The Purposes and Devices of Workplace Coaching

by
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STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

This work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. I give consent to this copy of my thesis, when deposited in the University Library, being made available for loan and photocopying subject to the provisions of the Copyright Act 1968. I hereby certify that the work embodied in this Thesis is the result of original research, the greater part of which was completed subsequent to admission to candidature for the degree (except in cases where the Committee has granted approval for credit to be granted from previous candidature at another institution).

Signature:..................................................Date:.........................
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Completing a PhD is a big achievement and by far the most challenging developmental experience I have had to date - it has been a life shaping experience. This challenge was not because the process of the PhD was beyond me, but because of all of the competing demands that come with managing life at the same time and the sacrifices that have to be made.

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ABSTRACT

A goal of human resource managers is to capture the value of their organization’s workforce and maximize their contribution to its success. So any tool, which can help them achieve this mandate is in demand, and workplace coaching is reported to be one such tool. In this respect, to meet the organizations developmental needs is a key function of both human resource management and coaching alike and in theory will result in instrumental gains. Whilst there is a developing body of knowledge that focuses on individual constructs, there is a lack of empirical research about its instrumental value at an organizational level of analysis.

Much of the individual level analysis focuses on investigating coaching from a humanistic perspective, and it appears to have some efficacy in helping organizations cater for the ‘human element’ of work, although there is still much more work to be done. However, a very significant question for the management coaching literature is how this translates into a more effective organization – the answer is not entirely clear. So, this study seeks to engage in an organizational level of analysis by exploring its key research problem: what are the purposes and devices of coaching in a management context? It adopts an interpretive and exploratory approach to the research design, utilizing multi-methods of data collection including in-depth interviews and open-ended qualitative surveys. Its key informants consisted of 35 workplace coaches comprising a unique combination, including 27 external coaches, 5 managers as coach, and 3 managers as coach in training. It identifies and explores one purpose and three devices of coaching, and in doing so suggests that organizational culture, systems, and coaching design are three devices that might explain how catering for the human element of work translates into organizational effectiveness. In doing so, it is hoped that this PhD provides some groundwork upon which to build a management theory of coaching and develop a future research agenda.
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KEY TERMS
OD = ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
L&D = LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT
HR = HUMAN RESOURCES
HRD = HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT
ICF = INTERNATIONAL COACHING FEDERATION
OPQ = OCCUPATIONAL PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE
NLP = NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING
CBT = COGNITIVE BEHAVIOUR THERAPY
REBT = RATIONAL EMOTIVE BEHAVIOUR THEORY
DBT = DIALECTICAL BEHAVIOUR THERAPY
ORG = ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL CONSTRUCTS AND CONCEPTS
IND = INDIVIDUAL LEVEL CONSTRUCTS AND CONCEPTS
CPD = CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
IPT = IMPLICIT PERSON THEORY
MBA = MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction and research rationale

Human resource managers are concerned with harnessing the value of their organization’s workforce to maximize their contribution to its success. This is driven by the need to get more for less in the new world of work, which is shaped by global competitive pressures, increasing compliance, restructures, flatter management structures and the like. Consequently, any device that can help deliver on this mandate is sought after. Workplace coaching is reported to be one such device and for this reason is reported to be a very popular approach to learning and development in industry. One only needs to verify the growing numbers of people becoming coaches to verify this (ICF 2012).

The study of coaching could also be considered a worthy pursuit when one accounts for the impact that it reportedly has on individuals and organizations. For example, at an individual level, a manager can gain the attitudes and skills needed to become the leaders and educators that they ought to be. It can help a project manager to deal with a wide range of complex and diverse issues and to cope better with stress, and it can help a teacher to become more reflective and adopt an inquiry based approach to teaching. These are all reported examples of real-world impacts in literature.

But, whilst there is a developing body of knowledge, which focuses on individual level constructs, there is a lack of empirical research about its impacts at an organizational level even though there is some preliminary evidence that it does have some instrumental value at this level. For example, at a more instrumental level, there is limited evidence to support the idea that it improves retention, aids in succession planning, facilitates employee development, develops thinking capital, reduces absenteeism, and increases productivity. But when viewed from more of a more humanistic perspective, coaching appears to have efficacy in helping organizations cater for the ‘human element’ of work by meeting their employee’s professional and personal needs as opposed to simply their technical needs. Thus, it helps cater for emotional needs, aspirations, family needs, and work-life balance. To meet these human needs for the sake of the organization is a key function of human resource management and coaching alike. That is, the meeting of these humanistic needs will result in the satiation of an organization’s instrumental needs. In turn, a key
argument of this thesis is that this is the main purpose of coaching in a management context, and this study explores it in greater detail.

In terms of understanding how it delivers i.e. its ‘devices’, it seems that employees have differentiated learning needs, which are both psychological and emotional. These arise at various stages in their work-life and depend on the kinds of work roles they are engaged in. For example, as leaders are promoted within an organization there is a greater need to emphasize behavioural development and cognitive support; they have an increased need for someone to help them interpret and manage the way various stakeholders view them; and feedback may be required to help leaders change their mental models. But, because the delivery of feedback is often a confronting process, it is best delivered by an independent person, for example, an internal or external coach. Alternatively, employees may need emotional support in the form of a confidant to assist them in thinking and decision making about complex issues. A leader may need this because of the isolation that they experience due to the seniority of their position, which is a role that a coach can fulfil. It seems that coaching helps provide the resources needed to do this, through the facilitation of learning and development strategies.

However, a very significant question for the management coaching literature is how this translates into a more effective organization – the answer is not entirely clear. There are many reports in the literature that it does benefit organizations and in some cases transform them, but, the mechanisms or devices through which this occurs are not well understood theoretically. From a management perspective, this is the missing link, for this knowledge makes it possible for management to not only justify the expenditure of funds on coaching, but also how to design and implement coaching with the greatest effect. And certainly from a research perspective, this knowledge will enable management researchers to attract more funding to their projects. Delineating these mechanisms is therefore a preoccupation of this research.

Despite the popularity and potential of coaching in organizations, the literature does not adequately conceptualize it from a management perspective. For example, there is not yet even a concrete definition of coaching which captures the management perspective; rather popular definitions that have been put forward tend to be more psychologically focused. To this end, the inadequacies of the research supporting the management perspective is strongly argued in the literature review in chapter 2. However, the main justification of this study is simply that organizational purposes for coaching have not been adequately explored, and nor have the relevant
mechanisms been delineated. Consequently, this study seeks to more substantially represent organizational interests by exploring the purposes and devices of coaching in a management context. Its key research problem is: What are the purposes and devices of coaching in a management context?

1.1 Scoping of the study

The research question underpinning this thesis is very general and this is intentional. It came about from initial readings of the literature in which it became obvious that although there were discussions about management concepts in many papers, they were often disconnected from broader management theory, and that there was not an easily identifiable or well-defined body of management coaching literature. So, it was felt that there was a need to not only make this the first task of the study in the literature review, but, also to design a research question that could assist the process of delineating these boundaries in further research. Thus, the research question: ‘What are the purposes and devices of workplace coaching in management?’ was born.

The terminology utilized in this project needed to be clarified, given that some of the terms in it are ambiguous. For example, the word ‘coach’ is a common language term that is rather broad in its meaning. It generally refers to someone whose role is to help others to learn, perform or deal with challenges. Coaching literature supports this basic understanding, suggesting that coaching is indeed a helping relationship (Heslin et al. 2006). As well as being broad in its meaning, there are many common conceptualizations of the role in society, which include: sports coach, tutor, teacher, mentor, parent, leader, and life coach. An analysis of coaching literature also supports this notion of diversity, suggesting that coaching is an approach to helping people learn and perform across various domains such as education (teachers, tutoring, children’s literacy, peer coaching); health (nurse coaching, occupational therapists); sport (professional and amateur athletics); business (internal, external, peer, manager as coach); and personal life (life coaching). So in general terms, for the purposes of this study coaching is understood as a helping relationship focused on improving some kind of performance outcome relevant to a learner’s particular domain.

However, this understanding of coaching is far too broad for the purposes of this PhD project as there are literally thousands of articles available in the academic databases when applying these broad search parameters. Given this, the scope of the project was limited based on a number of considerations. For instance, the first consideration concerned the context of coaching i.e. because
this research is rooted in the management discipline, the workplace context is primary. Accordingly, the study considers an organizational or workplace perspective of coaching. This immediately excludes coaching constructs not related to the workplace, such as life coaching, parenting, and coaching involving children or health interventions. Essentially, unless there was a clear link between a coaching construct and the workplace, they were discarded as constructs for research. With this in mind, coaching constructs considered relevant to the workplace were determined to include: coaching related to leadership, teachers, nurses, peers and professional athletes, as well as coaching performed by consultants.

A second consideration was the guidance of the coaching literature itself with regard to sport. Whilst sport coaching is a large and established area of research, there is some doubt in the workplace coaching literature as to whether sport conforms to the typical profile. Although this is not clearly resolved in the literature, a decision had to be made regarding its inclusion in this project. Consequently, it was decided that it did not belong in this study because it was essentially a different manifestation of coaching with different ‘rules of the game’. There are a small number of relevant articles appearing within this study, but only as a form of support for this argument.

For the purposes of this study, the meaning of the term ‘purpose’ is taken from the Oxford Dictionary which is “...the reason for which something is done or created or for which something exists...” (Oxford University Press 2012). In this thesis, this can relate to a means ended outcome or equally to any aspect of the process of achieving it. Similarly, the purpose of coaching may be specific to any of the stakeholders involved in coaching in organizations, which can include the coach, coachee, their supervisors, human resource management and the like. Its purposes are inferred on this basis.

Similarly, the term device is one that needs explaining. A device is not something that is necessarily immediately obvious or easily explainable because they may be multi-faceted, abstract and imperceptible. The meaning of device utilized in this thesis has been adapted from the Oxford Dictionary, which is “…a thing made or adapted for a particular purpose...” (Oxford University Press 2012). The following expanded definition is offered in recognition of this and to guide the review:
a device is any physical or meta-physical phenomena, explicit or implicit, which facilitates the realization of the purposes of workplace coaching. For example, a device could be (but is not limited to) a strategy, technology, philosophy, a policy, an experience, relationship, physical resource, an instruction, a program, a coaching session, an organizational structure, a perspective, a person, expertise, or a system.

Unlike ‘purpose’, which is the ‘reason something exists’, a device refers to the mechanisms or conditions involved in the fulfilment of that purpose. For this reason, a purpose and device often exist as a pair, given that one is subservient to the other. For example, the purpose of coaching may be to expedite learning, but the devices involved might include coachee motivation or managerial support. Subsequently, it is proposed that at times, there may be some interchangeability between the concepts of purpose and device depending on the position of the phenomenon in the chain of correlation, cause and effect. For instance, coaching may have a purpose to expedite learning, but this in turn may be to improve performance. So, although expediting learning may be a purpose, but, it may also be a device of performance improvement.

A final consideration in scoping this project is the state of the coaching body of knowledge relative to the discipline of management, which is a foundation for this study. As indicated in the literature review in chapter 2, there is a significant theoretical gap and disorganization amongst management scholars. Therefore, this PhD study seeks to provide some ground work upon which to build a management theory of coaching and develop a research agenda. The following is an outline of the thesis.

1.2 Thesis outline

1.2.1 Introduction

The introduction in this thesis sets the scene for this study. It begins by outlining the research problem and rationale, and then the scoping considerations of the project. A thesis outline is then laid out to provide a plan for the study.

1.2.2 Literature review

To understand the coaching phenomenon better, this review explores the current relevant academic and practitioner literature concerning the purposes and devices of workplace coaching in
management. It reviews a significant portion of the available body of literature, which was found to include approximately 400 articles, books and reports.

The literature review is divided into two chapters. The first section of the first chapter is an analysis, which defines the structure of the workplace coaching literature. The structure of the workplace coaching literature is explored according to its composition by discipline. It highlights the gaps and deficiencies in the literature and identifies the body of cross-disciplinary research.

The second section of the first chapter is a theoretical exploration of workplace coaching. It explores the non-management theoretical origins of workplace coaching as a way of positioning this study theoretically relative to the other disciplines. To this end, the theoretical contribution of each non-management discipline is reviewed. It also serves to highlight the theoretical and philosophical perspectives of each, which might inform an understanding of the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. The main non-management disciplines reviewed include psychology, education, health, sociology and sport.

The third section of the first chapter is in some ways a continuation of the first and second section, but with a more focused lens on management. It begins by revisiting and expanding on the analysis of the structure of the management coaching literature and then proceeds to delineate the broader management concepts. It is argued that whilst there is an historical association between coaching and management, there is little academic management theory to reflect this and virtually no discussion of a ‘management coaching literature’. For this reason, much effort in this review has been devoted to determining its boundaries, which includes an exploration of the management terrain, the need for workplace coaching in management, and management theory and coaching.

Given that workplace coaching is an applied practice, the second chapter of the literature review is an exploration of the practical purposes and devices of workplace coaching. It reviews some of the major debates and issues outlined in practice in the coaching literature, and inevitably focuses on problems that coaches must overcome to satisfy the change agenda. This section of the review considers the complexity of real-world scenarios that may occur in the management sphere, and in that way informs the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. This practical focus is also consistent with the applied nature of workplace coaching in management and is an identifiable strength of the literature.
1.2.3 Methodology

Chapter 4 outlines the methodology utilized in this research project. The approach taken in this thesis conforms with established scientific traditions of the interpretive social sciences. It begins by briefly exploring the fundamental attributes of the interpretive paradigm and the effect of its major assumptions on research practice. The second section provides a justification of the methodology, and the remaining section explores research design and methods. Although interpretive, the study has some positivist overtones i.e. has some affinity with realism, positivism and nomothetism. The implications of this are discussed in the methodology. It is argued that this is consistent with the researcher’s personal biography and with the management discipline. 35 participants were recruited for the study from a range of sources, including a large coaching association. An interpretational approach to the data analysis is adopted.

1.2.4 Data Analysis

The data analysis explores the mechanisms pertinent to the achievement of the human resource mandate through workplace coaching, which is the meeting of individual needs to satisfy the organizational agenda. This exploration provides insight into the purposes and devices of workplace coaching as it seeks to not only understand the purposes of coaching in a management context, but also the devices or mechanisms through which this occurs. This is an important goal given that there is not yet one study in the literature that has explicitly achieved this to date from a management perspective.

This data analysis is divided into two chapters and four parts i.e. chapter 5 and 6, and parts A-D. It contains four distinct sections in which the purposes and devices of workplace coaching are delineated. Chapter 5 contains Parts A and B, and chapter 6 Parts C, and D. In chapter 5, Part A explores ‘Organizational effectiveness as a purpose of workplace coaching’. A number of relationships are explored including: Individual effectiveness as a device of organizational effectiveness; Internal capability as a device of organizational effectiveness; and Teamwork as a device of organizational effectiveness. Part B explores ‘Organizational culture as a device of workplace coaching’. Two key relationships are explored here, which include: Coaching culture as a device of collective strength; and Leadership and developmental support as a device of coaching culture.
In chapter 6, Part C explores ‘Leadership effectiveness’ of workplace coaching’ in one specific relationship, which is entitled ‘Systems Leadership as a device of organizational systems’. The final section, Part D explores Coaching Design as a device of workplace coaching. The relationships explored include: Rigour as a device of an instrumental approach to coaching, and Structure as a device of coaching design.

1.2.5 Implications and Conclusions

This final section of the review outlines the implications of the study, limitations and conclusions. From the conclusions, areas for further research are proposed.

1.3 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to introduce this PhD study. It began by outlining the importance and rationale of the study, in which it was suggested that workplace coaching was a worthy pursuit as a research topic because of its popularity and real-world significance. It was argued that within a human resources context, the purpose of coaching was to meet these human needs of employees for the sake of the organization, which in turn results in the satiation of their instrumental needs. However, it was proposed that the question of how this ‘translates’ is unclear from the literature, and therefore a key purpose of this study. To this end, it was concluded that the main objective of this exploratory study was to help create a foundation for a future research agenda in the management coaching area.

The introduction then turned attention to the scope of the study. To facilitate this, the terminology in the research question was explored to narrow the terms of reference. Some definitions were offered for ‘coach’, ‘purposes’ and ‘devices’. It was noted that there would likely be some interchangeability between the terms purpose and device and that this might have implications for the way in which the phenomenon was explored i.e. in pairs. Sport coaching was determined to be irrelevant for the purposes of this study. The final consideration was the implications for the study of the management discipline, which has at its heart, both individual and organizational constructs. Consequently, consideration was given to the ‘workplace’ as a fundamental and defining element, which defines the parameters of the study, and also to the organizational perspective.
Finally, a thesis outline was proposed to include a conventional thesis structure of seven chapters including: Introduction, Methodology, Literature review, Data analysis, Conclusion.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW: MAPPING THE COACHING DISCIPLINES

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of Chapter 2 is to establish a strong discipline specific rationale for this management study using an evidenced based approach. Specifically, it helps to clarify the contribution of this thesis to the broader coaching literature as well as to the management discipline. It defines the structure of the workplace coaching literature according to its composition by discipline and in doing so, highlights the gaps and deficiencies in it. It achieves this in the first part of the chapter by distinguishing the contribution of the management discipline from the contributions made by other disciplines i.e. education, psychology, sociology, sport. Together these disciplines make a contribution at least as significant as the management discipline, and some of them to the cross-disciplinary coaching literature, which comprises the body of knowledge. On this basis, it was thought appropriate to explore these, and would be neglectful to ignore them. Specifically, the extent and nature of the contributions made by each discipline are clearly established.

The second half of chapter 2 is devoted directly to the exploration of the boundaries of the management discipline. It breaks down the divisions within the management literature, which broadly include organizational focused literature, individual focused literature, and those literatures, which focus on both individual/organizational concepts. It is firmly established that the organizational focused literature is lacking compared to the others and that this presents a gap. An understanding of these divisions and the concepts and constructs contained within each are of particular value to this project, which focuses on this gap. Through this analysis, Chapter 2 provides a strong basis for Chapter 3, which is a conceptual analysis, rather than a structural review of the management coaching literature. It is aptly focused on the purposes and devices of coaching in a management context.

More specifically, this review explores the current relevant academic and practitioner literature concerning the purposes and devices of workplace of coaching. It reviews the available body of literature, which was found to include approximately 400 articles, books and reports. There
are two clear milestones that need to be achieved for this to happen. One is to map the disciplines relevant to the area of workplace coaching, particularly the management literature, from which discussions about coaching appear disconnected. And the other is to review the specific management concepts relevant to the area. So, the review is divided into two chapters to reflect this. Accordingly, the first chapter (2) maps the content and boundaries of the disciplines, which compose the coaching literature. The second chapter (3) reviews the management concepts relevant to an understanding of the purposes and devices of coaching in management.

In the first chapter, there are three sections. The first is an analysis, which defines the structure of the workplace coaching literature. The structure of the workplace coaching literature is explored according to its composition by discipline. It highlights the gaps and deficiencies in the literature and identifies the body of cross-disciplinary research. The second section of the review is a theoretical exploration of workplace coaching. It explores the non-management theoretical origins of workplace coaching as a way of positioning this study theoretically relative to the other disciplines. To this end, the theoretical contribution of each non-management discipline is reviewed. It also serves to highlight the theoretical and philosophical perspectives of each, which might inform an understanding of the purposes, devices or mechanisms of workplace coaching. The main non-management disciplines reviewed include psychology, education, health, sociology and sport. The third section is in some ways a continuation of the first and second section, but with a more focused lens on management. It begins by revisiting and expanding on the analysis of the structure of the management coaching literature and then proceeds to delineate the broader management concepts. It is argued that whilst there is an historical association between coaching and management, there is little academic management theory to reflect this and virtually no discussion of a ‘management coaching literature’. For this reason, much effort in this review has been devoted to determining the boundaries of the management perspective, which includes an exploration of the management terrain, the need for workplace coaching in management, and management theory and coaching.

Given that workplace coaching is an applied practice, the second chapter of the literature review explores of the real-world purposes and devices of workplace coaching. It reviews some of the major debates and issues outlined in practice in the coaching literature, inevitably focusing on problems that coaches must overcome to satisfy the change agenda. This section of the review considers the complexity of real-world scenarios that may occur in the management sphere, and in that way informs the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. This real-world focus is
consistent with the applied nature of workplace coaching in a management context, and is an identifiable strength of the literature.

2.1 STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS OF THE COACHING LITERATURE

The purpose of this section of this first section of the review is to define the structure of the workplace coaching literature, with a view to establishing a context for the delineation of the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. The structure of the workplace coaching literature is explored according to its composition by discipline. It is hoped that this detailed analysis will provide much needed clarity regarding the progress toward a significant goal stated in the literature, which is to become an evidence based profession. Understanding the structure of the body of knowledge is important in terms of this study because it highlights its gaps and deficiencies, which are an impediment to this goal. In particular, the review of its structure reveals a lack of cross-disciplinary research. This is something that should not be overlooked by scholars given that workplace coaching is a multi-dimensional and complex phenomenon, and in this sense deserves this kind of attention in the literature. The implications in terms of the purposes and devices of workplace coaching are discussed.

2.1.1 The composition of literature

There were 381 coaching articles/books/reports in total reviewed for this study, which were located from a number of business and management databases (Scopus, ABI, and Psych Info.) in the period ending March 2012. They consist of 120 consultant or practice publications, and 261 academic articles (including 33 books/reports). On a percentage basis this equates to 68.5% academic and 31.5% consultant/practitioner. This finding is in contrast to Joo (2005), who found 15% of articles in academic journals and 85% in practice/consultant journals, which suggests that the composition of the body has changed considerably since that time i.e. there has been a substantial increase in academic articles. This is entirely feasible, because at the time of Joo’s review there were only 78 articles available in the body of knowledge in total compared to 381 in this review i.e. 291 papers published since the end of 2004. However, the disparity could also be due to the differences in the definition of what constitutes an academic or practice journal, which is a point that warrants some clarification given that there are many consultant papers and a number which are ‘pseudo-academic’ in the literature. In the context of this thesis at least, an academic paper is one which adopts a relatively rigorous structure with a typical scholarly or scientific format.
i.e. have an abstract, methodology and reference list, and is published in a peer reviewed specialist academic journal. In contrast, a consultant paper was classified as one that does not generally include these elements and is not peer reviewed.

But, this rule cannot be applied without qualification because there are exceptions. For instance, there are a number of notable papers that appear in high quality ‘A’ grade human resource journals that make a significant contribution to literature, despite the fact that they do not conform to the typical academic conventions outlined above and might be considered ‘consultant’. For example, in the Academy of Management Perspectives (Ket De Vries 2005), and the Harvard Business Review (Berglas 2002; Sherman and Freas 2004; Coutu and Kauffman 2009). The existence of this kind of paper reinforces the fact that workplace coaching is an applied discipline and suggests that the distinction between consultant and academic journal articles is probably not as important as the contribution made in each paper based on merit.

Consultant articles are thought to lack empirical rigor and from an academic perspective make less of a contribution. Because of its limitations, the findings and conclusions reached in the consultant literature might not be considered as reliable for the purpose of research compared to academic research, which is generally more rigorous. It is noted though that the body of academic literature is coaching is not always of a high standard either. In fact, a significant portion of the research prior to 2005 consists of discussion papers and poorly conducted qualitative research, which needs to be considered in any analysis and conclusions in this research.

To establish the current state of the workplace coaching literature, a detailed classification was conducted by discipline, which helped to determine the contribution each has made (see Table 2.1.1a below). This initial snapshot of the literature summarizes the overall composition of articles in this thesis, showing the composition of articles by discipline as well as their intersection. In general terms, it features the psychology and management disciplines; but, because of the small numbers attributed to the other disciplines i.e. education, health, sport, sociology, these are amalgamated and labelled ‘Other’. The classification system used to determine which discipline each paper belongs to is explained in subsequent sections of this chapter.
The Venn diagram clearly shows that there were 381 individual articles in the review, of which there were 298 single disciplinary and 83 cross disciplinary. An examination of the literature by discipline reveals that there were 231 articles incorporating management constructs, 164 psychology and 69 ‘Other’ i.e. a total of 464 occurrences. As per the Venn diagram, the 231 management specific articles comprised of 156 single discipline articles, as well as 75 cross-disciplinary i.e. 41 shared with psychology and 34 with the ‘other’ disciplines. Similarly, the 164 psychology specific articles include 115 single discipline articles and 49 cross disciplinary i.e. 41 with management and 8 with the ‘other’ disciplines. Finally, the Venn diagram also shows that there were 69 articles specific to other disciplines, which included 27 single disciplinary articles and 42 cross-disciplinary i.e. 34 with management and 8 with psychology.

Table 2.1.1a further explores the breakdown of this composition by discipline. Of the 464 instances in which constructs appear in articles, 231 are management, 164 are psychology, 44 are
education, 17 are health, 5 are sport, and 3 are sociology (see column 3). It also shows the breakdown of consultant to academic articles by discipline.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISCIPLINE</th>
<th>ACADEMIC</th>
<th>CONSULTANT</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYCHOLOGY</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*EDUCATION</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*HEALTH</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*SPORT</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*SOCIOLOGY</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td>344</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>464</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*= ‘Other’

Based on this analysis, it appears overall that management has made a larger contribution by volume than psychology to the literature given that there are 231 instances versus 164 for psychology. However, these figures are misleading given that the management discipline features more regularly in consultant journals than the other disciplines i.e. 81 in management, 20 in psychology, 12 in education, 7 in health, and 1 in sociology (see column 3). So, in terms of academic contributions, the management and psychology disciplines would be more or less equal in the literature i.e. 150 in management and 144 in psychology (see column 2). As consistent with earlier conclusions, the higher volume of practitioner content from the management discipline reflects the applied nature of workplace coaching to which management practitioners and consultants make an important contribution. In this sense, whilst, practitioner articles may not provide an empirical contribution to the body of knowledge, they do represent an important conceptual contribution, especially from a management perspective.

### 2.1.2 Cross-disciplinary analysis

Figure 2.1.1a (Venn diagram) indicates that the majority of articles in the workplace coaching literature are single disciplinary i.e. 298 are devoted exclusively to one of the single disciplines. This is reflective of the bulk of management and psychological articles appearing literature, which are single disciplinary i.e. 156 management, 115 psychology, 27 other. As these papers are exclusively devoted to one discipline, they tend to only explore the relevant sub-topics and theories.
specific to that discipline. For example, a single discipline psychological article might be focused on rationale emotive behaviour therapy or cognitive coaching; or a single disciplinary management article might be focused on staff retention or organizational effectiveness. Accordingly, a subjective judgment was made on this basis to determine the emphasis of each paper to determine the discipline to which each belongs.

Figure 2.1.1a also suggests that there are 83 cross-disciplinary articles in the body of knowledge, which contribute to and ‘straddle’ more than one discipline i.e. 41 psychology/management, 34 management/other, 8 psychology/other etc. It is arguable that cross-disciplinary research is an important step in the development of a robust and diverse workplace coaching literature because it will enable broader insights to be developed than could be achieved in single disciplinary research. A further breakdown of cross-disciplinary articles is provided in Table 2.1.2a below.

Table 2.1.2a - The composition of cross-disciplinary studies in the literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Management</th>
<th>Psychology</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Sociology</th>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>TOTALS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>156*</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYCHOLOGY</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>115*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDUCATION</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEALTH</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIOLOGY</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPORT</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td><strong>55</strong></td>
<td><strong>18</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>83</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Single disciplinary articles.

This tabulation identifies not only the composition of cross-disciplinary articles by discipline (83), but also the emphasis of that composition. For example, the numbers in bold indicate that there are 20 articles overall in which management is the dominant construct, compared to 55 in which it is the sub-ordinate construct; 31 articles in which psychology is dominant, compared to 18 which are sub-ordinate; 16 articles in which education is dominant and 7 in which it is sub-ordinate etc. Note, that for obvious reasons, single disciplinary articles are not counted in these totals and are marked with an asterix. These totals can be cross referenced with the Figure 2.1.1a; for example,
both suggest that there are 75 cross-disciplinary articles in which management appears i.e. 41+34 in Figure 2.1.1a and 55+20 in Table 2.1.2a. The key difference here though, is that table 2.1.2a shows not only the composition, but also the relative emphasis of the disciplines.

This level of detail is important to understanding the focus of a particular paper in terms of the relative contribution a discipline makes to it, which in turn helps to make clearer the development of the body of knowledge to date. For example, a multi-disciplinary article may draw from both management and psychology, but the emphasis may be more management than psychology i.e. it draws from and/or makes more of a contribution to the development of management theory. This idea is illustrated in a recent paper by Chase (2010), which discusses the effect of leader self-beliefs on their job performance. Chase suggests that a goal of coaching should be to expand leader beliefs about their own abilities to improve their own performance. The fact that the article discusses the impact of leader beliefs indicates that the article draws on psychological concepts; however, because the article was contextualized in terms of a leader’s role, it was determined that the paper was primarily contributing to management, rather than psychological theory. In general, the analysis of cross-disciplinary literature suggests that one particular discipline tends to dominate the content of an article, whilst the other provides a compliment and is of somewhat secondary importance. Each paper was analysed on this basis.

The benefit of this analysis is evident upon closer inspection. The Venn diagram in Figure 2.1.1a established that there are 75 cross-disciplinary articles in which management appears (41+34), compared to psychology, which has 49 (41+8). This suggests that the contribution of management to cross-disciplinary literature is greater than psychology. However, in contrast, Table 2.1.2a clearly shows that psychology is mostly the dominant discipline in the cross-disciplinary articles in which it is found i.e. of the 75 cross-disciplinary articles in which management appears, it is only dominant in 20 of them (26%). This is compared to the 49 cross-disciplinary articles in which psychology appears, in which it is dominant in 31 of them (62%). This is a significant difference and can potentially be explained by the fact that in the cross-disciplinary research in the literature in which management appears, it provides little more than context for a study and is not the focus, whereas the opposite is true for psychology. So, when psychological constructs tend to appear within a paper, they are usually the dominant.

This trend is also found within other cross-disciplinary studies in the literature i.e. management tends to provide the context only. For example, in a number of cross-disciplinary
articles containing both education and management constructs, they explore coaching in an educational setting. The purpose of these interventions is to help teachers to overcome challenges specific to their work role i.e. a management construct; however, these challenges are unique to teachers in their school environment and therefore to the education discipline. Consequently, these papers are deemed to be more indigenous to the education discipline than management because the purpose was to explore the educational challenges, rather than to extend management theory.

As a point of note, it is surprising that despite psychology’s dominance in cross-disciplinary articles, which include psychology and management, there is little cross-disciplinary research in which it appears with the ‘Other’ disciplines. This indicates that psychologists in the coaching literature have tended to focus on management contexts, rather than education, health and sociology. This might be considered a gap in the literature.

2.1.3 Conclusion

The initial section of the literature review has considered the structural boundaries of the workplace coaching body of knowledge by mapping the composition and intersection of the disciplines. The main findings are that the body is comprised of 381 academic and consultant papers, with the latter making a significant conceptual albeit less rigorous contribution. It was argued that the inclusion of consultant/practitioner articles in this review is warranted because of the affinity they have with management as an important and applied discipline in the workplace coaching body of knowledge. The body is comprised of mainly of single disciplinary articles, but with some cross-disciplinary research. The cross-disciplinary analysis revealed that there is little diversity in this kind of research, given that most occurs between psychology and management to date. Moreover, the majority of these articles emphasize psychological concepts rather than management, indicating that management provides little more than context for these cross-disciplinary studies. On this basis of this analysis, it is contended that despite claims by some authors that the body of knowledge is ‘maturing’, it is clearly not mature enough yet from a theoretical perspective to support the goal of developing coaching as a discipline and profession in its own right. This argument makes sense if it is accepted that cross-disciplinary research is important to this outcome. This is certainly important from a management coaching perspective given that it is a discipline very much composed of major contributions from a multitude of disciplines. For this to occur then, research needs to reflect the multi-dimensional nature and complexity of the coaching construct and its contexts. But, this in turn can only eventuate if there is
a greater level of collaboration between researchers to incorporate the interests of single as well as multiple disciplines. In the context of this PhD, it is a lack of single and cross-disciplinary research from a management perspective, which limits the understanding that can be gained in terms of the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. In this spirit, this PhD literature review seeks to incorporate an understanding of coaching from a range of disciplines, not just management. But, whilst there is a need to advance the body from a cross-disciplinary perspective, the research question specifies that specific goal of this study is to advance the management discipline’s contribution to the literature, which is severely lacking. Given that this is an exploratory study, this may or may not result in the development of cross-disciplinary constructs, depending on the inherent character of the data. It is hoped that it does.

2.2 NON-MANAGEMENT ORIGINS OF WORKPLACE COACHING

The purpose of this second section of the literature review is to explore the theoretical origins of workplace coaching in an effort to contextualize and position this study theoretically. This is achieved by reviewing the different theoretical contributions made by the different disciplines in the literature. This multi-disciplinary approach is also consistent with previous claims about the importance of the cross-disciplinary perspective. In terms of this specific thesis, it serves to highlight the differing theoretical and philosophical perspectives, which might inform an understanding of the purposes, devices or mechanisms of workplace coaching. There are five main disciplines, which contribute to the coaching literature, which include psychology, management, education, health, sociology and sport. The main argument is that each discipline emphasizes different theories, concepts and constructs, which could all equally form the basis of a purpose or device of coaching. In particular, it is noted that there have been theoretical advancements in the areas such as psychology and management, which perhaps have more of an affinity for coaching and/or are more organized than other disciplines in terms of research. This portion of the literature review is explored in two sections. In the first instance, a review of each non-management discipline is offered, and then the management discipline itself. Because of the importance of psychology as contributors to the area to date, a reasonable level of detail is included in the review and conclusions alike regarding the purposes and devices of coaching. For this same reason, the other disciplines are reviewed, but a lesser extent.
2.2.1  The purposes and devices of coaching in psychology

Psychology is a discipline that provides an important theoretical foundation for workplace coaching. Berg (2007) suggested that the psychological approaches to coaching could be classified according to behavioural, cognitive, humanistic, cognitive-behavioural, and existentialist philosophies, which is concurrent with the findings of this literature review. However, this review takes a broader perspective than this and attempts to classify it in terms of three major themes, including general psychology, clinical psychology and non-clinical psychology. Each can be considered to a slightly different emphasis concerning the purposes and devices of workplace coaching, although they are very similar. A common purpose of coaching for psychologists is to influence individual learning and behaviour. In turn, the devices of coaching are any determinant of coachee learning and behaviour. The importance of the latter is one of the reasons that they are so focused on delineating the specifics of coaching practice; in particular the relationship between the coach and coachee.

2.2.1.1  Coaching psychology

To date, the workplace coaching body of knowledge has been dominated by the input of psychologically oriented discussion. This is both a sign that psychologists have increasingly embraced coaching (Berman and Bradt 2006) and that they are more organized than other disciplines as a group. As established in the first part of this literature review, of the 381 unique articles in literature approximately 42% were published in psychology or psychology oriented journals and focused on psychological constructs. The significant contribution made by psychology in the literature reflects the claim in the literature that executive coaches have increasingly shown a greater ‘psychologization’ of their methods. However, although the contribution of psychology is touted by some, it is not universally viewed by all as the premier contributor to the area (Garman 2000). To illustrate, the prominent psychologist Whitmore (2009) suggests that although psychology is an important discipline for coaching, a person does not need a psychology degree to practice it. Similarly, the general skills required for effective coaching, might be considered ‘psychological’ as they include listening and empathy, patience, adaptability, analytical problem solving, creativity and humour (Quick and Macik-Frey 2004; Ket De Vries 2005; Criddle 2007; Baron and Morin et al. 2012). But, whilst these skills may be utilised by psychologists in their practice, they are generic and not the exclusive domain of psychology. That said, further examination of the psychological literature suggests that there is no doubt that the discipline
provides an important foundation for the development of the coaching area (Hackman and Wageman 2005; Wasylyshyn et al. 2006).

A number of broad based psychological theories are utilized in the coaching process. For instance, coaches can use operant conditioning as a way of influencing behaviour (Hackman and Wageman 2005; Jones and Spooner 2006), and these principles are evidenced in sales management coaching (Doyle and Roth 1992). Similarly, Prochaska’s Transtheoretical model of change, which is a theory of change rooted in psychotherapy and outlines the stages of change involved in human development (Prochaska and DiClemente 1983). Other psychological theories include self-regulation theory (Grant 2001; Du Toit 2006), which is a process whereby a person controls and directs their behaviour in the pursuit of a goal and incorporates emotional, motivational, and cognitive dimensions of human behaviour. According to Grant (2001), these include self-reinforcement, self-reward, self-evaluation and self-motivation and coachees who self-regulate in this way, achieve higher levels of performance (Guttman 2012).

Closely linked the theory of self-regulation is the relationship between coaching and the cognitive/affective domains of human psychology. The affective domain (in a coaching context) is concerned with a exploring coachee’s underlying motivations i.e. values, goals, purpose etc, and in this way plays an important role in regulating executive behaviour (Abbott et al. 2006). Coaching is important in this context because the demands of daily work life may ‘interrupt’ the goal directed behaviour of the coachee/executive overtime (Bachkirova and Cox 2007). Similarly, the cognitive domain concerns the thought life of the coachee incorporating meta-cognition, thinking styles and their effectiveness in particular contexts (Abbott et al. 2006). Through coaching, which encourages reflective thinking, clients are able to explore and re-engage with these processes (both affective and cognitive) and in doing so make changes in a way that suits them and their context.

2.2.1.2 Coaching and social psychology

Social psychology is a very recent area of research in the coaching literature; consequently, there is little to report in terms of its application to coaching. However, there have been three studies, which have addressed this subject to varying degrees. The most notable study has been by Ladyshewsky (2006), who investigated the effect of peer coaching in the context of a post-graduate management program. Although the context was education and could be reviewed accordingly, the findings of the study related to psychological development, which is why it is included in this
section as well. A social constructivist methodology was utilized in which students engaged in peer coaching and were able to discuss the development of their respective learning objectives (as part of an assignment) as well as issues associated with their ‘real-life’ project assignments in a safe environment. From the interpretive study emerged three dimensions of the peer coaching experience relating to thinking processes, the coaching process, and relationship, which Ladyschewsky proposed these three main dimensions as a part of a conceptual theory. In terms of thinking processes, it was found that students experienced five phenomena as a result of the social interaction i.e. knowledge expansion, perspective sharing, knowledge verification, cognitive conflict, and alternate perspectives. Coaching processes were defined by commitment, follow-up and formality. Finally, the relationship dimensions included constructs such as relationship, social support and trust.

Other relevant but less notable papers incorporating social psychology include a study by Styhre (2008) who discussed coaching in terms of second-order observations i.e. social systems engaging in self-observation/reflection during daily operations. Styhre argued that this could be considered a key concept in coaching, because second order observations assist in the generation of meaning and understanding, and are important to the modification of leader behaviours and practices. However, it was suggested that opportunities such as this may not occur except through interventions like coaching, which promote systematic and fruitful self-reflection.

Finally, in a very different study by Heslin et al. (2006) the effect of Implicit Person Theory (IPT) on a manager’s willingness to coach/develop a poor performing sub-ordinate was examined. Heslin et al. (2006) determined that if a manager perceived that a sub-ordinate was not ‘malleable’ in terms of personality and ability, then they were less inclined to coach them. It was found though that manager’s who engaged in self-reflective processes were more willing to coach a poor performing employee.

2.2.1.3 Clinical coaching psychology

A review of psychologically oriented papers suggests that theories of clinical psychology make a significant contribution to the workplace coaching literature (Smither et al. 2003; Berman and Bradt 2006). Included are a range of theories such as multi-modal therapy, psychodynamic theory, eye movement desensitization and reprocessing, addiction theory, NLP, and CBT. Table 2.2.1a lists the clinical theories explored by author and the thesis of the theory. The inclusion of so
many theories suggests that there is a natural synergy between clinical psychology and coaching (Spaten and Hansen 2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clinical Theory</th>
<th>Thesis</th>
<th>Relevant Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multi-Modal Therapy</td>
<td>an integrated and holistic approach to executive coaching, through which a practitioner addresses different dimensions of ‘personality’ to affect performance e.g. Behaviour, Affect, Sensation, Imagery, Cognition, Interpersonal relationships, physiology</td>
<td>(Richard 1999; Grant 2001; Andrew 2007; Palmer 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychodynamic Theory</td>
<td>a clinically related area that is concerned with the influence of the ‘subconscious’ on a person’s behaviour (see Lapp, 2008)</td>
<td>(Kilburg 1997; Bugas and Silberschatz 2000; Cocivera and Cronshaw 2004; Feldman and Lankau 2005; Berman and Bradt 2006; Passmore 2007; Lapp and Carr 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye Movement Desensitization</td>
<td>an intervention used to coach executives to eliminate negative thinking and physical stress that interfere with optimal performance at work (see Foster et al. 1996).</td>
<td>(Foster and Lendl 1996; Smither et al. 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addiction Theory</td>
<td>a style of counselling suitable for eliciting change by helping clients to explore and resolve ambivalence (defining Motivational Interviewing) (see Butterworth, 2006).</td>
<td>(Blattner 2005; Groom 2005; Butterworth et al. 2006; Passmore 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NLP (Neuro-Linguistic Programming)</td>
<td>a communication model, concerned with how people internally represent their experience and communicate with themselves and others (Linder-Pelz et al 2007).</td>
<td>(Gray 2006; Grant 2001; Linder-Pelz and Hall 2007; Breckman 2008; Agarwal 2011).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBT (Cognitive Behaviour Theory)</td>
<td>a therapeutic approach which recognizes the importance of cognitive and behavioural processes to a stimulus and emotions (see Gray, 2006).</td>
<td>(Ducharme 2004; Green et al. 2006; Criddle 2007; Passmore 2007; Spaten and Hansen 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REBT (Rationale Emotive Behaviour Theory)</td>
<td>a study of the relationship between irrational beliefs, interpretation of events and behaviour (see Sherin et al. 2004).</td>
<td>(Anderson 2002; Kodish 2002; Sherin and Caiger 2004; Criddle 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialectical Behaviour Therapy (DBT)</td>
<td>a treatment for borderline personality disorder and comorbid substance use disorders. Therapeutic success in DBT requires that individuals generalize newly acquired skills to their natural environment (Rizvi, Dimeff et al. 2011).</td>
<td>(Rizvi, Dimeff et al. 2011)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This natural synergy is further evidenced in that coaching shares similar methods, including a process of inquiry, a propensity for advice giving, developing rapport and an effective working...
relationship (Wasylyshyn et al. 1998; Winum 2005), and assessing needed change (Cocivera and Cronshaw 2004; Longenecker and Neubert 2005). Coaching and therapy also share similar theoretical constructs and issues related to practice. For instance, each is ongoing, requires confidentiality, takes the form of a one-to-one relationship, and has similar potential for boundary issues and power differentials (Blattner 2005). Also, Judge (1997) argued that psychotherapy and coaching overlap broadly in terms of their approach to giving feedback, focusing attention, supporting change and development. From a client’s perspective also, there are similarities in terms of their focus on behaviour, attitude and cognition, discussion of personal issues, exploration of blind spots, biases and shortcomings, the shedding defences, altering perspectives, gaining new skills and capacity for behaviour (Judge and Cowell 1997; Piggott 2008). In terms of coaching skills, the overlap is in terms of the ability of the coach to listen, empathize, provide feedback, create scenarios, challenge, and explore the coachee’s world (Kilburg 1997; Criddle 2007).

As well as an apparent synergy between coaching and therapy, there is an argument in the literature that clinically trained coaches are likely to be more competent as coaches than those who are not psychologically trained. According to Levinson (1996), clinically oriented coaches are distinguished by a range of factors compared to non-clinically oriented coaches in four ways. Firstly, they are more likely to be able to recognize symptoms of psychological distress, and would therefore be better positioned to refer the coachee to appropriate and clinically qualified practitioners. Secondly, the clinically oriented coach can help coachee’s to attain the psychological freedom needed to make choices and take responsibility for their behaviour. Thirdly, the psychoanalytic oriented coach seeks to help clients understand the possible adverse consequences of their behaviour on their colleagues and the organization they work for. Finally, they are able to help their clients recognize their strengths, unearth unconscious guilt and irrational behaviour, and understand their stage of development as an adult (see (Arnaud 2003) for more information).

But despite these arguments, the literature is clear that coaching is for use with normal populations only not clinical, which suggests that they are somewhat overstated. Further, recent empirical research suggests that there are actually cognitive differences between coaches and therapists, which further support this. For example, a study by Passmore et al. (2010) indicates that coaches may be significantly different from counsellors in terms of MBTI personality preferences, where coaches were found to be significantly different from counsellors in the balance between thinking (T) and feeling (F) preferences. The implication is that counsellors may not make good
coaches regardless of their therapeutic skills and that the suitability of a person to be a coach may be a selection, rather than just a training issue.

Despite the potential usefulness of clinical oriented psychology there are some further differences between it and coaching that need to be considered. Firstly, as already argued, clinical skills are not essential for a coach to practice it (Whitmore 2009; Kilburg 1997). Also, whilst there are some overlaps between clinical psychology and coaching, the objectives of coaching are quite different i.e. coaching is focused primarily on performance outcomes, whereas therapy is focused on clinical problems, and the use of medical diagnosis and treatments designed to alleviate clinical disorders (Dean and Meyer 2002). In addition, coaching diverges from psychotherapy, as it is short term and pre-defined in length; a more holistic approach, rather than a reductionist approach (Judge and Cowell 1997; Murray 2004; Quick and Macik-Frey 2004); may be specific to the business context (Bacon and Spear 2003; Cocivera and Cronshaw 2004; Joo 2005; Winum 2005; Criddle 2007); is a more systematic approach (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson 2001; Luthans and Peterson 2003; Hackman and Wageman 2005); and based around a specific issue or problem, rather than delving into aspects of the private self (Woodruffe 2006; Hart and Blattner 2001).

Although academic psychologists are keen to offer their theories and frameworks to guide coaching practice, the differences between coaching and therapy outlined in this section suggest that it is difficult to determine the extent of the synergy between the two. A degree in psychology is not needed to be a coach and there is now some doubt that counsellors will automatically be good coaches. Similarly, given that coaching is for non-clinical populations and therapy is for clinical populations, it seems that the terrain of coaching and therapy are quite different i.e. ‘coaching is not therapy’ (Ulrich 2008). On balance, the differences do not support the assumption made by some regarding the transferability of traditional psychological skills and qualifications to coaching. The focus on therapeutic approaches and their application to coaching are somewhat a distraction from more appropriate adult learning theories, which are ‘ready-made’ for non-clinical populations (Grant and Palmer 2002) and in that way more accessible to those who are not psychologists. These are outlined in the next section, which reviews ‘Non-Clinical Psychology’.

2.2.1.4 Non-clinical coaching psychology

The beginning of this millennium has seen the development of a new brand of psychology specific to non-clinical populations called coaching or positive psychology. The development of
this theory aligns with coaching increasingly being understood from a non-clinical perspective (Grant 2001; Palmer et al. 2003; Kauffman and Scoular 2004; Gyllensten and Palmer 2005; Linley and Harrington 2005). Although coaching and positive psychology are relatively new (Grant 2001), the idea of psychology for non-clinical populations is not and dates back to Parkes (1955). These two areas have developed over time and in their fullness will form a psychological foundation for coaching practice.

The purpose of coaching psychology is to enhance employee well being; behaviour and performance in personal life and/or work domains (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005; Gyllensten and Palmer 2005; Popper and Lipshitz 1992; Crabb 2012). As a sub-discipline of psychology, it is underpinned by models of coaching grounded in adult learning and established psychological approaches (Grant and Palmer 2002). As the idea of coaching psychology was only really only formally proposed sometime around 2005, (Palmer and Whybrow 2005), there is modest, but steady progress in its development with 37 articles or so having been published in the last 3 years i.e. since 2008. Recent topics explored include: the coaching relationship; ethics (Law 2005); behaviourism; transpersonal psychology; action learning (Marquardt 2011); wisdom; assessment and psychometrics (Ingeborg 2008); gender transition; anxiety; coachee experience; hypnosis; happiness; Socratic dialogue; NLP (Linder-Pelz and Hall 2007; Parker 2008); learning processes (reflection and action) and business empathy (Marsden and Humphrey 2010). Whilst Positive Psychology is not exclusive to coaching, it is very relevant to coaching because it shares similar goals, and on this basis, it could be considered an important input.

Positive psychology is a sub-discipline of psychology proposed by Martin Seligman in 1998. It is the study of optimal functioning, which has as its purpose the optimization of human behaviour and the affect of the ‘human condition’ toward happiness, fulfilment and flourishing (Kauffman and Scoular 2004; Seligman 2007). In this respect, a review of the PsychInfo database indicates that in the last 4-5 years, research topics have included: assessment, activities and strategies toward success; science of happiness; thriving; wisdom; strengths based interventions; positive emotion; job satisfaction; optimism; self-concordance; goal striving; coaching men at mid-life; mental health; creativity and human strength. Of particular note is the VIA Classification of Strengths (Peterson and Seligman 2004; Elston and Boniwell 2012), which is a framework to understand human strengths at a ‘meta-level’, which are the capacity for behaving, thinking, or feeling in a way that allows optimal functioning and performance (Linley and Harrington 2005). There are approximately 34 articles in coaching literature, which draw from Positive Psychology.
2.2.2 Purposes and devices of coaching in sport

Coaching in sport and athletics has been very widely studied, investigating areas such as coaching behaviours; coach efficacy, coach relationships and skills (see Black & Weiss, 1992; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Feltz, Chase, Moritz, & Sullivan, 1999; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977; Smoll & Smith, 1989; Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986; Zhang, Jensen, & Mann, 1997; Docheff 1989). As outlined in the previous section about psychology, many of these topics are of interest to coaching psychologists, however, there is doubt about their transferability to coaching in the workplace. There are essentially two conflicting arguments put forward in the debate.

The primary argument is that athletic/sport coaching has a role to play in the development of workplace coaching, because it has a history of influence over other domains such as management (Ellinger and Keller 2003), teaching, policy and people development etc (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005). A number of authors have cited as support for this position (Evered and Selman 1989; Kilburg 1996; McLean et al. 2005; Jones and Spooner 2006; Erik de 2008). However, the alternate position taken by authors is that athletic/sport coaching is not relevant to the development of workplace coaching. For instance, Peterson and Little (2005) discuss the irrelevance of sports as a foundation for workplace coaching, using the work of McLean et al (2005) as an example. The main dissenting arguments are: the rules and scope of the ‘game’ of the workplace are difficult to define (unlike sports); a sport coach is often a mentor and technical expert rather than a coach, (compared to a workplace coach who is an adult learning expert); the sport coach is likely to be in-charge, guiding and ‘calling the shots’, whereas the workplace coach is more of a facilitator. Others have also argued that the feedback process in the workplace may take a lot longer and be more complicated than that in sport, and it is therefore more difficult to evaluate consequences of decisions in the workplace. Interestingly, psychologists in particular have criticized the sport coaching model for the workplace because it oversimplifies the coaching process; fails to incorporate a psychodynamic frame; and ignores the importance of environmental analysis (Krazmien and Berger 1997). Additional arguments that add weight to the case that sport coaching is not a foundation of workplace coaching are: that workplace coaching is something that mostly occurs between two people (although this is not exclusively the case), and that it is ideally collegial but never hierarchical unlike sport coaching (Blattner 2005).

Also, the workplace coaching role is not the exclusive domain of a particular individual or specialist in coaching. Unlike sport, it is a role that is highly accessible, in that it can be assumed by
almost anyone (Whitmore 2009), whether employed in or by an organization as a professional coach, consultant, internal coach, a leader, sub-ordinate or peer. Sport coaching does not generally satisfy these parameters because the professional athlete is the typically the recipient of coaching, never the coach; a large proportion of the sports coaching literature is team oriented instead of one-to-one (unlike workplace coaching); and sport’s coaching is very hierarchical and elitist i.e. because the sport’s coach is usually the ‘expert’ and very much in charge (Seifried 2008). For these reasons, it is concluded that the sport literature is not particularly relevant to understanding the purposes and devices of workplace coaching.

2.2.3 Purposes and devices of coaching in education

The discipline of education examines coaching from an adult learning perspective and therefore tends to be pre-disposed toward the study of educational processes and achievement of learning outcomes. In total, there are approximately 44 education articles in the literature, in which 21 are single-discipline and 23 are cross disciplinary. As discussed earlier in chapter 2 of this thesis, the majority of the education cross-disciplinary articles are explored within a management context (see Table 2.1.2a). Overall, the majority of articles tend to focus on one of two themes, including the efficacy of coaching and success factors; and the professionalization of coaching and educational standards.

A number of papers in education explore the efficacy of coaching and various success factors within the context of school settings and adult learning institutions, such as University post-graduate programs. For example, it is reported that coaching can help students increase performance. This is evidenced in the findings of a study by Kurecka et al. (1982) in which coaching was shown to increase the performance of female undergraduate students who completed standardized tests. Other apparent benefits for students include increased critical thinking skills, self-awareness and capacity for self-discovery (O'Neil and Hopkins 2002) and teamwork in team based learning projects (Bolton 1999; Powers and Summers 2009). As well, coaching is also reported to provide many benefits for teachers, including making them more receptive to try new teaching practices, be evidenced based (Vanderburg and Stephens 2010) more effective (Cary and Lamattina 2011; Stephens, Morgan et al. 2011) and self-regulating (Collet 2012). This is achieved because coaching stimulates teacher reflection by help them to rethink their own teaching methods and styles (Vacilotto and Cummings 2007; Kissel et al. 2011; Mraz et al. 2011) and maximizes
effectiveness in language instruction and pedagogy (Lamb et al. 2008; Onchwari and Keengwe 2010). This supports earlier findings in the psychological literature (see Styhre (2008)).

A variety of manifestations of coaching are discussed in the educational literature, including peer and external coaching. For example, it is suggested that the versatile nature of peer coaching means that it might be able to be used as a compliment to other forms of coaching and learning (Ladyshewsky 2006; Korotov 2008). However, findings of other works suggest that it is a challenge to utilize peer coaching as a tool for stimulating reflection and improving performance for early career teachers (Truijen and Woerkom 2008). The latter is supported by the findings of a study conducted by Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) in which they found that improvements in team player behaviour and student grades were greater for students coached by an external coach than those coached by a peer. It was thought that this might in part be explained by the fact that the external coach was perceived as being more credible than a peer coach.

Whilst there might be a range of benefits to coaching in an educational setting, its success is dependent on some critical factors. For instance, the quality of a coach, particularly their ability to effectively support teacher learning is a factor in the achievement of outcomes (McCombs and Marsh 2009). High levels of support are an important factor in teacher professional development, because it is sometimes very challenging to introduce inquiry-based methods of teaching into their classrooms.

A high level of teacher support is something that coaching is well positioned to provide as it is a highly individualized approach to supporting change (Bransfield et al. 2007). Different forms of support that teachers report valuing include: having a space for collaboration, input regarding instructional strategies (Vanderburg and Stephens 2010; Chandler and Roebuck et al. 2012) and feedback for performance improvement (Lawson and Peternelj-Taylor 2006). In some studies, technology was used as a way for a coach to monitor and deliver ‘just in time’ feedback to a teacher at the end of a lesson. The benefits of this are discussed and framed as an argument for using technology to leverage these kinds of opportunities (Rock et al. 2009). Several papers also highlighted the importance of administrator support in enhancing professional development efforts within schools through coaching. It is thought that when administrators take steps to show that they value and support it and are able to set concrete expectations for its use, development efforts will be fruitful (Garmston 1987; Blamey et al. 2008).
The educational coaching literature also explores professionalization and educational standards. Discussions about educational approaches tend to focus on the importance of embedding the development of coaching attitudes and competencies into post-graduate education programs. Many authors support the notion that traditional post-graduate programs are generally insufficient for the task of preparing graduates for real world performance in a range of domains including leadership, counselling, and management. For instance, Spaten et al (2009) examined the curriculum of a psychology graduate program in Denmark at Aalorg University as a model of practice, which included cognitive coaching modules that included extensive opportunity for the development of reflective practice. Based on their examination, they recommended that coaching be included in the graduate psychology programs in Universities. Also of note, is a broadly defined study by McCarthy (2010), in which the design of a coaching program at Wollongong University Australia was evaluated to determine its appropriateness. It was argued that coaching programs should embed coaching theories into their approach as they are best suited to helping students acquire critical, research and reflective skills and abilities. Relevant theories include adult learning theories such as transformative learning, andragogy and experiential learning theory.

Other authors have also suggested that the development of coaching competencies in MBA programs is a suitable way of enhancing student readiness for real world roles (Hunt and Weintraub 2004; Ladyshewsky 2006; Butler et al. 2008). Hunt et al (2004) argue that the main source of influence of a coach is in helping them come to a greater understanding of what is required of managers in the workforce in promoting learning, rather than compliance through participation in an assessment centre, written assignments and discussion with faculty. Ladyshewsky (2006) supports this idea further in his examination of peer coaching as a means of developing critical skills in students for the purposes of readiness; and Ramus (2003) explored experiential methods of teaching students negotiation techniques.

Finally, there is also some discussion in the education literature as to the appropriate credentials that a coach should possess. A number of authors argue for the development of a set of core qualifications (Dean and Meyer 2002; Stern 2004; O'Connor and Ertmer 2006; Ennis et al. 2003). For example, Orenstein (2002) suggests that because of the complexity and multi-dimensions of relationship that exist between coaches, organizations and clients coaches should develop a relationship acumen. This might include an understanding of management concepts and techniques across various kinds of organizations including corporate, non-profit, government and educational sectors. There are also more obscure characteristics such as those suggested by DeHaan.
(2008) in which he argues the need for coaching programs to be able to preserve the ‘freshness and openness of a beginner’ whilst also acquiring greater robustness and resilience in the face of difficult assignments. Others argue that coaches should undergo supervision as a mechanism for their development (Farmer and 2011).

2.2.4 Purposes and devices of coaching in healthcare

There are a small number of papers (17), which address the study of workplace coaching in the context of the healthcare setting. The absolute majority of these are cross-disciplinary articles paired with the management. In this sense, these address the management context within healthcare and explore them from both an individual and organizational perspective. Given this, some of the ideas contained within will be further reviewed in the review of the management discipline. For this reason, the review of healthcare here is very brief. It is included though because healthcare, like education has unique challenges, and therefore warrants some acknowledgement.

Workplace coaching articles in healthcare area explore a variety of concepts and theories such as co-active coaching, telephone coaching, enhancement of professional skills and effectiveness, health and wellness programs, and organizational effectiveness. Approximately half of the articles are published in practitioner journals and most are self-reflections about the authors experience as a coach or coachee working in the nursing area. For instance, Laurence (2008) describes importance of ‘self-coaching’ toward improving performance and their role as a health practitioner in coaching others do the same. Similarly, Tyra (2008), pg 100 briefly discusses her experience as a coach engaged co-active coaching of nurses, which is described as “…an ongoing relationship between an individual and his or her coach that helps the individual live a satisfying life aligned with his or her values….”. All of the academic articles that are cross-disciplinary (paired with management) and are equally divided in terms of their focus on individual or organizational constructs. As expected, the articles focused on the individual tend to emphasis topics such as role effectiveness (Ponte et al. 2006; Kushnir et al. 2008); readiness (Daehler-Miller et al. 2008) and transfer of training (Kushnir et al. 2008; Bright and Crockett 2012). Articles specific to organizational topics include discussions about organizational culture, wellness programs and absenteeism (Okie 2007), ROI, recruitment, retention (Paschke 2007; Ascentia 2005; Barlas et al. 2007; Coate and Hill 2011), succession planning (McNally and Lukens 2006) and organizational effectiveness (Locke 2008). As a large portion of articles in this area that are published in consultant journals suggests that the main contribution of healthcare is conceptual. There is some
suggestion that ‘Health Coaching’ is an opportunity that health professionals such as dieticians can adopt (Lipscomb 2006). Finally, peer coaching is examined as a creative way to implement practice change, and an adjunct to nursing staff development (Poe, Abbott et al. 2011; Zadvinskis, Glasgow et al. 2011).

2.2.5 The purposes and devices of coaching in sociology

The study of sociology is relatively new and unexplored in coaching literature. There were only three articles located in the literature. The first article discusses the challenges of coaching executives across cultures, which arise because a manager's culture may be very different to the coach’s culture. In the article Donnison (2008) outlines the importance of being culturally sensitive and having knowledge of culture when coaching executives from different backgrounds. A second article by Nangalia and Nangalia (2009) is an exploratory case study, which explores the way in which executive coaches from Asia adapt coaching to suit a more Eastern audience. In it, Nangalia et al. (2009) challenges the concepts and practices that are thought to be universally applicable in literature. For example, the effect of social hierarchy on the expectations that clientele have for the role and status of the coach in Asian culture. There is also a third article by Guignon and Fournier (2007), but this was written in French and due to limitations in being able to access it, it has not been reviewed for this thesis. Given the global appeal of workplace coaching, it is expected that sociology will play an important role in the development of the workplace coaching literature in the years to come.

2.2.6 Conclusion

This section of the thesis has reviewed the non-management origins of workplace coaching with the purpose of contextualizing and positioning this study within the broader theory. The different theoretical contributions each discipline makes to the body of knowledge were reviewed. This served to outline the disciplinary perspectives, which might inform an understanding of the purposes and associated devices of workplace coaching. There are five main non-management disciplines, which contribute to the coaching literature, including psychology, education, health, sociology and sport. As each discipline emphasizes different theories, concepts and constructs, the purpose and/or devices of coaching might be construed as different. As reflected in the earlier part of this review, because of its greater affinity and organization than ‘Other’ disciplines, there have been significant advancements in the psychology. But, the proportionally greater contribution of
psychology than other disciplines to the literature needs to be accounted for in order to gain a balanced perspective of the coaching construct and its potential purposes and devices. Nevertheless, because of its dominance, a greater portion of this review has been devoted to it and accordingly there are many purposes and devices.

From the review of the Psychology, it is clear that it has a role to play in the development of coaching theory in terms of understanding and influencing human behaviour. But, the literature casts some doubt as to the validity of therapeutic approaches to coaching - although, this is not conclusive. For example, rather than needing a psychology degree to practice coaching, it is more likely that a coach only require a basic understanding of psychological principles. It is noteworthy that there seems to be little input into the coaching body of knowledge from a social psychology perspective, which it could be argued might also make a significant contribution to literature. It should also be noted that despite the contribution of psychology to the literature, it is not sufficient in and of itself for the purposes of developing coaching theory. Along with therapeutic approaches to coaching, coaching psychology and positive psychology, there are many other disciplines, which are yet to contribute significantly to the discussion.

It seems that from a general psychological perspective, the purposes of coaching are very much aligned with the development and regulation of coachee behaviour. In particular, the review suggests that the purposes and devices of coaching relate to coach skills, as well as the coachee’s cognitive and motivational characteristics. Whilst there are only three papers supporting a social psychology perspective of coaching, these are quality studies that have made available contribution to the literature. Social Psychology has an inherent role to play in the coaching literature given that coaching is itself a social construct, which relies on social processes to affect outcomes for clients. Its purposes and devices are very much aligned with the social dimensions of behaviour, in particular those related to peer coaching and coaching relationships.

The review of clinical psychology suggests that there is an overlap between therapy and coaching and they therefore share similar purposes and devices. There numerous theories discussed in the literature would predispose coaching’s purposes toward the influence of the following: the subconscious mind to change a person’s behaviour, the elimination of negative thinking, exploring and resolving ambivalence, stimulating cognitive and behavioural processes, and mediating irrational beliefs to change the interpretation of events and behaviour. Many of these would also qualify as devices as they are potential determinants of behaviour change also. But, although there
are overlaps in terms of style, a significant doubt exists about the compatibility of coaching and therapy, which implies that its purposes and devices may not be shared. At the most basic level, the purpose of therapy is to treat clinical populations and the way in which it achieves this may in fact be substantially different to coaching. This is in contrast to the brief review of non-clinical or coaching psychology, which emphasizes as its purpose optimal human functioning by enhancing well being, behaviour and performance in personal life and work. This would be a topic of great interest to management scholars, who are pre-occupied with improving the performance-oriented behaviour for the benefit of organizations. Because of this, workplace coaching could conceivably share purposes and devices with coaching psychologists. However, a key difference from a management perspective is that for psychologists, the behaviour change is an end unto itself, whereas in management, it is a means to optimal organizational functioning.

Overall, whilst there is some similarity between sports coaching and workplace coaching, their skill sets and models for practice seem to be substantially different. Subsequently, caution must be applied in drawing from studies conducted in the sports arena to develop the workplace arena. Based on these reasons, sport coaching is largely excluded from the theoretical scope of this study and few conclusions can be drawn about the purposes and devices of coaching.

The brief review of the education discipline suggests that is very much in its infancy with respect to its exploration of coaching. It performs a valuable function in developing frameworks for education best practice, which will help to ensuring the development of integrity within coaching education programs. In this regard, it also has a clear role in guiding andragogical practice and competency frameworks upon which coaching/learning outcomes can be developed. Accordingly, the purposes and devices of coaching might relate to the coaching design i.e. coach’ competency to design, deliver, evaluate and improve coaching programs and integrity and efficacy of coachee’ learning outcomes. This may be for the benefit of continuing professional development for coaches and coachees alike.

There are a small number of papers, which address the study of workplace coaching in the context of the healthcare setting. The majority of these are cross-disciplinary articles, and paired with management. These address the management context within healthcare and explore them from both an individual and organizational perspective. Clearly, a key purpose of coaching from this perspective relates to the health and well being of a populous, whether that be individuals, organizations or broader societies.
Finally, the study of sociology is relatively new and unexplored in coaching literature. Given its ‘global appeal’ and the rise of international business, it is expected to gain more attention in the literature over-time. Its most obvious purpose and device concerns the development of effective culture, which is particularly important from a management perspective given its importance to organizations.

2.3 MANAGEMENT ORIGINS OF THE COACHING LITERATURE

There are reports on the historical association between coaching and management dating back sixty years. It has been suggested that coaching in the workplace emerged in the 1950s management literature as a mechanism for developing employees through a master-apprentice type of relationship (Evered and Selman 1989). Research conducted by Grant (2008) indicates that it dates back to 1937. Others suggest that its origins in management are more recent i.e. the 1980s (Kilburg 1996). As an applied practice, workplace coaching has its origins in management development programs and is often used in conjunction with them. This is true of sales management, for example, where the term ‘coaching’ has been used as a term to describe a very important sales management activity for enhancing the performance of sales people (Rich 1998). The importance of coaching to management is further supported anecdotally by the fact that many coaches belong to professional associations including the American Society for Training and Development (Judge and Cowell 1997), the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (Matthews 2008), the International Coaching Federation and Worldwide Association of Business Coaches, all of which have a strong workplace affiliation.

Whilst there is an historical association between coaching and management, there is little academic management theory to reflect this as indicated in the structural analysis conducted earlier. In fact, unlike psychology, which has sought to define its contribution to the area, there is virtually no discussion of a ‘management coaching literature’, which is why so much effort has in this review has been devoted to determining its boundaries. The lack of literature is a sentiment that was echoed by (Joo 2005), in which it was argued that there was not one single executive coaching article to be found in human resource development journals. However, a cursory review of journal titles in the workplace coaching body of knowledge indicates that in the period from 1987 to the end of 2005, there were in fact 30 papers published in human resource oriented journals. In addition, since 2006,
there have been 74 academic articles published and 31 of those have been in management/human resource journals. This means that there are 61 articles published in human resource journals since 1987 in total. So, whilst the findings of this review don’t directly concur with Joo’s assertion, they do support the idea that there are few articles published in academia in human resource management/development forums. To clarify further the state of the workplace coaching literature with respect to management theory, this review explores the need for coaching from a management perspective i.e. both at an individual and organizational level. The second section also explores some of the theories and concepts relevant to management that are discussed in the literature and suggests those which might be relevant to the coaching body of knowledge in the future. From this, some conclusions are made about the potential purposes and devices of workplace coaching from a management perspective.

2.3.1 Understanding the management terrain

Some guidelines need to be set for distinguishing a management article from those of other closely related disciplines such as psychology. This is necessary, because there is a definite blur between them and a lack of distinction (and even misinformation) in the body of knowledge about the status of coaching as a disciplinary phenomenon (Hamlin et al. 2009). As a prime example, some authors and industry players claim that workplace coaching is a psychological construct and therefore a sub-discipline of psychology (Australian_Psychological_Society 2011). As established in previous chapters, there is an affinity between coaching and psychology to the extent that a focus of coaching is on changing behaviour. However, to claim that coaching is a psychological discipline suggests that psychology has a unique claim on the intellectual origins of coaching is uninformed and ignores the potential contributions of other equally significant disciplines such as management, sociology, education and health. This same argument would apply if similar claims were made that coaching was a sub-discipline of management or education. Rather, as emphasized in the structural analysis, coaching is in fact a cross-discipline phenomenon and no one discipline can claim it as its own.

In practical research terms, because these boundaries and distinctions are not clear, studies may be misconstrued as indigenous to management (or another discipline) even though they are not. This level of in-distinction makes it difficult for management scholars to determine the contributions of management to date and future directions for research – both are problematic for a PhD management study. In this section of the review, it is argued that workplace coaching is
potentially an important management construct for reasons outlined in the following discussion. In doing so, the discussion delineates the composition of a management article/study with a view to clarifying the composition of management as a discipline contributing to the workplace coaching body of knowledge.

2.3.1.1 The blurring of boundaries

There is much research in the body of coaching literature that occurs within a workplace setting, however it cannot be assumed that this research reflects a management perspective. In contrast, researchers of workplace coaching often conduct research in a workplace setting, but approach it from a psychological, educational or other perspective, and in doing so they more or less ignore the management context (Stern 2004; Butterworth et al. 2006; Evers et al. 2006; Jones and Spooner 2006; Orenstein 2006; Bartlett 2007; Wiegand 2007; Ulrich 2008; Gray and Goregaokar 2010). Consequently, they do not investigate or frame their findings in terms of management and its constructs, which might include the organizational agenda, HR practices, and individual/team role performance etc. Because of this, within the confines of this research, such articles are not considered management articles.

For example, a study about the effectiveness of executive coaching as a means of increasing manager self-efficacy is not a management study in its own right, because it is about effectiveness as defined by psychology, not management. Although self-efficacy may be a mediator of role performance, it would be more management specific if the study of effectiveness of coaching was measured in terms of role performance, rather than self-efficacy. These kinds of ‘pseudo-management’ papers often include a one or two line concluding remark about the implications of a study for an organization or individual; however, this does not qualify them as a management article either. This is primarily because these remarks are often incidental rather than a reflection the focus of the paper and as established in the structural analysis, these papers might be classified as single or cross-disciplinary, with management as a sub-ordinate construct. The antithesis would be a study, which investigates the effectiveness of executive coaching in terms of managerial performance or organizational effectiveness. A paper of this kind could be construed as a management study because its focus is on management constructs and in that way clearly extends the management theory of coaching i.e. its main focus is on the contribution of coaching to role performance and the contribution it makes to the success of an organization.
A part of the reason for the blurring of boundaries is that there is little discussion surrounding the distinctiveness of the individual disciplines in the body of knowledge and their potential contributions. In fact, to date there have only been two papers which have sought to distinguish them. The first is a paper by Grant and Cavanagh (2004), which reported on research to that date and identified a number of disciplines that might contribute to the field. The second was a paper by Hamlin et al. (2009), which explored the distinctiveness of the coaching literature from that of organizational development (OD) and human resource development (HRD) literatures. They found that there was much overlap and little difference between them, and on this basis concluded that this presented a challenge for those who support the notion that coaching is distinct profession i.e. it was suggested that coaches could simply be construed as OD or HRD professionals. But, despite the existence of these two papers, there is little in the literature to draw upon to establish the distinctiveness of management from other disciplines in respect of coaching. Consequently, there is no clear framework from which to determine the extent of management’s contribution to the workplace coaching body of knowledge, nor develop a management theory(s) of coaching.

Another potential source of confusion is that the phenomenon of coaching (unlike workplace coaching) is domain unspecific. This means that the study of its constructs i.e. processes, outcomes and dimensions, can occur in a variety of settings without particular reference to its context. This is evidenced in current coaching literature, where coaching is studied in domains such as health, sociology, education and personal life etc. However, this is in contrast to the study of workplace coaching, in which the management context is crucial to understanding it. For example, a study of the processes of coaching can be studied in an educational setting using students as research participants, rather than executives in a workplace setting, yet yield similar findings. In fact, Grant (2002) demonstrates this principle as his study investigated the relative effectiveness of three approaches to coaching i.e. cognitive only, behavioural only, and cognitive/behavioural. The findings demonstrated that students (trainee accountants) who engaged in cognitive/behavioural and behavioural only coaching improved academic performance, compared to students who participated in cognitive only coaching i.e. academic performance declined. However, a similar study (also with a psychological focus), could have easily been replicated in the workplace context using executives instead of trainee accountants and is likely to have made similar findings. As asserted earlier, this is because in this instance, the workplace context is not essential to the study of coaching, and just a convenient context in which to collect data.
This approach to coaching research suits disciplines such as psychology, which as a study of human behaviour are easily able to traverse other contexts and disciplines. However management, as a study of organizations and how they get things done through people, is very much a context in its own right. Therefore, unlike the psychology of coaching, any management theory of workplace coaching must be developed with the workplace domain in mind. This distinction is one, which will help management scholars and guide this study in determining the nature of the contribution a coaching study or article makes to management theory. In this regard, some more concrete guidelines are provided below.

2.3.1.2 The criteria for determining a management article

Based on the arguments above, to be considered a management article or study in the context of this review of workplace coaching literature there are two criteria implied. First, a paper must give credence to the context in which employees and organizations exist. As highlighted in the preceding example, this means that a workplace coaching study must be primarily focused on the links between workplace coaching and the context of an employee’s role and/or to some aspect of the organizational i.e. its goals, processes, culture etc. Secondly, a focused management paper should consider the theoretical context i.e. the sub-disciplines of management, which might include: Accounting and Finance, Economics, Human Resource Management, International Business, Leisure and Tourism, Marketing, Management and Organizational Studies, Operations and Information Management, Politics and Supply Chain Management.

Of course, whilst there are many subjects specific to each of these sub-disciplinary areas within management, there are some, which will be more relevant than others to the development of a management theory of workplace coaching. In particular, as workplace coaching is predominantly focused on employee development (De Haan and Burger 2005; Lindbom 2007; Levin et al. 2008) the following subjects within management sub-disciplines are suggested as most relevant: leadership, human resource management and development, strategic management, organizational behaviour, entrepreneurship and small business management, consulting, knowledge management, business ethics and values, total quality management, employment relations, organizational change and effectiveness, cross cultural management and international business, the politics of management and decision making, and negotiation and advocacy. Whilst this is not an exhaustive list, it does provide a starting point.
So, based on this discussion, two explicit questions guided the determination as to whether or not an article in this thesis in the workplace coaching body of knowledge was indigenous to management:

**Criteria 1**: Does the study give credence to the workplace context by examining constructs in the context of employee roles and/or some aspect of the organization i.e. its goals, processes, and outcomes?

**Criteria 2**: Does the study draw from, or make a contribution to the theory and practice of management?

### 2.3.1.3 Mapping the boundaries of the management coaching literature

As per the statistics calculated earlier in this thesis (see reproduction of Figure 2.1.1a and Table 2.1.1a below) 231 of the 381 articles reviewed in this thesis are considered to be management specific because they satisfy the parameters outlined above. 81 of these papers are located in the consultant literature and 150 within the academic literature. Of these, 156 are considered management only (or single disciplinary) and 75 cross disciplinary. The review reveals that of the 75 cross-disciplinary papers, there were 41 shared with psychology and 34 with the ‘Other’ disciplines. It is interesting to note, that of the consultant management articles, only 10% (8) were cross disciplinary compared to 45% (67) of the 150 academic papers. Based on an earlier assertion that cross-disciplinary studies are important to the integrity and maturity of the coaching field, it appears consultant/practitioner literature so far only makes a small contribution.
Figure 2.1.1a – The composition of the literature review in this thesis.

Table 2.1.1a - Classification of the workplace coaching literature by discipline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISCIPLINE</th>
<th>ACADEMIC</th>
<th>CONSULTANT</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MANAGEMENT</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYCHOLOGY</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*EDUCATION</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*HEALTH</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*SPORT</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*SOCIOLGY</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td><strong>344</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>464</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As per the parameters outlined in criteria 1 and 2, in all cross-disciplinary studies involving management, the context of the workplace was essential to those studies and each draws from or makes a contribution to management theory and practice. However, because they are cross-disciplinary, these papers also may have drawn from or made a contribution to other disciplines as
well. For example, a recent study by Pousa and Mathieu (2010) explores the role of the sales manager as coach in terms of their willingness to coach subordinates. To do this, it utilizes Vroom’s model of motivation, which is essentially a psychological theory. This study features the context of management through its focus on the manager as coach i.e. as a reference to an employee’s role, and therefore has a management orientation as well. On this basis, it is classified as a cross disciplinary study i.e. management/psychology. It should noted, that the fact that this was a cross disciplinary paper in no way diminished the quality of contribution the paper made to management theory, and as discussed later reflects a noticeable trend in management.

In order to provide greater clarity as to the structure of workplace coaching literature relative to the management discipline, this section of the paper continues the work begun in the structural cross-disciplinary analysis. That analysis highlights the fact that each paper will vary in its contribution to the relevant disciplines, and accordingly, some management papers will have a greater orientation toward the management discipline than others. Therefore, on a paper-by-paper basis, a subjective determination was made as to the emphasis of each. The implicit question guiding this task was: does a cross-disciplinary study make more of a contribution to one discipline than another? To illustrate, the cross disciplinary by paper Pousa and Mathieu (2010) was determined to have more of an affinity with the management discipline than psychology, and so, it was coded as ‘management/psychology’ to signify the emphasis. However, if the paper’s emphasis had been more toward the psychology discipline than management, it would have coded ‘psychology/management’.

Once this coding process was completed, it was apparent that of the 75 cross-disciplinary papers which include management as one of the disciplines, 21 of them emphasized management, compared to 54 that emphasized a different discipline i.e. 27 psychology, 14 education, 12 health, and 1 sociology. This is a significant finding because it suggests that the development of the management discipline in the workplace coaching body of knowledge relies heavily on the input of other disciplines in cross-disciplinary research. It is perhaps a signal that the authors of these papers are ‘crossing into management territory’ from other disciplines, rather than the other way around. This is significant for the development of the management body of knowledge given that the cross-disciplinary literature constitutes approximately 30% of the total management coaching literature. This trend will no doubt continue and suggests that the future development of the workplace coaching body of management literature will rely on input from scholars originating in other disciplines. The other implication is that it also emphasizes the importance of management as a
foundation to the coaching body of knowledge, given that it has attracted the attention of non-management scholars who are then making a significant contribution to it.

As per Criteria 2 listed above, in order to determine the nature of the contribution made by a management specific article (single and cross-disciplinary), papers were classified according to whether they emphasized constructs and context related to the broader organization (ORG) or individual employee (IND) or both (IND/ORG). For example, in a study by Arnold et al. (2000), the development of a leadership scale of coaching leader behaviour was explored. Given that this study references a construct specific to an employee’s role, it is therefore coded as (IND). However, in the paper, there is also a discussion about the nature of leadership in terms of competitive global pressures and decentralized leadership structures. As these are constructs more relevant to the broader organization, the paper is also coded (ORG). So, as the paper references both individual and organizational constructs, it is coded (IND/ORG) signifying that it explores constructs at both levels. Of the 231 management articles in the body of knowledge, there were 103 (IND), 56 (ORG) and 51 (IND/ORG). As well as this, there were 21 articles for which only an abstract was able to be located, so, these were unable to be classified for the purposes of this analysis. Figure 2.3.1.a illustrates these proportions.

Figure 2.3.1.a - Emphasis of management context by article in the workplace coaching literature

![Diagram showing emphasis of management context by article in the workplace coaching literature]

I/O = IND/ORG
The breakdown in Figure 2.3.1a indicates that across the body of management literature, there are many more articles that exclusively address IND related constructs than ORG i.e. 103 IND :56 ORG, or an approximate ratio of 1.8 : 1. Further analysis of these figures (see Table 2.3.1a) suggests that this variance can be explained by the greater than proportional concentration of IND only articles in the cross-disciplinary literature than management only literature i.e. cross-disciplinary management articles have a ratio of 40 IND: 14 ORG or 3:1 and management only articles have a ratio of 63 IND / 40 ORG or 1.5:1. This means there are effectively twice as many IND articles for every ORG article in the cross-disciplinary management literature compared to management only. The discrepancy suggests that management only scholars tend to focus more on the study ORG constructs compared to those from other disciplines.

Table 2.3.1a - The emphasis of management literature by discipline in terms of IND/ORG classifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Consult</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Cross Disciplines</th>
<th>Management Only</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Subtotal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND/ORG</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IND</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORG</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>40</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reasons for these significant differences are not clear, however, it may suggest that the cross-disciplines have a greater affinity for IND constructs and/or are less interested in ORG constructs than dedicated management scholars. The former makes sense given that psychology is the prominent partner in cross-disciplinary studies involving management i.e. psychologists tend to focus on study of individual behaviour in the body of knowledge. The conclusion is that there is a greater focus on the study of IND constructs than ORG in the coaching management literature overall. Based on this analysis, it could be argued that of the trends continue, the body of knowledge will be developed into the future with a proportionally greater emphasis on IND constructs than ORG due to the bias of the cross-disciplinary research. If this is true, then the gap may define the future contribution of management scholars to the workplace coaching literature, who if true to their discipline will boost their emphasis on ORG related constructs and phenomena.
2.3.1.4 Conclusion

So far in this review of management and organizational studies, an attempt has been made to establish a foundation for the theoretical contribution of the discipline to the management coaching body of knowledge. This has involved an exploration of its historical origins, the lack of clarity around what constitutes a management article, and the blurring of boundaries defining its contribution. It was concluded that management as a study of organizations and how they get things done through people is very much a context in its own right, and so, any management theory of workplace coaching must be developed with the workplace domain in mind. This has been used as a basis for distinguishing genuine management articles for the purposes of this thesis.

To assist in the way forward, this section also proposed a criterion for determining a management article and in doing so, was able to partially delineate the contribution of management to the body of knowledge, which it was determined consists of some management only as well as cross-disciplinary literature (30%). Because of the significant proportion of cross disciplinary, it was contended that the future development of the workplace coaching body of management literature would rely on input from scholars originating in other disciplines. Further analysis indicated that there were many more articles in the workplace coaching literature that exclusively address IND related constructs than ORG. It was concluded that there is a greater focus on the study of IND constructs in the coaching management literature overall, which was in part explained by the bias that exists in cross-disciplinary research toward the delineation of IND constructs. This gap may define the future contribution of management scholars to the workplace coaching literature. The attention of the review now turns to delineating the purposes and devices of coaching in management by elaborating conceptually on the nature of the IND and ORG classifications, by exploring the need for workplace coaching at each of these levels, and also reviewing the body of concepts found in the literature.

2.3.2 The need for coaching in the workplace

As has been established so far in this section of the thesis, the management contribution to coaching literature is defined by an understanding of the individual and organizational levels of analysis. At the heart of this understanding are the inherent needs of employees and organizations with respect to coaching. In terms of this PhD study, of particular interest to this study then is why employees and organizations might choose to engage or participate in workplace coaching as this
sheds some light on the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. To this end, the following section explores the need for coaching from both organizational and individual perspectives.

2.3.2.1 Employee interest in workplace coaching

Workplace coaching from a management perspective can be better understood by exploring the needs of individual employees receiving coaching. There are a number of reasons that they may need coaching, which can be gleaned from literature. But the main common need seems to relate to the differentiated learning needs that arise for employees at various stages in their work-life, which are attributed to the kinds of work roles they are engaged in. Essentially, employees need help to be able to adjust to the changing constraints and demands of their job and to this end coaching can help provide the resources needed to help them achieve this through the facilitation of learning and development strategies (Koloroutis 2008; Rock and Donde 2008a). The literature suggests that their needs may vary, but they tend to be psychological or emotional in nature.

For instance, as leaders are promoted within an organization there is a greater need to emphasize behavioural development rather than on functional knowledge of a role, and to develop this may require cognitive support. This is evidenced at senior management level in particular where leaders have an increased need for someone to help them interpret and manage how they are viewed in their role by various stakeholders, including superiors, direct reports, investors etc (Yu 2007). The literature suggests that for this purpose feedback is required in order to help leaders change their mental models (Berg and Karlsen 2007). But because this is often a confronting process it requires objectivity, so it is suggested that this information is best delivered from someone other than their colleagues, peers or superiors i.e. a coach (Ponte et al. 2006).

Employee needs may also be more emotional in nature, and therefore require emotional support. For example, employees may engage a coach as a confidant to assist them in thinking and decision making about complex issues, for example, interpersonal issues (Paschke 2007). This kind of emotional support may be needed because of the isolation that they experience due to their work culture and the nature of their work role. The literature suggests that this as a common experience for leaders who report they often feel isolated and lonely. Reports are consistent across a range of contexts, including education, healthcare and senior management, (O'Connor and Ertmer 2006; Wright 2007).
These kinds of work-related issues mean that employees often need a high level of learning support spanning cognitive and emotional domains to help them be successful at different stages of their careers. There is however, a strong sense in literature that this kind of support is lacking in the workplace, despite the ever-increasing learning needs of workers (Parker et al. 2008; Truijen and Woerkom 2008).

As well cognitive and emotional support coaching can be more aspirational in nature, and therefore related to the achievement of employee goals. Their goals may relate to career development (Novak 2006; Greene et al. 2010), job/person fit (Paschke 2007) and personal wellbeing (McNally and Lukens 2006). Personal wellness in particular is a relevant and important issue to many employees, because of the effect of stress on health and personal lives caused by working long hours (Wright 2007). Other more specific goals relate to improved decision making, running effective meetings, handling conflict, being a better manager or coach (Grant 2007), controlling emotions (Wright 2007) and developing critical skills (Ladyshewsky 2006). Also, an exploratory study by Blackman (2006) identified the personal and professional goals of industry professionals who had recently undergone or were undergoing coaching. The study revealed the top 5 personal goals to be: personal development, acquisition of knowledge, to develop skills, learn new techniques and identify blind spots and weaknesses. The top 5 professional goals were to gain a promotion, add value, improve role performance, and to be more effective.

2.3.2.2 Organizational interest in workplace coaching

Like their employees, organizations have a range of needs with respect to coaching, which incorporate both instrumental and humanistic domains, and can include improving retention, succession planning, overcoming role constraints, leadership development, developing thinking capital, and increasing pedagogical effectiveness. There is growing recognition in organizations of the need to cater for the human element of work; coaching is viewed by some as a key to achieving this. Catering for the human element means catering for professional and personal needs as opposed to simply their technical needs (Berg and Karlsen 2007). In addition to the personal and professional needs of individuals discussed in the last section, there are many examples cited in the literature, which include emotions and aspirations (Bachkrova and Cox 2007), family needs (Quick and Macik-Frey 2004) work-life balance (McCarthy 2007) and occupational health and safety (Okie 2007). It is thought that the extent to which coaching will be successful in this will depend the alignment of these needs with organizational agenda (Kahn 2012).
It is suggested that there are many reported benefits for organizations associated with accommodating these needs. For example, there is an increasing recognition of the value of emotionality in the workplace in its effects on motivation, perception and attitudes (Bachkirova and Cox 2007). Similarly, addressing the health needs of employees with multiple high risk factors is a strategy, which might reduce costs, through its effects on absenteeism and productivity (Okie 2007). So, by catering for individual employee needs using coaching, there are benefits to the organization.

One of the reasons that organizations have a need for coaching is to increase the effectiveness of their professional development programs. Literature suggests that effective development programs tend to decrease turnover and reduce costs associated with recruitment, and it is reported that coaching can assist organizations to provide a positive return on investment within as little as two years of starting a program existence (McNally and Lukens 2006; Paschke 2007). There is also a discussion in literature about what is needed to make professional development practices effective and suggestions that methods like coaching and mentoring embody some of the qualities needed such as accountability and flexibility to accommodate continuous learning (O’Connor and Ertmer 2006). With respect to higher education, Ladyshewsky (2006:71) notes that highly structured traditional forms of workplace learning are not delivering the results that employers require, and because of this there is a need for a much deeper connection with knowledge, skill and practice.

“….a much deeper connection with knowledge, skill and practice [is required]…..if workers are to successfully transfer their learning to the work context. Academic programs must provide well-designed, real-life, problem-based learning opportunities for their students. In doing so, Universities ensure that their learners deeply connect with the knowledge, skills and attitudes of management”.

To this end, Ladyshewsky explores peer coaching as a means of enhancing critical thinking in postgraduate business education and a way of bridging some of the shortfall. These sentiments are echoed by Knight (2009) who suggests that traditional training programs are not useful because there is no follow-up or accountability to assist teachers to translate research into practice, and thereby ensure successful transfer.

Also, in the context of discussion about the program effectiveness there is concern that professional development programs should have a direct link to a business outcome to be useful from an organizational perspective (Phillips 2007; De Meusea, Daia and Leeb 2009). It is thought that this is particularly important in an environment of increasing change and transformation in
which the need to be competitive and maintain their impact is greater than ever (Locke 2008). There are many examples cited in literature, which suggest that the effectiveness of these education programs is increased through coaching because it helps organizations to more effectively address real world industry related issues. For example, in the healthcare field, it is suggested that one of the significant challenges is to equip junior doctors to cope with the increasing complexity of medical practice. Senior doctors need to become educators for this to occur, but they often lack the skills for this role. Because they are often very head strong it is difficult to teach them the new skills that they need to be effective educators (Truijen and Woerkom 2008); but teaching them to become coaches is seen as a possible solution to this.

Similarly, in the project management field a modern day project manager must deal with a wide range of complex and diverse issues, which span technical as well as social domains in order to manage a project to completion. Berg and Karlsen (2007) suggest that the success of a project is increasingly a function of the ability of a manager to manage these domains by adopting a coaching approach. The levels of stress associated with management roles and its effects on personal life are also another challenge for the project management industry in attracting younger generations (Styhre and Josephson 2007). As coaching is thought to help managers reduce levels of stress, it may provide some solutions to these problems (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005a; Berriman 2007; Wright 2007).

Finally, in the education industry, coaching is viewed as a means of addressing the challenge to improve student literacy. It is suggested that coaching can help improve these and other outcomes by helping teachers to become more reflective and adopt an inquiry-based approach to teaching and build communities of support (Bransfield et al. 2007). There are of course more generic challenges common to many industries, which coaching can help to overcome, including succession planning and retention (McNally and Lukens 2006; Levin et al. 2008). These will be discussed in the next section of the review.

2.3.3 Management theory and coaching

In the previous section of this review of management coaching literature, it was established that a significant portion of the articles in coaching management literature focus to some degree on IND or ORG constructs or both. The purpose of this next section is to further explore these issues at a deeper level. A general observation of this review about the workplace coaching literature is that
there have been a number of constructs identified in literature, but they have not been delineated in significant detail. This is despite some suggestion in the literature that it is maturing, although it appears that there is still a very long path ahead to establish management-coaching theory. A prime example of this concerns theories of Human Resource Development, which have a natural affinity with the workplace coaching literature. There is some exploration of relevant topics including mentoring, individualizing development, and implementation of coaching, however, there is little detail about key theories such as coaching design, transfer of training and evaluation of training. Similar observations could be made about the integration of other areas, such as leadership and organization change.

To help in the clarification of those topics, which have been studied in management, a summary of the major topics and sub-topics by author and keyword are listed in Appendix A, which is entitled ‘Management topics explored in the body of knowledge by keyword’. The identification of these topics alone provides broad clarity as to the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. Also included in this section is Figure 2.3.3a, which is a frequency distribution of management topics to help highlight the extent to which they are studied in the literature. This distribution provides some insight into the extent to which these purposes and/or devices have been integrated into the body of knowledge across a range of topics.
2.3.4 Conclusion

This review of coaching in management began with an exploration of the historical origins of coaching in management in which it was established that there is a long association. This implies that coaching performs a useful purpose within a management context. The review then explored the idea that there was a need to distinguish management as a discipline in the coaching body of knowledge to clarify its contribution and to guide its future development. This was deemed necessary because despite the reported historical association between management and coaching in the literature, there is virtually no discussion of a ‘management coaching literature’. Similarly, there is a blurring of the boundaries, which have meant that the literature is indistinct. Consequently, as a starting point, it was suggested that any management theory of workplace coaching must be specific to the workplace domain. It was established that the incorporation of the workplace context as a backdrop for coaching in the management discipline separates it from other disciplines like psychology, which are not as context specific.
From the perspective of this study, these findings have broad implications for the likely purposes and devices of workplace coaching because they reflect the workplace context. On this basis, a criterion was formulated to help identify management coaching studies and articles in the body of knowledge, and to facilitate the process two specific questions were posed:

1. Does the study give credence to the workplace context by examining constructs in the context of employee roles and/or some aspect of the organization i.e. its goals, processes, and outcomes?
2. Does the study draw theoretically/conceptually from or make a contribution to the management discipline?

From the resulting query, 231 management articles were identified (as per in section 1) of this literature review. Further analysis was conducted to determine the emphasis of management literature in terms of whether they emphasized individual or organizational constructs or both i.e. IND/ORG classifications. In general terms, there are almost twice as many IND focused papers compared to ORG. Similarly, it was determined that cross-disciplinary management papers have a greater affinity for IND constructs than management only papers i.e. 3:1 compared to 2:1. On this basis it was argued that based on extrapolation, if current trends continue the body of knowledge will be developed with a proportionally greater emphasis on IND constructs than ORG and this may define both the future contribution of the management scholars to the workplace coaching literature as well as potential gaps. This has particular relevance for this study, which seeks to further explore not only IND purposes and devices, but to emphasize ORG ones.

To elaborate, the need for coaching from a management perspective was delineated in conceptual terms, specifically, exploring individual and organizational perspectives with a view to better understanding the needs of individual employees receiving the coaching and organizations that commission it. From these needs, the purposes and devices of workplace coaching can be implied. For example, for individual employees it was determined that the main reason for coaching was to address the differentiated learning needs that they have at various stages in their work-life and kinds of work roles they are engaged in. Coaching was viewed as a means of facilitating this learning to help overcome the constraints and adapt to the demands of their job. For organizations, it was determined that they have a range of needs with respect to coaching that are both
instrumental and humanistic in nature and these include: improving retention rates, succession planning, overcoming role constraints, leadership development, developing thinking capital, and increasing andragogical effectiveness. The division of needs suggest that there are individual and organizational level purposes of workplace coaching as well as devices supporting them. Consequently, any discussion of the purposes and devices of coaching should account for this.

Finally, to establish the foundation management theories and constructs, which make up the management coaching body of knowledge, the review delineated a broad range of management topics (and their sub-topics) in it to date. For instance, it was determined that there were a range of featured topics explored in the literature, which included coaching roles, relationships, effectiveness, organizational change and coaching programs. Less studied topics include diversity, disability, the individual, internal coaching, implementation, industry knowledge, mentoring, peers, satisfaction, small business, and stress. The small numbers associated in each section of this taxonomy suggests there is still much more research to be done to delineate the management coaching body of knowledge and is not as mature as is claimed by some authors.

In terms of their significance to this PhD study, whilst these topics do not specifically explain the purposes or devices of workplace coaching, they do provide some broad clues as to the purposes of workplace coaching within a management context and as they concern both individuals and organizations. It also highlights the varying extent to which management topics have been explored, which has direct implications for the ability to determine the significance of the findings of this doctoral study. To this end, this review should provide a good basis for distinguishing it as a management study, which is something that has been lacking in the management coaching literature. A greater level of detail is explored in the next section of this review, which seeks to delineate the purposes and devices of workplace coaching based on the practical scenarios presented in the literature.

2.4 CONCLUSION

At the outset of the first chapter of this literature review, workplace coaching was framed as a popular learning and development device because of its ability to help human resource managers deliver on their mandate, which is to increase the contribution of its workforce to organizational prosperity. The review explored the vast body of relevant academic and practitioner literature
concerning the purposes and devices of workplace coaching in management, which was found to include approximately 400 articles, books and reports.

The literature review was divided into two chapters, with the first being this chapter 2, which focused on mapping the coaching disciplines. The first section was an analysis of the structure of the workplace coaching literature. The initial section of the literature review considered the structural boundaries of the workplace coaching body of knowledge, which was achieved by mapping the composition and intersection of the disciplines. The main findings suggest that the body is comprised of 381 academic and consultant papers, with the latter making a significant conceptual albeit less rigorous contribution. The inclusion of consultant coaching articles in this review was defended because of the affinity that practice has with management as an applied discipline. It was also found that the literature is comprised of a vast number of single disciplinary articles, and much less cross-disciplinary research. In the cross-disciplinary analysis, it was revealed that there is little diversity in this kind of research, given that most is the intersection of psychology and management. Within these, management provides little more than context for these cross-disciplinary studies. Therefore, it was concluded that despite claims by some authors that the body of knowledge is ‘maturing’, it is clearly not mature enough yet from a cross-disciplinary perspective. In the context of this PhD, the lack of cross-disciplinary research is recognized as limiting factor in understanding the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. Consequently, it was thought that the literature review should seek to incorporate an understanding of coaching from a range of disciplines, not just management.

The second section was a theoretical exploration of the workplace coaching disciplines. It explored the non-management theoretical origins of workplace coaching as a way of positioning this study theoretically relative to the other disciplines. The main non-management disciplines reviewed include psychology, education, health, sociology and sport. It served to highlight the theoretical and philosophical perspectives of each, which might inform an understanding of the purposes, devices or mechanisms of workplace coaching. For instance, the review of the Psychology suggests that it has a role to play in the development of coaching theory in terms of understanding and influencing human behaviour, and its purposes and devices revolve around the regulation of it. There is some doubt though as to the validity of therapeutic approaches when applied to coaching. The application of therapeutic theories predispose coaching’s purposes toward the influence of the following: the subconscious mind to change a person’s behaviour, the elimination of negative thinking, exploring and resolving ambivalence, stimulating cognitive and
behavioural processes, and mediating irrational beliefs to change the interpretation of events and behaviour. Recognition of the limitations of therapeutic approaches has lead to the development of coaching and positive psychology, which has as its purpose optimal human functioning by enhancing well being, behaviour and performance in personal life and work. It was noted that this would be a topic of great interest to management scholars, who are pre-occupied with improving the performance oriented behaviour for the benefit of organizations and for this reason management could conceivably share purposes and devices with coaching psychologists. But, a key difference from a management perspective is that for psychologists, the behaviour change is an end unto itself, whereas in management, it is a means to optimal organizational functioning.

The review also suggests that whilst there is some similarity between sports coaching and workplace coaching, their skill sets and models for practice seem to be substantially different, and caution must be applied in drawing from studies conducted in the sports arena to develop the workplace arena. Similarly, the review of the education discipline suggests that is very much in its infancy with respect to its exploration of coaching. It performs a valuable function in developing frameworks for best education practice and has a clear role in guiding andragogical practice and competency frameworks upon which coaching and learning outcomes can be developed. Accordingly, the purposes and devices of coaching might relate to the coaching design i.e. coach’ competency to design, deliver, evaluate and improve coaching programs and integrity and efficacy of coachee’ learning outcomes.

A small number of papers address the study of workplace coaching in the context of the healthcare setting. The majority of these are cross-disciplinary articles are paired with the management. These address the management context within healthcare and explore them from both an individual and organizational perspective. Clearly, a key purpose of coaching from this perspective relates to the health and well being of a populous, whether that be individuals, organizations or broader societies. Finally, the study of sociology is relatively new and unexplored in coaching literature. Given its ‘global appeal’ and the rise of international business, it is expected to gain more attention in the literature over-time. Its most obvious purpose and device concerns the development of effective culture, which is particularly important from a management perspective.

The third section was a continuation of the first two, but with a more focused lens on management. It began by revisiting and expanding on the analysis of the structure of the management coaching literature and then to delineate the broader management concepts. It was
established that there is a long association, which it was thought implied that coaching performs a useful purpose within a management context. But, because there is virtually no discussion of a ‘management coaching literature’ there was a need to distinguish management as a discipline in the coaching body of knowledge to clarify its contribution and to guide its future development. As a starting point, it was suggested that any management theory of workplace coaching must be specific to the workplace domain. It was established that the incorporation of the workplace context as a backdrop for coaching in the management discipline separates it from other disciplines like psychology, which are not as context specific. A criterion was formulated to help identify management coaching studies/articles in the body of knowledge and to facilitate the process two specific questions were posed to guide the identification and classification of appropriate articles for review. 231 management articles were identified. Further analysis was conducted to determine the emphasis of management literature. It was determined that there are almost twice as many IND focused papers compared to ORG and that cross-disciplinary management papers have a greater affinity for IND constructs than management only papers by a ratio of 3:1 compared to 2:1. This had particular relevance for this study, which seeks to further explore not only IND purposes and devices, but also emphasizes ORG ones.

The need for coaching from a management perspective was delineated in conceptual terms, and explored from both individual and organizational perspectives. From this, the purposes and devices of workplace coaching were implied. For example, for individual employees it was determined that the main reason for coaching was to address the differentiated learning needs that they have at various stages in their work-life and kinds of work roles they are engaged in. Coaching was viewed as a means of facilitating this learning to help overcome the constraints and adapt to the demands of their job. For organizations, it was determined that they have a range of needs with respect to coaching that are both instrumental and humanistic in nature and these include: improving retention rates, succession planning, overcoming role constraints, leadership development, developing thinking capital, and increasing andragogical effectiveness. It was concluded that any discussion of the purposes and devices of coaching should account for individual and organizational level purposes of workplace coaching as well as devices supporting them. To establish the foundation management theories and constructs, which make up the management coaching body of knowledge, the review delineated a broad range of management topics (and their sub-topics) to date. It was argued that whilst these topics do not specifically explain the purposes or devices of workplace coaching, they do provide some broad clues as to the purposes of workplace coaching within a management context and as they concern both individuals
and organizations. It was concluded that the small numbers associated in each section of this taxonomy suggests there is still much more research to be done to delineate the management coaching body of knowledge and is not as mature as is claimed by some authors. The next chapter is a continuation of this literature review, and explores the practical purposes and devices of workplace coaching.
CHAPTER 3
LITERATURE REVIEW: PURPOSES AND DEVICES OF COACHING IN PRACTICE

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the literature review explores some of the major debates and issues in the coaching literature. An understanding of these is useful to advance of the coaching body of knowledge and also for practice, as it inevitably focuses on problems that coaches must overcome to satisfy the change agenda. There are a number of themes explored in this section of the review, including quick-fixes, resistance, dichotomies, perceptions, behaviour, transfer of learning, qualifications and continuing professional development (CPD), stress and time. Given that it focuses on issues and problems, this section of the review considers the complexity of real-world scenarios that may occur in the management sphere, and in that way informs the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. This practical focus is consistent with the applied nature of workplace coaching in management, which was established in earlier sections of the literature review. The chapter is divided into three sections: Definitions, People and Design. To preface the conceptual review, the coaching construct is introduced and to define terms. Individual issues are reviewed, and then the implications for the purposes and devices of workplace coaching are discussed at the end in the conclusion.

3.1 DEFINITIONS

3.1.1 Defining the workplace-coaching construct

An initial task of this review is to define workplace coaching, which provides an important first step in mapping the conceptual boundaries for the construct. Early in the review process, it became clear that coaching is a complex phenomenon - at its core, it is a complex and multi-dimensional construct, which cannot be fully conceptualized easily in a concise definition as so many authors have attempted to do. On this basis, it was decided that simply rehashing the existing definitions put forward by researchers would not be adequate for the task. Instead, the review goes beyond this, and captures definitions according to a number of different dimensions present in the literature including: who is doing the coaching, how many participants, the content of the coaching,
what coaching is not, the philosophy underpinning it, and common characteristics of coaching. Whilst it is a certainty that other dimensions exist by which coaching could be defined, those presented here seemed to be most obvious in the literature. A summary of these dimensions is presented in Table 3.1.1, and these are elaborated in the following paragraphs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The Coach/Coachee</td>
<td>Who is doing the coaching e.g. peer or manager or professional; internal v external coach</td>
<td>(McNally and Lukens 2006; Berg and Karlsen 2007; Rock and Donde 2008a; Rock and Donde 2008b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Based on who receives it e.g. teacher, sales person, nurse.</td>
<td>(Garmston 1987; London 2003; Ponte, Gross et al. 2006; Paschke 2007; Yukl 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many participants are in receipt of the coaching i.e. one-to one or group.</td>
<td>(Hackman and Wageman 2005; Ket De Vries 2005; Clutterbuck 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Coaching Content</td>
<td>Based on the content of the coaching e.g. health, awareness, learning and development</td>
<td>(Garmston 1992; De Haan and Burger 2005; Ladyshewsky 2006; Lipscomb 2006; Pemberton 2006; Bredin and Söderlund 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Coaching’s Distinctiveness</td>
<td>Based on what coaching is not e.g. mentoring, training</td>
<td>(Grant and Cavanagh 2004; Strong and Baron 2004; Styhre and Josephson 2007; Truijen and Woerkom 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Coaching Philosophy</td>
<td>Based on the philosophy underpinning it i.e. cognitive, behavioural, humanistic</td>
<td>(Berg and Karlsen 2007)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.1.2 Dimension 1: Who Is Doing The Coaching?

As alluded to in the preface of this thesis, the term ‘workplace coach’ is a term used to describe a coach as someone who is a professional consultant; or, someone who is commissioned by an organization for a defined period of time to carry out coaching services for them i.e. an external coach. It would be fair to say that the coach as a professional consultant attracts a lion’s share of the attention in the literature, but this is changing - in the last few years, the literature has also begun to investigate coaching as an activity that can be delivered by others as well, including peers and managers. In this sense, workplace coaching can be defined by dimension 1: who is doing the coaching. This dimension encompasses concepts such as internal and external coaching,
peer coaching, as well as the manager as the coach.

3.1.2.1 Internal v External Coaching

Coaching can be defined in terms of the relationship between the coach and the organization to whom they are contracted i.e. a coach may be directly employed as an internal coach; or they may be commissioned by the organization as an external coach. Discussions about the differences between these two conceptualizations in the literature seem to centre on the appropriateness of the internal and external coaching; as well as the advantages and disadvantages of each in terms of accessibility, training, leverage and cost, cultural fit, objectivity, bias and trust, experience and focus.

External coaching has by far been the most prominent use of coaching and the earlier workplace coaching literature, which is focused mainly on the executive coaching phenomenon as a form of consultative behaviour. In this, manifestation, the executive coach is contracted by an organization on a short-medium term basis to coach senior managers (Schein 1980; Diedrich 1996; Kilburg 1997; Schnell 2005; Berman and Bradt 2006; Sperry 2008; Freedman and Perry 2010), which requires them to perform at both an individual and strategic level of organization. For instance, at an organizational level, they are a consultant who helps the client to problem solve, but leave the responsibility for the implementation of the plan with the client (Witherspoon and White 1996). They also work with organizations to help them become a learning entity (Tobias 1996; Ellinger, Yang et al. 2002; Freedman and Perry 2010) and provide consultation support for the planning effort (Schnell 2005).

However, this perspective is not entirely consistent with representations of coaching practice in the literature, which suggests that the coach actually does help to implement the plan. In fact, the literature suggests that the coach is more or less at the centre of the development effort, working with the key stakeholders such as coachee, their immediate supervisors and peers to achieve organization and individual objectives. For example, at an individual level, they act as a personal trainer who helps the coachee to: be consistent, improve confidence in self-managing weaknesses (Tobias 1996), and evaluate problems, risks and consequences (Berman and Bradt 2006). So, in this sense, the executive coach is a very hands-on form of consulting, if it can indeed be considered that way at all.
But despite its popularity, there appear to be a number of disadvantages of external coaching compared to internal coaching. For instance, in a survey of 55 large organizations, Rock found 100 percent of them were utilizing external coaches rather than internal ones, and that the coaching was only accessible to an elite group of employees i.e. approximately 1%. This is despite evidence that a high proportion of manager believe that coaching should be available to all employees regardless of seniority (Lloyds 2002). There are a number of possible explanations for this apparent contradiction. For example, it has been suggested that the discrepancy might exist because despite wanting coaching for all of their employees, HR executives assume that coaches have to be external to be effective. Another related reason is that it may be difficult to source qualified external coaches, with both accreditation and skills to be effective. As Rock points out, internal coaching is a potential solution for managers wanting to making coaching more ‘accessible’, but this is in turn dependent on the ability of an organization to train someone for the role (McNally and Lukens 2006; Rock and Donde 2008a).

The literature suggests that there may also be greater leverage for an organization that uses internal rather than internal coaching and this may be attributed to two factors. The first is that it may cost up to 90% less to implement internal coaching (Berg and Karlsen 2007; Rock and Donde 2008a). According to Rock etal., if costed out on a per coachee basis, the difference in cost between internal and external coaching is $7,000 versus $25,000 - so, a company with a budget of $600,000 to spend on internal coaching could commission coaching for 100 coachees for a total of 1000 hours. This is compared to an external coach, who could coach 40 senior leaders for a total of 480 hours.

Rock also suggests that this increased leverage could have vastly different outcomes in terms of impact. For example, the lesser number of coaches serviced by an external coach would mean that a smaller number of goals could be worked on compared to an internal coach i.e. 120 v 300, and, only 400 v 2000 direct reports would be impacted indirectly through the coaching. Finally, because the internal coaching would occur at multiple levels of the organization i.e. not just at senior levels, there would be an proportionate increase in retention and engagement, as well as increased levels of productivity because of its flow on effects to lower levels.

Other authors have also put forward arguments supporting the virtues of internal coaching over external. For instance, it has been argued that an internal coach may be a better cultural fit for an organization than an external one. The logic for this is that it is thought that an internal coach
may have an intimate knowledge about their organizations culture, policies and have greater
credibility with employees, whom they already know (McNally and Lukens 2006). Cultural fit
may be immediate (if the internal coach is sourced from within the organization) or developed
over time (if sourced from outside the organization). Conversely, it is argued that it would be
difficult for an external coach to achieve a comparable level of cultural fit on the basis that they
are not a member of the organization (Berg and Karlsen 2007).

To counter this though, there is some thought that an external coach may be perceived to be
more objective and unbiased than internal ones and result in better coaching outcomes. According
to McNally et al (2006), the extent to which this applies or not, is mediated by three factors for an
internal coach: the quality of the coach/coachee relationship; the other roles and involvements
that that the coach may have in the organization; and, whether the latter creates a conflict of
interest which undermines perceived objectivity. Clearly, external coaches are not going to be as
affected given their consultant status. But, it could be an issue for an internal coach, whose status
as an employee in an organization may affect their ability to perform their role. Nevertheless,
given the potential benefits of internal coaching compared to external, further clarification of the
pros and cons of internal coaching versus external in terms of cost and potential outcomes is
warranted. Currently, this is a gap in the literature that deserves to be explored.

3.1.2.2 Peer Coaching

Like internal and external coaching, peer coaching is another manifestation defined by who
is doing the coaching. It is a form of reciprocal coaching conducted between equals for mutual
benefit. Peers may be considered equal on the basis of one or more factors, including: nature or
type of work role, position in the leadership hierarchy, or profession or collegiality. (Parker, Hall
et al. 2008), citing the work of Rogers (1973) described it as a helping relationship based on
qualities such as unconditional positive regard, authenticity, and mutual trust, which has as its
premise “the intent of promoting growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, improved
coping life of the other..” (Rogers, 1973: 223). It is useful for refining practice, deepening
collegial relationships, and stimulating dialogue (Garmston 1987; Truijen and Woerkom 2008).
Throughout the peer coaching process, participants are able to assist one another in reflection on
their own practice (Vacilotto and Cummings 2007). It can be done in pairs or teams (Ladyshewsky
2006).
One of the defining features or contributions of peer coaching is its inherent mutuality and reciprocity, which distinguishes it from other forms of coaching and hierarchical development relationships e.g. mentoring, where both participants (the mentor and mentee) are learners, as opposed to one of the parties being the expert and the other a learner (Vacilotto and Cummings 2007). However, the equality in the relationship does not imply equity in terms of contribution, because whilst participants are peers, one of them may be more experienced or knowledgeable than the other about coaching or the subject matter, and so that person may be able to contribute more (Truijen and Woerkom 2008).

3.1.2.3 Manager as Coach

The final manifestation of coaching, defined by ‘who is doing the coaching’, is the manager as coach. In this role, the manager performs key coaching functions within their role as employee developer (Hotek 2002), strategic learning manager (Larsen 1997) and learning champion (Ellinger and Keller 2003). In this role, the manager gives on-going feedback to develop insights (Witherspoon and White 1996; Luthans and Peterson 2003); implements assessments (Tobias 1996; Clegg, Rhodes et al. 2005); and provide advice and suggestions (Kilburg 1997). The objective of this approach is to guide and inspire subordinates and help them to address individual challenges (Heslin, Vandewalle et al. 2006). A more comprehensive review of this construct will be conducted later in this thesis. (see Chapter 3)

3.1.3 Dimension 2: Who is receiving the coaching?

For the purposes of this review, coaching can also be defined in the literature in terms of ‘who is receiving the coaching’, which may include peers, executives, and other employees, teachers, nurses etc. As discussed in the previous section, a peer can both give and receive coaching, but, as it has already been discussed in the previous section, it will not be discussed again. Broadly, the literature frames coaching as something an employee receives from coaches who are managers, professional consultants and dedicated internal coaches. An example of this would be sales coaching, which derives its name as an activity designed to help sales people improve performance. It is defined as “…a sequence of conversations and activities that provide ongoing feedback and encouragement to improve a salesperson's performance…” (Good 1993; Brocato 2003):18. There are also a number of papers devoted to the study of teacher coaching within an educational/school environment. In this context, coaching is used to help teachers focus on a unique set of issues not found in traditional workplaces (Garmston 1987; Perry 2006; Knight 2007). There
is also a subset of papers devoted to the coaching of nurses and nurse managers (Ponte, Gross et al. 2006; Paschke 2007; Clemmensen 2008; Koloroutis 2008; Tyra 2008), in which a coaching supervisor acts as a support mechanism, psychological safety net and resource for nurses regarding practical/interpersonal issues (Paschke 2007).

In addition to this, it would be remiss not to mention executive or managerial coaching in this section of the thesis, because it is a prominent feature in the literature as a form of ‘employee coaching (Anderson 2002; McNally and Lukens 2006; Benavides 2007). In fact, the body of knowledge contains over 100 articles specific to executive coaching or leadership coaching, which suggests that executives are an important recipient of workplace coaching. It is defined as “…an experiential, individualized, leadership development process that builds a leader’s capability to achieve short and long-term organizational goals” (Stern 2004), pg 154. There are a number of reasons that executives need coaching, which include: managing stress (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005; Berriman 2007); because it is lonely at the top and they need a sounding board; support in challenging roles (Stevens 2005); dealing with interpersonal issues and relationships (Quick and Macik-Frey 2004).

A final manifestation of workplace coaching defined by ‘who is receiving the coaching’ involves business coaching for entrepreneurs and small/family business owners. Because of the ‘incestuous’ nature of the family/small business environment i.e. the founder, the successor, the business, and the family culture are often interwoven, there are some of the unique issues (Alstrup 2000). Some of these issues include: balancing flexibility with the need for ongoing learning (Alstrup 2000); the need for more sophisticated approaches than training to achieve behavioural changes in small business managers (Wright and Tao 2001); and addressing succession issues (Levin, Bozer et al. 2008).

The existence of these subsets of coaching, suggest that coaching is a means of tailoring support for employees within the parameters of their own unique context and role, whether they be a nurse, executive, teacher, business owner or entrepreneur. This is an acknowledged strength of coaching (Peterson 1993; Daehler-Miller, Moeller et al. 2008).
3.1.4 Dimension 3: How Many Participants are in Receipt of the Coaching?

Coaching can also be defined by the number of participants who are in receipt of the coaching i.e. individual or group coaching. The predominant focus of the literature is on coaching individuals rather than groups, so it tends to be defined in these terms as outlined in Table 3.1.4. There are few examples of group or team coaching found in literature (Hackman and Wageman 2005; Ket De Vries 2005; McNally and Lukens 2006; Clutterbuck 2007; David 2007; Brown and Grant 2010), but as the name implies, group or team coaching can refer to coaching groups of people in the workplace in the same time and place; although, it is more likely to refer to the coaching of multiple individuals from the same team to improve team performance, but not usually at the same time or place.

Table 3.1.4 – Definitions of ‘One-to-One’ Coaching Used In Literature to Conceptualize the Coaching Construct.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Author</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“…a one-on-one relationship between a professional coach and an executive/family member (coachee) in a family business environment for the purposes of enhancing the coachee's behavioural change through self-awareness and learning, and ultimately for enhancing individual, organizational, and family performance…”</td>
<td>(Levin, Bozer et al. 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…a one-to-one approach to facilitate individual learning and behavioural change…”</td>
<td>(Lindbom 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“…a method of work-related learning which relies primarily on one-to-one conversations…”</td>
<td>(De Haan and Burger 2005)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.5 Dimension 4: What is the Content of the Coaching?

Coaching can be defined by its content and/or outcomes. For instance, (Ladyshewsky 2006) suggests a number of different types of coaching that are defined by its content/outcomes including technical, challenge, and cognitive coaching. (Knight 2007; Knight 2009) suggests instructional and literacy coaching, and other authors write about health, competence, awareness and performance coaching. It is evident that there are a plethora of labels used to describe coaching in terms of content and outcomes, which suggests that there is no universal consensus or convention used to categorize the different types of coaching with respect to content. The various types of coaching as listed by authors (in terms of content or outcomes) are listed below in Table 3.1.5.
Table 3.1.5 – Definitions of coaching based on its content.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Coaching</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Author</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health Coaching</td>
<td>Is about giving people the information they need to make informed decisions about how to lead healthful lives. This may or may not be in the context of workplace wellness programs.</td>
<td>(Butterworth, Linden et al. 2006; Lipscomb 2006; Daehler-Miller, Moeller et al. 2008).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence or Skills Coaching</td>
<td>Competence coaches are a kind of internal coach who focuses developing organizational competencies. They are the HR department’s ‘extended arm’, focusing on soft issues, and ensuring that there is an availability of appropriate resources to support the processes that occur within the organization. For example, competence mapping, development, tools and procedures, and planning and application.</td>
<td>(Minor 1995; Bredin and Söderlund 2007: 823; Styhre and Josephson 2007).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness Coaching</td>
<td>Awareness coaching is defined as two people engaged together in raising the awareness of one of them, and their ability to act</td>
<td>(Wohlers and London 1989; Pemberton 2006; Levin, Bozer et al. 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and Development Coaching</td>
<td>Coaching has been defined in terms of learning and development. It is defined by De Haan et al. (2005: 823) as “the facilitation of learning and development with the purpose of improving performance and enhancing effective action, goal achievement and personal satisfaction”.</td>
<td>(Maurer, Mitchell et al. 2002; Sherman 2007; Greene, Stockard et al. 2010; Scriffignano (2011).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Coaching</td>
<td>Cognitive coaching focuses on the cognitive aspects of an employee’s work life i.e. the development of their mind as a central focus of an organization’s staff development program.</td>
<td>(Garmston 1992; Grant 2001; Green, Oades et al. 2006).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.6 Dimension 5: What Coaching Is Not?

Coaching can also be understood in terms of what it is not. This is important because, sometimes it is confused with other related constructs including mentoring, performance management, counselling, training etc. Based on the literature, the following sub-section clarifies what coaching is not with the purpose of assisting in the process of helping to define what it is.

3.1.6.1 Coaching Is Not Performance Management

Coaching is often construed as a performance management tool or an evaluation tool i.e. to appraise employee performance relative to an assigned role or job for the purpose of regulating or correcting that performance. Whilst there is a process of appraisal used in the coaching process, it is non-evaluative, meaning that it cannot be used as assessment tool (Truijen and Woerkom 2008). On
the contrary, it is designed to identify opportunities for development to enhance performance through the development of work capacities (Locke 2008). So, although, it is not performance evaluation itself, it may be aligned with a performance appraisal processes (Gaskell 2007).

3.1.6.2 Coaching Is Not Counselling

There are distinct differences between coaching and counselling. A key point is that counselling is a remedial intervention, which addresses an employee’s emotional state, which may the cause of personal crises and problems (Burdett 1998; King and Eaton 1999); whereas coaching does not require clients to discuss anything related to their private life. However, coaching does have the potential to be remedial to the extent that it can assist those who are not doing well at work to do better, and as a remedy for poor performance (Woodruffe 2006; Ellinger, Hamlin et al. 2008), but, it is not intended for clinical populations (Grant and Cavanagh 2004). It is interesting that in spite of this, psychologists continue to insist that coaches should have counselling skills (Levinson 1996; Berglas 2002; Ket De Vries 2005).

3.1.6.3 Coaching Is Not Mentoring

Coaching is often confused with mentoring (Truijen and Woerkom 2008), probably because it is perhaps its ‘closest cousin’. Although, there are some similarities i.e. both coaching and mentoring are used support the professional development and may include some of the same behavioural dimensions (Wiegand 2007); there are significant differences. Broadly speaking, it has been suggested that mentoring is a relationship with someone to learn from, whereas coaching is a relationship with someone to learn with, and that someone can unknowingly be a mentor, but no one can unknowingly be a coach (O'Connor and Ertmer 2006).

The differences are highlight in the descriptions of coaching and mentoring found in literature. Mentoring is defined as a longer-term, open-ended process (Burdett 1998), whereby a more senior or experienced employee provides support and acts as a role model for a more junior and less experienced employee (Megginson and Clutterbuck 2006). Mentors are not usually trained in developmental techniques and have to rely on their experience to achieve developmental outcomes (Strong and Baron 2004). In contrast, coaching is generally a short-term relationship with a very tight purpose, where the coach the coach develops an enabling relationship with the coachee to make it easier for them to learn (Ellinger, Hamlin et al. 2008). Coaching is not explicitly based
on the technical knowledge and experience of the coach in the coachee’s domain (Truijen and Woerkom 2008); rather their expertise in learning facilitation. The implications of this are that a coach needs to be versed in learning theory rather than focused on their technical experience in an area; otherwise, they may unwittingly being a mentor, rather than a coach.

3.1.6.4 Coaching Is Not Training

There is little is discussion regarding the differences between coaching and training; however, it is suggested that coaching is not a substitute for training, but rather a complementary approach (Styhre and Josephson 2007). For example, coaching is viewed in literature as an approach to transfer of training (Olivero, Bane et al. 1997). Discussions about training and coaching tend to focus on the training of coaches, rather than the opposite i.e. the role of coaches as trainers. But, as there has been no significant discussion about the difference between training and coaching, more discussion is warranted. It is likely that this will occur as more Human Resource Development theory is further integrated into the literature. For now though, literature does not view coaching as a form of training.

3.1.7 Dimension 6: What is the Coaching Philosophy?

There are many different philosophical underpinnings of coaching, which might determine the approach employed. As there is a wide range of theories and these are delineated somewhat in the literature, an entire section of this literature review is dedicated to explaining them (see Chapter 3). For now, it is sufficient to understand that coaching is often given different names including, behavioural, humanistic, cognitive and existential, depending on the philosophy employed by the coach (Berg and Karlsen 2007).

3.2 PEOPLE

People are an essential aspect of the management environment, and also a focus of the management coaching literature. Accordingly, this section reviews some of the concepts and constructs, which appear, related to people. The themes identified include: quick fixes, resistance, perceptions, behaviour and stress.
3.2.1 Quick fixes

Individuals in the workplace and organizations often seek timely resolutions to difficult challenges and this is often a perceived purpose of workplace coaching. However, the appeal of a quick fix is always going to be a temptation to some and in embracing it, they may try to bypass the required path to create effective change. This is instead of investing the resources that are required for effective problem solving. This then suggests that a purpose of coaching is to guide coaching stakeholders in the required path, which is necessary as a device to ensure the successful resolution of those difficult challenges.

As Blattner (2005) suggests, ‘bottom-line kind of people’ may want to be given a formula by the coach to solve their problems instead of investing the required resources which may include: time, financial, intellectual and cognitive resources, social capital, emotion, motivation, sincerity, patience etc. But, in a management context, a lack of commitment to the processes involved in problem solving may result in superficial outcomes and the deferring of real-world consequences. For example, Ulrich (2008) describes the appointment a coach to an executive who was more concerned with impression management toward his board than solving real issues. So, the executive hired a well-known coach to give more credibility to his leadership rather than improve his effectiveness.

Similarly, a management team may engage a coach because they are using a leader as a scapegoat in lieu of employing the necessary resources to discover the true reason for the performance issues (Tobias 1996; Kilburg 1997; DeHaan 2008). In this instance, coaching may be used by the organization as a ‘last-stop’ before terminating a coachee, when the real problem may not be the coachee at all, rather, it may be the workplace environment and the unrealistic expectations placed on the coachee (DeHaan 2008). Unfortunately, taking the quick-fix option only delays the inevitable consequences, which stem from the underlying issues. Solutions can only be achieved when the underlying issues are identified and explored in the context of individual and organizational factors, and authentic change facilitated at these levels (Tobias 1996; O'Neil and Hopkins 2002; Barner and Higgins 2007).

This problem may be made worse by the fact that a coach is believed by some to be someone with all of the right answers. If management believes this, it could be because they do not understand the purposes and processes of coaching. Whilst the literature may suggest that a coach
may have an impressive level of content knowledge in a variety of areas, their expertise is not a license to provide formulas or magical answers. In contrast, their task is rather concrete i.e. to rally organization support and guide the coachee through a self-directed learning process in which they generate solutions and apply them. If a coach encounters a context in which a client expects a bottom-line or formula, they should respond by stimulating a problem solving process, which might involve reframing the coachee’s questions, and asking questions in return that are thoughtful and stimulate reflection and clarification (Kilburg 1997; Blattner 2005; Gyllensten and Palmer 2005; Berman and Bradt 2006). The integrity of the coaching process can also be adversely affected if a coach also subscribes to a belief that they have a formula for success. If they provide this formula to the coachee, it will not facilitate engagement in the problem solving process and they may not take ownership or do what is necessary to achieve a genuine solution (Schnell 2005).

3.2.2 Resistance

Resistance refers to conscious or unconscious behaviour exhibited by a coaching stakeholder in an effort to oppose the coaching process to some degree. It is discussed in coaching literature at length as a phenomenon, which can greatly undermine the effectiveness of coaching interventions and features so strongly because of the significant contribution made by psychologists to the literature. However, it is also a construct that is relevant in a management context, because its existence can affect the ability of individuals to develop the skills and behaviours needed to perform their roles, and in turn, can de-rail the organization’s agenda to bring about organizational change.

Coachee’ resistance is a common response to feedback given by a coach or their colleagues, because they may find the feedback difficult to believe or accept. The coach at some point must address this resistance, because a resistant coachee is not one that is motivated to make and maintain change. A competent coach will have techniques for doing this (Dean and Meyer 2002; Butterworth et al. 2006), which might be as simple as giving more information or providing comparisons and explanations to communicate the change that is needed. This will reduce resistance by helping the client understand why it is needed (Ulrich 2008).

However, overcoming resistance may not be simple, because it may be subtle and difficult to detect. For instance, it may be exhibited by a coachee not following through on agreed tasks because they are ‘too busy’ (Dean and Meyer 2002; Barner 2006). They may not be willing to be accountable to other stakeholders who can assist them in the change process, such as the coach,
supervisors, peers, team members and spouses. It is of course, important that the coachee be accountable to these stakeholders, because they are in the best position to assess the progress of the change in a more objective fashion than the coachee can (Dean and Meyer 2002). The following is a more detailed thematic review of resistance based on literature, expressed in terms of stakeholder ‘objections’. As will become evident, overcoming resistance can be understood as a clear purpose as well as device of coaching.

3.2.2.1 You have a hidden agenda

Sometimes a coaching stakeholder may have a hidden agenda that causes a coachee to be resistant. For instance, resistance may manifest itself if there is not a congruency in the explanations given about the reasons they are receiving coaching i.e. if the actual reasons are different to the ones provided in the first instance. For example, the coachee may be presented to the coach by the organization as a functional team player, but may actually be a derailment candidate – they will resist if they find out the truth. But, the probability of incongruence occurring can be lessened if the coach is able to qualify the motivations and perceptions of stakeholders before coaching commences (Kiel et al. 1996). In fact, some coaching commentators suggest that an agenda for coaching should be set by the person being coached, and not by other stakeholders, such as the coach or organization (Evers et al. 2006; Criddle 2007).

These are ethical matters, which could be a source of resistance if not considered in coaching design. As a remedy, all stakeholders must be transparent about their motivations and intentions surrounding the coaching process, otherwise, the coachee may be justified in choosing not to co-operate.

3.2.2.2 I am afraid

For coachees in particular, a fear of coaching may be the root of the dysfunctional behaviour and therefore a strong source of resistance. In psychodynamic terms, resistance occurs when there is an overlap between dysfunctional and adaptive behaviour (Kilburg 1997; Kilburg 2000; Kilburg 2004). This can be a problem if a coach overlooks the adaptive nature of executive character and its link to resistance in the coaching process. To avoid this, a coach must realize that it is a fear of change that is often at the heart of resistance. Because these fears are often irrational and
unconscious it can be a challenge to address them and they may only be overcome after a period of reflection and confidential sharing (Bachkirova and Cox 2007; Nocks 2007; Griffiths 2009).

For example, a very common coachee fear is that they will lose their ‘winning formula’ if they participate in coaching. They fear this because their formula has most likely proven itself and been rewarded in the past, and even if it is not as effective as it was in the past, the coachee may not want to change it. There literature suggests that this fear can be overcome through conversation with the coach, or, through discussion with a colleague who faced the same issue. The goal is to reassure the coachee that they can expand rather than lose their formula (Kiel et al. 1996).

Similarly, another fear may be fear of failure Blattner (2005), which is also evidenced in a case study of coaching by Tobias (1996) in which a derailed executive was under threat of termination. He was receiving coaching but feared that he could not change quickly enough to satisfy his superiors and believed that no amount of coaching would be able to save him from being terminated from his position. This fear was overcome through a collaborative effort involving the coach and his supervisor who helped him to be constructive in his thinking rather than remain fearful.

The literature suggests that human needs may explain fears, including a desire to self-protect and need for control. For instance, some executives may resist coaching because they perceive that it to be a threat to their ego or to being in control (Sussman and Finnegan 1998; Cocivera and Cronshaw 2004; Longenecker and Neubert 2005; Wohlers 1989). If their ability to protect is compromised because they are embarrassed about dealing with their behavioural issues or are unable to let go of the need to maintain homeostatic control, it can inhibit their development and may prevent them from becoming more functional (Judge and Cowell 1997; Kilburg 1997; Megginson and Clutterbuck 2006). In particular, the need for control is usually very strong in star performers, which the literature suggests have four dominant values including maintaining control, maximizing winning and minimize losses, suppressing negative feelings, and rationality (Sussman and Finnegan 1998). Whilst these values are the basis of their winning formula, it is also a strong source of weakness because it may result in resistance, which means they are at significant risk in terms of development.

Resistance may be a problem if it means that they may miss out on an opportunity for reflection and critical evaluation of self, which results in lower levels of learning or single-loop
learning. Single loop learning in turn results in poor performance overtime and inability to improve, which can be very frustrating for high achievers who tend to strive for this as an outcome (Sussman and Finnegan 1998; Jones and Spooner 2006). However, there are ways that the coach can overcome resistance to achieve double and triple loop learning. For instance, a coach may be able to facilitate the restructuring of underlying beliefs underpinning the coachee’s self-concept and worldview (Ladyshewsky 2006). Another way may be to objectify coachee’ fear, by asking clients to describe how they are likely to behave if they are resisting the coaching and what the coach should do to help them overcome it. Kiel et al. (1996) notes, that this can be a successful strategy because coachees are disarmed and perceive that a measure of control has been given back to them (Sussman and Finnegan 1998; Jones and Spooner 2006).

3.2.2.3 I don’t need it

A coachee may resist coaching because they have a high sense of entitlement, which is based on a belief that that they do not need coaching and have been unfairly targeted. A sense of entitlement may manifest eliciting defensive routines being employed by the coachee (Sussman and Finnegan 1998). For example, star performers in particular, may have a strong sense of entitlement and resist coaching even if they know their performance is deficient. It is likely that their organization may have played a role in re-enforcing this behaviour, because they have been unwilling to hold them accountable in the past when their performance was deficient and by giving them underserved special treatment based on their usual high performance. The lack of accountability means that executives sometimes self-delude because they have not received honest feedback and their confidence shadows self-awareness (Ulrich 2008).

But, it is not just star performers who may have a sense of entitlement. For example, a coachee may recognize their behaviour as problematic for others but feel justified because it is a strategy that works for them (Barner 2006). Alternatively, a coachee may make a faulty assumption that they do not need coaching anymore and discontinue it despite the evidence suggesting they need it (Dean and Meyer 2002). Of course, it does need to be acknowledged that some coachees may actually not need coaching because they are highly competent and receive the development support they need through other approaches like mentoring (Abbott et al. 2006). In this case, a leader’s insistence that they do not need coaching should not be confused with a sense of entitlement.
Compatibility between a coach and coachee is an important factor in the success of coaching and without it there may be a lack of natural rapport. This issue has been discussed at length in the literature by a growing number of authors (Kiel et al. 1996; Rich 1998; Dean and Meyer 2002; McNally and Lukens 2006; Wasylyshyn et al. 2006; Noer, Leupold et al. 2007; Gray and Goregaokar 2010). Compatibility may be affected by levels of assertiveness in communication, energy levels, problem solving ability (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson 2001) cross cultural differences (Abbott et al. 2006; Noer, Leupold et al. 2007) and gender (Gray and Goregaokar 2010).

For example, personal style or body language may interfere with the establishment of rapport in a coaching relationship, so a coach needs to be sensitive about these issues, particularly in the process of giving feedback (Dean and Meyer 2002). Other studies suggest that gender may be a factor for coachees. In a study by Gray and Goregaokar (2010) coachees were asked to reflect and justify their choice of coach; whilst qualitative results did suggest that some male and female coachees gravitated toward choosing a coach of their own sex, quantitative results suggests that this was only the case for a minority. In fact, some male coachees preferred to be coached by a female coach because they perceived that they were appropriate in the discussion of sensitive personal issues.

The literature seems to be suggesting that relationship compatibility exists between a coach and coachee on the basis of their inherent characteristics, rather than just the implementation of coaching strategies, such as trust building. On this basis, it could be argued that there are some people who should not attempt to form a coaching relationship together for the purposes of development. However, whilst a good match between a coach and coachee is important for coaching success, it is possible that they may be too compatible, which may affect the balance needed to facilitate development and transfer. When they are highly compatible with each other the level of comfort that exists between them might reduce the motivation for action, follow-up and accountability. But, the literature suggests that this can be remedied if a coach maintains a professional distance from the coachee (DeHaan 2008) and develops a coaching contract, which reminds both parties of their obligations, and the root issues and goals that they are working toward (Schnell 2005).
3.2.2.5 I don’t want to coach

So far the discussion about resistance has been focused on the coachee, however, a coach may also exhibit signs of resistance. For example, a leader may feel pressured to be a coach against their will and so resist adopting the role. Research suggests that leadership generally spend the least amount of time coaching because they do not have the knowledge or skills to coach, have had a negative experience in the past or perceive there are more productive activities to be performed (Hackman and Wageman 2005). The latter may be attributed to having too many competing demands on their time (Peterson and Little 2005). Similarly, for a professional coach, resistance may be displayed if the coach feels inhibited coaching a targeted coachee who is resisting coaching (Sussman and Finnegan 1998), and may give rise to self-doubts (DeHaan 2008). This suggests that coaches aren’t necessarily the self-actualized gurus with all of the answers that they are often perceived, and in fact have to be reflective practitioners to avoid ‘contaminating’ the learning space.

Heslin, Vandewalle, and Latham (2006) explored the idea that a leader’s Implicit Person Theories (IPT) might be a reason that they may not be willing to coach a particular sub-ordinate. Because of the leader’s belief that the sub-ordinate does not exhibit malleable traits, they consider it a waste of time to develop them. However, they found that these kinds of attributions are often not valid, because they are based on faulty assumptions. A leader may also be resistant to adopting the coaching role, because it may be fraught with problems, which may explain their resistance. Ellinger, Hamlin, and Beattie (2008:242) summarize the issue well in their paper about coaching behaviours:

“…it is reasonable to envisage coaching relationships…being susceptible to problems, with unpleasant incidents and negative experiences being a common feature of any type of coaching-related developmental interpersonal relationships, not least those existing between managers and subordinates”. pg 242.

3.2.3 Perceptions

Within the coaching sphere, the perceptions stakeholders hold about the coaching process, themselves and each other are discussed in terms of their impact on behaviour and coaching’s ultimate success (Kalungu-Banda 2012; Sue-Chan 2012). For example, there seems to be a reasonable level of discussion in the literature about the external perceptions that a coach may have and how this affects their practice. As already discussed, in many organizations, it is a challenge to get managers to be effective coaches, in part because of a reluctance to coach based on the
perceptions (IPT) they hold about their employees (Heslin et al. 2006). Similarly, a coach may have misconceptions about the coaching process, believing that they should be directive and prescriptive rather than facilitators of learning (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005). The literature is clear that this kind of approach to coaching is a departure from best practice (Evers et al. 2006; Criddle 2007; Sparrow 2008). To this extent, the effect of perceptions on the integrity of coaching practice suggest that they could be viewed as a mediating factor and therefore device of coaching.

The consequences of a departure from best practice are that it is likely to inhibit honest communication (Levinson 1996); derail the path to authentic leadership (Sparrow 2008); and risks that the coach will be perceived as a ‘punitive policeman’ by a coachee, because it is them, rather than the coachee who are directing behaviour (Brady 2007). This approach is reminiscent of the role that a sport’s coach may play in developing their coachees and a reason that it is considered as a distinctly different phenomenon to workplace coaching. This issue highlights the relationship between perception and power, control and influence in the coaching relationship and emphasizes the need for a coach to be educated and mentored to avoid poor coaching practices, which is a concern to many scholars (Judge and Cowell 1997; Sherman and Freas 2004; Moran 2007; Tony 2007; Blamey et al. 2008; Hamlin et al. 2009).

Finally, the literature also suggests that a manager as coach who does not fully understand what coaching is, may believe that it is a reactive strategy rather than pro-active; can be utilized as a reward or form of discipline; is training; or a role, which is less important than others and requires little attention (Krazmien and Berger 1997). These misconceptions may result in coaching being used inappropriately; for example, it may be used as a reactionary tool i.e. in direct response to a deficit in employee’s behaviours and abilities, rather than as a pro-active strategy, which enables weaknesses to be minimized and strengths to be enhanced (Allenbaugh 1983; Krazmien and Berger 1997).

A coach’s self-perceptions may also affect the coaching process. For example, managers as coach who believe that coaching is an innate skill i.e. one that they are born with, are less likely to be as effective as a leader who has a growth mindset and is able to work toward their own development as a coach (Chase 2010). Similarly, a coach may also have self-doubts that may arise during the coaching process i.e. existential, relational and instrumental doubts (DeHaan 2008). An existential doubt may be a coach doubting his or her own qualifications and capability to coach. These may affect the level of discomfort experienced by a coach during the coaching process and
according to Dehaan is not necessarily a negative phenomenon. This is because it may be a stimulus for ongoing self-development and reflects a coach’s vulnerability, which can actually enhance the coaching process.

From a coachee’s perspective, the discussion in literature revolves around their perceptions and its affect on their ability to change and perform (Ladyshewsky 2006; Vanderburg and Stephens 2010). For example, the literature suggests that most coachees tend to rate themselves more highly than other feedback-raters (Diedrich 1996). Coachees may also have misconceptions about their situation, which affect their ability to change. For instance, they may assume that they have failed and have no other options if their efforts do not result in immediate change, when the reality is that they need to be patient and open minded (Schnell 2005).

A review about compatibility would also be appropriate here, as it may be affected by perceptions of a coach’s characteristics, for example whether the coach is male or female (Gray and Goregaokar 2010) or whether the coach is mentor as well as coach (Cavalcanti and Detsky 2011). As discussed earlier, this has implications for the health of a coaching relationship, which has been established as a key factor in coaching success (see the section entitled ‘resistance’ in this section: ‘I don’t feel that we are compatible’).

3.2.4 Behaviour

As well as issues related to perception another debate concerns problem behaviours. The arguments are summarized in the following themes: leaders may exhibit poor managerial behaviours, which is a justification for receiving coaching; coachees may be dependent and passive in the coaching process, which can detract from its effectiveness; and coaches may exhibit poor technique. Like problem perceptions, appropriate behaviour is a defining input of effective coaching.

3.2.4.1 Poor managerial behaviour

Within literature there are many discussions and examples given of poor leadership behaviour, which are contrary to that expected of a manager as coach. Unfortunately, some leaders tend to rely on formal authority to get things done, but lack an awareness of their behaviour and the need for change. This causes ongoing issues including a loss of engagement and staff motivation...
(Ket De Vries 2005; Ladyshewsky 2010). For example, an executive may use a confrontational style of leadership to get things done and whilst this may be useful at times, it may not be appropriate to use in other situations. The leader may be unaware that their high personal and professional standards are manifested as demanding behaviour, and causing relationship issues with colleagues and subordinates (Kiel et al. 1996; Barner 2006; Jones and Spooner 2006). Other poor management behaviours highlighted include: a tendency to over-generalize and be negative (Stern 2004); to make inaccurate attributions, which affect their attitudes toward others (Heslin et al. 2006); to be autocratic, directive, controlling and dictatorial (Ellinger et al. 2008); to be hostile to feedback (Schnell 2005) or have a pre-disposition toward busy and detailed work rather, than formulating and acting on strategy (Ulrich 2008). A leader who behaves in these ways may suffer a bad reputation, and be the subject of gossip and lose the opportunity for promotion (Kilburg 1997).

The good news is that whilst research suggests that approximately half of a person’s behaviour can be attributed to their DNA, the other half is learned. This means that behaviour change is possible once the need arises and an individual becomes aware of this (Schnell 2005).

3.2.4.2 Dependence and passivity

One of the ultimate goals of coaching is to help a coachee to become self-regulating, which means taking ownership of their own development processes and valuing their own learning (O'Connor and Ertmer 2006). However, for various reasons this may not occur, and instead, they may become dependent on the coach and be passive during the development process. If this happens, the coach may unwittingly become a surrogate leader and a substitute for support and discussion. Because of the benefits associated with being able to communicate with a coach on a range of issues the coachee may feel content and not perceive a need to communicate with upper management about issues that arise. Obviously, this has consequences for the leader/subordinate relationship. However, nowhere in the literature does it suggest that a coach is meant to be a substitute for a coachee’s supervisor, so, to guard against the coach and coachee must ensure that management are included in discussions throughout the coaching process (Schnell 2005).

Similarly, in the context of cross-cultural coaching, an expatriate leader may become dependent on a coach to help them through their transition to another culture, which may inhibit their enculturalization. The literature suggests that this is most likely in circumstances where the expatriate is from a similar cultural background to the coach. Abbott et al. (2006) suggest that dependency can be overcome using an integrationist approach, whereby the coach discusses the
issue of possible dependence and helps the leader pursue strategies for interacting with people from the host nation.

In the context of peer/collegial coaching, participants may be passive in the process, which means that the benefits of coaching are not achieved. This is described in Truijen and Woerkom (2008), where more experienced colleagues were trained to coach less experienced ones. The findings indicated that only one of the nine couples that participated, were able to conduct successful peer coaching i.e. discussed and analysed the coachee’s teaching behaviour and stimulated reflective thinking. The other 8 participant couples focused on the knowledge and achievements of the more experienced coach, which meant that they became more dominant by providing suggestions and solutions for improving clinical teaching based on their own experience. As a consequence, the less experienced member adopted a passive role, which was contrary to the intent. It turns out that this is because the coach did not have sufficient time (due to work commitments) to observe the coachee on the job, and therefore had no feedback to give them to stimulate the reflective process. This suggests that an adequate understanding of the coaching brief and preparation is important to the success of interventions like peer coaching. This is a point also reinforced by Dehaan (2008).

3.2.4.3 Poor coaching technique

Coaches may perform poorly on the job because they exhibit poor technique. Whilst there are plenty of recommendations made in literature about what coaches should do i.e. the ideal behaviours, there are few comprehensive discussions about poor coaching technique. This is a little perplexing given that an exploration of poor coaching technique would provide many lessons for improving practice. Perhaps this has been forgotten in the desire to develop models for practice, which incorporate implicit assumptions about what poor coaching technique is. There are some general discussions about issues associated with techniques and their causes, but only a few authors explore them in detail.

For example, if a coach breaches confidentiality trust issues may arise, which will make the coaching sessions difficult if not impossible (Schnell 2005; Jones and Spooner 2006; Passmore 2007). The literature suggests that confidentiality is an important dimension of a learning environment in coaching, because it creates an atmosphere in which coaching participants can develop trust (Ket De Vries 2005). In this context, protecting the confidentiality of coaching
participants provides them a forum, where they can discuss delicate issues, shed defences, and explore blind spots, biases and shortcomings (Tobias 1996; Passmore 2007).

Another problem might be the coach playing moral judge, which will have adverse consequences (Passmore 2007; Karlin 2012). For example, a coach might give unnecessary compliments, encouragement, and flattery or show favour to a client. The risk of doing this is that they will not be seen as neutral by the client and this may in turn elicit historical issues related to their moral development and associated emotions such as guilt and unresolved shame. Similarly, Kilburg (1997) suggests adopting the role of moral judge means that dysfunctional issues may be transferred to the coaching relationship by the client, and may inadvertently make the relationship ineffective. This may interfere with the coach’s ability to do their job i.e. deliver adverse feedback to the client, to challenge them, explore and evaluate attitudes, values, beliefs, assumptions and behaviour that the coach thinks might result in negative consequences. For these reasons, the literature is fairly clear that the coach’s approach should be characterized by non-judgment (Ladyshewsky 2006). As suggested before, the coach should maintain a professional as well as moral distance and not fall into the trap of ‘joining in’ (DeHaan 2008).

Also, the measures a coach uses to evaluate the success of coaching may be another issue. The literature suggests that if a coach is using appropriate measures, it should be evaluated on the basis of results and empirical data, not feelings (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson 2001). This is consistent with the needs of organizations, which reflect results focused, customized, practical and experientially oriented coaching, rather than theoretical, abstract or directive type coaching (Grant 2003; Stern 2004; Green et al. 2006).

The literature suggests that superficiality in coaching may be an issue, because it may mean that only surface issues are explored and this has obvious implications for quality of the coaching results. A paper by Truijen and Woerkom (2008) explores peer coaching, and touches on some important points about superficiality. For example, a lack of preparation by the coach may result in the coaching being superficial. Adequate preparation might involve a coach observing a coachee in practice prior to the coaching so that the coach has some feedback to give, and which can be used as the basis of the coaching conversation. A failure to do this means that the feedback given might not be factual and the coaching conversation may move to solutions before exploring the issues properly. Similarly, a coach may not engage or address the coachee’s emotions in conversation.
According to Truijen et al. (2008) this is because a coach may feel unsure about how to do this and therefore avoid the subject altogether.

It was suggested earlier in a discussion about ‘quick-fixes’, that a coach may be seen as someone with all of the right answers and should not provide them to solve the problems of coachees and organizations. Truijen et al. (2008) supports this idea, and suggests that a coach may assume that a coachee wants them to give solutions, when they in fact may not. This seems to be a problem when a coach is much more technically experienced in an area than a coachee because they adopt the role of mentor rather than coach. The temptation is to give an immediate and practical solution, with a view to helping the coachee avoid the ‘many practical things that can go wrong’. The problem with this kind of approach is that it does little to stimulate coachee learning and as one coach suggested in the study, “…I estimate the effect of my input as nil…”, pg 322.

Another important paper, which provides insight into the reasons for poor coaching technique is by DeHaan (2008). The paper explores about critical moments in coaching practice for coaches, focusing on coach self-doubts. Although the study was more about what the thought life of a coach and feared doing (rather than what they actually did do), it did highlight that self-doubt may play a significant role in the coaching process and appears to be a potential mediator of poor coaching behaviours. As previously suggested, it is important to realize that self-doubt is not necessarily a negative thing and may not lead to poor coaching technique. Most of the coaches assumed that they were inadequate for the task of coaching, even though they most likely were not. Dehaan suggests that the catch 22 for these coaches is that they may not promote themselves as an expert when they should; whereas coaches who should be questioning their competence are not, yet are not afraid to promote themselves as an expert in the marketplace. Similarly, some coaches expressed doubts about knowing how to respond to critical issues that arise within the coaching relationship. For example, if the coachee idealizes the coach or suggests that they are learning and benefiting from the coaching relationship when the coach thinks they are not, how should they respond?

Another significant issue raised by coaches concerned giving feedback i.e. the balance between saying too much and not saying enough. It seems that sometimes the context of a situation may require a coach to give frank feedback, but because of their doubt they may not. This may be occur if a coach recognizes an awkward response from a coachee; or the coach has important knowledge about a situation that the coachee does not; or the coach agrees with the blunt feedback given by a colleague about the coachee. The coaches perceived that there was a risk associated with
giving blunt feedback and were afraid of the consequences, which might include the coachee perceiving that the coach might feel betrayed and resentful. The counter point to saying too much is being sensitive to the client, especially in situations where emotions are ‘high’ to avoid the risk. Coaches expressed concerns that they may say the wrong things at the wrong time.

3.2.5 Stress

Job stress occurs because the demands of employment exceed the controls of the individual needed to interact with those demands. In this context, there are a number of generic causes of stress reported by authors in the coaching area, including: ambiguous work role parameters, poor management style, lack of participation in decision-making and problem solving, long hours worked and the pressure of these hours on their personal lives, downsizing, lean production, flat management structures and insecure employment.

Other more specific examples are also given in literature. For instance, it is reported that the role of site manager can be highly stressful because of ambiguity associated with the management of multiple stakeholders including management, subcontractors, subordinates, and the client (Wright 2007; Styhre 2008). Similarly, in the world of family business the merging of family and business can exacerbate stress. In particular, the transition and succession process can increase stress because traditional roles and responsibilities may be reversed leading to a disruption of the family structure (Levin et al. 2008). This is reflective of a broader understanding that a leadership transition is challenging for them (Bond and Naughton 2012).

Stress is a major issue in the workplace because it may have behavioural, physiological and economic implications for both employees and organizations. For example, in a recent study published by the Health and Safety Executive more than 500,000 individuals in the UK believe that their experience of work-related stress is making them ill and reports are on the rise (Berriman 2007). It can manifest itself in a number of ways including irritability, impatience, insomnia and fatigue. If stress is severe it can lead to high blood pressure, cardiovascular disease, depression as well as mental health issues such as anxiety (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005a; Boyatzis et al. 2006; Butterworth et al. 2006; Berriman 2007). At an organizational level, it is also a concern because it can manifest itself in terms of absenteeism, turnover, poor working relationships, and low morale, and this can have implications financially, and in terms of employee performance (Dean and Meyer 2002; Daehler-Miller et al. 2008; Pollitt 2008).
As yet there is not conclusive proof that coaching can help to reduce workplace stress, although, there are some studies that make this connection (Berriman 2007; Wright 2007; Daehler-Miller et al. 2008; Pollitt 2008). More generally, it is reported that the social sciences literature suggests that there are three interdependent factors which positively affect stress including social support, cognitive appraisal and a goal oriented learning (Berriman 2007; Scriffignano 2011). As these supposedly describe the approach to workplace coaching it is proposed that it may be a useful mechanism for helping employees manage stress because: it is a support mechanism; it focuses on changing or optimizing an individual's perception of their context; and it seeks to empower employees in a process that is both goal and solution oriented. In turn, it can affect the psychological and behavioural reactions of a person by diverting attention, and helping them to reinterpret a situation and exert control. Similarly, through cognitive appraisal, it helps an individual to minimize the negative emotions arising from the experience of stressful events and involves determining whether something is harmful and worthy of attention, and if so, what to do to minimize it i.e. to identify stressors, appraise them as less threatening and find ways of minimizing them. Finally, as a goal oriented approach coaching can help gain people’s commitment and therefore motivates them leading to feelings of happiness and satisfaction. All of these approaches result in an increase in overall well being and combat both the effects and recurrence of stress (Berriman 2007; Wright 2007).

Whilst coaching is generally thought of as a remedy to stress, coaches need to be aware that it may also be caused by it (Butterworth et al. 2006). The likelihood of this increases when the coaching is applied for developmental purposes, its may be threatening to some learners (Witherspoon and White 1996). This suggests that there may be some contexts in which this kind of coaching may not be appropriate. For example, if an executive been placed in a stretch position by their organization they may already be stressed and not be in the right frame of mind to reflect and make change. The coaching may in fact create a lot more stress for the executive, so, the coach should adjust their approach to help manage stress by providing shorter, more supportive and practical coaching sessions until such a time as the manager is able to focus on reflective activities (Abbott et al. 2006). This is consistent with the need for coaching to be a learner centred and directed approach.

As well as helping coachees to manage stress, research by Boyatzis et al. (2006) suggests that executives should adopt the coaching role because it can help to reverse the effects. Boyatzis et al.
(2006) explains that executives can suffer the adverse effects of stress due to the need and desire to have an impact on others and this combined with the concurrent need to maintain emotional control may in fact have an adverse physiological effect on them. The stress they experience results in a neural response in which there is increased hypothalamic activity or an activation of the sympathetic neural system into a flight or fight response. From this, the body prepares for the enaction of survival behaviour via the release of increased secretion of multiple neurotransmitters, including epinephrine and norepinephrine. This in turn leads to increased blood pressure and redirection of blood flow to major muscle groups and an activation of the right front pre-frontal cortex, which research suggests that the activation of the prefrontal cortex is related to emotions such as fear and disgust, feeling depressed or anxious, and an unpleasant engagement with the environment. In turn, this releases cortisol from the adrenal glands and increases the efficacy of the body’s natural immune system. A number of diseases may result, including hypertension, myocardial infarction, chronic infections, and peptic ulcer disease, autoimmune disorders, obesity, influenza, cardiac arrhythmias, heart failure, diabetes and susceptibility to cancer. From a workplace perspective, related consequences include burnout, draining one’s energy and diminish their capability to function and innovate.

But, Boyatzis et al. (2006) contends that coaching with compassion can help reduce these effects, and therefore can be used as an anti-dote to stress. The specific coaching activities involved include: empathizing or understanding the feelings of others, caring for the other person, and a willingness to act in response to the person’s feelings. The experience of compassion evokes responses within the human body that arouse the parasympathetic nervous system (SNS), reversing the effects of the stress response and arousal of the SNS. Through the experience of compassion a person will more likely have neural circuits moving through their left prefrontal cortex, which have been associated with emotions such as elation and amusement, and people reporting feeling excited, enthusiastic and interested. It can result in lower blood pressure, enhanced immunity, and overall better health as well as a sense of gratitude. Boyatzis concludes by suggesting that leaders should coach their subordinates and thereby have the opportunity to experience compassion for them, and therefore benefit from its physiological benefits.

3.2.6 Conclusion

This section of the literature review focused on some of the major debates and issues in the coaching literature related to real-world practice, and consequently, it focused on understanding
people. It was suggested that an understanding of these is useful for advancing the coaching body of knowledge and also for improvement of practice, as it identifies and explores the problems that may arise as coaches seek to overcome to satisfy the change agenda. A number of themes were explored in this section of the review, including quick fixes, resistance, perceptions, behaviour, and stress.

In terms of better understanding the research topic at the heart of this research project i.e. its purpose and devices, the insight presented here is general. The review suggests that the purpose of coaching is not just defined by the end game of organization and individual development, but that it is confounded by enormous complexities along the way and so must be process driven. As this review has suggested, the process reflects the complexity of its stakeholders, and the context in which they participate and interact i.e. the organization, the learners, and the coach. The process orientation does suggest that the associated devices of coaching are therefore important as a catalyst for negotiating and overcoming the complexity.

For this PhD study, there are some specific insights about the purposes and devices of workplace coaching emerging from this review of literature. The section about ‘quick-fixes’ suggests that a purpose and/or device of coaching is to help individuals and organizations in which they work to achieve genuine and timely solutions to problems that interfere with their mission. The purpose of coaching in this is to mediate the temptation for a ‘quick fix’, which is characterized by a lack of commitment to the processes involved, lack of ownership of problems and unrealistic expectations. Instead, the purpose of coaching is to help them to pursue a more concrete path, which is characterized by an investment in the resources that are required for effective problem solving toward authentic change.

There is a clear relationship between resistance and the capability of an organization to achieve its agenda, because of its effects on an individual employee’s development and performance prospects. A coach therefore has a clear purpose to addressing or overcoming resistance. As suggested in the review, some of the specific devices underlying this purpose include: ensuring there is no hidden agenda for coaching; allaying fears about coaching; demonstrating the value and need for coaching; ensuring and maintaining an appropriate level of compatibility in the coaching relationship; and finally, moderating self-beliefs as a reflective practitioner. But as suggested in the earlier review of the psychological purposes, this role is not the endgame for management, which is geared toward the improvement in performance and organizational prosperity and is a clear distinction between psychological and management theory.
The review suggests that perceptions can interfere with the willingness or capability of coaching stakeholders to participate in the process and on that basis its efficacy. For example, the manager as coach may be reluctant to coach someone because of beliefs they have about certain potential coachees. Other perceptions affect their ability to perform effectively as coaches. For example, they may not understand fully what coaching is and therefore be prescriptive and directive; they may believe that coaching is not something that they can learn because it is a skill-set that you are born with; or they may have self-doubts about their capability to be a coach. Similarly, for a coachee, they may have limiting beliefs that affect the ability, for example, framing their attempts to change as a ‘failure’. In both cases, for the coach and coachee, it is important that more accurate and concrete perceptions are fostered. Presumably, this is best addressed via a process of education. So, to that extent both coach and coachee perceptions and educational remedies are a prospective device of coaching.

This discussion about coaching technique has identified some of the situations in which a coach’s behaviour might be considered ‘poor’. To that end, a requirement for any coach is that coaches are able to regulate themselves to make appropriate decisions and act accordingly. As a key input to self-regulatory capacity, it could be argued that it is a discussion as much about emotional intelligence as it is self-regulation. It is therefore a potential device of coaching. Some of the issues raised that require a self-regulatory capacity include: playing the moral judge; measuring coaching empirically rather than emotionally; avoiding superficiality in coaching; not providing formulas or immediate solutions; and not succumbing to self-doubts. There are of course remedies to these behaviours but the purpose is not to explore them here, only to demonstrate the value of good coach technique as a device of coaching.

As a description of example of poor leadership behaviour outlined in the literature, the analysis provides little insight in terms of the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. The implication of the review is that addressing poor leadership may be a purpose of coaching. This is not conclusive, because if one subscribes to the perspective that coaching’s mandate is to build strengths rather than remediate weaknesses, then some may not view the remediation of poor leadership behaviour as a domain of coaching.

The literature is clear though that a purpose of coaching is to help the coachee become a self-regulated learner, which means valuing and taking ownership of learning, rather than being dependent and passive. The reasons that this does not happen constitute some of the potential
purposes and devices of coaching. One of the reasons cited is that the coach becomes a ‘surrogate coach’. This can result in the exclusion of their manager in important discussions and developments, which is undesirable. A device of coaching may be open communication, which means including management in discussions throughout the coaching process. It may also mean discussing the issue of dependence and helping the coachee pursue appropriate strategies. A coach needs to be adequately prepared for a coaching intervention, which involves being aware of what the coaching brief is and making sure that they have gathered appropriate feedback to stimulate coachee reflection process, rather than the being prescriptive. Good preparation could be construed as a purpose or device of coaching.

From a management perspective, stress is a major issue because of the potential consequences at a variety of levels. In simple terms, it occurs because the demands of employment exceed the controls of the individual needed to interact with those demands. The design of work in the modern workplace can contribute to the development of stress as outlined in the literature. However, it also suggests that coaching itself might be an additional cause of stress for an employee in a stretch position and not willing or able to make change at that time. In this situation, the purpose of the coaching would be very different than a coachee in a different situation. Stress may be something that executives in particular are prone to experience. As well as the health implications for individuals, there are potentially significant consequences to the bottom line. On this basis, the management of stress using coaching is a worthwhile purpose. To this end, the literature also suggests some potentially useful mechanisms or devices that coaches can utilize to help ameliorate stress. These include social support, cognitive appraisal and a goal oriented learning, and for the manager as coach the experience of compassion.

3.3 DESIGN

There are a number of inputs to coaching, which might provide insight into the purposes and devices of coaching. Accordingly, this section reviews some of the concepts and constructs, which appear related to or affect coaching design and implementation. The themes identified include: dichotomies, learning transfer, qualifications and continuing professional development, and time.
3.3.1  Dichotomies

There is much discussion in the literature as to the potential issues related to problem agendas and styles of coaching stakeholders. In many cases, their agenda or style is in conflict with what is required to facilitate coachee development. For the leader as coach, this style resembles the micro-skills synonymous with participative leadership. This section of the thesis is therefore structured as a series of dichotomies, including: developmental or technical, organization or coachee centred, person or task orientated, leader as coach or professional coach, star or poor performer. A compatible agenda or style can be construed as a device of workplace coaching.

3.3.1.1  Developmental or technical

An important role of leadership is employee development, which inevitably involves some kind of coaching. However, rather than adopting a coaching role some leaders may focus on the technical aspects of their role instead. This is indirect contrast with the literature, which asserts the importance of this role particularly at higher levels of the leadership hierarchy (Kiel et al. 1996; Bredin and Söderlund 2007; Ellinger et al. 2008). One possible reason that this occurs is that a manager as coach may be promoted to a position for which they are unprepared for their coaching duties i.e. setting goals, assessing performance, and facilitating improved performance. As Lindbom (2007) suggests, the organization may lose a great technical specialist and gain a terrible manager in one poor management transition. A leader may find this a challenging transition because it requires them to change from a prescriptive to an empowering leadership style. This may not be easy if the leader lacks the knowledge, skills, time or awareness required to be successful (Hunt and Weintraub 2004; Ellinger et al. 2008).

3.3.1.2  Organization or coachee centred

The literature suggests that coaching should consider the individual needs of the learner, with respect to readiness for change and self-direction. For instance, sometimes an organization (and coach) has an agenda to develop a particular leader and although the leader may agree to receive coaching they may not exhibit the characteristics of readiness needed for the desired change to occur (McNally and Lukens 2006). If a leader lacks readiness for change they are unlikely to change (Ulrich 2008). There are a number of reasons that someone may not be ready to change: they may just need to be listened to because they are feeling lonely or in need of emotional support;
or they may just be agreeing to participate in coaching to please others rather than it being based on a clear need.

Similarly, because development is a voluntary process, a coach or organization should not attempt to influence the actual content of the coaching instead allowing for a degree of coachee self-determination (Styhre and Josephson 2007; Ryan and Deci 2000). In this spirit, Ulrich (2008) outlines a number of questions that an executive might ask himself or herself when considering coaching:

1. Why am I interested in receiving coaching? Is it more behavioural or strategic results that interest me the most?
2. Who wants me to get the coaching? What specific events have led them to recommend that I receive coaching?
3. What will be the outcome of my coaching? How will I define success from this experience?
4. How much is making behaviour or strategic change a priority? Am I will to invest both time and emotional energy to it?
5. How much am I will to be transparent to those I work with as I embark on the coaching exercise?
6. What is the personal brand I now have and what would I like it to be? What price am I will to pay to create this new brand?

Coachee directed reflection is the kind of activity, which characterizes a learner centred process. If a leader is able to spend time reflecting on these kinds of questions, they are more likely to be engaged and successful in changing. So, whilst an organization’s agenda is the basis for the initiation of a coaching engagement in the first place, it must a coachee centred process for it to bring about those strategic results. This perspective is one, which should permeate the design of a coaching intervention/program.

3.3.1.3 Person or task orientated

As just discussed, there is an overwhelming sense in the literature is that coaches should be people focused (Jones and Spooner 2006; Landale 2008; Ali et al. 2010; Vanderburg and Stephens 2010). There is the suggestion though that coaches need to achieve a balance between task and people orientations to achieve a holistic design for without a degree of task orientation nothing will be achieved (Groom 2005). But, the extent of a coach’s orientation may change depending on the purpose of the coaching. For example, if the brief given to the coach is unclear and/or non-specific, it may be necessary to allocate more time to determining the coachee’s needs and outcomes in consultation with a number of significant others. This may be a time consuming process because of
the effort required in achieving clarity and consensus (Witherspoon and White 1996; Ket De Vries 2005). The literature provides some warnings for coaches who cannot find the appropriate balance, suggesting that coaches who are more task-oriented than people oriented may be more concerned with moving forward than investigations of root issues and causes (Ket De Vries 2005), whereas, coaches who are more person-oriented may be more interested in investigating behavioural motivations (Passmore 2007), personality (Wasylyshyn et al. 2006) or needs (Berman and Bradt 2006) than with achieving task. In either case the results of the coaching may be less than satisfying.

3.3.1.4 Professional or leader as coach

In the literature, there are four main conceptualizations of a coach, including the leader as coach (Rich 1998; Ellinger and Keller 2003; McLean et al. 2005; Pousa and Mathieu 2010), the professional or executive coach (Natale and Diamante 2005; McComb et al. 2007; Styhre and Josephson 2007; Harris 1999), the peer as coach (Ladyshewsky 2006; Parker et al. 2008; Truijen and Woerkom 2008) and the internal coach (Frisch 2001; Rock et al. 2009; Ali et al. 2010). Of these, executive/professional coaching and leader as coach are the two most explored.

There are some overlaps in their roles, but they are quite different. For example, a leader as coach may have many different agendas and responsibilities associated with their role compared to a professional coach who has one. Also, a leader may not consider coaching to be a very important part of their role (Peterson and Little 2005) whereas for a professional coach it is their entire focus. The diversity of responsibility within the leadership role suggests that there may be logistical difficulties, which may prevent them reconciling conflicting agendas and balance them with competing demands (McComb et al. 2007). For this reason, the two main conceptualizations seem to be very different in terms of scope and focus.

3.3.1.5 Star or poor performer

The literature suggests that the decision about which leaders to target for coaching is not straightforward. For example, Sussman and Finnegan (1998) argue that managers are biased toward the selection of poor performers for coaching because it is more obvious that they need it compared to a star performer. On the other hand, the star performer may perform well, however, they are often overlooked because of their performance history even though they might have unrealized potential.
This means that manager bias may result in a star performer missing out on coaching. However, Styhre and Josephson (2007) suggest an alternative proposition, which is that star performers are more likely to be targeted for coaching because of a misconception that they are shouldering a bigger burden than those who are not. This means that coaching support may not be prioritized where it is needed most. In their paper, they suggest that coaching resources may be directed toward a star performer (referred to as heavy weight managers) because they are the ones with the highest revenues, but that the managers in the smaller office sites are most exposed to psychological stressors and are therefore in greatest need. In either case, management will make assumptions about where coaching is needed most and these will affect allocation decisions. This highlights the need for a systematic and rigorous approach, developed through techniques such as a needs analysis.

3.3.2 Learning Transfer

The failure to transfer or successfully apply what has been learned in training events is a common reason that development initiatives are ineffective. There are a number of reasons for this highlighted in the coaching literature, which can be attributed to training design, the learning environment and characteristics of the learner. For instance, training design is so often focused on the impartation of information, that practice and follow-up can be overlooked (Knight, 2009). This means that transfer of training cannot occur, because there is then a gap between the theory learned and its application to the workplace (Bowles & Picano, 2006). Similarly, because training is often conducted in large groups, a learner may be denied the one-to-one attention they need to work through individual issues to facilitate transfer. In these instances, coaching is often utilized as a bridge to increase transfer and helps to increase levels of productivity and role effectiveness (Olivero, Bane, & Kopelman, 1997; Bartlett, 2007; Locke, 2008). The implementation of a group learning design does not mean that transfer will not occur; rather, a group dynamic may be essential to applying the external pressure needed. For example, a group dynamic can help establish individual commitment to action through group boundary setting, sanctions and support, which invoke powerful emotional responses such as guilt, shame and hope (Ket De Vries, 2005). Another reason for a lack of transfer is that there may be timing issues that prevent individual employees attending training in the first place (Krazmien & Berger, 1997).

Organizations must also support training initiatives to facilitate the transfer of training, especially if it is trying to bring about significant and lasting change (Garmston 1992). In this sense,
effective coaching is limited in its capacity to bring about change if conducted in isolation and without follow up support (O'Connor and Ertmer 2006). Goldsmith suggests that a coach should go so far as to work with the leader’s co-workers as a way of creating a supportive environment and to help them ‘make themselves better’ (Goldsmith 2006). For example, the coachee’s supervisor may play an important role as a support in terms of the discussions they have with a supervisor about how to implement the learning; the positive feedback they give; and the extent to which they are involved and familiar with the training process (Levin et al. 2008).

Alternatively, a lack of transfer can be attributed to the learner. For example, in general terms, if the learner has a lack of self-regulatory skills i.e. cognitive and emotional skills, then transfer may not occur because they do not have the thinking skills to apply what has been learned. Ironically, this could be less of a problem in coaching than in other forms of training because coaching is concerned with the development of self-regulatory skills, rather than just imparting information or providing the coachee with a formula (Grant, 2001). Similarly, if an adult learner is actively engaged in learning, this might increase the likelihood of transfer but warns that coaching which is merely ‘feel-good’ may not produce real change (Grant 2007). In terms of transferring coaching skill to a role a leader may find it difficult to make a change in focus from task to people, which is undesirable because as established in earlier in this review, coaches who are more task-oriented may be more concerned with moving forward rather than investigating root causes first. The literature suggests that this kind of coaching process may be superficial, rather than holistic (Groom, 2005; Ket De Vries, 2005). A final reason for a lack of transfer based on personal learner characteristics may be that a leader is simply not be qualified to coach because they lack the qualifications to do so. This is a point emphasized by psychologists in the literature (Ket De Vries, 2005; Sperry, 1993).

It is suggested that coaching is ideally suited value adding to training, because it is an on-the-job form of learning and is more customized to the learner compared to off-site initiatives (Baldwin and Ford 1988; Heslin et al. 2006). In fact, it has been suggested that 90% of all training would be lost without coaching support and is in that sense a value add (Krazmien and Berger 1997; Bartlett 2007; Stewart and Palmer 2009). This is also supported by Knight (2009), who cites research by Bush (1984), which suggests that the addition of peer coaching to traditional forms of transfer support (workshops, modelling, feedback, practice) can increase the transfer learning to the job by 85% i.e. from 10% to 95%. Bright and Crockett (2012) also concur.
But even though coaching is considered an effective transfer of training tool, some evidence exists to suggest it may not always be effective. For example, Yu (2007) reports that the level of coaching intensity might correlate with levels of transfer. However, transfer will still not occur if the coachee does not perceive that the coach’s style and their competency to be adequate because subordinates will not be willing to be coached.

3.3.3 Qualifications and Continuing Professional Development

There is considerable debate in literature regarding the qualifications that a person should have in order to be a coach. For this reason the idea of CPD has recently been raised and investigated as a need for professionalization of the industry (DeHaan 2008). The idea that anyone can declare himself or herself a coach is a concern for some researchers, especially psychologists who seem to have a strong interest in this debate in both academia (Sperry 2004; Ket De Vries 2005; Styhre and Josephson 2007) as well as in industry (Australian_Psychological_Society 2011). The pre-dominant argument in favour of psychological accreditation relates to clinical issues i.e. that a lack of knowledge and skill as a practitioner can lead to a failure of coaches to adequately address deep-seated psychological problems they don’t understand because they are ignored or overlooked. A fear is that this can actually make a bad situation worse (Berglas 2002; Dean and Meyer 2002; Woodruffe 2006; Styhre and Josephson 2007). According to Palmer (2005) the interventions of non-coaching psychologists may yield poor results because they have not understood the psychological and performance related principles. Ket De Vries (2005) also argues that executive coaches need to understand the unconscious dimensions of organizational life and the factors that may derail the coaching process.

But, it is argued that just because a coach has a psychology qualification this does not guarantee that they will be competent as a coach. In support of this, Dehaan (2008) argues that although psychology/counseling literature argues that CPD is essential to protect practitioners and clients, there is no evidence that this is the case. In fact, there is some suggestion in the literature that clinical psychologists have assumed a role as coach although they have not had the appropriate re-training needed to coach (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson 2001), which implies that psychological training is not adequate to prepare a coach for competent practice. In addition, to be deemed ‘qualified’ may not be as simple as having a particular degree or certificate since successful coaching may be a matter of matching the appropriate qualifications for the needed intervention. As
an example, if a coachee needs skill development, then the qualification required may be very different than if the coachee needs psychological remediation (Dean and Meyer 2002).

From a management perspective coaches need to be educated about the organizational environment, which is unique and cannot be considered in the same context as psychology. For example, counseling is about treating individuals and their clinical problems, but the organizational environment more about professional, interpersonal and organization needs. To be successful the coach needs an understanding and experience of this context, which may include understanding the profit motive, stakeholder accountability, strategy and operations (Dean and Meyer 2002; Ket De Vries 2005).

Although post-graduate and doctor of philosophy level credentials are considered important to the professionalization of the industry they are not necessarily a guarantee of competency either. This is because one of the generic barriers to the professionalizing the industry is that CPD programs may not be up to the task of adequately equipping coaches to perform on the job. For example, it is argued that MBA programs are not always directly relevant to a professional setting because they are too general, not focused on developing behavioural competencies, and fail to embed performance and transfer enhancements such as learner feedback or reflection (Brocato 2003; Butler et al. 2008). This is not only an issue in CPD programs related to coaching but a problem with academic development programs in general. Ladyshewsky (2006) argues that there needs to be a greater connection between theory and practice if these programs are to be effective. In recognition of these shortfalls CPD programs that engage coaches in supervision have become popular because they give them an opportunity to receive coaching and facilitate structured reflection. These kinds of programs are needed because coaches have few opportunities for support and feedback in their work (De Haan 2008).

Finally, management scholars have suggested that the validity of coaching as a profession should be questioned, as it is arguable that it is not a discipline distinct from other human resource areas such as OD and HRD. This suggests that to be a coach does not require a new unique set of qualifications that fall outside the traditions of these disciplines (Hamlin et al. 2009). Also, the literature has established that are a number of disciplines that compose the body of knowledge so the notion of what constitutes a ‘qualification’ is relative, and much broader than that argued by any one discipline.
3.3.4 Time

The ability to find time for coaching is a factor, which may prevent participation because it requires a coachee to diverge from normal work activities to engage with a coach and in reflection (McNally and Lukens 2006). But, some employees feel as though the coaching process will pose an additional workload on them in an already busy context, and as a result they will not be able to make the most of the coaching (Styhre and Josephson 2007). The literature suggests that this can be addressed at an individual as well as an organizational as level. For instance, at a rural elementary school in which school teachers were receiving coaching one of the barriers was finding time and space to participate in the coaching. One of the ways that the coach overcomes this is by arguing that coaching itself will in fact create time for the coachee (Nan 2007). There were five other strategies used by the school to make time, which included:

1. Buying time – which involved hiring substitute labour to assist with the coachee’s duties;
2. Using common-time i.e. learn at lunch seminars (with the coach);
3. Freeing time – which is achieved through allowing teachers to specialize in the teaching of a smaller number of subjects, but teaching them more often (which saves in preparation time) i.e. helping them to work smarter not harder;
4. Embedding time – which involves making use of an internal coach who is available for informal sessions at short notice, or for more formalized and planned sessions, all of which are structured around the needs and schedules of the coachees. The coach becomes an ‘integral thread’ throughout the workplace.
5. Using time more effectively – which involves ‘leveraging’ the effect of the time teachers spend with their students through coaching, rather than hiring external consultants to directly do the work.

Whilst coaching recipients may express concern about finding the time to schedule in coaching, literature suggests that their concerns quickly fade because coaching and reflective activity becomes a valued time of reflection in which they can focus on themselves, receive support, gain perspective, identify strategies for improvement and reduce stress (Nan 2007; Koloroutis 2008).

3.3.5 Conclusion

This section of the literature review was a continuation of the work began in section 3.1, which was about people. This section focused instead on design and the relevant major debates and issues in the coaching literature as they relate to real-world practice and experience. It identified and explored the problems that may arise as coaches seek to overcome to satisfy the change agenda. A
number of themes were explored in this section of the review, including dichotomies, transfer of learning, qualifications, continuing professional development (CPD) and time.

In the section on dichotomies, it was established that the manager as coach must embrace the coaching role. This may involve being adequately prepared for this role in terms of knowledge, skills and awareness. Also, although there is a need for an organization’s agenda to be accounted for in the development process, the process must be sufficiently coachee centred and this should be reflected in an inquiry-based approach. But, the process should also be solution focused and therefore result in the development of some kind of task or action plan. The emphasis though between people and task focus will depend in part on the clarity of the brief given to the coach as to the needs of the coachee. Whether the coach is an internal or professional coach may impact on their ability to devote themselves to the coaching task. This will be more of a challenge for the internal coach or manager as coach, who must be able to reconcile competing demands. Manager attribution bias may mean that key people may miss out on coaching, even though they have a need. Although there is debate about this in the literature, one insight is that a systematic approach to selecting candidates for coaching is required, and is in that sense a clear device of coaching.

Coaching appears to be a mechanism for increasing the effectiveness of training initiatives because of its efficacy as a transfer of training tool. There appear to be a broad range of factors, which contribute to the successful of transfer of training, and in this sense, it could be considered a useful purpose of coaching. This is because coaching promotes some of the core activities, which increase transfer of training, including practice and follow-up, one-to-one attention, follow-up support and accountability. It can also promote a group dynamic if the coach is able to work with the coachee’s colleagues, for example their supervisor, to garner support and apply external pressure. These core activities form the basis of the devices of coaching toward transfer of training.

The notion that coaches should be trained and qualified is not in question in the literature, however, what constitutes an appropriate education regime is. The debate is divided at this stage amongst the key contributors from both management and psychology. Some of the key concerns amongst researchers are that anyone can call himself or herself a coach without any form of accountability for adhering to a standard of practice; that coaching may be ineffective without proper qualifications; and that having a qualification without appropriate experience is inadequate. For this PhD study, the importance of education and qualifications suggests that they are a device of coaching. It seems that some kind of combination of psychological or management oriented
qualification i.e. masters or doctoral, as well as workplace related experience is going to be most conducive to effective coaching. In addition, ongoing opportunity to reflect on practice is also an important part of coach education and competency.

This review of ‘time’ was very brief, but it suggests that a shortage of time is a factor that may prevent employees from devoting time to activities such as coaching. For this reason, a purpose of the coach may be to overcome these objections and physical time constraints. The willingness of an organization to help in this task of creating this time for their employee may also be a contingent factor. Either way, the availability of time to devote to coaching is a device of coaching.

3.4 CONCLUSION

The second chapter of the literature review focused on the practical purposes and devices of workplace coaching. It reviewed some of the major debates and issues outlined in practice in the coaching literature, which reflect the complexity of real-world scenarios that may inform the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. It was thought that this approach was consistent with the applied nature of workplace coaching in management and an identifiable strength of the literature. A number of themes were explored in this section of the review, including quick-fixes, resistance, dichotomies, perceptions, behaviour, transfer of learning, qualifications and continuing professional development (CPD) stress and time.

The review suggests that the purpose of coaching is not just defined by the end game of organization and individual development, but that it is confounded by enormous complexities along the way and so must be process driven. The process reflects the complexity of its stakeholders and the context in which they participate. The process orientation does suggest that the devices of coaching are therefore important as a catalyst for negotiating and overcoming the complexity. For instance, the section about ‘quick-fixes’ suggests that a purpose and device of coaching is to help individuals and organizations in which they work to achieve genuine and timely solutions to problems that interfere with their mission. Instead, the purpose of coaching is to help them to pursue a more concrete path, which is characterized by an investment in the resources that are required for effective problem solving toward authentic change. A second purpose relates to resistance, that is, a coach has a clear purpose to address and overcoming resistance. Some of the specific devices underlying this purpose include: ensuring there is no hidden agenda for coaching; allaying fears about coaching; demonstrating the value and need for coaching, ensuring and maintaining an
appropriate level of compatibility in the coaching relationship; and finally, moderating self-beliefs as a reflective practitioner.

In the section on dichotomies, it was established that a purpose of a manager as coach is to embrace the coaching role and in that, adopt an inquiry based approach and be solution focused. Because perceptions can interfere with the willingness or capability of coaching stakeholders to participate in the process, education is seen as a remedy and therefore a prospective purpose and device of coaching. It was argued that a requirement for any coach is that coaches are able to regulate themselves to make appropriate decisions and act accordingly, and is therefore a potential device of coaching. In the same way, a systematic approach to selecting candidates for coaching is required, and is in that sense a device of coaching. For the coachee, the literature is clear that a purpose of coaching is to help the coachee become a self-regulated learner, which means valuing and taking ownership of it, rather than being dependent and passive.

Coaching appears to be a mechanism for increasing the effectiveness of training initiatives because of its efficacy as a transfer of training tool and because of this could be considered a useful purpose of coaching. This is because coaching it promotes some of the core activities which increase transfer of training, including practice and follow-up, one-to-one attention, without follow up support and accountability. These core activities form the basis of the devices of coaching toward transfer of training.

Education and qualifications in coaching are an important device. It seems that some kind of combination of psychological or management oriented qualification i.e. masters or doctoral, as well as workplace related experience is going to be most conducive to effective coaching. An opportunity to reflect on practice is also an important part of coach education and competency.

From a management perspective, stress is a major issue because of the potential consequences at a variety of levels. In simple terms, it occurs because the demands of employment exceed the controls of the individual needed to interact with those demands. On this basis, the management of stress using coaching is a worthwhile purpose.

Finally, the review of ‘time’ suggests that a shortage of time is a factor that may prevent employees from devoting time to activities such as coaching. For this reason, a purpose of the coach may be to overcome these objections and physical time constraints. The willingness of an
organization to help in this task of creating this time for their employee may also be a contingent factor. Either way, the availability of time to devote to coaching is a device of coaching.
CHAPTER 4
METHODOLOGY

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters established that there is still much to learned about management coaching; hence the broad research question of this thesis. This chapter explains the research methodology, which adopts a qualitative interpretive approach; an approach defined by Denzin and Lincon (2000:3) as “…a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world…”. The chapter begins by briefly exploring the fundamental attributes of the interpretive paradigm, specifically its major assumptions and the effect of these on research practice. The second section provides a justification of the methodology and the final section explains the research design, data collection and approach to the analysis.

4.1 The research method and its justification

As suggested in the literature review chapters, of the 231 management-oriented papers in the management coaching literature, 81 are consultant papers. Of the remaining 150 academic papers, a search of three databases i.e. Psych Info, ABI and Scopus, suggest that approximately 54 or 30% are empirical. On this basis, this study seeks to add its voice to the few empirical interpretive studies that currently exist in the management body of knowledge.

The objective of the interpretive process is to gain a naturalistic perspective and interpretive understanding of human experience as it occurs in the everyday social world filtered through the frames of reference of the participant (Nelson et al. 1992; Flick 1998). To achieve this it is important to achieve a richness of data that captures the images, understandings and interpretations of the phenomenon being investigated (Weinstein and Weinstein 1991). Underpinning the interpretive paradigm is a set of assumptions, which distinguish it from the positivist paradigm. These go to the nature of reality [ontology]; the standards used for the evaluation of research [epistemology]; and methods used by a researcher to gain knowledge of the world in interpretive research [axiology] (Burrell and Morgan 1976). Denzin and Lincoln (1994:18) articulate these
assumptions in terms of the act of research “…[the] researcher approaches the world with a set of ideas, a framework [theory, ontology], that specifies a set of questions [epistemology, justification], that he or she then examines in specific ways [methodology, analysis]….”. Whilst this study is interpretive, it is a hybridized approach, in that it has an affinity with realism, positivism and nomothetism. This stance was adopted because it is consistent with the researcher’s personal biography and arguably with the discipline of management (Watson (2011).

The ontological theory behind the interpretive paradigm is that reality is thought to be a function of an individual’s consciousness (Kenshur 2003). As reality is a function of an individual’s consciousness, truth is understood as a subjective phenomenon (McMillan and Schumacher 1989; Kenshur 2003). The purpose of the researcher in this context is to attain the subjective or value laden perspective of the individual participant’s social experience and meaning making (Denzin and Lincoln 1994) i.e. interpretive researchers seek to ‘capture’ reality from the individual’s perspective. But, because they believe reality is a complex phenomenon, and because of the limited capacity of individuals to comprehend the truth it is thought that it can only ever be approximated by participants and researchers (Guba 1990). Consequently, as this is a limitation of interpretive inquiry it also applies to this study i.e. this study sought to capture ‘reality’ from the perspective of individual participants, but frames their perspectives as ‘relative and partial truths’ rather than universal. However, even though this is an interpretive study, the author acknowledges that the findings are somewhat reductionist, and based on limited interactions with the participants, which is at odds with the principles of ethnography. In contrast, this approach is more consistent with a critical realist’s approach to research as opposed to nominalism (Burell and Morgan 1976). The philosophical stance is stated here for clarity and to explain why the findings are laced with elements of the ‘positivist spectre’. This is most evident in the kind of language used on this thesis, which such as data, evidence and so on.

The epistemology of interpretive research specifies that a researcher evaluate their research on the basis of the integrity of their textual data (McMillan and Schumacher 1989). This means that they prefer methods of evaluation that capture the uniqueness, richness, and depth of perspectives. These methods include: verisimilitude, emotionality, personal responsibility, ethics of caring, political traxis, multi-voiced texts, and dialogue with subjects (Denzin and Lincoln 1994). They may use quasi-statistics, but exclude statistical methods such as path, regression or log-linear analyses (Spindler and Spindler 1992). In this research, the materials collected were analyzed using qualitative methods, which sought to recognize the relativistic perspectives held by each of them.
The approach taken is firmly rooted in the interpretive paradigm, but it could be said that on the whole, the specific participant contexts, which were unique to them are not explored or explained in this research. Again, although the research is in principle interpretive, the approach taken perhaps resembles a positivist framework (Watson (2011)). The consequence of this approach is that the meanings given to statements provided by participants have not been filtered with a deep understanding of their personal biography. This is not necessarily uncommon in interpretive research, but it is a point worth noting as it impacts the epistemological integrity of the findings.

The axiology of interpretive research favours the use of data collection methods that are capable of capturing a subjective reality, which is relativistic, unique and individual (D'Abate et al. 2003). This reflects a dominant view of qualitative researchers, which is that their work mirrors the realities of the everyday social world and therefore focuses directly on the specifics of individual cases. Similarly, because the interpretive researcher generally adopts an ideographic approach, they tend to be concerned with acquiring rich descriptions of the social world. Because of their choice of methods, they believe that they are able to ‘get closer’ to the subject because of the intimacy they afford unlike quantitative approaches in which the researcher is more remote (Denzin and Lincoln 1994). But this ‘closeness’ requires the researcher to recognize their own frames of reference i.e. values, personal theories, perspectives, and prejudices, and its potential adverse effects on the integrity of the research process (Vidich and Lynman 1994). Subsequently, the data collection methods in this project were ideographic in nature, consisting primarily of in-depth interviews complemented by an open-ended qualitative survey from a select number of participants who satisfied certain selection criteria. To guard against bias, regular meetings were held with research supervisors to discuss and reflect on methodological issues. Whilst the approach to data collection was primarily ideographic i.e. utilized interview and document analysis, the use of open-ended qualitative surveys also suggests a nomothetic stance. As already acknowledged, the use of surveys did restrict the use of qualitative techniques such as probing and clarification. It is also noted that the information collected using this approach was less valuable than other data because it lacked the level of detail that is desired in the interpretive tradition.

4.2 Research design

The approach to interpretive research should be relatively ‘straightforward’ in that it emphasizes logical rather than logistical matters (Yin 2008). This means that the research process should not be an end unto itself, but rather act to support the higher purpose. To illustrate, De Vaus
(2003:9) urges an approach based on the necessity for the kind of data to be collected “… Before a builder or architect can develop a work plan or order materials they must first establish the type of building required, its uses and the needs of the occupants. The work plan flows from this. Similarly, in social research the issues of sampling, method of data collection (e.g. questionnaire, observation, document analysis), design of questions are all subsidiary to the matter of `What evidence do I need to collect?’…”. As suggested earlier, the assumptions underpinning the interpretive paradigm specify that in general terms, the kind of data that needs to be collected should be ideographic, naturalistic, in depth, and most likely qualitative.

Whilst there is a broader consensus in literature about the ideology or ‘logic’ behind interpretive methods, the logistics i.e. epistemology and axiology of interpretive method (or research design) are not universally agreed. There appears to be little universal consensus as to the conceptualization of research design nor its fundamental elements. Standard academic research texts suggested that there were two kinds of research design i.e. descriptive and explanatory (De Vaus 2003); whereas others suggest that there are four i.e. explanatory, descriptive, exploratory, and evaluative (Gall et al. 2005; Veal 2005). Also, some authors conflate research design with research methods, although they are fundamentally different (De Vaus 2003). Gall et al. (2005) and Maxwell (2005) use the term ‘research design’ to describe the broader elements of a research study consisting of goals, research questions, conceptual framework, collection methods and validity; but, the term ‘research strategy’ is used to describe what others call ‘research design’, which adds further confusion (Janesick 2003). Finally, some authors outline few research designs and others suggest many. For example, in Janesick (2003), eighteen research strategies are identified including ethnography, case study, descriptive study, phenomenological study and field research; whereas in Creswell (2003) there are only five listed, including: narratives, phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory and case study. However, despite the apparent confusion in the literature about research design, some authors such as applying Yin (2008) and Maxwell (2005) apply a ‘logic hypothesis, suggesting that a research design should consist of logical elements, which include goals/purposes, conceptual framework, research questions, collection methods and validity as a guide to the collection of appropriate data. This logic is also applied to this study.

The design adopted for this research was exploratory, which was thought appropriate because the literature is conflated and under-developed, lacking in empirical research, and a scoping study was important to set an agenda for future research. For example, there is confusion over the fundamentals of the field as evidenced by an absence of standard models of practice (most are
proprietary); little or no agreement about definitions of coaching in management or the kinds of qualifications required for practice; nor how coaching contributes to organizational success. There is even confusion about whether coaching is a discipline on its own, or just another form of organizational development and human resource development practice (Hamlin et al. 2009). To conclude, the management coaching body of knowledge is one that has no clear identity, and reflects the ad-hoc and proprietary nature of the commercial coaching industry.

4.3 Identifying and recruiting key informants

Social researchers commonly select research participants most likely to provide data, which is information rich about the phenomenon being studied. Ideally, this should be done in a systematic way (Patton 2001). Patton suggests that there are three potential strategies for selecting research participants for a study: for example, selection decisions can be made on the basis of key characteristics, a conceptual rationale, or an emergent basis, which can be used depending on the situation. In this research, the identification and recruitment of key informants were made on the basis of key characteristics, which is a strategy that applies when the participants exhibit characteristics of interest to the researcher strategy. These characteristics are outlined below.

Because of the unregulated nature of the coaching industry, the literature suggests that anyone can call himself or herself a coach (Whitmore 1992; Sweeney 2007; Blamey et al. 2008; Hamlin et al. 2009). To counter this, a rigorous criteria was applied to the recruitment process, which meant that it was a challenge to identify what constitutes a representative sample and difficult to recruit the external coaches who comprise the majority of the participants in this study (see recruitment criteria below). The level of rigour was therefore intentional and informed by the significant debate about the kinds of qualifications that a coach should possess to be considered competent (Orenstein 2002; Dean and Meyer 2002; Stern 2004; O'Connor and Ertmer 2006; Dehaan 2008; Farmer 2011). The risk of lowering the criteria was that 'unqualified coaches' who practice would be selected, and that was thought to be undesirable for an exploratory project, which is seeking to help develop an agenda for further research. Consequently, the recruitment strategy yielded few, but very high quality respondents, many of whom had PhDs and Master's degrees, and have coached in high profile organizations including, NASA, Lion Nathan, RTA and others (see Appendix E for information about the participant demographics and characteristics). So, even though the number recruited to this study is relatively small, the value is in the quality of the participants selected and the 'qualified opinions' and perspectives that they were able to share.
Accessing suitable participants was in part facilitated through contact with a peak international coaching association. It is also keen to conduct research of its own, and sponsor major research projects that might benefit its members and the industry. Projects are advertised in their monthly magazine. Initial contact was made with the association during December 2009 followed by a research proposal, which was submitted to their research committee. Approval was given for the research in July 2010 and an advertisement promoting the research was distributed to their membership in October 2010. As members responded to the advertisement and expressed their interest to participate to the association’s director of research, their contact details ‘passed on’ via email. Members were then contacted and interviews and surveys scheduled between December 2010 – March 2011.

Criterion sampling was applied to individual coaches who wished to participate based on several characteristics to match those in the workplace coaching literature. The literature suggests that 90% of executive coaches have post-graduate qualifications (at least a Masters degree) and 45% have Doctorates (Judge and Cowell 1997). So, to ensure that the participants were qualified professionals it was specified in the information sheet that coaches met all of the following criteria:

- a degree (preferably Masters) in a related discipline such as psychology, adult education, management; or have 2-3 years of equivalent professional experience as a manager, administrator, or trainer.
- have comparable experience engaged as a coach to organizations as an internal or external capacity, or as a manager who adopts a coaching approach when managing their subordinates.
- be earning above US $50,000 per annum in this role.

As suggested this was a fairly rigorous criteria, which facilitated the recruitment of very high quality participants for the study. But, as explained at the outset of this chapter, this is considered particularly important for an interpretive project, which adopts an ideographic approach and seeks to collect rich data from a limited number of participants (Denzin and Lincoln 1994). Subsequently, each was able to offer significant insight and a high level of detail into the purposes and devices of workplace coaching.

Whilst external coaches are a key participant in coaching there is an argument to be made about the importance of the ‘coaching triad’, which typically consists of a coach, coachee, supervisor, and on that basis to include all of them in coaching research (Judge and Cowell 1997; Joo 2005). For the
purposes of this research they are all considered important stakeholders because of the different roles they assume and therefore perspectives they can potentially contribute. For example, the external coaches perspective is important because they participate in coaching design and implementation across multiple organizations, and can therefore provide a 'comparative' point of view based on their experience coaching in a vast number of organizations.

The supervisor’s perspective is important because they very often adopt the manager as coach role. Their perspective is different to that of the external coach in that they represent an organization’s strategic interests, and reflect this in the design and implementation of coaching programs in which they participate. On this basis, they were subsequently recruited for this study. But, establishing the recruitment criteria for the managers as coach recruited in this study was more difficult than for the external coaches. This is because unlike the external coaches, in coaching literature there is no typical profile provided for them. The only commonly understood characteristic is that a manager as coach is often a senior leader, and so this was the key characteristic specified for recruitment. In addition, because the organizations recruited to this study were required to be actively pursuing coaching as a development strategy, the manager as coach were often involved in the design, support and implementation of the coaching effort at various levels. For example, many were required to work with external coaches to develop their subordinates as a supplement to their own coaching role. Similarly, all adopted elements of the HR function in their role as coach, and subsequently assumed the role as employee advocate, mentor and/or champion. In this study, they are referred to as ‘manager as coach’.

The importance of the third member of the coaching triad - the coachee – can also provide a unique perspective about coaching because they experience coaching first hand in the context of their operational role. They also represent the perspective of the learner, who is most often learning to become a better manager as coach. On this basis, they were also recruited for this study. For a manager to become a successful manager as coach, the literature suggests that they will need focused developmental support to make the transition from a technical and task orientation to a people orientation (Berg and Karlsen 2007; Lindbom 2007). The literature suggests that this support is something that an external coach can provide. Again, like the manager as coach, there is no particular profile provided in literature about their characteristics. Consequently, the only characteristic required for their participation in this study is that they were being coached by an external coach to improve their leadership ability. In the study, they are referred to ‘manager as coach in training’.
The manager as coach and manager as coach in training were recruited independently of the association from which external coaches were recruited. This is because the membership of the association was mainly composed of external coaches. Instead they were recruited via two organizations known to the author, which had been utilizing coaching as part of a learning and development initiative. A snowball strategy was used to recruit them in which their HR managers responded to a mailed invitation to participate in the research. Information sheets were passed on to them and subsequent expressions of interest were made directly to the researcher.

Given the importance of the various members of the coaching triad, when reflecting on the research question, 'what are the purposes and devices of workplace coaching in a management context?', it could be argued that an investigation of coaching solely from the perspective of one group would not provide a broad enough perspective of its 'purposes and devices'. Despite this, it is common for studies in the literature to investigate coaching from the perspective of only one stakeholder or to take the form of a descriptive case study, which often includes all members of the coaching triad. Although this study did not adopt a case study methodology, for the reasons just outlined it included them all as well. To that extent, the study method it is a departure from the traditional qualitative study found in literature, but is a similarity it shares with the case study method that is often adopted. Therefore, it is concluded that a diverse range of coaching participants is essential to understanding coaching in the management context and their inclusion provided an additional layer of complexity to the data, and served to help triangulate the data.

4.4 Data collection

Qualitative data collection methods are characterized by the use of multi-methods, which have been described as bricolage and the researcher as bricoleur. A bricoleur values and uses whatever methods, strategies or empirical materials, which are available or are appropriate to the context (Becker 1989; Nelson et al. 1992). There is no hierarchical value placed on particular methods that can claim superiority (Richardson 1991). Empirical methods can include case study, personal experience, introspective, life story, interview, observational, historical, interactional and visual texts (Brewer and Hunter 1989; Denzin and Lincoln 1994).

Interview techniques commonly feature highly in interpretive research (Brewer and Hunter 1989; Nelson et al. 1992; Denzin and Lincoln 1994) as well as in this research. This is because they
are ideographic, informal and employ open-ended questions which allow participants to respond in their own terms (Schwandt 1997). Whilst there may be an interview plan, it can be flexible enough to reflect the ideographic nature of qualitative methods and thereby allow the interview to take its own unique course (Denzin and Lincoln 1994; Schwandt 1997). As suggested in the introduction, it is a situated activity. This is important because interpretive researchers rely on intimacy or closeness with the participants to gain in-depth perspectives.

This research project used two methods to collect data from 35 participants across the globe. There were 5 supervisors (managers as coach), 3 coachees (managers as coach in training) and 27 external coaches. In-depth interview and open-ended qualitative surveys were utilized to collect the data. However, in-depth interview was the primary mode of data collection in which there were 23 interviews involving 20 participants. A small number of participants were interviewed more than once. Because coaching is such a highly specialized area of developmental practice, and because of the potential for participants to share a diverse range of opinions and ideas about the construct, the use of in-depth interviews was considered important to gathering the rich detail needed to understand the phenomenon. To maximize the value of the interviews, they were relatively long i.e. approximately 90-120 minutes duration. To further maximize the value perspective gained during interviews, the participants were recruited from a broad number of western nations. Data was also collected via fifteen open-ended qualitative surveys.

The initial themes formulated for exploration in this study were developed from management coaching constructs identified in a previous masters research project conducted by the author. To preserve the intent of this exploratory study, the use of these themes served as an initial stimulus for a broader discussion about the organizational and management interest in coaching, rather than the subject of the study itself. The development of the interview schedule and survey instrument was an iterative process, in which the proposed format was sent to supervisors. They provided feedback about the content and adjustments made accordingly until a consensus was reached. See Appendix B for a copy of the interview schedule and survey instrument.

The data was collected in two phases from 2007-2010. The interview data collected during 2007 involved seven participants (from one of the organizations mentioned earlier) and comprises the smaller component of the total data in this project i.e. 7 of 35 participants. It was collected as part of a research master’s project previously conducted by the researcher. It was included in this project as it provided a situated perspective about the use of workplace coaching by the
organizations (as compared to the coaches who are typically highly mobile external consultants), as communicated by the ‘key consumers’ i.e. managers as coach, and managers as coach in training. The Masters project also had a compatible research question, which was: What is the Purpose of Workplace Coaching at ABC Manufacturing? The data also performed an important function because it enriched the data collected from the external coaches and in that way helped to enhance the value of the insight gained about the organizational perspective of workplace coaching. The remainder of the participants i.e. 26 external coaches, and two managers as coach were recruited during 2010. To further ensure the distinctiveness of the contribution that the data makes to the PhD (compared to the Masters), the researcher was careful to avoid using the same citations that were used in the Masters. However, the same data was coded and synthesis into the analysis.

This project was granted the relevant ethical clearances by the ethics committee from the University of Newcastle for both the collection of data for the PhD, and the use of the existing Master’s data. The use of the masters data was also possible because the data was considered a ‘low risk’ and in any case, it was a condition of involvement for the participants that they consent to it being utilized in the researcher’s subsequent doctoral program. Also, The three year time-frame for collecting the entire data set for the PhD i.e. 2007-2010 is not thought to be significant for the purposes of this study, given that the management coaching literature has developed at a slow pace during that time. Three years is also within the allowable timeframe to complete a PhD. It is acknowledged that the data collection straddled the period of the GFC, which occurred in 2008. It is possible that the available resources for developmental approaches like coaching may have decreased during that time, although the need to increase the productivity and effectiveness of its leadership would be even more prevalent. This could mean that whilst organizations might utilize coaching, they may utilize less expensive forms such as internal (Rock 2008) and peer coaching (Ladyshewsky 2010). However, even this does not change the purpose of coaching, which remains constant. Similarly, temporal factors are unlikely to change the nature of the findings of this research given that it is focused on explaining the mechanisms through which coaching helps organizations become more effective, which the research has found centre around ‘time-honoured’ concepts such as effectiveness, culture, teamwork, internal capability, leadership support and effectiveness, coaching design and rigour. Furthermore, the findings in this study are the proceeds of a synthesis of ideas from multiple participants, and were only included if there was agreement amongst them. In this respect, if there was a significant difference in the data collected overtime, it would have been obvious from the analysis. Although a direct comparison has not been made between pre and post GFC data collected, there was little disconfirming evidence to suggest that
temporal factors associated with the three-year period of data collection have skewed the findings in anyway.

A high degree of rapport was thought to have been achieved throughout the in-depth interview process with a majority of interviewees. However, it is acknowledged that because many were conducted via ‘Skype’ rather than face-to-face, i.e. 12 of 20, it was more difficult to determine if this were the case than it would have been with visual cues. Although a schedule of themes was used to guide the interviews, the questions were designed as a ‘starting point’ to stimulate discussion and the interview process was accordingly very fluid and free flowing, reflecting the broad nature of the subject matter being explored in the research question. The data instruments/schedules used in this study to collect data were different for the two groups of respondents that participated in this study to reflect the mode of collection and practical concerns. For example, the external coaches that were interviewed or surveyed were questioned on the basis that they would have a ‘comparative knowledge’ of a range of organizations using coaching. On the other hand, it could not be assumed that the managers as coach or the managers as coach in training, would have this comparative knowledge because theirs would be more specific to one organization i.e. their own. Consequently, although the questions touch on similar issues, they are formulated differently and so further facilitate triangulation.

To assist with rapport building, interviewees were asked to turn-off all technology and be situated in a secure location free of interruption. They were encouraged to be candid in their interviews/surveys responses and reminded at the beginning of the interview of the confidential nature of the interviews. It was re-iterated that although they were being recorded they could not be identified in the data and any names they used would be changed as a further measure. This was to ensure an ethical process and to satisfy the ethical obligations imposed by the University of Newcastle’s Ethics Committee. All of the interviews began with a friendly 2-3 minute introduction, which consisted of trivial conversation and seemed to relax the interviewees and aided in the sharing of ‘fluid accounts’. There was one notable participant who seemed to remain tense for the duration of the interview and there were a number of distractions that may have attributed to this, including mobile phones ringing in the background. It was a challenging interview and ended prematurely. The interview recordings were transcribed, which generated approximately 340 pages of single spaced interview data generated for analysis. To satisfy the conditions of the ethics committee and preserve the identity of the participants, participant names were altered. Each participant was sent a copy of their transcriptions and invited to verify the meanings of their
contributions and make changes if appropriate. Only a small number of participants requested that amendments be made to the interview scripts and these changes were made accordingly.

4.5 Data analysis

The preference of qualitative methods for the production of in-depth information often results in the generation of large amounts of textual data about a phenomenon; this study is no exception. A researcher can utilize various analytical methods to make sense of the inherent meaning in the data, which can be classified as interpretational, structural and reflective (Tesch 1990): *interpretational analysis* is defined as a systematic set of procedures to code and classify qualitative data to ensure that the important constructs, themes and patterns emerge (Gall et al. 2005); *structural analysis* is a set of procedures for analyzing qualitative data without the need for inference i.e. the value of the data is intrinsic; and, *reflective analysis* relies on the intuitive judgments of the researcher to make sense of the data.

This study utilized interpretational analysis, as a thematic approach was deemed most appropriate to the aims of the project. It relied on the researcher making inferences from the data, which was achieved through six steps: data is transcribed (if recorded), codes are developed and applied to categorize the data, it is coded into groups according to codes, themes and patterns are then generated. This process was followed using NVivo qualitative analysis software. There were three levels of coding utilized during analysis, which resulted in the development of chapter themes, main heading and paragraph specific sub-themes. The first two levels of coding were applied within NVivo itself, and the third was developed as writing occurred and is reflected in the main arguments in the data analysis in each sub-section. The research questions were kept in mind as a filter throughout the coding process; so, if it was thought that a point of discussion could be related to either a purpose or device of coaching, they were coded accordingly. However, responses or sections of responses that did not infer a purpose or device were not coded and so excluded from the analysis. To ensure the consistency in coding, a brief description was made of each code within NVivo, which was referred to when there was any doubt about the applicability of a particular code to a piece of data. The coding scheme was refined over time as they were applied to three initial interviews and survey responses and then standardized for the rest of the data. A copy of the coding scheme can be found in Appendix C. Some codes were discarded because there was insufficient data available to support a viable argument; however, these have been included in the table for reference. The four main themes and eight sub-themes in the data analysis were derived from a
larger number of codes (50). The codes were developed intuitively and based on the concepts used in literature. The themes identified also reflect the purposes and devices of coaching identified in the literature review in chapter 3. The consistency between the terminologies used in the literature and coding schema provide a mechanism for extending this knowledge and at the same time maintaining a degree of continuity in the analysis and findings. A conventional reporting structure was used, which included: introduction, review of literature review, methodology, results and discussion. The report was written in the third person.

It is worth noting that the challenge of identifying and recruiting qualified participants for the research project had implications for achieving saturation in the data analysis. However, this was considered to be acceptable given that the purpose of the research was exploratory, with the aim of identifying a broad range of constructs and ideas related to the phenomena. So, it is unlikely that even with a larger number of coaches, that saturation could have been achieved; although a broader range of ideas and opinions would have been gained. Because of these factors, in terms of the limitations of the research, the findings can be considered suggestive at best.

There is some debate as to the techniques that should be used to ensure reliability, which is a reflection of the fact that the qualitative tradition is still developing (Tobin and Begley 2004; Reynolds 2011). Some of the concepts discussed in literature include: triangulation, crystallization, goodness, credibility, authenticity, and so on. Many of these terms are used interchangeably with one another, and the lack of consensus suggests that researchers should make the best of what has been established. For example, there is debate though as to whether triangulation is sufficient to establish the completeness of the data collected (Richardson 2000). The alternative proposition is that the data should be crystallized for this purpose, which is essentially draws on a variety of “methods, approaches and points” to establish triangulation (Tobin and Begley 2004:7). However, it is also suggested that this idea could be simply ‘reinventing the wheel’. On this basis, more traditional methods to ensure reliability were adopted and less esoteric approaches adopted.

To ensure the credibility of the analysis (reliability) the issues of trustworthiness of data, triangulation, and generalizability were considered as outlined by Gall et al (2005) and others. To ensure the trustworthiness of the data, there should be a strong chain of evidence or an audit trail (McLean, Yang et al. 2005), which is essentially documentation that records the research process. Gall et al (2003) suggests that this might include samples of the written or recorded data, process notes, data instruments, the data in its reconstructed state or products of synthesis. To this end,
documents held include: a digital NVivo file, hard copies of transcribed interview and survey data; the University of Newcastle Human Ethics Committee approval (number: H-2009-0402); and copies of the email correspondence between the researcher the research director of the association and participants. Field memos are available at request, but only if it does not contravene ethical guidelines.

Another important factor in ensuring the credibility of the analysis is triangulation and disconfirming analysis. Essentially, these are a process of drawing on confirming or disconfirming evidence in the study and in that sense involves the collection of data from multiple sources. The benefit of following this process is that inconsistencies in the data can be ‘unearthed’ and then reconciled. As has been suggested, the data in this project was collected from the multiple stakeholder groups typically involved in the workplace coaching triad i.e. external coaches, managers as coach, and managers as coach in training. The similarities and differences in perspectives have been reflected in the analysis and highlighted in the data synthesis. Because of the diversity of nationalities of the participants, it was highly likely that the range of ideas and opinions would also be broad and varied, and they were. To further triangulate the data, it was collected using multi-methods i.e. in-depth interviews and open-ended surveys.

A final element that has been considered in this study to ensure the credibility of the analysis is generalizability, which is the extent to which a study’s findings can be applied to similar and/or different contexts to those that were studied during the research. A researcher may claim analytical or statistical generalizability, where analytical generalizability is applicable if the investigator’s goal is to develop, expand and generalize theories. This is compared to statistical generalizability, if the researcher desires to enumerate findings using predominantly quantitative methods (Yin 2008). There are no claims made for statistical generalization of the findings in this study as the purpose of the study was merely to identify and explore relevant themes, constructs and ideas, with a view to helping set a future research agenda. There is however, a recognition that further research may be appropriate to elaborate and quantify the findings statistically at a later date.

4.7  CONCLUSION

This chapter has overviewed and justified the methodology utilized in this research. As clearly outlined in the literature review, the management coaching body of knowledge is quite undeveloped, consisting of very descriptive studies, but a clear lack of understanding of the key
variables and constructs. Clearly, with only approximately 150 papers, it is not well understood and the low number of interpretive studies suggests that an interpretive approach is needed to further delineate the workplace coaching phenomena. Consequently, an exploratory research design was chosen because of its efficacy in achieving this; specifically, to identify and explore important variables and generate themes for further investigation (Marshall and Rossman 1989). To this end, the research question formulated was intentionally broad in its scope: what are the purposes and devices of workplace coaching in a management context? The major assumptions of the interpretive paradigm were explored and its effects on practice and the research design delineated accordingly. This was followed by an exploration of the meaning and implications of research design, which was further outlined in terms of the sampling strategy, data collection and analysis procedures.

Thirty-five high quality participants were recruited from across the globe. The identification and recruitment of key informants was made on the basis of a key characteristics strategy; accordingly a rigorous criterion was employed. This facilitated the exploratory nature of this research and supported the ideographic approach adopted. It aided in the collection of rich data, from the limited number of participants. To ensure triangulation, data was collected from a range of different stakeholders including external coaches, managers as coach, and managers as coach in training; and, two methods of data collection utilized including in-depth interviews and open-ended qualitative surveys. The methods of evaluation were based on interpretational analysis, which lends itself to a thematic approach and relies on the researcher making inferences from the data. To ensure the credibility of the analysis, a number of documents have been held, including: a digital NVivo file, hard copies of transcribed interview and survey data; the University of Newcastle Human Ethics Committee approval (number: H-2009-0402); and copies of the email correspondence between the researcher the research director of the association and participants. There are no claims made for statistical generalization of the findings because the purpose of the research was exploratory to help set an agenda for future research. However, there is recognition that further research may be appropriate to elaborate and quantify the findings statistically at a later date.
CHAPTER 5
DATA ANALYSIS:
THE MANAGEMENT CONTEXT

5.0 INTRODUCTION

The literature review conducted in Chapter 2 and 3 of this thesis established the lack of a management perspective in the body of coaching literature. Workplace coaching was framed as a popular approach to learning and development because of its ‘promise’ in helping human resource managers deliver on their mandate i.e. to increase the contribution of its workforce to organizational success. In some ways, this data analysis explores the mechanisms pertinent to the achievement of this mandate through workplace coaching, which provides insight into the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. This is an important goal given that there was not one study found in the literature that has explicitly achieved this from a management perspective. In the first chapter of the thesis, a section was written addressing the scope of this study. It was suggested that there is some interchangeability between the meaning of the terms purpose and device, which might depend on the relative position of the phenomenon in the chain of correlation, cause and effect. To understand the implications of this, some of these terms of reference are revisited and then an example given of how it applies in this data analysis.

The term ‘purpose’ was defined as “..the reason for which something is done or created or for which something exists..” (OxfordUniversityPress 2012). It was noted that ‘purpose’ can be reflected as a means ended outcome or relate to the process of achieving that outcome. It was also suggested in the literature review that a ‘device’ is one, which refers to the mechanisms or conditions involved in the fulfillment of that purpose. The following definition was offered: a device is any physical or meta-physical phenomena, explicit or implicit, which facilitates the realization of the purposes of workplace coaching. For example, a device could be (but is not limited to) a strategy, technology, philosophy, a policy, an experience, relationship, physical resource, an instruction, a program, a coaching session, an organizational structure, a perspective, a person, expertise, or a system. It was concluded that there is a proximity and potential causal link (or correlation) between a purpose and device and for this reason they often can exist in pairs i.e. one is subservient to the other. In recognition of this, the findings of this study are framed accordingly.
For example, in section 5.1 ‘Individual effectiveness as a device of organizational effectiveness’ is explored. The main finding here is that coaching increases individual effectiveness, and this is thought to result in increased levels of organizational effectiveness. In this one statement, the purpose of coaching is proposed as two-fold i.e. individual effectiveness and organizational effectiveness. However, when viewing these purposes in the context of cause and effect or correlation, then individual effectiveness can be defined as a mechanism or device of organizational effectiveness. Similarly, in the section 5.2 ‘Internal capability as a device of organizational effectiveness’ the main finding suggests that developing the internal people capabilities of an organization results in productivity improvements for that organization. Again, both are a purpose of coaching, but, when viewed within the chain of cause-effect, the development of internal capabilities can be considered a device of productivity. This kind of pairing of purposes and devices is commonplace throughout the data analysis, and evident in the formulation of its themes.

This data analysis is divided into two chapters and four distinct sections in which the purposes and devices of workplace coaching are delineated. In the first chapter, which focuses on the management context, there are two sections. Part A explores ‘Organizational effectiveness as a purpose of workplace coaching’. The main finding suggests that if an organization utilizes workplace coaching, it may lead to increased levels of organizational effectiveness. In this regard, a number of relationships are explored including: Individual effectiveness as a device of organizational effectiveness; Internal capability as a device of organizational effectiveness; and Teamwork as a device of organizational effectiveness.

Part B explores the ‘Organizational culture as a device of workplace coaching’. The main finding suggests that an organization with a coaching orientation recognizes and develops the strengths and potential of its people rather than focusing on weaknesses. It is suggested that it will be effective at developing its people because it has the needed values, attitudes and will provide appropriate levels of resources toward their development. Two key relationships are explored here, which include: Coaching culture as a device of collective strength; and Leadership and developmental support as a device of coaching culture.

Please note that for ease of use, the participants in this study are labelled coach 1, coach 2, coach 3 and so on. For further information about the characteristics of the participants, please see the Appendix E.
PART A: ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS AS A PURPOSE OF WORKPLACE COACHING

PART A: INTRODUCTION

This section of the data analysis explores organizational effectiveness as a purpose of coaching and its devices. This exploration sets the scene for the rest of the data analysis as some of these themes are more fully explored in later sections. The first section investigates the relationship between individual and organizational effectiveness. It begins by establishing the components of effectiveness that are relevant to organizations, including retention, succession, and employee satisfaction. As well, two contradictory arguments supported by the data are made with regard to the effectiveness of coaching i.e. that it may or may not lead to organizational effectiveness. Finally, it is asserted that leaders are an important contributor to organizational effectiveness, but that their effectiveness is limited by the organizational context. The latter is a theme further explored in Part B of the analysis.

The second section explores internal capabilities as a device of workplace coaching. The importance of leadership people capability/coaching skills is delineated and its effect on productivity. As well as this, the practical outworking of these skills, which is helping people to ‘step-up’ is investigated. In particular, the challenging implications of a change of leadership style for this purpose are discussed.

The third and final section explores teamwork as a device of organizational effectiveness. Initially, the importance of teamwork is established and its links to productivity; and then, social conditions, which are framed as a device of teamwork are delineated. It is argued that coaching can create conditions in which teams and relationships can flourish and these dimensions are explored.

5.1 INDIVIDUAL EFFECTIVENESS AS A DEVICE OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The data suggests that a major purpose of workplace coaching is organizational effectiveness. In terms of explaining its devices, the accounts of research participants in this study confirm that organizational effectiveness is largely a function of individual leader effectiveness and that it is incremental and cumulative. This occurs by virtue of their individual role contributions i.e.
the impact of leadership begins with individuals and via a ‘trickle-down effect’ through which organizations are transformed. However, the findings also suggest that the impact of their performance is mediated by the limitations of the organizational context in which they operate. The impact of coaching, as an approach to leadership development for the purpose of organizational effectiveness, is also limited by this context.

A logical place to begin this section of the analysis is with a clarification of the components of organizational effectiveness as a purpose of workplace coaching. One of the challenges is in defining what constitutes effectiveness, as it a relative term and its meaning may vary depending on one’s perspective, position and objectives. There is then an exploration of the link between individual and organizational effectiveness. In this section, the data suggests that individuals are an important contributor to organizational effectiveness, which is important to understand because it explains the mechanisms through which organizational effectiveness is achieved through coaching, and in that way validates its use in organizations. Finally, there is a brief discussion about the impact of the organizational context on the individual-organization relationship. Within the discussion about each finding, there is a corresponding theme(s), which relate directly to the research question guiding this thesis.

5.1.1 Coaching may lead to organizational effectiveness

There is some evidence in the data that suggests that coaching may have a role in facilitating organizational effectiveness (White 2008; Pollitt 2009; Coate and Hill 2011; Ellinger and Ellinger et al. 2012). Effectiveness in this context is found to include constructs such as: retention, succession, satisfaction, relationship and sales, productivity, teamwork, safety, outplacement and termination, job/person fit, capture and transfer of knowledge, selection, recognition and reward and behaviour change. It should be noted that there is much greater support in the data analysis for the first few dimensions than the last group because for some of the dimensions there was only one piece of empirical evidence available. Consequently, they are not explored here in the analysis, although some are explored further in the latter sections of the analysis. Whilst there was some evidence to support coaching as a device of organizational effectiveness, the data also supports the idea that introducing coaching into an organization may not lead to a definable or measurable outcome, and so coaching may be ineffective.

In general terms, the data suggests that there is a strategic link between coaching and
organizational effectiveness. Coach 1 suggests that coaching impacts a potentially wide range of organizational dimensions

“…coaching also addresses key factors such as retention, engagement and motivation. These factors, whilst aimed at the individual, have a significant impact on the organization as a whole…coaching aligns the individuals aims with those of the organization...”.

Coach 2 concurs, suggesting that coaching may have a strategic impact

“…with organizations, what got them here now, will not get them to where they want to go next….If the organizations haven't had time to diagnose how the current company culture is and where they next want to be, because their focus is more on day to day aspects rather than growth, then this is where strategic partnership is valuable. The coach can support their partners to see from different perspectives how they can approach the problem and fully see the solutions from a number of different ways….”.

In more specific terms though, the findings suggest that a purpose of workplace coaching is to help organizations to achieve some important strategic milestones in the areas of retention, productivity, well being and satisfaction, sales revenue and succession planning.

5.1.1.1 Retention

There is wide spread support amongst the research participants that coaching can help to increase the retention of key employees within an organization. For example, two coaches suggest that coaching reduces turnover and increases retention

“…coaching has been shown to have significantly positive benefits in making employees feel appreciated and listened to, as well as reducing turnover rates....” [coach 1]; and “…huge deficits in professionally trained employees means companies have to find ways to be attractive to hold personnel, not only via permanent contracts.... coaching is a key point here...” [coach 2].

That coaching reduces turnover and increases retention is also supported by many interview participants. For instance, the coach 3 says that there have there have been some notable results for an organization he coaches in, including performance improvement and retention

"...there had been some pretty notable results. People had been turned around and rather than go somewhere else they stayed in the business....".
Coach 4 agrees, suggesting that she would not have lasted in her current position without the support provided through coaching

"...Definitely. I might not have lasted in the job.....It could have ended up that way or it could have ended up with me leaving....".

Finally, the coach 5 says, that the benefit of a culture change in one organization she worked with, was a higher retention rate

"You’re going to find that your retention rates are much higher. You’re not only spending all that money on recruitment because people aren’t going to leave. Lion Nathan has a very high retention rate, for example...".

However, whilst there is support for coaching as a device for increasing retention in an organization, there are two reports that suggest that it may result in a termination or resignation; but this is not viewed by coaches as a negative scenario. For instance, the coach 5 says that it may be appropriate for a coach to help a person leave an organization under certain circumstances

".. and sometimes it [the outcome] is negative and they leave because they are having such a bad time in the organization…and that’s a good thing. You don’t want those people in an organization, because for whatever reason culturally they’re not right for the organization and that’s OK - so get out and do something else.".

Coach 6 also supports this idea

“…I was reminded of the number of times you’re often coaching somebody out of an organization. So, not in the sense that their bad performers or anything, but actually someone’s at a point in their life where they’re trying to decide where they want to go or want they want to do, and so that doesn’t fit succession planning exactly. But for me it’s still a valid thing to do because if the organization’s got the right attitude about its people, then it’s not going to want to try and hold somebody that doesn’t really want to be there….”.

Whilst coaching is generally thought of as an approach reserved for high performers in the literature, this is not always the rule; in contrast, it may be an ‘approach of second chances’ for those who are not. This occurs when organizations use it to remediate employees to retain them, even if they are not the most outstanding talent in the organization. For example, the coach 7 suggests that in one particular organization that she works with, the coaching is usually about
remediating the performance of 'de-railed employees' to make them more effective with a view to being able to retain them

"....there's one organization I do work with where it's usually problem children. They've come my way....if I think about the few people I have coached it's always with an aim of making them more effective and keeping them in the business, rather than if they don't ship up they're out. It was much more 'We want to get this person to be more effective in our organization'...."

Coach 8 agrees, suggesting that coaching is a way of salvaging people for the future who are not performing well, but are worth investing in

"...I think on the other side of the coin is people that aren't performing to the level that they should be, then there is a role there to bring them up to where they should be.... As I said, not everyone would fit into that category, but in terms of the people there that we want to salvage for the future, we can provide coaching to do that. There will be some that are unsalvageable, so we don't have to worry about them. That is where I sort of see it...."

He continues by giving an example of a specific employee who fits this profile and received coaching, which provided a resolution

"...At the end of the day, I have actually removed her out of the role that she was in and placed her into another role...[because of] the relationship stuff. She still reports to me, but she doesn’t have the involvement with the other people that she did. Some of those potential issues that were there have now been resolved by that approach [through coaching]....."

He says that the alternative would have been termination

"....it would have been the exit strategy because we just could not have tolerated what was going on...."

Finally, a reason that a remedial strategy is worthwhile according to the coach 9, is that higher levels of retention can translate into performance improvement if coaching is utilized, even though it may not be to the desired level

"...Let me take the example that I talked about of the gentleman who is a really good strategic thinker, but struggles to engage his team and hold his team accountable. I think he is someone our company wants to hang on to because his strategic thinking ability is fantastic and there are not many other people who can think like that and have his knowledge base. If we could actually get him to deliver on more stuff that
would be fantastic because he would be three times more effective than he currently is. But, the fact that you are coaching and you feel valued, you are probably still getting improvement....”.

It appears that a supportive organizational environment is important to the achievement of higher levels of retention. Coach 10 recalls her experience coaching an IT department in a large investment bank. She says that the Chief Information Officer wanted to create an environment of opportunity to support the development of people through coaching, so as to retain them

“...The first metric was the metric that the Chief Information Officer had set up as her metric which was that everyone in IT in her organization would make their next career move within the organization. In other words, they would not exit the organization....she wanted to create an environment where people wanted to, even if they wanted to grow out of the IT world, that they would stay within the larger parent company, but just move out of the IT of the organization into somewhere else within it....”.

This is similar to coach 11 who says that if an organization has good systems, coaching may lead to better performing staff and increased retention compared to those that do not. She suggests that good documentation of procedures is one such system

“...If staff know what they are meant to be doing and to what standard, then they are better able to do it. But, a lot of businesses would have a revolving door of staff..... [because] there is no job description, there are no procedures. And, underpinning all of that, if you documented these procedures then you got all of these benefits...”.

5.1.1.2 Employee satisfaction

There is some evidence in the data that coaching can lead to increases in productivity as well as employee satisfaction. For instance, coach 3 agrees that the coaching is a way that organizations can make their employees feel valued and this increases discretionary effort

“...There is no question about that...now can that be achieved without coaching? I will say no and I will tell you why....[its because] I know that they are not having those [coaching] conversations with their leaders. I have people that say ‘no one has ever taken that level of interest in me’. What does that mean? Well, it means that you are either not getting 100 per cent out of the person or they are going to leave....It is engagement, it is as simple as this....”.

Similarly, coach 10 says that the coach can lead to an increase in sub-ordinate satisfaction with their current managers (who had been coached) and a decrease in complaints
"...You know the people who were delinquent, that number went down dramatically. So, you didn’t have a lot of complaints of the less senior people about the senior people...a level of satisfaction with your current manager....".

Coaching may lead to increased satisfaction because it satisfies employee appetites for learning and development, but only if they desire it and see value in it. Coach 12 says that there has been a mixed response to the coaching/learning program in his organization, with some people embracing the learning opportunity, but others resisting

"...that program has had a mixed response. Some people loved it, but I would say that the people who loved it were the people you would expect to love it. They were natural learners, probably tend to be younger although not always. [Yet] with other teams in that program there was really strong resistance. ‘Why? - we’re too busy! Why should we have to do this, we’re not interested’ or ‘We’ll come, but we won’t do any of the follow-up or any of the assignments or work afterwards’......it’s been [less successful with] people who feel they’re too busy or younger people who feel ‘I’ve got nothing to learn here’. So, people who are naturally learners have enjoyed it and people who are older....".

This is also supported by coach 13 who says that the coaching is a way that the organization can invest in its human capital and satisfy its members

"...At a strategic level.....we are actually investing in the human capital of the people that are working for us and we are helping with the learning process....by having the structured programs we are actually educating them and you actually give them the best opportunity that they can have...by having a structured coaching program or the capability to give people what they need....an appetite for the tools and capability and self challenging... It allows someone to grow to potentially what they had could not have grown into before. From an organizational strategic perspective, I think it is an extremely valuable thing to do...".

But, he also suggested coaching may not be appropriate the tool to satisfy younger generations, who may have other priorities

“...I am not so sure with the new generation coming through. I think their drivers are different and to a certain degree they have different needs. It might help individuals get to where they want in terms of career, but organizations may not get the pay off....”.

5.1.1.3 Sales revenue

There is some evidence that coaching can increase sales revenues. For example, coach 7
says that the coaching at Cisco was ultimately about improving the bottom-line for the organization i.e. increasing sales, but that this was done with a view to building long-term relationships

"...Ultimately it was about numbers, so it was about them being much more relationship oriented, rather than transactional. So, it was about them building stronger relationships with their customers and ensuring that they were long term, rather than just going in to fulfill a need...".

She says that organization had metric for relationships and increases in sales

"...A lot of it was around relationships - so, improved relationships either within the business or with some key clients. That was always a common one that came up....some would talk about that ‘there been an impact on sales...".

Similarly, coach 14 implies that the business results have been impacted, particularly in sales, but also in other areas

"...well things are running pretty warmly, you know they are getting towards the hot end and they are much more effective than they were before. Our business results have illustrated that in a lot of ways. In all areas, not just sales and profitability, but in how effective we are at executing some of the strategies....and our safety and our customer service, a whole heap of things have been substantially enhanced during that period....”.

5.1.1.4 Succession

There is definite agreement that organizations utilize coaching for succession planning. For example, coach 7 says that it is typical for high value employees who have the potential to scale the leadership ranks

“...if you look at the high potential program, they have a succession plan and a talent management process that people go through. People who come through that then go to a development centre. Coming out of that, they identify some development needs.... and they have the opportunity to have a coach....”.

This is supported by coach 6, who says that coaching is very useful for succession planning because it can be used to develop promising talent early in their careers

“...In a general HR context, it’s definitely a useful tool, one of many in the kit - definitely a useful tool for succession planning and picking up on your potential talent early on to develop them....”.
Whilst no respondent out rightly says that ‘coaching leads to more successful succession planning’, it is implied. For example, the coach 15 says that in her experience, there is a big demand for coaching for succession planning purposes

“...but the ones that I’ve coached here - I’ve seen this trend which shows no signs of abating in the last eight to ten years of really lavishing coaching on what they call the ‘high-pro-population’ - the high potential population. People who will eventually get themselves into the succession plan because of their performance....I’ve seen some really great things happen when a training, mentoring and coaching combo are presented to these high pros...”.

This is supported by coach 3, who is certain about the impact of coaching in terms of succession. He says that one of his coaching candidates succeeded to much higher level within one particular organization

“.... there is a [coaching] candidate in this organization who has just been given a relieving role as a General Manager, so he has gone forward to a big role...”.

However, there is also some doubt about the value or appropriateness of coaching for succession planning purposes. For instance, coach 8 says that whilst he thinks that coaching has a role in the organization in terms of succession planning by equipping more junior members for senior leadership positions, there is some debate within the organization about this

"...Number one is looking at succession planning and looking at the talent pool that we have in the business and looking at the critical positions we need to fill at the senior level.....Is there a role in coaching to bring those people to the next level? Some there is not and some there might be.....".

Coach 16 also says that his organization is also uncertain about coaching’s role in succession planning, suggesting that they view it more as an individual career development tool, rather than a strategic tool

“...we’re not good at it, and to answer that question we haven’t even gone down that path of coaching yet. The word ‘succession planning’ is still being bandied around in the department. They really have no idea of what it means so we’re taking an approach in coaching more at the individual level managing that risk, and I would refer to that more as career development coaching. So, it’s not being driven from the top down from a risk management perspective - that is the succession planning stuff.... we are generally slack in our department around succession planning. It’s atrocious.....”.
For smaller organizations, coaching may not be used for succession planning because they do not have the resources. Coach 11 says that small businesses use coaching to develop directors, but the budget is the barrier to investing in its people for succession purposes

“…one of the biggest barriers for a small business to that is budget…..they would love to do a lot more than they do, but they don’t have the budget…..”.

5.1.2 Coaching may not lead organizational effectiveness

Whilst there was a lot of evidence that coaching does contribute to organizational effectiveness as discussed above, there is also some support for the fact that it may not always deliver what is expected and because of this the effect of coaching may fail to translate into organizational benefits. For example, coach 3 says that sometimes coaching does not deliver better business results, although it may deliver a change in the coachee

“….so, I would look for signs. Again, as I said, the 360 indicates this [change], but I would look for the narrative of people…..about how the business is different from when I started to coach that person. Then hopefully you have the business results and that it is now getting 200 tons a month instead of 150 tons a month…..it is the narrative from the person….and it is the business outcomes. Sometimes you only get two out of three…”.

In any case, he says that it is impossible to isolate the exact impact that coaching has in an organization

“…the thing that annoys most people about coaching, especially who are interested in results, is that it is almost impossible….with a whole range of other micro and macro [factors] to know exactly what is the organizational impact….I wouldn’t put my name to any study that I have seen today that says ‘we have improved leadership by three per cent’. I have seen people write that crap and I just laugh at it…”.

More specific reasons that coaching may not deliver the results expected is because of the time it takes for an external coach to become oriented to a culture. For instance, coach 10 says that the external coaching effort did not live up to expectations, and the reasons were not entirely clear. Although, she suspects that it may have been the time lag in results caused by the time it took for an external coach to become oriented within the organization

“….it wasn’t a failure, but it didn’t change - the needle didn’t change…But, they ended up bringing the
program inside, because having external coaches didn’t seem to really actually move the needle for them. …it took too long for people to become embedded in the culture and understand what the jeune c'est ques were.....".

Yet another research participant says that the reasons might relate to a lack of management support. Coach 12 says that it is has been difficult to convince their leaders to adopt a ‘coaching style’, because some of their senior leaders have not supported it

"...a lot of the turbulence in the last twelve months has been [due to a] lack of agreement between these senior leaders, and a lot of the problems with Performance Development Plan has been lack of agreement amongst these senior leaders. One or two of them don’t like it, [are] not interested in it. So, of course you’re going to have problems implementing it when you got an Executive Director in this department or that department who’s not interested in it or telling staff to 'forget about it. It doesn’t matter'.....it’s no wonder we are right down at the bottom, we’re running around chasing our tails wondering why things aren’t working.....".

In addition, three managers who supervised the implementation of coaching support the idea that coaching may not be effective because of reasons related to design, resource allocation and generational needs. Coach 9 says that upon reflection, the organization does not think that the coaching has worked and she wonders whether coaching can ever work as a means of improving effectiveness

"....I think we are sitting back going 'that didn’t really work'. So, as I said, I am not sure as to what extent we got it wrong. We didn’t have the right structure in place and we had a sort of one coach for everyone, so there is a couple of areas where we might of got it wrong. But, I guess I have also been wrestling with, to what extent coaching really works in an ongoing business environment...".

(The effect of structure on coaching design is explored further in Part D).

Similarly, Coach 8 says that whilst there was some benefit in being able to retain an employee through coaching, he wonders if expending resources on remediating a problem person produces results for a business. He suggests that he would probably take a different course of action if a similar situation arose in the future

"...I suppose if I was perfectly honest – there are times I guess that perhaps I still think that I should of cut my loses and ran….While things have got a hell of a lot better, there is always that thing in my mind that maybe at any time, if similar circumstances come up, I might be faced with the same problem.....I think
maybe at times coaching can be a little bit overdone and it tends to go on and on and on. So, I think from an organizational point of view, there is a cost to the business with that and you have to evaluate and say well what value is it really adding?.....".

Finally, coach 13 wonders whether the current form of coaching can work in his organization in the future, given that the younger generations are less loyal than older workers. He suggests that coaching in its current format might be a waste of resources and won’t add value in the future

"...I suspect the approach to how we do coaching will have to change. For example, with the age group, which she [the coachee] is in, which is sort of mid-30’s age group, they still have a fair bit of company loyalty you might say, the retention factor….the 18 year olds now that are coming through, their general direction is, ‘I will work for you for two years and then I will go and work for someone else’. There is no shortage of roles for those people and they bounce around from job to job and their drive is more around, ‘are you doing something about greenhouse gas omission, because I can get $70,000 from the next person, just as well I can get it from you?’…. I am not so sure with the new generation coming through. I think their drivers are different and to a certain degree they have different needs...".

5.1.3 The importance of individuals to organizational effectiveness

In a general sense, the data suggests that individuals are important to organizational success. This is important to understand for the purposes of this study, as it explains the mechanisms through which effectiveness is achieved through coaching, and in that way validates the use of workplace coaching as a device of effectiveness. For example, coach 18 says that individuals are crucial to organizational success and so the organization should reflect that

“…Organizations are not independent from the dreams and goals of their employees, rather the organization should be a reflection of the goals of its employees at a collective level…..”. The importance of individuals to organizational success is also acknowledged by coach 19, who suggests that an individual needs to be empowered to make a unique contribution to the organization’s plan “...Coaching lends the individual personal accountability to make the change in the way they want to have a part in the plan...”.

Similarly, according to a number of survey respondents, coaching can be an important mechanism for facilitating this organizational success by leveraging the contributions of individuals

“...I see significant value in using coaching (and similar methodologies) as a strategic tool to support and develop the human capital within organizations, and to help them focus on what is important to
themselves, their teams, customers, leaders and other stakeholders….” [coach 20].

Coach 21 says that coaching is unique in its role in helping organization’s be more effective because it has people as its focus

“…[the] benefits of coaching are proven in organizations. It’s the only discipline that deals with the more important asset…people…”.

And, coach 22 suggests coaching can help individuals become a useful device of organizational effectiveness as it helps to develop the skills that the organization needs

“…When you support as a coach an individual employee, the main goal is to bring assistance to the organization, allowing individuals to improve skills that are required to the company as a whole….”.

A common and more relevant theme is that leadership plays an important role in organizational effectiveness both as a manager as coach and as coachee. This is supported by many of the participants, for example

“….coaching assists in the success of an individual and thereby the success of a leadership change or transition…” [coach 18] and “..coaching can assist people [leaders] to step into their new roles in a way that helps them look outside of themselves, which is what is necessary in order to flourish..” [coach 23].

These sentiments are also supported by coach 22, who says that much of the coaching they do is geared toward helping HR leaders make their organization more effective

“….Actually most of my coaching experience with HR leaders is to give them support to improve the global organization effectiveness….”.

In more specific terms, many respondents also agreed that the leadership of an organization has the potential to impact individuals and that is how organizations are transformed. Coach 10 says that no matter how ‘transformational’ a leader is, the influence they have on an organization usually occurs with individuals, rather than at a macro level

"...There’s the occasional leader who’s so transformational that this particular person…their effectiveness is so great, that they can influence an entire organization....But for the most part, even with the most influential transformational, developmental leader.......chances are that they are working with many people across the system to enhance [them]....".
This is supported by coach 3 who says that organizational change is a ‘numbers game’, and that the organizations he coaches can bring about change if small number of key leadership were to receive coaching and to influence others

"...you modify behaviour of an enlarged group of people and then that becomes pervasive...if you are attacking that pivotal group of leaders at the level three or four, who are the leaders of the future and you equip them to lead effectively, then, to my mind that is the best chance of organizational change...".

He cites some examples of prominent organizations that have adopted this approach and uses these as a justification for his approach

"...I know at the outset, I think [the HR director] AG knew that, and I know that he saw the ANZ Bank and Microsoft and IBM and Orica, they have a similar sort of approach where they have coaches that are chipping away on the group that look like that they are going to go through....".

There is a sense in the data that the impact of leadership at an individual level appears to occur via a ‘trickledown’ effect

“…If I coach a senior executive …I am partnering with that leader to be more effective - individually, as well as leading her/his organization to greater effectiveness…” [coach 24].

Similarly, coach 15 suggests that the trickledown effect occurs via better role performance

"...Once a leader of new responsibilities feels more confident……they are better able to delegate. Because they’re better able to delegate, the team is more effective. Because the team is more effective there’s more of an attraction proposal for others who want to join the team and maybe they’re more effective at interfacing with other teams. All of those things are possible, trickledown effects, and I think they do happen....”.

This is supported by coach 25 who says

“…the individual works with others and individuals develop their work areas / lead / make decisions, strategies etc, so are the living blood and beating heart of the organization.”.

5.1.4 Limitations of the organizational context

Whilst organizational effectiveness occurs via the leveraging of individual
performance, the impact is not necessarily direct or clear, because change is characterized by complexity. For example, coach 3 suggests that achieving effectiveness may extend beyond the influence of more effective leadership because there may be multiple factors involved in organizational change.

"......people claim that ‘this’ drove that change, but in fact, it is always a blended situation or a blended impact that actually causes the change and understanding that that is the way things happen....".

The complexity of change is reflected in character of organizational systems, which could be considered a mediator of organizational change. To illustrate, coach 26 says that organizational change can be brought about individually and incrementally through coaching, but says that translating that into organizational change is a challenge if the system doesn't want it

"....there are certainly some situations, especially when you’re coaching mid management.....you can influence change one person at a time, but only as much as the system will support. I learnt early on.....that if you’re coaching someone in a system that doesn’t really want change, it can actually be detrimental....".

He also says that there also must be clarity in a leadership team about what they want

"...So if you’re coaching senior executives and I coach a lot in the ‘C’ suites, then you’re able to influence change. But to do it, there has to be a clear sense of who they’re going to be as a leadership team, how are they going to walk the talk and what kind of messages they communicate.... not only what they say, but what they do...".

From the point of view of coaching design, coach 27 outlines some other specific dimensions, which characterize the contextual complexity

“…Obviously, there are a number of things that will affect the impact of coaching, such as: the influence of the individual (including position & responsibility within the org) i.e. CEO may have a greater influence on organizational change than a cleaner; number of people being coached - the more people are being coached, the greater the influence; the status of coaching - for performance management vs high potentials; clarity on the role of coaching within the change process - is it being used strategically or as the only model of change? Organizational support and clarity around change as well as systems that support the change will also be important here....”

(see Part B for more information about organizational culture).
But, despite the apparent limitations of a context, the accounts of two participants support the idea that coaching can still be effective because it may influence the system. For example, coach 28 suggests that coaching may in fact help to develop it indirectly by “...creating a better environment....”.

This is supported by 27 who suggests coaching can in fact influence the system of organization in spite of the organizational context, and that this is because of its personal and focused nature “...similar to agent driven models in the field of complex adaptive systems, coaching, which supports an individual can influence the system...coaching has the opportunity to provide development, often in spite of organizational reluctance, due to its personal and focused nature...”.

5.1.5 Discussion

Theme 5.1A: A purpose of workplace coaching is to facilitate positive outcomes for organizations in the areas of retention, employee satisfaction and succession planning. Coaching may lead to positive organizational outcomes in these areas.

Chapter 1 of this thesis sought to provide some insight as to the organization’s need for coaching. It was suggested that there was a humanistic as well as instrumental need for workplace coaching for organizations, of which the instrumental is most relevant to this particular discussion. Some of the more notable papers, which explore organizational effectiveness, include those by Kiel et al. (1996); Luthans and Peterson (2003); Benavides (2007); McDermott et al. (2007); Sparrow (2007, 2008); Locke (2008); and White (2008; and Pollitt (2009). Table 3.3 in the literature review outlined some of the related constructs including: succession planning (McNally and Lukens 2006); absenteeism, quality and/or productivity (Oliver et al. 1997; Bowles and Picano 2006; Okie 2007); organizational commitment and retention (Luthans and Peterson 2003; Nocks 2007; Paschke 2007); customer satisfaction (Henochowicz and Hetherington 2006; Phillips 2007; White 2008; Pollitt 2009); job satisfaction and commitment (Ellinger and Keller 2003; Luthans and Peterson 2003; Ket De Vries 2005; Abbott et al. 2006; Tyra 2008; Britton (2008); Bright and Crockett 2012); employee morale (Lloyds 2002; McDermott et al. 2007); and wellness (Okie 2007; Daehtler-Miller et al. 2008). Despite this, only six out of the fifty-six management papers featuring macro organizational constructs make a direct link between workplace coaching and valued strategic organizational level outcomes. This suggests that the purpose of workplace coaching as a device of organizational effectiveness is not at all well understood or explored in the body of knowledge. This represents a significant gap in the literature, which warrants further investigation, and is
subsequently, something that this study has sought to address.

In broad terms, the study has found general support for the notion that there is a link between coaching and the achievement of strategic level outcomes that are of value to organizations. For example, it has found wide spread support for the idea that retention can be increased and turnover reduced through coaching. Yet, it also found disconfirming evidence, which suggested that coaching might also result in the termination of an employee or their resignation.

However, the data suggests that the latter need not be viewed as a negative outcome, rather, that coaching can be viewed as a catalyst to expedite the inevitable attrition that most likely would have occurred otherwise because of incompatibilities with the organization and/or their role. In this sense, coaching may help organizations to retain the most appropriate employees on the basis of organization and job-person fit, as well as ‘help others to leave’. Similarly, whilst coaching is generally thought of as an approach reserved for high potential people, it also may be a way of retaining under-performers who are still of value to the organization, but in need of remedial help. The use of coaching in this way means that the organization can retain them, despite them not being the most outstanding talent they have. It is thought that the reason these kinds of employees are still valuable and worth retaining if they have the potential to significantly improve their performance through coaching.

There was also some support for the idea that coaching can help organizations to increase the satisfaction of its employees. One of the main findings in this area was that coaching may lead to increased satisfaction for some employees, because it satisfies their appetites for learning and development. But, the findings also suggest that for others it may be of little interest because they do not have this disposition. This suggests that an employee’s interest in learning may be a factor in their uptake of coaching. Therefore, if an organization intends to use it as a device to bring about higher levels of effectiveness, then, this may have implications for the kinds of employees that they need to attract to the organization in the first instance.

Another justifiable finding of the data analysis relates to succession planning. Similar to retention, there was wide spread support for the idea that organization’s utilize coaching for succession planning purposes, however, there was little data collected that testifies to coaching’s efficacy in this area i.e. no participant explicitly discussed its impact. Although succession planning is a common reason that organizations utilize workplace coaching, there was some suggestion that
some organizations may not choose to use it for this purpose because they may not view it as a strategic tool, or do not have the budget to use it in this way. In particular, a limited budget may be a reason that smaller organizations use it exclusively to develop and support managing directors. This suggests that coaching for succession planning may be more of a purpose in large organizations, in which there is a significant learning and development budget.

In addition to these purposes of coaching, there was some limited data available to support the idea that workplace coaching may result in increased sales revenues and be utilized as a tool for reward and recognition, selection and knowledge management. This is despite the idea that coaching is not generally accepted as a form of reward in literature (Krazmien and Berger 1997) and that it has not been discussed as a selection assessment tool used by organizations; although, it has been discussed as a tool for helping individuals gain employment through interview coaching (Sackett et al. 1989). In any case, there is too little data to make any valid conclusions about this latter group of constructs, and to the case that they represent an achievable purpose of workplace coaching in a management context.

**Theme 5.1B:** A purpose of workplace coaching may be to facilitate positive outcomes for organizations in the areas of retention, employee satisfaction and succession planning, but this may not occur.

It would be unrealistic to expect that workplace coaching is always successful in helping organizations to achieve effectiveness and this is reinforced by the data. But, given that much of the literature in this review reflects the views of workplace coaches and practitioners who are also no doubt its proponents - this may be an unpopular finding. To date, there appear to be no papers found in literature, which present evidence that coaching may be ineffective in helping organizations be effective. In contrast, titles such as “Executive Coaching: It Works!” (Kombarakaran et al. 2008); “Career Coaches for Nursing: A Strategy for Increasing Your ROI” (Paschke 2007); and “Executive Coaching to the Rescue” (Sparrow 2008) presuppose that it is.

This study yielded more evidence in the data than expected to support the idea that coaching may not be an effective mechanism for achieving organizational effectiveness i.e. it may not always deliver as is expected. But, perhaps this should not be an unexpected finding given that there may be many variables, which influence coaching outcomes outside of the control of coaching and are specific to the coach, coachee, and organizational/social factors as the next theme suggests.
**Theme 5.1C:** A purpose of workplace coaching is to leverage the contribution of individuals to organizational effectiveness. But, their contributions are limited or enhanced by dimensions of the organizational context, which is one of its devices.

It was established in the literature review that organization effectiveness appears to be intimately linked with that of the individual. The findings of this study also support this idea, specifically, that individual issues can have implications for individual performance and potentially for organizations more broadly when collectively applied. This is one of the reasons that it is important for organizations to cater for the human element in work, and by catering for these, coaching becomes a means of bringing about the internal changes that organizations require to adapt (Noer et al. 2007).

But, whilst there is significant exploration of individual workplace issues in the literature, there is only a small cross section of literature that explores the impact of individual issues on the broader organization. For example, there are benefits to improving health, wellness and safety needs through coaching and this impacts on absenteeism and productivity (Okie 2007). Similarly, catering for individual employees learning and development needs reduces turnover, which reduces recruitment costs (McNally and Lukens 2006; Paschke 2007). Also, helping leaders in certain industries manage high stress levels in turn helps them to better manage their personal lives and improve the industry’s issues career attraction proposition with younger generations (Styhre and Josephson 2007). These relationships are identified but they are not necessarily explained. The lack of explanation may in part due to the fact that in coaching literature, coaching is represented as a development device predominantly geared toward the improvement of the individual, but there is little understanding of the mechanisms involved in their collective impact for organizations.

The findings of this study do however re-enforce the idea that there is a relationship between individual and team effectiveness, and organizational effectiveness. It suggests that coaching is an important mechanism for facilitating this success by leveraging the contributions of individuals and teams. In particular, the data asserts that individual leaders are important contributors of organizational effectiveness, both as coaches and coachees. It is through their impact on other individuals within the organizational system that organizations are transformed via a ‘trickledown effect’. Although they are not fully delineated here, further details about how this is achieved is one of the more important contributions of the subsequent themes explored in this study (see subsections 5.2, 5.5).
Whilst it has been proposed there is a link between workplace coaching and organizational effectiveness, the findings of the study suggest that its impact may be limited by the organizational context. Its impact on individual and organizational effectiveness is not necessarily direct, because change is mediated by a complexity inherent in the organizational context. Because of this complexity, the effect of coaching on an individual may not translate into organizational benefits. A number of examples of this complexity were revealed in the data: a coach may not be able to successfully orient to the culture of an organization; a lack of management support for coaching; poor learning design; and incompatible generational needs.

Nevertheless, despite the limitations of the context, coaching may be still be effective, because it can create the ‘right kind of environment’ in which employees can learn, and in that sense actually change the context. There is certainly much exploration in the literature about both of these ideas, particularly in discussions about creating a learning environment (Veale and Wachtel 1996; Ket De Vries 2005) and change culture (De Freine 1985; Katz and Miller 1996; Megginson and Clutterbuck 2006; Lindbom 2007). However, the link is not made between its efficacy in this area and the effects on the broader organizational environment.

Whilst there may be some agreement amongst scholars about the characteristics of the ‘right kind’ of environment, the context may vary depending on the type of organization in which coaching is occurring. It is conceivable that organizations contexts will be defined by different characteristics that might affect coaching in different ways – presumably culture, geography, sector (profit or non-profit), industry type and so on. Some of the participants were sourced from a non-profit organization and some from a manufacturing organization, and this may have impacted their responses. For example, the not-for-profit suffered from a lack of human resource development funding which clearly limited the amount and type of training and development activities that they could engage in. They could not really afford executive coaching for all of their senior leaders, and had to rely on internal training to teach their leaders about coaching. It is unclear as to the level of internal expertise that the organizations had. Similarly, the manufacturing organization was part of an increasingly competitive global environment for talent and had an inability to attract the best people to their organization to fill leadership vacancies. They had little choice but to appoint people from their own internal ranks even if they were not ready to assume these positions. The different contexts of these organizations and approaches to coaching programs may have highlighted particular purposes and/or devices in this study. However, it should be noted here, as it was in the methodology that the majority of participants in this study were external coaches, and so only a
small number of internal coaches/manager were ‘situated’. Consequently, the perspectives gained from them are not confined to a one or two specific organizational contexts i.e. the external coaches have experience coaching in multiple organizations. This is a point explained in the methodology.

So, whilst the findings of this section are not revolutionary in this section of the thesis, they do add an additional voice to this discussion on effectiveness. In particular, there does not seem to be much if any discussion to identify and explain the links between individual and organizational level outcomes, and in this sense the study makes a unique contribution. In general terms, it highlights the complexity of the coaching context as a potential factor that may explain the efficacy of coaching as a device of organizational effectiveness.

5.2 INTERNAL CAPABILITY AS A DEVICE OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

This section of the data analysis explores internal capability as a device of organizational effectiveness. It begins by exploring coaching is a mechanism for helping organizations to develop their people capabilities, so they can adapt to the expectations and demands of a self-directed and empowered environment. It is suggested that if appropriate capabilities are developed, the organization will be more productive. However, it is often the case that leaders can have the technical tools to run their organizations, but lack the people skills. Because of this, there is poor execution and they are unable to efficiently get things done. So, in this sense, by developing people skills in managers, it can result in more productive leadership.

The second part investigates the mechanisms involved in improving productivity as the people capabilities of leaders are developed. For example, as leaders become more like coaches in their style i.e. from micro-management to the empowerment of their sub-ordinates, it changes the culture between people and impacts on performance. Because the leader becomes more of a facilitator, their sub-ordinates become more empowered to set their own challenges and find their own solutions. In general terms, as facilitators, leaders become proficient at developing productive relationships, the focus of which is to operationalise their vision.

Finally, it explores the idea that adopting a coaching approach to leadership is no guarantee that increased productivity will occur. It can create potential issues for the sub-ordinate, who needs to learn to operate in a new environment of empowerment and which requires them to be more self-
directed. In this regard, one of the skill-sets that subordinates need to develop is the ability to learn how to learn. This is important because it equips them to be more self-directed in terms of thinking and problem solving, rather than people who just follow orders. A good starting point is for the subordinate to evaluate their own role as a way to identify areas of performance improvement and develop potential solutions.

5.2.1 The importance of people capability [coaching skills] in leadership

There is a great need for coaching skills to be developed within an organization. This is broadly supported by coach 25, who says that it makes leaders better mentors

“...There are people in organizations who have a natural coaching skill and have been excellent mentors in the past. Today though, there is a greater need for these skills, so it's important to have trained coaches, including the option of widening the range of issues where support is offered and the number of people supported…”.

This is supported by coach 11, who says that leaders can have the technical tools to run their organizations, but without the people skills there is poor execution and they are unable to get things done. To illustrate, she says that as a consultant, she would help the leadership in an organization to create a structure around their business, but would find that they would not follow through and the initiatives would fail because they didn’t have the skills to manage people

"...so I don’t go in and say this is how you should work – we find out what they want and together we develop it. And you think with 'buy-in', that they would do it...we would train anybody, and we would document it. And then I would find that it was falling over. ‘Oh, hang on a minute, you all agreed?’ And then I found that in a majority of cases men i.e. CEOs or managing directors, [were] over forty, married with kids, and a boat, and no idea how to manage staff or how to deal with people....".

She says that they often start their businesses with strong technical and few people skills, and because of this they are often ill equipped to manage them when their businesses grow

"...They were entrepreneurs, they have started a business, they had a great idea; they were great at selling ....Like I am a great surfboard maker and everyone likes my surfboards. Now suddenly my business has grown and I have grabbed all of these people to help, but I haven’t got job descriptions; I haven’t got an organization chart; I haven’t got work flow; and ‘god’ I don’t know how to look after these people'..."."
Supporting leaders in developing a coaching approach could potentially result in a better organization bottom line. The coach 17 recognizes that her organization hasn't done a good job of supporting leaders in the coaching approach, but sees potential benefits of doing so:

"... We haven’t done that well. Particularly from the research point of view.....it would be interesting from my perspective....to see some movement. To say ‘OK where are we now? What are the strategies that we put in place to get the positive movement on that [coaching skills]’ and then tracking how that’s going to actually see what we’re doing is working both in terms of the leaders ability.....and how they’re having that conversation and the individual’s experience in the midst of that. But then also to the organizational bottom line, the wellbeing of our people, as well as productivity and work quality, service and all that sort of stuff....".

There may be an increase in the organization’s bottom line because developing the people skills of managers can result in more productive leadership. This is directly supported by a number of respondents. For example, coach 1 says:

“...addressing [people] capability gaps allows participants to lead, communicate and perform more effectively…”.

Coach 11 says that coaching develops the attributes needed for the entrepreneurs to be able to successfully able to manage people to improve implementation:

"...ok, ‘so you need to know how to be assertive, not aggressive?’....we would teach them eye messages, avoiding ‘you’ statements, how to actively listen. So these are all communication skills that I would use from Thomas Gordon’s effective training. So, we would facilitate and then they would practice these skills and surprise, surprise – ‘Oh Gosh, I am having much better relationships; I am not wasting time on reworks of jobs because I am saying what I mean, and people are understanding’....".

This is also supported by coach 17, who says that to be an effective facilitator requires the manager to have the right kind of skills to be able to engage a person in conversation to resolve issues and develop solutions:

"...it’s still involves emotional intelligence and still involves basic management competency…".
5.2.2 Explaining increases in productivity as a result of coaching capabilities

As leaders adopt a coaching approach to managing people, there is some suggestion that it changes the culture between people and impacts on performance. For instance, coach 16 says that it is the change in the leadership styles and their relationships that is a marker of the change

"..quite often we will be working with the middle managers...We help them develop coaching skills as well as coach them...We’re actually getting feedback from manager’s staff saying ‘You can see a bit of change in him’. ‘He actually asks us questions now rather than just bellows’. So, I think sometimes it’s those things that we found are recognized. We’re actually changing the working culture between people and that ultimately impacts them on performance...".

He also says that the building of relationships is important to the operationalization of a leader’s vision

"….When we work with the leaders, we’re definitely more into - I guess you would call it a full-time coaching model, which is very much leadership visioning, getting some clarity around where you want to be in a year, two years, three years - depending on where you want the organization to be and then helping them translate that back down to and almost strategic operational type stuff, ‘Now how do you get that to the people who have to operationalize that? …you build that relationship with them to ensure this happens’...”.

A change in the culture between people is in turn reflected in a new skill set, which is a change from micro-management to the empowerment of their subordinates. In conversation with coach 12 we discussed the idea that effective leadership/subordinate relationship was one in which the leader learns to let go. He noted that this kind of approach means that

"...the safety net’s been taken away a little bit [for employees]…".

It also means that they are empowered with the opportunity to set their own challenges and find their own solutions. This is something that is supported by two coaches

“…a coach gives the power to people to find themselves the best way to grow....” [coach 29];
“…[coaching] encourages the participant to arrive at their own conclusions, leading to greater commitment to the actions required….” [coach 1].

Coach 12 describes the approach of an organization he has heard about in which the employees are
empowered to think for themselves

“….they moved from a commanding control style of management to a more coaching style of management. It went from the Manager being the source of all the answers and all the expertise to someone who was gifted in asking questions and guiding and providing resources and support where necessary….empowering the workers to think more about their own jobs, set their own challenges and come up with solutions themselves….“.

5.2.3 Equipping individuals to ‘step-up’

Although there is evidence to suggest the adoption of a coaching approach to leadership may result in more productive relationships, it does not automatically mean that this is a foregone conclusion. In fact, a change in style may create some potential issues. During one interview, I suggested to coach 12 that a change in style can create potential issues for the sub-ordinate, who needs to learn to operate in a new environment of empowerment and performance, and be more self-directed

“….it’s part of that empowerment agenda. So when people are able to make decisions and identify problems, explore them, come up with innovations and solutions - you can only benefit because you’re maximizing the capacity of your people. And you’re engaging them in their work rather than it being some dry job description where it’s that sort of ‘9 to 5 mentality’. Successful organizations don’t operate like that anymore - certainly that’s the trend they don’t. It’s about ‘here is your role and these are your responsibilities’ and it’s pretty much ‘produce the output and do what is necessary to make it happen’….“.

Coach 12 agreed, suggesting that this might be an uncomfortable transition because it will challenge workers and require them to take ownership, which they might struggle with

"....I think the idea has been that a coaching approach will involve short term sacrifice, so it will be painful in the short term. But in terms of creating workers who are being challenged to think about their life and seek out creative solutions and become these people who are empowered to actually think for themselves and talk with supporters [customers] in a authentic and meaningful way - there’s a sense that they have to own it a bit more and they have to not just be parroting stuff they’ve heard…. to become learners, rather than just receivers of orders....".

A crucial step in the process of taking ownership is the development of learning how to learn and self-management skills. Coach 12 says that a part of the organizations approach to developing self-management skills has been to run an education program that seeks to develop
some of these learning how to learn skills

"....One of the first things I did was run a program called Empower where I took every team through this program where they were essentially taught how to, at a really basic level, just do a bit of self-evaluation of their role and where they felt the performance gaps were and challenging them to go out and find solutions to their own learning needs....".

He says that the basic goals were to raise the awareness of employees around the relevance of self-directed learning in terms of problem solving, as well as to get people sharing to benefit the transfer of that knowledge in the organization

"...It was designed to get individuals to actually, rather than just Managers saying ‘This is what you’re going to learn’, actually getting individuals to say ‘I know my job and I know this is what I need to learn and I’m going to go out and seek a solution’...

5.2.4 Discussion

Theme 5.2A: The development of people capabilities, particularly coaching skills in leadership are an important device in increasing an organization’s productivity. A lack of people skills may result in poor execution of strategy and they are unable to efficiently get things done.

In general terms, there is not significant discussion in the coaching literature on this topic of organizational productivity from the point of view of the development of internal capabilities. So, there is some value in identifying it as an important management-coaching construct. One paper in the literature examines the impact of coaching nineteen recruiting first sergeants (district managers) over six months. The relationships between coaching dimensions (intensity of coaching and involvement in coaching) and measures of goal attainment, stress, life satisfaction, quality of life and work productivity were examined. A negative relationship between goal achievement and the quality of recruitment productivity among personnel was found (Bowles and Picano 2006). But, one of the limitations of this paper in the context of this thesis is that it largely grounded in psychology, rather than management theory and so more focused on the individualization of the findings. A second paper examines the effects of executive coaching in terms of transfer of training and productivity increases (Olivero et al. 1997), and so does not hold any particular relevance for this section of the thesis, which is more focused on the link between coaching skills and productivity.

There are however three papers that are more relevant in that they expressly discuss the
individual leader in relation to their people capabilities in terms of productivity. For example, Oshry (1990) suggests that in order to be help themselves and their colleagues be more productive, they need to empower others to ‘get what they need’ to solve their own role related problems and complete tasks, rather than take responsibility for them. The findings are discounted somewhat because the paper is a consultant article, and therefore has more conceptual rather than empirical value. Also, a paper by Agarwal et al. (2009) suggests that salespeople who reported more intense coaching from their sales managers also reported real performance improvements. Whilst this paper does not expressly report on the value or quality of the coaching capabilities in terms of productivity, it does go some way to supporting the idea that an intense period of coaching by a manager may result in performance improvements by subordinates. Finally, a notable study by Ellinger and Keller (2003) sought to determine the extent to which supervisory coaching behaviours were being utilized within organizations and the impact on employee satisfaction and performance. It found that supervisory coaching behaviour is positively associated with employee performance.

**Theme 5.2B:** There are a number of devices, which may be involved in improving productivity through the development of people capabilities of leaders. For example, one such device is for leaders to become more like coaches in their style i.e. from micro-management to the empowerment of their subordinates. This changes the culture between people and impacts on performance, which in this context could be construed as one of its purposes.

The literature fully supports the idea that a good leader is one, which has good people skills, and that technical skills are no compensation for this. This is evidenced in the descriptions in literature, which outline some of the technical/non-people approaches adopted by some leaders. For example, some leaders tend to rely on formal authority to get things done, which results in a loss of engagement and staff motivation (Ket De Vries 2005; Ladyshewsky 2010). They are confrontational and demanding, which causes relationship issues with colleagues and subordinates (Kiel et al. 1996; Barner 2006; Jones and Spooner 2006). They have a tendency to over-generalize and be negative (Stern 2004) and make inaccurate attributions, which affect their attitudes toward others (Heslin et al. 2006). They are autocratic, directive, controlling and dictatorial (Ellinger et al. 2008). The literature suggests that one possible reason that this occurs is that a manager as coach may be promoted to a position for which they are unprepared for their coaching duties i.e. setting goals, assessing performance, facilitating improved performance etc. As Lindbom (2007) suggests, the organization may lose a great technical specialist and gain a terrible manager in one management transition.
Like the literature, the findings of this study also emphasize the value of people skills in leadership, suggesting that whilst leaders can have the technical tools to run their organizations, without the people skills there is poor execution and they are unable to get things done. So, whilst this study does not make a unique contribution in that regard, it does re-enforce the importance of people capabilities to an organization’s productivity, which is a point that has not been explored in great detail in workplace coaching literature. Despite the recognition of the importance of people skills, there is a lack of discussion in literature as to the implications of this in terms of productivity. A unique finding of this paper is that despite an adequate business structure or operating environment, leaders will still not be able to effectively execute strategy if they lack the skills required to manage people. So, both good systems as well as leadership skills are required for productivity to occur. In the example given about entrepreneurs, a coach can help develop the attributes the employee needs to be able to successfully able to manage people to improve implementation, but this is virtually useless without adequate systems.

There is an abundance of literature, which focus on some aspect of the role of the manager as coach (Nicholls 1993; Ellinger 1999; Arnold et al. 2000; Wright 2007; Parker et al. 2008; Ladyshewsky 2010; Rolfe 2010). However, there appears to be relatively little detail in the literature available about the implications of a change in relationship between leader and subordinate when a coaching is adopted by a leader. Two papers were found that highlight the conditions that might exist because a leader has adopted a successful coaching approach. For instance, Ladyshewsky (2010) suggests that there may be greater levels of trust, and shared values, and Ellinger and Keller (2003) suggest that subordinates may also become more satisfied. These conditions may explain why performance increases when a manager becomes an effective coach. In addition, a study by Baron and Morin (2009) suggest that the coach-coachee relationship plays a mediating role between the coaching and development of the coachees' self-efficacy, although this paper is specific to the professional coaching role.

This study also suggests that the building of relationships is an important device of coaching. In particular, it suggests that to operationalize a leader’s vision will depend on the development of healthy relationships. But, it also asserts that a ‘good relationship’ may not be enough though for this to occur, as the leader still needs to be able to harness a ‘new culture between people’ by aligning and translating this into something of strategic or operational significance.
**Theme 5.2C:** Subordinates may become more productive when leaders change their style from micro-management to empowerment, because they then have the opportunity to set their own challenges and find their own solutions. The change in style and opportunity that results is a device of workplace coaching.

**Theme 5.2D:** Adopting a coaching approach to leadership is no guarantee that increased productivity will occur. On the contrary, it may create potential issues for the sub-ordinate, who needs to learn to operate in a new environment of empowerment and requires them to be more self-directed. The ability of the sub-ordinate to be self-directed is a device of workplace coaching.

The literature provides plenty of prescriptions/models outlining exemplary manager as coach behaviour. For example, Ellinger et al. (1999), Ellinger and Keller (2003), Ellinger et al. (2008) and Ladyshewsky (2010) are notable papers. A popular notion is that a manager needs to empower their employees as an essential part of the role. However, the use of the word ‘empowerment’ is perhaps a little clichéd, as it implies that there is a formula or ‘one size-fits-all’ approach to achieving it. In contrast, little distinction is given to the differences of individual employees, who may be at different stages of development and therefore more or less able to cope with empowerment. In contrast, in this study the findings suggest that there may exist degrees of readiness for empowerment. So, whilst sub-ordinates are meant to become problem solvers and develop their own solutions, in practice, solutions are unlikely to be developed without an appropriate level of some support from their managers, which may be different for each person. Reflecting this idea is that a safety net or buffer needs to be provided by leaders so that employees can seek direction and support as they need it.

The coaching literature suggests that there may be some general barriers to an employee becoming self-directed. For example, some general reasons may include: they may not exhibit the characteristics of readiness for the proposed changes (McNally and Lukens 2006; Ulrich 2008); they may be stressed/threatened by the process of coaching and resist it (Witherspoon and White 1996; Butterworth et al. 2006); or they may not have the time to focus on reflective activities (Abbott et al. 2006). Also, given that there should be a degree of self-determination in coaching (Styhre and Josephson 2007) perhaps a sub-ordinate may not see the relevance or want to be self-directed. As some authors have suggested, they may have different needs to the agenda. For example, they may just need to be listened to because they are feeling lonely or in need of emotional support.

The findings of this study suggest that sub-ordinate self-directedness is a determinant of
increased productivity. But, as established in the previous section, the degree of empowerment will be different for each sub-ordinate, and as such, it may be more or less uncomfortable depending on the sub-ordinate. For example, it may be an uncomfortable transition if it challenges the operating style of workers who are used to negotiating their work behaviourally, rather than cognitively. This is consistent with the idea in the literature that coachee’s must be taught cognitive and behavioural skills if they are to be self-directed (Grant 2001; Styhre and Josephson 2007). The data suggests that a more cognitive approach requires them to take ownership, think about their life, seek out creative solutions, think for themselves and engage with supporters [customers] in an authentic and meaningful way as an input to this process, rather than

“…parroting stuff they've heard… “ or being “…just receivers of orders....”.

This suggests that a sub-ordinate must possess or develop a learning and mastery orientation to successfully transition to self-directedness.

**Theme 5.2E:** One of the skill-sets that sub-ordinates may need to develop to able to operate successfully in a self-directed environment is the capability to learn how to learn and self-management skills, which includes but is not limited to the self-evaluation of their role; identification of performance gaps; and formulating and implementing solutions to their own learning needs. These are both a purpose and device of workplace coaching.

That sub-ordinates need learning how to learn skills as a pre-requisite of successful empowerment fits well with the study in the literature of self-regulation, which is essentially about helping equipping sub-ordinates to self-manage their own behaviour. This incorporates the affective domain, cognitive and behavioural domains. For example, the affective domain examines the impact of values, goals, purposes on the regulation of executive behaviour (Abbott et al. 2006; Bachkirova and Cox 2007). The cognitive domain incorporates the thought life of the coachee, and includes meta-cognition and thinking styles (Abbott 2006). In terms of the self-regulation of behaviour, to be more effective coachees may need to question their own assumptions about practice (Bransfield et al. 2007). The basic proposition in literature is that individuals may not have the skills or awareness to do this on their own, and may be more of a challenge for some than others.

There is extensive discussion in literature about what the coach should do to facilitate this. For example, a coach should defer to the coachee’s agenda for learning (Knight 2007); and the coach should take cues from the coachee as to what is relevant for discussion (Truijen and
Woerkom 2008); the coach to realize that the coaching is not about them; the coach can help the coachee recognize their strengths and weaknesses and how they can improve, but leave the responsibility with them (Ulrich 2008). Yet, despite this, there is not a lot of discussion about the implications of this from the coachee’s perspective or what this means in practice.

However, the data suggests that to be able to learn how to learn, employees need to be able to design their own learning, which might include self-evaluation of their role; identification of performance gaps; and formulating and implementing solutions to their own learning needs. This is well articulated by coach 12 who said:

"...It [the learning initiative] was designed to get individuals to actually, rather than just managers saying ‘This is what you’re going to learn’, actually getting individuals to say ‘I know my job and I know this is what I need to learn and I’m going to go out and seek a solution’...."

If the manager as coach is to develop these skills within a sub-ordinate, then one implication is that the manager must first possess these higher order skills in good measure themselves. It would be difficult for these to be developed within a coachee if they do not. Therefore, as a complement, a self-managed training program can be utilized in-house by an organization to help embed these skills.

5.3 TEAM WORK AS A DEVICE OF ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

This section of the data analysis explores the relationship between teamwork and organizational productivity, as well as the relationship between coaching and the development of conditions conducive to teamwork. In the first section, the importance of teamwork is explored as well as the links between teamwork and organizational productivity. The data suggests that one of the effects of a lack of teamwork and co-operation is poor planning, execution and productivity. But, coaching can help to bring about a change in the work culture that exists between people and this can impact on its performance. This is achieved as a leader develops the interpersonal and communication skills required to create an environment conducive to teamwork.

As an input to organization effectiveness, coaching appears to be affected by the pre-existing social conditions that exist within the organization as well as a determinant of them. The data suggests that pre-existing ‘social conditions’ with an organization can affect the likely success
of a coaching initiative when introduced to an organization. The idea that ‘social conditions’ are vastly improved for both individuals and groups as a result of coaching is well supported by the data, and in this sense a purpose and device of coaching. It is proposed that the achievement of these social conditions may determine a number of team related social outcomes including: the willingness of employees to engage one another; the functionality of collegial relationships; confidence in one another and team empowerment; team facilitation; team input toward problem solving and continual improvement; team member satisfaction and role interdependence.

The first part of the second section delineates the conditions that are conducive to teamwork, and the contribution of coaching toward creating them. There are two main dimensions explored, which include the creation of ‘group social conditions’ and ‘individual social conditions’. With respect to group social conditions, it is proposed that when people are not amenable toward one another, it results in poor collegial relationships and lower levels of teamwork. Conversely, if team members have a greater understanding one another’s needs, it can increase leadership confidence and trust in that team and this could result in better team performance. When provided with a forum for information sharing between colleagues, it can result in better engagement between one another and the data suggests that this is something that coaching can directly facilitate. However, the data also suggests that if coaching is not well understood by the participants, particularly the manager as coach who is meant to be facilitating coaching conversations, then bringing people together for a ‘coaching conversation’ can backfire.

The second part of the second section explores individual social conditions (rather than group). One of the main arguments is that to be functional in a social context, a leader must have a measure of self-awareness as well as competence. But, too much is undesirable because it can effectively isolate them from their team, in the same way that a lack of awareness and competence can. Coaching appears to be a way of helping them to achieve this balance and in that way become more socially functional. The data also suggests that an unwillingness to utilize one’s support networks, promotes low-levels of role inter-dependence, which hampers role performance. Through coaching, a leader can learn to better utilize these networks through delegation. Similarly, the kind of communication strategies utilized by leaders can affect the opportunity for team input. Through coaching, leaders can learn the value of direct face-to-face contact with colleagues and subordinates to engage them. This in turn this facilitates an opportunity for team input regarding business challenges.
5.3.1 The importance of teamwork

One of the effects of a lack of teamwork and co-operation is poor planning, execution and productivity. Coach 12 says that because of the lack of communication within teams the organization is impulsive. He suggests that because of this they are inefficient and employees are overloaded

“...To be honest, we don’t plan well. In most of what we do we plan, execute, evaluate, we just execute, execute, execute, execute and things bump into each other.....we see something that’s a good opportunity and we jump straight into it and do it and the impact for someone trying to get training happening is huge. You can’t do very much because everyone’s feeling like their absolutely full or beyond capacity...because there has been a lack of planning at higher levels. People aren’t talking to each other, people like considering the system, their just seeing the opportunity and rush in....”.

Coach 2 also suggests that positive outcomes at work are a function of individuals and teams working interdependently

“...working in any organizations requires team of diverse individuals to co-operate interdependently to achieve the overall goal. Leveraging both the team and individuals will be more rewarding and satisfying...”.

Coaching can increase the co-operation between employees. This was alluded to in the previous section, in which coach 16 said

“...we’re actually changing the working culture between people [through coaching] and that ultimately impacts them on performance...”.

It is also supported by other coaches; for instance, coach 29 suggests that through coaching, a team can become united in the same collective goals

“...by a systemic approach [coaching] helps groups to grow on the same with the same objectives for a collective goals....”.

Similarly, coach 3 says that a measure of whether coaching is effective or not when leaders [coachees] realize that better results are achieved through its people and team work and individuals within those teams begin exhibiting team-like behaviours
“…My coaching is effective when people act and they can demonstrate that they realize that they have to get results through others. So, I look at what others are saying now and if others are giving that upward suggestion of improvement, others are commenting on the performance of the peers, the lead team performs differently…..they are the real bottom line.”

5.3.2 Teamwork and productivity

In practice, the impact of increased leader effectiveness on teamwork and productivity is evidenced in the accounts of three of the managers as coach in training who participated in this study. In each case, because of coaching they had learned to create an environment more conducive to teamwork and this has resulted in increased productivity. For coach 30, his coaching experience has helped him be more effective in getting things done. A key achievement has been learning able to engage and influence his peers better

"...I was looking for the effectiveness of being able to get things done. I had the ability to compare before and after so, before I found engagement with this particular individual very difficult. We didn’t appear to see eye to eye, we were not on the same page…. after the coaching I have found that I have been able to engage that person better....”.

Similarly, coach 14 says that the coaching has resulted in changes in leadership style and in turn, there have been some tangible changes within department, particularly in his team

".... in terms of the team, my team….compared to where we were two years ago, I believe that team is far more empowered than they were....”.

Because of the improved team conditions, he says that they are much more productive

"...well things are running pretty warmly, you know, they are getting towards the hot end and they are much more effective than they were before. Our business results have illustrated that in a lot of ways. In all areas, not just sales and profitability, but in how effective we are at executing some of the strategies and themes and our safety and our customer service. A whole heap of things have been substantially enhanced during that period....”.

Finally, coach 13, who has had experience supervising coachees during their development says that one of them had not being successful in her role as manager, and this was affecting team effectiveness and productivity
"...So, the group was not effective. We were having all sorts of issues around productivity and we were having all sorts of issues around people....".

He says that through coaching, she has become a more effective leader as evidenced by the fact that her team has become more self-regulating and therefore productive - consequently, his workload has decreased

“...I was probably spending a minimum of an hour a day micromanaging aspects of the group, and I was also spending a fair bit of time hosing down complaints and issues escalated from outside of the group about the group’s performance.......when it is not my job...I now don’t spend much time at all in that space. The issues are managed within the group and get escalated to me when they are appropriate to be escalated to me…. the number of issues and escalations and complaints around the performance decreased and the productivity of the group increased....".


5.3.3 Social conditions as a device of teamwork

5.3.3.1 Group social conditions

When people are not amenable toward one another, it results in poor collegial relationships and lower levels of teamwork. Coaching can help teams overcome the relationship conditions, which are barriers to improvement for a whole team or business unit. This is directly supported by the coach 23, who says that coaching can create conditions in which everyone can flourish

“...Coaching leaders and their teams gives results that allow everyone to flourish, including the company...”.

Coach 8 says suggests that there was a low level of good will between his direct report and her team. He says that coaching had directly impacted her relationships and she became more of a team player

"...It did affect performance from a relationship point of view. There was a lot of things happening about blame and criticism of other people and not accepting a lot of the responsibility of things that she should be doing. That is what was generating frustration with other people that she was dealing with....".

He agreed that she had become a better organizational citizen

".....Yes, that is right. She had a pretty pivotal role in the business and obviously had to deal with lots of
stakeholders in the business and it was just frustration being experienced by other people. I am not suggesting that everyone else was squeaky clean either but, I think it was just a bit of head butting going between different parties...”.

But, if team members are more amenable and have a greater understanding one another’s needs, it can increase leadership confidence and trust in that team and this could result in better team performance. Through coaching, leaders can develop the skills that enable this process to occur. For example, coach 4 says that her confidence in her team is high, which means that she can focus less on operational matters and they are subsequently performing better

"...I am now more able to step out of the operational side of things. I have more confidence in my management team and dealing with the operational sort of things. I think more about how to improve things or how to move things forward. They also seem to have the understanding of what I want to know as well. Again, you know, I suppose it is more reinforcing of that, having the confidence to step away from the operational...”.

When provided with a forum for information sharing between colleagues, it can result in better engagement between one another. The data suggests that this is something that coaching can directly facilitate. This is further supported by coach 30, who suggests that he was surprised by positive outcomes that had been achieved through the coaching. He says that there was much better engagement in part because of the learning that resulted from exchanging information with one another

"...I didn’t know that that individual had had coaching and I certainly was not aware that we could get to a point where we could actually exchange information. I found that that was really helpful in this example and in fact, I found my engagements with that person have improved dramatically. By that I mean, I understand essentially what she is looking for in a peer and I have been able to sort of change my approach and massage my approach a bit to be able to engage her a lot....”.

He says that the coach was able to facilitate a process of sharing between the two coachees

"... in discussions with my coach, this example surfaced and my coach was able to seek my permission to commence a process of sharing information to see if we could create some better engagement. So, that was very useful....”.

Up until this point, the data has suggested that coaching can create social conditions in which teamwork and social networks can be improved. However, although the idea of coaching is
to bring people together, if it is not well understood by the participants, particularly, the manager as coach who is meant to be facilitating a coaching conversation, it can backfire resulting in poor group social conditions. Coach 17 suggests that her organization hasn’t fully understood coaching and it’s distinctiveness from other developmental approaches. She says that because of this, they have been using their performance appraisal beyond its scope by trying to combine it with coaching, which has caused confusion

"...I wondered whether.. we’re trying to do too many things in one, so that maybe this isn’t actually a performance appraisal thing as such, it’s a whole lot of things....might be why we’re getting confusion.....".

Because of this, the coach believes that there was frustration in their employee ranks about this

"... And there are a whole lot of reasons for that and they’re different depending on what team you’re in. Some teams are working really well. Other teams were not working well because the leader doesn’t buy into it or it might be that it doesn’t match what they’re wanting it to be or they just don’t understand it....".

She agreed after some discussion that they needed to distinguish between performance appraisal and coaching to alleviate the confusion.

5.3.3.2 Individual social conditions

To be functional in a social context, a leader must have a measure of self-awareness as well as competence. But, too much of these can effectively isolate them from their team, in the same way that a lack of awareness and competence can. Coaching may help them to achieve this balance. Coach 13 says that there are two goals of a coaching program i.e. to build confidence and skills; and he considers both to be important because they enable a person to function in a social context

"....there are two aspects. One is to give her the self awareness to be able to do these sorts of things and the other aspect is to give her the tools to enable her to do it.....Those two hand in hand, effectively makes someone into a good manager and they can’t operate in isolation, because if you have someone who is totally self aware and totally self capable and all of that sort of stuff but, have no idea what to do they become an arrogant pain in the arse....".

The data also suggests that a leader must be willing to utilize the support networks available to them otherwise it promotes low-levels of role inter-dependence, which in turn hampers role performance. Coaching may help a leader better utilize these networks through increased
delegation. For example, coach 14 says that he wasn't someone who had not utilized the broader support network available to him in the organization. This was because he was taking more responsibility than he needed to; when he could have let other people also own the problems

"...I don’t really want to take other people’s advice as much as I could benefit from it. I had run my own race and make my own mistakes and not utilize the support network that was around me, even though it wasn’t part of my business and that was something that was making my job harder for me to do….I was taking more responsibility than I probably needed to....I was keeping a lot of things within my business that I could make someone else’s problem....".

Finally, the kind of communication strategies utilized by leaders can affect the opportunity for team input. For example, direct face-to-face contact with colleagues and subordinates to engage them provides an opportunity for team input regarding business challenges. To this end, coaching may be to help leaders better engage their colleagues. Coach 4 says that she doesn't use email anymore to communicate with subordinates, which she thinks has resulted in better engagement and input from team members

"...I don’t email. I talk a lot more now. I make sure I catch up regularly with the guys in my team that are out of State or, out of this area whenever I can and just talk to the peers and go out there and ask for feedback and find out what the challenges are for the business and try to make things better...."

5.3.4 Discussion

Theme 5.3A: One of the effects of a lack of teamwork and co-operation is poor planning, execution and productivity. To this end, a purpose of coaching may be to help organizations bring about a change in the work culture that exists between people and this can impact on its performance. It appears to achieve this by uniting employees around collective goals and the adoption of team-like behaviours, such as the giving of feedback.

There is limited empirical evidence in the workplace coaching literature to suggest that teamwork is a device of productivity development, and the literature suggests a tenuous link between coaching and teamwork. For example, in learning institutions it is reported that coaching can help students collaborate in team based learning projects (Bolton 1999; Powers and Summers 2009). Similarly, organizations making greater use of external coaches for senior executives report improved alignment among the leadership team, the team's ability to execute strategy and leadership behaviours (McDermott et al. 2007).
The findings of this study suggest that a lack of teamwork and co-operation between employees in an organization can disrupt productive activities such as planning and execution. A unique finding though is that if a group of employees are not communicating to each other effectively about these matters, one of the consequences of a lack of communication is that their workload increases to the point where they become inefficient and are unable to expend resources on systems improvement. Through coaching, a team may become more united in the same collective goals once individuals begin exhibiting team-like behaviours, which might include giving feedback to their superiors and to their peers in the interests of improving performance.

**Theme 5.3B:** A purpose workplace coaching is to increase leader effectiveness and organizational productivity. As a device of coaching, this may occur as the coachee (a leader) learns to create an environment more conducive to teamwork.

There is some evidence in the literature that supports the idea that a leader as coach can facilitate a better team environment and therefore greater productivity - two papers in particular allude to this. For example, a paper by Ket De Vries (2005) suggests that coaching teams may translate into better results for the organization. It is thought that this occurs as leaders who adopt the manager as coach role engage in appropriate behaviours to improve performance. These behaviours might include: observation, feedback, encouragement, de-briefings to discuss progress, identification of strengths and weaknesses, and on improvement opportunities (Ellinger and Bostrom 1999; Locke 2008).

The findings of this paper also suggest that a leader who is coached can become more effective as they learn to create an environment more conducive to teamwork. In other words, they are able to more effectively engage and influence their colleagues, and improve levels of empowerment. This helps them be more effective at executing business strategies, and better able to manage team issues, which increases a team’s self-regulatory capabilities and productivity.

**Theme 5.3C:** When people are not amenable toward one another it can result in poor collegial relationships and lower levels of teamwork. A purpose of workplace coaching may be to help teams overcome these issues through the following devices: increasing their collective ownership of issues, trust and facilitate information sharing.

There is a very limited exploration of teams and the contribution that coaching makes toward them in the literature. There are however two papers in particular, which have some
relevance for this study in that they seek to identify conditions in which teams can be most effective and therefore highlight the value and implications for the coaching of teams. In this way, both papers outline the contribution of coaching toward the creation of ideal group social conditions. Firstly, Ket De Vries (2005) suggests that coaching establishes a foundation of trust, makes for constructive conflict resolution, leads to greater commitment, and contributes to accountability. The article suggests that because of this, group coaching creates high-performance teams, is an antidote to organizational silo formation, helps put into place boundary-less organizations and makes for true knowledge management. A second paper of note in this area is a study by Hackman and Wageman (2005), which explicate the conditions under which team-focused coaching is and is not likely to facilitate performance. They suggest that team coaching can foster team effectiveness only when the organizational context and coach behaviour are compatible. Four conditions were outlined including: that group performance processes are unconstrained by task or organizational requirements e.g. effort, strategy, and knowledge and skill; the team is well designed; coaching behaviours focus on factors that are within the control of the team rather than on member’ interpersonal relationships; coaching interventions are made at times when the team is ready for them i.e. at the beginning, mid-point and end. Accordingly, they should be focused on motivational, strategy and educational interventions respectively. The latter two conditions of this paper are most relevant to this section of the thesis in that they create a set of parameters for coaching intervention.

This study begins with the proposition that when people are not amenable toward one another it results in poor collegial relationships and lower levels of teamwork - in this sense it supports the findings of the literature. Secondly, the study also finds that coaching can help teams overcome these relationship issues, which are barriers to improvement. For example, it suggests that through coaching, group issues can be overcome because members will likely take greater ownership for them. This aligns with Ket De Vries (2005), which suggests that coaching makes for constructive conflict resolution, leads to greater commitment and contributes to accountability. However, on this point, the findings could potentially be in conflict with Hackman etal (2005), who suggests that coaching behaviours should not be targeted toward resolving interpersonal relationships.

Thirdly, this study also supports Ket De Vries (2005) finding that coaching can help build a foundation of trust. In particular, the data suggests that if team members have a greater understanding one another’s needs, it can increase leadership confidence and trust in that team and this could result in better team performance. Through coaching, leaders can develop the skills that
enable this process to occur. To this extent, this finding concurs with Hackman et al (2005) that the coach facilitates improved relationships indirectly i.e. skill development, and helping to increase an understanding of each team members needs. A more unique finding of this study suggests that when provided with a forum for information sharing between colleagues, it can result in better engagement between one another, and that this process is something that coaching can directly facilitate. In some ways, it explains how a coach might go about achieving a shared understanding of team member needs.

**Theme 5.3D:** A purpose of coaching is to create social conditions in which teamwork and be improved. But, this will only occur if it is well understood by the manager as coach who is the facilitator of coaching conversations. If not, then, coaching may be used inappropriately and this may confuse its participants, result in poor uptake and the development of poor group social conditions. To this end, a device of coaching therefore coach education and training.

The findings suggest that whilst coaching can create social conditions in which teamwork and social networks can be improved, it will only occur if it is well understood by the organization and its participants. This is especially true for the manager as coach who is the facilitator of coaching conversations. If not, then, the findings also suggest that coaching may be used inappropriately. For example, it may be used as a performance management tool, which may confuse its participants, result in poor uptake of coaching, and the development of poor group social conditions. This point is more broadly supported by literature i.e. if not understood, it may be used as a reactionary tool (Allenbaugh 1983; Krazmien and Berger 1997).

**Theme 5.3E:** To be functional in a social context a leader must have a measure of self-awareness as well as competence, however, too much of these can effectively isolate them from their team. A purpose of coaching may be to help them to achieve this balance.

Discussions about leader self-awareness fall within the study of psychological mindedness. To be psychologically minded requires a level of self and social awareness and the development of some key skills. For example, the ability to reflect on one's own and others thoughts, feelings and behaviours, and then derive meaning and learn from that (Bluckert 2005). Kilburg (2004) stresses the importance of self-awareness because of its effects on their leadership actions. He makes the broader point that feelings, thoughts, and patterns of behaviour that are outside of the conscious awareness of executives can significantly influence what they decide and how they act (Kilburg 2004). Presumably these actions will have some effect on their teams and have implications for relationship. He draws on object relations theory to discuss dysfunctional human patterns of general attachment and obtaining help under stress.
But, in general terms, most of the literature concentrates on leadership or coaching behaviours rather than desired characteristics or competencies. A prominent example is by Ellinger et al. (2008), in which they examine ineffective behaviours and their appropriateness to working with employees. The predominant ineffective behaviours identified included using an autocratic, directive, controlling or dictatorial style, ineffective communication and dissemination of information. There is also some discussion in the literature about leadership behaviour in terms of self-management and satisfaction. For example, one study examines the relative effects of leader behaviours on the effectiveness of self-managing teams. Findings suggest that team design and hands-on coaching are key factors (Wageman 2001).

Also, a number of papers highlight the importance of coach characteristics, but no link is made about the implications for leader and team relationships. For example, a study by Blackman (2006) focuses on the main components involved in the coaching process: the coach, the coachee, the organization and the coaching process. The results suggest that the coach is the most important component and that they need to be trustworthy, have good communication skills and have credibility in the field they work in. Other papers indicate that a leader as coach should possess communication competencies i.e. non-verbal communication, such as manner and body language, but there is only a loose connection made with the affect that this has on teams (Rojas 2007).

Perhaps the most closely aligned paper to this study is by Heslin et al (2006). In it they suggest that a manager’s perceptions can create a barrier between them and members of their team. They find that implicit person theories (IPTs) about the malleability of personal attributes (e.g. personality and ability) affect one’s willingness to help others, and in this sense may act as a barrier to relationship formation (Heslin et al. 2006). They make a direct link between the perceptions of a leader and the potential effect on team, although they do not explicitly explore implications for leader/team relations. Finally, the literature also suggests that self-actualized managers as coaches make them more effective leaders to their teams because ‘good coaches’ are more receptive to ideas from the team, more participative and willing to let learners take their own decisions and make mistakes (Hughes 2006). As the findings of this study suggest, it is unlikely that this could occur without a measure of self and social awareness.

From a management perspective, the link between leader as coach characteristics and team impact is one that is of great importance, but it does not appear to have been considered to date in the literature. Since there is only a small amount of evidence linking coach characteristics and team
impact, this study makes a relatively unique point: that to be functional in a social context a leader must have a measure of self-awareness as well as competence. However, too much of these can effectively isolate them from their team, in the same way that a lack of awareness and competence can, and coaching may help them to achieve this balance.

**Theme 5.3F:** A purpose of coaching may be to increase leader role-interdependence. The devices used to achieve this reflect a change in style, which include: greater utilization of their support networks; development of strategies around communication and task delegation.

Discussions in the literature about dependence and inter-dependence are focused on coach-coachee relationships. The literature review suggested that one of the ultimate goals of coaching is to help a coachee to become self-regulating, which means taking ownership of their own development processes and valuing their own learning (O'Connor and Ertmer 2006). However, for various reasons this may not occur, and they may instead become dependent on the coach and be passive during the development process (Schnell 2005). Dependence may be an issue in the context of cross cultural coaching because of the challenge it presents in transitioning to another culture (Abbott et al. 2006).

In terms of the leader-sub-ordinate relationships, the discussions about interdependence revolve around poor leadership behaviour i.e. a leader being independent, which is characterized by autocratic, directive, controlling and dictatorial behaviour (Ellinger et al. 2008), and hostility to feedback (Schnell 2005). The literature suggests that poor leadership behaviour lends itself to independence, rather than inter-dependence and causes ongoing issues, including a loss of engagement and staff motivation (Ket De Vries 2005; Ladyshewsky 2010), and relationship issues with colleagues and subordinates (Kiel et al. 1996; Barner 2006; Jones and Spooner 2006).

The literature clearly asserts that this style of leadership is contrary to that expected of a manager as coach. In support of this, the findings suggest that a manager as coach approach to leadership is one, which promotes interdependence and would necessarily rely on a leader utilizing support networks and delegating. The findings of this study further suggest that an unwillingness to utilize one’s support networks promotes low-levels of role inter-dependence, which hampers role performance. A more inter-dependent style involves the use of various strategies around communication, which can affect the opportunity for team input. For example, a more direct approach to communication i.e. face-to-face contact rather than email, with colleagues and subordinates to engage them provides an opportunity for team input regarding business challenges.
Similarly, coaching may help leaders better engage their colleagues and become more interdependent by utilizing their networks through task delegation.

**PART A: CONCLUSION**

This section of the data analysis has explored organizational effectiveness as a purpose of coaching and its devices. A total of fourteen themes have been explored in the findings. These set the context for the rest of the data analysis, which explores some of its findings more fully in subsequent parts of the analysis. The first section, 5.1 investigated the relationship between individual and organizational effectiveness. A total of three themes were explored. The analysis established that the components of organizational effectiveness include retention, succession, and employee satisfaction. Two contradictory arguments supported by the data are made with regard to the effectiveness of coaching i.e. that it may or may not lead to organizational effectiveness. It was asserted that leaders are an important contributor to organizational effectiveness, but that their effectiveness is limited by the organizational context. The first theme suggests that a purpose of workplace coaching is to facilitate positive outcomes for organizations in the areas of retention, employee satisfaction and succession planning, and it leads to positive organizational outcomes in these areas. The second suggests the opposite i.e. that this may not occur. The final theme suggests that the contribution of individuals to organizational effectiveness is leveraged via workplace coaching when collectively applied, but their contributions are limited or enhanced by dimensions of the organizational context. This topic is more fully explored in Part B of this thesis, which is more about organizational culture.

The second section, 5.2, explored internal capabilities as a device of workplace coaching. A total of five themes were formulated from the findings. The importance of leadership people capability and coaching skills was delineated and its effect on productivity. One of the ideas explored was that coaching can help employees ‘step-up’, and in this frame the challenging implications of a change of leadership style for this purpose were discussed. The first theme suggested that the development of people capabilities, particularly, coaching skills in leadership are an important device in increasing an organization’s productivity. This is because a lack of people skills results in poor execution of strategy and they are unable to efficiently get things done. The second theme suggested that there are a number of devices involved in improving productivity through the development of people capabilities of leaders. For example, one such device is for leaders become more like coaches in their style i.e. from micro-management to the empowerment of their sub-ordinates. This changes the culture between people and impacts on performance, which in
this context could be construed as one of its purposes. A third theme suggested that subordinates become more productive when leaders change their style from micro-management to empowerment because they then have the opportunity to set their own challenges and find their own solutions. This ‘opportunity’ is a device of workplace coaching.

But, another related theme suggested that adopting a coaching approach to leadership is no guarantee that increased productivity will occur. On the contrary, it can create potential issues for the sub-ordinate, who needs to learn to operate in a new environment of empowerment, and requires them to be more self-directed. The ability of the sub-ordinate to be self-directed is a device of workplace coaching. The final theme suggested that one of the skill-sets that subordinates need to develop to able to operate successfully in a self-directed environment is the capability to learn how to learn, which includes but is not limited to the self-evaluation of their role; identification of performance gaps; and formulating and implementing solutions to their own learning needs. These skills are both a purpose and device of workplace coaching.

The third and final section, 5.3, explored teamwork as a device of organizational effectiveness. A total of six themes were explored in the findings. Initially, the importance of teamwork is established and its links to productivity. Then, social conditions, which are framed as a device of teamwork, are delineated. It is argued that coaching can create conditions in which teams and relationships can flourish and these dimensions are explored. The initial theme suggested that one of the effects of a lack of teamwork and co-operation is poor planning, execution and productivity. To this end, a purpose of coaching is to help organizations bring about a change in the work culture that exists between people and this can impact on its performance. It achieves this by uniting employees around collective goals and the adoption of team-like behaviours, such as the giving of feedback. The leader has a significant role in this, and to this end, the second theme suggests that a purpose workplace coaching is to increase leader effectiveness and organizational productivity. As a device of coaching, this occurs as the coachee (i.e. a leader) learns to create an environment more conducive to teamwork.

The third theme provides insight into the importance of amenability toward teamwork. When people are not amenable toward one another it results in poor collegial relationships and lower levels of teamwork. A purpose of workplace coaching is to help teams overcome these issues through the following devices: increasing their collective ownership of issues, trust and facilitate information sharing. The fourth theme suggests that a purpose of coaching is to create social
conditions in which teamwork and be improved. But, this will only occur if it is well understood by the manager as coach who is the facilitator of coaching conversations. If not, then, coaching may be used inappropriately and this may confuse its participants, result in poor uptake and the development of poor group social conditions. To this end, a device of coaching therefore coach education and training.

The last two themes focus on the leader themselves and suggest that to be functional in a social context a leader must have a measure of self-awareness as well as competence, however, too much of these can effectively isolate them from their team. A purpose of coaching is to help them to achieve this balance. Similarly, a purpose of coaching is to increase leader role-interdependence. The devices used to achieve this reflect a change in style, which include: greater utilization of their support networks; development of strategies around communication and task delegation.

The next section of this chapter, Part B explores organizational culture as a device of workplace coaching. It is a continuation of the discussion about the broader management context and its effects identified in section 5.1.4, which was about its limitations.

**PART B: ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AS A DEVICE OF WORKPLACE COACHING**

**PART B: INTRODUCTION**

This section of the thesis continues the work started in Part A, about the organizational context. It explores organizational culture as a device of workplace coaching and this is achieved in two sections. The first investigates the effect of cultural orientation as a device of collective strength. Essentially, it suggests that an organizational culture in which there is a coaching orientation is one that is predisposed toward building the strengths of its employees and a robust view of weakness. The importance of ‘strengths leadership’ is explored. The second section investigates the importance and role of leadership and developmental support within a coaching oriented culture. In particular, the supportive inputs are delineated, as well as the input of significant others.
5.4 CULTURE AS A DEVICE OF COLLECTIVE STRENGTH

This section explores the notion of coaching orientation to describe an organizational context, which is conducive to the achievement of organization effectiveness. The data suggests that a coaching orientation describes an organization, which recognizes and develops the strengths and potential of its people, particularly high potential people who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role. Whilst weaknesses are acknowledged, it is understood that these are usually a temporary phenomenon brought about by a context of challenge, such as a recent job promotion, or acquisition of a new role, rather than being an inherent and entrenched characteristic. The manifestation of this weakness is likely to be short-lived as the candidate learns to adapt via support mechanisms such as coaching.

The analysis then explores the notion of ‘strengths leadership’. It is suggested that because a coaching orientation is about building strengths and developing potential, it is debatable whether it can be effective in an environment in which the leadership are not willing to take ownership of challenges, and instead believe that their people are a ‘part of the problem’. In contrast, an organization with a coaching orientation can succeed in maximizing the potential of its people, despite their weaknesses, because its management recognizes their potential and supports them. In this sense, leadership appears to be an important device in the facilitation of successful coaching given that they can model these values and operationalize them. This is because a high level of intimacy is achieved because a coaching approach fosters engagement between supervisors and subordinates, which is achieved by the sponsoring of developmental conversations.

By virtue of their position, a manager is in a unique position to recognize the potential of a sub-ordinate, and can be instrumental in facilitating support to develop strengths through approaches such as coaching. A manager in an organization with a coaching orientation will still see the potential in a leader with obvious deficiencies and leadership challenges, and prefer to support them to retain, rather than terminate them. Given the role of leadership in recognizing potential, it is important for the management team to be clear about the appropriate use of feedback tools, which may be used to highlight people’s weaknesses and deficiencies instead.

5.4.1 Defining coaching orientation

In the context of organizational culture, a coaching orientation or coaching culture is one
that is pre-disposed toward the developing strengths of high potential people who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role. This is supported in brief by coach 2 who suggests that coaching is an approach to building strengths

“…Coaching can work with individuals to leverage their personal strengths…”. Similarly, coach 14 says that the coaching program in his organization was about building the strengths of high potential people "...this is a program where the people who can become General Managers and beyond. Some of them have been put on to this program. So, it was couched to me in terms of ‘we are not trying to fix up a heap of problems with you. We are trying to build on strengths that you have got and help you in some areas where you could be more effective, in order to make you ready for another role’....".

But, a coaching orientation is not just about building strengths; rather, it is also about raising awareness about weaknesses and addressing them. Coach 13 says that the goals of the coaching were to increase the self-efficacy by enhancing a coachee’s strengths, but also by helping her to be aware of her specific weaknesses and to address them

"...the goals were around boosting her self confidence in her own capabilities to do these things because she was a self doubter. So, one of the major goals was to boost her capabilities, but also to recognize her weaknesses because she obviously had some. It was to recognize what they were and to put in some action plans around addressing them. So, it was targeted more at a personal self awareness......".

An area of weakness may manifest because of the appointment of a new role or the assumption of more responsibility. Coach 8 says that for one of the coachees a change of job was the reason that the coaching was needed

"... I could just see he was doing really well, but just saw that there was an opportunity there to help him to better himself in some of those areas....through the performance management system as well, we identified that there was some areas there that we could help him in and this was one of the avenues to look at....".

5.4.2 Strengths leadership

If coaching is about building strengths and developing potential, it is debatable whether it can be effective in an environment in which the leadership are not willing to take ownership of challenges. A coaching orientation does not seem compatible with a belief that employees are a ‘part of the problem’ and need to be fixed. In discussions with coach 31, she agreed that the hierarchy in an organization where she worked was out of touch with the people in the organization and not willing to support or take ownership of its challenges. They thought that she as a coach
would fix the problems for them

"...they thought I was coming in to fix all these people...we’re up here; we’re the ones who have arrived and we are the most important - you [the coach] get these guys going... I go right and say ‘I don’t coach to fix.’ ‘I don’t fix anybody’. You all have all you need here and we’re going to work on that’ point of view because I’m aware that that does happen a great deal of the time and certainly at the executive suit...I try hard to be very clear about that....”.

In contrast, an organization with a coaching orientation can succeed in maximizing the potential of its people, despite their weaknesses, because its management recognizes their potential and supports them. For example, coach 13 says the organization chose to support her [the coachee] because they could see her potential to be a good leader, even though she didn't have the self-belief. He says that they used coaching because management didn't have the time to spend with her that she needed during the transition

"...I wasn’t there when the original decision was made, but, from a background perspective it was really around, the fact that we could see the potential in her, but she didn’t have the self belief that she had that capability. She also wasn’t equipped with the tools to help her bring that capability to the fore and unfortunately, from an IT management perspective, we didn’t have the focus to be able to spend the time with her....”.

Similarly, a manager in an organization with a coaching orientation might still see the potential in an employee with obvious deficiencies and leadership challenges, and prefer to support them to retain rather than terminate them. Coach 8 says that he had to make a decision about whether to retain or terminate a particular employee. He wanted to resolve an adverse situation and felt that there was potential to be able to retain her despite the issues

"...We were going to have a plan to try and resolve the situation or were we going to have a plan as an exit strategy’. I was more than happy to do what I could to make it not the exit strategy avenue. I thought that there was some opportunity to redeem the situation and some opportunity to move on. So, I was prepared to give that a try...”.

If a manager has a good working relationship with a sub-ordinate, they are in a unique position to recognize their potential and can facilitate support through approaches such as coaching. Coach 8 says that for one of the coachees, a change of job was the reason that the coaching was needed. He says that because he has an established relationship with him, that he was able to see an opportunity for him to improve
"...I know this leader really well, we go back a long time and I could just see he was doing really well, but just saw that there was an opportunity there to help him to better himself in some of those areas...".

A high level of engagement may also be achieved because this is something that a coaching approach fosters between executives and subordinates, which is achieved by the sponsoring of developmental conversations. For a high level of engagement to occur, leaders must speak in ‘human development terms’ and embrace a coaching language with their subordinates; however, this may be a challenge. Coach 15 says that it was hoped that the coaching conversations between executives and the coaches in one organization would ‘rub-off’ and translate into new coaching language and focus

"...we thought that by having these conversations that it would ‘rub off’ coaching skill transfer and … everyone would now be speaking in human potential terms to their people and being really clear about expectations. Working hard to clarify goals and making sure that they were not only smart, but they were exciting and they were recorded etc - and this did not happen. But, we had some people who were very, very receptive and they wanted to add something to their leadership repertoire, so they embraced the coaching language, the coaching approach and brought it forward …”.

Given the importance of strengths focused leadership, it is important for the management team to be clear about the appropriate use of feedback tools, which may be used to emphasize people’s weaknesses and deficiencies and not be balanced. Although the non-profit had not ever conducted 360-degree feedback, coach 12 recognized the value of facilitating some kind of feedback to leaders. He suggested that the feedback is a good way of shaping someone's view of himself or herself to help improve performance. On the basis that they were having some issues with their leadership, he highlighted the fact that it could be used to point out deficiencies.

5.4.3 Discussion

**Theme 5.4A:** In the context of organizational culture, a coaching orientation is one whose purpose is to develop the strengths of high potential people who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role. As a device, it emphasizes strengths rather than weaknesses.

Strengths are understood more at an individual than organizational level in the literature, and evidenced by their use in psychology, which dominates the discussion (Levinson 1996). An example of a model utilized is the VIA Classification of Strengths (Peterson and Seligman 2004), which is a developing framework used to understand human strengths in terms of their capacity for
behaving, thinking, or feeling in a way that allows optimal functioning and performance (Linely and Harrington 2005). The identification of strengths can be used to formulate individual development goals and act as a benchmark for moving forward, and in that sense a part of a broader development plan for a coachee. 360-degree feedback may be source of data for this purpose (Ulrich 2008).

Presumably collective strengths and weaknesses could also be identified as part of a strategic approach to organizational development, but this is not addressed in the literature. Certainly, there are some case studies of coaching in organizations which describe the approaches to development taken by organizations; however, on the whole, these are very descriptive and don’t really address this aspect of coaching orientation in terms of culture. The only comment that could be found in literature about this suggests that as an organizational strategy, coaching should be proactive rather than reactionary strategy, which enables weaknesses to be minimized and strengths to be enhanced (Allenbaugh 1983; Krazmien and Berger 1997). The absence of research in the literature about a strategic approach to developing collective strengths is a significant gap. But, the findings of this study suggest that in the context of organizational culture, a coaching orientation is one in which organizations aim to develop the strengths of high potential people, who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role. As an example, it might be suited to the development of an organization’s future General Managers by building on their evident strengths.

Theme 5.4B: Whilst an organizational culture with a coaching orientation emphasizes the building strengths, it does not ignore weaknesses; rather one of its devices is also to raise awareness about them and address them.

Theme 5.4C: An organizational culture with a coaching orientation is one in which individual weaknesses are viewed as a normal and healthy consequence of organizational growth and development. To this extent, they are a device of employee development and workplace coaching.

Like strengths, weaknesses are discussed more from an individual rather than organizational perspective in the literature. For instance, it is clear in literature that it is not about remediating clinical populations (Grant and Cavanagh 2004), but can be used as a remedy for poor performance (Woodruffe 2006; Ellinger et al. 2008). A leader may not be in need of remediation, but as an adequate performer may have the potential to perform even better (Kiel et al. 1996; Bowles et al. 2007; Parker et al. 2008; Onchwari and Keengwe 2010). Nevertheless, weaknesses may not be tolerated especially at higher levels of management, because there is little room for poor performance or dysfunctional behaviour. Weakness at this level, include characteristics and
behaviours that are undesirable for a leader, such as high risk aversion, arrogance and insensitivity, controlling and micro-managing, and a reluctance to address complex people issues (McNally and Lukens 2006; Kearney 2010).

Again, although the literature focuses on weaknesses from an individual perspective, the data suggests that in the context of a strategic development plan, an organization could adopt a view that there is value in raising awareness about collective weaknesses and addressing them. As the literature suggests, a weakness does not have to be about remediation; rather, they may arise because employees have accepted the appointment of a new roles or assumed more responsibility in their existing role, and requires support rather than hostility. This is certainly consistent with the notion of strengths leadership delineated in the previous sub-section. In fact, if an organization is regularly promoting its employees, then there will be by default many weaknesses manifesting themselves because of the challenges. But, in an organizational culture in which its people are viewed as a part of the problem, this would be abhorrent and may have implications for policies around promotion, career development and succession strategy. This would be an interesting area for further research.

In contrast, a positive view of people, which is consistent with a coaching orientation, would suggest that the manifestation of a weakness is not to be considered a negative. Instead, the presence of weakness should be considered a normal and healthy occurrence throughout a career path, because it is a sign of individual and organizational growth. Consequently, at a macro-organizational level, the manifestation of weaknesses might relate to the resonant cycles of the economy, which dictate the cycle of growth and consolidation in organizations. As an organization adapts to these cycles, they will naturally be expanding or shrinking their workforce as appropriate. So, at different points in this cycle, levels of weakness will inevitably manifest themselves. In this way, the presence of weaknesses might not only be considered a norm, but an indicator of health in the context of individual and organizational growth and development, and therefore embraced by an organization in which the culture is consistent with a coaching orientation.

**Theme 5.4D:** Since coaching emphasizes the building of strengths and developing potential, it cannot be effective in an environment in which the leadership is not willing to take ownership of challenges and instead believe that their people are a ‘part of the problem’. To this extent, organizational culture is a pivotal device of workplace coaching.
The literature suggests a number of scenarios in which coaching can be used inappropriately. For example, as suggested previously, coaching may then be used as a reactionary tool in direct response to a deficit in employee behaviour and abilities, rather than as a pro-active strategy (Allenbaugh 1983; Krazmien and Berger 1997). It may be used as a scapegoat or quick-fix in lieu of employing the necessary resources to discover the true reason for the performance issues (Tobias 1996; Kilburg 1997; DeHaan 2008). A reason that management may use coaching inappropriately is that a coach may be viewed by management as someone with all of the right answers (DeHaan 2008) – this is a perception that may be propagated by coaches themselves (Schnell 2005). Of course, the need for management to take responsibility does not discount the need for individual coachees to take responsibility for change as well (Ulrich 2008).

The findings of the study suggest that a purpose of coaching is not to fix someone. It suggests that it is a fruitless task in any case, but even more so when the real issues are being overlooked or ignored. The use of coaching under these conditions may result from attribution error, which is underpinned by a faulty management worldview or perhaps management incompetence. As the external coach in this study suggested, this is inappropriate

“.I go right and say ‘I don’t coach to fix.’ ‘I don’t fix anybody’….“.

This finding supports the idea that it is a failure of management to let attribution errors interfere with the execution of leadership responsibilities (Heslin et al. 2006). Where this study differs though is in its assertion that this could have severe consequences if the view that ‘someone needs fixing’ is reflective of a broader culture. As the findings suggest, in this kind of environment it is doubtful that coaching approach can be effective.

**Theme 5.4E:** The purpose of an organization with a coaching orientation is to maximize the potential of its people, despite their weaknesses. A device of coaching in this regard is the view of a management, which sees the potential in a leader with obvious deficiencies and challenges, but prefers to support and retain them, rather than terminate them.

The findings of the study in the first section of this thesis established that coaching is potentially an effective mechanism for help to retain employees in an organization. It was established that a supportive organizational context was crucial to this. The data in this section further explores the role of leadership as employee champions, who recognize the inherent value of their employees despite their deficiencies. It was also previously established from the data that coaching may also result in termination or resignation of an employee. This was because the
employee’s values and aspirations were no longer aligned with that of the organization and their choice was to pursue other opportunities.

The coaching literature too suggests that some organizations may use coaching as a ‘last-stop’ before terminating an employee, but that this is not appropriate as it may reflect a broader attitude that people or a person is ‘the problem’ (DeHaan 2008). In contrast to the literature, the findings of the data analysis reflect the philosophy of the strengths or coaching orientation. An organization with this orientation prefers to work to overcome weaknesses in an employee to retain them, even if their deficiencies are significant. Of course, this does not mean that some employees will not be terminated, but, because of the organizations values toward strengths, this is more a function of the employee than the organization itself. More work needs to be done in this area, as it appears that there is a paucity of research about organizational attitudes toward employee(s) with obvious weaknesses. At this stage IPT theory is the only reference point in the coaching literature, and is more about the leader than the sub-ordinate.

From the point of view of the coachee, the literature also highlights the pressures that a derailed leader with many weaknesses may face if they know they need to change to avoid termination i.e. they may fear that they cannot change quickly enough to satisfy their superiors. A collaborative effort involving the coach and supervisor are required to help them be constructive and move forward (Tobias 1996). This highlights even more the findings, which suggest that there is great value in a supportive leadership and culture as it may be the key to moving forward. But, again, it is unlikely that this kind of support would be provided in an organization if management has a negative attitude about weakness. In contrast, it is likely that this person would not have the support or resources they needed to ameliorate their deficiencies and overcome their weaknesses.

**Theme 5.4F:** If a manager is in ‘relationship’ with a sub-ordinate, they are in a unique position to recognize the potential of a sub-ordinate and can be an instrumental device in facilitating coaching support.

**Theme 5.4G:** A purpose of coaching approach in leadership is to foster a high level of engagement with sub-ordinates. This occurs through the device of developmental conversation.

The literature suggests that a leader’s input may be needed to help to them realize and develop their potential. One reason for this is that employees often don’t recognize their weaknesses, and therefore may need some assistance to do this (Ulrich 2008). A leader as coach
may utilize a process of inquiry may be useful to help a sub-ordinate reflect on their weaknesses (Koloroutis 2008). That the manager is in a unique position to be able to identify employee potential is not explicit in literature, but there is some indirect evidence that they are afforded a unique position by virtue of the proximity of their interactions with subordinates. For example, a ‘good leader as coach’ they will have a good understanding of the kinds of results and performance outcomes that are truly needed or desired from junior managers; they know how well subordinate managers are actually performing; and understand the context, pressures and demands of the junior manager’s job (Longenecker and Neubert 2005). Similarly, as a facilitator, they are in a position to provide feedback to employees and guide them through work-related issues (Ellinger and Bostrom 1999).

But, managers can’t always be relied upon for this to occur, for whilst an individual sub-ordinate may need help from their manager to reflect on their weaknesses, the manager’s own biases and assumptions may mean that not everyone will be helped by them. For example, the literature suggests that because of these factors, only those with obvious weaknesses may be targeted i.e. star performers may miss out even though they have underlying weaknesses (Sussman and Finnegan 1998); or that the reverse is true (Styhre and Josephson 2007). In addition, whilst the literature does not specify it in this case, it could be that LMX relationship status might be a determinant of whether a leader receives the help they need. So, taken together, IPT (as previously discussed) and LMX theories suggest that a manager may not be the best one to decide whether someone needs help with weaknesses or not. In any case, the manager does appear to be the person with the best proximity to make these decisions. Whether they do or not is a different matter.

The coaching conversation is an important dimension of engagement in the manager/sub-ordinate relationship and has been described as a hallmark of good leadership, and the essence of coaching (Landale 2008). Coaching has been defined as a conversation which occurs within a particular kind of relationship between the manager and their subordinate, with a view to empowering not controlling them (Evered and Selman 1989). Coaching conversations are an important tool for a manager for a number of reasons. For example, it is mechanism for the manager to provide expert advice about how to improve performance; to support problem solving; prioritize and manage conflicting goals; and create accountability for real performance improvement (Longenecker and Neubert 2005). There are some barriers though to forming a fruitful coaching relationship though. For example, one of the recurring challenges in developing a high level of engagement might be a manager’s reluctance to engage with coachees at an emotional level,
especially when they want to disclose significant and sometimes personal information. It is suggested that this is because they are afraid that they are ill equipped to handle these strong emotions (Riddle and Ting 2006).

The findings of this particular study concur with the idea that it may be a challenge for leaders to embrace the coaching language and approach with their subordinates. As one coach suggested they must be willing and able to speak in ‘human development terms’. As the literature points out, this would no doubt include being able to engage at an emotional level. But, the findings of this study suggest that not all leaders will be willing to take on this language or approach. This adds further weight to the idea that a manager as coach may not be the most appropriate person to engage a sub-ordinate about their potential and strengths and weaknesses because they may not be willing or able to engage at this level with them. Further research could examine the meaning and dimensions of what it means to “speak in human development terms”. For example, what kind of language is used and what is the underpinning attitude?

**Theme 5.4H:** Given the importance of emphasizing strengths in an organization with a coaching orientation, a device of a coaching orientated culture is the appropriate use of feedback tools, which can be used to highlight people’s weaknesses and deficiencies instead.

An important dimension of the leader as coach role is to facilitate feedback for the subordinates (Rich 1998; Ellinger 1999). Yet, organizations may struggle to create an environment that encourages and supports managers to provide regular feedback to employees (Lindbom 2007). It is perhaps a difficult task for a leader to do well and this might explain the reason that the literature specifies definite guidelines and skills required for the successful delivery of feedback. For example, it should be honest, ongoing and balanced (Longenecker and Neubert 2005; Hughes 2006); it should be conducted in a confidential setting and there should be trust (Ket De Vries 2005; Schnell 2005; Jones and Spooner 2006; Passmore 2007); and the manager as coach must be a good communicator (Briggs 2007). These prescriptions are consistent with the conditions required for a successful learning environment.

One of findings of the study is that a leader in their role as developer needs to be clear about the appropriate use of tools for feedback, which may be used to highlight people’s weaknesses and deficiencies instead. However, unlike the literature, this is less about the conditions of a good learning environment, and more about an understanding the broader organizational context in which a leader operates. The findings suggest that a strengths approach to leadership
emphasizes strengths not weaknesses. This is consistent with the broader culture of organization, which seeks to develop its collective strengths. In this context, the use of feedback tools to emphasize someone’s weaknesses is therefore inappropriate and detrimental not only to that person, but also the organization. To date, the implications of this for organizational culture is not that appears not to have been considered in detail in the literature.

5.5 LEADERSHIP AND DEVELOPMENTAL SUPPORT AS A DEVICE OF COACHING CULTURE

This section of the thesis explores leadership and developmental support as a device of coaching culture. From it four themes are formulated. In the first section, the need for leadership and developmental support is explored. The data suggests that during times of challenge leaders need focused support to keep pace with change and adapt. A typical occasion that they may need focused one-to-one support is during a period of profession transition to a more challenging role. A transition may involve a change from a technical to people role, and this appears to be a major the source of the challenge. This is because when this kind of transition occurs, a leader may need support to change their leadership style, which might involve being more empowering and adopting a new attitude toward people and approach to the way in which things are achieved through people.

The second section explores the supportive inputs expended in the support process. The data suggests that the exact nature of the support required by leaders during development may not be obvious to an organization, but the mode selected needs to be appropriate for what the organization is trying to achieve. In the case of leadership development, a combination of training complemented by one-to-one coaching might be effective if facilitated by an external professional. The kind of support that a coach might provide during challenging periods can include insight, advice, role modelling feedback and emotional support. For example, a coach can provide leaders with situational insights related to the challenges they face. Similarly, a leader in a new role may need a role model, which is something that a coach can provide if it is not available in the organization. In addition, leaders may need some kind of credible feedback to support the process of changing their perception of themselves; and this is something that is unlikely to be available in an organization, but which a coach is uniquely positioned to provide.

Finally, the third section explores the idea that there are also other significant stakeholders that provide support during the process. The data also suggests that significant others, such as
managing supervisors play an important role in providing support around monitoring and feedback exchange. But, to provide effective supplementary support during the coaching effort, they may also need support from the coach although they are not the coachee.

5.5.1 The need for leadership and developmental support

Coaching appears to be a means of supporting employees to keep pace with a changing environment. The need to align their strengths with the requirements of the environment is a key driver for developmental support. This is supported by coach 25 who suggests that coaching support is needed to help them analyse their environment and workout the personal strengths required to function

“….to analyses the requirements of the new environment, (often soft), and explore their personal strengths/areas needing development, viable personal options…”.

In more specific terms, the effect of a changing environment and need to change was evident in the accounts of two of the managers as coach in training. Coach 30 says that he sees coaching as an ongoing activity that could be used in an ongoing capacity throughout his working life because of the challenges that arise from a changing environment i.e. in career development, and in supporting his effectiveness

"....I am operating in an environment of constant change where I am dealing with different challenges, different people and different demands, coaching helps to better equip you with the abilities to cope with those changes…..I do think that having a coach that can interact with you throughout your working life, particularly in a senior role and during your career path. It definitely helps support your effectiveness and maybe even progress that journey faster than if you were left floundering on your own...".

Similarly, coach 4 says that because her department had gone through a significant growth phase, there were many challenges that she needed to address including the structuring of her unit to support service delivery, and coaching was needed because internal support was lacking

"....Well the group that I am in charge of, SAP, has gone through a huge growth spurt and the service that we provided and the group in general were new. So, it [the coaching] was around you know, figuring out what the best structure was and what was meaningful to the business from a service delivery point of view and really getting that service up and running.....like any IT project, you deliver it and there is a lot focus on delivery and meeting the budget and timeframes around that but, the support of the ‘committee’ was
...This is confirmed by her supervisor, coach 13 who says that his sub-ordinate needed support because the department she worked in had grown rapidly, but there was a lack of support from senior management.

"...The SAP group was growing rapidly - it grew from five people to 35 people. The person who was originally in charge, when there was five people, reached the peak of their capabilities at the time and was moved out and another person stepped into that role with no real support from senior management in the IT. She started sinking and there was a whole heap of issues that she had around her personal capabilities or belief in her capabilities to do these sort of things. An opportunity came up [for coaching] to participate......".

A significant challenge may present itself when leaders are transitioning between roles, and they may require focused one-to-one support during that period. Two coaches suggest that role transitions are a significant challenge for leaders. For example, coach 1 suggests that leaders in transition can experience high levels of stress and suffer from poor performance.

"...periods of career transition can be some of the most challenging times for employees within organizations. Transition can result in increased stress, reduced performance levels and greater staff turnover....".

And, coach 24 says that the chance of failure for a leader is high during transition.

"...The attrition within the first year for new executives is very high ... last survey I read said 40%. This has a ripple down effect across an entire organization....".

These reports concur with the experience of coach 4 who says that she needed some support because of the enormity of the challenges that were presented to her in her role.

"...I guess I would have needed a mentor to some degree. Because I went from a technical role...I have always proactively volunteered for things or stepped up to the plate to show that I would take things on. But, to go to what I went to with all the issues that came with that job at the time, I would have needed something. Whether it was just a different development plan or maybe I could have substituted coaching with something else in a different sort of format instead of the one on one....I definitely needed something....".
She says that at the time when she employed in the role, she didn't have the support that she needed from her superior

"....At the time this was an issue with my Manager. He was a Project Manager as well and he had a large project that he was responsible for delivering, so I didn’t really have a lot of access to him. I was dealing directly with the CIO, so I was more or less reporting straight to him and there was just a huge gap....".

Similarly, the coach 8 says that for one of the coachees a change of job was the reason that the coaching was needed

“… there was actually a change of job. He moved from a NSW Workers Compensation Manager into an Operations Manager role, which had more of a national focus…”.

A transition may involve a change from a technical to a people role, and it is this change, which appears to present the challenge requiring support. Coach 2 says that this particular transition is a challenge especially if there has been little education for the leader to develop these skills

“…transitioning into a new position, particularly when you have been trained in any technical areas, to suddenly focus on soft skills. This can be challenging especially when there has been little education around personal and relationship dynamics as it's assumed that people should already know - like being able to speak one's mother tongue…when individuals transition into new and more challenging positions, they often only have 90 days to prove their capabilities as everyone is expected to be more connected with their roles.....”.

In support, coach 4 says that she needed coaching to help her move from a technical to a more people centred role

“…[coaching] seemed like a good idea and I was fairly new in this position. I came from a technical role to a managerial role so, that is quite a change....”.

She says that the coaching was needed to help her become more confident in herself around her peers and superiors

"...I have always, I guess, been a bit intimidated by others that have either been above me or more senior than me in a similar role or, it appears for them to be senior to me. The coach gave me that confidence to be able to have those discussions....around how to deal with particular situations and different ways of influencing and engaging. What particular characteristics of people and others I should look out for. What can drive those behaviours, like behaviours of other people and what can drive them....".
5.5.2 Supportive inputs

The exact nature of the support required by leaders during development may not be obvious to an organization, but, it needs to be appropriate for what the organization is trying to achieve and may be complemented by other approaches to development - coach 1 confirms this

“…coaching can work alongside the more traditional approaches as well…”.

Coach 32 suggests that coaching may be no more effective than other approaches to development, but that what is important is whether it aligns with what the organization is trying to achieve

“…Is coaching more effective than these other tools? not when they are used in the right way. i.e. a well presented, relevant training program will be of greater effect when teaching specific knowledge/skills than a general coach. Yes, there is evidence to support a coaching approach to training (action learning, appreciative inquiry approaches etc.). Key here is to find the most relevant solution to motivate participants to learn what will support them (and the organization) achieve their goals….”.

So, in practice, a combination of training complemented by one-to-one coaching might be effective.

Coach 17 says that the organization’s goal of sponsoring ‘coaching conversations’ amongst leaders and subordinates requires some kind of support, which they are not yet clear about. She charts the way forward, which she says involves becoming clear about the format of those conversations, but also the nature of the support

"...Once we actually figure out what these conversations, these one-to-ones should look like and remembering that they’re going to be different all the time because individuals are in different roles and everything. We need a clear picture of what they should look like, and then work out how do we actually support our leaders in having those conversations?...”.

They had indicated that they have provided skills training to help them, but we concluded that some one-to-one support might be useful also.

The kinds of support that a coach might provide during challenging periods might include insight, advice, role modelling and feedback. For example, support through coaching might provide leaders with situational insights related to the challenges they face. For coach 30, the support was in the form of insight into his situation and how to address the challenges he faced
"...My expectation was that going into the coaching, I was of the view that having an independent person look at the particular scenarios that I was faced with and providing me with some insights as to how I might approach those differently to what I would ordinarily approach them, and that this may give me better outcomes.....".

Similarly, coach 4 says that she needed someone to give her advice during the difficult transition, and help to give her perspective about what was important. She says that she needed someone else's experience and point of view

"...Advice and someone to sit down and listen to me and someone to talk through the different options on how to deal with these situations.....I guess reinforcing the things that are important. Like with development of the group, what is important and really, when you are within a group sometimes things are – it is obvious that when you are in a group, but when you are outside the group looking in you can’t always see what is important. What might be important to them....".

Finally, coach 27 suggests that leaders often lack insight and clarity during periods of transition with regard to the nature of the challenges that they face, and need someone to guide them through it

“…Coaching provides the opportunity for "as needed" customized solutions for those involved (and their teams). By this I mean that coaching at its most basic can help the individual to effectively define their challenges and begin to seek solutions....[this helps] during times of transition and challenge as these are defined by a lack of clarity around challenges and objectives....”.

A leader in a new role may need a role model, which is something that a coach can provide if it is not available in the organization. Coach 4 says that the coach became a model of leadership for her that she didn't have in the organization

"...I think I came to understand it fully through the process, but certainly drawing from the coach’s experiences and those conversations, he certainly made me more aware of what a good leader does. I guess more of a difference between a leader versus a Manager versus, you know. I suppose I hadn’t really, I didn’t really have a good model. You know - someone that I could look to and say you know you are a good leader; I would like to model myself after what you do. I haven’t had a lot of that...

As a role model, coach 3 says that he is trying to be the facilitator that leaders should be
“….You would almost have to say that you take on the facilitation elements of leadership. You are clearly not part of the organization, but, in many ways, you are trying to engage and develop loyalty and enhance that person's capacity to engage, sometimes even with their boss. So in many ways, you are actually trying to be the facilitator that sometimes the organization and the leaders in that organization aren’t…” He also says that he is like a leader for the coachee in that he builds trust, inspires and motivates “…in some ways you are a leader because you are wanting to get the trust and commitment and inspire and motivate. You are using your credibility to get that and you are a trusted adviser on the basis of that credibility….”.

It is also apparent that leaders may need emotional support during challenging periods. For example, coach 3 says that he supports coachees when they get upset with themselves during the coaching process

“…I am also a counsellor because some people, when they are not making those targets, they get upset with themselves. So, I am not coaching, I am counselling…..even though I am not trained as psychologist, I have to deal with their feelings to…….”. This is supported by coach 6 who suggests that although a coach is not a counsellor, they do provide more solution focused support based on an understanding of people’s needs “…The purpose of a coach is not to analyze, not to address the issues of the past in the way that a counsellor might, but to actually help people to some future goal. Understanding what makes people tick is a really useful part of how to help them move from where they are to where they want to be…”.

Coach 11 says that she has completed some counselling training to develop the kinds of skills that coaches use

“…I went on and did lifeline counselling, and it was a lot of this i.e. how to listen, and how to …they are basic skills, but our family and friends don’t know it, we don’t get taught it. …”.

Ironically though, she says that although her clients are receiving a lot of counselling style support from her, they wouldn’t pay for a counsellor or psychologist

“…People say ‘You should be a marriage counsellor and I think I am, but people don’t what to pay for that. People will pay for an executive coach, but they won’t pay for a counsellor or a psychologist…..’.”

A number of survey respondents also support the idea that a leader needs emotional support during challenging periods, and that this is something that coaching can provide. For example, coach 2 suggests that leaders need emotional support because they have less people to speak to the higher they move up the organization
“..The coach acts like their sounding board, because the higher they go up the ladder the less people there is to speak openly too….”.

This is supported by coach 27, who says having a sounding board helps individuals and teams to make better informed decisions

“…From a support perspective, having a sounding board can also allow individuals (and teams) to explore their own issues regarding the situation before choosing their own solutions….”.

Finally, leaders may need some kind of credible feedback to support the process of developing useful perspectives - coach 23 confirms this

“…Coaching can assist people to step into their new roles in a way that helps them look outside of themselves, which is what is necessary in order to flourish….”.

More specifically, coach 12 suggested that a leader may need feedback to shape their view of themselves to help improve performance

“..It’s a good way of shaking some people’s view of themselves, so if you’ve got leaders who think they’re great with people and they obviously aren’t, they get some feedback to that from an external avenue and it’s from who’s an external party, but can draw together this evidence from the organization and say ‘Hey, things may not appear as they seem to you’…”.

In the same way, coach 10 says that she is able to hold a mirror up to people to provide that feedback in a way that helps them

“…what I’m able to do is to pull that all together and be able to articulate it [feedback] back to the individual in a way that is empowering. It’s non-judgmental and very caring and to help them. If you went to my website, one of the themes on my website is about how I’m able to hold up a mirror to people to help them see how they come across…”.

She says that leaders need feedback because they are probably not getting it in the workplace

“…I went for certification many years ago and they had a huge database of millions and millions of managers…..the top one or two issues were fear of conflict and inability to put difficult issues on the table; and they’re obviously related and yet I’m very able to do that. So I’m very able to align myself with the individual so that they feel I’m on their team. I’ve got their back. I’m on their team and I care, and I’m human to human and at the same time I’m going to help them to see things….We can almost do it in a way
that is not so oppressive but in a way that really is optimistic and hopeful, and we celebrate small changes so people can really see how they’re already begun to change even after the first session….”

5.5.3 Significant others

Managing supervisors play an important role in providing supplementary support to the coach and coachee by monitoring progress and feedback exchange. Coach 8 agrees that his role in coaching involved a monitoring function. He says that he worked closely with two coachees to support them in the process, but that the kind of support took different forms because of the varied coaching contexts

"... I worked really close with her [the coachee] more so than with him [a different coachee]. With him, it has mainly been bringing the coach in; ….the coachee giving me a bit feedback and saying ‘that was really beneficial, thanks very much’ and move on. Where with her, it was more follow up, more discussions, how are we going, set these goals, how are we going with the goals, any more problems, feedback around the traps from other people saying - are the things improving? what are the signs looking like?, and those sorts of things....”.

He also says that a part of his role involved providing some context for the coach to work with

"...I guess initially I was just approaching with the situation to see if there was anything he could do to help the situation. I guess from my point of view, just giving him some background to say, ‘this is what has happened, this is where we are at, these are my thoughts on it, this is where I want to try and be at the end of the day’. So, working initially doing that and asking him to spend some time with her [coachee] as this is where I see some of the deficiencies are...".

He says also that he was available to discuss any feedback that the coach thought might be relevant to the situation involving the coachee

"...If there was anything after the coach had seen her [the coachee] that he thought that was relevant that I should be aware of, without breaking confidentiality, then just a bit of feedback around that...".

Similarly, coach 9 says that she would be available to provide feedback, as well as follow up with the coach to see how the coachee was progressing
“...the coach would often catch up before he started coaching someone and ask, what are your observations of this person. It was not really a formal role. The coach would often give me feedback on what was happening.”.

Finally, coach 13 says that a part of his role was to monitor how things were going with the coachee and to provide input. Through this input, he says that he was able to support her progress to resolution.

“...I suppose that I promoted and sponsored the mentoring [coaching] for her benefit and for mine... people came to me and said ‘look, she is not allocating enough time to do my work, she is not doing what I am asking her to do and she is not helping us out, I am thinking of taking her off the [coaching] program’. I said no, I don’t want that. So, we sorted it out and now she seems to be doing alright.....”.

But, there is some suggestion that for supervisors to provide effective supplementary support during the coaching effort, they may also need support from the coach themselves i.e. not just the coachee. Coach 8 says that he also received some advice from the coach as to how he could help a direct report with issues.

"...I just took some advice from our coach, and then suggested that he get involved and spend some time with her around that. And, also I guess I got what I could....that helped me around how I could approach her as well. So, I guess I got a little bit of coaching in there but, it was nothing in a formalized way...".

5.5.4 Discussion

Theme 5.5A: A purpose of coaching is to support leaders to keep pace with a changing environment. The need to align and develop their strengths with the requirements of the environment is a key driver for developmental support and device of coaching.

Most of the discussions about the environment in literature are concerned with the learning environment. That is, coaching environment is one in which the coachee feels comfortable enough to present their own ideas (Grant 2007; Knight 2007), and allow for the expression of positive and negative emotions. In contrast, there is a noticeable absence of discussion about the organizational context, specifically culture, which is of concern in this thesis. The need for change is assumed in the literature, so the extent of the discussion about this topic consists mainly of clichéd statements offered by authors that generally refer to the ‘fast pace of change in the environment and the need to adapt’ (Lloyds 2002). Consequently, there is a significant disconnect in discussion about the process of development and the change imperative inherent within the organizational environment.
So, more discussion about the relationship between the coachee’s environment at an organizational level are needed i.e. departmental, and business unit level (not just role level).

Having said that, the literature about coaching in small business does tend to make link this made clearer. For instance, the literature suggests that the difference between the traditional business organizational climate and the small business environment is that there is an overlap between the identity of the stakeholders personal and professional lives. It is thought that for executive coaching to be effective within the family business environment, a very different approach to coaching should be used. For example, a transition in a family business can interrupt the traditional hierarchy, which is illustrated when a son or daughter takes on the father’s traditional role as CEO and founder. The succession process can increase stress because traditional roles and responsibilities may be reversed leading to a disruption of the family structure (Levin et al. 2008). Another difference in the small business environment may be a higher degree of owner sovereignty than in larger organizations, shorter-term focus and more flexible/reactive style. There is therefore a greater need for coaches to respect this difference and seek to fit in (Alstrup 2000).

Whilst this study has not transformed the discussion in literature about the organizational level drivers for coaching, it does cast some light on the intermediate level ones i.e. at a departmental level. The findings suggest that the driver of coaching for some of the coachees was very closely linked with departmental growth that sometimes occurs within organizations as they respond to the environment. In this sense, it highlights the ‘trickledown effects’ that occur and the implications for individual employees. There is an immense gap in the literature that can explore these matters further.

**Theme 5.5B:** The exact nature of the support required by leaders during development may not be obvious to an organization, but, it needs to be appropriate for what the organization is trying to achieve and coaching may be complemented by other approaches to development. In this sense, other approaches to development are a device of coaching.

The discussion in the literature review highlighted the importance of a well designed a professional development program with direct links to business outcomes (Phillips 2007). It was suggested that in an environment of increasing change, whole industries might go through transformation in response to external forces (Locke 2008).
In general terms, workplace coaching is viewed as a means of bringing about the internal changes that organizations require to adapt i.e. it helps industries and organizations to address industry related issues (Noer et al. 2007). For example, in the healthcare field, it is suggested that one of the significant challenges is to equip junior doctors to cope with the increasing complexity of medical practice. Senior doctors need to become educators for this to occur, but they often lack the skills for this role. Because they are often very head strong, it is difficult to teach them the new skills that they need to be effective educators (Truijen and Woerkom 2008), and teaching them to become coaches is seen as a possible solution to this. Similarly, in the project management field it was suggested that project managers must be able to deal with a wide range of complex and diverse issues, which span technical as well as social domains in order to manage a project to completion (Berg and Karlsen 2007). Because they have the capacity to leverage themselves through a coaching approach, it helps them to reduce the levels of stress associated with these roles, and minimizes its effect on personal life and health. For this particular industry, it has been an important challenge to improve working conditions and attract younger generations (Styhre and Josephson 2007). As coaching is proven to help manager’s reduce levels of stress (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005a; Berriman 2007; Wright 2007) it may provide some solutions to these problems. Also, in the education industry, coaching is viewed as a means of addressing the challenge to improve student literacy. Coaching can help improve these and other outcomes by helping teachers to become more reflective, and adopt an inquiry-based approach to teaching and build communities of support (Bransfield et al. 2007).

Of course coaching is no magic formula and realistically has limits to what can be achieved through it alone. Certainly, it is not going to be able to solve all of the issues faced by organizations nor achieve all of their goals. However, in conjunction with other programs and approaches it could be much more effective. This discussion lends itself to an analysis of its distinctiveness and how it varies from other developmental approaches. There is no shortage of discussion about that in the literature, which suggests that coaching is distinctive from other approaches to development and organizational systems. It suggests that it is not: performance management (Gaskell 2007; Locke 2008; Truijen and Woerkom 2008); counseling (Grant and Cavanagh 2004; Woodruffe 2006; Ellinger et al. 2008); mentoring (O’Connor and Ertmer 2006; Wiegand 2007; Truijen and Woerkom 2008); or training (Olivero et al. 1997; Styhre and Josephson 2007). Despite this analysis of literature, there is a distinct gap in knowledge about the degree of complement between workplace coaching and other approaches to development, and in terms of its functionality with other organizational systems (see Part C of this thesis).
The findings of this study suggest that coaching may not be any more effective than other approaches to development when not used appropriately, and that coaching can in fact be adopted to strengthen other approaches. For example, as one survey respondent suggested

"...a well presented, relevant training program will be of greater effect when teaching specific knowledge/skills than a general coach...there is evidence to support a coaching approach to training [including] action learning, appreciative inquiry approaches...key here is to find the most relevant solution ...",

Another insight from the data is that organizations must understand what they are trying to achieve from coaching, because a lack of clarity around this might be an impediment. This was evident in the account of one participant organization that appeared to not be clear on what they were trying to achieve. As established in the initial section of the data analysis about organizational effectiveness, there are some generic outcomes that organizations are trying to achieve through coaching, including those metrics such as retention, employee satisfaction, productivity. It is likely also that specific industries will have common issues to address and goals to achieve, and that individual organizations will have more customized goals.

**Theme 5.5C:** A purpose of coaching is to provide support input to leaders during challenging periods, and the devices they might use to achieve this purpose include insight, advice, role modelling and feedback. For example, support through coaching might provide leaders with situational insights related to the challenges they face; or, a leader in a new role may need a role model, which is something that a coach can provide if it is not available in the organization.

The idea that a coach provides support is not new in the literature, for example, it is commonly understood that a coach gives advice and makes suggestions (Kilburg 1997; Pollitt 2008). Consistent with this, the findings suggest that leaders who are placed into new roles will always need coaching support. This is because a relative lack of experience means they are often unaware of the challenges they will be facing. The testimonies of coachees suggest that the provision of support in its various forms results in better outcomes

"... having an independent person look at the particular scenarios that I was faced with and providing me with some insights as to how I might approach those differently to what I would ordinarily approach them and that this may give me better outcomes...",

Another leader suggested that she needed someone else’s experience to help to give her perspective about what was important. What is not known in the literature is the nature of the kind of advice
coaches are giving, the related issues, and the expertise and experience the coach has upon which they base that advice. The body of knowledge could be enriched by a study that explores these ideas.

A second related issue questions the role of the coach in terms of advice giving. If coaches are giving advice (as suggested by the literature and this study), a concern is that they are engaging in prescriptive behaviour. This is in some ways the antithesis of the coaching approach, which is meant to be empowering and a facilitative process, in which a coachee is guided to answers through appreciative inquiry (Hunt and Weintraub 2004; Lindbom 2007; Ellinger et al. 2008). Others authors suggest that being prescriptive is a departure from best practice (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005; Evers et al. 2006; Cridle 2007; Sparrow 2008). It is also something that is more likely to be associated with mentoring than coaching, because it is learning based on the experience of the mentor (Strong and Baron 2004; O’Connor and Ertmer 2006).

If coaches are giving advice and in that way being prescriptive, and this is something that is common in coaching practice, it raises questions as to whether they are behaving more like mentors than coaches. It also potentially blurs the distinctions between the constructs of mentoring and coaching. This is a relevant question that has not been clarified in literature, but deserves to be given more attention. It may be that there is actually very little difference between a coach and a mentor. To make such a distinction contradicts the experience of two coachees in this study who clearly received technical advice from their respective external coaches.

Given the lack of knowledge about what kind of advice a coach gives to coachees and how this differs from mentors, there also needs to be some clarification about how a coach can provide advice for a CEO or executive if they have not been in a similar role and therefore identify with that experience. Yet, the literature has insisted that a coach does not require experience in a similar role because the coaching approach is based on appreciative inquiry; then on what basis are they giving advice? These seem like significant contradictions, which cannot be resolved until scholars delineate the kind of advice that is being given by coaches. This knowledge may also make clear the distinction between coaching and mentoring. As an aside, if research suggests that coaches are giving advice in the same way that a mentor would, perhaps experience in management should be a pre-requisite qualification for coaches. If so, then this is something that should be accounted for in any regulatory framework developed for the coaching profession i.e. it is not simply enough to have an academic qualification i.e. psychological, management or otherwise.
A similar discussion could be had for role modelling, as it is identified in the study as a device of the coach. One participant clearly identified her coach as a role model, and the coach too suggested that he was like a role model in that he mimicked the behaviours of a facilitative leader. But, there is some clarity in the literature about role modelling i.e. it is mostly discussed in the literature as a role of the manager as coach, and not the executive coach (with the exception of D'Abate et al. (2003)). For example, role modelling is discussed as one type of coaching along with instructing, enhancing performance, problem solving and inspiration (Wachtel and Veale 1998). Role modelling is viewed as one role of a sales supervisor, along with building trust and giving feedback (Rich 1998). But, the silence about role modelling in the body of knowledge as it pertains to external coaches suggests that it may not be one of their roles. This is somewhat contradicted by the testimony of one of the external coaches interviewed in this study, who asserts that he is in fact a role model, as well as one of the coachees who also saw him in this way.

**Theme 5.5D:** A device of coaching is the involvement of important stakeholders in the coaching process, which include managing supervisors and HR managers, who play an important role in providing supplementary support to the coach and coachee. They do this by monitoring progress, as well as giving and receiving feedback. But, for them to function properly in this role, they may need informal coaching from the coach.

The findings of the study highlight the interactions between leaders who supervise coaching and coaches. They suggest that they play a monitoring role and also play a part in the exchange of feedback. Several of the supervisors suggested that they were able to provide some context to the coach as it was needed; were available to give to the coach and receive feedback from them about the progress of the coaching; and monitor the situation as a sponsor of the coaching and give input as required. Whilst the supervisor is acknowledged as an important part of the coaching process, they are not featured in the literature.

But, the irony is that for them to fulfil this role successfully, they may need support themselves, which suggests that the coach may have other stakeholders to support for every coachee that they coach. This may be a significant amount of work for the coach, and increase the number of face-to-face coaching hours that they engage in during an intervention period. The literature tends to focus on the support that the coach provides to the coachee i.e. there were approximately 30 papers, but, does not really provide much insight about the other key stakeholders involved in the process. Given the potential importance of their role as suggested by this research study, perhaps there is some justification for further study into their role in the coaching process, and clarify the
kinds of support that they receive from the coach (or not). Some questions that could be answered are: who are the stakeholders?; what support do they require?; and, what is their contribution and impact? This aligns well with the broader need for further study of the role of organization and its context in workplace coaching.

PART B: CONCLUSION

This section of the data analysis, Part B, has explored organizational culture as a device of organizational effectiveness. A total of twelve themes have been formulated from the findings, across two main sections. The first section, 5.4, investigated the effect of cultural orientation as a device of collective strength. It defined coaching culture and delineated the importance and character of ‘strengths leadership’. From the findings of this study about cultural orientation or coaching culture, eight themes have been developed regarding the purposes and devices of coaching. The first proposes the essence of a coaching orientation and identifies it as a device of coaching i.e. in the context of organizational culture. A coaching orientation is one whose purpose is to develop the strengths of high potential people who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role. As a device, it emphasizes strengths rather than weaknesses. But, the second addresses employee weakness, suggesting that whilst an organizational culture with a coaching orientation emphasizes the building of strengths, it does not ignore weaknesses; rather one of its devices is also to raise awareness about them and address them.

This reflects the view held about weakness within an organizational culture as explained in the third theme i.e. suggesting that they are a device of workplace coaching. An organizational culture with a coaching orientation is one in which individual weaknesses are viewed as a normal and healthy consequence of organizational growth and development. To this extent, they are a device of employee development and workplace coaching. The fourth theme draws the obvious conclusion, suggesting that there is a conflict between coaching and organizations with an incompatible culture, and in this respect identifies culture as a device of coaching. That is, since coaching emphasizes the building of strengths and developing potential, it cannot be effective in an environment in which the leadership is not willing to take ownership of challenges and instead believe that their people are a ‘part of the problem’. To this extent, organizational culture is a pivotal device of workplace coaching. Similarly, the fifth theme explores the implications for an organization with a coaching culture or orientation. The purpose of an organization with a coaching orientation is to maximize the potential of its people, despite their weaknesses. A device of coaching in this regard is the view
of a management, which sees the potential in a leader with obvious deficiencies and challenges, but prefers to support and retain them rather than terminate them.

The remaining themes focus on the role of the manager in a coaching culture. For instance, theme six suggests that if a manager has a good working relationship with a sub-ordinate, they are in a unique position to recognize the potential of a sub-ordinate and can be an instrumental device in facilitating coaching support. Similarly, a purpose of coaching approach in leadership is to foster a high level of engagement with subordinates. This occurs through the device of development conversation. And finally, given the importance of emphasizing strengths in an organization with a coaching orientation, a device of a coaching orientated culture is the appropriate use of feedback tools, which can be used to highlight people’s weaknesses and deficiencies instead.

The second section, 5.5, investigated the importance and role of leadership and developmental support within a coaching oriented culture. There are four themes about the purposes and devices of coaching that have been developed from the findings of this section of the data analysis. The first suggests that a purpose of coaching is to support leaders to keep pace with a changing environment. The need to align and develop their strengths with the requirements of the environment is a key driver for developmental support and device of coaching. The second theme suggests that the exact nature of the support required by leaders during development may not be obvious to an organization, but, it needs to be appropriate for what the organization is trying to achieve and coaching may be complemented by other approaches to development. In this sense, other approaches to development may be a device of coaching.

The third theme outlines the supportive inputs that can be provided by leaders in the development of their people i.e. a purpose of coaching is to provide support input to leaders during challenging periods. The devices they might use to achieve this purpose include insight, advice, role modelling and feedback. For example, support through coaching might provide leaders with situational insights related to the challenges they face, or, a leader in a new role may need a role model, which is something that a coach can provide if it is not available in the organization. In the same way, the final theme suggests that there are range of stakeholders who provide this kind of support i.e. a device of coaching is the involvement of important stakeholders in the coaching process, which include managing supervisors and HR managers, who play an important role in providing supplementary coaching support to the external coach and coachee. They do this by
monitoring progress, as well as giving and receiving feedback. But, for them to function properly in this role, they need unofficial coaching from the external coach.

5.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This first chapter of the data analysis has explored the broader management context in order to better understand the purposes and devices of coaching management. A total of 26 themes were formulated regarding the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. The chapter was divided into two sections, Part A and B, which contained five main subsections. The two parts are entitled: Organizational effectiveness as a device of workplace coaching; and Organizational culture as a device of organizational effectiveness. Consequently, the five relationships explored in these two parts include: 1. Individual and team effectiveness as a device of organizational effectiveness; 2. Internal capability as a device of workplace coaching; 3. Teamwork as a device of organizational effectiveness; 4. Organizational culture as a device of collective strength; and 5. Leadership and developmental support as a device of coaching culture. The purposes and devices of coaching were delineated in the themes, however, rather than listing the themes here again, a summary of the main components i.e. purposes and devices, are formatted below as a narrative to help crystallize the contribution of the chapter.

As discussed in the discussion sections of the chapter, some of these findings re-enforce the existing findings of the literature and others significantly extend it. In the same way that a unique contribution of this thesis is the pairing of purposes and devices to reflect the chain of correlation, cause and effect, the narrative provides a concise explanation of the purposes and devices of coaching in management in a way that has not been done to date in an integrated way in the coaching literature. This fulfils an objective of this study, which was to provide a foundation for the future development of the management coaching literature. For a full list of the all of the themes formulated in chapter 5 and 6, please refer to Appendix D.

5.61 Part A Thematic Summary: Individual effectiveness as a device of organizational effectiveness

A purpose of workplace coaching is to facilitate positive outcomes for organizations in the areas of retention, employee satisfaction and succession planning and to make them more productive. It achieves this by leverage the contribution of individuals and teams to organizational effectiveness, who are embedded within the organizational context. Because the organizational context can be a limiting or enhancing factor, it must be accounted for in this process.

For instance, the contribution of individuals to organizational effectiveness is leveraged by
the development of people capabilities within an organization, particularly coaching skills in leadership. Essentially this means leaders adopt a coaching style, which involves less micro-management and more empowerment. In response, subordinates have the opportunity to set their own challenges and find their own solutions i.e. to be more self-directed. But, to be equipped for this, they need to be taught how to develop learning how to learn and self-management skills. Specific skills include: self-evaluation of their role; identification of performance gaps; and formulating and implementing solutions to their own learning needs.

Similarly, from a team perspective, professional coaches help organizations become more effective by facilitating a change in the work culture that exists between people. They achieve this create social conditions in which teamwork and be improved. This involves uniting employees around collective goals and the adoption of team-like behaviours, such as the giving of feedback. These kinds of behaviours help the team to become more productive in the areas of planning and implementation.

But, the leader who is coach must also be able to create this kind of environment conducive to teamwork. For this reason, a purpose of professional coaching is helps them increase their effectiveness in this area. Like the professional coach, as a leader learns to create these conditions, it increases the amenability of team members toward one another, and because of this there is an increase in their collective ownership of issues, trust and information sharing.

However, because they don’t understand coaching, leaders may perceive that the coaching approach is too much work or too hard. To help leaders understand the benefits of coaching for them and their teams and therefore to take responsibility, they must be armed with information that explains the relevance and value of this role. To this end, the organization must implement a manager as coach education and training program, which explains this.

A more indirect way that leaders can create conditions more conducive to teamwork is by being more functional in a social context. This means achieve a balance between self-awareness as well as leadership competence, so as not to be too strong or weak in one area and to make them more ‘relatable’. Similarly, if they are a very independent leader, they will not be particularly functional in a team setting. Therefore, to become more role-interdependent, they may need to make a change in leadership style toward greater utilization of their support networks, become more communicative and learn appropriate levels of task delegation.

5.62 Part B Thematic Summary: Organizational culture as a device of organizational effectiveness

A purpose of a coaching oriented culture is to develop the strengths of high potential people who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role. Primarily, this is achieved by a strong emphasis on their strengths, rather than weaknesses.

Yet, these cultures do not ignore address weaknesses, on the contrary, they raise awareness about them in their people. However, weaknesses are normalized and viewed as a ‘healthy consequence’ of organizational growth and development, in which individuals are being stretched and challenged. So, in a sense, they are maximizing the potential of their people in spite of their weaknesses. This attitude toward strengths and weaknesses comes out of a positive view of people, and reflects a leadership who understand their value to the organization. And, unlike organizations, which have a negative view of people and believe they are a part of the problem, the leadership in a coaching culture take ownership of challenges and of their people. This is evidenced in the way in which they treat employees who need remediation i.e. even in situations where a leader who has potential, but obvious deficiencies and challenges, they prefer to support and retain them, rather than terminate them.

Also, because a coaching culture emphasizes strengths, they make sure that their developmental assessment tools are used accordingly and that stakeholders understand this. They are
used to build a sense of individual strength, but avoid focusing on weaknesses and deficiencies. As suggested already, this does not mean that they ignore weaknesses, but the tools are designed to merely point out their existence as a way forward.

For a leader to be as effective as they can be in their role at all times, they must be able to keep pace with the changing workplace. But, for this to occur, their strengths must be developed and aligned with the requirements of the environment. The need for this is evidenced during challenging periods for a leader, in which they may feel inadequate, but if they have a sense of their own strengths, then they will be sustained during this period.

However, they may also need focused support, and a supportive supervisor who is pivotal to the existence of a coaching culture can provide this by recognizing the need for this. There are a number of ways this can be achieved, for example, arranging for a coach to offer support is one option. However, this can also be supplemented by other approaches to development such as mentoring, role modelling, and training. These can be provided within the organization by involving other coaching stakeholders, which might include managing supervisors and HR managers. They may monitor progress, give and receive feedback, offer situational insights and advice, and even receive ‘unofficial’ coaching from the coach to prepare them for this purpose. The other option of course, is that the manager assumes the role of the coach, and provides this support. This is particularly appropriate and most likely if there exists a high level of engagement between them and their subordinate, and/or a high level of engagement can be nurtured through ‘developmental conversations’.
CHAPTER 6
DATA ANALYSIS:
PEOPLE AND SYSTEMS

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This second chapter of the data analysis continues the work of chapter 5. It focuses on delineating the purposes and devices of coaching in terms of systems and people. It contains the remaining two sections of the data analysis. The first Part C explores ‘Leadership effectiveness as a device of workplace coaching’. The main finding is that the leadership of an organization plays a pivotal role in supporting coaching initiatives, whether they are a manager as coach or not. A significant part of their effectiveness is evidenced in their role in organizational systems. One specific relationship is explored, which is entitled ‘Systems Leadership as a device of organizational systems’.

The second section, Part D explores Coaching Design as a device of workplace coaching. The main finding is that organizations need to design workplace coaching initiatives properly to avoid them being ad-hoc and of poor value. Two dimensions of design are highlighted, including rigour and structure. The relationships explored include: Rigour as a device of an instrumental approach to coaching, and Structure as a device of coaching design.

PART C: LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AS A DEVICE OF WORKPLACE COACHING

PART C: INTRODUCTION

This third section of the data analysis explores leadership effectiveness as a device of workplace coaching. Essentially, there is only one sub-section, entitled systems leadership as a device of organizational systems. It is suggested that the leadership of an organization is instrumental to the success of a coaching initiative because of the role they play in the various related organizational systems and processes. It explores coaching in the context of a range of systems including: career development, performance management and appraisal, organizational change and development, as well as knowledge management.
The leadership of an organization is instrumental to the success of a coaching initiative because of the role they play in the various related organizational systems and processes, such as career development, performance management and appraisal, organizational change and development, and knowledge management. This section begins by investigating career development, in which a leader ensures that the development priorities that subordinates set for themselves are aligned with the organization’s agenda and their job description. They also make decisions about who will and will not receive coaching.

The data suggests that a manager, in their conduct of a performance appraisal plays a role in identify areas of employee improvement, and this can be used as a justification for the initiation of a coaching process. But, the coaching process is distinct to this process and has more affinity with the performance management process - it is important for motivational reasons that this distinction is maintained. Although a performance appraisal system is separate to the coaching process, it can still be characterized by more of a coaching approach, in which the manager facilitates and empowers a sub-ordinate to self-direct. For this reason, there are some overlaps in the skill sets and characteristics required by managers.

From the perspective of organizational change, if the leadership is united as a team, they will be more influential in the management of organizational change. One of the reasons is that they can be more effective at prioritizing a culture of empowerment and opportunity, in that sense mandates the need for coaching. A leader’s enthusiasm for coaching can be infectious and attract the interest of other members of the organization. Given this, coaching is therefore more likely to be accepted and in that sense propagate a strategic effect, which may have beneficial impacts on an organization.

Also, in terms of knowledge management, if a leader has an opportunity to network and share their experiences with other leaders who have received coaching as part of the coaching experience, it can have a strategic effect in an organization. The strategic effect occurs because leaders who come together in networks as a part of the coaching approach have the opportunity to engage on important shared issues that they normally would not. Given the opportunity to collaborate on issues of common importance, a higher level of leader commitment to actionable outcomes may occur.
6.1.1 Career development

If a manager is the coach, the relative success of coaching conversations that occur between them and their subordinates during the career development process, may be linked to the individual managers involved. Coach 17 says that they have been trying to establish a coaching approach as a part of this process. She says that they have been occurring for about two years, but with varied success depending on the manager facilitating them

"...... we are rolling out one to one conversations and getting PDPs we call them, which is personal development in which we’ve got performance appraisal. They’re new to our organization and they’re been going for about two years…We’ve gotten most people having those conversations. They’re happening. My suspicion is that they’re happening to a greater or lesser extent depending on the manager involved....".

Coach 12 elaborates suggesting that it is has been difficult to implement their PDP (personal development plan) initiative because some of their senior leaders have not supported it. As a result, he believes that this is one of the reasons for the inherent issues in the organization

"...A lot of the turbulence in the last twelve months…a lot of the problems with Performance Development Plan has been lack of agreement amongst these senior leaders. One or two of them don’t like it - not interested in it. So of course you’re going to have problems implementing it when you got an Executive Director in this department or that department who’s not interested in it or telling staff to ‘forget about it. It doesn’t matter’.....it’s no wonder we are right down at the bottom. We’re running around chasing our tails wondering why things aren’t working....".

Given the low levels of buy-in from leaders as coaches, we agreed that it might be better to train a few leaders for the purpose of coaching others, rather than expecting everyone to do it.

The support of managers is crucial to the success of the coaching initiative, but it may not eventuate if manager’s priorities are dictated by a large workload. Coach 12 says that they have encountered some resistance by employees. For instance, he says that some coachees just want the answer rather than being coached. And some managers are resistant to adopting the coaching role because they claim to be too busy

".... there’s a resistance in some areas…on the part of the manager. They’re like ‘I’ve just got deadlines to meet. It’s a nice idea that I would coach my staff, but I’m not going to because I’ve just got to get end of month stuff done’....".

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A manager who is coaching a sub-ordinate as part of the career development system plays a role in ensuring that the development priorities they set for themselves are aligned with the organization’s agenda and their job description. If they do not think they are, then they help them to re-align them. The interview with Coach 17 explored how their managers as coach ensure that the setting of a coachee’s own performance standards is aligned with the organizational strategy, given that a poor alignment might mean that coaching support is not leveraging their broader organizational plan. She says that the pertinent factors are the employees understanding of their role and the supervising manager guiding the process.

"...So if I go to my meeting with my boss, and set my priorities. And if they are not what he is thinking my priorities are, it means that he’s got insight to see that I don’t understand what is expected of me or for some reason. I’m not wanting to go there and [instead] wanting to go here. And so, that’s why we’re saying they have a conversation to understand what’s going on….the leader should be able to draw the person back….They are still expected to do their full job description, but with the next five or six things that we want to be focusing on for this quarter that we really want to be keeping our eye on and having an ongoing conversation....

The decisions a manager makes about who will and will not receive coaching in the career development system may be a function of the quality of the relationship that a manager has with a sub-ordinate. That is, if a manager has a high LMX relationship (leader member exchange) with a sub-ordinate, then they may support coaching for that sub-ordinate, but not another. For example, Coach 8 says that because of the close relationship he had with a sub-ordinate and based on his observations, he was able to identify a need for coaching.

".....it was just me working with him and being in his presence in some meetings.....I know the sub-ordinate really well, we go back a long time and I could just see he was doing really well, but just saw that there was an opportunity there to help him to better himself in some of those areas..."

Conversely, if a leader has a low LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate, they may not be as willing to recommend coaching to help them personally. And if they do approve coaching, the reasons stated may be more functional than ‘personal’. For instance, in contrast to the previous example, the coach 8 was less reluctant to recommend coaching for one of his other subordinates. He says he just wanted to resolve an adverse situation for the sake of the company and members of her. He also spoke less affectionately about her situation than he did for his high LMX sub-ordinate.

"...I guess we were getting close to a point where we had to make a decision with her to say, ‘well, which
So, it is likely that talented low LMX subordinates will miss out on developmental and career prospects and they may not be developed or retained by the organization.

6.1.2 Performance management and appraisal

The coaching process appears to be intimately linked with the performance appraisal process of an organization, in which a supervising manager plays an important role. If utilized properly, the performance management appraisal can be used to identify areas of employee improvement, and this can be used as a justification for the initiation of a coaching process. The coach 8 says that through the performance appraisal system, they were able to identify some of the areas that he needed to improve

"...there was actually a change of job.....through the performance management [appraisal] system as well, we identified that there was some areas there that we could help him in and this was one of the avenues to look at....".

But, the coaching process is different to the performance appraisal process and if not conducted separately, the level of buy-in for coaching from leaders and subordinates may be low. In the interview with coach 12 it became clear that there was some confusion between coaching and the performance appraisal process i.e. they were trying to combine the two. I outlined the approach taken by other organizations and the L&D manager agreed that this was the approach they wanted to take

"...they structure it [the coaching conversation] as a specific conversation separate to the performance appraisal. The manager and sub-ordinate might meet once a month and discuss how things are going.....they draw on the performance appraisal, but they don’t make it a performance appraisal....".

Coach 12 indicated that this was the model that should be followed

"...That’s what we want to do.....".

Two coaches confirm the distinctiveness of performance appraisal from coaching. Coach 2 says that a coach’s job is not to report on the role performance of an employee
“...A coach is there to support the individuals to find their potential within their role, and not provide feedback on how they are doing in their roles....”.

Coach 27 suggests that although coaching involves the use of tools to evaluate performance, the data collected is not meant to be a point of comparison with other employees, as might occur with performance appraisal

“...I can see how some may suggest that if coaching is looking to develop results and it collects such data, then coaching can be used for evaluating performance. Though, this is a confusion and overlap of different methodologies where the coach happens to use a performance evaluation tool...Within organizations, the objectivity and transparency of performance measures is essential, especially to measure the performance of all staff in a comparable manner to allow for results to be compared... [but] if the coach is contracted to deliver "results", such results are unlikely to be useful when compared to other staff...”.

It is the performance management system (rather than performance appraisal) that has more affinity with coaching, because it can be characterized by more of a coaching approach, in which the manager facilitates/empowers a sub-ordinate to self-direct. Coach 17 reports that their organization has tried to sponsor coaching conversations between managers and sub-ordinates. The idea of the conversation is that it is meant to result in some kind of performance improvement, and for that reason there is a behavioural element to it

"...Basically the idea is that a person would set their own priorities, they set half a dozen a quarter. They set a standard and it’s got to have sort of a behavioural element to it, and then there’s a monthly target of standard performance so one per month or one to three months range. The idea is that they draft that and bring it to their manager and sit down and have a discussion about that and each month they can review how that’s going and they can review how it went and set the next thing.....”.

Although coaching and performance appraisal are distinct constructs, to successfully conduct a performance appraisal still requires similar skills. Coach 12 says it requires the manager to have the right kind of coaching skills to be able to engage a person in conversation

"...it’s still involves emotional intelligence and still involves basic management competency to be able to sit with a person and say ‘OK so you didn’t meet that target, You didn’t meet that target. OK so what’s going on?...so what are we going to do about that? ’...so the performance appraisal is really about that, [and] the coaching conversation happening over here should flow out of that.....".
But, if they do not possess the skills, then it may result in poor sub-ordinate performance because the manager is not capable of doing their job properly. As indicated earlier, poor performance in turn may result in the coaching of a sub-ordinate to correct their performance, when, the root of the problem might be due to their supervisor’s incompetence. Coach 6 says that sometimes organizations use her to fix the performance of a sub-ordinate, when the real problem is the poor performance of the leader as a performance manager

“…‘I want you to fix him for me’ is often what you find as a coach. If you’ve got half a brain, the alarm bells are going off at that stage because often what the situation as it unfolds becomes ‘yes this person’s not performing, but nor is this manager managing that poor performance’. They may or may not be clear on expectations. They may or may not be actually having the tough discussion when their expectations are not met. They may or may not be prepared to take the action where there are consequences for poor performance - so coaching can’. In some organizations, if they want to employ a coach to fix that problem, then my first reaction to that is typically ‘it’s not the person who you want me fix that needs fixing. It’s the manager that actually needs fixing, because they should be doing this performance management stuff’....”.

These sentiments are supported by coach 33 who says that she has worked with supervisors who are supporting the development of their subordinates, but are neglectful of their performance management responsibilities and need help more than the coaching candidate does

“...[I] worked with the client and at the very end we brought in the supervisor, so that the supervisor could be clear on what the goals were and figure out how she could support the employee with these goals. Well the supervisor turned out to be someone who I thought needed coaching way more than the person I was coaching, and she agreed to provide feedback etc, etc and never did a thing. When the employee followed up with me one month later, the supervisor had not talked to her once although we’d set up a pattern for them to have weekly feedback. So, then you’ve got the supervisor complaining to HR, but the supervisor’s really the issue more than the employee. .....”.

6.1.3 Organization development and change

If they are united as a team, the leadership in an organization will be more influential in the management of organizational change. Coach 26 says that at higher levels of the organization, change can be influenced, but only if they have clarity as a leadership team

"...So if you’re coaching senior executives and I coach a lot in the ‘C’ suites, then you’re able to influence change. But to do it, there has to be a clear sense of who they’re going to be as a leadership team, how are they going to walk the talk and what kind of messages they communicate through. Not only what they say, but what they do...".
If the executive leadership prioritize a culture of empowerment and opportunity, it sets the agenda for the organization and in that sense mandates the need for coaching. Coach 12 says that one of the challenges for the organization relates to the change of executive leadership team. Because the new CEO has more of a ‘hands-off’ approach to management, it has given rise to their interest in coaching to assist in the adaption of employees to the new challenges that this presents.

“…we’ve only ever had two CEOs. The first CEO was a benevolent dictator. You know, really nice guy - ....he started the organization. Very hands on management style. Would stand at the front of the building every Christmas and give every employee a hug as they left the building. You know, it was really like family.... the next CEO has a very different style...He came from a major newspaper, so he’s much more business. ....he’s much more ‘you work it out’, and people are having a lot more meetings and all that kind of thing....so there’s a real challenge there.....”.

Similarly, if a key business leader is enthusiastic about the prospects of a coaching program in an organization, it can be an infectious and attract the interest of other members of the organization. Coach 17 says that she was interested in coaching because her supervisor (who came from another organization) has testified to the enormous benefits of coaching

"...My boss, he has been in an organization where they did introduce coaching...with a lot of success and…he’s very passionate about it....”.

Better yet, if the executive leadership of an organization is engaged in the coaching process, a higher level of buy-in means that interest in it is more likely to grow rapidly and in that sense have a strategic effect. For instance, coach 31 says that the coaching of people at a lower level can be a strategic effect if their superiors (upper management) are engaged in the process. If not, she says that the change will happen more slowly because the middle management will be unenthused

"..If the leaders are engaged in this transformation potential and really are serious about it, then I think there’s an opportunity there for a rapid spread of coaching, and people needing and wanting to be coached and having the opportunity of course. It would go faster. It would necessarily ‘put up speed’ because the top was clearly being coached well, and being coached and really engaged in it so that they could demonstrate and they could be exemplars of coaching and encourage their group to coach. When the top doesn’t engage in it, the rest of the people are lukewarm. You know ‘the boss doesn’t need to do this so why me?’...”.

Similarly, the coach 10 describes the ‘trickle-down effect’ that occurs when the leadership receives
coaching

"...Once leader of new responsibilities feels more confident and because they’re more confident they are better able to delegate. Because they’re better able to delegate the team is more effective. Because the team is more effective there’s more of an attraction proposal for others who want to join the team and maybe they’re more effective at interfacing with other teams. All of those things are possible trickledown effects and I think they do happen....

In the same way, if a leader adopts a coaching style that is underpinned by genuine curiosity, it means that a greater level of collaboration is possible between themselves and their subordinates. This may explain a greater level of buy-in to a leader’s vision and organizational change. Coach 33 suggests that leaders in healthcare need to be more ‘curious’ because this results in a more collaborative coaching style approach to management, and ultimately more effective change

"…Health care professionals are taught to be tellers and so when they begin to be more curious and invite others to voice their opinions, to voice what they think would be appropriate in terms of how the changes evolve….they begin to shift more to a collaborative approach and I think change is much more effective when it is collaborative...

However, the coach says that the key to a change in approach is not just in being better communicators as a skill, but also in developing a totally new attitude philosophy, from which flows curiosity

"...OK. There’s a lot now that’s going on around developing having managers as coaches so that they have more of a coach approach, shall we say, to the way they communicate with their employees, but this is not what I’m saying. I’m taking it back for me what is fundamental. I’m talking about being more curious and listening instead of telling so that leaders in a meeting [are behaving differently]. Instead of saying ‘OK the new vision, what we’re expecting to do is move change from ‘A’ to ‘B’ and this is what it’s supposed to look like...

She says that being more curious involves means setting a genuine intention around their approach and being more authentic

"....[reflecting on] how they’re going to show up at meetings initially.....listen more and talk less......it’s more about ‘What are you going to think about?, How do you think we can most effectively get there?’, ‘What are some of the road blocks?’, ‘What are some of the challenges?’ - the kind of open questions that are used in coaching....They’re not using them as a framework, but just being more curious and open and really listening in meetings..."
She reaffirms that being more curious works because it leads to more collaboration and buy in

"...that was fundamental to... creating change that is sustainable; because when you’ve got the whole operation and everyone buying into it then...it’s just going to be more effective...".

But, as indicated in the previous section of this data analysis, if the leadership is not supportive of a coaching initiative then this can affect the level of buy-in of entire teams and affect their change agenda. Coach 12 says that this is the experience of his organization

"...there are couple of highly functional teams and quite a few dysfunctional teams where managers and employees don’t really talk to each other or don’t talk to each other in a productive, fruitful way so those relationship are a little broken for whatever reason....which we kind of [think] 'wow this is unbelievable' especially an organization like ours....you expect people to be kind of OK with people. But there’s been [people saying] 'why should I meet with my staff' or 'I don’t want to meet with boss' - all this kind of stuff....".

Finally, the evidence suggests that if an employee feels that their contribution is not valued by leadership and the leadership do not realize that they are being perceived as indifferent, then it is going to be difficult to get buy-in to from these employees to participate in an initiative such as coaching under these conditions. Coach 12 says that one of the risks faced by the organization is the potential of losing some of their top performers. This is partly because of the organization going through changes with the appointment of new leadership, but also because some of the leadership appear to be indifferent to the contributions made by some of its key employees

"...I think probably the biggest risk from an HR point of view that we face at the moment is because of all this unsettling stuff that’s happened. We will lose some of our best people.....who work above and beyond the call of duty. They are the people who earn well below what they could be out there in the private sector. They know it, we know it - and if we were looking after them, well and they were in a good place and they wouldn’t be concerned. But since things here are pretty not nice, their starting to look elsewhere....".

He cites an example of one employee who is thinking of leaving because he is not feeling valued

"...I can think of one guy.....without being angry or self righteous, he’s basically said ‘...if I left, the organization would just fall apart and it would be another six to twelve months before it got up again and I wouldn’t do that lightly, but I’m really not enjoying myself here’...He’s a highly skilled technician and to get from the market you would have three times what we pay him and what he’s developed for us is really
valuable...He’s pretty much said ‘I’m paid as an analyst and I deliver analysis to these managers who seemingly couldn’t care less what I say on them. So, they say can you give a forecast for numbers for the next twelve months. I give it to them and they just add $10,000 to it because they want to make budget. And he would say ‘yes you’re going to make budget, but where are you getting that $10,000 from?’ I’ve gone through the figures with reason and I’m trained to think like this....I’ve had all this corporate experience, but in this environment it’s treated like nothing’.....".

Coach 12 agreed that the senior managers in the organization are likely to be unaware of the way this particular employee perceives them, and that this is at the heart of the issue. He says that in recognition of the importance of the issue, they have recently promoted the HR director to the executive team

"...HR are very aware of this though so it’s trying to work it out. And our board is very aware of this, so they’ve actually promoted my boss, the HR Director. They’ve appointed her to the Executive Leadership Team to try and get some people thinking happening and a female voice as well...".

### 6.1.4 Knowledge management

If a leader has an opportunity to network and share information with other leaders who have received coaching as part of the coaching experience, it can potentially have a strategic effect in an organization. Coach 31 says that whilst it doesn't appear that there was any strategic intent behind the use of coaching, there were some convincing changes within the middle management group that would no doubt have had a strategic effect i.e. a trickle-up effect

"...it turned out when you coach twenty people at once in a room you get a lot of strategic coaching. Like ‘What should we do with this?’ Suddenly you’ve got people who are thinking together - who are planning together - who looked at other departments they worked with - strategic partners - and all of a sudden there became a relationship structure within this middle management group that wasn’t there before and that was part of the learning that took place.....".

The strategic effect may occur because leaders who come together in networks as a part of the coaching approach have the opportunity to engage on important shared issues that they normally would not. Coach 15 says that as leaders learn to engage one another throughout the coaching process, it results in meaningful discussions about important issues

"... I came up with a little audit, in which you can rate yourself 1-10 on those areas. And then, even more interesting was that we would have two people in the one organization – one would give it a 3 and one
would give it a 7. So, that then started the conversation – ‘well convince each other’ – and then they would have these meaningful discussions....".

Given the opportunity to collaborate on issues of common importance, a higher level of leader commitment to actionable outcomes may occur. Coach 10 says that this was her experience of coaching groups of directors in one particular organization she was coaching for

"....The managers would meet during their lunch breaks and the coach would ask questions. Together they would explore ideas, acknowledge weaknesses in that area, affirm the need to be good models in that area and make commitments together for change....there was a small cadre of coaches coaching the Managing Directors so their Managing Directors would, if on demand, they could have one-on-one, but more often they met for lunch in a small group with the coach and that was weekly and the coach just came to the lunch. The organization bought the lunch for everybody and you’re in a small conference room and they really were very collegial. The coach would ask particular kinds of questions and they, as a group, make some individual commitments. And through peer pressure, I think they persuaded one another they were setting the wrong example and it was really wonderful. Originally I didn’t think the group coaching would work at that level but it did….the cross pollination was superb……".

She says that the reason that this was so powerful was that teamwork was something that was missing in the organization, and because the MDs she was coaching were 'siiloed'

"...They didn’t function as teams at work. The MDs themselves were siloed and so they came together, and I think they were ‘back home’ so to speak. And in that culture they really felt they could pull back the kimono and say what they needed to say. And the coaches questions were fielded as a group and they all took a part and took ownership. I thought I was more of a witness than a facilitator....".

Finally, a greater level of collaboration via a coaching-mentoring style relationship may have an effect on organizational learning. As an example, coach 16 says that generational differences between the more senior and junior leaders have impeded the learning process in the organization. In their coaching, he says that they have been working with the older generation to become mentors

"...So, you’ve got all these new graduates coming out of university with all this great knowledge of project management and the older managers saying ‘Well that’s not how you do it - this is how you do it’. So there’s this tension develops. So we’ve been working with those people, almost trying to use a coaching/mentoring approach...[A] part of the coaching process has been helping them manage it in a sense have a better relationship with the younger engineers coming on and actually help them. It’s almost like learning organization. So, they learn by doing not by failing if you know what I mean....".
6.1.5 Discussion

Theme 6.1A: The relative success of coaching conversations that occur between managers and their subordinates during the career development process may be linked to strongly the individual managers involved. To this extent, a manager as coach is a device of coaching. One of their functions is to ensure that the development priorities the sub-ordinate sets for themselves are aligned with the organization’s agenda and their job description.

In the coaching body of knowledge, career development is discussed as a component of other widely studied topics under the career umbrella. The review suggested that there were nineteen articles, which explored topics such as career coaching, career management and employment interviewing. Only twelve articles in this category have a specific focus on career coaching; and of these a handful offer specific insights. In general terms, as a career coach the manager assumes the role of career advisor and assists the coachee to identify and pursue a career path. In doing, they help them to avoid career plateaus. The literature also suggests that career development is often high on the list of priorities for coachee (Blackman 2006; Novak 2006; Greene et al. 2010) because the different stages of career may call for variations in support to deal with associated work-related issues and achieve their aspirations. Nevertheless, there is a strong sense in literature that this kind of support is lacking in the workplace, despite the ever-increasing learning needs of workers (Parker et al. 2008; Truijen and Woerkom 2008).

One article by Hudson (2008) explores career development from the point of view of the coach i.e. a therapist moving into coaching practice. It describes the differences between coaching and therapy and highlights those psychological models, which translate across domains of practice. Similarly, Feldman (2001) also distinguishes career coaching from other forms of coaching and outlines conditions in which it might be most successful, including: labour shortages, times of transition, start-ups or rapidly growing firms. But, not all coaching is suitable as a career development tool, rather some forms of coaching such as peer coaching may not be appropriate (Truijen and Woerkom 2008). Two articles in the literature review career coaching and development programs. One reviews a program about helping people with disabilities find and maintain work (Novak 2006), and the other reviews a program called ‘COACH’ i.e. Committee on the Advancement of Women Chemists. It has been offering professional development workshops on negotiation and communication skills for women faculty in the chemical sciences. The workshops are a combination of professional-skills training, experiential learning, role-playing, and group problem solving (Greene et al. 2010).
The findings of this study are relatively unique in that they delineate the inter-relationship of a manager as coach within an organizational system, as opposed to the focus of many papers in the literature, which examine external coaching. The findings suggest that even if an organization takes steps to develop a career development system with a view to supporting coaching conversations between managers and their subordinates, the managers using them must support the underlying tools it develops for this purpose. If not, those managers may not only decline to endorse or prioritize the career development system processes, they may even discourage their subordinates from participating in it. This becomes a much more serious matter for an organization when the directors of departments are the ones sabotaging the system. The experience of one organization suggests that it is not the career system itself, which is the underlying factor driving their poor attitude given that the idea of career development is simple i.e. coachees identify five or six developmental areas that they focus on each quarter, around which there is an ongoing coaching conversation. As suggested earlier in the study, it is more likely that the resistance is due to the effect of other forces such as the job design, which has resulted in excessive workloads for some of these managers. This suggests that HR needs to understand the link between career coaching/development buy-in and job design.

The findings also suggest that the manager as coach has an important role in guiding the career development process, specifically aligning the subordinates development plan to ensure that it supports the broader organizational strategy. It is up to the manager to use their discretion about this, and if they believe that the priorities of the sub-ordinate are not aligned, then they are responsible for communicating that to the coachee and should “draw the person back”.

**Theme 6.1B:** The decisions a manager makes about who will and will not receive coaching may be a function of the quality of the relationship (LMX) that a manager has with a subordinate. If a manager has a high LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate, then they may support coaching for that sub-ordinate, but not another. Conversely, if a leader has a low LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate they may not be as willing to recommend coaching to help them personally. If they do coaching, the reasons stated may be more functional than personal. To this extent, LMX relationship status is a device of coaching.

A big focus of the literature is the topic of relationships. These usually refer to the relationship between the coach and coachee or explore the consequences of coaching for organizational relationships. There is little discussion about of LMX relationships to be found in a search of the coaching literature, and certainly no reference to it in the context of career development that could be found. On that basis the findings of this study make an original contribution.
The findings suggest that the decisions a manager makes about who will and will not receive coaching may be a function of the quality of the relationship that a manager has with a sub-ordinate. If a manager-sub-ordinate relationship is high LMX then the manager may support coaching for that sub-ordinate, but not another. Conversely, if a leader-subordinate relationship is a low LMX relationship, then the manager may not be as willing to recommend coaching to help them personally. If they do approve coaching for that sub-ordinate, the reasons stated may be more functional than personal.

This was evidenced in the contrasting accounts provided by one supervisor about their manager-subordinate relationships and the subsequent nature of the external coaching support that followed. In one case, the manager as coach had a what appeared to be a close personal relationship with the subordinate who was having some struggles in his new position

“…I know him really well, we go back a long time.”

The manager exhibited signs of compassion for the sub-ordinate, was very supportive of helping him to move forward and offered coaching on that basis

“.I could just see he was doing really well but just saw that there was an opportunity there to help him to better himself in some of those areas...”.

But, in contrast, it appeared that the same supervising manager was less sympathetic to the plight of a different sub-ordinate who had caused him ‘issues’. The tone of his language in the interview changed when talking about them i.e. there was less ‘affection’ in his voice and a more technical choice of words was used. He appeared to be offering coaching as a ‘fix’ to the situation, rather than as personal support for the coachee

“...it was really basically to retrieve the situation....”.

These scenarios suggest that the LMX status of a manager/sub-ordinate may determine whether coaching is offered and its purpose. A high LMX relationship will result in a greater likelihood that coaching support will be offered to foster a career development opportunity. In contrast, a low LMX relationship means coaching is less likely to be offered, and if it is it will be for functional reasons such as minimizing the issues that a sub-ordinate is causing within a team
environment. A distinction is that the latter is not a true career development opportunity.

**Theme 6.1C:** The performance appraisal process is a device of coaching to the extent that it can be used as a justification for the coaching. A secondary device is the manager involved in its implementation, who identifies areas for employee development.

**Theme 6.1D:** A purpose of a coaching approach is to enhance the performance management and appraisal process, however, coaching is a distinctly separate process. If it is perceived as a separate, the level of buy-in for coaching from leaders as coaches and subordinates may be low. In this sense, stakeholder clarity around the differences an implementation consistent with this understanding is a device of workplace coaching.

There are relatively few papers, which provide insight about the performance management and/or appraisal process in the context of coaching. Because these are important processes within organizational life and can potentially be seen to be at odds with coaching there is a need for a lot more research in the area on this topic.

Coaching is often construed as a performance appraisal or an evaluation tool used to appraise employee performance relative to an assigned role or job for the purpose of regulating it. Whilst there is a process of appraisal used in the coaching process, it is non-evaluative, meaning that it cannot be used as assessment tool (Truijen and Woerkom 2008). On the contrary, it is designed to identify opportunities for development to enhance performance through the development of work capacities (Locke 2008). So, although, it is not performance evaluation itself, it may be aligned somewhat with performance appraisal processes (Gaskell 2007).

There are three specific papers, which address performance management and coaching, all of which tend to highlight the issues associated with it. For example, in one section of a paper by Ladyshewsky (2010), he explores the manager as coach (MAC) role in terms of performance management. It is suggested that performance appraisal can be a barrier to building build trust, and for that reason a distinction must be made between performance management and performance appraisal. The differences are that performance management is more about relationship and key to the manager as coach role, whereas, performance appraisal is more about measuring performance against KPIs. The former is more important because it is the relationship between the manager and sub-ordinate through which weaknesses are overcome and strengths are enhanced. He also points out that some leaders may struggle because their influence needs to occur through the mechanism relationship, rather than authority which may be daunting for a manager who fears a loss of power if they do not have the appropriate skills.
Similarly, Allenbaugh (1983) suggests that performance appraisal is a flawed process because it tends to focus on people’s weaknesses rather than strengths. He says that because the performance appraisal process is used to determine rewards and promotion, any evaluation will be ‘defended by a sub-ordinate’ and any negative feedback communicated is not likely to be well received, which can lead to even worse performance. On this basis, it will not be an authentic discussion geared toward improvement. In contrast, coaching is viewed as an effective alternative to performance appraisal because of its tendency to overcome most of these kinds of objections.

Finally, a practitioner paper by Gaskell (2007) examines common mistakes that HR departments make in their role as strategic partner. Some of the problems highlighted include: senior management not modelling a coaching approach to leadership; organizations not measuring ROI or integrating coaching with existing HR processes; for example, KPIs, performance management, remuneration, and succession planning. Gaskell suggests that line managers are key to addressing the HR needs of employees.

This study concurs with the sentiments in literature, which suggest that the performance appraisal process is problematic. It re-enforces the point that performance appraisal and coaching are separate constructs, but it also emphasizes its usefulness as an input to coaching, which is more aligned as a performance management tool. As one coach indicated

“..a coach is there to support the individuals to find their potential within their role and not provide feedback on how they are doing in their roles….”.

As suggested earlier, the performance appraisal could be used as a reference point for a coaching conversation, but the two would remain distinct. Because of the value placed on the relationship aspect of the manager as coach role in performance management, organizations should do whatever they can to ensure foster the development of a fruitful relationship. If sub-ordinate feels as though there is no distinction between these processes, then coaching may be viewed as a punishment and they may decline to participate.

Similarly, it is important to consider the manager’s perspective about the performance appraisal process, which is one that is not explored in the literature. One of the participant organizations reports a low level of manager as coach buy-in to the coaching process, which it appears may have been because of a lack of awareness of the differences between coaching and performance management-appraisal processes. So, rather than force all leaders to become coaches, a more sensible approach would be to showcase it using leaders who are amenable and understand
the differences. If successful, this might serve as a model of vicarious learning through which to educate other managers and generate social contagion.

**Theme 6.1E:** Although the performance appraisal system is a device of coaching, it is separate to the coaching process. However, it can still be characterized by more of a coaching approach in which the manager empowers a sub-ordinate to self-direct, and uses relationship power, rather than formal authority to influence their development.

As suggested in the literature review, a manager as coach should use relationship power to influence a sub-ordinate to achieve their development and performance improvement, rather than the power of authority. In this study, a logical outworking of this was evidenced in a manager empowering the sub-ordinate, which influenced them toward better performance by engendering trust and therefore ownership of the performance management and coaching process. It engendered trust and ownership because subordinates were given discretion about the priorities that they brought to the performance management discussion. However, the sense that these sessions were not as effective as the organization wanted suggests that the managers conducting these sessions may not have had the appropriate skills needed to influence the coachee, and this explains the reluctance of some to engage in this process. As Ladyshewsky (2010) suggests, some may struggle because they are used to using authority to influence.

**Theme 6.1F:** Identifying the true cause of poor sub-ordinate performance will result in better allocation of coaching resources and more effective coaching. In that sense, a needs analysis is a device of coaching.

Poor performance of the sub-ordinate may be evident from a performance appraisal, but a lack of manager’s people skills may not. The logical solution (based on a faulty premise) is to take corrective measures, which involve the coaching of a sub-ordinate, when the root of the problem might be due to their supervisor’s incompetence as a performance manager and coach. If the manager is appropriately assessed and the deficiency discovered, then a better allocation of resources can occur. This is evidenced in the account of two external coaches who say that they are often engaged to fix the sub-ordinate, when the manager as coach is the problem. This suggests that they are the ones lacking the appropriate people skills needed and it explains why they are neglectful of their performance management responsibilities. These findings re-enforce the sentiments that are found in literature that suggest coaches are often approached to ‘fix people’, however more importantly, the findings of this study provide insight into why this occurs.
Theme 6.1G: If the executive leadership in an organization is united as a team, then the effects of coaching on organizational change may be more pronounced. This is because as a team they are more likely to exemplify the kind of behaviours they expect others, and be more committed to the prioritization of a culture of empowerment and opportunity. This in turn then sets the agenda for the organization and further mandates the need for coaching throughout the organization. To this extent, their ‘unity’ is a device of coaching in terms of organizational change.

Theme 6.1H: An executive leader’s involvement in a coaching program is a device of coaching, because it results in a higher level of buy-in and is therefore more likely to spread rapidly and in that sense have a strategic effect.

The idea that coaching can help organizations achieve internal change is in some ways assumed in the literature. However, from a management perspective the problem is that most of the investigations to date have focused on change from more of an individual rather than a team, departmental or organizational perspective. This was argued at length in the beginning of this thesis as a justification for this research, in which it was determined that of the 231 management articles, only 56 were focused on the delineation of organization specific concepts. To clarify, of the 231 articles in the management coaching literature, once cross-disciplinary and consultant articles are excluded from the total, there are only 18 remaining that focus on broader organizational concepts. Of these, only 5 specifically explore organizational culture and change at a broader level, which suggests a clear gap. The organization specific topics explored include: organization/culture change (Feldman 2001; Lindbom 2007; Rock and Donde 2008a; Rock and Donde 2008b; Pollitt 2009); coaching programs in small businesses (Devins and Gold 2000; Levin et al. 2008); internal coaching (Frisch 2001; Rock and Donde 2008a; Rock and Donde 2008b; Ali et al. 2010); implementation (Peterson 1996; Feldman 2001; Hagen 2010); management competencies (Renee 2007); not for profit (Ali et al. 2010); and ROI (Leedham 2005; Parker Wilkins 2006; Rock and Donde 2008a; Rock and Donde 2008b).

Perhaps one of the major reasons for this trend toward the delineation of the individual perspective is that coaching is often viewed as a one-to-one approach to development. Whilst this is a commonly accepted definition of coaching in the literature, it seems to be overlooked that an individual is rooted within an organizational context, and therefore any change at an individual level affects the broader organization. So too, the reverse effect is also true i.e. if an organization implements a strategic change initiative, it will affect the individual. This effect is also not well explored at higher levels of team, department and strategic organization, which is something that this study has sought to begin to address.
Most of the articles that do explore organizational change at higher levels examine the mechanisms through which organizations can be transformed through coaching. For example, one article examines the organizational conditions under which career coaching is most likely to be beneficial and provides guidelines for implementation of career coaching programs across an organization (Feldman 2001). Similarly, Lindbom (2007) outlines steps organizations can take to develop a coaching oriented culture, which include: integrating coaching by including it in core competencies, development of strategic goals, development of processes, and provision of resources. In addition, one article about an internal coaching culture argues its importance and validity on a cost basis when compared to external coaching. It suggests that much more can be achieved at lower cost per goal (Rock and Donde 2008a). Finally, one paper examines a coaching program which has helped to transform the organizational culture at Southern, which is a UK rail operator. It found there to be a significant statistical correlation between the coaching program and employee engagement, which has resulted in fewer grievances (Pollitt 2009).

The findings of this study also examine the mechanisms through which organizational cultures are transformed, but it reveals some insights not yet explored in the literature. In this regard, the expectations of leadership appear to be a significant factor in bringing about organizational change, and coaching may be an approach needed to help bridge the gaps. For example, one of the challenges for an organization in this study was related to a change of leadership with a more ‘hands-off’ approach to management. A new set of operating expectations required the development of new skills sets for employees to aid in adaption. But, it points out that these expectations are going to be more pervasive if the executive team is united in these expectations and follows through by modelling these behaviours.

In addition, the data suggests that a manager’s enthusiasm for employee development initiatives such as coaching can be an infectious and attract the interest of other members of the organization. This was the experience of one manager as coach who said that she was interested in coaching because her supervisor enthusiasm about the significant benefits of coaching. By directly participating, leaders become

“…exemplars of coaching and encourage their group to coach. When the top doesn’t engage in it, the rest of the people are lukewarm…’the boss doesn’t need to do this so why me?’...”.

Also, when leaders are coached, they increase in confidence to delegate and there are trickle-down
effects. In turn, their team becomes more effective, which propagates an

“…attraction proposal for others who want to join the team and maybe they’re more effective at interfacing with other teams…”.

A final example of this is when a leader adopts a coaching style, which is underpinned by genuine curiosity. It means that a greater level of collaboration is possible between themselves and their subordinates, which may explain a greater level of buy-in to a leader’s vision and organizational change. This was the account of one external coach who suggests that it results in a more collaborative coaching style approach to management and ultimately more effective change. This is not only a function of them becoming better communicators, but also in developing a new attitude from which flows curiosity. It involves means setting a genuine intention around their approach and being more authentic. It works because it leads to more collaboration and buy-in.

**Theme 6.1I:** The existence of a poor leadership culture in an organization, expressed by an indifference to employees may act as a barrier to successful coaching and limit intended organizational change. To this extent, leadership engagement is a device of coaching.

This theme is really an extension of the previous section as it continues to demonstrate the importance of leadership attitudes and involvement as a manager as coach in the organizational change process. The data suggests that an indifferent leadership can inhibit the effectiveness of a coaching intervention or program. This was evidenced in one scenario, where an employee did not feel that his contribution had been valued by his leaders even though he applied discretionary effort. The suggestion is that it would be difficult to get buy-in to from employees to participate in a new initiative such as coaching under these conditions. From a competitive standpoint, this could be debilitating as it may prevent the organizational change that is needed. Another complicating factor was that this particular employee was highly skilled, but not paid equivalent to the industry benchmarks. This might also explain his frustration and sense of entitlement, although, this is not clear from the data. This is a finding unique to this study.

**Theme 6.1J:** If leaders in an organization have an opportunity to network and share their experiences with other leaders who have received coaching as part of the coaching experience, it can have a strategic effect in an organization. The opportunity to network and share knowledge in a participative environment is both a purpose and a device of coaching.

The importance of knowledge is affirmed almost universally throughout the coaching body
of knowledge. In general terms, there is a strong consensus of the need for knowledge from an education perspective to acquire knowledge to improve transfer and practice (Ladyshewsky 2006) and from an industry perspective to regulate the coaching profession (Berglas 2002; Dean and Meyer 2002; Woodruffe 2006; Styhre and Josephson 2007). There is certainly a basic argument made for the development and acquisition of knowledge in organizations. For instance, research suggests that coaches should possess a wide variety of knowledge across different content domains (Berman & Bradt, 2006; Kilburg, 1997; Sherman & Freas, 2004; Stern, 1998; Wasylyshyn, 2003). However, managers as coaches generally spend the least amount of time coaching because they do not have the knowledge or skills to coach (Hackman and Wageman 2005). Also, one of the challenges they face may be the transition from a prescriptive to an empowering leadership style, which requires the development of knowledge to be successful (Hunt and Weintraub 2004; Ellinger et al. 2008).

The sharing of knowledge via the feedback process facilitated by coaching is an example of a knowledge management process. It is a beneficial process for learning, but a potentially sensitive one for all parties involved (DeHaan 2008). Peer coaching in particular exemplifies a process of knowledge sharing through the feedback process. For example, it has been used amongst teachers to share data collected through peer observation as a means for reflection on their individual teaching practices. Findings indicate that it facilitates an exchange of teaching methods, resources, develops teaching skills, and a rethink of their approach to teaching (Vacilotto and Cummings 2007). An interpretive study by Ladyshewsky (2006) suggested that social interactions that occurred between coachees resulted in knowledge expansion, perspective sharing, knowledge verification, cognitive conflict, and alternate perspectives.

At a broader level, from the perspective of team the benefits of knowledge sharing include trust, constructive conflict resolution, commitment, accountability amongst team members and hopefully results for the organization (Ket De Vries 2005). And, at an organizational level there is only one study by Jackson et al. (2010), which addresses the broader organizational context in terms of knowledge management. The study explored an organizations use of coaching to develop the skills needed to utilize its information system based on Web 2.0 and Enterprise 2.0 technologies. A small team of knowledge productivity coaches was engaged to mentor and coach 100 employees in how to utilize the system; it resulted in a higher adoptions rate by employees. So, although knowledge management is undoubtedly an important area from a management coaching disciplinary perspective, it is one that is yet to be addressed from an organizational perspective.
There is also limited understanding of the role of leadership in knowledge management system at this level.

In terms of this study as the themes suggest, when there is an opportunity to share, a strong relationship structure may develop which promotes interdepartmental evaluation and comparison, as well as collaborative thinking and planning; the resulting changes have ‘a trickle-up effect’. The strategic effect may be because executive leaders are in a position of power, but also because when leaders come together in networks as a part of the coaching approach have the opportunity to engage on important shared issues that they normally would not. That is, as leaders learn to engage one another throughout the coaching process, it results in meaningful discussions about important issues. Given the opportunity to collaborate on issues of common importance, a higher level of leader commitment to actionable outcomes may occur. Together they can explore ideas, acknowledge weaknesses in that area, affirm the need to be good models in that area and make commitments together for change. The study suggests that effects of this approach will be most noticeable if teamwork is something that is missing in the organization.

Finally, a greater level of collaboration via a coaching/mentoring style relationship may have an effect on organizational learning. In some organizations, generational differences may be viewed as an impediment to learning. However, it should provide an opportunity for senior leaders to become mentors. The account of one coach suggests that this may be a purpose of coaching i.e. the development of interactional development relationships to expedite learning to help more junior managers

“..they learn by doing not by failing...”.

PART C: CONCLUSION

PART C of the data analysis has explored leadership effectiveness as a device of workplace coaching. There were eleven themes formulated from this exploration about systems leadership. The first establishes the importance of the manager as coach in the career development process. Specifically, that the relative success of coaching conversations that occur between managers and their subordinates during the career development process may be linked to strongly the individual managers involved. To this extent, a manager as coach is a device of coaching. One of their functions is to ensure that the development priorities the sub-ordinate sets for them-selves are aligned with the organization’s agenda and their job description. Similarly, the findings suggest that
the decisions a manager makes about who will and will not receive coaching may be a function of the quality of the relationship (LMX) that a manager has with a sub-ordinate. If a manager has a high LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate, then they may support coaching for that sub-ordinate, but not another. Conversely, if a leader has a low LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate they may not be as willing to recommend coaching to help them personally. If they do coaching, the reasons stated may be more functional than personal. To this extent, LMX relationship status is a device of coaching.

In terms of the performance management process, it can be used as a justification for coaching but it is a separate process. Although a separate process to coaching, the performance management and appraisal can be enhanced if a ‘coaching approach is adopted’. The three relevant themes are: 1. The performance management and appraisal process are a device of coaching to the extent that it can be used as a justification for the coaching. A secondary device is the manager involved in its implementation who identifies areas for employee development. 2. A purpose of a coaching approach is to enhance the performance management and appraisal process, however, coaching is a distinctly separate process to performance appraisal. If it is not perceived as a separate, the level of buy-in for coaching from leaders as coaches and sub-ordinates may be low. In this sense, stakeholder clarity around the differences an implementation consistent with this understanding is a device of workplace coaching. 3. Although the performance appraisal system is a device of coaching, it is separate to the coaching process. But, it can still be characterized by more of a coaching approach in which the manager encourages self-direction, and uses relationship power, rather than formal authority to influence their development. The importance of identifying the cause of poor performance is also highlighted within these processes. The findings suggest that identifying the true cause of poor sub-ordinate performance will result in better allocation of coaching resources and more effective coaching. In that sense, a needs analysis is a device of coaching.

There were also three themes developed with regard to organizational change and development. The findings speak to the importance of executive team leadership and unity, buy-in, and a leadership that is engaged. The three themes include: 1. If the executive leadership in an organization is united as a team, then the effects of coaching on organizational change pronounced. Their unity is then a device of coaching. This is because as a team they are more likely to exemplify the kind of behaviours they expect others, and be more committed to the prioritization of a culture of empowerment and opportunity. This in turn then sets the agenda for the organization and further
mandates the need for coaching throughout the organization. 2. An executive leader’s involvement in a coaching program is a device of coaching, because it results in a higher level of buy-in and is therefore more likely to spread rapidly and in that sense have a strategic effect. 3. The existence of a poor leadership culture in an organization, characterized by an indifferent leadership may also act as a barrier to successful coaching and limit intended organizational change. To this extent, a leadership engaged with their people is a device of coaching.

The final theme concerns knowledge management. It suggests that if leaders in an organization have an opportunity to network and share their experiences with other leaders who have received coaching as part of the coaching experience, it can have a strategic effect in an organization. The opportunity to network and share knowledge in a participative environment is both a purpose and a device of coaching.

PART D: COACHING DESIGN AS A DEVICE OF WORKPLACE COACHING

PART D: INTRODUCTION

This final section of the data analysis explores coaching design as a device of workplace coaching. It is argued that both rigour and structure are important in effective coaching design. The first section investigates rigour as device of an instrumental approach to coaching. However, it is evident that rigour alone is not sufficient for successful coaching because it has limitations. In the second section of Part D, the importance of structure to coaching design is explored. A number of dimensions to structure are highlighted based on analysis of the data.

6.2 RIGOUR AS A DEVICE OF AN INSTRUMENTAL APPROACH TO COACHING

This section explores rigour as a device of a scientific approach to coaching. That organizations adopt an instrumental approach to coaching is potentially important to its success. The data in the first section suggests that a lack of rigour around coaching may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. But, it also suggests that the introduction of rigour does not guarantee that the value of coaching will be realized.
The second section suggests that despite the potential value of adopting a scientific approach to coaching there are some key limitations, which need to be accounted for. For example, because of the multi-dimensional nature of change, it may be difficult to isolate the contribution that coaching makes to organizational change. Whilst coaching stakeholders such as HR departments may want to assess the progress of a coaching candidate, it may not be possible. This is because there may be a disconnection between coaching process and its results, which no amount of rigour can correct. Another reason for the limitations of an instrumental approach to coaching is that the models and frameworks used to measure progress are only an approximation for change, and therefore, no matter how valid and reliable are not a universal prescription. Nevertheless, the validity and reliability of assessment tools used in coaching are a must because it can help guard against errors, such as practice effects, which may produce inaccurate results. The limitations of adopting a rigorous approach to coaching suggest some potential implications for coaching. For example, there may need to be multiple sources of data used instead of relying on one instrument.

The third and final section then investigates the impediments to rigour, which may be attributed to the organizational context. For example, whilst some organizations may be clear about what they are trying to achieve through coaching, they may not have the baseline data to facilitate evaluation or attribute coaching as a cause. Similarly, it is argued that the success of coaching at an individual level can only be understood if a coachee is willing to submit to an objective evaluation, however, the motivation to do so may not be evident. As well, the organization’s resolve and commitment to a scientific approach to coaching may be an impediment to achieving rigour. In addition, the availability of suitable tools for evaluating the success of their coaching initiative and high cost might be another limitation of adopting a scientific approach to coaching for an organization.

6.2.1 The value of a rigorous approach to coaching

The existence of some kind of rigour in the coaching design is important to the extent that a lack of it around coaching may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. Coach 9 says that their organization hadn't developed the empirical rigour around the coaching that they should have because there were initially no KPIs attached to it. She attributes that to the fact that the coaching program evolved rather than being proactively designed.

"...I think this is an area that we really haven't done well. If I look back know at the experience of
coaching, we really didn’t put very much structure around it. I think part of that was that the way that it evolved. I talked about that first instance that sort of got us started, and there wasn’t any particular rigour around that. But, it was just really successful and I think the assumption was…we can just keep doing that and it will work. But as such, there were no formal ways of measuring the coaching intervention. So, most of the mechanisms by which we looked at success was informal feedback [included] what was the coachee saying about their experience?, which was generally positive because they felt valued and invested in. But, also, what was their manager saying about the experience?....[for them] it was not clear exactly what it was designed to do. There weren’t necessarily the right structures in place to review how it was going all the way through....".

She says that after 12 months into the coaching program they did try and introduce more rigour

"...Interestingly, we tried......I did some work with the coach around what we call our coaching protocols. What are the things we are going to put in place? And we say, whenever coaching happens in our organization these are things that we are going to do. They were just simple things like – upfront we would agree what the objectives were, we would have reviews with the line manager and usually with the HR manager at least three times during the coaching assignment and we would measure success at the end. So, just basically putting some structure around that....".

However, the introduction of rigour does not guarantee that the value of coaching will be realized, which may contribute to its perceived failure and subsequent discontinuation. Coach 9 says that the organization is at a cross roads in terms of where coaching fits in the organization and its potential value because there is a sense that it is not as effective as they would have liked. Consequently, they have decided not to continue it in its current form

"...I think we are at a bit of a crossroads at the moment in terms of what we think is the value of coaching.....there has been a little bit of a backing away from coaching as well. Not necessarily to be replaced by anything else. A couple of months ago when I was working out whether we would renew the coach’s contract and talking with all of my peers - there was definitely a sense of ‘I don’t see the value of having a coach anymore, we are not really sure of the effectiveness’. That wasn’t people saying that is a reflection of the coach, it was just saying, I don’t know about this coaching, have we really got the value out of it?...".

6.2.2 Working within the limitations of a rigorous approach

Despite the potential value of adopting a scientific approach to coaching, there are some key limitations, which need to be accounted for. For example, because of the multi-dimensional nature of change, it may be difficult to isolate the contribution that coaching makes to
organizational change. Coach 3 says that it is difficult to isolate the impact of coaching on an organization because there may be multiple factors involved in organizational change

"...We are developing a fairly complex way of measuring individual programs that could lead with coming up with a more robust measure. But, what happens in life, the world changes and people claim that this drove that change, but in fact, it is always a blended situation or a blended impact that actually causes the change and understanding that that is the way things happen....".

Consequently, whilst some coaching stakeholders such as HR departments may want to assess the progress of a coaching candidate, it may not be possible. This is because there may be a disconnection between coaching process and its results, which no amount of rigour can correct. The coach asserts that it is because people are complex and individual change is not a linear progression and notes that the difficulty in providing this kind of rigour in monitoring may be frustrating

"...the model that I use, the five step behavioural modification model is something that I don’t articulate....I mean why do they need to know what my methodology is? I find it often that HR people...are obsessed with knowing...what is the process and they want to talk about the method not the message...I am more serving individual’s needs. And often you see HR needs and want to know how the process works and what point you are up to in the process....[But] if a sponsor or an HR person thinks that you follow this series of steps from one to five, then that is not understanding the individual needs of the candidate....".

In support of this, coach 18 suggests that it wise to let the management to come to their own conclusions about the progress that has been made

“…when this information is requested……allow the company to come to its' own conclusions…”.

Coach 27 suggests that one of the reasons that this may be appropriate is that a coach is also limited in the kind of feedback they can give to management

“…generally a coach can only provide insight that they have received through the coaching process or possibly summarize organizational issues as presented by their delegates.... I find I am limited to what is presented by coachees....and my ability to present such information in a way that is easily accepted by leadership, especially if the presenting perspective is conflicting with management belief - such information tends to be easily dismissed as ‘this is only the perspective of the participant(s)’...”.

Another reason for the limitations of an instrumental approach to coaching is that the
models and frameworks it uses to measure progress are only an approximation for change, and therefore no matter how valid and reliable are not a universal prescription. Coach 3 says that one organization he coaches for has a competency model against which they measure the progress of the coachee based on 11 factors. But, he suggests that the problem with them is that they do not account for individual differences

"...the organization has a leadership model, an 11 component model…but people will achieve competence against all of those 11 factors in dramatically different ways, based on the perceptions of their direct reports, peers and boss....".

But despite the shortcomings, the validity and reliability of assessment tools used in coaching are a must. One of the reasons is because it can help guard against errors, such as practice effects, which may produce inaccurate results. Coach 3 says that the 360 retest is an important milestone in coaching, and tends to be a reliable instrument

"...The first dart point is 360 retest - that is what other people are seeing…..I use one of the best…..which, I am finding extremely accurate. I had [coached] someone in Melbourne yesterday and he had done an OPQ and he had clearly been able to work out what it was they were looking for. His OPQ (Occupational Personality Questionaire) results consistency score went from eight to zero…which is an indicator…. But, when I had a look at his 360, I could see that he had worked out how to look like he was persuasive and influential in an OPQ. But, with the 360 that asks your peers, direct reports and boss, is this guy influential? They rate him as a three and he is rating himself as a four, clearly not….the 360 always is the game breaker really....".

Similarly, coach 6 says that another reason that validity and reliability is important is because it gives the coach confidence that the difference between the test and re-test are due to the change in the coachee, rather than due to the unreliability of the instrument

“…Well when it comes to what instruments I’m prepared to use as a coach or what diagnostics only one which have, what I would call, academic rigor. You understand what I mean by that…I’m not a statistician but I want to be certain that they’re got statistical reliability and validity. I want to understand what test and re-test. I don’t need to understand that in a statistician’s sense, but I want to be sure that I’ve got confidence around this tool and explicitly what’s the purpose of the tool. What’s it meant to be used for - to make sure that I’m using it in the right context.....".

The limitations of adopting a rigorous approach to coaching suggest some potential implications for coaching. For example, there may need to be multiple sources of data used instead
of relying on one instrument. In recognition of the limitations of any instrument, coach 3 says that he uses three sources of data to help form a picture of what a person is like i.e. a personality test, OPQ, and a 360 survey

"...I actually use those three data points to assess. I mean personality doesn’t change but, just about in every session that I have, I don’t think that I would go through a session where I don’t flick back to what was this person really like and what are they saying and how much is that interview behaviour and how much of it is real. I then look at the 360 at some stage and see what other people think is real. So, I wouldn’t be naïve enough to suggest that anyone of those three key pieces of information are spot on but, give me the three of them and I will work it out....".

6.2.3 Organizational impediments to rigour

As well as limitations of the scientific approach there are also some impediments to rigour, which may be attributed to the organizational context. For example, whilst some organizations may be clear about what they are trying to achieve through coaching they may not have the baseline data to facilitate evaluation or attribute coaching as a cause. Coach 15 suggests though that the problem with the metrics that were used in one organization, was that there weren't known benchmarks from which to work from and/or a clear understanding of their determinants

"...So that was a metric [retention], but that was kind of loosely over a period of time because we were coaching for a year when we measured the metric. And what do we know about what was the benchmark? There is a little bit of a gap here - there weren’t exactly benchmarks....they knew the retention rate, but they didn’t know what their retention rate was attributable to....".

Similarly, the success of coaching at an individual level can only be understood if a coachee is willing to submit to an ‘objective’ evaluation; however, the motivation to do so may not be evident. Coach 3 says that if the coaching involves the use of 360 degree feedback, one of the challenges of determining the effectiveness of coaching at a role level is the willingness and commitment of a coachee to undergo a 360 degree ‘retest’. He says that unless a coachee is committed to receiving the feedback, then, there is no objective way to know whether change has occurred

"....some people want to prove that they have changed and they tend to be the ones that are high potential because they want feedback. But, there are a lot of people that are comfortable in knowing that, well I have eliminated that bad habit or, I know that I am better in myself, but, they are not necessarily putting it out there...".
The availability of suitable tools for evaluating the success of a coaching initiative and their high cost might be another limitation of adopting a scientific approach to coaching for an organization. Coach 9 suggested that she has a only a limited number of tools available to her to measure the effects of coaching and says that she only knows of one tool that could be used to measure the change that organizations desire. The coach suggests that the way the cultural change can be measured is using instruments like 360 degree feedback

"...If you’re using a 360 instrument, you can actually see that change, you can measure it and you should be using a 360 degree tool if you’re doing a big culture change program in my opinion. I don’t know how you would do it otherwise.....".

She also agrees that one of the reasons that it may be difficult to anchor coaching in this way is that the high cost of securing sophisticated tools. She says that it is difficult to give an exact quantitative outcome, but, she suggests that the culture change is measurable using tools like the Human Synergistics Cultural model

"...It’s very expensive as you know and they’ve got to know there’s a good outcome for them. So it’s like any qualitative research, it’s really difficult to give them an exact outcome, but, if you’re willing to use a tool like Human Synergistics…you can actually measure it…".

But even if the baseline data is available and appropriate tools are available, a lack of resolve and commitment to a scientific approach to coaching may be an impediment for an organization to achieve rigour. For example, coach 9 says that whilst they wrote rigorous protocols into their coach’s contract, they didn't implement them for a number of reasons, which include the personality of the external coach and also the organization's prioritization of coaching

"...We actually wrote that [structure/rigour] into the coach’s new contract when we did it, but we haven’t implemented....I think the fault has been on both sides. The coach by his very nature, which probably makes him a coach that is not structured.....it was sort of like forcing him to do something that is completely unnatural to him, but, at the same time we didn’t really hold him accountable for that either. I think that was in part of reflection that at the time there was so many other things going on and coaching wasn’t high on the priority list. So, it was something that we just let tick along in the background and as I said, the coach’s style doesn’t naturally lend itself to adding that rigour and we didn’t enforce it....".
6.2.4 Discussion

There are specific studies in the literature, which measure the effectiveness of coaching within an organizational setting, although they mainly utilize individualized psychological constructs rather than organizational level constructs. So, there have been virtually no studies, which explore or address the topic of empirical rigour at an organizational level.

At an individual level, some studies have found support for the efficacy of coaching. For example, a quasi-experimental study by Evers et al. (2006) sought to determine whether coaching leads to the achievement of individual goals. It found that a coached group scored significantly higher than the control group on: outcome expectancies, which related to acting in a balanced way; and self-efficacy beliefs, which related to set one's own goals (Evers et al. 2006). Similarly, a study by Kombarakaran et al. (2008) demonstrated that executive coaching is an effective method of leadership development. Results indicated that executive change occurred in five areas, including: people management, relationships with managers, goal setting and prioritization, engagement and productivity, and dialogue and communication. Although the main purpose of the study was not to investigate the efficacy of coaching at an organizational level constructs, it was suggested that a robust coaching program can contribute to leadership development and the retention of talent. In addition, Kushnir et al. (2008) investigated the effects of participation in a coaching project in nursing, on the coach’s training motivation, skills acquisition, self-efficacy, professional attitudes, and transfer of training and professional performance. Compared with the control group, the coaches improved in training motivation, self-efficacy and behavioural transfer of several key nursing skills.

Also, other studies have explored the development and applicability of particular empirical instruments to coaching (McLean et al. 2005; Peterson and Little 2005; Orenstein 2006), but again, none of these explore or addresses the topic of empirical rigour and implications at an organizational level. Whilst Orenstein (2006) does describe some of the issues that occur early in coaching interventions, broader issues related to rigour are not explored for organizations desiring to pursue this course. Broadly speaking, the lack of discussion about this issue suggests that the input of management scholars is needed to help them achieve this.
**Theme 6.2A:** The embedding of rigour in a coaching design is important to the extent that a lack of rigour may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. It is therefore a device of coaching.

The literature argues that without a rigorous approach to coaching design informed by a sound andragogy the resultant learning and development will be mediocre at best. This is supported by Styhre and Josephson (2007) who suggests that the consequences of poor coaching design are disappointment and cynicism. This is consistent with the findings of this study that suggest that the existence of some kind of rigour in the coaching design is important to the extent that a lack of it around coaching may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. For one organization, a lack of KPIs meant that it was difficult for them to determine whether their coaching program had been successful or not, and although based on anecdotal evidence, contributed to its perceived failure and subsequent discontinuation. Similarly, whilst some organizations may be clear about what they are trying to achieve through coaching, they still may not have the baseline data to facilitate evaluation or attribute coaching as a cause. For another organization, a lack of data about its retention rate prior to coaching made it difficult to determine if coaching was a viable solution to staff turnover or not. But, as the data suggests, the success of coaching at an individual level can only be understood if a coachee is willing to submit to an objective evaluation such as 360 degree feedback, however, the motivation to do so may not be evident. It may be that some coachees may not be committed to a 360 degree assessment, which provides important baseline and longitudinal data. So, no matter how rigorous the design this may be an impediment. This insight extends the view of the literature, which also lists some other reasons that coaching may fail due to individual resistance. However, this study is the first to make this connection between individual resistance as limiting factor in organizational design.

Because of a lack of empirical data, there was uncertainty about the efficacy of one coaching program, which in turn contributed to their determination that it was not worth continuing to invest the funds into coaching. This finding is consistent with that of the literature, which suggests that baseline data to track improvement needs to be collected at the outset of the coaching as a benchmark against which change can be measured (Ulrich 2008). In order for this to occur though, organizations must have some idea of what they are trying to achieve (Rock and Donde 2008b), which can be captured in the development of goals and KPIs. This has been recognized as important at an individual level by a number of authors (Ket De Vries 2005; Grant 2007).

When viewed in the context of continual improvement, the organization described above
hadn’t utilized coaching as an organization development tool before, so a lack of rigour might be understandable under these circumstances. The deficits of a coaching program can be corrected overtime as the organization learns from its omissions and in that sense ‘evolves’. Although one manager as coach suggested that program would have been more successful if it had been more proactively designed, this is often not practical until knowledge and insight has first been gained through experience.

**Theme 6.2B**: Because of the limitations of a scientific approach to coaching (empirical rigour) i.e. with regard to measuring coachee’ progress and the delivery of feedback around this, and that empirical instruments can only approximate reality, an understanding of these limitations for organizations is a device of coaching as much as the instruments themselves.

Whilst there is little in literature about the limitations of assessment tools and the challenges of capturing reality, it is implied. For example, it is suggested that feedback data collected must be analyzed based on patterns they have identified in the data rather than on one off events. This is in recognition of the fact that individual events cannot be relied upon (Ulrich 2008). It is also implied that the use of multiple sources of data in coaching is a good thing, for example, in addition to 360 degree feedback (Maurer et al. 2002; Thach 2002; Smither et al. 2003). Suggested data sources include: a time log/diary, which enables the coach to review the behaviour of the coachee and see what changes should be made (Ulrich 2008); the Coaching Score Card (Leedham 2005); Johari Window (Nicholls 1993); Balanced Score Card (Sparrow 2008) and others. Although the value of these sources is recognized in literature, the value of using multiple sources of data in one coaching intervention or program (as suggested by the findings of this study) is undetermined. To this extent, the findings of this study are likely unique.

The data suggests that despite the potential value of adopting a scientific approach to coaching there are some key limitations, which need to be accounted for. For example, because of the multi-dimensional nature of change, it may be difficult to isolate the contribution that coaching makes to organizational change even if the KPIs are known i.e. there may be multiple factors involved. This may be frustrating for some coaching stakeholders, for example, HR departments, who may want to assess the progress of a coaching candidate or coaching program, because, it may not be possible. This suggests that there may be a disconnection between coaching process and its results, which no amount of rigour can correct. Several coaches in the study supported this idea. One suggested that this is because people are complex and individual change is not a linear progression. Two others suggested that a coach is limited in the kind of feedback they can give to
management, and so, it is better to let the management to come to their own conclusions about the progress that has been made. The latter would no doubt be a point of angst for instrumentally driven HR departments, and the lack of empirical data a reason they perceived coaching as a failure.

Another reason for the limitations of an instrumental approach to coaching is that the models and frameworks it uses to measure progress are only an approximation for change, and therefore, no matter how valid and reliable are not a universal prescription. One coach makes this point, suggesting that in one organization he coaches for the multi-dimensional competency scale is used as a measure of performance is inadequate on its own. He says that other factors must be accounted for, such as personal style, which will mean that each person will achieve competency in different ways and the achievement of competencies may be overlooked or overstated depending on the person assessing progress based on those metrics. He also suggests that other sources of data should be used (he utilized three). Because of these factors, the use of a valid and reliable assessment tools in coaching can help guard against errors. A favoured instrument appears to be the 360 instrument, which is used to test-retest coachee performance and measure the achievement of important milestones in coaching. As established in the previous section, it is important that the coach build some degree of measurability and tracking of progress, which is something that appears to be made possible by a robust 360-degree feedback instrument. As the literature suggests, the inclusion of significant others in the coaching process provides a forum for accountability and facilitates this process (Ulrich 2008).

Theme 6.2C: Even if an organization has the available tools to facilitate the adoption of a scientific approach to coaching, their lack of resolve and commitment to a scientific approach to coaching may be an impediment to achieving rigour. On this basis, these are then a device of coaching.

The findings suggest that the availability of suitable tools for evaluating the success of a coaching initiative and their high cost might be another limitation of adopting a scientific approach to coaching for an organization. One coach in particular suggests that the high cost of securing sophisticated tools means that it is difficult to give an exact quantitative outcome reflecting the success of coaching. As suggested earlier, the lack of availability of measurement tools may detract from the success of the coaching to the extent that it limits the ability to approximate reality more fully. Two other findings of this study concern the organization’s resolve to embed rigour into the coaching system i.e. an organization’s resolve and commitment to a scientific approach to coaching may be an impediment to achieving rigour. In short, an organization may have the tools to embed
rigour, but they not have the commitment to implement it. For example, despite creating a rigorous coaching contract between one organization and their coach, it wasn’t enforced. Reasons cited included the personality of the coach, which was unstructured, and also the organization's prioritization of coaching. It appeared that they had lost interest in the coaching and didn’t believe that it was effective in any case. This suggests that expectations for coaching may play a role in their commitment to implement rigour. But, as suggested earlier, without baseline data they were in no position to make this judgment.

6.3 STRUCTURE AS A DEVICE OF COACHING DESIGN

This section of the analysis explores structure as a device of coaching design and in particular, it seeks to delineate the dimensions of structure. The data suggests that organizations are very keen to establish a structure around their coaching initiatives, which they can use to anchor their approach. To achieve this, they attempt to develop clarity around a range of contextual markers, which serve as a key input to guide and direct the process of coaching and act as a benchmark for determining its effectiveness. For example, an organization’s learning and development strategy or management education programs might form an important part of the coaching structure. The analysis reveals that some organizations are able to be very clear about how they are going to structure their coaching initiatives, in part because they have well developed management education programs.

Another theme is that until organizations have clarity about the purposes, processes and effectiveness of their coaching initiatives, they will be unable to structure their coaching initiatives successfully. In practice, the data suggests that achieving an adequate structure may be difficult to achieve for even the most results driven organizations. Finally, feedback is discussed as an important anchor for a coaching program, and as such organizations attempt to generate various kinds of feedback as a structure for their coaching initiative. Some organizations are adept at utilizing this feedback as a part of an integrated approach, but it can be difficult for other organizations to collect and/or make good use of their feedback. Because it can be a challenge, organizations may rely on informal feedback mechanisms instead of formal ones. Even then, without the identification of structure around purpose, objectives, and benchmarks, the feedback will be virtually meaningless.
6.3.1 Dimensions of Structure

The data suggests that organizations are very keen to establish structure around their coaching initiatives, which they can use to anchor their approach. To do this, they may attempt to develop clarity around a range of contextual markers, for example, by creating objectives and protocols to frame it. As markers of the organizational context, these serve as a key input to guide and direct the process of coaching and as benchmark for determining its effectiveness. Coach 9 says that her organization developed some key protocols to guide coaching and intended to implement them for every coaching assignment

“…they were just simple things like upfront we would agree what the objectives were, we would have reviews with the Line Manager and usually with the HR Manager, at least three times during the coaching assignment and we would measure success at the end.....”.

6.3.1.1 Learning and Development Strategy

An organization’s learning and development strategy (L&D) might form an important part of the structure in which coaching can be viewed as a complement to other developmental approaches it may use, such as mentoring. In this sense, both approaches can work toward a common goal of the L&D strategy, which is the development of the learning candidate. Coach 30 says that the organization has provided him with a mentor as well as a coach. From it he has discovered that there are different ways of approaching things

"...I have actually got a mentor and I have also got a coach. So, I have got two completely...different ways of approaching things. The coaching has actually really helped me understand a lot more about myself and how I operate, and some of the things that I tend to do and some of the ways that I behave....".

Coach 9 also suggests that her organization uses a range of other approaches, such as mentoring and role modeling as a part of their L&D strategy, which complement coaching

“…obviously, the manager plays a role in terms of feedback to the individual around their behaviours. …'you are not demonstrating this to the extent that you should be'. Sometimes you can use a process of the HR person sitting down with the individual and saying that this is a behaviour that you seem to struggle with, what can we do in terms of trying to build that? You are setting up feedback mechanisms so the person says, well know I am working on this project and you say well ‘as you work on this project I am going to work alongside of you and we are going to give you feedback on the extent to which you are
doing on a daily basis’. Or, ‘go and work along this person who is fantastic at it and see what you can learn’ …”.

She also says that she is trying to get managers to be more conscious of the development needs of their subordinates

“…I think to some extent coaching became a bit of strategy that you use when you don’t know what else to do. So, you get that individual who could be very successful….and you go – coaching! We are now trying to do a lot more work at the moment in terms of getting managers to think about identifying what people’s development needs are and thinking about the way that you can fill that…”.

Similarly, one manager says that their organization was in an early phase of their ‘coaching evolution’, and they recognized the relative value of having a robust learning and development plan and in the same way the deficiencies of not having had one. Coach 12 agrees that the organization has had an ad-hoc approach to human resource development, with little structure in terms of the way the training budget is allocated, evaluation, and accountability

"...Up until this point our organization hasn’t had a cohesive approach to learning and development. So we’ve had the budget, it’s been a training budget, but it’s been divvied up in haphazard ways with no rhythm or reason how it’s been divided....And sometimes the people who put their hand up and yell the loudest get the most training dollars. Sometimes lots of money will be spent on some training but there’s no follow up, no checking off - was it really needed and did it really produce the results that were desired for whatever they were trying to do?....".

However, he says that the organization has a definite agenda for its learning and development, and wants to create that kind of culture

"....as we’ve grown larger....I think we’ve said that we want to develop a culture of learning innovation empowerment. That’s kind of a catch phrase and that was there before I came on board… this was a priority to develop that culture. As a part of that they hired me. They created a role, a learning and development role....".

Similarly, some organizations with developed management education programs use it as a framework for coaching to operate within. Coach 6 says that organizations with developed management education programs have a structured approach to coaching in that they offer coaching as individual support for the leaders that participate in them
"…my experience with other organizations is that they’ve got much more of a very formal program of coaching, and a very conscious inclusion of coaching as an individual support within a broader leadership and management development program…".

She gives examples of several well-known organizations that use this approach

"…GP’s got this massive leadership program that includes all sort of different collective education things but then individual support - that sits behind it as well. Other organizations I’ve come across are GTA, Energy Australia - it’s now a fundamental plank, particularly at the management leadership level. It’s a fundamental plank in: a) providing coaching to their individuals to help them grow, but b) and more importantly in an organizational sense, teaching themselves how to be better coaches of their people…".

6.3.1.2 Goals and KPIs

Several coaches also report that they have worked with organizations, which seem to be very clear about how the goals they have for their initiatives. For example, Coach 7 describes the approach of one company, which had a clear structure in place and was clear that they wanted to increase their sales performance

"….I’d done some coaching with one company that was very clearly about organizational effectiveness, and that was a two year program. So they were putting all their senior managers through...... It was about changing their sales technique actually, but that was a two year program. …. They’re very results focused and very metric oriented…. [and] we did get a very, very good brief about what they were trying to achieve. And working in our feedback to them [about] what the organizational impact was from the coaching....”.

But, in practice, creating structure can be difficult to achieve, for even the most results driven organizations. Coach 15 says that this is because it is a challenge to identify appropriate metrics

"…There are organizations that are very metrics driven, and even those don’t seem to find it easy to put metrics around organizational effectiveness, and this particular intervention called coaching - so, that really stretches people almost beyond their point of sanity. Even in the heavily metric driven environment, I’ve found that …they don’t know how to put it together almost. It’s like too much...".

Coach 16 supports this, arguing that whilst organizations and individuals may want to be more effective, it can't be assumed that they know what this means. He says that they need clarity around
this and that this might be the purpose a coaching initially

"...that’s exactly my question. They want to be better and then you might ask the question ‘What’s better?’ ‘umm?, umm?’ So one of the techniques we’re actually using is to actually forget about the executive who might say ‘I need you to help me - I think I’ve got some issues’. We might spend the first five or six sessions with them actually coaching them purely around what better is for them. Because until you get to that point, what the point of going any further? It’s the same debate where we’ve had a couple of our leaders say ‘we’re going to have to measure this now, so we need to do our ROI’. ‘OK fella’s, how do you want to be measured?’ ‘I don’t know’. ‘Well maybe that might be a good point to start’…”.

But, even if organizations create structure, they must they must utilize it if their approaches are to be effective. If they don’t it may potentially explain the perceived lack of value gained from the coaching. Coach 9

"...We actually wrote that [protocols and measures] into the coach’s new contract when we did it, but we haven’t implemented it....I think the fault has been on both sides……talking with all of my peers, there was definitely a sense of, I don’t see the value of having a coach anymore. We are not really sure of the effectiveness....".

6.3.1.3 Feedback

Some organizations are adept at utilizing feedback as a part of an integrated approach at an organizational level, which can be viewed as an important part of the structure around coaching. According to Coach 7, an organization she coached for collected role feedback and processed it at an organizational level. It was collated and analyzed centrally by the organization to evaluate the success of the program. The process was overseen by one of the key members of the leadership hierarchy

“...At the end of every coaching program, one of the key conversations was ‘What’s been the benefit to you but also what do you think the return was on the organization has been?.....It was all collated centrally, because they were doing it globally, and I was working on this for European/Africa segment. So, it feed into a regional database, which was generally in the HR function. But that would have then fed into a corporate review of the program, and the sponsor was one of the key business leaders...".

But, it can be difficult for other organizations to collect and/or make good use of their feedback. For example, as indicated in the previous section, understanding the coaching process and aligning this with progress this may not be practical. This is evidenced in a comment by coach 4,
who says that HR are often focused on the approach, when they should be focused on the message instead

"...I find it often that HR people, certainly not AG, who are obsessed with knowing well, what is the process and they want to talk about the method not the message...if a sponsor or an HR person thinks that you follow this series of steps from one to five, then that is not understanding the individual needs of the candidate....".

Also, as discussed in the previous section, generating formal feedback from coaching may be a challenge because of motivational and practical reasons. Because of this, organizations may rely on informal feedback mechanisms instead. But, even then without adequate structure to anchor the coaching i.e. purpose, objectives, benchmarks and KPIs, the feedback will be virtually meaningless. Coach 9 says that her organization hasn't developed KPIs, which she attributes that to the fact that maybe it was because the coaching program evolved rather than being proactively designed

"...I think this is an area that we really haven’t done well.....there were no formal ways of measuring the coaching intervention. So, most of the mechanisms by which we looked at success was informal feedback. What was the coachee saying about their experience, which was generally positive because they feel valued and invested in but, also what was the Manager saying about the experience?....it was not clear exactly what it was designed to do. There weren’t necessarily the right structures in place to review how it was going all the way through....".

### 6.3.2 Discussion

**Theme 6.3A:** Organizations require adequate structure around their coaching interventions to be effective because the structure helps to communicate underlying expectations to all stakeholders. To this extent, ‘structure’ is a device of coaching.

**Theme 6.3B:** In practice, organizations may struggle with how to structure their coaching initiatives because they need clarity around its dimensions, such as goals, KPIs, purposes and processes. Gaining clarity around these dimensions is then both a purpose and device of workplace coaching.

Structure in coaching serves as a important input to guide and direct the process and act as a benchmark for determining its effectiveness. Structure may take the form of a statement of protocols to guide the implementation of coaching assignments, which outline the key expectations of the organization for all stakeholders. Several coaches reported that they have worked with
organizations, which seem to be very clear about what they want to achieve through coaching and have clear goals. For example, one coach suggested that one company she works with who fits this profile wanted to increase their sales performance.

The data also suggests that in practice, this can be difficult to achieve though, for even the most results driven organizations may struggle to anchor their interventions. This is because it is a challenge to identify appropriate goals and metrics, and, it can't be assumed that they know what it means to be more effective i.e. they may need clarity around this. Because of this, the coaching may be about gaining that clarity. But, as established in the previous section, even if there is clarity around this, they must they must action it if their approaches are to be effective. If they don’t, it may potentially explain the perceived lack of value gained from the coaching.

Although there are many case studies in literature about the use of coaching, there is little known about coaching protocols, which could provide insight into the organizational interest in coaching. This was briefly explored in the literature review, which established that the broader interest of coaching for organizations incorporates both instrumental and humanistic domains. Specifically, it suggested that there is a growing recognition in organizations of the need to cater for the human element of work, and coaching is viewed by some as a key to achieving this. In practice, this means catering for professional and personal needs as opposed to simply their technical needs (Berg and Karl sen 2007), which might include: emotions and aspirations (Bachkirova and Cox 2007), family needs (Quick and Macik-Frey 2004), work-life balance ( McCarthy 2007), and health needs ( Okie 2007). There is also a discussion in literature about what is needed to make professional development practices effective and suggestions that methods like coaching and mentoring embody some of the qualities needed such as accountability and flexibility to accommodate continuous learning ( O'Connor and Ertmer 2006) and learning transfer ( Olivero et al. 1997; Locke 2008). The literature review also established that individual industries will have their own challenges and therefore dictate variations in the objectives that they have through coaching. Whilst all of these elements may be reflected in the design of a coaching initiative, a greater understanding is needed of the challenges associated with structuring them, as this is not explored at an organizational level in the literature.
Theme 6.3C: An organization’s learning and development strategy is a unifying structure, under which sit a number of complementary approaches to development (including coaching, mentoring and role modelling). Under this framework, each can work toward the common goals of the L&D strategy. From this perspective, an organization’s L&D strategy is an important device of coaching.

It is clear from literature that there are similarities and differences between coaching and other approaches. For example, executive coaching is known to be a relatively expensive approach to development (Rock and Donde 2008a; Rock and Donde 2008b) and for that reason often reserved for senior and executive leadership especially in external coaching ((Kombarakaran et al. 2008; Coutu and Kauffman 2009; Freedman and Perry 2010). However, other forms of coaching such as peer coaching are used at lower levels of the hierarchy (Ladyshewsky 2006; Parker et al. 2008; Ladyshewsky 2010). Coaching is not performance management (Gaskell 2007; Truijen and Woerkom 2008); nor is it mentoring (O'Connor and Ertmer 2006; Wiegand 2007); and coaching is not training (Olivero et al. 1997; Styhre and Josephson 2007). That coaching is a complementary approach to other development initiatives is acknowledged within the literature, although, these differences warrant further investigation.

To this end, this study suggest that an organization’s learning and development strategy might form an important part of the structure in which coaching can be viewed as a complement to other developmental approaches, such as mentoring and role modelling. In this sense, both approaches can work toward a common goal of the L&D strategy. This is a view supported by a wide range of participants in the study. For example, it was illustrated in practice by one organization, which appointed both a mentor and a coach to a leader. The benefit is that he discovered that there are different ways of approaching things, which is a perspective that he might not have gained had he only been coach or mentored. A second organization viewed coaching as a companion to a range of other approaches, such as mentoring and role modelling, which are also used as a performance remediation and enhancement strategy. Yet another organization recognized the relative value of having a robust learning and development plan and the deficiencies of not having had one. Their lack of a plan has resulted in an ad-hoc approach to human resource development, with little structure in terms of the way the training budget is allocated, evaluation, and accountability - this appears to have manifested in a somewhat adhoc approach to coaching also. However, he says that the organization has a definite agenda for its learning and development strategy, and wants to create a culture of learning. At the time of the study, they were in the process of developing a comprehensive L&D strategy to address this. Whilst this study makes a unique
contribution by exploring the distinctiveness of coaching and its complement to other approaches within the L&D framework, it would be useful to know to what extent organizations view coaching as distinct to other approaches, and how this impacts on its purpose and use within organizations.

**Theme 6.3D:** The collection and utilization of formal feedback is a necessary component of the structure needed to inform coaching design. The collection of feedback is a process that a coach may be involved in. In this regard, the collection of feedback is both a purpose and a device of coaching.

**Theme 6.3E:** Because of the challenges associated with the data collection process and to gain the most benefit for the organization, it may be necessary for the process to be centralized and sponsored by a key business leader in the organization. In this regard, they are both devices of coaching.

The other important scaffold for design identified in this research study concerns feedback. Already, in the previous section of this thesis, it was established that feedback was important to developing a rigorous and instrumental approach to coaching in terms of its ability to help an organization determine if it has been successful or not. It was suggested that generating feedback for this purpose can be a challenge. But, the capability of an organization to make use of this feedback to evaluate and inform coaching design is also another consideration.

Organizations attempt to generate various kinds of feedback as a formative anchor for their coaching initiative, but the way in which feedback systems are utilized at an organizational level in coaching is not really a topic of discussion in the literature, as it tends to focus on 360 degree feedback systems and describe how this is used to benefit individual coachees. The knowledge about feedback in literature is almost entirely related to the individual coachee and coach. For example, it is understood that coachees need they need feedback for improving self-awareness and to be able to make behaviour change (Levinson 1996; Judge and Cowell 1997) and that they may need some assistance from a coach to clarify and make sense of it (Tobias 1996; Berriman 2007). But, it is at least acknowledged, that making sense of feedback requires a coach and coachee to relate it back to the business context, the organizational agenda or situation (Smither et al. 2003; Jones et al. 2006). The review also suggested that an ideal culture in an organization is one in which there is free flowing feedback from managers and subordinates. A significant responsibility of the manager as coach toward this ideal is the delivery of on-going feedback to develop insights (Witherspoon and White 1996; Luthans and Peterson 2003). So, there is little delineated from an organizational perspective, which is a significant gap.
The findings of the study suggest that some organizations are adept at utilizing this feedback as a part of an integrated approach. One coach described the approach taken by a client organization that collected role level feedback, but processed this at an organizational level. This was achieved via a centralized system in which the data about individuals is collated and analysed to evaluate the success of its overall coaching program. Importantly, this process was overseen by one of the key members of the leadership hierarchy, which might explain the clarity that the organization had about the success of the program. There is a potential issue though, given that the data indicates that a coach can be an active part of this process i.e. by collecting the data and delivering this to the HR department. However, one wonders if their involvement might represent a conflict of interest for the coach, given that it is there approach that is being evaluated. This may be why one coach in the previous section suggested that he prefers to leave the evaluation of the coachee’s progress to the organization itself.

But, the data also suggested that it could be difficult for other organizations to collect and/or make good use of their feedback. For example, as indicated earlier, understanding the process and aligning this with progress this may not be practical. As discussed, generating formal feedback from coaching may be a challenge because of motivational and practical reasons and may rely on informal feedback mechanisms instead. But, even then, without the identification of contextual markers to anchor the coaching i.e. purpose, objectives, benchmarks the feedback will be virtually meaningless. This is because, as established in the previous section, their absence doesn’t lend itself to the development of KPIs.

PART D: CONCLUSION

This section of the data analysis, Part D, has explored coaching design as a device of workplace coaching. A total of eight themes have been explored from the findings, across two main sections. The first section, 6.5, investigated rigour as a device of an instrumental approach to coaching. It explored the value of a rigorous approach to coaching, the limitations of a rigorous approach and organizational impediment to rigour. It could be concluded that rigour is an important input into successful coaching, as it helps an organization to capture a more objective reality, and in that way make more informed decisions about its success. Of particular importance is the establishment of baseline and summative data. However, rigour alone is not sufficient to facilitate the adoption of a scientific approach to coaching. Rather, the multi-dimensional nature of change,
and limitations of the instruments utilized to capture reality play are limiting factors, as it the resolve and commitment of an organization toward rigour.

There were three specific themes that were explored from these conclusions. The first is that the embedding of rigour in a coaching design is important to the extent that a lack of rigour may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. It is therefore could be construed as a device of coaching. But, the second theme suggests that because of the limitations of a scientific approach to coaching with regard to measuring coachee’ progress and the delivery of feedback around this, that empirical instruments can only approximate reality - an understanding of these limitations for organizations is a device of coaching as much as the devices themselves. Finally, even if an organization has the available tools to facilitate the adoption of a scientific approach to coaching, their lack of resolve and commitment to a scientific approach to coaching may be an impediment to achieving rigour. On this basis, their resolve and commitment could also be understood as a device of coaching.

The second section, 6.6, investigated structure as a device of coaching design. It explored the dimensions of structure in five themes. The first established the importance of structure in coaching design. It suggests that organizations require adequate structure around their coaching interventions to be effective because the structure helps to communicate underlying expectations to all stakeholders. To this extent, ‘structure’ is a device of coaching. But, the second theme suggests that in practice, organizations may struggle with how to structure their coaching initiatives because they need clarity around its dimensions, such as goals, KPIs, purposes and processes. Gaining clarity is then both a purpose and device of workplace coaching.

The third theme suggests that overarching importance of an organization’s learning and development strategy because it is a unifying structure, under which sit a number of complementary approaches to development (including coaching, mentoring and role modelling). Under this framework, each can work toward the common goals of the L&D strategy. From this perspective, an organization’s L&D strategy is an important device of coaching.

Another important dimension to structure was found is feedback. This theme suggests that the collection and utilization of formal feedback is a necessary component of the structure needed to inform coaching design. The collection of feedback is a process that a coach may be involved in. In this regard, the collection of feedback is both a purpose and a device of coaching. The final theme
suggests that because of the challenges associated with the data collection process and to gain the most benefit for the organization, it may be necessary for the process to be centralized and sponsored by a key business leader in the organization. In this regard, they are both devices of coaching.

6.4 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This second chapter of the data analysis has explored the people and systems of coaching in order to better understand the purposes and devices of coaching management. A total of 18 themes were formulated regarding the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. The chapter was divided into two sections, Part C and D, which three main subsections. The parts were entitled: leadership effectiveness as a device of workplace coaching; and coaching design as a device of workplace coaching. Consequently, the three relationships explored in these three parts include: 1. Systems leadership as a device of organizational systems; 2. Rigour as a device of an instrumental approach to coaching; and 3. Structure as a device of coaching design. A summary of the main themes about the purposes and devices of workplace coaching in a management context, are formatted below as a ‘narrative’ to help crystallize the contribution of the chapter.

The narrative below provides a concise explanation of the purposes and devices of coaching in management in a way that has not been done to date in an integrated way in the coaching literature. This fulfils an objective of this study, which was to provide a foundation for the future development of the management coaching literature. For a full list of the all of the themes formulated in chapter 6, please refer to the Appendix D.

6.4.1 Part C Summary: Leadership effectiveness as a device of workplace coaching

The relative success of coaching within organization may be linked strongly to the individual managers involved, who play a significant part in related organizational systems. For example, for the career development process to be of strategic significance, they must ensure that the development priorities the sub-ordinate sets for themselves are aligned with the organization’s agenda and their job description.

In terms of the performance appraisal process, it can be used as a justification for the coaching in its identification of areas for development. It is the manager involved in its implementation who identifies areas for employee development. But, the decisions a manager makes about who will and will not receive coaching may be a function of the quality of the relationship (LMX) that a manager has with a sub-ordinate. If a manager has a high LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate, then they may support coaching for that sub-ordinate, but, not another. Conversely, if a leader has a low LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate they may not be as willing to recommend coaching to help them personally. If they do, the reasons stated may be more functional than personal. This has implications
for who may or may not receive coaching, and those in need of it may not receive it.

A purpose of a coaching approach is to enhance the performance management and appraisal process, however, coaching is a distinctly separate process. If it is perceived as a separate, the level of buy-in for coaching from leaders as coaches and subordinates may be low. Stakeholder education about the differences may be needed to overcome these misunderstandings. Although the performance appraisal system is separate to the coaching process, it can still be characterized by more of a coaching approach in which the manager encourages a sub-ordinate to be self-directed, and use relationship power rather than formal authority to influence their development. Finally, it is important that one subordinate performance deficiencies have been identified through a performance appraisal, it is important that the true cause of the poor sub-ordinate performance are diagnosed. If it reveals that a part of the problem is their supervising manager, then they may need coaching also in how to be a better manager as coach i.e. develop people management skills. If they receive it, then it will result in better allocation of coaching resources and more effective coaching. If not, then the poor performance of the subordinate may continue.

Organizational change will be more achievable if the executive leadership in an organization is united as a team, and the effects will be more pronounced. This is because as a team they are more likely to exemplify the kind of behaviours they expect others, and be more committed to the prioritization of a culture of empowerment and opportunity. This in turn then sets the agenda for the organization, and further mandates the need and value of coaching throughout the organization. Similarly, executive leadership involvement in a coaching program results in a higher level of buy-in for coaching, and it is therefore more likely to spread rapidly and in that sense have a strategic effect. But, the existence of a poor leadership culture in an organization, expressed by an indifference to employees may act as a barrier to successful coaching and limit intended organizational change.

From the point of view of knowledge management, if leaders in an organization have an opportunity to network and share their experiences with other leaders who have received coaching as part of the coaching experience, it can have a strategic effect in an organization.

6.4.2 Part D Summary: Coaching design as a device of workplace coaching

The embedding of rigour in a coaching design is important to the extent that a lack of it may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. But, it is not a fix-it-all, because of the limitations of rigour, which are important for organizations to understand for successful coaching. It may be difficult to measure the true extent of a coachee’s progress, because it may not be fully reflected in the KPIs that are chosen by an organization. Similarly, the empirical instruments that organizations and coaches use for this purpose may not be valid or reliable, and even if they are, they can only approximate reality – because of this, multiple sources of data should be collected. These factors may frustrate the development effort, and HR departments, who may want specific and timely updates about progress to justify their investment. Alternatively, even if an organization has the available tools to facilitate rigour, their lack of resolve and commitment to a scientific approach to coaching will be an impediment to achieving it.

Organizations also require adequate structure around their coaching interventions to be effective because the structure helps to communicate underlying expectations to all stakeholders. But, in practice, organizations may struggle with how to structure their coaching initiatives because they do not have clarity around its dimensions, such as goals, KPIs, purposes and processes. This clarity is needed if an adequate supportive structure is to be developed to scaffold the coaching approach.

Sometimes coaching is complemented by other approaches to development. As such, an organization’s learning and development strategy is a supportive and unifying structure, under which sit a number of complementary approaches to development (including coaching, mentoring and role modelling). Under this framework, each can work toward together toward the common goals of the
Similarly, the collection and utilization of formal feedback is a necessary component of the structure needed to inform coaching design. The collection of feedback is a process that a coach may be involved in, but, there may be conflicts of interest if they do, given that it is their coaching that is being assessed. Because of the challenges associated with the data collection process and to gain the most benefit for the organization, it may be necessary for the process to be centralized and sponsored by a key business leader in the organization who can co-ordinate the system.
CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

7.0  INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews this thesis in its entirety. It begins with a thesis overview in which the main findings of each individual chapter is summarized i.e. the introduction, literature review, methodology, data analysis, and conclusions and implications. It then specifies the theoretical and practical value of the findings that have been made by this study, as well as their limitations. Finally, further areas for research are proposed.

7.1  Thesis overview

- Chapter 2

This thesis began with an introductory chapter, which outlined the research problem and rationale for the research, a scope for the study contained within and an overview of its structure. This was then followed by an extensive literature review of the relevant academic and practitioner literature concerning the purposes and devices of workplace coaching in management. It contained two distinct chapters.

The first, chapter 2 focused on mapping the coaching disciplines and was composed of three sections. The first was analysis of the structure of the workplace coaching literature, which considered the structural boundaries of the workplace coaching body of knowledge. This was achieved by mapping the composition and intersection of the disciplines associated with coaching. The body of literature on coaching is comprised of 381 academic and consultant papers. The inclusion of consultant/practitioner articles in this review was defended because of the affinity it has with management as an applied discipline. It was also found that the literature is comprised of a vast number of single disciplinary articles, and much less cross-disciplinary research.

The second section of chapter 2 was a theoretical exploration of the workplace coaching disciplines. It explored the non-management theoretical origins of workplace coaching including psychology, education, health, sociology and sport. It served to highlight the theoretical and philosophical perspectives of each, which might inform an understanding of the purposes, devices
or mechanisms of workplace coaching. Each of the disciplines was found to provide some insight about the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. For instance, the review of the psychology suggests that it has a role to play in the development of coaching theory in terms of understanding and influencing human behaviour, and its purposes and devices revolve around the regulation of it. It was noted that the topic of positive psychology would be of great interest to management scholars, who are pre-occupied with improving performance behaviour for the benefit of organizations. The review also suggests that whilst there is some similarity between sports coaching and workplace coaching, their skill sets and models for practice seem to be substantially different, and caution must be applied in drawing from studies conducted in the sports arena to develop the workplace arena. Similarly, the review of the education discipline suggests that is very much in its infancy with respect to its exploration of coaching. It performs a valuable function in developing frameworks for best education practice and has a clear role in guiding andragogical practice and competency frameworks upon which coaching and learning outcomes can be developed. A small number of papers address the study of workplace coaching in the context of the healthcare setting. Finally, sociological research was found to be a relatively new and unexplored in coaching literature.

The third section of chapter 2 examined the management literature on coaching. It began by revisiting and expanding on the analysis of the structure of the management coaching literature and then delineated the broader management concepts. It was established that there is a long association, which it was thought implied that coaching performs a useful purpose within a management context. But, because there is virtually no discussion of a ‘management coaching literature’ there was a need to distinguish management as a discipline in the coaching body of knowledge to clarify its contribution and to guide its future development. A number of important conclusions were made with relevance to this study. For example, it was suggested that any management theory of workplace coaching must be specific to the workplace domain. It was established that the incorporation of the workplace context as a backdrop for coaching in the management discipline separates it from other disciplines like psychology, which are not as context specific. 231 management articles were identified in the review. It was determined that there are almost twice as many papers focused on the delineation of individual level constructs than those focused on organizational level ones, which has particular relevance for this study given that the latter is its focus.
The need for coaching from a management perspective was delineated in conceptual terms, and explored from both individual and organizational perspectives. From this, the purposes and devices of workplace coaching were implied. For example, for individual employees it was determined that the main reason for coaching was to address the differentiated learning needs that they have at various stages in their work-life and/or kinds of work roles they are engaged in. Coaching was viewed as a means of facilitating this learning to help overcome the constraints and adapt to the demands of their job. For organizations, it was determined that they have a range of needs with respect to coaching that are both instrumental and humanistic in nature, and the instrumental ones include: improving retention rates, succession planning, overcoming role constraints, leadership development, developing thinking capital, and increasing andragogical effectiveness.

- Chapter 3

The second chapter of the literature review focused on the practical purposes and devices of workplace coaching, which was an appropriate focus given that workplace coaching and management are applied disciplines. It reviewed some of the major debates and issues outlined in practice in the coaching literature, which reflect the complexity of real-world scenarios that may inform the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. A number of themes were explored in this section of the review, including quick-fixes, resistance, dichotomies, perceptions, behaviour, transfer of learning, qualifications and continuing professional development (CPD) stress and time.

The review suggested that the purpose of coaching is not just defined by the end-game of organization and individual development, but that it is confounded by enormous complexities along the way and so must be process driven. The process reflects the complexity of its stakeholders and the context in which they participate. The process orientation does suggest that the devices of coaching are therefore important as a catalyst for negotiating and overcoming the complexity. A number of purposes and devices were implied from the literature, including: helping organization achieve genuine and timely solutions to problems that interfere with their mission; overcoming resistance; a systematic approach to selecting candidates for coaching is required; educational remedies to address coachee perceptions; appropriate leadership behaviour; coach preparation for a coaching intervention; learning transfer; education and qualifications; better stress management; and the availability of time to devote to coaching is a device of coaching.
- Chapter 4

This chapter overviewed and justified the methodology utilized in this research. The small number of interpretive studies and identification of management specific constructs suggests that an interpretive approach is needed to further delineate the workplace coaching phenomena. Consequently, an exploratory research design was chosen because of its efficacy in achieving this. The major assumptions of the interpretive paradigm have been explored and its effects on practice and the research design were delineated. This was followed by an exploration of the meaning and implications of research design, which was further outlined in terms of the goals and purpose of the research, the sampling strategy, data collection and analysis procedures.

- Chapter 5 and 6

The data analysis was divided into two chapters. Chapter 5 explored the broader management context in order to better understand the purposes and devices of coaching management; and the second explored people and systems. A total of 43 themes were explored regarding the purposes and devices of workplace coaching. These chapters were divided into four main sections, Part A–D, which constituted a statement of purpose and/or devices relevant to workplace coaching. The following four purposes/devices were explored, including Organizational effectiveness; Organizational culture; Systems Leadership; and Coaching Design.

For each of these, there were sub-themes, which were explored and delineated them further. In total, there were eight of these, which included: Individual effectiveness as a device of organizational effectiveness; 2. Internal capability as a device of workplace coaching; 3. Teamwork as a device of organizational effectiveness; 4. Organizational culture as a device of collective strength; and 5. Leadership and developmental support as a device of coaching culture; 6. Systems leadership as a device of organizational systems; 7. Rigour as a device of an instrumental approach to coaching; and 8. Structure as a device of coaching design. A summary of the main findings of the four overarching themes are provided below. For a more concise version of the contribution of this study, see the section 7.2 outlines the key learnings and key contributions.
7.1.1 Organizational effectiveness

The section of the thesis on organizational effectiveness was about exploring the composition of effectiveness and its devices. There were three devices of organizational effectiveness explored, including: individual effectiveness, internal capability, and teamwork. In the first sub-theme about individual effectiveness, the study initially attempted to explore the broad assumption in literature that there is a link between coaching and organizational effectiveness. It found evidence for and against the idea that coaching can make this contribution. The affirmative findings reinforce those of the literature (Bright and Crockett 2012; McDermott and Neault 2012), but the presence of more than expected disconfirming evidence suggests that it may not lead to effectiveness. This is something that is not apparent in literature and therefore a unique contribution. In terms of explaining the potential link between individual and organizational effectiveness, the basic thesis was that organization effectiveness appears to be intimately linked with that of the individual and can have broad and cumulative implications for organizations when collectively applied as evidenced in measures such as retention, succession, and job satisfaction. Further, it was suggested that the manager as coach role is an important mechanism for facilitating this success by leveraging the contributions of individuals. It is through their impact on other individuals within the organizational system that organizations are transformed via a ‘trickledown effect’. But, to explain the disconfirming evidence, the study suggests that the impact of coaching may be limited by elements of the organizational context and because of this complexity, the effect of coaching on an individual may not translate into organizational benefits. This is significant, because there is only a small cross section of literature that explores the impact of individual issues on the broader organization (McNally and Lukens 2006; Okie 2007; Paschke 2007; Styhre and Josephson 2007) and even fewer that single out the organizational context as a device (Hackman and Wageman 2005).

The focus in the second sub-theme about internal capabilities explored the idea that they are an input to organizational effectiveness. It drew on the extensive discussions in literature that support the idea that a good leader is one who has good people skills, and that technical skills are no compensation for this (Kiel et al. 1996; Stern 2004; Ket De Vries 2005; Barner 2006; Jones and Spooner 2006; Heslin et al. 2006; Ladysheswsky 2010). However, the review found that literature does not make a substantive link between internal capabilities i.e. leadership skill, and organizational effectiveness. The findings of this study emphasize the importance of leadership skill, suggesting that despite an adequate business structure or operating environment, leaders will
still not be able to effectively execute strategy if they lack the skills required to manage people. Building on the findings about the limitations of the organizational context in the first theme, it was concluded that both an appropriate organizational context, as well as leadership skills are required for organizational effectiveness. Similarly, a popular notion is that a manager needs to empower their employees as an essential part of the role (Ellinger et al. 1999; Ellinger and Keller 2003; Ellinger et al. 2008; Ladyshewsky 2010). However, it was established that there was little discussion in literature about the coachee’s individual differences, which may pre-dispose them to be able to cope with the responsibilities that come with being empowered. That is, they need to become more self-directed when empowered, and the findings of this study suggest that their level of readiness, stress levels, time availability and learning how to learn skills might be factors to consider.

The third sub-theme about teamwork explored the idea that there was a link between coaching, teamwork and organizational effectiveness, but found that this link was tenuous (Bolt on 1999; McDermott et al. 2007; Powers and Summers 2009). The findings of this study suggest that teamwork is important because it can enhance productive activities such as planning and execution, and that without it one of the consequences is a lack of communication. In turn, this results in team inefficiencies characterized by an increase in workload and difficulty improving systems. Building on the previous theme about internal capability, there is some evidence in the literature that supports the idea that a leader as coach can facilitate a better team environment (Ellinger and Bostrom 1999; Ket Devries 2005; Locke 2008) and the findings of this paper concur. They suggest that a leader who learns to become a better manager as coach will become more effective as they learn to create an environment more conducive to team work, which benefits the entire team. Creating an environment more conducive to team work means being more effectively in engagement, learning to influence colleagues, improving levels of empowerment and creating an environment in which colleagues are willing to share information. But, whilst coaching can create social conditions in which teamwork and social networks can be improved, the findings suggest that this will only occur if the process is well understood by the organization and its participants; this is especially true for the manager as coach who is the facilitator of coaching conversations. If not, then confusion about the process will mean that coaching may be used inappropriately as a performance management or appraisal tool, result in poor uptake of coaching, and the development of poor group social conditions.
7.1.2 Organizational culture

The second major theme in the thesis, which was about organizational culture, explored the relationship between culture and coaching. The findings suggest that there are two devices of coaching, including: collective strengths, and leadership and developmental support. The first sub-theme about collective strength explored the notion of ‘coaching culture’ as an important dimension of the organizational context. It found that whilst there is a discussion about individual strengths in literature (Peterson and Seligman 2004; Elston and Boniwell 2012), there was a virtual absence of research in the literature about how this applies at strategic or organizational level of analysis (Allenbaugh 1983; Krazmien and Berger 1997). The findings of this study suggest that in the context of organizational culture, a coaching orientation is one in which organizations aim to develop the strengths of high potential people, who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role. It is suggested that at different points in the economic cycle, pockets of weakness will inevitably manifest themselves in the organization, which should not only be considered a norm, but an indicator of health (if the organization is growing) and therefore providing development opportunities for their employees. The findings also suggest that an organization with a strengths orientation acts in particular ways toward their employees. For instance, their leadership have a positive view of people and are highly supportive. Because they value their employees, they emphasize strengths not weaknesses to the extent that they prefer to work to overcome weaknesses in an employee to retain them, even if their deficiencies are significant. These characteristics were thought to be at the heart of a coaching culture, but the antithesis of one that considers its employees to be a ‘part of the problem’, and so it is doubtful that coaching approach can be effective in that kind of environment. Whilst coaching culture is the ‘ideal’ scenario in which coaching can occur, the findings of this study suggest that it may be a challenge for leaders to exist or adapt to this environment. This is because to ‘speak in human development terms’ about subordinates may not be easy if they have been a part of an environment in the past in which people are considered to ‘the problem’; and/or if they struggle to engage subordinates at an emotional level. Consequently, the findings suggested that not all leaders will be willing to adopt this language and attitude, and therefore cannot be considered the most appropriate person to coach subordinates around their potential and strengths and weaknesses.

The second sub-theme about developmental support built on the first, exploring the kinds of roles that a manager as coach performs in supporting employees as they go through the developmental process, and how this compares to other forms of support. It was suggested that
although the idea that a coach provides support is not new in the literature Kilburg 1997; Pollitt 2008),
the study established that the kind of support that employees may need is not always obvious to an
organization, and that the mode selected needs to be appropriate for what the organization is trying
to achieve. It was established that this is not something that had been discussed in literature. The
findings suggest that coaching may not be any more effective than other approaches such as
mentoring, and that coaching can in fact be adopted to strengthen other approaches to development.
For example, the findings clearly suggest that a manager as coach may work with an external coach
by monitoring the process and exchanging feedback with the coach and coachee. It also found that
for them to fulfill this role successfully, they may need support, which could involve them receiving
‘unofficial’ coaching. Whilst the literature suggests that roles coaches and mentors perform are
distinct, the findings of the study in fact suggest that this may not be the case. That is, the literature
suggests that coaches should not be prescriptive in favour of an appreciative approach to inquiry
(Gyllensten and Palmer 2005; Evers et al. 2006; Criddle 2007; Sparrow 2008); whereas the findings
of this study indicate that some of the coachees received ‘advice’ from their respective external
coaches who appeared to be acting as mentors not coaches. To this end, the issues raised in the
study concern the differences between giving and advice and prescription. Also, the same kind of
dilemma applies to role modeling, which is identified in the study as a device of the coach, and in
literature as a function of the manager as coach. However, it was thought that the ‘silence’ about
role modeling in the body of knowledge as it pertains to external coaches suggests that it may not be
one of their roles. This is somewhat contradicted though by the testimony of the external coaches in
this study, who asserted that they are indeed a role model to their subordinates.

7.1.3 Organizational systems

In the section of the thesis about leadership effectiveness, there was one theme explored,
which was the device of systems leadership. This theme was essentially about the inter-relationship
between organizational systems and the performance of the manager as coach within those systems.
In the coaching body of knowledge, organizational systems are virtually ignored and are only
discussed in very general terms. So, the findings of this study are relatively unique in that they
delineate the inter-relationship of a manager as coach within an organizational system. Within this
theme is explored the topics of performance management and appraisal (Allenbaugh 1983;
Ladyshewsky 2010); organizational change (Feldman 2001; Pollitt 2009) and knowledge
management (Ladyshewsky 2006; Vacilotto and Cummings 2007; DeHaan 2008).
In the first sub-theme, it was established that career development is perhaps the most explored in the literature, but there is little about the inter-relationship between the manager as coach and their performance within this system. The findings suggested that even if an organization takes steps to develop a career management or development system and wish to utilize coaching to support that system, the underlying philosophy and tools it develops for this purpose must be understood and supported by the managers using them. If not, those managers may not only decline to endorse the system, they may even discourage their subordinates from participating in it. The findings also suggested that as a coach, the manager as coach has an important role in guiding the career development process, specifically aligning the subordinates development plan to ensure that it supports the broader organizational strategy. If they believe that the priorities of the sub-ordinate are not aligned, then they are responsible for communicating that to the coachee and should “...draw the person back...”. In terms of LMX relationships, the findings suggested that the decisions a manager makes about who will and will not receive career-coaching support may be a function of the quality of the relationship that a manager has with a sub-ordinate. So, if a manager-sub-ordinate relationship is high LMX, then the manager may support coaching for that subordinate, but not another. Therefore, low LMX status means that some subordinates may miss out on career development opportunities because of the way in which it influences the allocation of development and coaching resources.

In the second sub-theme, it was established that there are relatively few papers, which provide insight about the performance management and appraisal process in the context of coaching. But, because these are important processes within organizational life and can potentially be seen to be at odds with coaching (Ladyshewsky 2010), there is a need for a lot more research in the area on this topic. This study concurred with the sentiments in literature, which suggest that the performance appraisal process is problematic. It re-enforces the point that performance appraisal and coaching are separate constructs, but emphasizes its usefulness as an input for coaching as a performance management tool. Specifically, the performance appraisal could be used as a reference point for a coaching conversation. However, the two processes i.e. performance appraisal and coaching, would need to remain separate, and be perceived by a coachee as distinct, otherwise coaching may be viewed as a punishment and they may decline to participate. Also, the literature supported the idea that a manager as coach should use relationship power to influence a subordinate to achieve their development and performance improvement, rather than the power of authority. In this study, which extended the discussion, a logical outworking of this was evidenced in a manager empowering the sub-ordinate, which influenced them toward better performance by
engendering trust and therefore ownership of the performance management and coaching process. It engendered trust and ownership because subordinates were given discretion about the priorities that they brought to the performance management discussion. Finally, the findings of the study reinforced the sentiments that are found in literature that suggest coaches are often approached to ‘fix people’; but the study goes further to provide insight as to why this occurs, and suggests that it could be due to a lack of manager skill, and a lack of management accountability. It was suggested that an evaluation of these processes i.e. management and appraisal, would help to make clear the true causes of poor sub-ordinate performance.

In the third sub-theme about organizational change, it was established that most of the discussion about change is from an individual rather than rather than a team, departmental or organizational perspective. The exceptions include (Feldman 2001; Lindbom 2007; Rock and Donde 2008a; Pollitt 2009). The findings of this study examined the mechanisms through which organizational change occurs, and revealed some insights not yet explored in the literature. For example, the expectations of leadership appear to be a significant factor in bringing about organizational change, and coaching may be an approach needed to help bridge the gaps. But, these expectations will be more pervasive if the executive team is united and follows through by modeling appropriate coaching behaviours if they have a ‘hands off’ approach to management. In the same way, the enthusiasm of management for employee development initiatives, such as coaching, can be an infectious and attract the interest of other members of the organization. Furthermore, when a leader adopts a coaching style, which is underpinned by genuine curiosity, it means that a greater level of collaboration is possible between themselves and their subordinates, which may explain a greater level of buy-in to a leader’s vision and organizational change. Adopting a more collaborative coaching approach is not only a function of them becoming better communicators, but also in developing a new attitude from which flows curiosity. It requires them to set a genuine intention around their approach and being more authentic. In contrast, when a leader is indifferent to their people, it can inhibit the effectiveness of a coaching intervention or program because employees may not feel valued.

In the final sub-theme about knowledge, it was established that its importance is affirmed almost universally throughout the coaching body of knowledge. But, at an organizational level of analysis, there is only one that addresses the broader organizational context in terms of knowledge management (Jackson et al. 2010). However, a paper by Ket de Vries (2005) also addresses knowledge management from the perspective of teams. The study found that when there is an
opportunity to share, a strong relationship structure may develop, which promotes interdepartmental evaluation and comparison as well as collaborative thinking and planning. The resulting changes have ‘a trickle-up effect’. The strategic effect may be because executive leaders are in a position of power, but also because when leaders come together in networks as a part of the coaching approach have the opportunity to engage on important shared issues that they normally would not. The opportunity to collaborate on issues of common importance may result in a higher level of leader commitment to actionable outcomes.

7.1.4 Organizational coaching design

The final major theme is about organizational coaching design, which was about determining the devices of effective program design. Two sub-themes were explored including rigour and structure. In the first sub-theme about rigour, it was established that there had been virtually no studies, which explored the topic of empirical rigour at an organizational level. However, it was established that the literature does argues that without a rigorous approach to coaching design informed by a sound andragogy, the resultant learning and development will be mediocre at best, and the consequences include disappointment and cynicism (Styhre and Josephson 2007). This was consistent with the findings of this study, which focuses more on an organizational level of analysis. They suggest that the existence of some kind of rigour in the coaching design is important to the extent that a lack of it around coaching may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. They can remedy this by introducing rigour around KPIs, which help them to understand what they are trying to achieve, and establish the baseline data to facilitate an ongoing evaluation of their approach. Although the value of data sources is recognized in literature (Ulrich 2008), the value of using multiple sources of data in one coaching intervention or program (as suggested by the findings of this study) is undetermined. In contrast, the findings of this study suggest that despite the value of adopting a scientific approach to coaching, some key limitations need to be accounted for. These include: difficulty in isolating the contribution that coaching makes to organizational change even if the KPIs are known; recognizing that people are complex and individual change is not a linear progression; that a coach is limited in the kind of feedback they can give to management, and therefore better to let them come to their own conclusions. Another reason suggested for the limitations of an instrumental approach to coaching is that the models and frameworks it uses to measure progress are only an approximation for change; so, no matter how valid and reliable they are, they are not a universal prescription. Certainly, the use of a valid and reliable assessment tools
in coaching can help guard against errors, and the use of multiple sources of data may be one way of ameliorating the limitations of using just one tool. Finally, the findings suggest that the availability of suitable tools for evaluating the success of a coaching initiative and their high cost might be another limitation of adopting a scientific approach to coaching for an organization.

In the second theme, the value of structure as a device of coaching was explored. The review established that there is very little in literature about the structure of coaching at an organizational level of analysis. There are however many case studies, which describe organizational approaches to coaching, but most focus on individual analysis (Peterson 1996; Schnell 2005; Alleyne 2007; Freedman 2010). On this basis, it was concluded that a greater understanding is needed of the challenges associated with structuring them, as this is not explored at an organizational level in the literature. The findings of the study suggested that structure in coaching serves as a key input to guide and direct the process of coaching, and act as a benchmark for determining its effectiveness. Structure may take the form of a statement of protocols to guide the implementation of coaching assignments, which outline the key expectations of the organization for all stakeholders. In practice though, it can be difficult for even the most results driven organizations to adequately structure their interventions. It was thought that this could be because management may not know the appropriate goals and metrics are, and this is something that coaches should not assume they will know. Because of this, initial coaching of a management team may be about gaining that clarity around goals and metrics. Examples of structure for a coaching program that were found in the data included: an organization’s learning and development strategy; consideration of other approaches to development that might complement coaching e.g mentoring; integrating best practice through implementation of a training budget, evaluation, and accountability for the program; the collection of both formal and informal feedback for evaluation purposes. It was concluded that the sponsorship of a coaching program by a strategic business partner, may assist in the design of adequate structure.

7.2 Key Learnings and Theoretical Contributions

This exploratory study has made a number of contributions to theory and practice. In general terms, it mapped the management coaching literature in an attempt to distinguish it from the other disciplines, which contribute to it. To date, this distinction has been affected by the ‘blurring of boundaries’ phenomenon described at the outset of this thesis; consequently, there has been no discussion about a specific ‘management literature’ for coaching. As outlined in chapter 2, the
management literature has not matured in the same way as other contributing disciplines such as psychology. Also, the importance of cross-disciplinary research has been flagged as of great importance, particularly to management, which to date relies heavily on the input of other disciplines. It was concluded that the establishment of alliances and research relationships with scholars in other disciplines are important for the advancement of the management coaching literature. Similarly, the dominance of individual level constructs as opposed to organizational level ones in the management coaching literature suggests a significant gap that needs to be filled. Clarity about the boundaries affords management scholars the ability to claim it as their own and the opportunity to develop a cohesive management agenda for research purposes. To this end, it is hoped that this study provides a broad foundation for the way forward.

More specifically, because this study has largely focused on the devices of coaching it should provide some insight to management coaching scholars, human resource and coaching practitioners about the mechanisms, which explain how coaching works. As suggested at the outset of this study, a mandate of human resource management is to cater for the needs of individual employees in order to achieve organizational level ambitions. The fact that the literature is dominated by the study of individual level constructs, and that coaching is an HR practice suggests that this is also a mandate of workplace coaching. However, an explanation as to how this translates into organizational effectiveness is not apparent in the literature, despite the explanation being a uniquely management construct. So, to begin the process of explaining this was a goal of this thesis, the fulfilment of which is evidence by the findings. As an exploratory project though, it is important to note that the intent of the study was not to fully explain the mechanisms or devices; it was to identify and begin the process and in doing so provide the structure for more concrete frameworks to be developed further.

From a methodological perspective, this study has not adopted a ‘revolutionary approach’ to the research; however, as indicated in Chapter 4 that it includes three important coaching stakeholders is a departure from the typical case study approach in literature, which is bound by a particular context. It is also a departure from the traditional qualitative approach in the literature, which often only considers one particular stakeholder group – the emphasis of this thesis has been on coaching rather than a specific coaching role(s). This is however, the first known study to include three kinds of coach i.e. external coach, manager as coach, and ‘manager as coach in training’.
The strength of the qualitative method implemented is that it has allowed for the rigorous identification and exploration of potentially important constructs and ideas relevant to the research question. As pointed out in chapter 2, this is particularly important to the management coaching area, which has suffered from less than rigorous methods being used in the qualitative studies that have been conducted, thereby bringing the reliability of the empirical findings into question. In contrast, rigorous methods have been applied in this study, and great care taken to explain and justify the approach – this alone is a significant contribution in that the findings can be relied upon. This study has sought to collect data from coaches around the globe and who assume various coaching roles i.e. external, internal, and manager as coach. This combination of participant characteristics provides a degree of diversity that is lacking in coaching research, but which is necessary to gain a broad range of perspectives. This diversity is consistent with the exploratory design, which ‘casts its net’ very broadly.

Finally, the study ‘aimed high’ by seeking to recruit highly qualified participants to the study by applying a rigorous criterion to their selection. Whilst this in some ways restricted the number of participants who could participate, the quality of the data collected was high as evidenced by the detailed and nuanced responses to the questions asked, particularly in the interviews. Some of the participants involved had worked for high profile organizations, which is in of itself an endorsement of their experience, knowledge and skills in not only the area of coaching, but also in terms of the management context i.e. business and organizational life. The quality of research participants is not something that is discussed in the literature and its importance overlooked; it is however a strength of this study, and is further consideration for the reliability of its findings.

In terms of a theoretical contribution, this project is focussed on an organizational level analysis of the coaching phenomenon and makes a contribution at that level. As established in the literature review, investigations of coaching in the literature are predominantly focussed on an individual level of analysis. To that end, the study seeks to identify not only the devices of coaching, but also to begin explain the roles they may play in helping organizations to be more effective. The findings inform the structure of this thesis, which was divided into two major sections around which the contribution is framed. Accordingly, a major contribution concerns the supposed relationship between coaching, individual effectiveness and organizational effectiveness – this relationship is challenged. It is proposed that the management context can be a decisive factor in terms of whether this relationship holds true, to the extent that it may be a limiting factor for
coaching. In this frame, it explores various elements of the organizational context such as its internal people capabilities, teamwork, cultural (strengths leadership), and leadership team as developers. It also explores people and systems as an integral part of the organizational context and a limiting or enabling factor for coaching. For example, in terms of systems, it explores leadership effectiveness as a system’s agent in career development, performance management and so on. Finally, it also explores the design of coaching in this same way, particularly, the role of rigour and structure. The major thesis/proposition is that each of these could be potentially limiting (or enabling) factor in the organizational context, and determine whether coaching can help organizations become more effective. Consequently, it is proposed that these devices should therefore be considered as inputs for coaching interventions/programs and also in the evaluation of their effectiveness. If the contributions of this study were to be represented diagrammatically, the contribution might appear as depicted in Figure 7.2. The specific contributions of each section of this thesis are outlined in Table 7.2.
Figure 7.2 – Graphical depiction of the findings in this thesis.
Table 7.2 – Summary of the key contributions of the study by theme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Key Contribution</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Individual Effectiveness</strong></td>
<td>The presence of more than expected disconfirming evidence suggests that it may not lead to effectiveness. Organization effectiveness appears to be intimately linked with that of the individual and can have broad and cumulative implications for organizations when collectively applied. The manager as coach role is an important mechanism for facilitating this success by leveraging the contributions of individuals. It is through their impact on other individuals within the organizational system that organizations are transformed via a ‘trickledown effect’. The impact of coaching may be limited by elements of the organizational context and because of this complexity the effect of coaching on an individual may not translate into organizational benefits.</td>
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<td><strong>Internal capabilities</strong></td>
<td>Despite an adequate business structure or operating environment, leaders will still not be able to effectively execute strategy if they lack the skills required to manage people. Both a conducive organizational context, as well as leadership skills are required for organizational effectiveness to occur. The coachee’s individual differences, which may pre-dispose them to be able to cope with the responsibilities that come with being empowered. That is, they need to become more self-directed when empowered, and their level of readiness, stress levels, time availability and learning how to learn skills might be factors to consider.</td>
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<td><strong>Teamwork</strong></td>
<td>Teamwork is important because it can enhance productive activities such as planning and execution, and that without it one of the consequences is a lack of communication. In turn, this results in team inefficiencies characterized by an increase in workload and difficulty improving systems. A leader who learns to become a better manager as coach will become more effective as they learn to create an environment more conducive to teamwork, which benefits the entire team. Creating an environment more conducive to team work means being more effectively in engagement, learning to influence colleagues, improving levels of empowerment and creating an environment in which colleagues are willing to share information. Coaching can create social conditions in which teamwork and social networks can be improved, but this will only occur if the process is well understood by the organization and its participants; this is especially true for the manager as coach who is the facilitator of coaching conversations. Confusion about the process will mean that coaching may be used inappropriately as a performance management or appraisal tool; result in poor uptake of coaching; and the development of poor group social conditions.</td>
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<td>Theme</td>
<td>Key Contribution</td>
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<tr>
<td>ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE</td>
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<td><strong>Collective Strengths</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>• In the context of organizational culture, a coaching orientation is one in which organizations aim to develop the strengths of high potential people who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role.</td>
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<td>• At different points in the economic cycle pockets of weakness will inevitably manifest themselves in the organization, which should not only be considered a norm, but an indicator of health (if the organization is growing) and therefore providing development opportunities for their employees.</td>
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<td>• An organization with a strengths orientation acts in particular ways toward their employees. For instance, their leadership have a positive view of people and are highly supportive. Because they value their employees they emphasize strengths not weaknesses to the extent that they prefer to work to overcome weaknesses in an employee to retain them, even if their deficiencies are significant.</td>
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<td>• The antithesis of a coaching culture is one that considers its employees to be a ‘part of the problem’ and so it is doubtful that coaching approach can be effective in that kind of environment.</td>
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<td>• It may be a challenge for leaders to exist or adapt to this environment. This is because to ‘speak in human development terms’ about subordinates may not be easy if they have been a part of an environment in the past in which people are considered to ‘the problem’; and/or if they struggle to engage subordinates at an emotional level.</td>
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<td>• Not all leaders will be willing to adopt this language and attitude, and therefore cannot be considered the most appropriate person to coach subordinates.</td>
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<td><strong>Developmental support</strong></td>
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<td>• The kind of support that employees may need is not always obvious to an organization, and the mode selected needs to be appropriate for what the organization is trying to achieve.</td>
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<td>• Coaching may not be any more effective than other approaches such as mentoring, and it can be adopted to strengthen other approaches to development.</td>
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<td>• A manager as coach may work with an external coach by monitoring the process and exchanging feedback with the coach and coachee. For them to fulfil this role successfully they may need support, which could involve them receiving ‘unofficial’ coaching.</td>
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<td>• There is a potential overlap between coaching and mentoring. For example, an external coach may act as a mentor because they are giving advice and acting as a role model. The key distinction may be the extent to which they are prescribing solutions when giving that advice, and the kinds of behaviours that they are modelling.</td>
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<td>Theme</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Career development</strong></td>
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* Even if an organization takes steps to develop a career management or development system and wish to utilize coaching to support that system, the underlying philosophy and tools it develops for this purpose must be understood and supported by the managers using them. Otherwise managers may not only decline to endorse the system, they may even discourage their subordinates from participating in it.  
* The manager as coach has an important role in guiding the career development process, specifically aligning the subordinates development plan to ensure that it supports the broader organizational strategy. If they believe that the priorities of the sub-ordinate are not aligned, then they are responsible for communicating that to the coachee and should ‘draw the person back.  
* The decisions a manager makes about who will and will not receive career-coaching support may be a function of the quality of the relationship that a manager has with a sub-ordinate. So, if a manager-sub-ordinate relationship is high LMX, then the manager may support coaching for that sub-ordinate, but not another.  
* Low LMX status means that some subordinates may miss out on career development opportunities because of the way in which it influences the allocation of development and coaching resources.  
| **Performance management and appraisal** |  
* In a coaching context, performance appraisal (PA) processes can be problematic. PA and coaching should be viewed as separate processes.  
* PA is useful as an input for coaching as a performance management tool because they can be used as a reference point for a coaching conversation. However, the two processes i.e. performance appraisal and coaching, would need to be perceived as separate by coachees, otherwise coaching may be viewed as a punishment and they may decline to participate.  
* A manager as coach should use relationship power to influence a sub-ordinate to achieve their development and performance improvement, rather than the power of authority. An outworking of this is a manager empowering their sub-ordinate by giving them discretion about the priorities that they bring to the performance management discussion. This will influence them toward better performance by engendering trust and therefore ownership of the PA and coaching process.  
* Coaches are often approached to ‘fix people’, which could be due to a lack of manager skill in PA, and a broader lack of management accountability. An evaluation of these processes i.e. PA and appraisal, would help to make clear the true causes of poor sub-ordinate performance.  
| **Organizational change** |  
* The expectations of leadership about employee behaviour appear to be a significant factor in bringing about organizational change, and coaching may be an approach needed to help bridge the gaps. These expectations will be more pervasive if the executive team is united and follows through by modeling appropriate coaching behaviours if they have a ‘hands off’ approach to management.  
* The enthusiasm of management for employee development initiatives, such as coaching, can be infectious and attract the interest of other members of the organization.  
* When a leader adopts a coaching style, which is underpinned by genuine curiosity, it means that a greater level of collaboration is possible between themselves and their subordinates, which may explain a greater level of buy-in to a leader’s vision and organizational change.  
* A more collaborative coaching approach is not only a function of them becoming better communicators, but also in developing a new attitude from which flows curiosity. It requires them to set a genuine intention around their approach and being more authentic.  
* When a leader is indifferent to their people, it can inhibit the effectiveness of a coaching intervention or program because employees may not feel valued. |
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<th>Theme</th>
<th>Key Contribution</th>
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| **Knowledge Management** | • When there is an opportunity for employees to ‘share’, a strong relationship structure may develop, which promotes interdepartmental evaluation and comparison, as well as collaborative thinking and planning. The resulting changes can have ‘a trickle-up effect’.  
• The strategic effect may be because executive leaders are in a position of power, but also because when leaders come together in networks as a part of the coaching approach have the opportunity to engage on important shared issues that they normally would not.  
• The opportunity to collaborate on issues of common importance may result in a higher level of leader commitment to actionable outcomes. |

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<th>ORGANIZATIONAL COACHING DESIGN</th>
<th><strong>Rigour</strong></th>
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| • Some kind of rigour in the coaching design is important to the extent that a lack of it around coaching may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. This can be remedied by introducing rigour around KPIs, which help them to understand what they are trying to achieve, and establish the baseline data to facilitate an ongoing evaluation of their approach.  
• Despite the value of adopting a scientific approach to coaching, some key limitations need to be accounted for. These include: difficulty in isolating the contribution that coaching makes to organizational change even if the KPIs are known; recognizing that people are complex and individual change is not a linear progression; that a coach is limited in the kind of feedback they can give to management, and therefore better to let them come to their own conclusions.  
• The models and frameworks it uses to measure progress are only an approximation for change; so, no matter how valid and reliable they are, they are not a universal prescription for how change should be measured.  
• The use of a valid and reliable assessment tools in coaching can help guard against errors, and the use of multiple sources of data may be one way of ameliorating the limitations of using just one tool.  
• The availability of suitable tools for evaluating the success of a coaching initiative and their high cost might be another limitation of adopting a scientific approach to coaching for an organization. |

| **Structure** | • Structure in coaching serves as a key input to guide and direct the process of coaching, and act as a benchmark for determining its effectiveness.  
• Structure may take the form of a statement of protocols to guide the implementation of coaching assignments, which outline the key expectations of the organization for all stakeholders.  
• It can be difficult for even the most results driven organizations to adequately structure their interventions. This could be because management may not know the appropriate goals and metrics are, and this is something that coaches should not assume they will know. Because of this, initial coaching of a management team may be about gaining that clarity around goals and metrics.  
• Examples of structure for a coaching program include: an organization’s learning and development strategy; consideration of other approaches to development that might complement coaching e.g mentoring; integrating best practice through implementation of a training budget, evaluation, and accountability for the program; the collection of both formal and informal feedback for evaluation purposes.  
• Sponsorship of a coaching program by a strategic business partner may assist in the design of adequate structure. |
7.3 Implications for Practice

As coaching is an applied area, it is fitting that this study pay a reasonable level of attention to the practical implications of the research. Coaching is not just an individualized psychological pursuit, and should not be disconnected from the broader organizational agenda. But, practitioners may be tempted to treat it as such, which is reminiscent of the ad-hoc approach to human resource management and development that management scholars warn against. This is because, without a broader organizational agenda guiding the practice of coaching at an individual level, it is at best a ‘hope for the best’ strategy. But, with a better understanding of how coaching works and the importance of the context in translating individual coaching into organizational benefits, practitioners and consumers of coaching can ensure that the coaching intervention, as well as the structure and context around it is appropriate. Given that coaching is a relatively expensive intervention and significant amounts of financial resources are spent on it by individuals and organizations, a better understanding of its devices will enable them to better allocate learning and development resources.

To assist in demonstrating the practical implications, and because there will be a number of practitioners reading this thesis the theoretical contributions have been ‘reworked’ as general practitioner advice that might be useful for external coaches, manager as coach and other key stakeholders. It is a concise summary written directly to the audience:

Coaching may or may not lead to organizations becoming more effective as a whole. If it does, it may increase retention rates, facilitate succession, and greater job satisfaction. Its success in translating individual contributions into organizational benefits depends on at least two key factors, which include your contributions as a leader, and the organizational context. In short, as a manager as coach, you must transform yourself and your employees via a ‘trickle-down effect’. But, this can only be successful in an organizational context that is conducive to not only to developing people, but also to translating their new found effectiveness into organizational effectiveness.

First and foremost as manager as coach, you must be an effective people developer. You must learn to empower people appropriately. This means being aware of their ability and readiness to cope with the responsibilities that come with empowerment based on their individual differences – for example, more autonomy and self-direction. Some of the specific factors that you might want to consider to determine their readiness include: stress levels, availability of time, and learning how to learn skills.

One of your roles as a manager as coach is also to create efficient teams, which have an impact on effectiveness and are a vital part of the organizational context. A strong team will communicate well and have efficiencies around planning and execution. For this to occur though, you need to be able to create conditions in which this can occur. In general terms, this means making sure that stakeholders are clear about what coaching is and how it can be used to the benefit of the team to avoid confusion and unhelpful attributions. In more specific terms though, it requires you engaging, learning the art of influence, increasing empowerment, and encouraging information sharing.

If you wanting to create a coaching culture as a feature of the organizational context, the first point to consider is: to what extent the current culture seeks to develop the strengths of high potential people who have both the desire and capability to take on more responsibility in their current role or to move to a more challenging role? The answer to this question will provide a clue as to the way forward. Another question is how does the organization view weaknesses in employees? If the organization is in a growth cycle, this is a crucial question because the manifestation of weaknesses could be an indicator of health not an indicator of problems as you might think, especially if the organization is providing development opportunities e.g. more challenging roles. This is a key point because the rise of weaknesses may lead to the attribution that people are a ‘part of the problem’, when in fact they are the solution. If you view people as a part of the solution, as in a coaching culture, then, you will be more pre-disposed to provide a high level of support.
to them. You must see that weaknesses are not a reason to terminate people, but, an opportunity to develop them so that they can go on to greater things. Because this is the philosophy that underpins coaching, it is likely that you as a coach will be more effective in an organization with a coaching culture than one that does not.

Some of the challenges that you may face in developing a coaching culture include the ability of others to adapt to it. This is because leaders are the gatekeepers of the coaching philosophy and promoter to the masses. As a manager as coach, you must adopt a positive narrative around human development and potential, rather than people problems. You must also be willing to engage subordinates at an emotional level. If you are not willing or able to do this, then, you should not be coaching people.

For a coaching culture to work, the participants are going to need support. But, there may be some confusion around the best kind of support to provide because you may simply not know which is best, or be clear about the appropriateness of different approaches. When considering which approach to use, it should not be assumed that coaching is the only available one, because it is not a fix-it-all; and other approaches such as mentoring may be more effective. It is possible also that coaching may work well with other approaches such as mentoring, in which the mentor or manager as coach may work with an external coach to monitor progress and participate in information exchanges with the external coach and the coachee. It is important to realize that for them to be successful in this may require support, which may come unofficially via the external coach.

It is probably best not to get distracted by the labels used to describe different approaches such as coaching and mentoring, because there is likely to be confusion amongst consumers and stakeholders in any case. The principles of the approach are more important to focus on because they are about producing a result. The principles underpinning the adult learning approach commonly adopted by coaches include: an appreciative approach to inquiry; giving appropriate advice, but not prescribing; and also a consideration of where modelling can play a role in demonstrating desirable behaviour that coachee can emulate.

In the design of a coaching culture, the inter-relationship of coaching with organizational systems needs to be considered. Obviously, as a manager as coach, you and other coaches are at the centre of the culture, and your role needs to be considered in terms of how you interact with those systems. For example, managers as coach must be motivated to participate in career management or development processes, so if you find that they are not, check that they understand what the system is designed to achieve and how it works. Make sure that the leadership know how to make the most out of the career development process for the organization, by ensuring that the manager as coach knows how to align the individual coachee’s development priorities with the priorities of the organization. In the first instance, as a manager as coach you must be clear about what these are. As a manager as coach you should also be aware that you are likely to be biased in the way that you allocate resources for coaching in favour of employees that you have a ‘close relationship with’. But, you need to be sure to provide opportunities for all employees to develop in line with organizational priorities. You need to be aware of the potential for bias and consider your own personal agendas as secondary to the needs of their organizations.

Because coaching is a non-evaluative approach to development, it may be at odds with performance appraisal, and so each should be treated as a distinct process. One way that you can achieve is to align coaching more with the performance management process instead, and to only use the performance appraisal process as an input for coaching discussion. Similarly, because successful coaching relies on good manager–subordinate relationships, you should practice using relationship, rather than authority power to influence subordinates - it requires building trust. A practical way to demonstrate trust is to give subordinates discretion to make decisions about the priorities that they bring to the performance management discussion. A better collegial kind of relationship will set the scene for a fruitful developmental relationship. If you as a coach (manager as coach or external) are ever assigned to a coachee or employee to ‘fix’ them, consider that the performance manager may not be doing their job properly. This is a cue to investigate the true cause of the issues of poor sub-ordinate performance, by evaluating the performance management process instead, and to only use the performance appraisal process as an input for coaching and appraisal process. If you are that person i.e. the usual performance manager, then you may need to investigate your own performance and seek help to do this – perhaps from a coach. It may be that you need to change your style.

The ability of an organization to change is largely dependent on the expectations you as a manager hold about the behaviour of your employees. Your leadership teams need to be united around those expectations, and model appropriate coaching behaviours if they are attempting to create an environment of empowerment. You also need to demonstrate commitment and enthusiasm for the organization’s coaching initiatives, which will help to create employee buy-in and momentum. But this should be authentic and not just you going through the motions. To become an effective manager as coach, you may need to change your attitude and style to around ‘how to get things done’. This might involve fostering a genuine personal curiosity about what others might think instead of prescribing a solution because ‘you know best’. For some leaders (maybe you) this may also mean taking more of an interest in your employees, rather than being indifferent. If you are perceived as ‘indifferent’ it may explain why there is no buy-in. To become this kind of leader though will require you to engage in authentic personal reflection about your own motives and behaviours.

To facilitate knowledge management in an organization begins with establishing strong networks at various levels, including individual, team, and interdepartmental. For more senior leaders to form these kinds of relationships may require a skilled objective facilitator such as a coach, who adopts an inquiry based approach, and has the skills to foster personal sharing around issues at this level. The result is likely to be greater collaboration around thinking, planning around about common issues and commitment to action.
For a coaching program in an organization to be successful will require a rigorous approach to coaching design. This means you need to introduce KPIs to help stakeholders understand what the organization is trying to achieve. It may also involve establishing baseline data from which progress can be assessed. But as a designer of coaching, you will need to be aware that there are some limitations to adopting a more ‘scientific’ approach to coaching. For example, it is important to recognize that people are complex and change is not a ‘linear process’, so it may be difficult at times to determine how individuals and programs are progressing. Consequently, the coach or manager as coach may be limited in the kinds of feedback that they can give. If you are that coach, it may be better to let management evaluate progress themselves and come to their own conclusions. Consider also that the models and frameworks used in coaching are merely an approximation for change, not an absolute measure; so be careful about the kinds of conclusions that you make on that basis. Having said that, valid and reliable models should be used despite their limitations to minimize attributions errors and biases. It would be wise to also use multiple sources to generate a rich supply of data for the same reasons.

Good structure in the design of a coaching program is also important to its success and to avoid an ad-hoc approach. Some examples of structure that you might use include a statement of coaching protocols, which outline key expectations for all stakeholders, and develop clear goals and metrics. Keep in mind though that it cannot be assumed that you and other managers will know what the goal is and how to measure success. As a consequence, a coach may need to work with you to help you formulate these. Other examples of structure might include: a learning and development strategy; consideration of complimentary approaches already used such as mentoring and training; a training budget and processes around evaluation; accountability; data collection and analysis procedures to make the most of available informal and formal feedback. Ensuring that a key strategic business partner in your organization is found to sponsor the coaching program as this is going to be important to achieve adequate structure and program integrity.

7.4 Limitations

There are of course some limitations of this research. First of all with respect to quality of the literature composing the body of knowledge. A high proportion of articles, which contribute to the literature review and inform the study are thought to lack empirical rigor and from an academic perspective make less of a contribution i.e. consultant literature and academic research prior to 2005. Because of these limitations, the findings and conclusions reached in the consultant literature might not be considered as reliable for the purpose of research compared to the extant academic research, which is generally more rigorous. A significant portion of the research prior to 2005 consists of discussion papers and poorly conducted qualitative research, which needs to be considered in any analysis and conclusions presented in this research.

Secondly, given that the informants in this project were from 15 different nations, it is possible that the differences in their perspectives are due to cultural differences rather than other variables. However, it is impossible to tell because of a lack of biographical information, which is a limitation of this research.

Thirdly, although the smaller number of participants that participated is appropriate for an exploratory study i.e. 35, it does limit the generalizability of the findings. But this is not the intent of this study, as its purpose was merely to identify themes, constructs and ideas about the purposes and devices of workplace coaching to create some clarity about a possible research agenda, and also provide an opportunity for management scholars to chart a way forward. The challenge associated
with recruiting a representative and larger sample of coaches to the study (as outlined in the methodology) means that there are potentially many more themes that have not been identified and explored. Also, for these reasons, it was difficult to achieve a level of saturation in the data analysis and some participants are featured more in the analysis than others. The consequence of this is that the findings are merely suggestive rather than conclusive and they should be strictly viewed in this way. In addition, as a significant portion of the participants were external coaches, the findings could be biased as they largely reflect their view of coaching phenomena. Also, although there were 35 participants in this study, the data from the 15 survey participants was not as rich as that collected from the in-depth interviews simply because participants could not be ‘probed’ to clarify their perspectives and explore them further. The value of this data was therefore of limited value compared to the 20 interviews that were conducted. Because of these factors, practitioners and consumers of coaching should consider carefully the applicability of this work to their practice, and view it as a guideline for further exploration only. Also, this work is a relatively lone voice in the management coaching literature, and so, there is little established thought about many of the matters raised as a justification for this study. Consequently, it has been difficult to gain a frame of reference from which to evaluate the validity of the findings. For this reason, scholars, practitioners and consumers of coaching who are interested in the findings of this particular research project will need to consider this if they intend to apply the knowledge contained within.

7.5 Avenues for further research

This study has mapped the boundaries and distinguished the management coaching body of knowledge, and introduced the notion of a ‘management coaching literature’. This gives management scholars a vernacular, which they have not had to date to move forward. It is hoped that they will embrace this language and make this distinction clearer. If a study were to be formulated to explore, challenge and/or confirm the boundaries posed in this study would also be appropriate. The identification of the cross-disciplinary literature and its importance to the development of a robust discipline means that management scholars might consider seeking out research opportunities with those from other disciplines. Similarly, lack of organizational level constructs in the management coaching literature suggests that management scholars need to turn their attention to them in their research if it is to be advanced.

As this research has begun the work of identifying the mechanisms that explain how coaching works in translating individual coaching into organizational benefits, it is logical for
scholars interested in this to develop the work. In more specific terms, research could focus on understanding the reasons why coaching interventions may fail to yield results for organizations, especially those that have implemented company wide coaching programs. The answers may lie in further delineation of the dimensions and limitations of the organizational context, which was explored in this thesis.

A lot more research needs to be done in the area of coaching and teams. This would be facilitated by a greater understanding of how coaches impact team functioning and performance. This work has furthered the process toward understanding how they create team conditions, for groups and individuals, but more qualitative and then quantitative research is needed for this to develop further.

Similarly, developing further the construct of coaching culture, and understanding both its impact on coaching and organizational benefits would be valuable. Questions that could be answered are: are organizations with coaching cultures more effective? and how can they be developed? Another interesting and potentially valuable question in terms of understanding the efficacy of coaching is: is coaching that occurs in a ‘coaching oriented culture’ more successful than coaching that occurs in organizations where there isn’t one?

More work needs also to be done to understand the stakeholders who provide supplementary support to coaches and coaches, including supervising managers, mentors and others not identified in this research. This study suggests that they provide role modelling, mentoring, and feedback, however, there are likely to be many other functions that they perform. Understanding the effect of this support on the success of coaching in organizations would guide their contributions.

A portion of the study was devoted to understanding coaching in the context of organizational systems. Only four were identified, including: career development, performance appraisal, organizational change and development, and knowledge management. However the findings only provide a superficial understanding of these systems and there are many others that could be explored. For example, reward and remuneration, occupational health and safety, negotiation and advocacy are three that come to mind.

The value of rigour and structure is potentially a valuable topic of research, given the general trend in human resources toward an instrumental approach to people management. So, a
better understanding of the relevant dimensions would be desirable in terms of helping practitioner and consumers embed it into practice. But, given the complexity and ambiguous nature of people, and that coaching is sometimes considered a therapeutic/humanistic approach to development, rigour and structure might not be considered compatible or appropriate by some practitioners. Nevertheless, if it results in more successful coaching, organizations would consider it essential, and that is a good justification for further research about it.

Finally, given the ill-defined nature of the management literature and the ad-hoc nature of much of the consultant literature, there are some methodological gaps. For instance, because of the complexity of the workplace coaching construct and the management context, it would be appropriate for there to be other exploratory studies conducted to identify themes and constructs. Similarly, whilst there have been a number of case studies conducted in the management coaching literature, many of them are very descriptive, a-theoretical and lack specific and distinctive findings. Although there are benefits to description, the value of the findings in these studies could be strengthened if future effort is given to addressing these shortcomings. It is likely that these issues are attributed to poor research design, which may in turn be because many consultants are contributors to the area, but do not necessarily have research training. For this reason, there is significant scope for academic researchers to develop research alliances with practitioners who desire to contribute to the literature.

Furthermore, the value of case study research to the management coaching literature could be increased if comparative case study projects are conducted instead of the many single case studies conducted to date. There may also be scope for a broader range of multi-methods to be utilized in studies as well as interviews, including observation and qualitative surveys. Finally, although not the dominant management research tradition, there is a place for positivist studies to elaborate and generalize the findings of interpretive studies. Psychologists have favoured this methodology in their own psychological studies conducted in the literature, but, their efforts have been focused on behaviour rather than organizational analysis. So, there is an opportunity for management scholars who also favour this approach to apply it to advance management and organizational interests in coaching.
REFERENCES


## APPENDIX A: MANAGEMENT TOPICS EXPLORED IN THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE BY KEYWORD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management Topic</th>
<th>Sub-Topic/ Author</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Behaviour (19)**   | Learning Transfer (Olivero et al. 1997; Kushnir et al. 2008; Locke 2008; Knight 2009; Stewart and Palmer (2009); Deborah Bright & Anita Crockett 2012)  
Teacher as Coach (O'Neil and Hopkins 2002).  
Financial Planner as Coach (Grable 2009). |
| **Culture (15)**      | Organizational Culture (Saporito 1996; Richard 1999; Feldman 2001; Lindborn 2007; Pollitt 2009).  
Coaching Culture (Bowerman and Collins 1999; Megginson and Chuturubuck 2006; Sparrow 2006; Lindborn 2007; Yu 2007; Coultas, Bedwell et al. 2012; McComb 2012).  
Morale (McDermott et al. 2007).  
Wellness (Okie 2007; Daehler-Miller et al. 2008). |
| **Characteristics (22)** | Characteristics of the Coach (Diedrich and Kilburg 2001; Blackman 2006; Heslin et al. 2006; Hughes 2006; Jones and Spooner 2006; O'Connor and Ertmer 2006; Ponte et al. 2006; Grant and O'Hara 2008; Koloroutis 2008; Baron and Morin 2012; Segers and Vlietberghs 2012)  
Coaches (Feldman and Lankau 2005; Heslin et al. 2006; Jones and Spooner 2006)  
Professional Development (Feldman and Lankau 2005; McNally and Lukens 2006; McCarthy 2007; Paschke 2007; Blamey et al. 2008; Moore 2006; Lee 2008; Smith 2007) |
| **Career (26)**       | Career Coaching (Sturman 1990; Chadsey et al. 1997; Chung and Grifover 2003; Wasylyshyn et al. 2006; Paschke 2007; Cobigo et al. 2010; Hatala and Hisey 2011; Fridson 2013; McDermott and Neauth 2012)  
Career Management (Sturman 1990; Hall et al. 1999; Maurer et al. 2001; O’Shaughnessy 2001; Novak 2006; Ponte et al. 2006; Berg and Karlson 2007; Karma 2007; Butler et al. 2008; Cobigo et al. 2010; Greene et al. 2010; Segers and Incoglo 2012)  
Interviewing (Maurer et al. 1998; Maurer et al. 2001; Daehler-Miller et al. 2008; Minnick et al. 2008) |
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Management Topic</th>
<th>Sub-Topic/ Author</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diversity (10)</td>
<td>Women (Greene et al. 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cross Culture (Abbott et al. 2006; Joyce 2006; Wasylyshyn et al. 2006; Noer et al. 2007; Donnison 2008, Coultas and Bedwell 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance (McPherson 2007)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Expatriate Failure (Abbott et al. 2006)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Hofstede (Donnison 2008)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Disability(4)</td>
<td>Disabled Employees (Chadsey et al. 1997; Cobigo et al. 2010; Wang 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employability (Novak 2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness (40)</td>
<td>Organizational Effectiveness (Kiel, et al. 1996; Luthans and Peterson 2003; Benavides 2007; McDermott et al. 2007; Sparrow 2007; Locke 2008; Sparrow 2008; White 2008; Pollitt 2009; Coate and Hill 2011; Ellinger and Ellinger et al. 2012)</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Role Effectiveness (Sherman and Freas 2004; Ponte et al. 2006; Brownell 2006; Turner 2006; Sherman 2007; Sweeney 2007; Ellinger et al. 2008; Kombarakaran et al. 2008; Kushnir et al. 2008; Parker et al. 2008; Styhre 2008; Bylock 2008; Ladyshewsky 2010; Wang 2010; Ellinger and Ellinger et al. 2012)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Pre-purchase Evaluation (Leedham 2005; Sparrow 2007; Ulrich 2008; Riddle 2009; Clutterbuck 2010; Gray et al 2011)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feedback (22)</td>
<td>Assessment Tool (Nicholls 1993; McLean et al. 2005; Lazoritz 2008)</td>
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<td>360 Degree/Multi-Rater (Goodstone and Diamante 1998; Thach 2002; Luthans and Peterson 2003; Smither et al. 2003)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Johari (Nicholls 1993), Needs Analysis (Brocato 2003; Barner 2006; Horner 2006)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Skills (Briggs 2007; Parker et al. 2008)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Myths (Battety 2007)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Individual Benefits (Aurelio and Kennedy 1991; Vanderburg and Stephens 2010; Baron and Morin et al. 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Coaching (11)</td>
<td>Internal Coaching Programs (Sparrow 2006; Rock and Donde 2008a; Rock and Donde 2008b; Ali et al. 2010; Carey and Philippon 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal Coach (Frisch 2001)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal v External Coaching (Hall et al. 1999; Frisch 2001; McNally and Lukens 2006; McDermott et al. 2007; Sparrow 2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Topic</td>
<td>Sub-Topic/ Author</td>
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<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| **Industry (11)**      | Professionalization and Regulation (Judge and Cowell 1997; Sherman and Freas 2004; Bennett 2006; Moran 2007; Sweeney 2007; Blamey et al. 2008; Hamlin et al. 2009)  
Industry Characteristics (Clegg et al. 2005; Grant and O'Hara 2008; Liljenstrand and Nebecker 2008; Segers and Vloeberghs 2012) |
| **Knowledge (5)**       | Worker (Brocato 2003; Jackson et al. 2010)                                        
Economy (Sparrow 2008)                                           
Management and Sharing (Ket De Vries 2005; Vacilotto and Cummings 2007) |
| **Mentoring (9)**       | Mentoring _V_ Coaching (Judge and Cowell 1997; Wachtel and Veale 1998; Feldman 2001; Weafer 2006; Harper 2010; Majboor 2007) 
Other (Clemmensen 2008; Truijen and Woerkom 2008; Onchwari and Keengwe 2010) |
| **Organizational Change (27)** | Organizational Learning (Ellinger 1999; Ellinger and Bostrom 1999; Ellinger et al. 1999; Horner 2006; Hagen 2010)  
Org/Culture Change (Katz and Miller 1996; Giglio et al. 1998; Richard 1999; Brown 2000; Malone 2001; Bartlett 2007; Du Toi 2007; Knight 2007; Sparrow 2007; Rock and Donde 2008a; Rock and Donde 2008b)  
Innovation (Richard 2003; Bartlett 2007)  
Restructuring/Downsizing (Giglio et al. 1998; Bartlett 2007)  
Organizational Development (Saporito 1996; Bowerman and Collins 1999; Joo 2005; Outhwaite and Bettridge 2009; Ladyshewsky 2010; Kahn 2012)  
Social Capital (Ellinger and Ellinger et al. 2012) |
| **Peer (10)**           | Peer Coaching (Garmston 1987; Bowerman and Collins 1999; Vacilotto and Cummings 2007; Parker et al. 2008; Truijen and Woerkom 2008; Poe, Abbott et al. 2011; Zadviukis, Glasglov et al. 2011)  
Peer Support (Garmston 1987)  
Administrator Support (Garmston 1987; Blamey et al. 2008) |
| **Programs (22)**       | Implementation of Coaching Programs (Schnell 2005; Adrian 2006; Sparrow 2006; Othman et al. 2011)  
Internal Coaching Program (Sparrow 2006; Rock and Donde 2008a; Rock and Donde 2008b; Clutterbuck 2009; Ali et al. 2010)  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management Topic</th>
<th>Sub-Topic/ Author</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Relationship (35)** | Communication (Quick and Macik-Frey 2004; Blackman 2006; Rodenbough and Fletcher 2006; Briggs 2007; Pounsford 2007; Rojas 2007; Styhre and Josephson 2007; Kombarakaran et al. 2008)  
Trust and Ethics (Rich 1998; Diamante and Primavera 2004; Ket De Vries 2005; Blackman 2006; Ladyshewsky 2010)  
Empowerment (Nicholls 1993; Ellinger 1999; Arnold et al. 2000; Wright 2007; Parker et al. 2008; Ladyshewsky 2010; Rolfe 2010)  
Interpersonal Skills (Doyle and Roth 1992; Good 1993; Nicholls 1993; Quick and Macik-Frey 2004; Brigid 2006; Kombarakaran et al. 2008; Ladyshewsky 2010; Kalungu 2012),  
Emotional Intelligence (Henochowicz and Hetherington 2006; Wasylyshyn, Gronsky et al. 2006; Wright 2006; Okie 2007; Tyra 2008)  
Other (Baron and Morin et al. 2012; Sue-Chan and Christina et al. 2012) |
| **Satisfaction (10)** | Customer Satisfaction (Henochowicz and Hetherington 2006; White 2008; Pollitt 2009)  
Job Satisfaction and Commitment (Luthans and Peterson 2003; Ket De Vries 2005; Abbott et al. 2006; Sparrow 2006; Tyra 2008; Britton 2008; Bright and Crockett 2012)  
Retention (McDermott and Neault 2012) |
| **Self (18)** | Awareness (O’Neil and Hopkins 2002; Horner 2006; Sherman 2007; Phillips et al. 2009),  
Beliefs (Chase 2010; Vanderburg and Stephens 2010)  
Discovery (O’Neil and Hopkins 2002; Phillips et al. 2009; Taresky and Gallagher 2012)  
Efficacy (Malone 2001; Ammentorp and Kofod 2010)  
Management (Wageman 2001; Chiszar 2008; Pollitt 2008; Crabb 2012)  
Esteem (Castelli 2008)  
Well-being (Crabb 2012; Susing and Green et al. 2012) |
| **Small Business (7)** | Cultural Fit (Alstrup 2000; Devins and Gold 2000; Wright and Tao 2001; Chiszar 2008; Levin et al. 2008)  
Family Business (Carlock 2007; Levin et al. 2008)  
Self-management (Chiszar 2008) |
| **Stress (8)** | Stress Management (Gyllensten and Palmer 2005; Gyllensten and Palmer 2005a; Boyatzis et al. 2006; Perry 2006; Berriman 2007; Wright 2007; Daehler-Miller et al. 2008; Pollitt 2008). |
| **Team (12)** | Team Effectiveness (Chadsey, Linneman et al. 1997; Wageman 2001; McDermott et al. 2007)  
## APPENDIX B. DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Questions and Script [External Coaches]</th>
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<tr>
<td>Good morning/afternoon (insert name)</td>
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<tr>
<td>There are a number of themes well be exploring in this interview. It will take between 90-120 minutes depending on your time availability and how much you have to say. I’m happy to be flexible and to take my lead from you. Is that Ok?</td>
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<tr>
<td>The research in literature is divided into two sections. There’s a section about organizations and how they use coaching and what their interest is in as a stakeholder, and then the other side of it about the individuals involved. I actually want to explore the organizational side of it with you. Now having said that usually what happens is that there’s a lot of discussion about individual experiences as well because it fits well within that organizational experience of coaching - they are very interlinked. That’s the way I see it anyway. So, when I present these themes to you, what I am wanting from you is to share your stories and examples if you’ve got them, and we’ll just go from there. Does that sound OK?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The first theme is organizational effectiveness - sometimes coaching is about helping organizations to be more effective. The theory is that change occurs incrementally and that this largely that occurs through people, so if we can change the people then we can become more an effective organization, and hence the need for coaching. What are your thoughts on that? Is that commensurate with your experience? If it is, how?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The next theme is managing risk - people risk. Organizations sometimes have issues attracting the ‘best talent’ and so they say ‘Let’s develop our own and let’s create promotable talent’. On that basis, they promote people from lower to higher-level positions based on technical brilliance (not managerial competence) to fill the gaps. But, the possibility of role failure is a concern, and that is why coaching is introduced. So what are your thoughts on that - is that commensurate with your experience? Are there other aspects of risk that you think coaching can help organizations with, and how does it do this?</td>
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<tr>
<td>The next theme relates to this idea of ‘managing the labour market’. If an organization is large, they have may have their own viable internal labour market. Coaching can be used as a way of managing it. For example:</td>
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<td>• build talent for succession planning and promotion,</td>
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<td>• to retain staff that might have left otherwise, but stayed because they felt valued and invested in</td>
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<tr>
<td>• as a way of attracting external talent to the organization as well ‘Hey you come and work for us and you’ll get coaching’.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• as a reward ‘We only coach people who are valuable and have potential and so we want to reward those people with personalized attention’.</td>
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<tr>
<td>So, do you think that the role of coaching is to help an organization’s with perform their HR function at a strategic level? If so, how does it achieve this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The last theme is more general. It is around coaching’s contributions to the organizational agenda. Organizations may not have the internal development expertise to do what a coach can do and that’s why they outsource it. So what do you think about that? Do you think that coaching has something unique to offer, if so, what? What contributions does it make to an organization’s agenda and why?</td>
</tr>
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</table>
| Open-ended qualitative survey questionnaire [External Coaches] | 1. Coaching has a role in assisting organisations to be more effective/change as a whole, not just at an individual employee level. Do you agree or disagree? Please explain and justify your response. Give examples based on your experience if you can.  
2. Coaching has a role in helping organisations manage human resource related risk e.g. supporting leaders during times of career transition to significantly more challenging roles, especially if it is a ‘big step up’. Do you agree or disagree? Please explain and justify your response. Give examples based on your experience if you can.  
3. Coaching can be a valuable strategic partner to organisations in helping them to be more pro-active in managing their human resource effort i.e. developing, rewarding, attracting/selecting, and evaluating employee performance. Do you agree or disagree? Please explain and justify your response. Give examples based on your experience if you can.  
4. One of the reasons that coaching is growing in popularity with organisations is that coaching/coaches offers ‘something unique’ to them, which they cannot provide themselves. Do you agree or disagree? Please explain and justify your response. Give examples based on your experience if you can. |
| Interview Questions [Managers as Coach-Managers as Coach in Training]: | 1. Can you tell me why (your organization/you/your sub-ordinate) enlisted the help of a coach/received coaching? What was the brief?  
2. What were you/your organization/your sub-ordinate/your department) trying to achieve through coaching? What would you say the specific goals were?  
3. How was the success of the coaching measured? what were some of the KPIs?  
4. What would you say have been some of the positive changes for (you/your organization/department/your sub-ordinate) since the coaching, and do you think they have translated into greater ‘effectiveness’?  
5. Can you tell me a little about some of the issues/problems/obstacles that have arisen during the coaching process, for example, as a result of systems, processes, policies, or people, that (you/your organization/your sub-ordinate/department) has had to overcome? Have you been able to overcome them and how?  
6. Where does it fit in terms of you/your manager/department’s agenda/ your organisation’s strategy? Where does it fit in terms of the big picture?  
7. What was your role/your manager’s/sub-ordinates/department’s/coaches role in the coaching?  
8. Do you think that what has been achieved could have been achieved in other ways besides coaching? What do you think that the coaching offered you/your manager’s/sub-ordinates/department/organization that you couldn’t have gotten elsewhere? |
### APPENDIX C: CODING SCHEMA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code 1st Level</th>
<th>Code 2nd Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Code 1st Level</th>
<th>Code 2nd Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People &amp; Systems</td>
<td>Resilience</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Organizational Context</td>
<td>Cultural Issues</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Balance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accountability</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Long-Term</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Build Strengths</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Solutions</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Be Constructive</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>Expectations</td>
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<td>Engagement</td>
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<td>Hierarchy</td>
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<td>Confidence in Process</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Selection</td>
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<td>Taking Stock</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Economics</td>
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<td>Solution Focused</td>
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<td>Leadership Influence</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>Structure and Situation</td>
<td>14</td>
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### APPENDIX D: LIST OF THEMES


305
5.1A: A purpose of workplace coaching is to facilitate positive outcomes for organizations in the areas of retention, employee satisfaction and succession planning. Coaching leads to positive organizational outcomes in these areas.

5.1B: A purpose of workplace coaching is to facilitate positive outcomes for organizations in the areas of retention, employee satisfaction and succession planning, but this may not occur.

5.1C: A purpose of workplace coaching is to leverage the contribution of individuals to organizational effectiveness. But, their contributions are limited or enhanced by dimensions of the organizational context, which is one of its devices.

5.2A: The development of people capabilities, particularly coaching skills in leadership are an important device in increasing an organization’s productivity. A lack of people skills results in poor execution of strategy and they are unable to efficiently get things done.

5.2B: There are a number of devices involved in improving productivity through the development of people capabilities of leaders. For example, one such device is for leaders to become more like coaches in their style i.e. from micro-management to the empowerment of their subordinates. This changes the culture between people and impacts on performance, which in this context could be construed as one of its purposes.

5.2C: Subordinates become more productive when leaders change their style from micro-management to empowerment, because they then have the opportunity to set their own challenges and find their own solutions. The change in style and opportunity that results is a device of workplace coaching.

5.2D: Adopting a coaching approach to leadership is no guarantee that increased productivity will occur. On the contrary, it can create potential issues for the subordinate, who needs to learn to operate in a new environment of empowerment and requires them to be more self-directed. The ability of the subordinate to be self-directed is a device of workplace coaching.

5.2E: One of the skill-sets that subordinates need to develop to be able to operate successfully in a self-directed environment is the capability to learn how to learn and self-management skills, which includes but is not limited to the self-evaluation of their role; identification of performance gaps; and formulating and implementing solutions to their own learning needs. This is both a purpose and device of workplace coaching.

5.3A: One of the effects of a lack of teamwork and co-operation is poor planning, execution and productivity. To this end, a purpose of coaching is to help organizations bring about a change in the work culture that exists between people and this can impact on its performance. It achieves this by uniting employees around collective goals and the adoption of team-like behaviors, such as the giving of feedback.

5.3B: A purpose workplace coaching is to increase leader effectiveness and organizational productivity. As a device of coaching, this occurs as the coachee (a leader) learns to create an environment more conducive to teamwork.

5.3C: When people are not amenable toward one another it results in poor collegial relationships and lower levels of team-work. A purpose of workplace coaching is to help teams overcome these issues through the following devices: increasing their collective ownership of issues, trust and facilitate information sharing.

5.3D: A purpose of coaching is to create social conditions in which teamwork and be improved. But, this will only occur if it is well understood by the manager as coach who is the facilitator of coaching conversations. If not, then, coaching may be used inappropriately and this may confuse its participants, result in poor uptake and the development of poor group social conditions. To this end, a device of coaching therefore coach education and training.

5.3E: To be functional in a social context a leader must have a measure of self-awareness as well as competence, however, too much of these can effectively isolate them from their team. A purpose of coaching is to help them to achieve this balance.
5.3F: A purpose of coaching is to increase leader role-interdependence. The devices used to achieve this reflect a change in style, which include: greater utilization of their support networks; development of strategies around communication and task delegation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.4A: In the context of organizational culture, a coaching orientation is one whose purpose is to develop the strengths of high potential people who have the capability and desire to move to a more challenging role. As a device, it emphasizes strengths rather than weaknesses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4B: Whilst an organizational culture with a coaching orientation emphasizes the building strengths, it does not ignore weaknesses, rather one of its devices is also to raise awareness about them and address them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4C: An organizational culture with a coaching orientation is one in which individual weaknesses are viewed as a normal and healthy consequence of organizational growth and development. To this extent, they are a device of employee development and workplace coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4D: Since coaching emphasizes the building of strengths and developing potential, it cannot be effective in an environment in which the leadership is not willing to take ownership of challenges and instead believe that their people are a ‘part of the problem’. To this extent, organizational culture is a pivotal device of workplace coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4E: The purpose of an organization with a coaching orientation is to maximize the potential of its people, despite their weaknesses. A device of coaching in this regard is the view of a management, which sees the potential in a leader with obvious deficiencies and challenges, but prefers to support and retain them, rather than terminate them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4F: If a manager is in ‘relationship’ with a subordinate, they are in a unique position to recognize the potential of a subordinate and can be an instrumental device in facilitating coaching support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4G: A purpose of coaching approach in leadership is to foster a high level of engagement with subordinates. This occurs through the device of developmental conversation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4H: Given the importance of emphasizing strengths in an organization with a coaching orientation, a device of a coaching orientated culture is the appropriate use of feedback tools, which can be used to highlight people’s weaknesses and deficiencies instead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5A: A purpose of coaching is to support leaders to keep pace with a changing environment. The need to align and develop their strengths with the requirements of the environment is a key driver for developmental support and device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5B: The exact nature of the support required by leaders during development may not be obvious to an organization, but, it needs to be appropriate for what the organization is trying to achieve and coaching may be complemented by other approaches to development. In this sense, other approaches to development are a device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5C: A purpose of coaching is to provide support input to leaders during challenging periods, and the devices they might use to achieve this purpose include insight, advice, role modeling and feedback. For example, support through coaching might provide leaders with situational insights related to the challenges they face; or, a leader in a new role may need a role model, which is something that a coach can provide if it is not available in the organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5.5D: A device of coaching is the involvement of important stakeholders in the coaching process, which include managing supervisors and HR managers, who play an important role in providing supplementary support to the coach and coachee. They do this by monitoring progress, as well as giving and receiving</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
feedback. But, for them to function properly in this role, they need unofficial coaching from the coach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part C</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1A:</strong> The relative success of coaching conversations that occur between managers and their subordinates during the career development process may be linked to strongly the individual managers involved. To this extent, a manager as coach is a device of coaching. One of their functions is to ensure that the development priorities the sub-ordinate sets for themselves are aligned with the organization’s agenda and their job description.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1B:</strong> The decisions a manager makes about who will and will not receive coaching may be a function of the quality of the relationship (LMX) that a manager has with a sub-ordinate. If a manager has a high LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate, then they may support coaching for that sub-ordinate, but, not another. Conversely, if a leader has a low LMX relationship with a sub-ordinate they may not be as willing to recommend coaching to help them personally. If they do coaching, the reasons stated may be more functional than personal. To this extent, LMX relationship status is a device of coaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>6.1C:</strong> The performance appraisal process is a device of coaching to the extent that it can be used as a justification for the coaching. A secondary device is the manager involved in its implementation, who identifies areas for employee development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1D:</strong> A purpose of a coaching approach is to enhance the performance management and appraisal process, however, coaching is a distinctly separate process. If it is perceived as a separate, the level of buy-in for coaching from leaders as coaches and subordinates may be low. In this sense, stakeholder clarity around the differences an implementation consistent with this understanding is a device of workplace coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1E:</strong> Although the performance appraisal system is a device of coaching, it is separate to the coaching process. But, it can still be characterized by more of a coaching approach in which the manager empowers a sub-ordinate to self-direct, and uses relationship power, rather than formal authority to influence their development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1F:</strong> Identifying the true cause of poor sub-ordinate performance will result in better allocation of coaching resources and more effective coaching. In that sense, a needs analysis is a device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1G:</strong> If the executive leadership in an organization is united as a team, then the effects of coaching on organizational change may be more pronounced. This is because as a team they are more likely to exemplify the kind of behaviours they expect others, and be more committed to the prioritization of a culture of empowerment and opportunity. This in turn then sets the agenda for the organization and further mandates the need for coaching throughout the organization. To this extent, their ‘unity’ is a device of coaching in terms of organizational change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1H:</strong> An executive leader’s involvement in a coaching program is a device of coaching, because it results in a higher level of buy-in and is therefore more likely to spread rapidly and in that sense have a strategic effect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1I:</strong> The existence of a poor leadership culture in an organization, expressed by an indifference to employees may act as a barrier to successful coaching and limit intended organizational change. To this extent, leadership engagement is a device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1J:</strong> If leaders in an organization have an opportunity to network and share their experiences with other leaders who have received coaching as part of the coaching experience, it can have a strategic effect in an organization. The opportunity to network and share knowledge in a participative environment is both a purpose and a device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
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<td>Part D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2A: The embedding of rigour in a coaching design is important to the extent that a lack of rigour may retard an organization’s ability to determine if a coaching initiative has been successful. It is therefore a device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2B: Because of the limitations of a scientific approach to coaching (empirical rigour) i.e. with regard to measuring coachee’s progress and the delivery of feedback around this, and that empirical instruments can only approximate reality, an understanding of these limitations for organizations is a device of coaching as much as the instruments themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2C: Even if an organization has the available tools to facilitate the adoption of a scientific approach to coaching, their lack of resolve and commitment to a scientific approach to coaching may be an impediment to achieving rigour. On this basis, these are then a device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3A: Organizations require adequate structure around their coaching interventions to be effective because the structure helps to communicate underlying expectations to all stakeholders. To this extent, ‘structure’ is a device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3B: In practice, organizations may struggle with how to structure their coaching initiatives because they need clarity around its dimensions, such as goals, KPIs, purposes and processes. Gaining clarity around these dimensions is then both a purpose and device of workplace coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3C: An organization’s learning and development strategy is a unifying structure, under which sit a number of complementary approaches to development (including coaching, mentoring and role modeling). Under this framework, each can work toward the common goals of the L&amp;D strategy. From this perspective, an organization’s L&amp;D strategy is an important device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3D: The collection and utilization of formal feedback is a necessary component of the structure needed to inform coaching design. The collection of feedback is a process that a coach may be involved in. In this regard, the collection of feedback is both a purpose and a device of coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3E: Because of the challenges associated with the data collection process and to gain the most benefit for the organization, it may be necessary for the process to be centralized and sponsored by a key business leader in the organization. In this regard, they are both devices of coaching.</td>
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## APPENDIX E: PARTICIPANT CHARACTERISTICS

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<tr>
<th>PARTICIPANT ID</th>
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### APPENDIX F: PARTICIPANT RESPONSES BY THEME SECTION

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<th>PARTICIPANT COMMENT</th>
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<td>5.1.1</td>
<td>Coach 1</td>
<td>“…coaching also addresses key factors such as retention, engagement and motivation. These factors, whilst aimed at the individual, have a significant impact on the organization as a whole…coaching aligns the individuals aims with those of the organization…”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach 2</td>
<td>“…with organizations, what got them here now, will not get them to where they want to go next….If the organizations haven't had time to diagnose how the current company culture is and where they next want to be, because their focus is more on day to day aspects rather than growth, then this is where strategic partnership is valuable. The coach can support their partners to see from different perspectives how they can approach the problem and fully see the solutions from a number of different ways….”</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.1.1.1</td>
<td>Coach 1</td>
<td>“…coaching has been shown to have significantly positive benefits in making employees feel appreciated and listened to, as well as reducing turnover rates…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach 2</td>
<td>“…huge deficits in professionally trained employees means companies have to find ways to be attractive to hold personnel, not only via permanent contracts…. coaching is a key point here…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach 3</td>
<td>”...there had been some pretty notable results. People had been turned around and rather than go somewhere else they stayed in the business...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach 4</td>
<td>”...Definitely. I might not have lasted in the job....It could have ended up that way or it could have ended up with me leaving....”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach 5</td>
<td>”You’re going to find that your retention rates are much higher. You’re not only spending all that money on recruitment because people aren’t going to leave. Lion Nathan has a very high retention rate, for example...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach 5</td>
<td>”... and sometimes it [the outcome] is negative and they leave because they are having such a bad time in the organization… and that’s a good thing. You don’t want those people in an organization, because for whatever reason culturally they’re not right for the organization and that’s OK - so get out and do something else...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach 6</td>
<td>”...I was reminded of the number of times you’re often coaching somebody out of an organization. So, not in the sense that their bad performers or anything, but actually someone’s at a point in their life where they’re trying to decide where they want to go or want they want to do, and so that doesn’t fit succession planning exactly. But for me it’s still a valid thing to do because if the organization’s got the right attitude about its people, then it’s not going to want to try and hold somebody that doesn’t really want to...”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
be there.....".

Coach 7  
"...there’s one organization I do work with where it’s usually problem children. They’ve come my way...if I think about the few people I have coached it’s always with an aim of making them more effective and keeping them in the business, rather than if they don’t ship up they’re out. It was much more ‘We want to get this person to be more effective in our organization’....".

Coach 8  
"...I think on the other side of the coin is people that aren’t performing to the level that they should be, then there is a role there to bring them up to where they should be.... As I said, not everyone would fit into that category, but in terms of the people there that we want to salvage for the future, we can provide coaching to do that. There will be some that are unsalvageable, so we don’t have to worry about them. That is where I sort of see it.....". "...At the end of the day, I have actually removed her out of the role that she was in and placed her into another role....[because of] the relationship stuff. She still reports to me, but she doesn’t have the involvement with the other people that she did. Some of those potential issues that were there have now been resolved by that approach [through coaching].....". "...it would have been the exit strategy because we just could not have tolerated what was going on....".

Coach 9  
"...Let me take the example that I talked about of the gentleman who is a really good strategic thinker, but struggles to engage his team and hold his team accountable. I think he is someone our company wants to hang on to because his strategic thinking ability is fantastic and there are not many other people who can think like that and have his knowledge base. If we could actually get him to deliver on more stuff that would be fantastic because he would be three times more effective than he currently is. But, the fact that you are coaching and you feel valued, you are probably still getting improvement....".

Coach 10  
"...The first metric was the metric that the Chief Information Officer had set up as her metric which was that everyone in IT in her organization would make their next career move within the organization. In other words, they would not exit the organization....she wanted to create an environment where people wanted to, even if they wanted to grow out of the IT world, that they would stay within the larger parent company, but just move out of the IT of the organization into somewhere else within it....".

Coach 11  
"...If staff know what they are meant to be doing and to what standard, then they are better able to do it. But, a lot of businesses would have a revolving door of staff.....[because] there is no job description, there are no procedures. And, underpinning all of that, if you documented these procedures then you got all of these benefits.....".

5.1.1.2 Coach 3  
"...There is no question about that....now can that be achieved without coaching? I will say no and I will tell you why....[it's because] I know that they are not having those [coaching] conversations with their leaders. I have people that say 'no one has ever taken that level of interest in me'. What does that mean? Well, it means that you are either not getting 100 per cent out of the person or they are going to leave...It is engagement, it is as simple as this.....".

Coach 10  
"...You know the people who were delinquent, that number went down dramatically. So, you didn’t have a lot of complaints of the less senior people about the senior people......a level of satisfaction with your current manager.....".

Coach 12  
"...that program has had a mixed response. Some people loved it, but I would say that the people who loved it were the people you would expect to love it. They were natural learners, probably tend to be younger although not always. [Yet] with other teams in that program there was really strong resistance. ‘Why? - we’re too busy! Why should we have to do this, we’re not interested’ or ‘We’ll come, but we won’t do any of the follow-up or any of the assignments or work afterwards’......it’s been [less successful with] people
who feel they’re too busy or younger people who feel ‘I’ve got nothing to learn here’. So, people who are naturally learners have enjoyed it and people who are older....”.

Coach 13

“...At a strategic level.....we are actually investing in the human capital of the people that are working for us and we are helping with the learning process...by having the structured programs we are actually educating them and you actually give them the best opportunity that they can have...by having a structured coaching program or the capability to give people what they need....an appetite for the tools and capability and self challenging... It allows someone to grow to potentially what they had could not have grown into before. From an organizational strategic perspective, I think it is an extremely valuable thing to do...". But, he also suggested coaching may not be appropriate the tool to satisfy younger generations, who may have other priorities "...I am not so sure with the new generation coming through. I think their drivers are different and to a certain degree they have different needs. It might help individuals get to where they want in terms of career, but, organizations may not get the pay off....”.

Coach 7

“...Ultimately it was about numbers, so it was about them being much more relationship oriented, rather than transactional. So, it was about them building stronger relationships with their customers and ensuring that they were long term, rather than just going in to fulfill a need...". "...A lot of it was around relationships - so, improved relationships either within the business or with some key clients. That was always a common one that came up....some would talk about that ‘there been an impact on sales...”.

Coach 14

“...well things are running pretty warmly, you know they are getting towards the hot end and they are much more effective than they were before. Our business results have illustrated that in a lot of ways. In all areas, not just sales and profitability, but in how effective we are at executing some of the strategies….and our safety and our customer service, a whole heap of things have been substantially enhanced during that period....”.

Coach 7

“...if you look at the high potential program, they have a succession plan and a talent management process that people go through. People who come through that then go to a development centre. Coming out of that, they identify some development needs…. and they have the opportunity to have a coach....”.

Coach 6

“...In a general HR context, it’s definitely a useful tool, one of many in the kit - definitely a useful tool for succession planning and picking up on your potential talent early on to develop them....”.

Coach 15

“...but the ones that I’ve coached here - I’ve seen this trend which shows no signs of abating in the last eight to ten years of really lavishing coaching on what they call the ‘high-pro-population’ - the high potential population. People who will eventually get themselves into the succession plan because of their performance….I’ve seen some really great things happen when a training, mentoring and coaching combo are presented to these high pros....”.

Coach 3

“...there is a [coaching] candidate in this organization who has just been given a relieving role as a General Manager, so he has gone forward to a big role....”.

Coach 8

"...Number one is looking at succession planning and looking at the talent pool that we have in the business and looking at the critical positions we need to fill at the senior level....Is there a role in coaching to bring those people to the next level? Some there is not and some there might be.....".
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coach 16</th>
<th>“…we’re not good at it, and to answer that question we haven’t even gone down that path of coaching yet. The word ‘succession planning’ is still being bandied around in the department. They really have no idea of what it means so we’re taking an approach in coaching more at the individual level managing that risk, and I would refer to that more as career development coaching. So, it’s not being driven from the top down from a risk management perspective - that is the succession planning stuff…. we are generally slack in our department around succession planning. It’s atrocious…..”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coach 11</td>
<td>“…one of the biggest barriers for a small business to that is budget…..they would love to do a lot more than they do, but they don’t have the budget…..”</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.1.2 Coach 3</td>
<td>“…so, I would look for signs. Again, as I said, the 360 indicates this [change], but I would look for the narrative of people…..about how the business is different from when I started to coach that person. Then hopefully you have the business results and that it is now getting 200 tons a month instead of 150 tons a month…..it is the narrative from the person…..and it is the business outcomes. Sometimes you only get two out of three……”. In any case, he says that it is impossible to isolate the exact impact that coaching has in an organization “…the thing that annoys most people about coaching, especially who are interested in results, is that it is almost impossible…..with a whole range of other micro and macro [factors] to know exactly what is the organizational impact….I wouldn’t put my name to any study that I have seen today that says ‘we have improved leadership by three per cent’. I have seen people write that crap and I just laugh at it…..”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 10</td>
<td>&quot;....it wasn’t a failure, but it didn’t change - the needle didn’t change…But, they ended up bringing the program inside, because having external coaches didn’t seem to really actually move the needle for them. …it took too long for people to become embedded in the culture and understand what the jeune c'est ques were…..&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 12</td>
<td>&quot;...a lot of the turbulence in the last twelve months has been [due to a] lack of agreement between these senior leaders, and a lot of the problems with Performance Development Plan has been lack of agreement amongst these senior leaders. One or two of them don’t like it, [are] not interested in it. So, of course you’re going to have problems implementing it when you got an Executive Director in this department or that department who’s not interested in it or telling staff to 'forget about it. It doesn’t matter……it’s no wonder we are right down at the bottom, we’re running around chasing our tails wondering why things aren’t working…..&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 9</td>
<td>&quot;....I think we are sitting back going ‘that didn’t really work’. So, as I said, I am not sure as to what extent we got it wrong. We didn’t have the right structure in place and we had a sort of one coach for everyone, so there is a couple of areas where we might of got it wrong. But, I guess I have also been wrestling with, to what extent coaching really works in an ongoing business environment…&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 8</td>
<td>&quot;...I suppose if I was perfectly honest – there are times I guess that perhaps I still think that I should of cut my loses and ran….While things have got a hell of a lot better, there is always that thing in my mind that maybe at any time, if similar circumstances come up, I might be faced with the same problem……I think maybe at times coaching can be a little bit overdone and it tends to go on and on and on. So, I think from an organizational point of view, there is a cost to the business with that and you have to evaluate and say well what value is it really adding ?.....&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 13</td>
<td>&quot;...I suspect the approach to how we do coaching will have to change. For example, with the age group, which she [the coachee] is in, which is sort of mid-30’s age group, they still have a fair bit of company loyalty you might say, the retention factor. …the 18 year olds now that are coming through, their general direction is, ‘I will work for you for two years and then I will go and work for someone else’. There is no shortage of roles for those people and they bounce around from job to job and their drive is more around, ‘are you doing something about greenhouse gas omission, because I can get $70,000 from the next person, just as well I can get it from you’?... I am not so sure with the new generation coming through. I think their drivers are different and to a certain degree they have different needs...&quot;.</td>
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<td>5.1.3</td>
<td>Coach 18</td>
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<td>Coach 20</td>
<td>&quot;...I see significant value in using coaching (and similar methodologies) as a strategic tool to support and develop the human capital within organizations, and to help them focus on what is important to themselves, their teams, customers, leaders and other stakeholders....&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 21</td>
<td>&quot;...[the] benefits of coaching are proven in organizations. It’s the only discipline that deals with the more important asset...people...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 22</td>
<td>&quot;...When you support as a coach an individual employee, the main goal is to bring assistance to the organization, allowing individuals to improve skills that are required to the company as a whole....&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 18</td>
<td>&quot;...coaching assists in the success of an individual and thereby the success of a leadership change or transition....&quot;</td>
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<td>Coach 23</td>
<td>&quot;...coaching can assist people [leaders] to step into their new roles in a way that helps them look outside of themselves, which is what is necessary in order to flourish....&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 22</td>
<td>&quot;...Actually most of my coaching experience with HR leaders is to give them support to improve the global organization effectiveness....&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 10</td>
<td>&quot;...There’s the occasional leader who’s so transformational that this particular person...their effectiveness is so great, that they can influence an entire organization....But for the most part, even with the most influential transformational, developmental leader.....chances are that they are working with many people across the system to enhance [them]....&quot;</td>
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<td>Coach 3</td>
<td>&quot;...you modify behaviour of an enlarged group of people and then that becomes pervasive.....if you are attacking that pivotal group of leaders at the level three or four, who are the leaders of the future and you equip them to lead effectively, then, to my mind that is the best chance of organizational change....&quot;. I know at the outset, I think [the HR director] AG knew that, and I know that he saw the ANZ Bank and Microsoft and IBM and Orica, they have a similar sort of approach where they have coaches that are chipping away on the group that look like that they are going to go through.....&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 24</td>
<td>“...If I coach a senior executive ...I am partnering with that leader to be more effective - individually, as well as leading her/his organization to greater effectiveness...”</td>
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<td>Coach 15</td>
<td>&quot;...Once a leader of new responsibilities feels more confident......they are better able to delegate. Because they're better able to delegate, the team is more effective. Because the team is more effective there's more of an attraction proposal for others who want to join the team and maybe they're more effective at interfacing with other teams. All of those things are possible, trickledown effects, and I think they do happen....&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 25</td>
<td>&quot;...the individual works with others and individuals develop their work areas / lead / make decisions, strategies etc, so are the living blood and beating heart of the organization.&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.1.4 Coach 3</td>
<td>&quot;......people claim that ‘this’ drove that change, but in fact, it is always a blended situation or a blended impact that actually causes the change and understanding that that is the way things happen....&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 26</td>
<td>&quot;...there are certainly some situations, especially when you’re coaching mid management.....you can influence change one person at a time, but only as much as the system will support. I learnt early on.....that if you’re coaching someone in a system that doesn’t really want change, it can actually be detrimental....&quot;. &quot;...So if you’re coaching senior executives and I coach a lot in the ‘C’ suites, then you’re able to influence change. But to do it, there has to be a clear sense of who they’re going to be as a leadership team, how are they going to walk the talk and what kind of messages they communicate.....not only what they say, but what they do....&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 27</td>
<td>“...Obviously, there are a number of things that will affect the impact of coaching, such as:  the influence of the individual (including position &amp; responsibility within the org) i.e. CEO may have a greater influence on organizational change than a cleaner; number of people being coached - the more people are being coached, the greater the influence;  the status of coaching - for performance management vs high potentials; clarity on the role of coaching within the change process - is it being used strategically or as the only model of change? Organizational support and clarity around change as well as systems that support the change will also be important here....”</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 28</td>
<td>“...creating a better environment....”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 27</td>
<td>“...similar to agent driven models in the field of complex adaptive systems, coaching, which supports an individual can influence the system...coaching has the opportunity to provide development, often in spite of organizational reluctance, due to its personal and focused nature...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.2.1 Coach 25</td>
<td>&quot;...There are people in organizations who have a natural coaching skill and have been excellent mentors in the past. Today though, there is a greater need for these skills, so it's important to have trained coaches, including the option of widening the range of issues where support is offered and the number of people supported...&quot;.&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach</td>
<td>Quote</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 11</td>
<td>&quot;...so I don’t go in and say this is how you should work – we find out what they want and together we develop it. And you think with 'buy-in', that they would do it...we would train anybody, and we would document it. And then I would find that it was falling over. ‘Oh, hang on a minute, you all agreed?’ And then I found that in a majority of cases men i.e. CEOs or managing directors, [were] over forty, married with kids, and a boat, and no idea how to manage staff or how to deal with people...&quot;. &quot;...They were entrepreneurs, they had started a business, they had a great idea; they were great at selling ....'Like I am a great surfboard maker and everyone likes my surfboards. Now suddenly my business has grown and I have grabbed all of these people to help, but I haven’t got job descriptions; I haven’t got an organization chart; I haven’t got work flow; and ‘god’ I don’t know how to look after these people’...&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 17</td>
<td>&quot;... We haven’t done that well. Particularly from the research point of view.....it would be interesting from my perspective....to see some movement. To say ‘OK where are we now? What are the strategies that we put in place to get the positive movement on that [coaching skills]' and then tracking how that’s going to actually see what we’re doing is working both in terms of the leaders ability.....and how they’re having that conversation and the individual’s experience in the midst of that. But then also to the organizational bottom line, the wellbeing of our people, as well as productivity and work quality, service and all that sort of stuff...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 1</td>
<td>&quot;...addressing [people] capability gaps allows participants to lead, communicate and perform more effectively...&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 11</td>
<td>&quot;...ok, ‘so you need to know how to be assertive, not aggressive?’....we would teach them eye messages, avoiding ‘you’ statements, how to actively listen. So these are all communication skills that I would use from Thomas Gordon’s effective training. So, we would facilitate and then they would practice these skills and surprise, surprise – ‘Oh Gosh, I am having much better relationships; I am not wasting time on reworks of jobs because I am saying what I mean, and people are understanding’...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 17</td>
<td>&quot;...it’s still involves emotional intelligence and still involves basic management competency...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.2.2 Coach 16</td>
<td>&quot;,...quite often we will be working with the middle managers...We help them develop coaching skills as well as coach them...We’re actually getting feedback from manager’s staff saying ‘You can see a bit of change in him’. ‘He actually asks us questions now rather than just bellows’. So, I think sometimes it’s those things that we found are recognized. We’re actually changing the working culture between people and that ultimately impacts them on performance &quot;,...When we work with the leaders, we’re definitely more into - I guess you would call it a full-time coaching model, which is very much leadership visioning, getting some clarity around where you want to be in a year, two years, three years - depending on where you want the organization to be and then helping them translate that back down to and almost strategic operational type stuff, ‘Now how do you get that to the people who have to operationalize that? ...you build that relationship with them to ensure this happens’...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 12</td>
<td>&quot;...the safety net’s been taken away a little bit [for employees]...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 29</td>
<td>&quot;...a coach gives the power to people to find themselves the best way to grow...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 1</td>
<td>“…[coaching] encourages the participant to arrive at their own conclusions, leading to greater commitment to the actions required….”</td>
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<td>Coach 12</td>
<td>“…they moved from a commanding control style of management to a more coaching style of management. It went from the Manager being the source of all the answers and all the expertise to someone who was gifted in asking questions and guiding and providing resources and support where necessary….empowering the workers to think more about their own jobs, set their own challenges and come up with solutions themselves….”.</td>
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<td>5.2.3</td>
<td>Coach 12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 12</td>
<td>“…I think the idea has been that a coaching approach will involve short term sacrifice, so it will be painful in the short term. But in terms of creating workers who are being challenged to think about their life and seek out creative solutions and become these people who are empowered to actually think for themselves and talk with supporters [customers] in a authentic and meaningful way - there’s a sense that they have to own it a bit more and they have to not just be parroting stuff they’ve heard…. to become learners, rather than just receivers of orders….”.</td>
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<td>Coach 12</td>
<td>“…One of the first things I did was run a program called Empower where I took every team through this program where they were essentially taught how to, at a really basic level, just do a bit of self-evaluation of their role and where they felt the performance gaps where and challenging them to go out and find solutions to their own learning needs….”. &quot;...It was designed to get individuals to actually, rather than just Managers saying ‘This is what you’re going to learn’, actually getting individuals to say ‘I know my job and I know this is what I need to learn and I’m going to go out and seek a solution’....”</td>
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<td>5.3.1</td>
<td>Coach 12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 2</td>
<td>“…working in any organizations requires team of diverse individuals to co-operate interdependently to achieve the overall goal. Leverageing both the team and individuals will be more rewarding and satisfying….”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach 16</td>
<td>“…we’re actually changing the working culture between people [through coaching] and that ultimately impacts them on performance...”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 29</td>
<td>“…by a systemic approach [coaching] helps groups to grow on the same with the same objectives for a collective goals….”.</td>
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<td>Coach 3</td>
<td>“…My coaching is effective when people act and they can demonstrate that they realize that they have to get results through others. So, I look at what others are saying now and if others are giving that upward suggestion of improvement, others are commenting on the performance of the peers, the lead team performs differently….they are the real bottom line…”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach 13</td>
<td>“…So, the group was not effective. We were having all sorts of issues around productivity and we were having all sorts of issues around people…”. “…I was probably spending a minimum of an hour a day micromanaging aspects of the group, and I was also spending a fair bit of time hosing down complaints and issues escalated from outside of the group about the group’s performance……when it is not my job…I now don’t spend much time at all in that space. The issues are managed within the group and get escalated to me when they are appropriate to be escalated to me…. the number of issues and escalations and complaints around the performance decreased and the productivity of the group increased…”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.3.2</td>
<td>Coach 30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 14</td>
<td>“... in terms of the team, my team…. compared to where we were two years ago, I believe that team is far more empowered than they were…”. “...well things are running pretty warmly, you know, they are getting towards the hot end and they are much more effective than they were before. Our business results have illustrated that in a lot of ways. In all areas, not just sales and profitability, but in how effective we are at executing some of the strategies and themes and our safety and our customer service. A whole heap of things have been substantially enhanced during that period…”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.3.3.1</td>
<td>Coach 23</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 8</td>
<td>“...It did affect performance from a relationship point of view. There was a lot of things happening about blame and criticism of other people and not accepting a lot of the responsibility of things that she should be doing. That is what was generating frustration with other people that she was dealing with…. “…..Yes, that is right. She had a pretty pivotal role in the business and obviously had to deal with lots of stakeholders in the business and it was just frustration being experienced by other people. I am not suggesting that everyone else was squeaky clean either but, I think it was just a bit of head butting going between different parties….”.</td>
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<td>Coach 4</td>
<td>“...I am now more able to step out of the operational side of things. I have more confidence in my management team and dealing with the operational sort of things. I think more about how to improve things or how to move things forward. They also seem to have the understanding of what I want to know as well. Again, you know, I suppose it is more reinforcing of that, having the confidence to step away from the operational…”.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 30</td>
<td>&quot;...I didn’t know that that individual had had coaching and I certainly was not aware that we could get to a point where we could actually exchange information. I found that that was really helpful in this example and in fact, I found my engagements with that person have improved dramatically. By that I mean, I understand essentially what she is looking for in a peer and I have been able to sort of change my approach and massage my approach a bit to be able to engage her a lot....&quot;. He says that the coach was able to facilitate a process of sharing between the two coachees &quot;... in discussions with my coach, this example surfaced and my coach was able to seek my permission to commence a process of sharing information to see if we could create some better engagement. So, that was very useful....&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 17</td>
<td>&quot;...I wondered whether we’re trying to do too many things in one, so that maybe this isn’t actually a performance appraisal thing as such, it’s a whole lot of things....might be why we’re getting confusion.....&quot;. &quot;... And there are a whole lot of reasons for that and they’re different depending on what team you’re in. Some teams are working really well. Other teams were not working well because the leader doesn’t buy into it or it might be that it doesn’t match what they’re wanting it to be or they just don’t understand it....&quot;.</td>
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<td>5.3.3.2 Coach 13</td>
<td>&quot;...there are two aspects. One is to give her the self awareness to be able to do these sorts of things and the other aspect is to give her the tools to enable her to do it......Those two hand in hand, effectively makes someone into a good manager and they can’t operate in isolation, because if you have someone who is totally self aware and totally self capable and all of that sort of stuff but, have no idea what to do they become an arrogant pain in the arse....&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 14</td>
<td>&quot;...I don’t really want to take other people’s advice as much as I could benefit from it. I had run my own race and make my own mistakes and not utilize the support network that was around me, even though it wasn’t part of my business and that was something that was making my job harder for me to do....I was taking more responsibility than I probably needed to....I was keeping a lot of things within my business that I could make someone else’s problem....&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 4</td>
<td>&quot;...I don’t email. I talk a lot more now. I make sure I catch up regularly with the guys in my team that are out of State or, out of this area whenever I can and just talk to the peers and go out there and ask for feedback and find out what the challenges are for the business and try to make things better....&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.4.1 Coach 2</td>
<td>&quot;...Coaching can work with individuals to leverage their personal strengths...&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 14</td>
<td>&quot;...this is a program where the people who can become General Managers and beyond. Some of them have been put on to this program. So, it was couched to me in terms of ‘we are not trying to fix up a heap of problems with you. We are trying to build on strengths that you have got and help you in some areas where you could be more effective, in order to make you ready for another role’....&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 13</td>
<td>&quot;...the goals were around boosting her self confidence in her own capabilities to do these things because she was a self doubter. So, one of the major goals was to boost her capabilities, but also to recognize her weaknesses because she obviously had some. It was to recognize what they were and to put in some action plans around addressing them. So, it was targeted more at a personal self awareness......&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 8</td>
<td>&quot;... I could just see he was doing really well, but just saw that there was an opportunity there to help him to better himself in some of those areas....through the performance management system as well, we identified that there was some areas there that we could help him in and this was one of the avenues to look at....&quot;.</td>
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<td>5.4.2 Coach 31</td>
<td>&quot;...they thought I was coming in to fix all these people...we’re up here; we’re the ones who have arrived and we are the most important - you [the coach] get these guys going... I go right and say ‘I don’t coach to fix.’ ‘I don’t fix anybody’. You all have all you...&quot;.</td>
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need here and we’re going to work on that point of view because I’m aware that that does happen a great deal of the time and certainly at the executive suit…I try hard to be very clear about that...”.

Coach 13

"...I wasn’t there when the original decision was made, but, from a background perspective it was really around, the fact that we could see the potential in her, but she didn’t have the self belief that she had that capability. She also wasn’t equipped with the tools to help her bring that capability to the fore and unfortunately, from an IT management perspective, we didn’t have the focus to be able to spend the time with her....”.

Coach 8

"...We were going to have a plan to try and resolve the situation or were we going to have a plan as an exit strategy’. I was more than happy to do what I could to make it not the exit strategy avenue. I thought that there was some opportunity to redeem the situation and some opportunity to move on. So, I was prepared to give that a try...”.

Coach 8

"...I know this leader really well, we go back a long time and I could just see he was doing really well, but just saw that there was an opportunity there to help him to better himself in some of those areas...”.

Coach 15

"...we thought that by having these conversations that it would ‘rub off’ coaching skill transfer and … everyone would now be speaking in human potential terms to their people and being really clear about expectations. Working hard to clarify goals and making sure that they were not only smart, but they were exciting and they were recorded etc - and this did not happen. But, we had some people who were very, very receptive and they wanted to add something to their leadership repertoire, so they embraced the coaching language, the coaching approach and brought it forward ....”.

Coach 25

"...to analyses the requirements of the new environment, (often soft), and explore their personal strengths/areas needing development, viable personal options...”.

Coach 30

"...I am operating in an environment of constant change where I am dealing with different challenges, different people and different demands, coaching helps to better equip you with the abilities to cope with those changes…..I do think that having a coach that can interact with you throughout your working life, particularly in a senior role and during your career path. It definitely helps support your effectiveness and maybe even progress that journey faster than if you were left floundering on your own...”.

Coach 4

"...Well the group that I am in charge of, SAP, has gone through a huge growth spurt and the service that we provided and the group in general were new. So, it [the coaching] was around you know, figuring out what the best structure was and what was meaningful to the business from a service delivery point of view and really getting that service up and running.....like any IT project, you deliver it and there is a lot focus on delivery and meeting the budget and timeframes around that but, the support of the ‘committee’ was somewhat understated at the time....”.

Coach 13

"...The SAP group was growing rapidly - it grew from five people to 35 people. The person who was originally in charge, when there was five people, reached the peak of their capabilities at the time and was moved out and another person stepped into that role with no real support from senior management in the IT. She started sinking and there was a whole heap of issues that she had around her personal capabilities or belief in her capabilities to do these sort of things. An opportunity came up [for coaching] to participate……”.

Coach 1

"...periods of career transition can be some of the most challenging times for employees within organizations. Transition can result in increased stress, reduced performance levels and greater staff turnover…..”.

And, coach 24 says that the chance of failure for a leader is high during transition “...The attrition within the first year for new executives is very high ... last survey I read said 40%. This has a ripple down effect across an entire organization....”.

Coach 8

"...I guess I would have needed a mentor to some degree. Because I went from a technical role…I have always proactively volunteered for things or stepped up to the plate to show that I would take things on. But, to go to what I went to with all the issues that came with that job at the time, I would have needed something. Whether it was just a different development plan or maybe I
could have substituted coaching with something else in a different sort of format instead of the one on one...I definitely needed something...". "...At the time this was an issue with my Manager. He was a Project Manager as well and he had a large project that he was responsible for delivering, so I didn’t really have a lot of access to him. I was dealing directly with the CIO, so I was more or less reporting straight to him and there was just a huge gap...". Similarly, the coach 8 says that for one of the coachees a change of job was the reason that the coaching was needed “… there was actually a change of job. He moved from a NSW Workers Compensation Manager into an Operations Manager role, which had more of a national focus....”.

<table>
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<th>Coach 2</th>
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<td>&quot;...transitioning into a new position, particularly when you have been trained in any technical areas, to suddenly focus on soft skills. This can be challenging especially when there has been little education around personal and relationship dynamics as it’s assumed that people should already know - like being able to speak one’s mother tongue...when individuals transition into new and more challenging positions, they often only have 90 days to prove their capabilities as everyone is expected to be more connected with their roles....&quot;.</td>
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<th>Coach 4</th>
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<td>&quot;...[coaching] seemed like a good idea and I was fairly new in this position. I came from a technical role to a managerial role so, that is quite a change....&quot;. &quot;...I have always, I guess, been a bit intimidated by others that have either been above me or more senior than me in a similar role or, it appears for them to be senior to me. The coach gave me that confidence to be able to have those discussions...around how to deal with particular situations and different ways of influencing and engaging. What particular characteristics of people and others I should look out for. What can drive those behaviours, like behaviours of other people and what can drive them....&quot;.</td>
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5.5.2 Coach 1

"...coaching can work alongside the more traditional approaches as well...".

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<th>Coach 32</th>
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<td>&quot;...Is coaching more effective than these other tools? not when they are used in the right way. i.e. a well presented, relevant training program will be of greater effect when teaching specific knowledge/skills than a general coach. Yes, there is evidence to support a coaching approach to training (action learning, appreciative inquiry approaches etc.). Key here is to find the most relevant solution to motivate participants to learn what will support them (and the organization) achieve their goals....&quot;.</td>
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<th>Coach 17</th>
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<td>&quot;...Once we actually figure out what these conversations, these one-to-ones should look like and remembering that they’re going to be different all the time because individuals are in different roles and everything. We need a clear picture of what they should look like, and then work out how do we actually support our leaders in having those conversations?....&quot;.</td>
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<th>Coach 30</th>
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<td>&quot;...My expectation was that going into the coaching, I was of the view that having an independent person look at the particular scenarios that I was faced with and providing me with some insights as to how I might approach those differently to what I would ordinarily approach them, and that this may give me better outcomes.....&quot;.</td>
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<th>Coach 14</th>
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<td>&quot;...Advice and someone to sit down and listen to me and someone to talk through the different options on how to deal with these situations.....I guess reinforcing the things that are important. Like with development of the group, what is important and really, when you are within a group sometimes things are - it is obvious that when you are in a group, but when you are outside the group looking in you can’t always see what is important. What might be important to them....&quot;.</td>
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<th>Coach 27</th>
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<td>&quot;...Coaching provides the opportunity for &quot;as needed&quot; customized solutions for those involved (and their teams). By this I mean that coaching at its most basic can help the individual to effectively define their challenges and begin to seek solutions....[this helps] during times of transition and challenge as these are defined by a lack of clarity around challenges and objectives....&quot;.</td>
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<th>Coach 4</th>
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<tr>
<td>&quot;...I think I came to understand it fully through the process, but certainly drawing from the coach’s experiences and those conversations, he certainly made me more aware of what a good leader does. I guess more of a difference between a leader versus a Manager versus, you know. I suppose I hadn’t really, I didn’t really have a good model. You know - someone that I could look to and say you know you are a good leader; I would like to model myself after what you do. I haven’t had a lot of that....&quot;.</td>
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Coach 3  
“…You would almost have to say that you take on the facilitation elements of leadership. You are clearly not part of the organization, but, in many ways, you are trying to engage and develop loyalty and enhance that persons capacity to engage, sometimes even with their boss. So in many ways, you are actually trying to be the facilitator that sometimes the organization and the leaders in that organization aren’t…”. “…in some ways you are a leader because you are wanting to get the trust and commitment and inspire and motivate. You are using your credibility to get that and you are a trusted adviser on the basis of that credibility….”.

Coach 3  
“I am also a counselor because some people, when they are not making those targets, they get upset with themselves. So, I am not coaching, I am counseling….even though I am not trained as psychologist, I have to deal with their feelings too……”.

Coach 6  
“…The purpose of a coach is not to analyze, not to address the issues of the past in the way that a counselor might, but to actually help people to some future goal. Understanding what makes people tick is a really useful part of how to help them move from where they are to where they want to be….”

Coach 11  
“I went on and did lifeline counseling, and it was a lot of this i.e. how to listen, and how to …they are basic skills, but our family and friends don’t know it, we don’t get taught it. ….People say ‘You should be a marriage counselor and I think I am, but people don’t what to pay for that. People will pay for an executive coach, but they won’t pay for a counselor or a psychologist….’.

Coach 2  
“…The coach acts like their sounding board, because the higher they go up the ladder the less people there is to speak openly too….”. This is supported by coach 27, who says having a sounding board helps individuals and teams to make better informed decisions “…From a support perspective, having a sounding board can also allow individuals (and teams) to explore their own issues regarding the situation before choosing their own solutions…..”.

Coach 23  
“…Coaching can assist people to step into their new roles in a way that helps them look outside of themselves, which is what is necessary in order to flourish….”

Coach 12  
“…It’s a good way of shaking some people’s view of themselves, so if you’ve got leaders who think they’re great with people and they obviously aren’t, they get some feedback to that from an external avenue and it’s from who’s an external party, but can draw together this evidence from the organization and say ‘Hey, things may not appear as they seem to you’.

Coach 10  
“…what I’m able to do is to pull that all together and be able to articulate it [feedback] back to the individual in a way that is empowering. It’s non-judgmental and very caring and to help them. If you went to my website, one of the themes on my website is about how I’m able to hold up a mirror to people to help them see how they come across…”. “…I went for certification many years ago and they had a huge database of millions and millions of managers…..the top one or two issues were fear of conflict and inability to put difficult issues on the table; and they’re obviously related and yet I’m very able to do that. So I’m very able to align myself with the individual so that they feel I’m on their team. I’ve got their back. I’m on their team and I care, and I’m human to human and at the same time I’m going to help them to see things….We can almost do it in a way that is not so oppressive but in a way that really is optimistic and hopeful, and we celebrate small changes so people can really see how they’re already begun to change even after the
5.5.3 Coach 8
"...I worked really close with her [the coachee] more so than with him [a different coachee]. With him, it has mainly been bringing the coach in; …the coachee giving me a bit feedback and saying ‘that was really beneficial, thanks very much’ and move on. Where with her, it was more follow up, more discussions, how are we going, set these goals, how are we going with the goals, any more problems, feedback around the traps from other people saying - are the things improving? what are the signs looking like?, and those sorts of things...". "...I guess initially I was just approaching with the situation to see if there was anything he could do to help the situation. I guess from my point of view, just giving him some background to say, ‘this is what has happened, this is where we are at, these are my thoughts on it, this is where I want to try and be at the end of the day’. So, working initially doing that and asking him to spend some time with her [coachee] as this is where I see some of the deficiencies are...". "...If there was anything after the coach had seen her [the coachee] that he thought that was relevant that I should be aware of, without breaking confidentiality, then just a bit of feedback around that...".

Coach 9
"….the coach would often catch up before he started coaching someone and ask, what are your observations of this person….. It was not really a formal role. The coach would often give me feedback on what was happening...".

Coach 13
"….I suppose that I promoted and sponsored the mentoring [coaching]….for her benefit and for mine… people came to me and said 'look, she is not allocating enough time to do my work, she is not doing what I am asking her to do and she is not helping us out, I am thinking of taking her off the [coaching] program’. I said no, I don’t want that. So, we sorted it out and now she seems to be doing alright.....".

Coach 8
"....I just took some advice from our coach, and then suggested that he get involved and spend some time with her around that. And, also I guess I got what I could.....that helped me around how I could approach her as well. So, I guess I got a little bit of coaching in there but, it was nothing in a formalized way....".

6.6.1 Coach 17
"..... we are rolling out one to one conversations and getting PDPs we call them, which is personal development in which we’ve got performance appraisal. They’re new to our organization and they’re been going for about two years...We’ve gotten most people having those conversations. They’re happening. My suspicion is that they’re happening to a greater or lesser extent depending on the manager involved....".

Coach 12
"....A lot of the turbulence in the last twelve months...a lot of the problems with Performance Development Plan has been lack of agreement amongst these senior leaders. One or two of them don’t like it - not interested in it. So of course you’re going to have problems implementing it when you got an Executive Director in this department or that department who’s not interested in it or telling staff to ‘forget about it. It doesn’t matter’.....it’s no wonder we are right down at the bottom. We’re running around chasing our tails wondering why things aren’t working....".

Coach 12
".... there’s a resistance in some areas....on the part of the manager. They’re like ‘I’ve just got deadlines to meet. It’s a nice idea that I would coach my staff, but I’m not going to because I’ve just got to get end of month stuff done’....".
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Coach 17</th>
<th>&quot;...So if I go to my meeting with my boss, and set my priorities. And if they are not what he is thinking my priorities are, it means that he’s got insight to see that I don’t understand what is expected of me or for some reason. I’m not wanting to go there and [instead] wanting to go here. And so, that’s why we’re saying they have a conversation to understand what’s going on.....the leader should be able to draw the person back...They are still expected to do their full job description, but with the next five or six things that we want to be focusing on for this quarter that we really want to be keeping our eye on and having an ongoing conversation....&quot;.</th>
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<td>Coach 8</td>
<td>&quot;.....it was just me working with him and being in his presence in some meetings.....I know the sub-ordinate really well, we go back a long time and I could just see he was doing really well, but just saw that there was an opportunity there to help him to better himself in some of those areas...&quot; &quot;...I guess we were getting close to a point where we had to make a decision with her to say, ‘well, which way are we going to go here. ....it was really basically retrieve the situation, get her back on an even curve and foster the relationships again and get it working....&quot;.</td>
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<td>6.1.2</td>
<td>Coach 8</td>
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<td>Coach 12</td>
<td>&quot;....they structure it [the coaching conversation] as a specific conversation separate to the performance appraisal. The manager and sub-ordinate might meet once a month and discuss how things are going.....they draw on the performance appraisal, but they don’t make it a performance appraisal....&quot;.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach 2</td>
<td>“...A coach is there to support the individuals to find their potential within their role, and not provide feedback on how they are doing in their roles.….&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 27</td>
<td>&quot;...I am interested to see how coaching can be used for evaluating employee performance. Again a targeted and specific assessment of employee performance would be much more suitable - perhaps one could look at results. I can see how some may suggest that if coaching is looking to develop results and it collects such data, then coaching can be used for evaluating performance. Though, this is a confusion and overlap of different methodologies where the coach happens to use a performance evaluation tool.....Within organizations, the objectivity and transparency of performance measures is essential, especially to measure the performance of all staff in a comparable manner to allow for results to be compared... [but] if the coach is contracted to deliver “results”, such results are unlikely to be useful when compared to other staff....&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach 17</td>
<td>&quot;...Basically the idea is that a person would set their own priorities, they set half a dozen a quarter. They set a standard and it’s got to have sort of a behavioural element to it, and then there’s a monthly target of standard performance so one per month or one to three months range. The idea is that they draft that and bring it to their manager and sit down and have a discussion about that and each month they can review how that’s going and they can review how it went and set the next thing.....&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 12</td>
<td>&quot;...it’s still involves emotional intelligence and still involves basic management competency to be able to sit with a person and say ‘OK so you didn’t meet that target, You didn’t meet that target. OK so what’s going on?...so what are we going to do about that? ‘...so the performance appraisal is really about that, [and] the coaching conversation happening over here should flow out of that.....&quot;.</td>
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<td>Coach 6</td>
<td>‘... ‘I want you to fix him for me’ is often what you find as a coach. If you’ve got half a brain, the alarm bells are going off at that stage because often what the situation as it unfolds becomes ‘yes this person’s not performing, but nor is this manager managing that poor performance’. They may or may not be clear on expectations. They may or may not be actually having the tough discussion when their expectations are not met. They may or may not be prepared to take the action where there are consequences for poor performance - so coaching can’. In some organizations, if they want to employ a coach to fix that problem, then my first reaction to that is typically ‘it’s not the person who you want me fix that needs fixing. It’s the manager that actually needs fixing, because they...&quot;.</td>
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should be doing this performance management stuff...”.

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Coach 33

“...[I] worked with the client and at the very end we brought in the supervisor, so that the supervisor could be clear on what the goals were and figure out how she could support the employee with these goals. Well the supervisor turned out to be someone who I thought needed coaching way more than the person I was coaching, and she agreed to provide feedback etc, etc and never did a thing. When the employee followed up with me one month later, the supervisor had not talked to her once although we’d set up a pattern for them to have weekly feedback. So, then you’ve got the supervisor complaining to HR, but the supervisor’s really the issue more than the employee...”.

6.1.3

Coach 26

"...So if you’re coaching senior executives and I coach a lot in the ‘C’ suites, then you’re able to influence change. But to do it, there has to be a clear sense of who they’re going to be as a leadership team, how are they going to walk the talk and what kind of messages they communicate through. Not only what they say, but what they do...”.

---

Coach 12

“...we’ve only ever had two CEOs. The first CEO was a benevolent dictator. You know, really nice guy -...he started the organization. Very hands on management style. Would stand at the front of the building every Christmas and give every employee a hug as they left the building. You know, it was really like family.... the next CEO has a very different style...He came from a major newspaper, so he’s much more business. .....he’s much more ‘you work it out’, and people are having a lot more meetings and all that kind of thing....so there’s a real challenge there....”.

---

Coach 17

"...My boss, he has been in an organization where they did introduce coaching...with a lot of success and...he’s very passionate about it....”.

---

Coach 31

"...If the leaders are engaged in this transformation potential and really are serious about it, then I think there’s an opportunity there for a rapid spread of coaching, and people needing and wanting to be coached and having the opportunity of course. It would go faster. It would necessarily ‘put up speed’ because the top was clearly being coached well, and being coached and really engaged in it so that they could demonstrate and they could be exemplars of coaching and encourage their group to coach. When the top doesn’t engage in it, the rest of the people are lukewarm. You know ‘the boss doesn’t need to do this so why me?’...”.

---

Coach 10

"...Once leader of new responsibilities feels more confident and because they’re more confident they are better able to delegate. Because they’re better able to delegate the team is more effective. Because the team is more effective there’s more of an attraction proposal for others who want to join the team and maybe they’re more effective at interfacing with other teams. All of those things are possible trickledown effects and I think they do happen....”.

---

Coach 33

"...Health care professionals are taught to be tellers and so when they begin to be more curious and invite others to voice their opinions, to voice what they think would be appropriate in terms of how the changes evolve....they begin to shift more to a collaborative approach and I think change is much more effective when it is collaborative...”. “...OK. There’s a lot now that’s going on around developing having managers as coaches so that they have more of a coach approach, shall we say, to the way they communicate with their employees, but this is not what I’m saying. I’m taking it back for me what is fundamental. I’m talking about being more curious and listening instead of telling so that leaders in a meeting [are behaving differently]. Instead of saying ‘OK the new vision, what we’re expecting to do is move change from ‘A’ to ‘B’ and this is what it’s supposed to look like...”.”...[reflecting on] how they’re going to show up at meetings initially.....listen more and talk less......it’s more about ‘What are you going to think
about?, How do you think we can most effectively get there?’, ‘What are some of the road blocks?’, ‘What are some of the challenges?’ - the kind of open questions that are used in coaching….They’re not using them as a framework, but just being more curious and open and really listening in meetings...”....that [was fundamental to.... creating change that is sustainable; because when you’ve got the whole operation and everyone buying into it then…it’s just going to be more effective..”.

Coach 12

"...there are couple of highly functional teams and quite a few dysfunctional teams where managers and employees don’t really talk to each other or don’t talk to each other in a proactive, fruitful way so those relationship are a little broken for whatever reason….which we kind of [think] ‘wow this is unbelievable’ especially an organization like ours....you expect people to be kind of OK with people. But there’s been [people saying] ‘why should I meet with my staff’ or ‘I don’t want to meet with boss’ - all this kind of stuff....”.

Coach 12

"...I think probably the biggest risk from an HR point of view that we face at the moment is because of all this unsettling stuff that’s happened. We will lose some of our best people…..who work above and beyond the call of duty. They are the people who earn well below what they could be out there in the private sector. They know it, we know it - and if we were looking after them, well and they were in a good place and they wouldn’t be concerned. But since things here are pretty not nice, their starting to look elsewhere....".

"...I can think of one guy….without being angry or self righteous, he’s basically said ‘…if I left, the organization would just fall apart and it would be another six to twelve months before it got up again and I wouldn’t do that lightly, but I’m really not enjoying myself here’...He’s a highly skilled technician and to get from the market you would have three times what we pay him and what he’s developed for us is really valuable...He’s pretty much said ‘I’m paid as an analyst and I deliver analysis to these managers who seemingly couldn’t care less what I say on them. So, they say can you give a forecast for numbers for the next twelve months. I give it to them and they just add $10,000 to it because they want to make budget. And he would say ‘yes you’re going to make budget, but where are you getting that $10,000 from?’...I’ve gone through the figures with reason and I’m trained to think like this….I’ve had all this corporate experience, but in this environment it’s treated like nothing’....."....HR are very aware of this though so it’s trying to work it out. And our board is very aware of this, so they’ve actually promoted my boss, the HR Director. They’ve appointed her to the Executive Leadership Team to try and get some people thinking happening and a female voice as well...”

Coach 15

"....The managers would meet during their lunch breaks and the coach would ask questions. Together they would explore ideas, acknowledge weaknesses in that area, affirm the need to be good models in that area and make commitments together for change....there was a small cadre of coaches coaching the Managing Directors so their Managing Directors would, if on demand, they could have one-on-one, but more often they met for lunch in a small group with the coach and that was weekly and the coach just came to the lunch. The organization bought the lunch for everybody and you’re in a small conference room and they really were very collegial. The coach would ask particular kinds of questions and they, as a group, make some individual commitments. And through peer pressure, I think they persuaded one another they were setting the wrong example and it was really wonderful. Originally I didn’t

Coach 10

"....it turned out when you coach twenty people at once in a room you get a lot of strategic coaching. Like ‘What should we do with this?’ Suddenly you’ve got people who are thinking together - who are planning together - who looked at other departments they worked with - strategic partners - and all of a sudden there became a relationship structure within this middle management group that wasn’t there before and that was part of the learning that took place.....".
| Coach 16 | “...So, you’ve got all these new graduates coming out of university with all this great knowledge of project management and the older managers saying ‘Well that’s not how you do it – this is how you do it’. So there’s this tension develops. So we’ve been working with those people, almost trying to use a coaching/mentoring approach...[A] part of the coaching process has been helping them manage it in a sense have a better relationship with the younger engineers coming on and actually help them. It’s almost like learning organization. So, they learn by doing not by failing if you know what I mean...” |
| 6.2.1 | Coach 9 | “…I think this is an area that we really haven’t done well. If I look back know at the experience of coaching, we really didn’t put very much structure around it. I think part of that was that the way that it evolved. I talked about that first instance that sort of got us started, and there wasn’t any particular rigour around that. But, it was just really successful and I think the assumption was...we can just keep doing that and it will work. But as such, there were no formal ways of measuring the coaching intervention. So, most of the mechanisms by which we looked at success was informal feedback [included] what was the coachee saying about their experience?, which was generally positive because they felt valued and invested in. But, also, what was their manager saying about the experience?...[for them] it was not clear exactly what it was designed to do. There weren’t necessarily the right structures in place to review how it was going all the way through...”...Interestingly, we tried......I did some work with the coach around what we call our coaching protocols. What are the things we are going to put in place? And we say, whenever coaching happens in our organization these are things that we are going to do. They were just simple things like - upfront we would agree what the objectives were, we would have reviews with the line manager and usually with the HR manager at least three times during the coaching assignment and we would measure success at the end. So, just basically putting some structure around that...” |
| Coach 9 | “…I think we are at a bit of a crossroads at the moment in terms of what we think is the value of coaching….there has been a little bit of a backing away from coaching as well. Not necessarily to be replaced by anything else. A couple of months ago when I was working out whether we would renew the coach’s contract and talking with all of my peers - there was definitely a sense of ‘I don’t see the value of having a coach anymore, we are not really sure of the effectiveness’. That wasn’t people saying that is a reflection of the coach, it was just saying, I don’t know about this coaching, have we really got the value out of it?...” |
| 6.2.2 | Coach 3 | “…We are developing a fairly complex way of measuring individual programs that could lead with coming up with a more robust measure. But, what happens in life, the world changes and people claim that this drove that change, but in fact, it is always a blended situation or a blended impact that actually causes the change and understanding that that is the way things happen...”...the model that I use, the five step behavioural modification model is something that I don’t articulate....I mean why do they need to know what my methodology is? I find it often that HR people...are obsessed with knowing...what is the process and they want to talk about the method not the message...I am more serving individual’s needs. And often you see HR needs and want to know how the process works and what point you are up to in the process...[But] if a sponsor or an HR person thinks that you follow this series of steps from one to five, then that is not understanding the individual needs of the candidate...” |
| Coach 18 | “…when this information is requested.....allow the company to come to its' own conclusions...” |
| Coach 27 | “…generally a coach can only provide insight that they have received through the coaching process or possibly summarize organizational issues as presented by their delegates…. I find I am limited to what is presented by coachees….and my ability to present such information in a way that is easily accepted by leadership, especially if the presenting perspective is conflicting with management belief - such information tends to be easily dismissed as ‘this is only the perspective of the participant(s)’.” |
| Coach 3 | “…the organization has a leadership model, an 11 component model…but people will achieve competence against all of those 11 factors in dramatically different ways, based on the perceptions of their direct reports, peers and boss....” |
| Coach 3 | “…the first dart point is 360 retest - that is what other people are seeing…..I use one of the best….which, I am finding extremely accurate. I had [coached] someone in Melbourne yesterday and he had done an OPQ and he had clearly been able to work out what it was they were looking for. His OPQ (Occupational Personality Questionaire) results consistency score went from eight to zero….which is an indicator…. But, when I had a look at his 360, I could see that he had worked out how to look like he was persuasive and influential in an OPQ. But, with the 360 that asks your peers, direct reports and boss, is this guy influential? They rate him as a three and he is rating himself as a four, clearly not....the 360 always is the game breaker really....” |
| Coach 6 | “….Well when it comes to what instruments I’m prepared to use as a coach or what diagnostics only one which have, what I would call, academic rigor. You understand what I mean by that…I’m not a statistician but I want to be certain that they’re got statistical reliability and validity. I want to understand what test and re-test. I don’t need to understand that in a statistician’s sense, but I want to be sure that I’ve got confidence around this tool and explicitly what’s the purpose of the tool. What’s it meant to be used for - to make sure that I’m using it in the right context....” |
| Coach 3 | “…I actually use those three data points to assess. I mean personality doesn’t change but, just about in every session that I have, I don’t think that I would go through a session where I don’t flick back to what was this person really like and what are they saying and how much is that interview behaviour and how much of it is real. I then look at the 360 at some stage and see what other people think is real. So, I wouldn’t be naïve enough to suggest that anyone of those three key pieces of information are spot on but, give me the three of them and I will work it out....” |
| 6.2.3 Coach 15 | ”...So that was a metric [retention], but that was kind of loosely over a period of time because we were coaching for a year when we measured the metric. And what do we know about what was the benchmark? There is a little bit of a gap here - there weren’t exactly benchmarks....they knew the retention rate, but they didn’t know what their retention rate was attributable to....” |
| Coach 3 | ”...some people want to prove that they have changed and they tend to be the ones that are high potential because they want feedback. But, there are a lot of people that are comfortable in knowing that, well I have eliminated that bad habit or, I know that I am better in myself, but, they are not necessarily putting it out there....” |
| Coach 9 | “If you’re using a 360 instrument, you can actually see that change, you can measure it and you should be using a 360 degree tool if you’re doing a big culture change program in my opinion. I don’t know how you would do it otherwise....””...

It’s very expensive as you know and they’ve got to know there’s a good outcome for them. So it’s like any qualitative research, it’s really difficult to give them an exact outcome, but, if you’re willing to use a tool like Human Synergistics…you can actually measure it....” |
| Coach 9 | ”...We actually wrote that [structure/rigour] into the coach’s new contract when we did it, but we haven’t implemented....I think the fault has been on both sides. The coach by his very nature, which probably makes him a coach that is not structured....it was sort of like forcing him to do something that is completely unnatural to him, but, at the same time we didn’t really hold him accountable for
that either. I think that was in part of reflection that at the time there was so many other things going on and coaching wasn’t high on the priority list. So, it was something that we just let tick along in the background and as I said, the coach’s style doesn’t naturally lend itself to adding that rigour and we didn’t enforce it...”.

| 6.3 | Coach 3 | “…they were just simple things like upfront we would agree what the objectives were, we would have reviews with the Line Manager and usually with the HR Manager, at least three times during the coaching assignment and we would measure success at the end...”.

| 6.3.1.1 | Coach 30 | "...I have actually got a mentor and I have also got a coach. So, I have got two completely...different ways of approaching things. The coaching has actually really helped me understand a lot more about myself and how I operate, and some of the things that I tend to do and some of the ways that I behave...”.

| Coach 9 | “...obviously, the manager plays a role in terms of feedback to the individual around their behaviours. ‘you are not demonstrating this to the extent that you should be’. Sometimes you can use a process of the HR person sitting down with the individual and saying that this is a behaviour that you seem to struggle with, what can we do in terms of trying to build that? You are setting up feedback mechanisms so the person says, well know I am working on this project and you say well ‘as you work on this project I am going to work alongside of you and we are going to give you feedback on the extent to which you are doing on a daily basis’. Or, ‘go and work along this person who is fantastic at it and see what you can learn’...” “...I think to some extent coaching became a bit of strategy that you use when you don’t know what else to do. So, you get that individual who could be very successful...and you go – coaching! We are now trying to do a lot more work at the moment in terms of getting managers to think about identifying what people’s development needs are and thinking about the way that you can fill that...”.

| Coach 12 | “...Up until this point our organization hasn’t had a cohesive approach to learning and development. So we’ve had the budget, it’s been a training budget, but it’s been divvyed up in haphazard ways with no rhythm or reason how it’s been divided...And sometimes the people who put their hand up and yell the loudest get the most training dollars. Sometimes lots of money will be spent on some training but there’s no follow up, no checking off - was it really needed and did it really produce the results that were desired for whatever they were trying to do?...” “...as we’ve grown larger...I think we’ve said that we want to develop a culture of learning innovation empowerment. That’s kind of a catch phrase and that was there before I came on board... this was a priority to develop that culture. As a part of that they hired me. They created a role, a learning and development role...”.

| Coach 15 | “…my experience with other organizations is that they’ve got much more of a very formal program of coaching, and a very conscious inclusion of coaching as an individual support within a broader leadership and management development program...”. “…GP’s got this massive leadership program that includes all sort of different collective education things but then individual support - that sits behind it as well. Other organizations I’ve come across are GTA, Energy Australia - it’s now a fundamental plank, particularly at the management leadership level. It’s a fundamental plank in: a) providing coaching to their individuals to help them grow, but b) and more importantly in an organizational sense, teaching themselves how to be better coaches of their people...”.

| 6.3.1.2 | Coach 7 | “...I’d done some coaching with one company that was very clearly about organizational effectiveness, and that was a two year program. So they were putting all their senior managers through...... It was about changing their sales technique actually, but that was a two year program. They’re very results focused and very metrics oriented. ... and we did get a very, very good brief about what they were trying to achieve. And working in our feedback to them [about] what the organizational impact was from the coaching...”.

| Coach 15 | “…There are organizations that are very metrics driven, and even those don’t seem to find it easy to put metrics around organizational effectiveness, and this particular intervention called coaching - so, that really stretches people almost beyond their point of sanity.
Even in the heavily metric driven environment, I’ve found that …they don’t know how to put it together almost. It’s like too much...

Coach 16
"...that’s exactly my question. They want to be better and then you might ask the question ‘What’s better?’ 'umm?, umm?'. So one of the techniques we’re actually using is to actually forget about the executive who might say ‘I need you to help me - I think I’ve got some issues’. We might spend the first five or six sessions with them actually coaching them purely around what better is for them. Because until you get to that point, what the point of going any further? It’s the same debate where we’ve had a couple of our leaders say ‘we’re going to have to measure this now, so we need to do our ROI’. ‘OK fella’s, how do you want to be measured?’ ‘I don’t know’. ‘Well maybe that might be a good point to start’...

Coach 9
"....We actually wrote that [protocols and measures] into the coach’s new contract when we did it, but we haven’t implemented it....I think the fault has been on both sides……talking with all of my peers, there was definitely a sense of, I don’t see the value of having a coach anymore. We are not really sure of the effectiveness...."

6.3.1.3 Coach 7
"...At the end of every coaching program, one of the key conversations was ‘What’s been the benefit to you but also what do you think the return was on the organization has been?.....It was all collated centrally, because they were doing it globally, and I was working on this for European/Africa segment. So, it feed into a regional database, which was generally in the HR function. But that would have then fed into a corporate review of the program, and the sponsor was one of the key business leaders...

Coach 4
"... I find it often that HR people, certainly not AG, who are obsessed with knowing well, what is the process and they want to talk about the method not the message....if a sponsor or an HR person thinks that you follow this series of steps from one to five, then that is not understanding the individual needs of the candidate...."

Coach 9
"...I think this is an area that we really haven’t done well…..there were no formal ways of measuring the coaching intervention. So, most of the mechanisms by which we looked at success was informal feedback. What was the coachee saying about their experience, which was generally positive because they feel valued and invested in but, also what was the Manager saying about the experience?....it was not clear exactly what it was designed to do. There weren’t necessarily the right structures in place to review how it was going all the way through...."