadership** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Laske, 1999a; Wasylyshyn, 2003)

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY	PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION	COACHING
Values (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)	**Race** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Results oriented** (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999)
Attitude (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)	**Mannerisms** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Honesty** (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Richardson, 1996)
Emotional wellbeing (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994)	**Facial expressions** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Gender** (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Laske, 1999a)
Beliefs (orientation) (Beutler, Machado, & Neufeldt, 1994; Lafferty, Beutler, & Crago, 1989)	**Hand and body movements** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Age** (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999)
Empathy (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)	**Dress** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Cultural similarities** (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999; Laske, 1999a)
Warmth (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)	**Income** (Ajzen, 1992)	**empathize** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Unconditional regard (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)	**Power** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Communication style** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Gegner, 1997; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Monoky, 1996; Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996; Wade, 2004)
Congruency (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)	**Credible** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Professional attitude and behaviour/integrity** (Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Rich, 1998; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Competency (Barber, Crits-Christoph, & Luborsky, 1995; Shaw et al., 1999)	**Extraversion** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Creative** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
	Trustworthy (Ajzen, 1992)	**Initiative** (Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995)
	Perceived expertise (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984)	**Appropriate risk taking** (Corcoran, Petersen, Baitch, & Barrett, 1995)

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY	PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION	COACHING
	Professional background (Berman & Norton, 1985)	**Experience/value added/competence** (Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997; Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996)
	Likeable/attractive (Chaiken, 1980; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983)	**Reliable** (Rich, 1998; Richardson, 1996)
	Organised (Muchinsky, 2003)	**Being on time** (Kilburg, 1997; Rich, 1998)
	Creative (Sternberg, 1997)	**Ethical conduct** (Laske, 1999a; Rich, 1998)
	Calm (Maier, 1955)	**Physical appearance** (Laske, 1999a; Rich, 1998)
		Patience (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
		Analytical problem solving (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
		Humor (Wasylyshyn, 2003)
		Flexibility (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b)
		Intellectually sharp, capable and agile (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Laske, 1999a)
		Moral standards (Laske, 1999a)
COACHEE OUTCOMES		
Want to move to a higher level of functioning (Presby Kodish, 2002)	**Motivation/self determined goal striving** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Learn more about self** (Gegner, 1997) (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Newell, 2002; Wade, 2004; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Want to learn new skills (Presby Kodish, 2002)	**Cognitive ability** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Gaining new skills** (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Newell, 2002; Peterson, 1996)

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY	PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION	COACHING
Seek a better, more balanced life (Presby Kodish, 2002)	**Involvement** (Ajzen, 1992)	**Establish balance in life** (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1997; Laske, 1999a; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Seek self-understanding (Presby Kodish, 2002)		**Help prioritize and decision making about use of time** (Gegner, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1997)
Seek focus and motivation (Presby Kodish, 2002)		**Self efficacy** (Gegner, 1997; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
Interested in learning how to change (Presby Kodish, 2002)		**Helps people to be more satisfied and more productive** (Rich, 1998)
Focusing on learning and developing potential (Presby Kodish, 2002)		**Promotes persistence/commitment** (Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b; Peterson, 1996)
Looking for solutions to internal blocks to change in behaviour (Presby Kodish, 2002)		
Active involvement by patient (Michalak & Schulte, 2002; Schulte & Eifert, 2002)		
RELATIONSHIP		
Unconditional client acceptance by therapist (Barrett-Lennard, 1985; Bendersky Sacks, 2004; Lambert, 1992; Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler, & Truax, 1967)		**Compatible chemistry** (Banning, 1997; Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000; Laske, 1999a)
Establishes safety in relationship (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998)		**Focus on relationship/interactions between executive and colleagues** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Gegner, 1997; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; O'Neill, 2000; Wade, 2004; Wasylyshyn, 2003)

COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY	PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION	COACHING
Relationship between patient and therapist (Eaton, Abeles, & Gutfreund, 1988; Freud, 1913, 1958; Greenson, 1965; Horvath & Luborsky, 1993; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Krupnick et al., 1996; Luborsky, McLellan, Woody, O'Brien, & Auerbach, 1985; Orlinsky & Howard, 1986; Svartberg, Seltzer, & Stiles, 1998)		**Establishes safety in relationship** (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998)
		Use the relationship as a tool (Diedrich, 2001; Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Kilburg, 1996b, 1997, 2000; Laske, 1999a; Newell, 2002; O'Neill, 2000; Wasylyshyn, 2003)
		Mutual respect (Kilburg, 1997; Richardson, 1996)
BARRIERS		
	Pre-occupation with other matters (Ajzen, 1992; Bless, Bohner, Schwarz, & Strack, 1990; M. Bower, 1997; Clark & Isen, 1982; Mackie & Worth, 1989; Petty, Gleicher, & Baker, 1991)	
	Lack of time (Ajzen, 1992)	
	Noise/distraction (Ajzen, 1992; Petty, Wells, & Brock, 1976)	

Appendix B:

Questionnaire

Anna Blackman
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Faculty of Law, Business and Creative Arts
Telephone: (07)47814100
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28 April 2005

Dear Participant,

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this questionnaire. This study is part of my PhD research about the effectiveness of business coaching. I will be asking you to nominate factors that you feel contributed to the success of your coaching program. The questionnaire should take about 15 minutes to complete.

No names, addresses or any other identifying information will be recorded so your responses cannot be traced to you ensuring that you have confidentiality. The outcomes from this research will ultimately lead to the results section of my PhD Thesis and publication.

The information you provide can be used in the future to help organizations determine why coaching has become so important to organizations and what factors need to be included in the coaching process to make it a success. I feel that the outcomes of this research will be of value to those being coached, organizations paying for the coaching, and coaches.

If at any time you feel uncomfortable with the questions you are free to stop. If you require further details of the study or wish to contact me personally to discuss the study please feel free, I have included my contact details on this sheet. You are also free to contact my supervisor if you wish, Dr Gianna Moscardo at the above address or by email at Gianna.Moscardo@jcu.edu.au. If you wish to contact the Human Ethics Sub-Committee about the ethical conduct of this research project please contact Tina Langford, Ethics Administrator, Research Office, James Cook University, Townsville, Qld 4811. Phone: (07) 4781 4342 Fax: (07) 47815521 Email: Tina.Langford@jcu.edu.au.

All participants are eligible to enter a draw to **WIN** a 6 month subscription to one of the following magazines: BRW, Money Magazine, The Bulletin, Time, Management Today.Once again thank you for taking the time to participate in this research project.
Yours sincerely,

Anna Blackman
PhD Candidate

Section 1

1. **Are you currently being coached?**   Yes ☐ (go to **a.**) No ☐ (go to **d.**)
   a. **How long have you been with your current coach?**
      i.   Less than 1 month   ☐
      ii. 1 - 3 months   ☐
      iii. 3 - 6 months   ☐
      iv. 6 - 12 months   ☐
      v.   More than 12 months   ☐

   b. **Do you have a set finishing date for your current coaching process?**
                    Yes ☐   No ☐
   c. **If Yes, how long will your current coaching process last for?**
      i.   Day   ☐
      ii. Week   ☐
      iii. Month   ☐
      iv. 3 months   ☐
      v.   6 months   ☐
      vi. More than 6 months   ☐

   d. **When did your most recent coaching experience finish?**

      _____

2. **Who initiated the coaching session?**
   a. Self   ☐
   b. Organization   ☐
   c. Coach   ☐
   d. Other – (specify)_____ ☐

3. **How often do/did you meet with your coach?**
   a. Weekly   ☐
   b. Fortnightly   ☐
   c. Monthly   ☐
   d. Quarterly   ☐
   e. Other – (specify)_____ ☐

4. **How long does/did each session go for?**
   a. Less than 1 Hour   ☐
   b. 1 - 2 Hours   ☐
   c. 2 - 3 Hours   ☐
   d. Half Day   ☐
   e. Full Day   ☐
   f. Other – (specify)_____ ☐

5. **Would you participate in coaching again?**   Yes ☐   No ☐
6. **Would you recommend coaching to your colleagues?**

Yes ☐   No ☐

7. **Overall on a scale of 1-5. How effective do you think the coaching you participated in was?**
   1. ☐ *Not Effective at all*
   2. ☐
   3. ☐
   4. ☐
   5. ☐ *Very Effective*

8. **It has been said the effectiveness of coaching depends on three main components, listed below. Please RANK them from 1-3; with 1 for most important to 3 for least important in terms of effectiveness.**
   ___*The Coach*
   ___*The person being coached*
   ___*What the Coach does*

9. **Were there any features that you thought weren't very effective during your coaching experience?**

   _____
   _____
   _____

Section 2 - Features of the Coach
10. **What features do you feel are most important for a coach to have? Please RANK your five most important features.**
    1. _____
    2. _____
    3. _____
    4. _____
    5. _____

11. **The following is a list of factors that may contribute to a coach's effectiveness. Please write the appropriate number beside each statement regarding how important each factor is to your coaching session outcome being a success.**

1=Highly Unimportant 2=Unimportant 3=Neither 4=Important 5=Highly Important 6=Don't know

___Is similar in age to me

___Is the same gender as me

___Displays self-confidence

___Is outgoing

___Has experience with coaching

___Has experience within my industry

___Is likeable

___Has similar values to me

___Is able to see things from my point of view

___Displays warmth

___Displays acceptance of me

___Shares the same goals as me

___Is organized

___Is creative

___Is calm

___Has similar personality to me

___Communicates clearly

___Is honest

___Maintains confidentiality

1=Highly Unimportant 2=Unimportant 3=Neither 4=Important 5=Highly Important 6=Don't know

12. **From this list please pick and RANK the 3 most important to you.**

1 _____   *Most Important*

2 _____

3 _____   *Least Important*

Section 3 – Features of the Coaching Process

The following are some features of coaching, how important do you think these are for the overall effectiveness of coaching.

1=highly unimportant, 2=unimportant, 3=neither, 4=important, 5=highly important

___The coaching process encourages me to take appropriate action

___The coaching process uses priorities and time lines

___The coaching process helps me relate my personal goals to organizational goals

___The coaching process focuses on my successes, rather than on my failings

___The coaching process is able to identify my blind spots

___The coaching process helps me to constructively view difficult issues

___The coaching process is free from interruption by outside influences

14. **From this list please pick and RANK the 3 most important to you.**
    1. _____   *Most Important*
    2. _____
    3. _____   *Least Important*

Section 4 - Questions about the Organisation

15. **How supportive was / is your organization with regards to you going through the coaching process? (please circle)**
    a. Not at all supportive
    b. Generally unsupportive
    c. Neither
    d. Generally supportive
    e. Very supportive

16. **Did the organization you work for, pay for your coaching session?**
    Yes ☐   No ☐

Section 5 - Questions About the Coachee

17. **What personal goals did you have at the start of coaching?**
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____
    d. _____

18. **What organizational goals did you have at the start of coaching?**

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

   d. _____

19. **From the list of benefits/goals that you have provided in the previous two questions, what is the MOST important outcome <u>overall</u>?**

   _____

20. **Keeping in mind the most important benefit that you have identified above. How important was/is that benefit to you? (please circle)**
   1. Highly Unimportant
   2. Unimportant
   3. Neither
   4. Important
   5. Highly Important

21. **How much do you agree with the following statements.** *(on a scale from 1 -5, with 1 being strongly disagree, and 5 being strongly agree)*

   ___Coaching was/is the best way to achieve this outcome

   ___The effort I put in to achieve this outcome was/is worth it

   ___I was/I am very committed to the coaching process

   ___I was/I am confident of being able to achieve this outcome

22. **How much effort do you feel you have put into or are prepared to put into, the coaching process? On a scale from 1 - 5 with 1 being none and 5 being a lot. (please circle)**

1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*
None				*A lot*

23. **The following is a list of barriers that may affect you achieving a successful outcome in your coaching process. Please number appropriately as to whether you:**

1=Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Neither Agree or Disagree, 4=Disagree, 5=Strongly Disagree, 6=Don't Know

___Preoccupation with other work matters

___Preoccupation with other personal matters

___Lack of time

___Other, please specify_____

Section 6 - Demographics

24. **Please select the appropriate option**   Male   Female

25. **What is your age?**   _____

26. **What is your marital status? (please circle)**
    a. Married
    b. Defacto
    c. Single
    d. Widowed / Divorced / Separated

27. **Do you have children?**   Yes ☐ (go to **a.**)   No☐
    a. **How many?** _____

28. **What is your occupation?**

    _____

29. **What sector / industry do you work in?**

    _____

30. **Length of time in position (please circle)**
    a. Less than 12 Months
    b. 1 - 2 Years
    c. 3 - 5 Years
    d. 6 - 10 Years
    e. More than 10 Years

31. **Qualifications: (please circle)**
    a. High school
    b. TAFE / College
    c. University Undergraduate degree
    d. University Postgraduate degree
    e. Other

Thank you for taking the time to complete the Business Coaching Survey.

If you would like to enter the draw to win a 6 month subscription to one of the following magazines please enter your details at the bottom of the page:

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BRW   THE BULLETIN   MONEY   TIME   MANAGEMENT

TODAY

Your details will be kept separate from the survey response so as to ensure confidentiality.

Contact Name: _____

Email Address: _____

Contact Phone Number: _____

Appendix C:

'Were there any features you thought weren't very effective during your coaching experience?' Full list

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	no	25	22.0	37.3	64.2
Coach	lack of knowledge from coach	3	2.6	4.5	26.9
	coach	9	7.9	13.4	82.1
	no urgency	1	.9	1.5	89.6
	what was expected not communicated clearly	1	.9	1.5	100.0
Coachee	distractions	3	2.6	4.5	22.4
	own lack of confidence	1	.9	1.5	91.0
Coaching Process	goal setting	1	.9	1.5	28.4
	time wasted going over areas already competent in	1	.9	1.5	29.9
	objectives and time frame not clear	2	1.8	3.0	94.0
	overlap with other training programs	1	.9	1.5	95.5
	problems implementing things learnt in coaching	2	1.8	3.0	98.5
Context	time of day for coaching	1	.9	1.5	68.7
	not enough time/contact with coach	12	10.5	17.9	17.9
	venue not suitable	1	.9	1.5	88.1
	Total	67	58.8	100.0	
Missing	System	47	41.2		
Total		114	100.0		

Totals

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Nothing	25	37
Coach	12	21
Coachee	4	6
Process	10	15
Context	14	21

'What features do you feel are most important for a coach to have?' Full list

Category label	Code	Count	% of Responses	% of Cases
good personality/attitude	**1**	**22**	**4.1**	**20.0**
good communication skills	2	73	13.7	66.4
empathetic	3	48	9.0	43.6
able to evaluate without being critical	4	5	.9	4.5
able to share own experiences	5	7	1.3	6.4
able to translate theory into practice	6	3	.6	2.7
analytic skills	7	3	.6	2.7
authentic	8	1	.2	.9
focuses on the coachee's needs	9	2	.4	1.8
belief in the process	10	14	2.6	12.7
clarity	11	2	.4	1.8
compassion/understanding	12	2	.4	1.8
confidence	13	9	1.7	8.2
credible/experienced	14	52	9.8	47.3
enthusiastic	15	5	.9	4.5
friendly/approachable	16	17	3.2	15.5
genuine concern for coachee	18	3	.6	2.7
good looking	19	1	.2	.9
technical experience	20	21	3.9	19.1
organised	21	10	1.9	9.1
knowledgeable	22	43	8.1	39.1
open	23	1	.2	.9
patient	24	22	4.1	20.0
self motivated	25	8	1.5	7.3
sufficient contact time	26	25	4.7	22.7
trustful	27	3	.6	2.7
ease of approach	28	1	.2	.9
interesting	29	2	.4	1.8
ability to develop rapport with coachee	30	22	4.1	20.0
age	31	1	.2	.9
able to help coachee set goals/manage goals	32	12	2.3	10.9
calm	33	1	.2	.9
creative	34	4	.8	3.6
dedicated	35	4	.8	3.6
good presentation	36	5	.9	4.5
honest	37	9	1.7	8.2
insight	38	5	.9	4.5
integrity	39	5	.9	4.5
intelligent	40	2	.4	1.8
likeable	41	2	.4	1.8
leadership	42	1	.2	.9
materials/handouts/articles	43	3	.6	2.7
passionate	44	2	.4	1.8
political savvy	45	1	.2	.9
reliable	46	4	.8	3.6
respectful	47	2	.4	1.8
sense of humour	48	5	.9	4.5
supportive	49	2	.4	1.8
unbiased	50	4	.8	3.6

amenable	51	1	.2	.9
able to accept criticism	52	1	.2	.9
consistent	53	3	.6	2.7
ethical	54	1	.2	.9
outgoing	55	3	.6	2.7
maintains confidentiality	56	6	1.1	5.5
support of bus/org	57	1	.2	.9
challenging/inspiring	58	3	.6	2.7
flexible	59	9	1.7	8.2
provides networks for coachee	60	4	.8	3.6
		-------	-----	-----
Total responses		533	100.0	484.5

4 missing cases; 110 valid cases

Appendix E:

What personal goals did you have at the start of coaching?

Category label	Code	Count	% of Responses	%Pct of Cases
identify blind spots/strengths /weaknesses	1	18	5.4	17.0
acquire knowledge	2	31	9.3	29.2
learn new approaches/techniques	3	20	6.0	8.9
get advice from experienced person	4	13	3.9	12.3
be successful	5	5	1.5	4.7
more confident	6	15	4.5	14.2
good leader/leadership skills	7	5	1.5	4.7
be competent	8	5	1.5	4.7
complete a specific task/learn	9	4	1.2	3.8
confidential	10	4	1.2	3.8
improve physical health	11	6	1.8	5.7
define goals/achieve	12	9	2.7	8.5
improve/develop communication skills	13	12	3.6	11.3
improve/develop problem solving skills	14	8	2.4	7.5
implement change effectively (skills)	15	4	1.2	3.8
strategy to find a new job	16	1	.3	.9
develop skills	17	29	8.7	27.4
find support in bus	18	3	.9	2.8
balance/more time for home life	19	4	1.2	3.8
improve decision making skills	20	2	.6	1.9
improve strategic planning	21	3	.9	2.8
improve public speaking	22	2	.6	1.9
increase self esteem	23	1	.3	.9
learn more about staff relationships	24	4	1.2	3.8
learn more about org	25	3	.9	2.8
none	26	8	2.4	7.5
personal development/effectiveness	27	33	9.9	31.1
make the org more effective/attractive	28	6	1.8	5.7
stop feeling angry	29	1	.3	.9
finish the coaching process/get most out	30	3	.9	2.8
get on well with coach	31	6	1.8	5.7
handle difficult staff/situations more	32	2	.6	1.9
become more independent	33	1	.3	.9
understand my role in org	34	13	3.9	12.3
be accepted by a new team	35	1	.3	.9
become assertive	36	2	.6	1.9
more disciplined	37	1	.3	.9
more employable/promotion	38	5	1.5	4.7
more open to new ideas/outgoing	39	2	.6	1.9
more creative	40	2	.6	1.9
more organised	41	4	1.2	3.8
carry out further research	42	1	.3	.9
greater awareness of bus issues/improve	43	5	1.5	4.7
emotional support from coach	44	2	.6	1.9
able to identify opportunities	45	2	.6	1.9
positive contribution to group	46	2	.6	1.9
not failing	47	1	.3	.9

see how I am perceived by colleagues	48	1	.3	.9
more insightful	49	1	.3	.9
able to pass skills on to others	50	4	1.2	3.8
understand limitations	51	1	.3	.9
understand how to make adjustments	52	1	.3	.9
manage stress	53	2	.6	1.9
improve conflict resolution skills	54	2	.6	1.9
build stronger networks	55	1	.3	.9
to have fun	56	1	.3	.9
more patient	57	1	.3	.9
to be recognised	58	1	.3	.9
improve income	59	1	.3	.9
feedback	60	1	.3	.9
		-------	-----	-----
Total responses		332	100.0	313.2

8 missing cases; 106 valid cases

Appendix F:

What organisational goals did you have at the start of coaching?

Category label	Code	Count	% of Responses	% of Cases
get a promotion/career development	1	22	7.3	20.2
able to do my role better/potential	2	18	6.0	16.5
add value to org/assist org	3	19	6.3	17.4
same as personal goals	4	2	.7	1.8
deal with change	5	6	2.0	5.5
life balance	6	2	.7	1.8
better planning	7	4	1.3	3.7
able to pass skills on to others	8	15	5.0	13.8
more effective	9	18	6.0	16.5
better use of time	10	8	2.7	7.3
become investment ready	11	1	.3	.9
able to meet orgl goals	12	5	1.7	4.6
more successful	13	1	.3	.9
better working relationship with staff	14	3	1.0	2.8
better communication skills	15	7	2.3	6.4
able to complete tasks/take action	16	7	2.3	6.4
confidential	17	5	1.7	4.6
decide what is a priority/prioritise	18	8	2.7	7.3
development	19	1	.3	.9
understand org better	20	9	3.0	8.3
none	21	20	6.6	18.3
better education/increase knowledge	22	15	5.0	13.8
resolve conflict	23	2	.7	1.8
finish coaching process on time	24	5	1.7	4.6
better knowledge in specific areas/news	25	8	2.7	7.3
gather resources	26	1	.3	.9
develop a business plan	27	1	.3	.9
avoid potential problems	28	1	.3	.9
improve skills	29	4	1.3	3.7
improve productivity/profit	30	6	2.0	5.5
learn new ways to do things	31	1	.3	.9
make a difference	32	1	.3	.9
good coach/coachee relationship/support	33	4	1.3	3.7
align with orgl goals	34	5	1.7	4.6
networking	35	5	1.7	4.6
reduce workload	36	1	.3	.9
safety	37	1	.3	.9
able to attend sessions	39	5	1.7	4.6
support other staff/and of staff	40	6	2.0	5.5
more organised/prepared	41	5	1.7	4.6
more team oriented/work with team better	42	10	3.3	9.2
clarify outcomes	43	1	.3	.9
creative problem solving	44	4	1.3	3.7
employ more staff/growth of company	45	3	1.0	2.8
goal achievement	46	2	.7	1.8
identify problem areas/blindspots/opport	47	7	2.3	6.4
more competitive	48	1	.3	.9
legal aspects	49	1	.3	.9

improve standard of work	50	2	.7	1.8
understand coaching process	51	3	1.0	2.8
earn respect	52	1	.3	.9
gain experience	53	1	.3	.9
understand customer needs	54	1	.3	.9
improve morale	55	1	.3	.9
be a role model/leader	56	3	1.0	2.8
be more approachable	57	1	.3	.9
change work culture	58	1	.3	.9
		-------	-----	-----
Total responses		301	100.0	276.1

5 missing cases; 109 valid cases

Appendix G:

Overview of the day

Session 1: 9am – 10:45am

- ❖ Introduction
- ❖ What is Goal Setting and how can it benefit you?
- ❖ Looking at your values
- ❖ Defining your vision

Morning Tea Break: 10:45am – 11am

Session 2: 11am – 1pm

- ❖ Setting Goals
- ❖ Setting Objectives
- ❖ Identifying Critical Success Factors
- ❖ Developing Strategies

Lunch Break: 1pm – 2pm

Session 3: 2pm – 3pm

- ❖ Developing an Action Plan

Session 4: 3pm – 5pm

- ❖ Guest Speaker from Sector
- ❖ Group discussion about sector challenges

Evaluation of day

Appendix H:

WORKSHOP EVALUATION SHEET:

1. Overall how satisfied were you with the workshop?

|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Very Dissatisfied   Very Satisfied

2. Please rate the following on how helpful they were:

a) Helped me identify my goals

☐**Very Helpful   ☐Helpful   ☐Neither   ☐Unhelpful ☐Very Unhelpful**

b) Related my personal goals to organisational goals

☐**Very Helpful   ☐Helpful   ☐Neither   ☐Unhelpful ☐Very Unhelpful**

c) Used priorities and timelines

☐**Very Helpful   ☐Helpful   ☐Neither   ☐Unhelpful ☐Very Unhelpful**

d) Encouraged me to take appropriate action

☐**Very Helpful   ☐Helpful   ☐Neither   ☐Unhelpful ☐Very Unhelpful**

e) Provided an opportunity to network

☐**Very Helpful   ☐Helpful   ☐Neither   ☐Unhelpful ☐Very Unhelpful**

3. How useful was each of the following sessions to you

Values and Vision session
|_____|_____|_____|_____|
1   2   3   4   5
Very   Not at all

380

Goal setting session

```
|_____|_____|_____|_____|
1      2      3      4      5
```
Very   **Not at all**

Critical success factor session

```
|_____|_____|_____|_____|
1      2      3      4      5
```
Very   **Not at all**

Developing strategies session

```
|_____|_____|_____|_____|
1      2      3      4      5
```
Very   **Not at all**

Developing an action plan session

```
|_____|_____|_____|_____|
1      2      3      4      5
```
Very   **Not at all**

Guest speaker session

```
|_____|_____|_____|_____|
1      2      3      4      5
```
Very   **Not at all**

4. What were the three best things about the workshop?

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. What three things could be changed/improved about the workshop?

_____

_____

_____

_____

6. Gender ☐ Female ☐ Male

7. Age _____

8. Work Title _____

9. Length of time in that position _____

10. Have you had any previous experience attending work related workshops?

☐ Yes ☐ No

11. Have you ever had any previous experience with business coaching before?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Thank You

Appendix I:

FINAL EVALUATION FORM

1. Thinking back to the coaching workshop, have you been able to implement or use anything you learnt from the workshop, if yes please list?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. If not, Why not?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. What do you remember most from the workshop?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

4. If you had the opportunity to do something more on your leadership skills, which of the following would you choose? (You may choose more than one thing)

☐ Attend another coaching workshop

☐ Have one-on-one coaching sessions

☐ Keep working on the goals and strategies set at workshop on your own

☐ Do more networking

☐ Other _____

5. If you were to go to another workshop what areas would you like to see included?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

6. Any further comments about the workshop experience?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank You

Appendix J:

ONE-ON-ONE EVALUATION FORM

1. Thinking back to the coaching workshop, have you been able to implement or use anything you learnt from the workshop, if yes please list?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. If not, Why not?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. What do you remember most from the workshop?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

4. If you had the opportunity to do something more on your leadership skills, which of the following would you choose? (You may choose more than one thing)

☐ Attend another coaching workshop

☐ Have one-on-one coaching sessions

☐ Keep working on the goals and strategies set at workshop on your own

☐ Do more networking

☐ Other _____

5. If you were to go to another workshop what areas would you like to see included?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

6. Overall how satisfied were you with the one-on-one coaching sessions?

|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Very Dissatisfied   Very Satisfied

7. What were the three best things about the one-on-one coaching sessions?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. What three things could be changed/improved about the one-on-one coaching sessions?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

9. How important do you feel it is that you have a good relationship with your coach?

☐Very Important   ☐Important   ☐Neither   ☐Not Important   ☐Not at All
                                                                                                  Important

10. How supportive was your organisation in regards to you attending one-on-one coaching sessions?

☐Very Supportive   ☐Supportive   ☐Neither   ☐Unsupportive   ☐Not at All
                                                                                                       Supportive

11. Any further comments about the one-on-one coaching sessions?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank You