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Interest Group in Coaching Psychology

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Special Group in Coaching Psychology

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4. Online submission process

(1) All manuscripts must be submitted to a Co-ordinating Editor by e-mail to:
Stephen Palmer (UK): dr.palmer@btinternet.com
Michael Cavanagh (Australia): michaelc@psych.usyd.edu.au

(2) The submission must include the following as separate files:

- Title page consisting of manuscript title, authors' full names and affiliations, name and address for corresponding author.
- Abstract.
- Full manuscript omitting authors' names and affiliations. Figures and tables can be attached separately if necessary.

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  Billington, T. (2000). *Separating, losing and excluding children: Narratives of difference*. London: Routledge/Falmer.
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  Palmer, S. & Whybrow, A. (2006). The coaching psychology movement and its development within the British Psychological Society. *International Coaching Psychology Review 1*(1), 5–11.
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These should be limited to 1000 words and may include research studies and theoretical, critical or review comments whose essential contribution can be made briefly. A summary of not more than 50 words should be provided.

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- Full article text (double-spaced with numbered pages and anonymised).
- References (see above). Authors are responsible for bibliographic accuracy and must check every reference in the manuscript and proofread again in the page proofs.
- Tables, figures, captions placed at the end of the article or attached as separate files.

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THE SPECIAL GROUP IN COACHING PSYCHOLOGY

1st European Coaching Psychology Conference
17th and 18th December 2008

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The 2008 membership fee to join SGCP is £3.50. SGCP membership benefits include membership rates at our events and free copies of the 'International Coaching Psychology Review' and 'The Coaching Psychologist'. Join now and obtain the discounted conference fee.

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Editorial

Michael Cavanagh & Stephen Palmer

WE HAVE ANOTHER interesting and informative edition of the *ICPR* for you this issue. The first paper by Stewart, Palmer, Wilkin and Kerrin, builds on Baldwin and Ford's (1988) model of transfer of training to develop a model of the factors that impact on transfer of successful coaching outcomes in the workplace. Using both qualitative and quantitative methods, Stewart and her colleagues have found evidence for a bidirectional and iterative model of coaching outcomes that include both work related and personal outcomes.

The second article, Yu, Collins, Cavanagh, White and Fairbrother, presents a coaching outcome study which shows evidence for enhancing core task performance, and importantly, for enhancing proactivity in the workplace. This is the first piece of research to provide empirical support for the claim that coaching is able to facilitate proactive workplace behaviours by coachees.

In a theoretical piece, Otto Laske outlines his developmental assessment tool, the Cognitive Developmental Framework. Building on the work of Piaget, Kegan, Freud and others, Laske has developed and assessment instrument for identifying coaching needs and guiding the coaching process from a developmental perspective. Though complex, this work is well worth a careful reading.

Klockner and Hicks take us back into the world of empirical research with their exploration of the relationship between personality and intervention seeking. They find that individuals seeking psychosocial interventions had elevated scores on features such as Openness to Experience, Extraversion, Adult Dispositional Hope, Personal Growth Initiative, and Goal Setting. This research significantly adds to the small body of work exploring the characteristics of coachees.

Cortvriend, Harris and Alexander present an interesting mixed-method empirical paper looking at the impact of coaching on the coachee's performance using local government as the context. They also considered the impact of coaching on the client base of the local government executives - the public. They found that leadership skills increased between pre- and post-measurement, and that the executive surveyed believed that outcomes for the public had been enhanced as the result of the coaching. Also self report data only, this study provides some qualitative data to guide future research into the impacts of coaching beyond the coachee and the organisation.

We should also mention the vibrant array of activity going on the wider coaching psychology world. In Australia the third Biennial Symposium of the APS Interest Group in Coaching Psychology is scheduled for 22–23 August in Sydney. It looks like it will be a very stimulating and informative event, with the British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology's Chair, Dr Alison Whybrow, as guest speaker. Later this year the British Psychological Society Special Group in Coaching Psychology are holding the First European Coaching Psychology Conference (London, 17–18 December). This promises to be an exciting event with well known coaching psychologists from many European countries giving papers and facilitating masterclasses. For further information about both of the conferences, see the advertisements in this issue of the *ICPR*.

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Reference

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THE SPECIAL GROUP IN COACHING PSYCHOLOGY

1st European Coaching Psychology Conference
17th and 18th December 2008

To be held at the University of Westminster, Regent Street Campus, London, UK

Putting the Psychology into Coaching

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  Dr Sandra Foster CPsychol
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  Sir John Whitmore
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  Nick Edgerton CPsychol
- **Towards a Full Life: Using the Golden Five in Coaching for Life Satisfaction**
  Jens Boris Larsen Cand. psych.

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The 2008 membership fee to join SGCP is £3.50. SGCP membership benefits include membership rates at our events and free copies of the 'International Coaching Psychology Review' and 'The Coaching Psychologist'. Join now and obtain the discounted conference fee.

Towards a model of coaching transfer: Operationalising coaching success and the facilitators and barriers to transfer

Lorna J. Stewart, Stephen Palmer,
Helen Wilkin & Maire Kerrin

Objectives: *Executive coaching has become a respected learning and development strategy. Coaching outcomes and the conditions required for coachees to implement and sustain their development in the workplace have yet to be fully understood. These deficits impede coaching evaluation. The present study sought to operationalise a successful coaching outcome, and to propose and verify a model of coaching transfer.*

Design: *Two sub-studies were conducted. Study 1 used a descriptive qualitative approach to explore coachees', coaches' and organisational stakeholders' perceptions of a successful coaching outcome and the facilitators and barriers to transfer. Study 2 surveyed coachees using a self-report questionnaire developed from the results of Study one to explore possible relationships between transfer and coachee motivation, work environment psychosocial factors and situational factors.*

Methods: *Study 1: 25 coachees, nine coaches and five organisational stakeholders each participated in an hour-long, semi-structured interview. Study 2: 110 participants completed the online coaching transfer questionnaire.*

Results: *Qualitative analyses revealed coachees, coaches and organisational stakeholders believed coaching outcomes comprised intra-personal development, personal and performance outcomes. Coaching transfer comprised two stages: application, and generalisation and maintenance. Correlational analyses of questionnaire data (N=110) suggested transfer depends on interactions between the nature of the coaching output, the stage of transfer, and the type of development sought via coaching.*

Conclusions: *Although exploratory, this study provided some understanding of the influence of the factors which impact on coaching transfer. The findings indicate there is value in coaching research examining the complex interplay of factors beyond the coachee-coach relationship.*

Keywords: executive coaching, successful coaching outcome operationalisation, coaching transfer.

INCREASINGLY organisations are employing executive coaching as a means to enhance their human resource assets (Sherman & Freas, 2004). Whilst coaching research is amassing, a lack of an agreed definition or the operationalisation of a successful coaching outcome (SCO) mean that methods of evaluation are under-developed. Furthermore, research has paid little attention to understanding the factors associated with transfer to or maintenance of coaching benefits within the workplace.

Training and coaching are similar insofar as they both involve learning and seek its application beyond the learning environment. These commonalities suggest that poor training transfer estimates (Baldwin & Ford, 1988) may be a caution that the transfer of coaching's benefits to the workplace is not guaranteed. However, whilst coaching and training both seek to effect positive developmental change, the distinctiveness of coaching objectives (Carter, Wolfe & Kerrin, 2005), the eclectic nature of the methodologies employed to achieve them, and the exclusivity of relationships in which they are nurtured, complicate the modelling and measuring of coaching outcomes.

In order to obtain research evidence to inform best practice and to advise coaching stakeholders on how to facilitate the transfer of coachee acquired coaching development to the workplace, this study aimed to extend a model of training transfer into the coaching field; thus, providing a basis for coaching evaluation. In addition it developed frameworks detailing the unique characteristics of coaching success and the factors that impact upon its transfer to the workplace.

Executive coaching

Coaching within organisations falls within two main categories: coaching as a day-to-day management activity predominantly conducted by line managers; and executive coaching (Peltier, 2001). This study was concerned with executive coaching. Executive coaching was recognised as 'a form of tailored work-related development for senior and professional managers which spans business, functional and personal skills' (Carter, 2001, p.x), and as a development activity for less senior high-potential managers (Judge & Cowell, 1997). The term coachee was adopted to represent individuals participating in coaching.

Although coaching strives to be acknowledged as an independent discipline, it incorporates aspects of counselling, mentoring, training and consulting (Greene & Grant, 2003). Consequently, theoretical knowledge and research methodologies drawn from these disciplines all provide a useful basis for coaching research. The current study drew on training transfer research to provide a framework for coaching evaluation.

Positive training transfer refers to the 'implementation of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and other qualities acquired during training into the workplace' (Gumuseli & Ergin, 2002, p.81). Extrapolating from this concept the current study proposed a similar construct for positive coaching transfer; specifically, the sustained application of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and other qualities acquired during coaching into the workplace.

Measuring coaching transfer

Evaluating coaching relies upon a measure of successful coaching transfer. Such a measure must include: (a) the process under scrutiny; (b) the outcomes it is measured against; and (c) from whose perspective success is being judged (Carter et al., 2005). In terms of outcomes, studies suggest coaching can result in increased: (a) self-awareness (Gegner, 1997); (b) self-esteem (Wales, 2003); (c) emotional intelligence (Kleinberg, 2001); (d) self-efficacy (Gegner, 1997); and (e) job-satisfaction (Olivero, Bane & Kopelman, 1997). Whilst this list is not exhaustive, currently no consensus exists regarding what constitutes a SCO.

As the current study sought to understand workplace transfer of coachee-acquired coaching-based development, the primary perspective adopted was that of the coachee. Using the coachee's opinion of a SCO, the study sought to develop a coachee-focused measure of positive transfer. Coaches' and organisational stakeholders' perspectives were also investigated to explore the validity of the coachee focused measure.

Towards a model of coaching transfer

Several models of training transfer have been proposed (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988), all of which, fundamentally, seek to integrate the influence of training inputs, training outputs, and conditions of transfer on training transfer. Although Baldwin and Ford's model has been criticised for its simplicity (e.g. Machin, 2002), it provides a straightforward transfer framework. Training inputs are broadly classifiable as trainee characteristics, training design, and work environment factors, and these are suggested to have both direct and indirect effects on transfer (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

The current study was interested in factors outside of the coachee-coach relationship; in particular those that can be targeted by transfer enhancing interventions. Hence, only coachee characteristics and work environment factors were explored.

Coachee characteristics

An enduring conceptualisation within occupational psychology is that an individual's cognitive ability and motivation are key determinants of learning and work performance (Herold et al., 2002; Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). Within the training literature these factors have been associated with positive transfer and so these factors may also have an impact on coaching transfer. However, the executive coaching population is likely to have a reasonably high, restricted range of cognitive ability (Goleman, 2002). Furthermore, as both cognitive ability and personality are considered relatively stable (Ackerman & Heggestad, 1997) they are not easily manipulated via intervention. Accordingly, whilst a model of coaching transfer could include *cognitive ability*, *personality* and *motivation*, only motivation can be actively influenced.

Motivation is recognised as a key determinant of training transfer (Cheng & Ho, 2001), with both motivation to learn and transfer (Noe, 1986) being significant. The current study proposed motivation would be associated with coaching transfer.

Hypothesis 1: Coachee motivation will be positively associated with coaching transfer.

Work environment factors

Work environment factors associated with training transfer include social support, and situational facilitators and constraints (Mathieu & Martineau, 1997). Social support refers to individuals' beliefs about: (a) the opportunities their workplace affords them to use their learning; and (b) the likelihood they will receive support and feedback for their transfer endeavours (Clarke, 2002). Social support sources include subordinates, peers, supervisors, and top management (Facteau et al., 1995). Within a coaching environment, the latter three groups are the most likely to be aware the coachee is attending coaching, provide transfer opportunities and give feedback on transfer endeavours.

Within the coaching literature, findings related to peer support are limited. Goldsmith and Morgan (2005) found that participants who sought peer input into their development showed marked improvement. Others have found positive links between peer influences on training transfer (e.g. Newstrom, 1986; Holton et al., 1997; Facteau et al., 1995). Hence, positive peer support appears likely to be associated with coaching transfer.

Hypothesis 2: Positive peer support will be positively associated with coaching transfer.

The training literature reports ambiguous findings regarding the influence of supervisor support on transfer. Holton et al. (1997) found supervisor support was associated with transfer, whereas Facteau et al. (1995) found it negatively related to transfer. Despite this mixed evidence, McGovern et a.l (2001) found the coachee's manager positively influenced coaching success.

Hypothesis 3: Positive supervisor support will be positively associated with coaching transfer.

Little is known about top management's influence on training transfer. Lim and Johnson (2002) found top management support was associated with training transfer; whereas Facteau et al. (1995) failed to find a significant relationship. Within coaching, top management support is discussed indirectly. For example, coaching is described as best when there is collaboration between the coachee, coach and the organisation (Wasylyshyn, 2003). The current study therefore aimed to provide preliminary evidence with regard to the relationship between top management influences and coaching transfer.

Finally, regarding work environment factors, studies suggest training transfer is affected by facilitators and constraints resident in the workplace. These include the availability of job-related information, equip-

ment, financial support, and time (Mathieu & Martineau, 1997; Huczynski & Lewis, 1980; Porras & Hargis, 1982) and the opportunity to use new skills on the job (Holton et al., 1997). However, other studies have either found no relationship between constraints and performance (Peters et al., 1988), or have found constraints are only significant when they are severe (Facteau et al., 1995). Within the coaching literature, McGovern et al.'s (2001) study cites the coachee's availability and time pressures as affecting coaching effectiveness. The current study proposed the presence of situational facilitators and the absence of severe constraints (collectively referred to as positive situational factors) would be associated with coaching transfer.

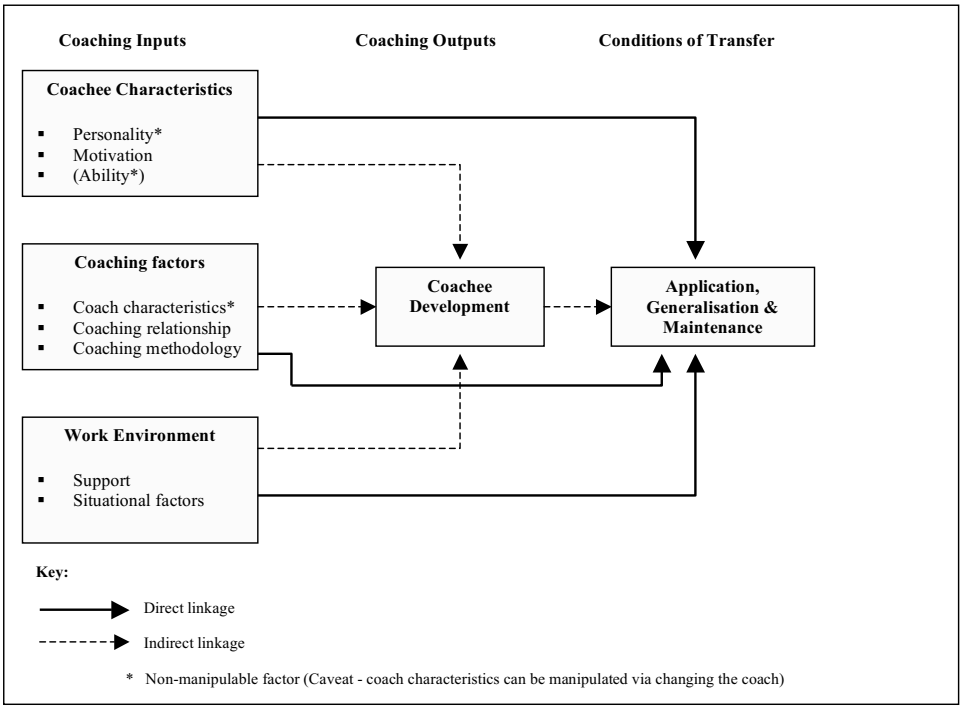
Hypothesis 4: Positive situational factors will be positively associated with coaching transfer.

Summary of coaching inputs

This study proposed three categories of coaching inputs: coachee characteristics, coaching factors, and the work environment. Anticipated coaching outcomes were categorised into coachee development, and the application, generalisation and maintenance of this development within the workplace. Figure 1 presents a conceptual model of coaching transfer developed from Baldwin and Ford's (1988) transfer of training model.

Verifying this model necessitated a coaching outcome measure. To achieve the study's aims two sub-studies were conducted. Study 1 sought to operationalise a SCO and the facilitators and barriers to coaching transfer. Study 2 sought to verify the proposed coaching transfer model by exploring the aforementioned four hypotheses.

Figure 1: Conceptual Coaching Transfer Model (based on Baldwin & Ford's (1988) transfer of training model).



Study 1: Operationalising a successful coaching outcome and the facilitators and barriers to coaching transfer

A descriptive qualitative approach was chosen to explore perceptions of a SCO and the facilitators and barriers to transfer. Semi-structured interviews (Kvale, 1996) sought participants' views of what constitutes a SCO and evidence indicative of positive coaching transfer. An adapted Critical Incident Technique (Flanagan, 1954) was used to explore participants' perceptions of the facilitators and barriers of positive transfer. A total of 39 individuals were interviewed: 25 managers and executives, each of whom had completed an average of seven coaching sessions within a variety of coaching programmes; nine coaches, each with six or more years experience; and five senior managers who had recommended staff attend coaching. Interviews lasted approximately one hour. Our findings focus on the coaching coachees as they are critical to transfer.

Themes arising from the interviews were explored via content analysis (Weber, 1990). The sentence was the unit of analysis and complex sentences were broken down into thematic units. Abbreviated text extracts, each containing one theme, were noted in a spreadsheet for each question for every participant. When all extracts were identified, constructs developed to capture meaning and enable comparisons between participants, were noted in a separate column alongside each extract. Participants were asked to verify the accuracy of the constructs associated with their comments.

Each construct for each participant was first coded with the participant number and the question number and then transferred onto cards. A card sort was conducted, whereby each card was classified into mutually exclusive groupings (Step 1) (Jankowicz, 2004). A category definition was written for each group (Step 2). The results of the card sort were recorded in a table containing: (a) the coded numbers of the constructs allocated to each category; and (b) the number of constructs in the category, also expressed as a percentage of the total number of constructs (Step 3). To check reliability the categorisation procedure (Steps 1–3) was repeated by an independent researcher. A reliability matrix was constructed and each researcher independently placed the constructs into the matrix cells (Step 4). Inter-rater reliability was calculated using the Kappa coefficient of agreement (Cohen, 1960) (Step 5). The initial reliability indices fell below the target of 0.8 (Stemler, 2001). To improve reliability the researchers negotiated the category meanings, recalculating the reliability indices after each re-definition. After reaching the 0.8 agreement threshold, each researcher independently sorted the constructs into the new categories and tabulated their results (Step 3 above). To check reliability steps four and five were repeated. Separate analyses were conducted for coachees, coaches, and stakeholders.

Study 1 results

Defining a SCO

Analyses identified 738 clusters for coachees, 296 for coaches, and 146 for organisational stakeholders. Within each referent group two categories emerged: personal outcomes and performance outcomes. Kappa coefficients were: coachees=.86, coaches=.89, and stakeholders=.92. Table 1 displays the constructs within each category. For each group *personal outcomes* had the largest number of constructs.

Personal outcomes

Personal outcomes comprised five clusters: resilience, career management, self-management, social awareness, and self-awareness. *Enhanced resilience* was the most frequently cited SCO cluster. Coaching was seen as enhancing individuals' capacity to avoid, and/or the ability to recover quickly from, psychological suffering, assaults and setbacks in a work environment. This manifested as an enhanced attitude towards work, greater psychological and physical resilience, and increased confidence. For example:

Table 1. Defining a SCO.

	Coachees		Coaches		Stakeholders	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Personal outcomes	**586**	**79.40**	**219**	**73.99**	**79**	**54.11**
Enhanced resilience	177	23.98	100	33.78	27	18.49
Enhanced personal career management	140	18.97	44	14.86	18	12.33
Enhanced self-management	124	16.80	50	16.89	26	17.81
Enhanced self-awareness	118	16.00	16	5.40	5	3.42
Enhanced social awareness	27	3.66	9	3.04	3	2.05
Performance outcomes	**152**	**20.60**	**77**	**26.01**	**67**	**45.89**
Enhanced job performance	74	10.03	41	13.85	38	26.03
Enhanced relationship management	54	7.31	27	9.12	20	13.70
Enhanced job-specific knowledge and/or skills*	24	3.25	9	3.04	9	6.16
	738	**100**	**296**	**100**	**146**	**100**

> *I'm more optimistic in my outlook. Before I felt jaded. I want to come to work now. I feel inspired about what I'm doing, and I'm eager to get on with it.* (Coachee 13, lines 34–37)

Interviewees suggested coaching enhanced coachees' *personal career management* via assisting them to develop the capacity to successfully organise, control, and direct the progress of their working life.

> *I'm not settling for a career in which I don't know where I'm going. I'm more focused on achieving in my job, though not necessarily through promotion.* (Coachee 11, lines 44–45)

They also indicated that coaching aided coachees to develop their ability to control and direct their behaviour (i.e. *enhanced self-management*) to maximise their work-related performance. This was represented by: (a) enhanced self-monitoring (e.g. monitoring behaviour and/or attitudes at work); and (b) using efficiency and effectiveness strategies (e.g. enhanced prioritising).

> *I'm not so random. I have a more focused and less scattered approach to thinking about things.* (Coachee 17, lines 19–20)

Although coachees were the most likely to mention *enhanced self-awareness*, all groups suggested that coaching assisted coachees to acquire a balanced and honest consciousness of their personality, dispositions and motivators, including the ability to interpret external stimuli in accordance with their view of self.

> *Through coaching I connected with my core self. My role had forced me to suppress things about myself. Now I know what I need to be happy in a role, and what motivates me when I am at work, I actually want to go to work.* (Coachee 13, lines 29–31)

This manifested as an enhanced understanding of job-related strengths and limitations, motivators and stressors.

> *I'm more aware of what triggers me to feel stressed; mostly it's when I have to work outside of my strengths, then I feel less dynamic and out of control. My strategy has become to delegate my weaknesses.* (Coachee 6, lines 55–58).

Interviewees suggested coaching enhanced coachees' knowledge and mindfulness of others (i.e. *enhanced social awareness*). This was characterised by greater appreciation of others' strengths, weaknesses and motivators, and of how to respond to others appropriately.

> *It helped me understand other people's perceptions. Knowing more about myself made me more aware that not everyone works the same. We all have different combinations of strengths and weaknesses. I'm better able to recognise these in others.* (Coachee 7, lines 71–77).

Performance outcomes

Three clusters fell within this category: job performance, relationship management and job specific knowledge and/or skills. Coachees, coaches and stakeholders all cited *enhanced job performance* as the key performance outcome. It was signified by tangible outcomes associated with heightened job effectiveness and/or efficiency (e.g. enhanced quality of output). For example:

> *My appraisal grades have gone up. I've had better feedback from the people I work with. My manager gave me a pat on the back (laughs).* (Coachee 20, lines 30–32)

Enhanced efficiency referred to completing the same amount of work in less time, or more work in the same time. Enhanced work-life balance emerged as a product of enhanced efficiency.

Interviewees suggested coaching assisted coachees develop the ability to successfully organise, co-ordinate and influence their inter-personal and team relationships (i.e. *enhanced relationship management*).

> *I know more about why people behave the way they do, and I'm better at shaping the way I behave to get the reaction I want from them. I'm better at taking people along with me; I'm also more open to what they have to say. It cuts both ways.* (Coachee 2, lines 34–38)

Some interviewees' comments suggested coaching resulted in the acquisition of new and/or deeper *job-specific knowledge and/or skills*, although this tended to be objective specific.

> *I'd got by without anyone realising I lacked certain basics, like budget forecasting. It wasn't the main part of my role, but I felt my weakness was becoming more evident, especially as I was up for promotion. My coach put me in touch with someone who helped me. It only took a couple of hours to get rid of all that stress.* (Coachee 20, lines 57–61)

Structure of SCO development

Some coachees' comments suggested that self-awareness formed a foundation for subsequent personal outcomes and performance outcomes (i.e. forward-flow development). Specifically, enhanced awareness led to greater resilience, personal career management and self-management, which in turn led to enhanced job performance. For example:

> *The main difference is I'm more aware of my strengths and limitations. I try to work within my strengths 70 per cent of the time, and push the boundaries to develop myself the rest of the time. As a result both the quality and the quantity of my work have improved.* (Coachee 25, lines 20–22)

Developmental influences also appeared to operate between personal outcomes and self-awareness, and between performance outcomes and self-awareness (i.e. feedback-flow development). Feedback influences seemed to produce changes in self-awareness, which subsequently led to further forward-flow development.

> *I received negative feedback about the way I was working. I realised a middle ground between what I did before and what I learnt in coaching was more appropriate.* (Coachee 24, lines 31–34).

Feedback-flow development appeared to be initiated by: (a) circumstances which caused coachees to reflect on the value and validity of their development; and (b) logistical constraints which prevented the implementation of coaching outcomes. There was also suggestion that development led to enhanced awareness that further development was required.

> *I applied what I'd learnt, and this helped me resolve some of the problems; but it also made me more aware of other areas I needed to improve on.* (Coachee 5, lines 32–34)

Coachees' comments suggested that a SCO results in the development of a general personal-professional competence that appears to be located in the personal outcomes category. Coachees expressed it as a: (a) toolkit for tackling diverse problems; and (b) new approach that had enhanced their all-round performance.

Defining coaching transfer

Analyses identified 112 constructs for coachees, 54 for coaches, and 38 for stakeholders. Within each group three clusters emerged: application, maintenance, and generalisation. These clusters represented one category: evidence of coaching transfer (EoT). Kappa coefficients were: coachees=.91, coaches=.94, and organisational stakeholders=.90. For each referent group, *application* was most frequently discussed. For coachees and coaches the second most frequent category was *generalisation*, followed by *maintenance*. Stakeholders reversed this trend to maintenance, and generalisation. Table 2 displays the category and clusters.

Coaching transfer

EoT comprised three clusters: application, maintenance, and generalisation. Interviewees suggested that *application* requires evidence that a significant proportion of the coaching development has been used within the workplace, with a relatively high frequency, and that it has positively impacted on their performance. For example:

> *I am achieving so much more. I do more in less time, and it is of a higher quality. My boss has given me much better feedback than this time last year.* (Coachee 22, lines 37-40)

All groups expected that the use of coaching development would be sustained or increased within the workplace after the end of the formal coaching period (i.e. maintenance), and that coachees' proficiency and confidence in using their development would be maintained or increase over time.

> *I persisted in applying what I'd learnt in coaching, and now it seems natural. These days no one would ever know I'd struggled with these things; I forget I did too.* (Coachee 25, lines 33–36).

They also suggested that transfer requires evidence that coachees have applied their coaching development to areas beyond those for which it was initially sought and/or applied, including beyond the workplace (i.e. generalisation).

> *Over time I felt more comfortable to bring it into different parts of my job. At first I was worried it wouldn't work beyond what we'd discussed and practiced in coaching – but gradually as I used it I saw the potential for applying it elsewhere, I have and it works. I find some of it useful at home too.* Coachee 16, lines 43–47)

Facilitators and barriers to coaching transfer

Analyses of incidents of facilitation identified 507 clusters for coachees; 383 for coaches, and 164 for stakeholders. Analyses of incidents of barriers to transfer identified 336 clusters for coachees; 289 for coaches, and 63 for stakeholders. Within each group three categories emerged: positive psychosocial support vs. psychosocial barriers to development, pro-development vs. development-unsupportive organisational culture, and pro-development vs. development-indifferent coachees. The Kappa coefficients for the analyses were: (a) facilitator analyses coachees=.82, coaches=.89, stakeholders=.88; and (b) barrier analyses coachees=.89, coaches=.86, stakeholders=.94. Table 3 displays the categories and clusters.

Table 2. Defining coaching transfer.

	Coachees		Coaches		Stakeholders	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Coaching transfer	**112**	**100**	**54**	**100**	**38**	**100**
Application	45	40.18	26	48.15	21	55.26
Maintenance	31	27.68	9	16.67	11	28.95
Generalisation	36	32.14	19	35.19	6	15.79
	112	**100**	**296**	**100**	**146**	**100**

Table 3: Coaching transfer facilitators and barriers.

	Coachees				Coaches				Stakeholders			
	Facilitators		Barriers		Facilitators		Barriers		Facilitators		Barriers	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Psychosocial support	**269**	**53.06**	**165**	**49.11**	**172**	**44.91**	**147**	**50.87**	**64**	**39.02**	**28**	**44.44**
Availability of a developmental champion	86	16.96	74	22.02	46	12.01	72	24.91	13	7.93	12	19.05
Champion-coachee partnership for developmental action	112	22.09	57	16.96	95	24.80	49	16.96	44	26.83	11	17.46
Peer support	71	14.00	34	10.12	31	8.09	26	9.00	7	4.27	5	7.94
Organisational culture	**177**	**34.91**	**120**	**35.71**	**115**	**30.03**	**87**	**30.10**	**52**	**31.71**	**14**	**22.22**
Organisational climate regarding development	88	17.36	17	5.06	57	14.88	32	11.07	20	12.20	2	3.17
Access to development/workload	69	13.61	80	23.81	31	8.09	23	7.96	25	15.24	9	14.29
Procedural support for development	20	3.94	23	6.95	27	7.05	32	11.07	8	4.88	3	4.76
Coachee's attitude towards development	**61**	**12.03**	**51**	**15.18**	**96**	**25.07**	**55**	**19.03**	**48**	**29.27**	**21**	**33.33**
Approach to development	15	2.96	17	5.06	54	14.10	23	7.96	24	14.63	7	11.11
Goal pursuit	46	9.07	34	10.12	42	10.97	32	11.07	23	14.02	14	22.22
	507	**100**	**336**	**100**	**383**	**100**	**289**	**100**	**164**	**100**	**63**	**100**

Psychosocial support

Psychosocial support emerged as the key category for all groups in both the facilitator and barrier analyses. Positive psychosocial support included the physical and emotional availability of a *quality developmental champion*: someone senior to the coachee, usually within their organisation, who took an interest in the coachee's development by virtue of their role in the organisation (e.g. immediate manager) or via a sense of responsibility (e.g. volunteer mentor).

> *My manager talked about things in a positive way; he didn't put down what I wanted to do, although in hindsight some of it must have seemed a bit naive.* (Coachee 3, lines 103–105).

The absence of a quality champion posed the chief barrier to transfer.

> *My boss could have been more welcoming and interested in me and my coaching. I felt that he didn't want me in his department. I had to seek him out to discuss my coaching and he avoided me. He was arrogant and obnoxious.* (Coachee 15, lines 114–118)

Positive psychosocial support also involved the formation of a *partnership for developmental action* between the coachee and their champion. The champion's role involved assisting the coachee to refine a development plan that integrated the coachee's coaching-generated objectives with their job priorities and overall development plan. Supportive champions were also proactive in helping coachees implement their development. Further, they monitored coachees' progress towards objectives and provided constructive feedback. It was crucial for the champion to fulfil any promised action. For example:

> *He gave me feedback about what I'd achieved; and he gave me a few attempts to get it right, he didn't jump down my throat and say 'you've got to do it this way'. He paid more attention to my successes, which I appreciated.* (Coachee 1, lines 80–84)

Poor champions were seen as blocking coachee's development plans, not providing practice opportunities, and not offering or failing to follow through on facilitative action.

> *My manager understood that I wanted to make changes but he kept dumping work on me. He could have intervened too when more senior people piled work on me. He cared more about making the department look good than about his staff.* (Coachee 23, lines 94–97)

Peer support received less mention than champion support and tended to be viewed as the absence of obstruction. Peers acted as barriers to transfer when they sabotaged coachees' development efforts, including being critical of coaching. Interviewees' comments suggested that the relationship between peer support and coaching transfer may be mediated by: (a) the nature of the development; (b) competition for promotion; (c) whether coachees share with their peers that they are attending coaching; and (d) the organisational culture. For example:

> *My peers weren't involved. I didn't tell them. It's very competitive for promotion, and we're rated against our peers.* (Coachee 4, lines 111–114)

The findings also suggested that the boundary between supervisors and peers may become contrived at the executive level. For example:

> *I see my relationship with them [senior managers] as a friendship. We went to the pub and talked through my [development] options.* (Coachee 7, lines 110–111)

Organisational culture

Organisational culture was the second most frequently mentioned facilitator of transfer by all groups. As a barrier it was the coachees' and coaches second most frequently mentioned category; stakeholders, however, mentioned it the least frequently. Of the three culture-related clusters, coachees and stakeholders mentioned workload the most frequently. Coachees' quantity of work, and/or continual tight deadlines, was said impede transfer by not affording time to implement their development.

> *They're too focused on the tangible aspects of success. They forget we're people and not machines. There is no time to think about your coaching. At the worst times, it can be*

impossible to find the time to go to coaching; sometimes I went before or after work. (Coachee 8, lines 143-148).

A *pro-development* climate, fostered by a positive attitude towards development was viewed as assisting transfer. Likewise organisations which facilitate access to development by offering and financially supporting developmental activities were seen as encouraging transfer.

Coaching is not frowned upon, and it is available to all. They encourage you to get involved in things that will develop you. They don't view coaching as something for weak people; it's about wanting to make the best of yourself. (Coachee 14, lines 98–103)

Procedural support for development (e.g. having a strategy for post-coaching support) was seen as a transfer facilitator.

I wanted to change my job as a result of coaching. It was made a lot easier for me that my organisation had a procedure for internal job change, and that other people had done it too. (Coachee 25, lines 89–91)

Development-unsupportive cultures were characterised by having an anti-development climate (e.g. cultural ethos devalues coaching).

They paid lip-service to coaching. No-one wanted to go as if you went then you were seen as weak and that was a problem if you wanted to be promoted. (Coachee 6, lines 127–129)

Transfer hampering cultures were also viewed as having *structures and processes unsupportive of development* (e.g. coaching objectives change with management changes).

My manager changed three times during my coaching and my goals kept being changed. It would have been helpful if they could have left them alone and let me get on with it. (Coachee 10, lines 135–138)

Coachee's attitude toward development

The coachee's attitude towards development was the least frequently mentioned transfer facilitator by all groups. It was also the least frequently mentioned transfer barrier by coachees and coaches. Coachees with a *pro-development approach* (e.g. they assume responsibility for their own development) were viewed as more likely to transfer their development.

I sought out people more senior than me and bounced ideas off them. They gave me the clarity I needed and suggested options for my development. They're in a better position to advise me than my peers. (Coachee 13, line 98)

Pro-active goal pursuit, whereby coachees sought to progress their coaching related development beyond the coaching relationship, was associated with positive transfer.

I realised that the only person who could change this was me, and the only person holding me back was me, so I took responsibility and worked through my beliefs of not being good enough. I stopped waiting for people to help me make things happen and did it on my own. (Coachee 16, lines 152–156)

Conversely, coachees who *place low priority on their own development* and coachees who *obstruct their own development* (e.g. by behaving negatively in coaching) were viewed as less likely to transfer their development.

I could have been more proactive in pursuing the changes earlier. I could have translated my development into action earlier. (Coachee 12, lines 137–140)

Discussion

Defining a SCO

Our findings echo those of other studies exploring coaching outcomes (e.g. Gegner, 1997; Olivero et al., 1997; McGovern et al., 2001; Wasylyshyn, 2003). However, the current study went beyond replicating these independent findings to suggesting a generic SCO framework. It also suggested that coaching related development could be bidirectional and iterative, and that it may include the development of generalisable competence. Suggestions which require further exploration.

Development of a Generic SCO Framework

The emergence of two SCO categories suggests that coaching results in two definite outcomes: personal outcomes and perform-

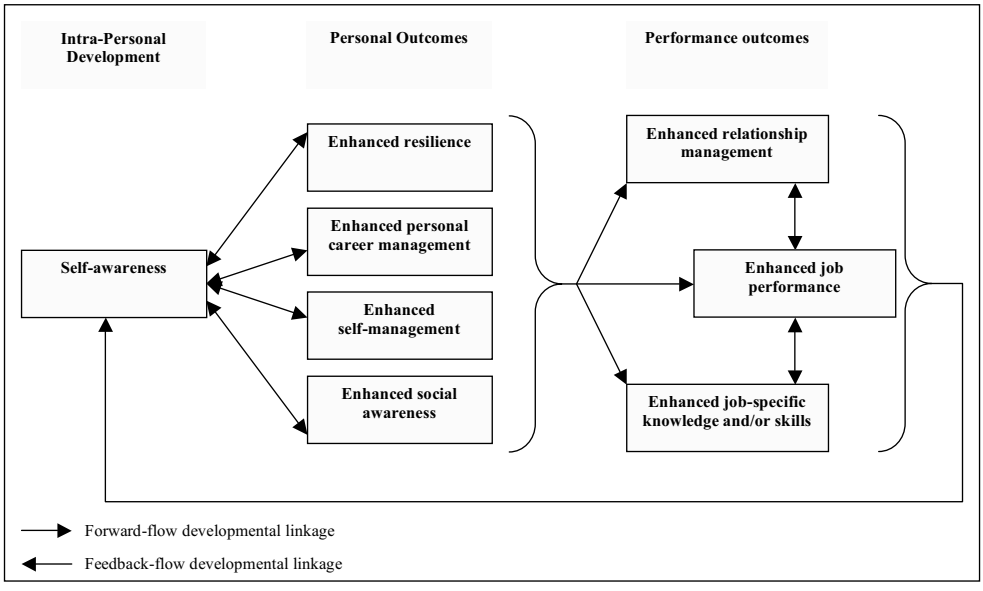
ance outcomes. Whilst the reported personal outcomes were predominantly job-related they were classified as distinct from performance outcomes, as the benefit of their achievement would only extend beyond the individual coachee when translated into a performance outcome.

Within the personal outcomes category it appears development can be further classified; specifically, enhanced self-awareness can be considered primary intra-personal development (IPD) and IPD that occurred as a consequence of self-awareness (e.g. enhanced confidence) can be deemed secondary IPD. These distinctions suggested the conceptual Coaching Transfer Model be revised to incorporate three classes of coaching outputs: (a) primary coaching outputs (self-awareness); (b) secondary coaching outputs (personal outcomes); and (c) tertiary coaching outputs (performance outcomes). Of which only the latter two outputs would be measurable in transfer assessments.

Evidence of Bidirectional and Iterative Development

The conceptual Coaching Transfer Model proposed that development progressed in a linear forward fashion. This was partially supported by suggestions that self-awareness formed a foundation for subsequent personal and performance outcomes. However, indications that feedback-flow influences operate between personal outcomes and self-awareness, and between performance outcomes and self-awareness, suggested that coaching development is potentially bidirectional and iterative. Hence, the conceptual model requires revision to accommodate both forward-flow and feedback-flow development linkages. Figure 2 illustrates the linkages.

Figure 2: Linkages between SCO categories and clusters.



Evidence of generalisable competence

Coaching methodologies typically stress the importance of goal setting (e.g. GROW model, Whitmore, 2002). The current study's findings suggest that a SCO goes beyond the achievement of discrete goals to the development of a general personal-professional competence. This finding has implications for coaching evaluation: assessing general competence may overcome some of the problems associated with appraising coaching's efficacy against the diverse goals set by coachees. Future research is needed to determine if the content of coaching goals markedly affects the essence of general competence.

Defining coaching transfer

The definition of coaching transfer employed in our conceptual model viewed transfer as the sustained application of the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and other qualities acquired during coaching into the workplace. The finding that coachees', coaches', and stakeholders' expectations of the usage of coaching development fell within the clusters *application*, *maintenance* and *generalisation*, supported the proposed definition.

Coaching facilitators and barriers

The three categories (i.e. psychosocial, organisational culture and coachee attitude factors) which emerged during the analyses of incidents which facilitated or hampered coaching transfer supported the proposed Coaching Transfer Model (Figure 1). *Psychosocial factors* appeared to correspond to the *support* sub-set of the proposed input *work environment*. *Organisational cultural factors* appeared to correspond to the *situational facilitators and constraints* sub-set of the proposed input *work environment*. This category also included indicators of organisational precedents and procedures, suggesting that top management support manifested as organisational norms. This category will be referred to as *situational factors*. Coachee factors appeared to be a subset of the proposed coaching input coachee characteristics; furthermore, its interview-derived indicators suggested it related to *motivation*.

Psychosocial factors

The training literature suggests that supervisor support is positively linked to transfer (Holton et al., 1997). Similarly, the coaching literature has alluded to a link between supervisor support and coaching success (McGovern et al., 2001). Similarly Study 1's results suggested that positive support provided by a developmental champion facilitates coaching transfer. Conversely, the absence of a quality support was viewed as a transfer barrier.

Whilst the training literature offers strong evidence of a positive relationship between peer support and training transfer (Newstrom, 1986), the current findings associated were less clear. The impact of peer support appeared to be influenced by the nature of the development, including whether this aroused peers' competition for promotion, and whether coachees shared with their peers that they are attending coaching.

Organisational factors

Coachees, coaches, and stakeholders suggested positive coaching transfer was related to: (a) a pro-development organisational climate; (b) access to development; and (c) procedural support for development. This agrees with findings within the training literature associating transfer with the availability of job-related information and supplies, funding, and time (Mathieu & Martineau, 1997). The finding that workload pressure emerged as a key transfer barrier, agrees with McGovern et al.'s (2001) finding that time pressures on the coachee detract from coaching effectiveness.

Coachees tended to view top-management support as an organisational level factor. Top-management was seen as establishing the organisational culture and precedents associated with development and coaching. Hence, preliminary evidence

suggests that top management influences coaching transfer, via influencing organisational factors.

Motivation

The training literature suggests motivation influences transfer via motivation to learn and motivation to transfer (Noe, 1986). Study 1's facilitators and barriers clusters appear to correspond with these processes. In particular, a coachee with a pro-development approach appeared to possess high levels of motivation to learn, whereas development-indifferent coachees appeared to have low levels of motivation to learn. Coachees with high levels of proactive goal pursuit appeared to posses high levels of motivation to transfer, and coachees who obstructed their own development appeared to have low levels of transfer motivation.

Implications for evaluation due to the differing outcome emphasis across referent groups

Whilst the category structures which emerged for all three referent groups in all three frameworks were structurally similar, the subtle differences in emphasis between the groups have implications for coaching evaluation. There are two noteworthy differences. First, in defining a SCO, stakeholders were more likely than coachees and coaches to emphasise performance outcomes, in particular enhanced job performance. The consequence of this is that stakeholders are more likely to desire and value evaluations which explore coaching efficacy in terms of enhanced job performance. Care must be taken that such evaluations are truly objective and involve multiple measures, as coachees' emphasis on personal outcomes may dispose them to underestimate their performance outcomes. Furthermore, research on gender differences in self-evaluations (e.g. Deaux, 1979; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974) suggests that gender may influence the way coachees respond to self-report evaluations of performance change.

Second, coachees and coaches were more likely than stakeholders to emphasise organisational cultural factors as a barrier to transfer; instead stakeholders were more likely attribute transfer problems to the coachee. Prima facie this may represent a form of evading responsibility and blame. Nonetheless, organisations seeking to maximise their coaching investment may benefit from developing the cultural factors conducive to transfer. Selecting coachees for coaching who have a history of being proactive in pursuing their goals and who display a positive approach to development may also be worthwhile.

Study 2: Verification of the Proposed Coaching Transfer Model

Method

Participants

A convenience sample of 110 participants (60 male and 40 female) was recruited via an e-mail sent to coaches, coaching organisations and web-based coaching interest groups. Each participant had attended an average of seven coaching sessions from a variety of coaching programmes. The average length of coaching engagement was eight months, the minimum of three months, and the maximum of 18 months. The participants included three junior managers, 25 managers, 42 senior managers, 32 partner/directors, and three CEOs. The reasons they had attended coaching were to accelerate their career development (no identified performance concern) (41 per cent), to gain career direction clarity (21.8 per cent), to address personally identified performance concerns (19.1 per cent), on the advice of someone senior (7.3 per cent), and to prepare for an upcoming challenge (5.4 per cent). The majority had volunteered for coaching (63.6 per cent). The modal age category was 36 to 40 years (30.9 per cent), followed by 46 to 55 years (28.2 per cent).

Measures

The interview-derived indicators from the SCO, EoT, and the coaching transfer facilitator and barrier frameworks developed in

Study 1 were used to generate measures of: (a) coaching transfer (CTQ); (b) motivation (MVT); (c) manager psychosocial support (MgrPS); (d) peer psychosocial support (PeerPS); and (e) positive situational factors (SitF). The scales were combined into a single 151-item questionnaire.

The questionnaire was piloted and modified before being completed by the 110 participants. The final coaching transfer questionnaire comprised 27 items: (a) 21 items related to the application of coaching acquired development (CTApp), of which one item was reverse-coded; and (b) six items related to the generalisation and maintenance of coaching acquired development (CTG&M). The final facilitators and barrier scales comprised: (a) MgrPS 15 items, nine reverse-coded; (b) PeerPS five items, four reverse-coded; (c) SitF eight items, two reverse-coded; and (d) MTV eight items, three reverse-coded. Cronbach's alpha ranged from r=.803 (MVT) to r=.929 (PeerPS). Participants were asked to indicate their agreement against a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Results and discussion

Analysis of scales

Owing to the unproven nature of the CTQ its underlying structure was explored using Principle components analysis. Six components reached eigenvalue significance of one, explaining 34.07 per cent, 11.86 per cent, 6.75 per cent, 4.76 per cent, 4.39 per cent, and 4.09 per cent of the variance. The screeplot revealed a clear break after the second component, and two components were retained. Varimax rotation revealed a simple two-factor structure. Three of the CTQ items did not load on either component and were removed from subsequent analyses. Varimax rotation was performed on the remaining 24 items. The rotated solution showed all items loaded substantially onto either component. The final two-factor solution explained a total of 51.23 per cent of the variance, with Component1 contributing 32.62 per cent and Component2 18.61 per cent. Component1 comprised items associated with the application of coaching development (N=18), and Component2 comprised items associated with generalisation and maintenance (N=6). The means, standards deviations and alpha coefficients for all scales are presented at Table 4.

Table 4: Means, standard deviations and alpha coefficients for all scales.

Scale	No. of items	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Alpha
			CTQ			
CTAQ	18	29.00	88.00	66.93	10.03	.924
CTGMQ	6	14.00	30.00	23.07.13	3.58	.856
			Facilitator & Barrier Scales			
MgrPS	15	17.00	75.00	54.96	11.58	.942
PeerPS	5	9.00	25.00	19.53	3.40	.864
SitF	8	13.00	33.00	25.74	4.61	.812
MVT	8	22.00	40.00	33.97	3.70	.737

N=11

Pearson product-moment co-efficient correlations were used to explore the study's hypotheses. Prior to these calculations preliminarily analyses were performed to ensure no violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

Coaching transfer and motivation. Hypothesis 1 proposed that individuals who are more motivated would be more likely to apply, sustain and generalise their coaching development. Correlation analysis indicated that MVT formed a large positive correlation with CTApp (r=.588, p<.005) and a moderate positive correlation with CTG&M (r=.371, p<.05). This suggests that motivation positively impacts both the *application*, and *generalisation* and *maintenance* components of coaching transfer. This finding upholds Hypothesis 1; furthermore it echoes training research which suggests motivated trainees are more likely to transfer their training (Cheng & Ho, 2001).

Coaching Transfer and Psychosocial Factors. Hypothesis 2 and 3 suggested links between manager and peer support with coaching transfer. Whilst a moderate positive correlation was observed between CTApp and MgrPS (r=.319, p<.005), statistically significant relationships were not found between: (a) CTApp and PeerPS; and (b) CTG&M and either MgrPS or PeerPS. Further analyses were undertaken to determine if the relationship between coaching transfer and psychosocial factors was influenced by the type of development sought via coaching. The data set was categorised on developmental type: (a) permission-dependent (PermisDep – requires approval to implement); (b) non-permission-dependent (NonPermisDep – does not require approval, but requires others' participation); and (c) other-independent (OthrIndep). Pearson product-moment coefficient was then employed to explore the relationships between MgrPS and PeerPS with CTApp and CTG&M within each type of development. The results are presented at Table 5.

Table 5: Correlations between coaching transfer variables and psychosocial factors and (split on development type).

		PermisDep (N=37)		NonPermisDep (N=32)		OthrIndep (N=41)	
		r	sig (2-tailed)	*r*	sig (2-tailed)	*r*	sig (2-tailed)
MgrPS	CTA	.440**	.006	.531**	.002	.104	.518
	CTGM	.033	.847	.244	.179	.068	.672
PeerPS	CTA	.312	.060	.494**	.004	–.236	.138
	CTGM	–.066	.698	.357*	.045	–.105	.512
MVT	CTA	.519**	.001	.656**	.000	.619**	.000
	CTGM	.101	.551	429*	.014	.506**	.001

** p<.005, * p<.05 (2-tailed)

Investigating the relationships between permission dependent development and psychosocial support revealed a moderate positive correlation between MgrPS and PermisDep *application* (r=.440, p<.005). A statistically significant relationship was not found with PermisDep *generalisation* and *maintenance*. The relationship between supervisor support and the application of permission-dependent development, may suggest that the application of development which requires manager permission to implement, more likely succeeds with manager support. The lack of an observed relationship between MgrPS and CTG&M possibly occurred as permission-dependent development may involve the achievement of a finite goal (e.g. promotion). Thus, once the development has been applied, generalisation and maintenance may not occur, be necessary, or require supervisor support.

Statistically significant relationships were not found between PeerPS and either PermisDep *application* or *generalisation* and *maintenance*. The nature of permission-dependent development may explain these findings. Permission-dependent development may be associated with development overtly related to coachees' promotion or rewards; and, as suggested by Study 1, such development may: (a) dispose peers to competitiveness; and (b) prevent coachees from sharing with their peers that they are attending coaching, which precludes support. Furthermore, the structural nature of permission-dependent goals may render peer support redundant.

Exploring the relationships between non-permission dependent development and psychosocial support revealed a large positive correlation between MgrPS and NonPermisDep *application* (r=.531, p<.005). A statistically significant relationship was not found with NonPermisDep *generalisation* and *maintenance*. PeerPS showed: (a) a moderate correlation with NonPermisDep *application* (r=.494, p<.005); and (b) a large positive correlation with NonPermisDep *generalisation* and *maintenance* (r=.357, p<.05).

These findings suggest that although non-permission-dependent development does not require approval it requires psychosocial support; furthermore, it appears peer and/or supervisor support can create the conditions conducive to its application. The overlap of peer and supervisor support may occur because: (a) as suggested by Study 1, at the executive level the boundaries between peers and supervisors may become contrived; and/or (b) any type of support may suffice.

The finding that peers were associated with creating conditions conducive to the on-going application of non-permission-dependent development is interesting since peer support was not associated with either permission-dependent development *application* or *generalisation* and *maintenance*. The difference may arise as, compared with permission-dependent development, non-permission-dependent development may be: (a) less overtly related to promotion/reward, and thus may engender peer support; and/or (b) be of a nature where peer support is valid and useful. Furthermore, the finding of a relationship between manager support and *application*, and not between manager support and *generalisation* and *maintenance*, of non-permission-dependent development is also interesting. Potentially, once development has been implemented coachees may not require on-going manager support, and/or managers may not avail on-going support.

On balance the influence of peer support in creating the conditions associated with the transfer of non-permission-dependent development appears wider-ranging that of supervisor support. This agrees with Clarke (2002) who suggested peer support mechanisms may have greater impact than supervisor support for professionals. However, the current study goes beyond Clarke in suggesting that whichever has the stronger influence is determined by the type of development.

Investigating the relationships between other-independent development and psycho-

social support did not reveal statistically significant relationships between MgrPS and PeerPS with either OthrIndep *application* or *generalisation* and *maintenance*. Since other-independent development doesn't require permission or the involvement of others, its application, and generalisation and maintenance are likely less impacted by others and more likely associated with the coachee. Indeed, motivation was strongly associated with both CTApp (r=.619, p<.005) and CTG&M: (r=.506, p<.005). Together these results suggest a coachee with sufficient motivation to apply, and sustain, their development will likely do so despite a lack of peer and/or supervisor support. Furthermore, extrapolating from Facteau et al.'s (1995) finding that task constraints only have an effect when severe, a sufficiently motivated coachee may succeed in transferring other-independent development despite almost all but the most severe obstruction and sabotage by supervisors and peers.

The above findings offer partial support for Hypotheses 2 and 3. Hypothesis 2 proposed peer support would be positively associated with coaching transfer: Peer support was only found to be associated with the transfer of nonpermission-dependent development. Hypothesis 3 proposed positive supervisor support would be associated with coaching transfer: Supervisor support was only found to be associated with the application of permission-dependent and nonpermission-dependent development, but not their generalisation and maintenance.

Coaching transfer and situational factors. Hypothesis 4 suggested that positive situational factors would be positively associated with coaching transfer. Correlation analysis indicated that SitF formed a large positive correlation with CTApp (r=.503, p<.005) and a small positive correlation with CTG&M (r=.281, p<.005). These findings suggest positive situational factors are associated with both the *application*, and *generalisation* and *maintenance* components of coaching transfer.

The best predictor of coaching transfer (application). A standard multiple regression analysis of CTA with MgrPS, PeerPS, SitF, and MVT revealed a final model comprising MgrPS, SitF and MVT. The model explained 42.7 per cent of the variance in CTA [R^2=.427, F(3,110)=26.310, p<.005]. MVT made the largest unique significant contribution [beta=.459, t(110)=5.601, p=.000]. SitF [beta=.318, t(110)=3.509, p=.001] also made a statistically significant unique contribution. These results suggest that whether coaching-based development will be applied to the workplace depends heavily on both the coachee *(motivation)* and conditions created by the organisation *(situational factors)*. Nonetheless, 57.3 per cent of the variance in application goes unexplained, and is likely to be, at least partly, attributable to factors within the coachee-coach relationship.

Although MgrPS did not significantly contribute to the regression, post hoc evaluation of its correlation with CTApp revealed that it was significantly different to zero (r=.319, p<.001); hence, it is possible that the relationship between manager support and *application* is mediated by the relationships between motivation and situational factors with *application*. Future research could explore this.

The best predictor of coaching transfer (generalisation and maintenance). A standard multiple regression analysis of CTG&M with MgrPS, PeerPS, SitF, and MVT revealed a final model, comprising SitF and MVT, and explaining 15.7 per cent of the variance in CTG&M [R2=.157, F(2,110)=9.947, p<.005]. Of the variables MVT made the only unique significant contribution [beta=.307, t(110)=3.144, p=.002].

These results suggest that *motivation* was the single strongest predictor of whether applied development would be sustained and generalised. That 84.3 per cent of the variance in CTG&M goes unexplained is of interest. It may be due to: (a) work environment factors that were included in the facilitators and barriers framework not being

incorporated in the SitF scale and thus not being measured; (b) coachee characteristics, such as conscientiousness, recognised as a reliable predictor of job performance (Robertson & Smith, 2001), not being measured; and/or (c) the inability of the CTG&M scale to tap generalisation and maintenance once development is integrated into the coachee's behavioural repertoire. Future research could investigate further.

Post hoc evaluation of SitF's correlation with CTG&M revealed that it was significantly different to zero (r=.371, p<.001); hence it is likely that the relationship between *situational factors* and *generalisation* and *maintenance* is mediated by the relationship between *motivation* and *generalisation* and *maintenance*. Again, future research could explore this.

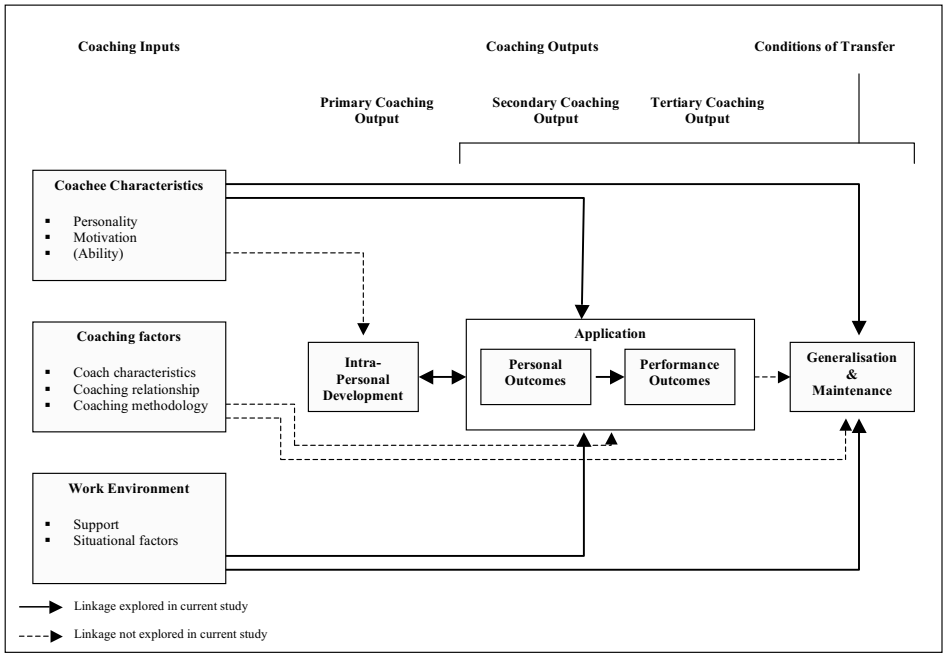
General discussion

The current study proposed a conceptual model of coaching transfer. To verify the model it investigated the nature of coaching outputs, the nature of the conditions associated with transfer, and hypotheses relating certain manipulable inputs to transfer.

The conceptual Coaching Transfer Model was underpinned by four hypotheses that suggested coachee motivation, peer and manager support, and positive situational factors would be associated with creating conditions conducive to positive coaching transfer. Full support was not found for all hypotheses. The results suggested the model be revised to accommodate the specific transfer conditions required by the interactions of: (a) two types of coaching outputs (i.e. personal and performance outcomes); (b) three types of development (i.e. permission-dependent, nonpermission-dependent, and other-independent); and (c) two stages of transfer (i.e. application, and generalisation and maintenance). Figure 3 displays the revised Coaching Transfer Model.

The first revision arose as the study's results suggested coaching outputs differ from the current conceptualisation of

Figure 3: Coaching Transfer Model (Revised).

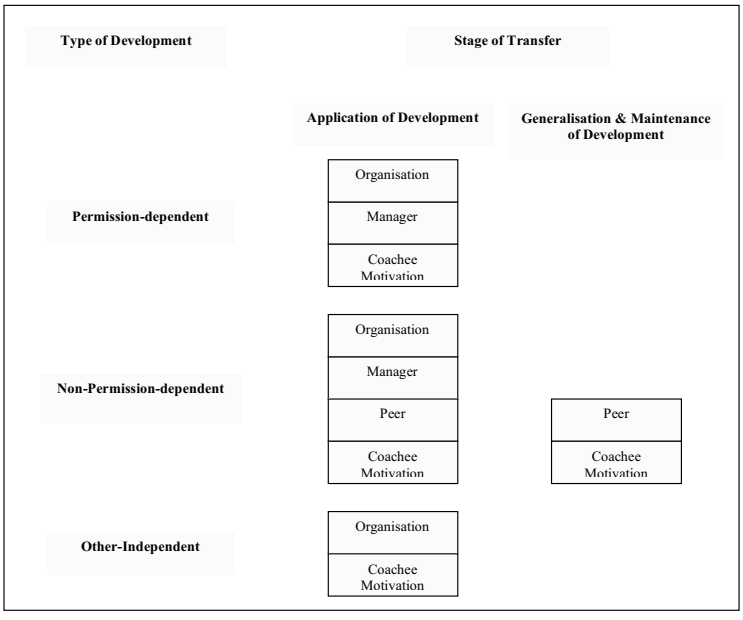


training outcomes. Whereas training outcomes tend to be portrayed as one-dimensional performance outcomes (e.g. Baldwin & Ford, 1988), coaching outputs appear to comprise personal outcomes and performance outcomes. Furthermore, whilst the learning arising from training tends to be separated from its application (e.g. Kirkpatrick's (1983) hierarchy of training outcomes), coaching's secondary and tertiary coaching outputs appear to include the application of development. Moreover, the suggestion that coaching development may be bidirectional and iterative is contrary to Kirkpatrick's (1983) view that training outcomes develop via causal hierarchical linkages – an idea that has dominated training evaluation (Holton, 1996). These findings have implications for coaching evaluation.

The second revision concerns the study's finding that the conditions of transfer appear governed by the stage of transfer and the nature of the development. Evidence was found which suggested the application of coaching development requires different conditions of transfer to its generalisation and maintenance. Evidence was also found which suggested conditions of transfer depend on the type of development sought via coaching. Figure 4 illustrates the relationships between types of development, types of transfer, and types of support.

The results of this study have implications for coaching research and organisational interventions. First, whilst this study sought to develop a coachee-based measure of coaching transfer, analyses of coachees, coaches and stakeholders views of a SCO resulted in three frameworks so structurally

Figure 4: Conditions of transfer associated with types of development and stages of transfer.



similar that their overlap formed a common SCO framework. This common SCO framework could inform the development of a generic measure of positive coaching transfer. A generic transfer measure would have four key merits. It would enable organisations to measure specific (i.e. performance outcomes) and general development (i.e. personal outcomes). It would also enable organisations to assess and compare coaching success across the diverse range of coaching goals their staff pursue in coaching. It could provide a means for coachees, coaches, and stakeholders to review development from their perspective and appreciate it from others'. Lastly, it could assist coaching providers to persuade organisations of the value of coaching. Furthermore, whilst the current study focussed on coaching transfer, and hence only sought to measure secondary and tertiary coaching outputs, incorporating a scale relating to primary outputs (IPD) would create a comprehensive measure of a successful coaching outcome. Such a measure would go someway to providing a generic coaching evaluation tool. Future research could extend the transfer measure to a comprehensive SCO measure by incorporating the IPD category.

The second implication arising from this study concerns its finding that the conditions for positive transfer appear to depend on coachee motivation, manager and to a lesser extent peer psychosocial support, and organisational factors. This suggests that organisations seeking to maximise transfer could assess organisational and coachee readiness for coaching, and manger suitability to act as a developmental champion.

The last implication concerns the finding that coaching transfer appears to be associated with motivation, psychosocial and situational factors. This suggests organisations could employ transfer enhancing interventions that target these inputs.

The study suffered several methodological limitations. First, it relied exclusively on self-report data. Future research could employ a multiple-methods approach, incorporating more objective sources of evidence (e.g. performance appraisal data). Second, it was based on a convenience sample and may also be in part a snowball sample, both of which are more likely than random samples to suffer sampling bias (Loewenthal, 2001). Third, since motivation was a variable investigated in Study 2, response bias, whereby less motivated individuals did not respond to the survey, may have distorted the results. Fourth, Study 2 analyses were based on relatively small sample sizes, which may have compromised the integrity of the outcomes. Last, as coaching cannot be isolated from the coachees' professional and personal spheres any changes coincident with coaching may be attributable to factors unrelated to coaching. Matched coaching and non-coaching comparison group studies would go some way to identifying changes attributable to coaching.

In sum, this study extended coaching research by providing an initial understanding of the influence of the factors which impact on coaching transfer. The findings have implications for coaching research and organisational practice. In particular, they highlight that to maximise their coaching return on investment organisations must adopt a holistic guardianship of their coaching provision, including coaching readiness assessments and transfer enhancement interventions. They also suggested that if coaching research is to provide comprehensive guidance to underpin practice and develop theory, then the complex interplay of factors beyond the coachee-coach relationship must be explored. Nonetheless, this study was exploratory, and its ultimate value lies in the possibilities for future research that it raised.

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Positive coaching with frontline managers: Enhancing their effectiveness and understanding why

Nickolas Yu, Catherine G. Collins, Michael Cavanagh, Kate White & Greg Fairbrother

Coaching is increasingly being used in the health sector, with staff and patients. Despite this increase there is only a small body of empirical evidence that demonstrates the effectiveness of coaching in health care settings.

Objectives: *This study evaluated the effectiveness of a workplace coaching programme (WCP) aimed at enhancing the work behaviours and well-being of 17 managers in a large Australian teaching hospital.*

Design: *A within-group, pre-post test study design was used.*

Methods: *The WCP consisted of needs-based workshops and group and individual coaching over a six-month period. Positive social science provided the theoretical underpinning for the WCP, and this was applied through an integrated solution-focused, cognitive-behavioural methodology. A questionnaire was used to collect data at two time points. Data was analysed using the Wilcoxon Sign Rank Test.*

Results: *Participation in coaching was associated with significantly enhanced proactivity, core performance, goal-attainment, self-insight, motivation, positive affect, and autonomy. Significant effects on self-reflection, negative affect and psychological well-being were not found.*

Conclusion: *The study provides preliminary evidence in favour of workplace coaching as an effective approach for facilitating work effectiveness. Further research utilising larger sample sizes and controlled study designs is warranted.*

Keywords: Coaching outcomes, well-being, role breadth self efficacy, goal attainment scaling, manager's health care.

THROUGHOUT THE PAST DECADE, coaching has grown in popularity and is increasingly being used in the health sector, with staff and patients. Coaching is a process that enables people to learn and achieve goals. With staff, coaching is commonly used to enhance work performance, cultivate leadership and promote positive work cultures. As the academic literature on coaching is relatively young, there are numerous gaps in our understanding of the impact of coaching on work behaviours and well-being, as well as why such changes in behaviours emerge. This paper reports the results of a study undertaken to assess the effectiveness of a workplace coaching programme (WCP) aimed at enhancing the work behaviours and well-being of nursing managers in a major Australian hospital. Two types of employee behaviour were considered as measures of impact: typical core behaviours (core performance) and proactive behaviours (proactivity). In addition to exploring the impact of the coaching on core performance, proactivity and well-being, we explored the impact of the intervention on a range of cognitive and affective mechanisms that are theorized to explain why workplace coaching has a positive impact on employees' behaviours. These mechanisms included: goal-attainment, self-insight, and motivation. A hospital setting is a particularly relevant context in which to test the effectiveness of coaching because it is a complex, interdependent workplace where organizational interventions are needed.

Coaching to enhance core performance, proactivity and well-being

Coaching has been recommended as a strategy to improve performance among professionals in health care (Smeltzer & Truong, 2000). When considering performance it is also important to take into account well-being, as well-being is likely to optimize (Turner, Barling & Zacharatos, 2005) and sustain performance.

According to Griffin, Neal and Parker (2007), employee performance is a multifaceted issue. First, there is a need for core performance, which is the purpose individuals are employed. In the hospital setting of the current study, participants' effective core performance included patient care co-ordination, staffing, bed management, human resources management, financial management, and occupational health and safety. Beyond core performance, organizations also require employees to help build and improve organizational capacity, and create and integrate knowledge, technology and practice.

Hospitals reflect the complexity that is inherent in the delivery of modern health care. Delivering health care requires the coordination of multiple professionals in order to achieve health or work outcomes. For instance, managing the flow of patients throughout the hospital from point of entry to discharge requires liaison and management from numerous professionals and systems. In such environments, proactive performance behaviors are necessary (Griffin et al., 2007). Proactive behaviour refers to 'self- initiated, future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself' (Parker, Williams & Turner, 2006, p.636)

There are various types of proactivity and the focus of the present study is on proactivity that improves the internal organization environment such as work outcomes (e.g. patient safety) and processes (e.g. streamlining systems). This type of proactivity is important because of the organisational need for employees to engage in self-direction, forward thinking, anticipatory planning and taking charge behaviors, in order to prevent workplace problems (Parker & Collins, in press; Parker et al., 2006).

Taking charge and individual innovation are two particularly important proactive behaviours for the hospital context. This is because continuous quality improvement, practice development, clinical leadership, and innovations in models of care are required for health care organisations to be effective. Taking charge refers to 'constructive efforts by individual employees, to effect organisationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organisations' (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p.403). Individual innovation refers to a process of identifying problems, generating ideas or solutions, building support for and then implementing these (Scott & Bruce 1994).

Given the importance of core performance and proactivity (e.g. taking charge, individual innovation) in achieving desired organisational outcomes, if coaching is to be a relevant and effective organizational intervention we would expect these factors to be enhanced by a coaching intervention.

Employee well-being is another outcome of substantial interest to organizations. Organizations are particularly interested in maintaining employees' well-being for a variety of reasons. These include: the need to attract, engage and retain good employees; that the need to create levels of effective performance that are sustainable in the long term, and the moral and legal responsibility for organisations to provide healthy and safe workplaces. In the literature, well-being has been recognized as a multi-dimensional construct informed by two major traditions: subjective well-being and psychological well-being (Keyes, Shmotkin & Ryff, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Subjective well-being includes positive and negative affect, and life satisfaction (Keyes et al., 2002). In this approach, well-being is defined in terms of pleasure attainment and pain avoidance (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

In contrast, psychological well-being focuses on meaning and self-realization. While both types of well-being are of interest in this study, subjective well-being is of particular interest because it is more subject to change in the shorter term.

In summary, we expected an appropriately designed and implemented coaching programme to improve employees' core performance, proactivity and subjective well-being.

Why will coaching impact these employee outcomes?

There are at least three important ways in which coaching might enhance employee behaviours. Firstly, coaching may enhance workplace performance via the development of metacognitive abilities. Meta-cognition is a process that is central to purposeful, directed change (Carver & Scheier, 2001) and comprises two distinct constructs: self-reflection and self-insight. Self-reflection refers to 'the inspection and evaluation of one's thoughts, feelings, and behaviours' (Grant, 2001, p.179). Self-insight refers to 'the clarity of understanding one's thoughts, feelings, and actions' (Grant, 2001, p.179). Self-insight was expected to be positively impacted by the WCP because coaching is a facilitated conversation in which people are asked questions that often enable new and different perspectives in relation to self, others and the world (O'Connor & Lage, 2007).

Secondly, goal setting and goal attainment are key features in many of the theories and approaches that commonly inform coaching (e.g. cognitive-behavioural and solution-focused coaching [Grant, 2003], systemic coaching [Cavanagh, 2006], and self-concordance theory [Sheldon et al., 2004]). Goal-attainment has also received increased attention in the coaching literature (e.g. Grant, 2003; Green, Oades & Grant, 2006; Spence, 2007). Goal-attainment was expected to be positively impacted by the WCP because coaching is an interaction that explicitly facilitates people through a process of setting goals, developing action plans, monitoring progress, evaluating outcomes, and learning from experience (Grant, 2006). For a fuller discussion of goal setting and its importance in goal attainment see Latham and Locke (1991).

Thirdly, following Bandura's (1997) Social Cognitive Theory, this paper focuses on self efficacy as an important motivational factor that has been shown to be a malleable driver of performance. For example, Parker (1998) has shown self-efficacy to improve with positive organizational interventions such as work redesign (Parker, 1998). In particular we will focus on role-breadth self-efficacy (RBSE). RBSE refers to 'employees' perceived capability of carrying out a broader and more proactive set of work tasks that extend beyond prescribed technical requirements' (Parker, 1998, p.835). RBSE was also of interest in this study because it has been found to be an antecedent of proactive behaviours (Crant, 2000). The WCP was expected to positively impact RBSE because coaching is a process that cultivates individual mastery of situations through ongoing, positive feedback (Bandura, 1997).

In summary, we expect an appropriately designed and implemented coaching programme will improve self-insight, goal-attainment and motivation.

Research design

The main objective of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of a coaching programme that was aimed at enhancing the work behaviors and well-being of frontline nursing managers in a large Australian teaching hospital. The research used a longitudinal (pre-post test), within sample design.

Description of the Workplace Coaching Programme

The WCP was developed with input from 11 experts in the field and three key principles in the literature about processes that contribute to learning, change, and performance (Cunningham & Kitson, 2000; Grant, 2003; Green et al., 2006; Olivero, Bane & Kopelman, 1997; Spence & Grant, 2007).

Collectively, this information suggested that the WCP be based on three principles. First, a positive approach to change is used (for instance a solution-focused, cognitive-behavioural methodology).

Solution-focused, cognitive-behavioural coaching seeks to identify and describe in detail the coachee's preferred or client's preferred goal state or outcome, identify the resources currently available to the person to achieve that outcome, and build on the progress made toward the goal. This approach also seeks to assist the person to develop performance enhancing cognitive schemas and behavioural repertoires relevant to goal attainment (Green & Grant, 2003).

The second principle underlying the WCP was that workshop participants need a period of explicit support in order to transfer the learnings and skills acquired in the WCP into the workplace (Olivero, Bane & Kopelman, 1997). Therefore, individual coaching was used to supplement the coaching skills training delivered in the WCP.

Finally, we believed that for the WCP to be maximally effective it should be personalised to the needs of the individuals and teams participating in the programme. Hence a needs based approach to developing the workshop content was taken. Group coaching was also given to participating teams, and individuals were asked to produce personal development plans. The above principles informed the inclusion of the five major components of the WCP. (See Table 1 below for a description of these components.) Coaching was conducted by a tertiary qualified coach with expertise in health care (NY).

Study setting

The setting was a large metropolitan teaching hospital located in Australia. This hospital has a full time equivalent of about 1000 nurses, 400 beds and 45,000 admissions per year.

Participants

Seventeen frontline nursing managers (15 female, two male; mean age 37 years) took part in the study. Demographic data is presented in Table 2. Participants were invited by their line managers to participate in the WCP and following an information session about the WCP, self-selected to participate. Three participants withdrew from the intervention prior to its conclusion. Fifteen participants completed pre-test surveys and 10 completed post-test surveys. Participants completed questionnaires immediately on enrolment to the WCP and again after the six-month long coaching intervention.

Measures

Taking charge was measured using the Taking Charge scale developed by Morrison and Phelps' (1999). This 10-item subscale was found to have excellent internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha=.95) in the development studies and good discriminate validity. Examples of items used include 'I often try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company' and 'I often try to change organizational rules or policies that are non-productive or counter-productive.' The alpha coefficient found in the present study was 0.71. All items were measured using a five-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree).

Core performance behaviours were assessed with a four-item measure from Morrison and Phelps (1999). The measure was found to have good discriminant validity and the reliability of this scale in development was reported as excellent (Cronbach's alpha=.94). The alpha co-efficient found in the present study was .89. Example items from this scale include: 'This person meets performance expectations' and 'This person adequately completes responsibilities.' All items were measured using a five-point scale (1=Strongly disagree, 5=Strongly agree).

A six-item Innovative Behaviour Measure (IBM; Scott & Bruce, 1994) was used to measure individual innovation. Example

Table 1: Description of the various components of the Workplace Coaching Programme.

Component	Description
Coaching seminars	Sixteen coaching seminars were facilitated throughout the WCP. Each seminar typically comprised a conceptual overview of the topic, followed by a demonstration or case scenario, role-plays and a reflective practice activity. These 90-minute seminars focused on topics based on requests from participants, and learning needs identified by senior nursing managers and the coach via a pre-intervention educational needs analysis.
Group coaching	Sixteen coaching groups were also facilitated throughout the WCP. These 60-minute groups were face-to-face, closed (meaning that no new people entered the group outside of original group participants), and structured according to the GROW coaching model (Whitmore, 1996).
Individual coaching	On average, six individual coaching sessions were provided to participants, throughout the WCP. These 45 minute coaching sessions were face-to-face, held away from the participant's office, and structured according to the GROW model (Whitmore, 1996). Participants identified a number of important workplace goals that they wanted to achieve early on in the WCP. The goals created the focus for the individual coaching sessions. The content of group and individual coaching was confidential to participants and the coach.
Workplace group projects	Participants worked in four groups to complete a work-based group project. Each group chose a relevant workplace topic, for instance, developing a proposal to initiate a new organisational process such as a nursing council. Each group received coaching in the early part of the WCP, in order to establish clear expectations, timelines, and identify relevant sources of literature. Throughout the WCP, participants received feedback from colleagues in the workplace coaching groups.
Personal development plan (PDP)	The purpose of PDPs was for the participants to set development goals, which were informed by a multi-source feedback (MSF) process. The coach synthesised MSF for participants and presented these findings to participants in the individual coaching sessions.

Table 2: Demographics of sample.

Variable	Range
Age range (mean)	26-48 (37)
Years of nursing experience (mean)	6-30 (16)
Years of management experience (mean)	0-10 (2)

items on this scale include 'Promotes and champions ideas to others' and 'Investigates and secures funds needed to implement new ideas.' All response were made using a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=Not at all to 5=To an exceptional degree. Cronbach's alpha on this scale at the developmet scale was reported as .89. The reliability found in the present study was lower (Cronbach's alpha=.660.

The goal attainment scale (GAS) measures participants' perceived difficulty of goals, and their expected level of goal attainment by the completion of the WCP. To calculate the goal attainment score we first multiplied the degree of success by the degree of difficulty, and second, divided the number of chosen goals to reach by the mean score (Spence, 2007).

The self-reflection self-insight (SRIS) measure was used to assess meta-cognition. This is a validated and reliable 20-item scale (Grant, Franklin & Langford, 2002). Good convergent and discriminant validity has been found. The items are divided into two scales. The alpha coefficients for self-reflection (SR, 10 items) and self-insight (SI, 10 items) were both 0.72 in this study.

Motivation was assessed with the role-breadth self-efficacy scale (RBSES). This is a valid and reliable 10-item measure (Parker 1998). In this scale respondents are asked to rate the level of their confidence in undertaking 10 role relevant tasks. Ratings are made on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1=Not at all confident to 5=Very confident. Examples of the tasks include: 'Representing your work area in meetings with senior management' and 'Designing new procedures for your work area'. The alpha coefficient found in the present study was .71.

Well-being was assessed in two ways. First, Positive Affect Negative Affect Scale (PANAS), a validated 20-item measure was used to assess subjective well-being (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). The measure has been reported to be internally consistent and with excellent convergent and discriminant properties (Watson et al., 1988). Items are divided into two scales: positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA), the alphas in this study were 0.86 and 0.80 respectively.

Second, scales of psychological well-being (SPWB) were used. This is a valid and reliable 54-item measure (Ryff 1989). The items are divided into six scales, each containing nine items: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. Alpha coefficients for the scales ranged from 0.61 to 0.81.

Results

Table 3 outlines the medians, means, standard deviations and z scores for each of the measures used at both pre- and post-test times. The Wilcoxon Sign Rank Test was used to assess if there was a statistically significant difference between the measures, pre- and post- the coaching intervention. A significance level of $p<0.05$ was used. As can be seen in Table 3, significant increases between pre- and post-scores were found for proactivity (taking charge, individual innovation), core performance, the self-insight subscale of meta-cognition, motivation (role breath self-efficacy), well-being (positive affect, autonomy), and goal-attainment. A number of the measures did not significantly differ, namely, the self-reflection subscale for meta-cognition and a number of the well-being subscales (negative affect, environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life, and personal relationships).

Further analysis was conducted on the goal-attainment results to explore which of the different types of goals improved. The goals set by participants were therefore clustered into five major goal domains as outlined in Table 4.

A by-goal (rather than by-subject) analysis using the Wilcoxon signed rank test was conducted, to explore the relative improvement of the different goal domains. Eighty-two goals arising from the 14 participants were explored in this post-hoc analysis. Significant change was located for each of the five goal domains indicating a uniformity of effect

Table 3: Medians (Means), Standard Deviations, z scores and Significance Levels (Wilcoxon Sign Rank Test) by Time.

Measure	*N*	Pre	SD	*N*	Post	SD	z	*p*
Goal attainment	17	4 (3.8)	1.9	14	7 (6.7)	1.3	−7.7	<.05
Subjective well-being								
Positive affect	14	4 (3.4)	0.8	10	4 (4.0)	0.4	−2.0	<.05
Negative affect	15	2 (2.2)	0.9	10	1.8 (1.7)	0.7	−1.6	NS
Psychological well-being								
Autonomy	15	3.3 (3.2)	0.7	10	3.5 (3.7)	0.5	−2.0	<.05
Environmental mastery	15	4 (3.7)	0.6	10	4 (4.1)	0.4	−1.9	NS
Personal growth	15	4 (4.0)	0.7	10	4 (4.1)	0.5	−0.7	NS
Purpose in life	15	4 (3.9)	0.6	10	4 (4.0)	0.6	−1.5	NS
Personal relationships	15	4 (4.0)	0.7	10	3.7 (3.8)	0.7	−0.1	NS
Meta-cognition								
Self-reflection	15	3.9 (3.7)	0.5	10	3.9 (3.8)	0.7	−1.1	NS
Self-insight	15	4 (3.8)	0.5	10	4.3 (4.3)	0.6	−2.2	<.05
Proactivity								
Take charge	15	2.7 (2.9)	0.7	10	3.7 (3.6)	0.4	−2.8	<.05
Individual innovation	15	2.7 (2.6)	0.6	10	3.7 (3.6)	0.3	−2.7	<.05
Motivation								
Role-breadth self-efficacy	15	2.8 (2.8)	0.6	10	3.8 (3.8)	0.4	−2.8	<.05
Core performance behaviour	15	4 (3.7)	0.8	10	4 (3.9)	0.6	−2.7	<.05

across different types of goals. The technical skills domain attracted somewhat lower ratings than the other goal domains on baseline, but improved to reach a similar post-intervention median to the other goal domains.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to assess the effectiveness of a coaching programme aimed at enhancing the work behaviours and well-being of nursing managers.

The results from this study provide some preliminary evidence that coaching enhances workplace behaviours in both core task performance and proactive performance behaviours. Furthermore, a variety of the mechanisms thought to explain why coaching impacts these behaviours were found to be positively impacted by coaching, including goal-attainment, the self-insight aspect of meta-cognition, as well as motivation (namely role-breadth self-efficacy). The impact of coaching on well-being is less conclusive.

This study is unique because it is the first study that has researched the impact of coaching in the health care settings using an integrated solution-focused, cognitive-behavioural approach. It is also the first study investigating the impact of coaching on proactivity.

Specifically, the results indicate that in addition to improving core task performance behaviours, coaching was effective at increasing proactivity focused on control of, and bringing about change within, the internal organizational environment, such as by improving work methods (i.e. individual innovation and taking charge). These positive findings provide the first empirical support for Kemp's (2005) suggestion that coaching can be used to facilitate proactive behaviour. This suggests that coaching is an important way to motivate and support managers in the task of facilitating organisational change.

Table 4: Types of goals themed into major categories.

Goal Type	Description
Goal 1 – Well-being	Goals related to positive individual outcomes such as: job satisfaction, and self-efficacy.
Goal 2 – Coaching	Goals related to proactively managing and developing people through change.
Goal 3 – Communication	Goals related to effective communication, for example, managing emotions during difficult conversations.
Goal 4 – Strategic thinking	Goals related to higher-level management thinking such as creating job clarity and prioritization of time and tasks.
Goal 5 – Technical skills	Goals related to routine management business systems such as: rosters, budgets, and staffing.

Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1997) and Hope Theory (Snyder, Rand & Sigmon, 2005) may help explain these significant increases. The WCP incorporated key social learning theory strategies. Participants were provided with opportunities for repeatedly performing tasks until these tasks were mastered (enactive mastery), observing role models who were effective at performing these tasks (modelling), and receiving realistic encouragement about performance (verbal persuasion) (Bandura, 1997; Parker, 1998; Skiffington & Zeus, 2003). These strategies for behavioural change have previously been demonstrated to enhance role breadth self-efficacy and in turn proactivity (Parker, 1998; Parker et al., 2006). We also found in this study that coaching had a positive impact on role breadth self-efficacy. Future research needs to assess if role breadth self-efficacy mediates the relationship between coaching and performance (core and proactive performance); the sample size was too small in this study to explore this.

Hope Theory (Snyder et al., 2005) may provide further explanation for increases in proactivity and core performance. This theory suggests that hope is a function of three types of thinking. First is goal-directed thinking, which refers to thoughts that set and clarify goals. Second is pathways thinking, which refer to thoughts that develop specific strategies to reach goals. Third is agency thinking, which refers to thoughts that initiate and sustain the motivation for pathways thinking. The goal-directed, pathways and agency thinking were all promoted in the WCP.

For example, the solution-focused approach to coaching facilitated goal-directed and pathways thinking; participants were assisted to develop specific strategies to reach goals in their individual coaching sessions. Specifically, participants were encouraged to: create vivid and attractive images of the future; identify and explore what parts of these future pictures were already present; and harness the strengths and resources people had (or could potentially access) in order to achieve their goals (Green et al., 2006). The cognitive-behavioural coaching approach enabled participants to develop positive and logical thinking patterns about their performance, thus contributing to a greater sense of agency – ways to initiate and sustain motivation (Green et al., 2006).

Coaching was effective in enhancing goal-attainment in this study, which reinforces similar findings in previous studies. (Grant, 2003; Green et al., 2006; Spence & Grant, 2007). The present study extends these findings in that it has shown coaching positively affects goal attainment for a range of goal types. Goal attainment was signifi-

cantly improved for five goal domains: well-being; coaching; communication; strategic thinking; and technical skills. Interestingly, goal-attainment remained relatively uniform across these different types of goals. This may suggest that the positive effects of coaching are able to generalise across domains. We suggest that future research explore this issue further. For example, does coaching positively impact on goal attainment outside the focus of the coaching topic? That is, if an individual is being coached at work, does the participants' level of goal attainment improve in their private life?

An aspect of meta-cognition, self-insight, significantly improved over the time that individuals were coached. This finding is consistent with Grant (2003). The significant increase in self-insight was expected given the solution-focused and cognitive-behavioural approaches taken in the coaching. Within the solution-focused approach, the coach asked questions that enabled participants to take multiple perspectives of human experience and action, while also encouraging experimental and exploratory action that often elicited fresh insights. The cognitive-behavioural approach provided participants with a framework to challenge distorted beliefs and assumptions, and instead engage in positive self-talk that fostered different thoughts, feelings, behaviours, and potential insights. Additionally, self-insight may have been promoted through the coach's purposeful use of skills such as reflecting, clarifying, challenging, and feedback giving.

However, interestingly Grant (2003) found a significant decrease in self-reflection whereas in this study there was no significant decrease. Rather, our findings are similar to those of Spence and Grant's (2006), who found that coaching did not significantly impact self-reflection. Clearly, future research needs to investigate this issue further. For example, does the impact of coaching on self-reflection depend on the content of coaching or sample?

Coaching may have a potentially beneficial impact on well-being. However, the inconsistent findings in this and previous studies (Grant, 2003; Spence & Grant, 2005; Green et al., 2006) point to the need for more research to explore these relationships further.

It appears that coaching was effective in enhancing positive affect and one aspect of psychological well-being – autonomy. An increase in positive affect is an important outcome because positive affect helps build and broaden momentary thought-action repertoires, and enduring social resources (Fredrickson, 2005). The benefits of positive affect over time can also have a positive organisational impact (Losada & Heaphy, 2004). High scores on the psychological well-being autonomy subscale reflect that individuals perhaps became more self-determining and independent, regulating behaviour from within, and better able to resist social pressures to think and act in certain ways; rather individuals became better able to evaluate themselves against personal standards (Ryff, 1989).

These findings are consistent with Grant (2003) and Green et al. (2006) who found that coaching had a significant positive impact on well-being. The increase in positive affect could be a function of the positive and expansive principles and questions that were used by the solution-focused coaching approach in the WCP. Also, findings may be partly explained by Hope Theory, which posits that positive emotions flow from perceptions of successful goal striving (Snyder et al., 2005).

However, unlike the Green and colleagues' (2006) study, we did not find a significant decrease in negative affect or a significant increase in other aspects of psychological well-being (i.e., environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life, and positive relations with others). Interestingly, these aspects of psychological well-being did not change as a result of coaching in Spence and Grant's (2007) study either. It is also worth noting that the Green et al.

(2006) and Spence and Grant (2007) studies were life-coaching studies, whereas our study was set in a workplace context (hospital-based health care) often marked by high demands and strong competition for the allocation of relatively scarce resources. In this context it is perhaps not surprising that negative affect and other measures of well-being were not significantly improved. Nevertheless, further research needs to explore in detail whether workplace coaching has an impact on global experiences of well-being.

Limitations

A number of limitations need to be considered when interpreting the above findings. First, due to the absence of a control group, the effects may have occurred as a result of other organisational changes. Although new nursing initiatives are continual features of hospital settings today, to the authors knowledge there were no systemic large changes occurring for all the nurses involved in the WCP. Second, the sustainability of effects was not measured, as there were only two data collection points. Third, the measures were self-reported and this gives rise to the potential for social desirability and demand effects. This criticism is somewhat countered because we did not find a significant and positive increase for all constructs. Finally, the single-site sample raises questions about the generalisability; future research needs to explore how similar WCP's impact employees working at different organisational levels and within different industries. These limitations are not isolated to this study and are common in young literatures such as coaching when research is exploratory (see Grant, 2003; Green et al., 2006; Spence & Grant, 2007).

These limitations need to be taken in perspective. This pre-post test research design tracked 17 nursing managers over six months. Empirical and longitudinal studies assessing the impact of coaching within organisations are rare. We have provided some initial insights about the positive impact coaching can have for employee behaviour and aspects of well-being. This study also provided some evidence why these outcomes may have occurred (i.e. meta-cognition, motivation and goal attainment). We encourage future research with larger samples to assess coaching with more rigorous quasi-experimental research designs to tease apart causality. Longitudinal research designs will also be important for understanding the sustainability of effects of the intervention, and thus help understand the frequency with which coaching will be needed.

Directions for research

Future research could also investigate the impact of coaching on other health leaders, rather than just nursing managers as reported in this study. In this study the intervention was delivered in a graduated format over six-months. Future studies could evaluate if similarly positive findings are replicated in a WCP using a different format for instance, delivering seminars in an intensive format. It would also be valuable to compare the effectiveness of coaching that is underpinned by different theoretical approaches. Research into the differential impact of the various components of WCP's would be useful. Finally, research could investigate the differential impact that coaching has on the well-being of participants who are at various stages of cognitive-development (Kegan, 1994).

Implications for practice

At least three implications for practitioners arise from this paper. First, coaching had a positive impact on work performance behaviours, both core behaviours and proactive behaviours. Thus there is evidence that coaching is an important intervention organisations can use to enhance workplace outcomes. Second, coaching also showed to be important for individual outcomes such as enhancing positive affect, an important well-being outcome. Thus there is evidence that coaching is an important intervention organisations can use to enhance individual

outcomes. Finally, some light has been shed on understanding why these changes may have occurred. The change in the mechanisms self-insight, goal attainment, and role breadth self-efficacy implies that WCP's that focus on building these mechanisms are likely to be more effective. We therefore encourage further rigorous empirical testing of this proposition.

Summary

Coaching is a process that can be used by managers, and organisations more broadly, to positively impact workplace outcomes (performance and proactivity) in addition to employee well-being. This study provides support for these coaching outcomes and also supports some of the underlying theories that explain why coaching is an effective organisational intervention. Such interventions are particularly important for health care settings, which are under constant pressure to deal with large workloads, high staff turnover, great complexity and high stress. This study has the potential to make a valuable contribution to further investigating and understanding coaching as a process that facilitates learning, performance, and human flourishing.

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SPEAKERS

The Australian Psychological Society Ltd

Mr Steve Arthurson
Director Human Resources
Visy Industries

Dr Alison Whybrow
Coaching Psychologist practitioner

Mr Steve Arthurson

Director Human Resources for Visy Industries, Steve is a prominent leadership development professional with extensive experience in all aspects of Human Resources. In an address titled The role of coaching and coaching psychologists in corporate Australia, he will focus on organisation capability development, top line coaching and executive leadership development.

Dr Alison Whybrow

Alison is an experienced coaching psychologist practitioner and current Chair of the Special Group on Coaching Psychology of the British Psychological Society. In an address titled Coaching Psychology: Coming of age? Alison will bring an international perspective on two key questions 'What does it mean to practice as a coaching psychologist and what does coaching psychology offer?'

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On the unity of behavioural and developmental perspectives in coaching

A view from the Constructive Developmental Framework

Otto Laske

The Constructive Developmental Framework (CDF) is a psychometric tool for coaching research, coaching practice, and more broadly for managing human capital. CDF assesses clients' present frame of reference (world view) from the double perspective of two strands of adult development: cognitive and social-emotional development. It scrutinizes, in addition, clients' psychological balance at work from within a Freudian framework. By bringing together developmental and behavioural findings, the CDF user obtains empirical evidence needed for defining effective and realistic coaching plans.

CDF is also a solid foundation for educating evidence-based coaches and establishing entire organizational coaching programs. The extension of CDF to corporate uses is straightforward. When aggregated over a larger number of individuals, CDF data can be used to define strategies for developing human resources, in particular recruitment, placement, leadership development coaching, executive development, succession planning, and other purposes.

CDF is based on the constructivist paradigm followed by research in adult development over the life span since Piaget. The paradigm says that coaches and their clients alike construct reality according to their present developmental level. As a consequence, human behaviour appears as an epi-phenomenon of the presently held developmental level. Doing follows being.

Historically considered, CDF synthesizes five different strands of developmental research since the 1950s: (1) research into social-emotional development (Kegan, 1982; 1994; Lahey, 1988; Laske, 1999a, 2006a; Loevinger, 1976), (2) the structure of dialectical thinking (Laske, 1966; Adorno, 1999; Bhaskar, 1993), (3) the development of dialectical thinking and reflective judgment over the lifespan (Basseches, 1984, 1989a-b; King and Kitchener, 1994; Laske 1999a), (4) psychodynamic foundations of work behaviour (Murray, 1938, 1948; Aderman, 1967, 1969), and (5) the cognitive-developmental structure of organizational roles (Jaques, 1994, 1998).

This article details CDF as a system comprising three dimensions referred to as CD (cognitive development), ED (social-emotional development), and NP (Need/Press or psychological balance), respectively. The latter dimension is interpreted based on the two former ones, meaning that the same behaviour has different meanings at different developmental levels.

The article comprises four sections, a summary, and references. Section I describes the theoretical model CDF is based on. Section II details the three dimensions of CDF: cognitive, social-emotional, and behavioural. Sections III discusses evidence-based mentoring, while Section IV focuses on the unity of behavioural and developmental perspectives in coaching research and practice.

Keywords: adult development, developmental coaching, dialectical thinking, frame of reference, process consultation, psychometrics.

Section I: Theoretical model

Central idea

The central idea of CDF is that the way in which people make meaning and sense of the real world unceasingly and dramatically changes over their life span. An associated notion is that people's behaviour, goal-setting and actions reflect these changes. Individuals' consciousness is conceived as an organized transformational system in which three different dimensions constitute each other:

- a social-emotional dimension;
- a cognitive dimension;
- a clinical-behavioural dimension.

Each of these has a different degree of cohesion and complexity. The art of using CDF lies in providing a synthesis of these dimensions in feedback to individuals and teams. Behaviour is seen through developmental eyes, not acted upon *per se*. Behavioural data are only snapshots, while developmental data are across-time, longitudinal data representing a vertical dimension that intersects with the behavioural horizontal.

In terms of pedagogy, mastering CDF entails acquiring expertise in using three separate assessment tools:

- Lahey et al.'s subject-object interview (1988; refined in Laske, 2006a)
- Laske's professional agenda interview (1999a; modified from Basseches's educational interview, 1984)
- Aderman's 'Need/Press' questionnaire (1967; derived from Murray, 1938, 1948).

The seminal role of J. Piaget

CDF synthesizes important developmental findings of the second half of the 20th century. As inaugurator of its research base, J. Piaget stands out.

A central notion of Piaget's research is that human development manifests in the degree to which an individual can take an 'objective' view of herself and the world, rather than remaining subject to her needs and desires. In studies of children and adolescents, Piaget showed that *ego-centricity gradually diminishes over the human life span*, along with the progressive advancement of formal logical thinking. This process equally unfolds in the social-emotional dimension of human development, where it can be described in terms of 'levels'. Each level is defined by a specific relation between what one is subject to (cannot control) and can reflect upon (and thus make an object of). *The larger one's object, the lower is one's ego-centricity, both cognitively and social-emotionally.*

In terms of CDF, loss of ego-centricity manifests in three different but related domains: *cognitive development* (CD), *social-emotional development* (ED), and *psychological balance*. The latter is measured in terms of an individual's psycho-genic needs vs. two kinds of pressure, *ideal press* (Super-Ego), and actual press (social world). The behavioural dimension is referred to 'Need/Press' (NP), where 'need' stands for 'psychogenic need' and 'press' for internal and external pressure (Murray, 1938). The three CDF dimensions are associated with three fundamental questions asked by coaching clients:

1. *CD: What can I know, and what can I do once I know?*
2. *ED: What should I do, and for whom?*
3. *NP: How am I doing?*

Findings from CDF assessments give insight into how an individual answers these three questions on a daily basis. Such findings are of great benefit in coaching, psychotherapy, and Human Resources in which these questions are typically raised.

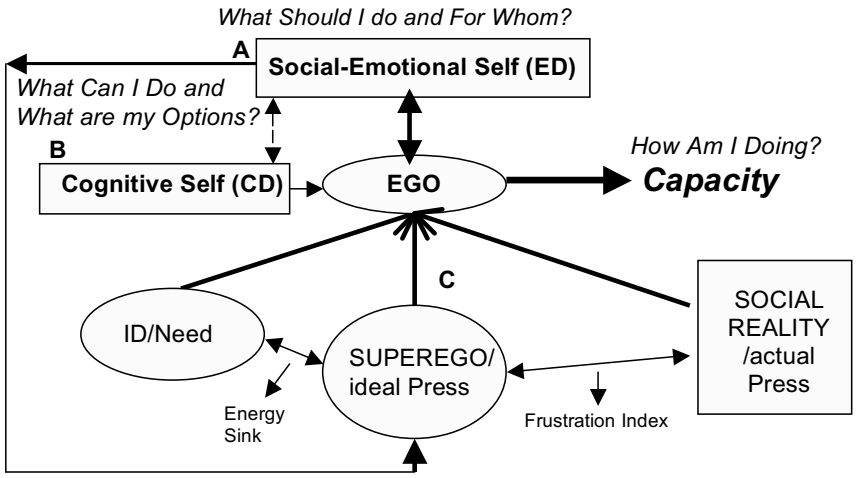
The tripartite nature of CDF assessments

As indicated, CDF addresses three components of human behaviour. Fig. 1, below, shows how they relate to each other.

Ego is in charge of behaviour. It is itself in unceasing transformation based on its roots in the social-emotional and cognitive self. There is no way one could separate the three components from each other in actual life and work except conceptually.

Following H. Murray's psychoanalytic research (1938, 1948), the Ego is defined by its psychogenic needs and the pressures that stand against their fulfilment. Two kinds of pressures exist:

Figure 1: Inter-relationship between CDF components.



- The individual's *aspirations* deriving from the Superego (which may contradict the needs) – ideal press.
- The individual's *experiences* of social reality – 'actual press'.

The task of the Ego is to establish a *modus vivendi* between the Need and Press dimensions of an individual. Most likely, gaps will exist in the individual's makeup, not only between needs and aspirations, but also between the two kinds of press (aspirations and social experiences). The first gap [between needs and aspirations] saps energy away from actual work, and, therefore, is referred to as *energy sink*. The second gap [between ideal and actual press] causes frustration, and is measured by a frustration index (Aderman et al., 1967, Aderman, 1969). These two indexes determine the individual's *psychological balance* at work, that is, the degree to which an individual can actually make optimal use of his or her competences and knowledge, in contrast to just 'having' them.

Since, as shown, Ego is a satellite of the individual's social-emotional and cognitive self (which are themselves constitutive of each other), the way Ego resolves conflict within itself, its needs, and its needs vs. presses, is dependent upon the level of an individual's social-emotional and cognitive development. If a client is found to have a time management problem, this behavioural symptom has different meanings on different social-emotional levels and in different phases of cognitive development. Interventions also need to be different. We can speak of a *pre-adult legacy* adults carry around with them which, depending on their developmental potential, may be more or less of an obstacle in their life and work. No cognitive-behavioural coaching can talk adults out of that legacy.

More specifically, psychological balance in the workplace is considered optimal in CDF if an individual's NP profile, measured by a Likert scale from 0 to 9, shows no extreme (dysfunctional) needs and consequently a low *Energy Sink* and *Frustration Index*. In scoring the NP questionnaire, this situation is indicated by a high *Effectiveness Index*.

Since in CDF, an individual's need/press profile is interpreted in terms of developmental findings, those consulting to an individual's mental process can give precise

answers regarding strength and challenges of the individual's present performance. As developmental thinkers, they can also explain why present performance is what it is, no more and no less, and what the psychological cost to the individual is being stationed at a particular work place.

CDF articulates a theory of work

The cogency of CDF for scrutinizing an individual's work capability lies in the fact that CDF assessments are based on a theory of work introduced by Elliott Jaques since 1955. In his life-long research on the cognitive-developmental foundations of organizations, Jaques made two important distinctions central to CDF, those between:

- *applied and potential capability;*
- *work capacity and work capability.*

The first distinction essentially distinguishes *performance* (applied capability) from *developmental potential* (potential capability), whether current or emergent. The second distinction reinforces the difference between behavioural and developmental aspects of work, referred to as *work capacity* (measured through NP) and *work capability* (measured through CD and ED), respectively.

The gist of these distinctions is simple: an individual cannot be reduced to his or her performance since this performance is ultimately grounded in the individual's potential capability (which is developmental). Losing sight of an individual's developmental potential – especially in coaching – ultimately reduces the effectiveness of coaching or other interventions. Another aspect of these distinctions is methodological. One can take a snapshot of behaviour, observing it *in time*, but only looking at behaviour *across-time*, or developmentally, can give a true measure of it for purposes of intervention.

Jaques assigned very clear definitions to both distinctions, above, which are shown in Figure 2. (The functional notation used serves to make Jaques's definitions more compact). First, he defined work as the *exercise of reflective judgment and discretion in the pursuit of goals within a certain time period.* This is a cognitive definition of work which makes levels of work capability commensurate with levels of accountability for work. Second, Jaques showed that there is a difference between what an individual *has* and *is*. The individual is not his or her performance. Rather, the individual is defined by his or her potential capability. While one can always suspend – or decide not to use – what one has, or one's applied capability, one can never suspend or disown what one is, or one's potential capability. (Clearly, this runs counter to behavioural coaching.)

Figure 2, below, should be read with these clarifications in mind.

As shown, levels of cognitive development (CD) are central for gauging as well as assisting an individual's work capability, as done in coaching. This is because cognitive development determines the mental space in which an individual's work happens.

According to Figure 2, applied capability (performance) represents the mere surface of an individual's work capability. In functional terms, it is defined by the intersection of four aspects:

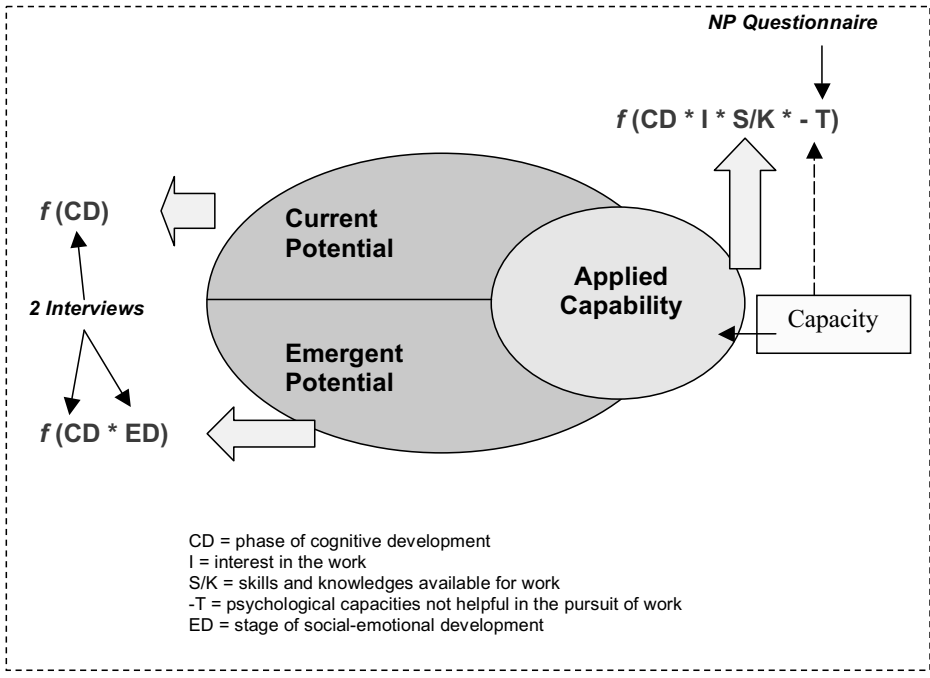
- level of cognitive development [CD];
- 'interest in the work' (motivation) [I];
- skills and knowledge [S/K];
- absence of clinical symptoms (–T; negative aspects of 'temperament).

Behavioural coaching is only concerned with applied capability. It works with mere snapshots of behaviour, and thus misses out on acknowledging, measuring, and boosting potential capability which is developmental.

What, then, is potential capability, and what is required to address it in coaching?

> As Jaques puts it (1994, p.21):
>
> There exists substantial confusion on the subject of individual working capability, because of the common failure to separate out three main categories of human capability: current *applied* capability, current *potential capability*, and future *potential capability* … The difference between applied and potential capability [lies in that the latter is] an innate property of *the person as a whole*,

Figure 2: Three aspects of work capability.



whereas a person's values and skilled knowledge are entities that have their own existence in their own right independently of any particular person, and which a person can acquire or shed.

An additional aspect should be considered (Jaques, 1994, pp.21-22):

> Applied capability will always be lower than potential capability, partly because our values and skilled knowledge are not often just in line with the roles we have the opportunity to occupy at any given time,and partly because the work as assigned by the manager into the role may not provide the opportunity to apply our full potential.

Following Jaques's definition of work and work capability, CDF defines the two aspects of potential capability – current and future [emergent] – as shown in Figure 2:

1. Current potential capability regards what a person *could presently do* if s(he) had achieved the level of cognitive development required for doing the work in question. For this reason, Jaques defines current potential capability by level of cognitive development alone (CPC=CD).
2. Emergent potential capability regards what a person *will be able to do at a particular point in the future*. However, this should not be mistaken to mean that potential capability itself lies 'in the future.' Rather, both current potential and applied capability are manifestations of emergent potential capability. For this reason, CDF defines emergent potential as the functional intersection of both cognitive (CD) and social-emotional development (ED), as shown above.

The second point is of particular relevance for work with CDF. As Jaques says (1998, pp.22–23):

> *Current* potential capability, i.e. the highest level of work a person could currently carry, in work that he or she

valued and for which he or she had the necessary skilled knowledge and experience, is a function of complexity of mental process (CMP) *alone*'.

Future potential is the potential capability a person will possess at various times in the future as a result of the maturation of his or her level of complexity of mental processing (potential). There is a fundamental difference between a person's potential capability on the one hand, and values (interest/commitment) and skilled knowledge on the other.

Thus, if we can measure both cognitive (CD) and social-emotional development (ED), we can define a person's *emergent capability*. This aspect of capability, while still emerging, is the root of a client's present applied and current potential capability.

Emergent potential is dependent on the relationship that exists between a client's cognitive and social-emotional development. This relationship is a vital topic in CDF. In most cases, the finding is that the two aspects of adult development are not aligned in a client but show a gap in either direction. Either cognitive development surpasses social-emotional development or vice versa. In my experience with CDF, this is a major cause of issues arising in coaching. This issue is exacerbated if the client's work environment is not requisitely organized, the client having been assigned to a level of work complexity s(he) cannot truly do justice to.

In light of Figure 2, one can usefully distinguish five (non-exclusive) types of coaching:

1. coaching for capacity (psychological balance).
2. coaching for applied capability (performance).
3. coaching for current potential (cognitive level).
4. coaching for emergent potential (cognitive and social-emotional levels).
5. behavioural-developmental coaching comprising all of these aspects.

The first two types of coaching are behavioural, the remaining three are developmental to different degrees. The fifth type, in particular, is a complete merger of behavioural and developmental coaching, as advocated in this article.

In the same perspective, typical coaching issues may be classified as follows.

A client may present with:

1. a lack of psychological balance (capacity) either because s(he) labours under large *energy sinks* (gaps between subconscious needs and professional aspirations) or under a large frustration index (gaps between professional aspirations and experience of organizational culture);
2. a gap between his or her level of cognitive and social-emotional development;
3. [as a consequence of nos. 1 and 2] a low *effectiveness index* depressing level of performance;
4. a social-emotional *arrest* at a particular level of meaning making;
5. a cognitive *arrest* in a particular phase of cognitive development (sense making);
6. a social-emotional *delay* in developing self-authoring capability;
7. a cognitive *delay* in developing the ability of systemic, dialectical thinking.

With CDF, all of these eventualities can be diagnosed, and interventions for dealing with them can be designed.

Jaques's distinctions between aspects of work capability ought to concern not only organizational coaches. Since 'work', following Jaques, is <u>any</u> exercise of judgment and discretion, even in 'private' life, his distinctions equally apply to life and business coaching. The only difference between 'life' and 'work' coaching is that much of the former regards the *inner work* an individual has to do to become a human being, while organizational work primarily regards the outer manifestations of work. However, as every leadership development coach knows, in organizations, too, it is often the inner work that is primarily required, not the enhancement of level of performance.

Intermediate summary

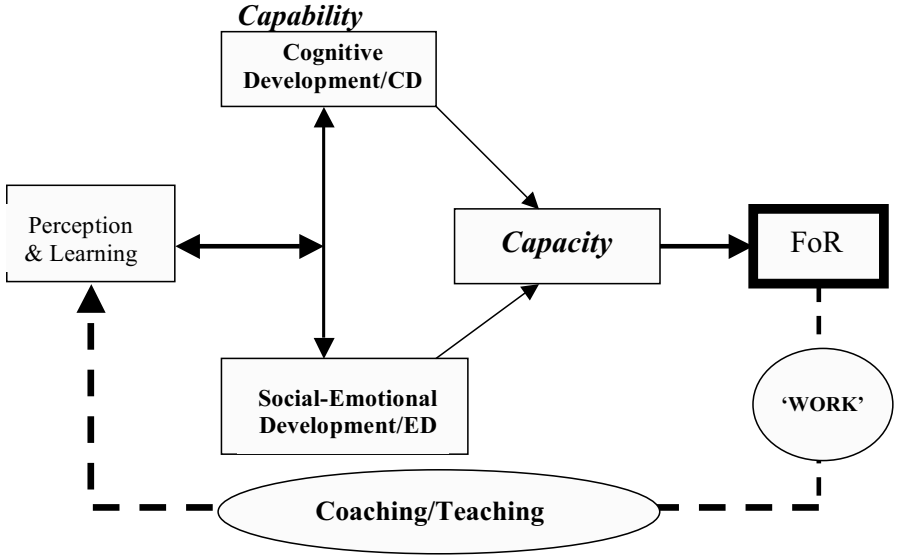
So far, I have outlined how the dimensions taken into account by CDF cohere in terms of Jaques's theory of work and work capability. There is a complementary view one can take, in which CDF is a tool for assessing a client's present *Frame of Reference* (FoR). The FoR conceptualization of CDF emphasizes that human behaviour is an epiphenomenon since it derives from an underlying developmental structure.

This is diagrammed in Figure 3, below.

The embedding of the feedback loop between Frame of Reference and 'Perception and Learning' in the figure is intentional. What is meant is that:

1. Work is based on Frame of Reference, the way the individual constructs her world cognitively and social-emotionally, – thus only *indirectly* on her competences and psychological balance (capacity).
2. Perception and learning cannot be equated with adult development but are rather determined by the latter.
3. Learning, as distinct from adult development, is open to coaching and teaching interventions to the extent that there exists a *developmental potential* that interventions can tap.
4. Learning and change of behaviour may or may not translate into an adult developmental shift; they may equally simply reinforce a present developmental state (including arrest and delay).
5. Work capacity acts as a *filter* that determines how far current potential can be known and emergent potential recognized by the individual.
6. Lack of psychological balance (capacity) may hinder potential from taking full effect, not only currently, but into the future (as far as emergent potential is concerned).

Figure 3: Origins of a person's Frame of Reference.



- FoR = Frame of Reference (World View)
- Capacity = An individual's psychological profile (NP)
- Capability = An individual's developmental resources (CD & ED).

7. The identification of an individual's psychological profile with her developmental profile amounts to a reduction of developmental teleology to behavioural dynamics, something CDF is designed to avoid by clearly separating the two.

Pedagogical consequences

At the Interdevelopmental Institute (IDM), the conceptual framework defining CDF is not only used in process consultation, but also grounds instruction in developmental coaching. Teaching CDF is meant to foster a more reflective practice than strictly behavioural training in most cases allows for. Learning to master the assessment of three aspects of human capability becomes the crux of instruction and certification. Such learning requires 10 to 12 months of study. Certification is based on submitting an individual case study in which all three perspectives – the cognitive, social-emotional, and psychological one – are synthesized for the purpose of formulating feedback and designing a coaching plan for a specific individual based on feedback from the Director of Education.

In my experience, practicing CDF after completing a single case study does not stand on very solid ground. For this reason, *Programme 2* requires three additional case studies by which *Programme 1* knowledge can be deepened. *Programme 3* serves the purpose of completing a thesis in the area of coaching research using the CDF methodology.

Section II: Dimensions of the CDF Instrument

Any theoretical model is only as good as its implementation. Ample theory seeds ample practice. In practical terms, CDF comprises two semi-structured interviews, one cognitive and one social-emotional, plus a clinical-behavioural questionnaire gauging a client's psychological balance at work.

The crucial link between these tools is the user who not only administers the interviews and questionnaire, but is responsible for interpreting CDF findings expertly and ethically, according to standards of interrater reliability. The coach/consultant is using him- or herself as the instrument of qualitative research. He or she needs to needs to master the art of separating interview *content* from *structure* (social-emotional stage and dialectical thought form, respectively). The extent to which a consultant is up to this task depends on his or her own developmental level which, far beyond mere skills, shapes his or her ability to act as an effective instrument of developmental research.

From the client's point of view, engaging with CDF involves signing an agreement of confidentiality and engaging with two one-hour long developmental interviews and a 45-minute process of answering a questionnaire. In addition to these three hours, a fourth hour is required for feedback after which coaching proper can begin. In the assessment sequence, the cognitive interview comes first. This is meant to guarantee a neutral starting point as a basis for more intimate conversations as they typically arise in the social-emotional interview.

The difference between the two developmental interviews for the client is one of content, while for the coach it is one of methodology. Each interview requires a peculiar kind of listening. The cognitive interview requires a listening for dialectical thought forms, while the social-emotional interview requires a listening for the client's internal meaning making generator. In expert uses of CDF, and in coaching benefiting from education in CDF, these two modes of listening merge.

The first kind of listening focuses on the presence and absence of dialectical thought forms in specific text passages [see below], while the latter focuses on detecting from what developmental stage the client is speaking from. (As pointed out above, the classical case is two different levels around a centre of gravity, captured by an RCP.)

Three strands of cognitive development

The cognitive interview is a tool for placing a client into one of four orders of mental

complexity (Jaques, 1998, p.23, p.69), with emphasis on the transition from the second to the third one: *Common Sense, Understanding, Reason*, and *Practical Wisdom*.

These orders differ in attained level of systemic thinking, more precisely the degree to which purely logical thinking has become a tool for obtaining a holistic and balanced view of reality, referred to as *dialectical thinking*. Dialectical thinking is a discovery procedure adults use to think 'outside the box' of closed systems, thereby transcending formal logic (see Figure 4, below).

In the perspective of adult development, the last three of these orders emerge in the following way, grounded in a person's development of reflective judgment. Cognitive development comprises the gradual unfolding of three related dimensions of consciousness: *epistemic*, *logical*, and *dialectical*. The progression to higher epistemic positions increasingly strengthens awareness of the limits of knowing and the uncertainty of truth (King & Kitchener, 1994). This progression, in turn, underlies the growth of logical and dialectical thinking. It is linked to social-emotional development, in a way not yet completely understood.

Once logical thinking (second order) begins to develop from about age 10 onward, Common Sense is increasingly overtaken by logical thinking (Understanding) which, according to studies of Piaget and others, fully matures in early adulthood (about age 25). In this way, human beings move from the first to the second Order of Mental Complexity and beyond (see Table 1).

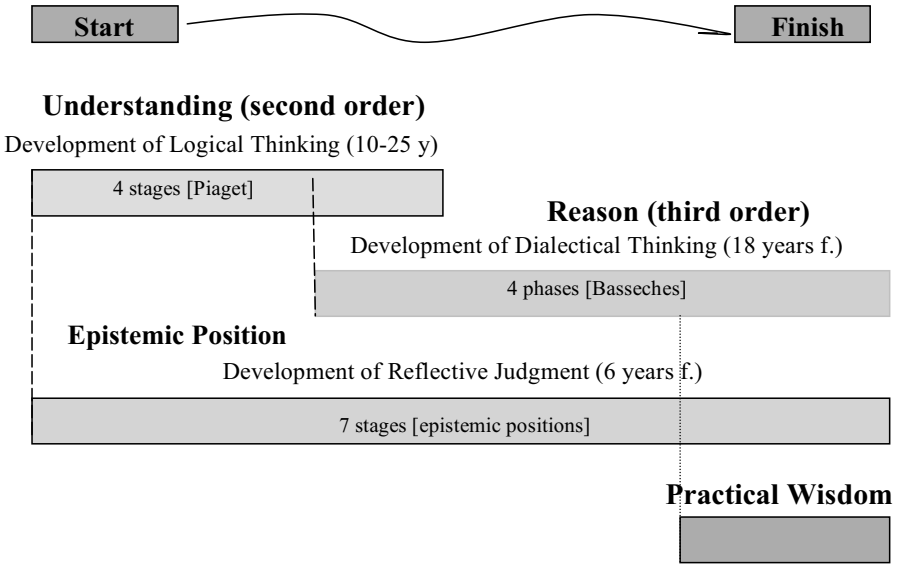
Importantly, in late adolescence (18 years f.) an individual's cognitive development undergoes momentous change (see Figure 4, below). We are witnessing an increasing overlap between the spurt toward fully mature *formal logical* thinking and the beginning of *dialectical* thinking (Commons et al., 1990; Kohlberg, 1990). This overlap accounts for the revolutionary changes of mind and their attendant mental confusion during this period of life.

One can think of the transition from formal logical to dialectical thinking as an *expansion of the conceptual field*, thus of the mental space in which 'thinking' and 'work' occur. This expansion manifests itself not only in the use of more highly abstract concepts, but expanded foresight (time horizon) as well as the use of thought patterns called *thought forms*.

Table 1: Four Orders of Mental Complexity.

Orders of Mental Complexity		Era of Cognitive Development	Focal Elements
Fourth Order	Universal order	*Practical Wisdom*	General principles and universals (Phronesis)
Third Order	Conceptual abstract order	*Reason*	Conceptual abstractions (systemic dialectical thinking)
Second Order	Symbolic verbal order	*Understanding*	Collections of intangible entities (formal logical thinking)
First Order	Pre-verbal and concrete verbal orders	*Common Sense*	Here-and-now tangible entities

Figure 4: Four dimensions of cognitive development.



Increasing Patterning of Thought

In focus during the cognitive interview is the strength and ampleness of dialectical thinking as required for solving ill-structured problems. The unfolding of dialectical thinking from early to late adulthood is best understood in terms of an increasing co-ordination of the *Four Quadrants of Dialectic*.

Each quadrant focuses on a particular aspect of things real. As seen, the four quadrants together form a system, in the sense that they presuppose each other. In human thinking, the quadrants are represented as *four classes of thought forms* each of which points to different aspects of what is constructed by the mind as 'real'. In early adult development, the quadrants and their corresponding thought forms are not solidly assembled in the mind. Therefore, the four aspects of dialectic can not yet be co-ordinated with each other as is required for thinking of what is real as a *transformational system* (e.g. a beehive, the human body).

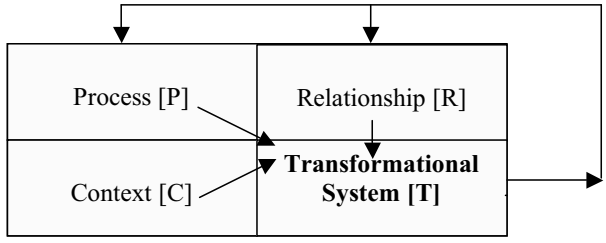
Just as each of the four quadrants are directed to a different aspect of what is constructed as 'real' by the mind, so are the classes of thought forms:

- *Process* thought forms point to emergence from the void and unceasing change as defining aspects of reality.
- *Context* thought forms focus attention on a 'bigger picture' or context of a base concept, and are used to grasp the nature of organized wholes.
- *Relationship* thought forms point to what different persons, events, situations, etc. share as their common ground, thus making them related to each other.
- *Transformational* thought forms are meta-systemic. They point to the co-ordination of systems, the relevance of developmental potential for living systems, and the synthesis of multiple dimensions in viewing the world.

An interview passage that would be scored in terms of thought form no. 2 of class Process might read (Laske, 2008):

> We are suffering from the problem that the previous solution has become the present problem. We thought we had found a solution to hiring staff of the highest quality, using stringent selection. But then it turned out that the entire reward system had to be revamped,

Figure 5: The Four Quadrants of Dialectic.



because the people we hired scoffed at the ranking they received in terms of compensation. So, we had to commit ourselves to new salary levels, because otherwise we would have lost a good deal of the people we hired. This is why we are now reconsidering to hire less qualified people in some positions, not to get into that kind of quandary. And so the cycle goes on, since who knows what kind of issues the job market will confront us with in the future.

Comment

The speaker directly goes to the gist of dialectical transformation by saying that 'the previous solution has become the present problem.' This does not only mean that the previous solution did not work, it implies something about solutions generally: that they tend to stop being solutions and pose a problem not initially foreseen. By putting it this way, the speaker implicitly endorses thought form no. 1 (unceasing change).

Continuing on, the speaker describes the solution adopted in more detail. The solution had an unforeseen consequence, in that "the entire reward system had to be revamped." This is the antithesis of the solution. The way the speaker describes the antithesis, it needs to be embraced to contain employee discontent, and this leads to a somewhat unwanted synthesis where his company has to commit itself to new salary levels. This cycle may continue.

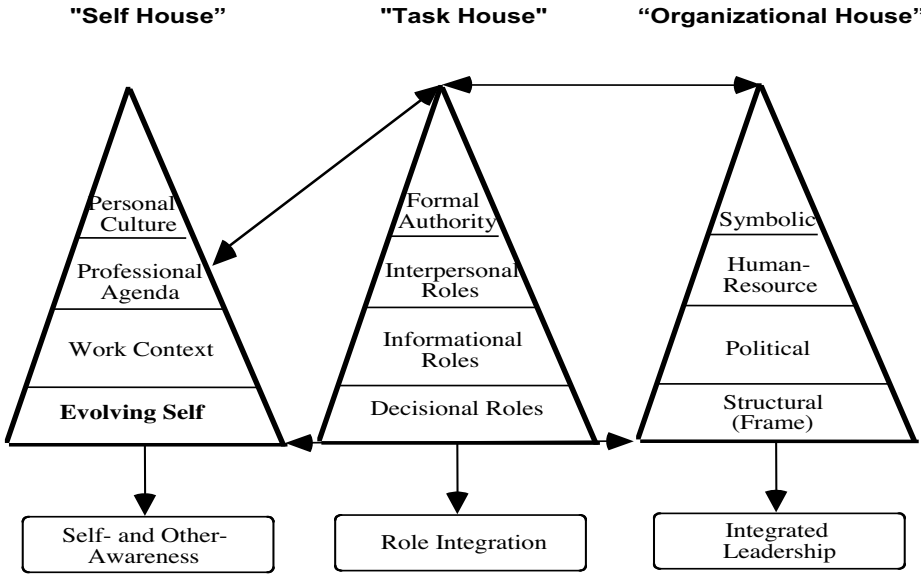
Of the four classes of thought forms, Process and Relationship provide the ground for *critical* thinking, while Context and Relationship are the basis of constructive thinking. When evaluating cognitive interviews, emphasis falls on the balance or imbalance of the four classes of thought forms in a client's thinking, the client's ability to draw all thought form classes together for the sake of systemic thinking, and the discrepancy of critical and constructive thinking in the client. Through these measures, the client's phase of cognitive development – or order of mental complexity – is determined. *The notion is that the more imbalanced the use of the four thought form classes, the less systemic is the client's thinking at work, and, therefore, her actions.*

The interviewer uses her own dialectical thinking (as far as developed) to probe for the occurrence of thought forms, at times using them as mind openers to challenge the client's thinking. This is a technique also used in cognitive coaching to broaden the client's conceptual field.

The Three Houses Structure the Cognitive Interview

Since the purpose of cognitive interviewing is to give clients feedback on their thinking, it is important to provide for them opportunities for talking about what they best: their own work. Therefore, In terms of content, the interview moves through three mental spaces, called *Houses*. Typically, a cognitive interviewer spends about 15 to 18 minutes in each of the Houses shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: The Three Houses of the Cognitive Interview.



Individually, the Houses are referred to as *Self House*, *Task House*, and *Organizational House*, respectively. Their structure derives from different, but related, theories – the first from Haber's theory of supervision (1996), the second from Mintzberg's theory of organisational structure (1989), and the third from Bolman and Deal's systemic view of organizations (1991).

In the context of the Houses, the interviewer functions as a *neutral observer of the client's 'movements-in-thought' in and between the Houses* (Laske, 1999b). Each of the 'floors' of the Houses provides the interviewer with pertinent questions based on which the client's ability to use dialectical thought forms can be gauged. Typically, the interviewer starts in the emotionally neutral Task House – where functions, roles, and tasks are topical – and proceeds to the Organizational House where four different, inter-related, *mental frames* through which to view organizations, are in focus (Bolman & Deal, 1991). The interview concludes in the Self House where the client's professional agenda, work context, and personal values are central. There is no privileged alignment between the Houses and the four classes of thought forms.

In the interview, a distinction is made between two kinds of questions:

- Guide questions for each House.
- Probe questions for 'digging deeper' into the client's thinking within each House.

The three guide questions are:

1. What is your present function and authority in the organization, and what roles and tasks follow from these?
2. How would you describe the way in which your work is embedded in the larger organization?
3. What would you say is your own professional agenda, and what motivation let's you do this work?

The 'floors' of the Houses (Figure 6) are primarily of interest to the interviewer who uses them to generate *probe questions* as a function of the flow of the ongoing conversation. Here, as in the social-emotional interview, staying close to the client's *train of thought* is crucially important. Once interviews have been recorded and transcribed,

they are evaluated based on the *Dialectical Thought Form Framework* (DTF, Laske in press) initially developed by Basseches (1984) and put into the form of a scoring manual by Bopp (1981).

In accordance with the four quadrants of dialectic, thought forms of each class occurring in client speech are weighted in terms of degree of explicitness, from 'weak' (1) to 'strong' (3), as well as frequency of occurrence. Weightings are summarized at the end of the scoring process, and expressed in terms of percentages of the optimum attainable dialectical fluidity. (Optimum fluidity is defined as using 28 thought forms at level 3 of explicitness, thus 28x3=84=100 per cent).

A cognitive score example, viewed from an organizational perspective

The cognitive score below indicates that the client has made use of dialectical thought forms of Process (P), Context (C), Relationship (R) and Transformational System (T) to different degrees. Optimal use of all thought forms leads to a T-score (Systems Thinking Index of 100 per cent). Here, the client's coordination of thought forms in the four quadrants of dialectic is uneven. Correspondingly, her *Systems Thinking Index* (T) is only 25 per cent.

[P=10, C=33, R=38; T=25 (%)].

The meaning of this outcome for designing a coaching plan needs further illumination.

Essentially, the score places the client on a particular level of cognitive development and the associated level of work complexity and accountability commensurate with the score. The client works from a System Thinking Index of 25 per cent of the optimum associated with a strong imbalance of the four quadrants and especially weak insight into the Process aspect of social reality.

Accordingly, as shown in Table 2 below (Basseches, 1984, 1989a-b; Jaques, 1998, 136; Laske, 1999, 2008), this client is presently positioned in the Second Order of Complexity (row 5) associated with the fifth epistemic position, and can do work on Stratum IV as long as his social-emotional score is at least S-4/3. Any coaching with the client ought to take the client's limit of dealing with cognitive complexity of work into account, independently of the hearsay about the client and his own utterances about himself. The imbalance shown by the cognitive score indicates a need for cognitive coaching.

In the table, levels of work complexity (Strata) are associated with different levels of cognitive and social-emotional development. The higher the level, the higher is the role accountability one can entrust to a particular individual. The more perfectly an individual's cognitive and social-emotional scores are aligned, the more 'requisite' is the organization of the individual's workplace (Jaques, 1998).

Should the client presently work on Stratum III [Unit Manager] rather than IV [General Manager], his talents are being wasted. Should he presently work at Stratum V [VP], his cognitive capability and foresight are being overtaxed. In the present case, the client can be helped by cognitive coaching to facilitate better thinking.

The Social-Emotional Interview

Having given an example of how clients may answer the question 'What can I do?', below I explore an example of his/her answer to the question 'What should I do?' The social-emotional interview is a procedure for exploring answers to the question based on clients' present Centre of Gravity, by eliciting evidence about their 'feeling and thinking generator' (Lahey et al., 1988). As in the cognitive interview, this is done by scrutinizing speech. Thirty years of research have shown that this generator is subject to discontinuous change over the human lifespan, producing shadings of thought and feeling that can be precisely assessed by scoring semi-structured social-emotional interviews.

Table 2: Alignment of levels of work complexity (Strata) with levels of cognitive and social-emotional development

Systems Thinking Index (CD)	Associated Epistemic Position	Order of Mental Complexity	Strata* [Levels of Work Complexity and Associated Responsibility]	Social-Emotional Stage (ED)
> 60	7	3	VIII	5
> 50 <= 60	7	3	VII	5/4 – 5(4)
> 40 <= 50	6	3	VI	4(5) – 4/5
> 30 <= 40	6	3	V	4
> 20 <= 30	5	2	IV	4/3 – 4(3)
> 10 <= 20	5	2	III	3(4) – 3/4
<= 10	4	2	II	3
< 10	4	2	I	2/3 – 3(2)

* Typical organizational job titles are, from top to bottom: Board Member, CEO, EVP, VP, General Manager, Unit Manager, First Line Manager, Operator/Staff.

Importantly, nobody makes meaning from a single stage. Individuals are typically distributed over several stages in various proportions, three of them in the orthodox case. We all live at a central stage or *Centre of Gravity*. This stage is associated with more or less pronounced ways of meaning making at lower and higher stages. *The lower stage(s) signal(s) developmental risk (of regression), the higher ones, developmental potential.*

Interview procedure

One cannot interview social-emotionally until one has internalized the hierarchy of about 15 stages that characterize adults. The shadings between four main stages, S-2 to S-5, must be crystal-clear as to their intermediate levels. The listening required is intense as in cognitive interviews. We are dealing with a projective test in which the interviewee *projects herself* into one of 10 verbal prompts, shown in Table 3.

All prompts are asking the interviewee to visit his or her memory store and use free association, speaking freely about *what comes to mind* when s(he) remembers a certain life or professional situation. Prompts are selected exclusively by the interviewee who at any time can refuse to elaborate and choose another prompt. In most cases, no more than four or five prompts are used in an expertly guided interview. The prompts not only structure the overall course of the interview but the interviewer's finer probing as well. Based on the prompts, the interviewer tests his or her hypothesis as to the level of the client's present stage of meaning making. In this way, the interviewer is able to 'stand in the client's shoes'.

Interview Evaluation

The interview is recorded and transcribed for evaluation. The focus of scoring it is threefold:

1. The client's present *Centre of Gravity* ('main stage').
2. The *range of stages* the client is distributed over.
3. The *proportion of developmental risk and potential*, indicated by the client's meaning making at stages lower and higher than the Centre of Gravity.

Table 3: Interview prompts in the social-emotional interview (adapted from Lahey et al., 1988, 428).

Success:	Can you think of a time in your recent work where you felt somewhat jubilant, feeling you had achieved something that was difficult for you, or that you had overcome something?
Changed:	If you think of how you have changed over the last year or two, or even months, regarding how you conduct your life, what comes to mind?
Control:	Can you think of a moment where you became highly aware that you were losing control, or felt the opportunity of seizing control, what occurs to you?
Limits:	If you think of where you are aware of limits, either in your life and/or work, something you wish you could do but feel excluded from, what comes up for you?
Outside of:	As you look around in the workplace or the family, where do you see yourself as not fitting in, being an outsider, and how does that make you feel?
Frustration:	If you think of a time where you were in a situation not of your choosing, where you felt totally frustrated, but unable to do something about it, what emerges?
Important to me:	If I were to ask you 'what do you care about most deeply,' 'what matters most,' are there one or two things that come to mind?
Sharing:	If you think about your need of sharing your thoughts and feelings with others, either at work or at home, how, would you say, that plays out?
Strong stand/ conviction:	If you were to think of times where you had to take a stand, and be true to your convictions, what comes to mind?
Taking risks:	When thinking of recent situations where you felt you were taking, or had to take, risks, either to accomplish or fend off something, what comes to mind?

Transition from one main stage to the next is indicated in terms of intermediate levels (Kegan, 1982) notated as x(y), x/y, y/x, and y(x). Figure 7 shows the steps for the case that x=3 and y =4.

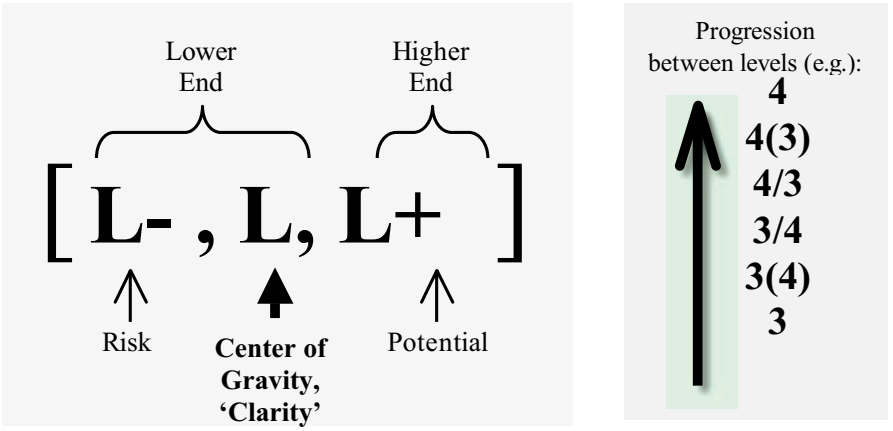
A first shy step [3(4)] away from stage 3 leads into a zone of conflict because two developmental structures – L-3 and L-4 – simultaneously determine meaning making. In 3/4, conflicts are resolved toward the lower stage (3), while in 4/3 they are resolved toward the higher stage. The real break-through to stage 4 happens at 4/3. The next step leads to an espousal stage [4(3)] where the individual 'espouses' the higher level without having reached it. Only then the final move to stage 4 happens where pretensions of self authoring become unnecessary.

Typically, an interviewee is distributed over three adjacent stages, here indicated as L, L-1 or -2, and L+1 or +2. By selecting appropriate, i.e., structurally relevant, interview passages these oscillations around a centre can be precisely assessed, and a sum of instantiations of each stage occupied can be computed (Lahey et al., 1988; Laske, 1999a, 2006). The result is a stage score associated with a *Risk-Clarity-Potential Index* (RCP) that captures not only the Centre of Gravity but the oscillations around it in terms of numerical proportions.

For example, the social-emotional score **L-4(3) {R=4 C=7 P=2}** shows a client distributed over 3 stages, in different proportions:

- Four interview passages at the lower stage, L-4/3, indicating developmental risk.

Figure 7: The Risk-Clarity-Potential Index (RCP).



- Seven interview passages at the Centre of Gravity, L-4(3).
- Two interview passages at the higher stage, L-4, indicating developmental potential.

In this example, 13 (4+7+2) interview passages have been scored as structurally relevant. Since the client is operating from a lower stage (L-4/3) twice as often as from a higher stage (L-4), one says that the client's developmental Potential is smaller than her present developmental Risk (P<R).

The score just discussed compactly describes the interviewee as follows:

> The client's present meaning making is focused around the espousal of being a self-authoring person, which is both a pretence and a way for the client 'to talk herself into' being the author of her life. As her RCP shows, she is rather strongly ensconced in her present centre of gravity {7}. Given that her developmental profile is more highly weighted toward risk than potential {4>2}, coaching should be focused on diminishing her developmental risk rather than boosting her potential (which is likely to get realized once risk diminishes, at least in the case of a sufficiently commensurate cognitive score.).

In the sense of Table 2, above:

Systems Thinking Index (CD)	Associated Epistemic Position	Order of Mental Complexity	Strata* [Levels of Work Complexity and Associated Responsibility]	Social-Emotional Stage (ED)
> 20 <= 30	5	2	IV	4/3 – 4(3)

a commensurate cognitive score for this client is a Systems Thinking Index between 20 and 30. Discussing a mentoring example will further clarify what was said about cognitive and social-emotional assessment above.

Section III: Mentoring Behavioural Coaches using CDF

There are two main uses of CDF outside of instruction and capability management consultation, namely, *mentoring* and *coaching*. *Mentoring* entails teaching behavioural coaches to think developmentally in a hands-on fashion, outside of classes of instruction. *Coaching* entails using assessments to support clients' self positioning, and occurs in three steps:

- Making a behavioural-developmental assessment.
- Giving feedback in preparation of a coaching plan.
- Engaging in coaching proper (which therefore is evidence-based).

Below, I discuss a mentoring experience involving a behavioural coach as client and a developmental coach (myself). The mentoring relies not only on developmental assessment, but also makes use of findings from the behavioural Need-Press Questionnaire, introduced below.

A Mentoring Example

Presenting Problem:
Sarah is a business coach with a thriving practice in which she focuses on higher-level executives of the banking industry. She has a strong background in Organizational Development as well as strong spiritual interests. Sarah asked to be mentored in order to become more effective with two particularly 'difficult' clients. One of them had conveyed to her that he felt she was, at times, 'pretty opinionated,' while Sarah perceived herself only as having strong personal convictions. The second client commented about her to peers that because of her idiosyncratic interpretations of what he brought to sessions he often did not feel 'understood' by her. Since Sarah has high opinions of her coaching expertise, and high standards of professional excellence, she was scandalized and shaken by her clients' reactions. She wondered whether there was something about herself that she did not entirely understand, some bottlenecks that it would be important for her to find out about.

Sarah wanted to be mentored by a developmental coach, beginning with her own assessment and proceeding to obtaining an assessment of one of her clients so that she could learn to give developmental feedback. I first assessed Sarah and then, after feedback to her, her client. In a shared session, we gave feedback to the client. Sarah felt that her own assessment experience had paved the way for her being able to better stand in her clients' shoes, even though she had not yet undergone IDM training. Here, I restrict myself to findings about Sarah herself. In order to simplify the discussion, I restrict it to the Need (Id) aspect of Sarah's questionnaire.

The Need-Press Questionnaire

While the two developmental interviews discussed above lay bare a client's potential capability, her applied capability (performance) is still shrouded in darkness. The missing information is exactly what M. Aderman's Need/Press Questionnaire (1967) provides.

Culled from Murray's research (1938, 1948) by M. Aderman (1967, 1969), the questionnaire informs about a client's psychological balance in the workplace. As shown in Figure 1, above, the balance is specified in terms of three clusters of variables:

- Need (Id);
- Ideal Press (Super-Ego aspirations);
- Actual Press (social world/organizational pressures).

Gaps between the first two are *energy sinks*, gaps between the second and third cause *frustration*. Below, I discuss the example of a business coach called Sarah.

Need/Press values derive from a Likert-scale from 0 to 9 for altogether 18 variables. The variables are grouped in three groups of six, articulating three interrelated clusters:

- self conduct;
- approach to tasks;
- interpersonal perspective (emotional intelligence).

Table 4 below shows Sarah's Need-profile whose numerical findings have been verbalized. Nine of her 18 Need variables have been singled out since they show extreme values.

Short analysis of Sarah's profile

A developmental coach looks at these findings as *behavioural symptoms* requiring developmental explanation on one hand, and a developmentally sourced intervention, on the other. What do these findings mean *for a person with Sarah's developmental profile?* In the Need/Press domain as well as the developmental one, balance is of the essence. Wherever extreme needs appear as in Sarah's profile, they jeopardize her behavioural balance.

It is evident in Sarah's case that her need to self-protect (no. 6) and her limited understanding of her own motivation and impact on others (no. 7) will make many of her challenges invisible to her. Seeing her challenges with clarity is not helped either by her blurring of leadership skills and ego-needs (no. 2), and her need to win every battle and avoid negatives experiences (no. 3). All of these challenges are easily buried underneath an exaggerated need to help others which, in psycho-genic terms, is essentially a loud cry for help. Because Sarah models her clients according to her own developmental level (as all coaches by necessity do), she, the ruthless change agent (no. 1), has as little empathy for them as she has for herself. She therefore often comes across as aloof and undemonstrative, with a tendency to question others' motive much like her own (no. 9).

Table 4: Sarah's psychogenic needs at work.

NP Variables	Behavioural Imbalances (Needs)
Self Conduct	
1. Flexibility	Ruthless change agent
2. Need for power	Blurring of leadership skills and ego-needs
Task Approach	
3. Resourcefulness*	Need to win every battle; avoids negative experiences, impulsivity
4. Endurance	Weak engagement with tasks not of her own making
5. Quality of Planning	Poor use of cognitive skills, priorities emerging from own interests
6. Need to self–protect	Strong need to justify, be right, rationalize
Emotional intelligence	
7. Empathy	Limited ability to empathize; limited understanding of own motivation and impact on others
8. Helpfulness	Exaggerated need to 'help' (a hidden cry for help)
9. Bias	Highly discriminative as to whom to relate to; questioning others' motives.

* Literally 'counter-action', or need to counter-act experienced pressures.

The above sketch of Sarah's (partial) applied-capability profile can best be understood and acted upon *professionally* if her developmental profile is equally taken into account. This profile defines who she 'is', her potential capability, not just what she 'has', a certain work capacity.

Sarah's challenges explained developmentally

Sarah's findings are all the more salient as she is a coach herself and in the business of assisting others. As seen in Table 5, below, her coaching work plays out in a social-emotional constellation laden with developmental risk and a cognitive profile characterized by a low Systems Thinking Index (STI=11 per cent). Her present ability to act as the author of her life (L-4) is compromised by great risk of regression to lower levels {9} and considerable espousal {4}.

When we rewrite her stage score to the stage below her present Centre of Gravity, namely L-4(3) [to take a different perspective at her profile] her risk predictably diminishes and her potential shoots up because we are now calibrating her profile equivalently from the lower level. In either case, Sarah finds herself in a developmental pickle not of her own making.

In the uncomfortable developmental position she is presently subject to, Sarah's psychogenic need constellation gets charged by additional conflict and frustration from the developmental side, especially since she is bent on being in control of herself as well as others (her 'helpfulness' notwithstanding) to assert her self-authoring. It is, therefore, understandable that she would be scandalized by insinuations that she is 'opinionated' regarding coaching clients, and to learn that she often comes across to them as distant and hard to follow. However, she has a strong potential for moving to a fully self-authoring position within one to three years (or so), and also, that in her thinking, she is well equilibrated in focusing attention on Process, Context, and Relationship with nearly equal strength (Table 5, column 2).

What may hold Sarah back is her low cognitive ability to take a systemic view of things, including her own situation (STI=11 per cent). While she is capable of bringing to light what is conflicted, incomplete or 'absent' from actual situations (Process quadrant), and can also generally see the big picture of a situation (C quadrant) and what holds its component together (R quadrant), she cannot yet tie these different perspectives together, nor can she think abstractly beyond specific contexts.

As King and Kitchener would comment from an epistemic perspective (1994):

> (Her) beliefs are justified within a particular context by means of the rules of inquiry for that context and by context-specific interpretations of evidence.

Table 5: Sarah's behavioural-developmental profile.

Social-emotional Score (ED) [most generic]	Cognitive Score (CD) [more highly individuated]	Capacity (NP) [unique to Sarah]
L-4 {9:7:4} Alternative notation: 4(3) {3:6:11}	[34, 25, 30; 11 (%)]; Epistemic position=5 [Phase 2 of dialectical thinking]	*Energy sink:* moderate (30) *Frustration:* low (15) *Overall efficiency:* close to low (38) *Attunement:* good understanding of organizational functioning (29) *Distortion* of org. experiences: moderate (25)

> Specific beliefs are … balanced against other interpretations, which complicates (and sometimes delays) conclusions.

In short, Sarah's developmental profile shows a cognitive delay that has her procrastinate social-emotionally. This is further borne out when we look at her profile in terms of organizational Strata, as shown in Table 6.

By scrutinizing both social-emotional and cognitive scores and comparing them, we find that Sarah has largely remained an orthodox logical thinker in the second Order of Mental Complexity (Stratum IV) while having acquired the social-emotional status of a person at Stratum V corresponding to the third Order of Mental Complexity. She is more mature social-emotionally than cognitively, and this is the core of her mentoring issue. *Under these circumstances, mentoring Sarah would best focus on her present thinking ability, in particular the way in which she makes sense of her work as self-authoring without living up to the requirements of Stage 4.*

Section IV: Contributions of CDF to Coaching Research and Practice

The Developmental Stratification of the Social World

The three assessment perspectives I have outlined above are no mere technical expedients. They say something about the human condition as far as social science understands it today. The human condition is the same for coaches and their clients, and in both cases, the three perspectives cannot be separated. For the coach, the pragmatic question arises: *What does it mean to intervene in all three dimensions equally, with full knowledge of each,* to arrive at comprehensive insight into the client?

I propose to look at this matter in light of Bhaskar's discussion of the stratification of the social world which I interpret here in terms of constructive-developmental research (1993, p.267).

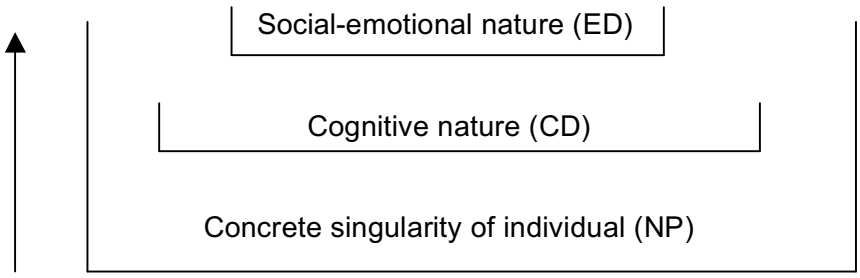
The diagram says that to do justice to the notion of 'human being', all three dimensions have to be addressed. As seen, the lowest one depicted is the behavioural one

Table 6: Sarah's CDF profile viewed in the context of organizational Strata.

Systems Thinking Index (CD)	Associated Epistemic Position	Order of Mental Complexity	Strata* [Levels of Work Complexity and Associated Responsibility]	Social-Emotional Stage (ED)
> 30 <= 40	6	3	V	4
> 20 <= 30	5	2	IV	4/3 – 4(3)
> 10 <= 20	5	2	III	3(4) – 3/4

* Epistemic position [5] corresponds to phase 2 of dialectical thinking where a thinker fails to co-ordinate thought forms, thus hindered from achieving a STI above 30.

Figure 8: The Concrete Singularity of the Human Agent.



(NP), while the upper two (ED and CD) are developmental and define the essential *humanity* of social beings. One cannot reduce 'human being' to the behavioural level without cutting it loose from its essential grounding, of being a transformational system unfolding over time.

In this regard, the stratification of the CDF findings is illuminating:

- The social-emotional score is the most generic one, since one and the same 'stage' can be shared by millions of people.
- The cognitive profile, although it can be shared with a few other individuals, more clearly addresses a specific individual.
- Most specific to a particular client or coach is the third (or Need/Press) score since it describes a singular individual.

The essential insight of CDF is that the three dimensions the scores describe are *constitutive of each other*. This means in practice that all three dimensions assessed by CDF together form the appropriate basis of interventions since a person's "concrete singularity" makes no sense at all without the developmental dimensions. In this sense, CDF is critical of the reductionism of social science, including coaching research.

The black hole of coaching

There is an additional factor that cuts down on the adequacy of contemporary coaching research and practice. I refer to this factor with O'Connor (2007) as *the black hole of coaching*. The black hole derives from two conflicting assumptions pervasively made by members of the 'coaching community':

1. Coach and client speak *the same language* since they are both defined by their shared human condition and culture. This is an assertion at the social-emotional level of other-dependence (Kegan's level 3).
2. As *professionals*, coaches are by definition acting from their own values and principles. This is an assertion of the social-emotional level of self-authoring (Kegan's level 4).

In the first assertion, it is omitted that the social world is stratified and the presumption of 'the same language' does not hold. In the second assertion, it is omitted that according to empirical research only about 25 per cent of adults reach the self-authoring level but certainly no more than 40 per cent of coaches do. In social emotional terms, therefore, the coaching community is in conflict at a level between 3 and 4, either L-3/4 or L-4/3. The result is espousal, borne out by the coaching literature (see also Kegan, 1994).

Limitations of present 'Coaching Research'

The black hole of coaching and the misconception of the concrete singularity of individuals together form a methodological syndrome that, in the perspective of CDF, hinders coaching research and practice from achieving real depth. In coaching research, this is shown by the absence of the following topics:

- The precise influence of social-emotional level of the coach on:

1. model (conception) of client;
2. quality of active listening;
3. quality of empathy;
4. ability of detachment from story of client.

- The precise influence of phase of cognitive development of the coach on:

1. coaching strategy;
2. ability to challenge client's thinking;
3. use of thought forms in broadening client's conceptual field;
4. ability to reframe client perceptions, conceptions, and goals in harmony with client's level of cognitive development.

- The number of coaches in a group of 100 coaches that are acting from social-emotional level 4 rather than 3 in the sense of Kegan.
- The effectiveness of coaches in working with social-emotionally and/or cognitively more highly developed clients.
- The minimal social-emotional and cognitive preconditions of a coaching relationship.
- The highest possible social-emotional and cognitive level of development at which the activity of 'coaching' loses its raison d'etre for the coach.
- The way ethical dilemmas are handled by coaches at different social-emotional and cognitive levels of adult development.
- The precise influence of social-emotional and cognitive level of development of the coach as mentor of other coaches.
- Etc.

Summary

I have outlined a psychometric tool that methodologically asserts the unity of behavioural and developmental perspectives in coaching research and practice. Specifically, I have demonstrated in what way the three developmental dimensions CDF assesses define the human condition of both coaches and clients. I have discussed the theoretical underpinnings and practical applications of CDF, and have given examples of how the instrument is used, the mastery it requires of the coach, and the kinds of insight into the client it enables a consultant, mentor or coach to acquire.

My emphasis has been on the fact that CDF is a dialectical tool that implements scientific insights into the human condition. The dialectical notion of this condition is that the concrete singularity of individuals cannot be made sense on its own terms because that singularity is embedded in developmental transformations over the life span. If not acted upon in this light, individuals' potential capability is reduced to mere performance. This reduction represents a pact with the capitalistic social world in which it happens on a daily basis.

Correspondence

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My next client: Understanding the Big Five and positive personality dispositions of those seeking psychosocial support interventions

Karen D. Klockner & Richard E. Hicks

Objectives: *The purpose of this study was to examine whether individuals who sought out psychosocial support interventions which include life, career and executive coaching, mentoring services and counselling psychology services, could be identified by a combination of the Big Five and other positive personality facets and could subsequently be described as being open to growth and having a goal directed orientation.*

Design: *The dimensions of Personal Growth Initiative, Adult Dispositional Hope, Goal Setting and the Big Five factors (Extraversion, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness) were investigated in an attempt to predict and further understand those individuals who would actively seek out and participate in a psychosocial intervention.*

Methods: *The NEO-PI-R, the Goal-Setting scale of the Apollo Profile, the Adult Dispositional Hope Scale and the Personal Growth Initiative Scale were administered to 200 individuals to examine the personality attributes of clients who seek psychosocial support including coaching. Statistical analyses included the review of Group Statistics between Intervention Seekers and Non Intervention Seekers, Discriminant Function Analysis (one discriminant function revealed) and Confirmatory Cross Validation for Prediction of Group Membership.*

Results: *Results revealed that high scores on Openness to Experience, Extraversion, Adult Dispositional Hope, Personal Growth Initiative, and Goal Setting were valid personality trait predictors of intervention seekers.*

Conclusions: *The findings have implications for the research and practice of counselling psychology, the growing areas of life and executive coaching and for organisations where career and performance interventions such as coaching and mentoring are used.*

Keywords: Personality, psychosocial support; coaching, the Big Five.

THERE IS INCREASING INTEREST IN coaching and mentoring around the world as evidenced by journals such as the *International Coaching Psychology Review* itself, the *International Journal of Evidence-based Coaching and Mentoring*, the *International Journal of Coaching in Organisations*, and more recently in 2008, the new *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, various handbooks related to coaching (e.g. the *Evidence-based Coaching Handbook*, 2006) and by special issues devoted by journals to coaching (e.g. as in the recent *Australian Psychologist* issue, which included articles by Seligman, 2007, on coaching and positive psychology; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007 and Spence 2007, on evidence-based coaching; Latham, 2007 on theory and research on coaching practice; and MacKie, 2007 on evaluating effectiveness in executive coaching). There appears to be very little written on the qualities of those who seek coaching (an example of a psychosocial support intervention) or on how individual personality traits might be understood to enhance the coaching process. Hicks and Klockner (2007) reported some initial findings for interven-

tion seekers, showing that attributes such as openness to experience, a goal-setting orientation and positive outlook ('hope') differentiated those who sought support, help and guidance from those who did not. This paper examines further the personal qualities and dispositions of those who seek such interventions. It is hoped that the findings will help coaches and mentors in shedding new light on understanding new clients from their own perspective.

Psychosocial support interventions are related directly to psychosocial support functions. These functions have been defined as acceptance, coaching, counselling and role modeling (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Psychosocial support interventions include life coaching, career coaching, executive coaching, mentoring services and counselling including career counselling, psychology services and counselling in general. The interventions are aimed at meeting social support or life-goal needs of individuals.

There has been for a decade or more dramatic growth in coaching including life coaching as a valid psychosocial intervention for those seeking personal growth (Diedrich & Killburg, 2001; Grant, 2003; Killon, 2002). As Killon indicated life coaching helps clients determine their goals and find ways to achieve those goals. The spin-offs appear to more fulfilling lives and more effective relationships (Killon, 2002). Recent research shows that professional coaches are able to facilitate higher achievements from their clients via increased engagement in the process, and greater goal commitment and progression while at the same time building a greater sense of well-being (e.g. Spence & Grant, 2007a).

There are many reasons why people seek out these services or interventions including help with career and family matters, self improvement and understanding, achievement of personal and career goals, and expansion of knowledge and social contacts within an organisation. *But what drives such intervention-seeking behaviours?* How are intervention seekers different from those who display less interest in seeking social support for development? The underlying fact is that intervention seekers actively move into and participate in support interventions rather than avoiding the experience. An understanding of those aspects of personality that contribute to intervention seeking behaviour may help answer the question: *What is the relationship between personal characteristics (as drivers or motives) and the seeking of such psychosocial interventions?* A better understanding of how relevant personal attributes influence intervention-seeking and participating behaviours would be a help for coaches in many areas of their service delivery such as marketing and client engagement. Indeed coaching psychologists have been advised to finely attune both their diagnostic and their engagement skills to ensure the appropriateness of the coaching process (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007b). This article reports a project examining selected attitudinal and personality variables that were thought likely to discriminate between intervention seekers and non-intervention seekers; it discusses personality contributions first.

Personality appears to have a robust effect on many domains of peoples' lives and on the outcomes in those lives including career success, career exploration development and more specifically an orientation to seeking career support (Blustein, 1988; Blustein & Phillips, 1988; Seibert, Crant & Kraimer, 1999). Selected personality traits may identify those individuals who willingly seek out interventions such as coaching and counselling and thus contribute to the success of their career development programs and indirectly to the success of the organisation. In the organisational setting this information could assist in identifying those employees who seek out these interventions of their own accord and perhaps those who would not seek out career help interventions of their own accord. Organisations that understand that individuals may need extra encouragement to engage in a coaching or mentoring relationship can

better service their staff development by examining this aspect among their personnel.

There would be little debate that corporate coaching and mentoring programs require a significant allocation of resources in both time and money. Before allocating resources towards coaching and mentoring organisations may wish to identify those individuals more likely to succeed in such programs through identifying attributes such as self motivation, and therefore be provided with some comfort level in their decision making process. As with any other function, the competencies of candidates for organisational interventions should be identified, their strengths highlighted and gaps recognised so that tailored development plans can be implemented for those truly motivated to be prime movers in their own growth (Frisch, 2001). If we can identify relevant influencing personality attributes, then we can, according to Lee, Sheldon and Turner (2003), predict the motivational strategies that people will use. The call has gone out for organisations to focus on preparing their executives to be better equipped to maximise their potential to be coached (Wycherley & Cox, 2008). Similarly coaches can be better equipped for the coaching process by having knowledge around the personality and related attributes of the clients with whom they are working.

Early studies on orientation toward help-seeking and personality development generally focused more on attitudinal and situational factors rather than on personality factors. For example, Tijhuis, Peters and Foets (1990) found that willingness to be open about mental health problems and willingness to disclose mental health status were linked to willingness to seek help. Demographic, network and personality variables have been cited in other studies as predictors of whether individuals will seek help for emotional problems (Rickwood & Braithwaite, 1994; Tijhuis, Peters & Foets, 1990). In particular, Rickwood and Braithwaite (1994) confirmed the importance of openness but also indicated that private self-consciousness or tendency to think about oneself and monitor one's internal thoughts and feelings played a role in help seeking motivation.

More recently, using a 'Positive Psychology' paradigm, Lopez, Snyder and Pedrotti (2003) suggested that positive personality characteristics can be identified and that these would form the basis for strength oriented training and interventions (including coaching and counselling). This is in line with the earlier assertions of Hicks and Paterson (1997) who argued that the challenge in training and development was to build on identified strengths to sustain efforts towards change, rather than to tackle the often frustrating prospect of addressing weaknesses. Seligman (2007) has continued to indicate the links between coaching and positive psychology. *But what are these positive personality or personal characteristics?* It would seem that high scores on openness and low scores on neuroticism (among the Big Five Factors; McCrae & Costa, 1992) would contribute to help-seeking and growth behaviour. But what other aspects might be involved? Studies that follow report some of the research available, listing goal-setting orientation, personal initiative and positive outlook on life (hope) among the characteristics.

Roberts, O'Donnell and Robins (2004) confirmed that the development of individuals over time was in part determined by personality characteristics such as goal-setting and Judge and Illies (2002) identified goal-orientation as important. Other personality factors that influence motivation to seek out support and development services have been identified as personal growth initiative (Robitschek, 1999), self-confidence and self-efficacy (Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Zweig & Webster, 2000), and a positive outlook (hope) (Drach-Zahavy & Somech, 2002; Lopez, Snyder & Pedrotti, 2003; Snyder et al., 1991).

There have been relatively few studies examining how the Big Five personality

factors (McCrae & Costa, 1992) of Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Agreeableness are related to help-seeking behaviour for personal growth, yet there is an emerging model that personality traits channel the motivation to engage in particular types of activities and influence the success of these activities (Bozionelos, 2004; Hollenbeck & Brief, 1987; Judge & Ilies, 2002; Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz, 2001).

This paper sought, therefore, to examine the Big Five attributes along with other identified attributes (goal-orientation, personal growth initiative, hope) as predictors of those who had and those who had not sought psychosocial inventions to help them in personal or career development.

Psychosocial interventions have in common an anticipation that participants will learn and grow from the experience. Whilst personal growth will be achieved, the level of this growth will be dependent upon the individual's propensity to engage in the process as a whole. Various counselling modalities have long recognised that the active participation of clients in the problem-management process leads to an increase in their learning and to an increase in the management of their lives (Egan, 2002). Those individuals with a *disposition towards personal growth* could be seen to be more accepting of the challenges that a psychosocial intervention like coaching demands from them.

Sheldon and Kasser (2001) found that people are able to improve their level of well-being and adjustment continually, through ongoing self-appropriate goal pursuit and growth. Research by Robitschek (1999) indicated that higher levels of psychological well-being were related to higher levels of *personal growth initiative*. The success of personal growth interventions in the form of any of the psychosocial modalities (counselling, mentoring, coaching, etc.) is relatively dependent on the level of personal growth desired (related to personal growth initiative), positive expected outcomes (hope), goal seeking orientation and the dispositional goal directed traits that a person possesses.

This study was predominately interested in the personality profiles of psychosocial intervention seekers. To measure personality a number personality traits including the Big Five – Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness (McCrae & Costa, 1992) – as well as general dispositions towards goal setting and growth, were of interest. An expanded rationale for the use of these constructs is given below to enable the reader to perceive their value in identifying and understanding what motivates and drives their own clients.

Selected 'Big Five' Personality Dispositions

Lee, Sheldon and Turban (2003) among many others, have found that personality characteristics influence performance and enjoyment of work; information which is of direct relevance to coaches and counsellors in the work setting.

The current predominant personality model is known as the Big Five model, composed of the factors of Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness (McCrae & Costa, 1992). These factors were examined in the current study in relation to qualities of those who seek interventions.

Openness to Experience

Openness to Experience is characterised by being imaginative, seeking variety, and being intellectual. Ryff (1989) has suggested that Openness to Experience is a key characteristic of the fully functioning person and that this individual is continually developing rather than remaining in a fixed state. It has been found that Openness to Experience is related to the ability to learn as well as the motivation to learn (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Low levels of Openness to Experience are associated with a preference for familiarity, simplicity and closure with these individuals tending to be unadventurous, socially

conforming and conventional (Zweig & Webster, 2004). These researchers found that Openness to Experience was positively related to learning goal orientations and negatively related to performance avoidance goal orientations.

McCrae (1996) argued that of the five basic dimensions of personality, Openness to Experience was the most relevant in understanding social and interpersonal phenomena. Openness to Experience combined with a middle-range location on Introversion-Extraversion has also been identified with wisdom. Empirical work also suggests that certain cognitive, personality and experiential factors including a commitment to personal growth are important correlates of wisdom (Staudinger et al., 1998).

Openness to Experience has been portrayed as the most controversial and least understood of the Big-Five traits (Judge et al., 2002). However, in looking at the motivation to experience new situations and achieve personal growth from learning experiences, the trait of Openness to Experience was thought by the current researchers to relate strongly to motivation to seek out psychosocial support interventions. 'Openness to Experience is conceived of as a broad and general dimension that manifests itself in the vividness of fantasy, artistic sensitivity, depth of feeling, behavioural flexibility, intellectual curiosity, and unconventional attitudes, all assessed by the openness facets of the NEO Personality Inventory' (Kruglanski, 2004).

Neuroticism

Individuals described as having low levels of emotional stability (high neuroticism) tend to be defensive and guarded and to have negative views of themselves, preferring to avoid challenging tasks (Goldberg, 1990). Neuroticism has been identified as one of the 'Big Two' personality factors described by Eysenck over 40 years ago (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and is associated with being anxious, depressed, angry, embarrassed, emotional, worried and insecure.

An extensive meta-analytic review of the relationship of personality to performance motivation (Judge & Illies, 2002) found that individuals who display high levels of motivation in goal setting theory also have high levels of motivation according to expectancy and self-efficacy theories. These researchers found significant strong correlations between performance motivation and Neuroticism (negatively related equating to emotional stability), Conscientiousness and Extraversion with weaker correlations with Openness to Experience and Agreeableness.

In looking at the role of approach and avoidance motivation in models of personality Elliot and Thrash (2002) found that an approach temperament (a positive motivational approach to goal attainment) and avoidance temperament (a negative motivational approach to goal attainment) can be linked to measures of Extroversion and positive emotionality (reversed Neuroticism).

Having a disposition which is insecure, negative and anxious, has been suggested by Lee, Sheldon and Turban (2003) as influencing goal striving processes; doing this by lowering goals, disrupting concentration on work tasks and instigating a failure orientation.

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness involves being self-disciplined, hardworking and achievement-oriented (Zweig & Webster, 2004). This disposition is highly valued in workplace settings being linked with performance (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000), but not with high level career success as individuals concentrate on the task at hand rather than emphasising time to network that would help achieve the social status needed for appointments to top levels in organisations (Bozionelos, 2004). In terms of relevance to the current research, conscientiousness was considered to be related to one's commitment to change and growth. Conscientiousness was, therefore, included among the variables considered to identify those who seek interventions.

Extraversion

The trait of extraversion, being sociable, gregarious, assertive, active and talkative (Barrick & Mount, 1991), has been suggested as being associated with success in mentoring and networking situations. Individuals possessing a high level of extraversion are predisposed to have both positive affect and cognitions (Zweig & Webster, 2004) and are optimistic about the future (Eysenck, 1981). Research has indicated that extraversion is positively related to learning goal orientations and negatively related to performance avoidance orientation (Zweig & Webster, 2004). Extraversion has been positively correlated with a learning orientation (Lawson, 1999; Chan & Tesluk, 2000; Elliot & Thrash 2002) and low levels of extraversion are associated with a decrease in interest, activity and stimulation (Clarke & Watson, 1991). However, organisational extrinsic career success has not been associated with extraversion (Bozionelos, 2004).

Agreeableness

Bonzionelos (2004) indicates that agreeableness is associated with tendencies to care for others, being good natured and possessing modesty and trust; people with these qualities often sacrifice their own career and personal success – so that agreeableness is not associated as such with career success. General findings on agreeableness are mixed with emphasis on teamwork and good relationships and suggestions of positive correlation with personal-oriented careers. It is possible that agreeableness may be a factor in those motivated to seek psychosocial interventions and change but it is more likely that agreeableness is an independent factor. This study examines all of the Big Five factors including agreeableness, to clarify this issue.

Other factors, as discussed next, were also studied in the project.

Personal Growth Initiative

Individual differences exist in peoples' proclivity to take action to influence their personal growth. Robitschek and Cook (1999) found that people with high levels of personal growth initiative were not only aware of their development over time, but were also proactive about the change process, intentionally seeking out opportunities for personal development. Identification of those high in Personal Growth Initiative will also identify those willing to participate in change programs and interventions involving growth and learning.

Personal Growth Initiative (PGI) is defined as 'active, intentional engagement in the process of personal growth' (Robitscheck, 1998, p.184) with the emphasis on intentional self-change in any life domain.

Findings indicated that people scoring high on the PGI questionnaire (and the associated trait) had greater awareness of the outcomes from intentional growth planning than did those whose growth was 'unintentional' or unplanned. Robitschek (1998) also suggested that higher levels of PGI could be achieved through training (or coaching) of clients so that the clients could use PGI strategies through their life span.

Studies into career exploration by Blustein (1989) suggest that highly goal-directed individuals engage in exploratory activities that foster the attainment of those goals. In looking at effective patterns in achievement situations Elliot and Dweck (1988) have identified that both performance goals and learning goals each run off a different 'programme' with different cognitive commands, decision rules and inference rules. In a learning goal orientation an individual's perceived level of skill becomes irrelevant and the individual will seek to increase competence, opting for challenging tasks and will seek to learn new skills, even if errors were public.

The Disposition of Hope

In discussing personality traits for personal growth it is also desirable to look at the emotion of 'Hope'; hope and goal-directed thinking are associated in that people perceive that they can produce routes to

desired goals and have the requisite motivation to use those routes. Participation in a life coaching programme has been shown to deliver significant increase in hope, well-being and goal striving (Green, Oades & Grant, 2006). Hope has also been found to be associated with improved emotional and behavioural coping in different life domains and to be associated with constructive thinking and resource allocation (Drach-Zahavy & Somech, 2002).

Hope is defined as 'a cognitive set that is based on reciprocally derived sense of successful (a) *agency* (goal directed determination), and (d) *pathways* (planning of ways to attain goals)' (Snyder et al., 1991, p.571). Recently there has been empirical support for the distinctive functions of the agency and pathways facets (Drach-Zahavy & Somech, 2002). These researchers see agentic thinking being activated across situations initially to propel people along their imagined routes to goals, whereas the pathways thinking is concerned more with initiating know-how strategies to deal with specific impediments which may arise.

Depending on their trait hope levels, people should bring these hope emotion sets to their goal-related activities (Lopez, Snyder & Pedrotti, 2003). These researchers assert that Hope provides emotional feedback directing the pursuit of goals. Thus hope involves thoughts or beliefs that sustain individuals in their movement towards goals.

The Adult Dispositional Hope Scale was included in this research to measure the degree to which trait hope is included in the pursuit of goal directed behaviour. Scores on the Adult Dispositional Hope Scale have been shown to increase the prediction of an individual's goal-related activities and coping strategies beyond other self-reporting measures (Snyder et al., 1991). That is, people measuring higher on the hope scale tend to have enhanced goal-directed agency and sense of pathways to goals than those scoring lower.

Individuals undertaking goal directed behaviour in the coaching, mentoring or counselling interventions will bring with them a trait disposition of hope, positive or negative; an understanding of the level of hope which the individual brings to the intervention may be of benefit to the parties involved.

Disposition towards Goal setting

Researchers have found that setting goals is important in many endeavours and Bandura (1986) in explaining social learning theory has described the tendency to set goals and make plans as part of effective human functioning. Whilst goal setting has been mainly recognised in the sports and business domains its value in helping clients overcome serious psychological disorders has also been well documented historically (Bernard, 1985; Frank, 1973). Students with low goal-orientation scores tended to score higher on depression, hopelessness and maladjustment and students who undertook an intervention to help raise their Grade Point Averages (GPA) through enhancing goal orientation were successful in achieving higher GPAs (Malouff et al., 1990).

Goal setting theory is based on the observation that conscious human behaviour is regulated by an individual's internalized self set goals and the degree of self motivation they expend in purposefully working towards these goals (Latham & Locke, 1991). Individuals high in goal setting will, therefore, set themselves goals which they actively strive to achieve. In the workplace, it has been found that setting specific and difficult goals produces greater effort toward goal achievement (Williams, Karau & Bourgeois, 1993) and better performance (Locke et al., 1981). Such commitment to goals is also related to self-esteem and to social status among co-workers (Pilegge & Holtz, 1997).

Hollenbeck and Brief's (1987) work on the effects of individual differences and goal origin on goal setting and performance found that individuals who self-set goals, regardless of trait differences, exhibited more motivation to pursue their goals than subjects who were assigned goals. There was

also less variation in expectancy and valence of goal attainment for subjects who set their own goals. This implies that those who set themselves goals and move toward their goal attainment are more motivated.

Summary and hypotheses

In more specific terms, the purpose of this study was to examine whether the Big Five personality factors and the factors of goal-orientation, personal growth initiative and hope disposition could discriminate between individuals who had and those who had not sought psychosocial interventions including coaching, i.e. those with stronger commitment to interventions and growth could be identified by stronger scores on scales of personal attributes as measured by Personal Growth Initiative, Goal Setting and Adult Dispositional Hope and by certain of the Big Five Factors.

It was hypothesised that 'Individuals who seek out psychosocial support interventions will be higher on Personal Growth Initiative, Dispositional Hope, Goal Setting orientation, Openness to Experience, Extraversion and Conscientiousness and lower in Neuroticism (therefore be more emotionally stable), and Agreeableness than those who do not seek out psychosocial support interventions.'

The dependent variable for this study was whether or not an individual had sought out and attended a psychosocial intervention (had sought out one or more of a variety of personal activities such as requested counselling appointments, developed a relationship with a mentor, sought coaching or personal advice, sought career counselling or sought other help that would "intervene" in their lives and help improve or strengthen their development in some way).

Because the emphasis in the study was on the ability of these chosen facets to discriminate between intervention seekers as a group and non-intervention seekers as a group, and to see how well the variables did this, discriminant function analysis was deemed an appropriate strategy to use. Discriminant analysis is the mirror image of MANOVA and its basic purpose is to estimate the relationship between a single non-metric (categorical) dependent variable and a set of metric independent variables. It is used for prediction of group membership where each object can be predicted or explained by a set of independent variables (Hair et al., 1984).

Method

Participants

The 200 participants in this study came from convenience sampling and included 110 from the general population of the Gold Coast, and 90 from the general population of Victoria. There were 62 males and 138 females, with ages ranging from 18 to 79 years, and a mean age of 44.4 years (SD=12.7). A good cross-section of participants was obtained with the majority being in active paid employment in white collar industries. This individual study concentrating on personality profiling of intervention seekers was part of a larger group study examining personality in the workplace. All participants completed a package of questionnaires including the NEO-PI-R, the Apollo Profile (including a Goal-setting category), the Adult Dispositional Hope Scale, the Personal Growth Initiative Scale and a bio-data questionnaire in which the participants indicated whether they had sought help from others (interventions) and what kind of help this was. Gender, age, experience and other demographic variables were also requested.

Assessment tools

The *Revised NEO Personality Inventory* (NEO-PI-R) (Costa & McRae, 1992) containing 240 items was administered to assess the five personality dimensions of Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. The internal consistency and test-retest reliability coefficients from previous research on the NEO-PI-R are reported as ranging from about .85 to .95 for the Big Five factors.

The Personal Growth Initiative Scale (Robitschek, 1998) was administered to

assess Personal Growth Initiative. Nine-items are each rated on a six-point Likert scale from 1 (definitely disagree) to 6 (definitely agree). An example item is *'If I want to change something in my life, I initiate the transaction process.'* Robitschek (1998, 1999) reported internal consistency coefficients ranging from .78 to .88 and a test-retest reliability of .74 over eight weeks. Cronbach's Alpha was .89 in the current study, consistent with Robitscheck's findings.

The Adult Dispositional Hope (Goal) Scale (Snyder et al., 1991) is a self-report, 12-item inventory which assesses both how people perceive that they can produce routes to desired goals (pathway thinking) and the requisite motivation to use those routes (agency thinking). Four items each assess pathways and agency elements and four items are filler items, each using a four-point Likert-type scale. Example items are *'I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are most important to me'* and *'Even when others get discouraged, I know I can find a way to solve the problem.'* The scale is internally reliable (alphas of .74 to .88) and temporally stable (test-retests over several weeks of .85). Alpha coefficients in the present study were .79 for the overall Hope Scale, .73 for the agency component, and .68 for pathways component, reasonably consistent with the previous studies.

The Goal Setting Scale of the Apollo Profile (1996) was utilized as a measure of goal setting orientation for this current study. Goal setting is measured by 8 items. The goal setting facet in the Apollo is primarily measuring a work commitment-conscientiousness factor and is positively related to achievement, conscientiousness, persistence, detail-consciousness, self-organisation, proactivity and loyalty. Alpha reliabilities in the present study were .64 for goal setting, reasonably consistent with the previous studies of .69 for a sample of 4070 respondents (Hicks, 2005).

Respondents rated their answers on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 meaning of very little importance to them, to 7 meaning of high importance to them. Sample questions for goal setting in the Apollo include 'Having clear aims and set goals' and 'Have good detailed goals.'

Results

Table 1 shows the inter-correlations among the eight variables across the full sample of 200 adults. A number of interesting relationships are demonstrated between the variables with perhaps the most significant (above .30) being *among the Big Five* those between openness and extraversion (.38) and neuroticism and conscientiousness (–.50); *between the Big Five and the other three attributes* those between extraversion and hope (.38), conscientiousness and both personal growth initiative (.35) and hope (.33) and neuroticism and the same two variables of PGI (–.38) and hope (–.36). Finally, *among the other attributes* PGI was identified as strongly correlated with dispositional hope (.69) and with goal setting (.32). The importance of these relationships is taken into account in the subsequent discriminant analyses used to assess the data including the difference between 'intervention seekers' and 'non-intervention seekers'.

Of the 200 people sampled 116 reported that they had sought at least once personal development help or support via life coaching, career counselling, personal counselling, executive coaching, mentoring or psychological counselling. Of the 116, 66 had been involved in at least two different kinds of the six listed interventions (life coaching, etc.), and 34 had been involved in three or more of the six types of intervention. The mean age for the intervention group was marginally lower than the non-intervention group and there were slightly more females than males proportionately among those who had sought interventions. This study reports the main differences found between those who had sought interventions (116) and those who had not (84).

Firstly a Discriminant Analysis was performed with did/did not seek psychosocial support (intervention) as the DV and the Big Five factors (openness to experience,

Table 1: Inter-correlation table: the Big Five factors, Personal Growth Initiative, Hope and Goal-setting (for *N*=200).

Independent Variables	*OE*	*C*	*E*	*A*	*N*	*PGI*	*ADH*	*GS*
Openness to Experience (OE)	1.00							
Conscientiousness (C)	–.10	1.00						
Extraversion (E)	.38***	.19**	1.00					
Agreeableness (A)	.09	.19**	.10	1.00				
Neuroticism (N)	.03	–.50***	–.28***	–.24***	1.00			
Personal Growth Initiative (PGI)	.15*	.35***	.28***	.00	–.38***	1.00		
Adult Dispositional Hope (ADH)	.28***	.33***	.38***	–.04***	-.36***	.69***	1.00	
Goal Setting (GS)	.05	.21**	.15*	.01	-.08	.32***	.23**	1.00

extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness and agreeableness) as predictor variables. As there were only the two categories (did seek psychosocial support or did not seek psychosocial support) only a single discriminant function was calculated (see Table 2). A total of 200 individuals were analysed. The value of this function was significantly different for the did seek support group than the did not seeking support group (chi-square=30.286, df=5, $p<0.0005$).

The structure matrix as shown in Table 2 gives a measure of the contribution that each of the Big Five factors made to the discriminant function. The order of magnitude indicated that openness to experience and extraversion were the best predictors of seeking psychosocial support, followed by neuroticism (negative value), conscientiousness and agreeableness respectively.

Overall the discriminant function successfully predicted outcomes for 69 per cent of cases, with accurate predictions being made for 69 per cent of the intervention seeking group and with accurate predictions being made for 69 per cent of the non intervention seeking group (see Table 3).

A second discriminant analysis was also performed with did/did not seek psychosocial support as the DV and the Big Five factors (openness to experience, extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness and agreeableness) plus Adult Dispositional Hope, Personal Growth Initiative, Goal Setting as predictor variables. Again as there were only the two categories (did seek psychosocial support or did not seek psychosocial support) only a single discriminant function was calculated. Again a total of 200 individuals were analysed. The value of this function was again significantly different for the seeking support group and non seeking support group (chi-square=34.788, df=8, $p<0.0005$).

The structure matrix as shown in Table 4 gives a measure of the contribution that each of eight variables made to the discriminant function. The order of magnitude indicated that again openness to experience and extraversion were the best predictors of seeking psychosocial support, followed by Adult Dispositional Hope, Personal Growth Initiative, Goal Setting, neuroticism (negative value), conscientiousness and agreeableness respectively.

Overall the discriminant function (Table 5) successfully predicted outcomes for 71 per cent of cases, with accurate predictions being made for 74.1 per cent of the intervention seeking group and with accurate predictions being made for 66.7 per cent of the non intervention seeking group.

Table 2: Structure Matrix – The Big Five – one discriminant function revealed.

Independent Variables	Function 1
Openness to Experience	.833
Extraversion	.766
Neuroticism	–.198
Conscientiousness	.091
Agreeableness	.035

Table 3: Classification results for Prediction of Group Membership – The Big Five.

Intervention			Predicted Group Membership		
			Yes	No	Total
Original	Count	Yes	80	36	116
		No	26	58	84
Prediction	%	Yes	69.0	31.0	100
		No	31.0	69.0	100

69% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

Table 4: Structure Matrix – The Big Five, Hope, Goal-setting and Personal Growth Initiative – one discriminant function revealed.

Independent Variables	Function 1
Openness to Experience	.769
Extraversion	.708
Adult Dispositional Hope	.571
Personal Growth Initiative	.509
Goal Setting	.325
Neuroticism	–.183
Conscientiousness	.084
Agreeableness	.032

Table 5: Classification results for Prediction of Group Membership – The Big Five + Adult Dispositional Hope, Personal Growth Initiative and Goal Setting.

Intervention			Predicted Group Membership		
			Yes	No	Total
Original	Count	Yes	86	36	116
		No	28	56	84
Prediction	%	Yes	74.1	25.9	100
		No	33.3	66.7	100

71% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

Discussion

This study examined the direct relationship of individual choice in seeking or not seeking psychosocial interventions to three personal characteristics (Personal Growth Initiative, Adult Dispositional Hope and Goal Setting) and the Big Five personality factors (Extraversion, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness). Findings showed that there was a significant relationship between five of the eight variables (Openness to Experience, Extraversion, Adult Dispositional Hope, Personal Growth Initiative and Goal Setting) and the prediction of intervention seeking.

These variables could be seen as describing individual predispositions to set goals, value experience, and actively and positively seek personal growth in achieving the set goals. Participants in or who seek interventions of their own free will could be described as highly motivated and energetic. They are actively involved in their own destiny with the intervention process representing a chance for them to focus on their self growth.

The results in general supported the hypothesis, with intervention seekers scoring higher in Openness, Extraversion, Personal Growth Initiative, Adult Dispositional Hope and Goal Setting than those who do not seek out psychosocial interventions (though not significantly different in Conscientiousness, Neuroticism or Agreeableness).

Coaching and mentoring interventions for these individuals would be highly welcome and even necessary for their self satisfaction. Within the work environment these individuals will actively seek out opportunities to be coached or mentored for career development. Development for them is seen as recognition that they are growing and may satisfy their internal need for continuous learning. These individuals may be seen to be directors of their own destiny, being optimistic and able to surmount barriers and find alternative routes to achieve their goals. Interventions for these people represent an opportunity to obtain feedback on progress towards goals and change behaviours or thinking patterns to correct the path to the desired goals.

Of the eight independent variables Openness to Experience was identified as being the best predictor of intervention seeking. Individuals high in Openness to Experience appear to be willing to take on new challenges and are open to a variety of experiences to enrich their learning. These individuals are curious, willing to seek out new and even unconventional ideas to ensure their lives are experientially rich (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Within organisational settings these individuals may be the first to volunteer for new assignments, work at various locations and generally be mobile in both tasks and environments throughout the organisation. In private coaching and counselling domains these individuals will seek out help from others and do not fear experiencing both positive and negative emotions as part of a new endeavour. These individuals will enjoy the intervention experience as a stimulus to their open minded thinking and varied interests.

The implications of this research for counsellors and individual coaches is that they now have tools (the concepts and/or questionnaires used) by which to identify and recognise those clients who might represent the coaching 'cream of the crop', that is, those people who will most readily work towards self improvement and growth. These individuals/clients will be highly receptive in working towards goal attainment and they may actually seek out interventions as confirmation that they can achieve their already self-set goals.

This research suggests that awareness of specified personal traits (especially the ones identified here) can help counsellors, coaches and practitioners to understand and predict strategies their clients will employ in a given achievement setting. That is, it seems that global personality differences in self-determination preferences and strategies can predict situation-specific goal striving processes as found by Lee, Sheldon and Turban (2003).

For the coach, identifying open and goal orientated clients should enable the setting of relevant, difficult and challenging assignments that will be felt by the clients as gratifying.

Clients with high scores on Openness, Extraversion, Growth Initiative, Goal Orientation and Hope, will need to feel that they are actively moving forward in their personal growth and coaches might be able to identify causes of frustration in some of their clients as being related to their strong valuing of these factors. These clients may need suitable feedback along the way as to growth, change and development of self-concept. Combined with high Openness to Experience and low Neuroticism these individuals can be given tasks which may be less appropriate for other clients. These clients give coaches an opportunity to witness the best of human spirit and striving. Assessing the relevant characteristics during the process of counselling and coaching may therefore assist in that process.

Overall the findings verify that psychosocial intervention seekers actively work towards a greater self-understanding and improved personal skills: they actively seek out help in both problem solving and self development programs. These individuals are open, emotionally stable, interact easily, and proactively work towards personal growth. They also possess the emotion of Hope which associated with goal-directed and strategic thinking (Lopez, Snyder & Pedrotti, 2003)

The most useful scales from a practitioner's standpoint for predicting personal interest in development programs are those associated with openness, extraversion, dispositional hope, personal growth and goal setting. Kilburg (2001) underlined the value of assessing the client's level of motivation and commitment to progressive development, if clients were to be helped to adhere to development programmes.

Organisations and individual practitioners working within intervention settings now have a two edged sword, having both a better understanding of the individuals likely to actively want to participate in coaching interventions but just as importantly an understanding of individuals who would not necessarily seek out or participate in these interventions. Programs can be further tailored to suit both types of individuals for maximum outcomes for both parties. Supporting this idea Kilburg (1997) postulated that the growth of the client and the success of the intervention (coaching) would be concrete indicators that the consultant had selected the right strategies.

One other outcome from the current study can be seen in regard to Goal-setting. Collecting data on a client's goal setting orientation may be of direct value in psychosocial interventions. While emphasis has been given in the discussion above to those who have disposition towards seeking self- and other-help interventions, of course individuals will present with varying degrees of such dispositional characteristics. Coaches could use responses on individual items for those who do not fall in the clearly highly motivated groups, as lead-ins to coaching around goal setting and planning (cf. Malouff et al., 1990). If a client indicates that setting goals is a waste of time, the coach may want to explore that view with the client.

There were several potential limitations of the study. First, all of the measures used were self-report and as such were limited by the reliability of that method and subject to error (Blustein, 1989). This study also asked only about whether participants had been involved in psychosocial interventions, not whether the programs had been successful in helping achieve goals. Future research on the effectiveness of coaching could also examine the relationship between these personality factors and measurements of actual *success* and perceptions of *satisfaction* with the coaching, thus building on the current study which has demonstrated that there are factors associated with those who actively seek out coaching.. For example, individuals high in Personal Growth Initiative, Adult Dispositional Hope and Goal

Setting may require coaches to set more difficult goal task orientations for self satisfaction in the coaching process.

The current sample was predominantly Caucasian working adults; different cultural groups may emphasise different characteristics; further study in different cultural groups will need to be conducted.

Our study has indicated, for the sample studied, that personal and personality characteristics of those who actively seek development and support interventions, include in particular openness, extraversion, positive hope, the valuing of personal growth (leading to personal growth initiative), and goal setting. These traits seem particularly relevant for understanding an individual's motivation and likely ultimate success in coaching and counselling processes. A key challenge facing coaches and counsellors is to understand how personality and motivational differences can affect the setting of goals and the processes for achieving those goals. The results of this study contribute a little towards meeting this key challenge.

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Evaluating the links between leadership development coaching and performance

Penny Cortvriend, Claire Harris & Emma Alexander

Objectives: *Findings from a study exploring the links between leadership development coaching and performance are reported in this paper.*

Design: *The study adopted a mixed-method approach. The participants were drawn from an opportunity sample of 36 senior managers who took part in a leadership development programme in a metropolitan borough council. Surveys were used to assess the impact of coaching on performance before, during and after several one-to-one coaching sessions. Semi-structured interviews were also undertaken with 10 coachees at the end of the coaching.*

Methods: *Surveys assessed individual and organisational benefits of coaching, including interpersonal relationship and task accomplishment skills. Semi-structured interviews focused on the impact of coaching on individual and organisational performance, together with its impact on the organisational client base: the public.*

Results: *There was a difference in leadership skills in the pre- and post-survey results. Both the quantitative and qualitative results indicate improved individual and organisational performance. The qualitative data also illustrate a positive impact on the organisational client base: the public.*

Conclusions: *Coaching impacts positively on individual and organisational performance. It enhances well being and reduces stress as well as helping coachees to move towards a more transformational style of leadership. Despite methodological difficulties in evaluating the impact of coaching, further well designed evaluation research is required if the true impact of coaching on different aspects of performance is to be demonstrated.*

Keywords: coaching, performance, leadership development, evaluation.

DESPITE HIGH PROPORTIONS OF UK organisations claiming to use coaching services (79 per cent of UK organisations surveyed by CIPD, Jarvis, 2004) to enhance individual performance (78 per cent of UK organisations surveyed by CIPD, Jarvis, 2004) there is little evidence that organisations are evaluating the performance benefits of coaching. For example, Leedham (2005) reports that only 19 per cent of organisations in the UK formally evaluate the impact of coaching. In addition, a survey attempting to find the Return on Investment for organisations in relation to coaching found *'little genuine measurement of the benefits of coaching currently within organisations'* (Association for Coaching, 2004, p.1). Therefore, whilst the literature in this area is evolving rapidly, it is by no means keeping pace with the rapid growth in coaching practice (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006). Using a mixed method approach, the current evaluation study demonstrates the impact of a coaching programme in the public sector. More specifically, the study explores the links between coaching and individual performance, organisational performance and the impact on the public (the organisational client base).

Why leaders seek coaching

A number of studies have sought to discover why leaders or executives seek coaching. For example, the 2004 Association for Coaching (AC) UK Executive Coaching Report found that the main reasons for employing a coach are to: work on performance related issues; act as independent sounding board and focus on specific topics such as confidence, interviewing skills, career transition and

work life balance. A similar study (Wasylyshyn, 2003) found that the focus of executive coaching included personal behaviour change, enhancing leadership effectiveness, fostering stronger relationships and work-family integration.

Yet there appears to be discrepancy between commissioners and coachees in the reasons for seeking coaching. Leedham (2005) interviewed six commissioners and analysed 224 questionnaire responses from coachees from the same organisation. For commissioners the main reason for supplying coaching services to their staff was to make a 'contribution to the business results'. For coachees, factors such as enhanced confidence, development of techniques and skills, improved relationships and clarity of purpose were the reasons why they sought coaching. These findings may suggest a contradiction in the reasons why organisations and individuals seek coaching services. Organisational commissioners want to see that coaching is contributing to the 'bottom line' and coachees want to see coaching contributing to their personal effectiveness. Leedham however argues that individual benefits do lead to improved business performance as the coachee becomes more empowered and skilled to achieve enhanced results for the organisation.

How organisations evaluate the impact of coaching on performance

Commissioners and coachees expect to see performance benefits of coaching, evaluating the impact of coaching then is an important part of demonstrating such benefits. Several surveys have been conducted to establish the extent to which organisations are evaluating their coaching programmes. For example, the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD, 2005) surveyed 29 UK organisations (including the BBC, Shell, Exeter City Council and the Surrey and Sussex Strategic Health Authority) to establish how they were evaluating the impact of coaching on performance. Eighty-nine per cent of organisations reported that they were asking for feedback from individual coachees; 75 per cent reported that they were asking for feedback from line managers of coachees; 32 per cent reported assessing changes in organisational performance, although it was not clear how they were doing this. A survey commissioned by the British Psychological Society (Scott-Jackson & Bourne, 2006) found that organisations appear to have 'faith' that coaching impacts performance, however, a significant number of the organisations do not formally assess the business benefits of such input relying simply on 'gut feeling'. Those organisations which did report assessing the benefits reported using manager/employee feedback, analysis of operational performance and analysis of HR data to gauge benefits. Similarly a more recent publication by the CIPD (2007) found that medium or long-term tracking of the organisational benefits of coaching is rare. It appears that organisations believe there is benefit to be gained from introducing coaching within their organisations and yet their attempts to evaluate the impact are not yet sufficiently robust or abundant to have established clear cut cause and effect or return on investment to add weight to their assumptions. It may be that resources, such as capacity, funding and capability prevent robust evaluation, both for organisations and coaching practitioners.

Empirical research demonstrating the impact of coaching on performance

Despite expectations of commissioners and coachees that coaching will impact performance and organisational attempts to demonstrate this impact, there are few published studies on the impact of coaching on performance and those that have appear to be mixed both in terms of quality, research design and method, as well as outcome measures used.

Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson (2001) reviewed the literature on executive coaching and found only seven empirical research papers. The studies utilised a variety of methods and the majority focused

on specific approaches to coaching, the developmental effects of coaching and professional opinions about coaching. Only two of the studies examined the effectiveness and impact of coaching on performance, one of these was a master's dissertation. In the six years since their review, there are still few published studies evaluating the impact of coaching on performance.

Hannah (2004) evaluated the impact of coaching on performance at work, specifically in terms of improvements in employee competence against NVQ Level 2 skills. This research reported an association between coaching and skill development. Yet the evidence that it was the coaching input specifically that improved skills was not clear; there were other factors involved which could have related to this improvement such as the introduction of a specifications manual. Libri and Kemp (2006) evaluated the impact of cognitive behavioural coaching on sales performance, core self-evaluation and global self-ratings of performance. This research also found a positive association between coaching and performance. However, their research design (within subject, single case study, with one coachee as a participant), did not enable them to make causal inferences; that coaching enhanced performance rather than vice versa.

Ponte et al. (2006) carried out in-depth interviews with four coachees and four coaches all working at a senior level either in healthcare organisations or consultancies. They list a number of specific performance benefits brought about by coaching such as improved ability to lead a team, a reduction in negative leadership behaviours such as dominating behaviour or a tendency to want things a certain way and enhanced presentation skills. Another, perhaps more robust example of research, is provided by Smither et al. (2003) who used a control group to assess the impact of one coaching session in conjunction with multi-source feedback on which to base their conclusions. However, the effect sizes were small; this could have been due to the fact that this was a feedback session rather than being designed as a 'pure' coaching session. It is clear that there is a greater need for control group comparisons to assess the direct impact of coaching on performance.

Empirical research evaluating the impact of coaching on performance is growing, however, studies that demonstrate a causal link between coaching and performance remain sparse. This difficulty is echoed in other areas of study such as evaluating the causal impact of human resource management (HRM) on performance. In a comprehensive literature review of HRM and performance, Hyde et al. (2006) found that much of the work in this area is cross sectional and therefore no cause and effect pattern can be found. Similar difficulties are faced when evaluating the impact of coaching on performance. For example a report published by the Association for Coaching (2004) found that most measures of coaching success are qualitative and subjective, for example, meeting goals set at the beginning of the programme, gaining feedback from others and 360 degree assessments.

There remains a dearth of published research which has evaluated the impact of coaching in organisations and within the extant literature there are evident limitations in terms of the methods used. These limitations are often difficult to overcome and could be due to the lack of time, finance and skills required by practitioners and organisations to undertake robust research despite the need to assess the quantitative impact of coaching on performance (Association for Coaching, 2004). However, this is a relatively new and evolving field and therefore, many published studies demonstrate an association between coaching and performance rather than a demonstration that coaching improves performance.

The current study

According to Waddell (2005, p.17) *'effective coaching focuses on growing a leader's ability to manage business challenges … and improve*

business performance by increasing leadership potential.' This paper presents an evaluative case study of the impact of coaching on individual/organisational performance and clients – in this case, the public. The study contributes further to the growing literature in this area by focusing specifically on the impact of coaching, using a mixed method approach. The aims of the study were to explore the impact of a coaching programme on: individual performance; organisational performance; the client base (the public).

Methods

The single case study approach

A single case study approach was used to assess the impact of coaching in a local government organisation for two main reasons. Firstly, Yin (1999) asserts that case studies are particularly relevant in research where systems are complex and organisations are in a 'high-flux state' (p.1209). This is often true in local government organisations which are influenced by the wider political arena and its associated policies and targets. Secondly, case studies can help to establish cause and effect chains by providing a means of theoretical generalisation (Yin, 1999). Because different people within a single organisation shape the multiple realities and cultures that exist in one organisation, capturing such multiple realities from people within a single organisation can demonstrate the perceived impact of coaching

Mixed methods

Quantitative surveys and qualitative interviews were used to measure the impact of coaching on the different levels of performance. Such mixed methods provide the opportunity to triangulate findings (Denzin, 1970) and add 'validity' to the research by assessing multiple realities in more than one way. They also offer the opportunity to capture multiple realities about the impact of coaching (via quantitative surveys) and multiple realities about the process by which coaching impacts performance (via qualitative interviews) in one study.

There were several pragmatic reasons for using surveys to capture the perceived impact of coaching on different types of performance. The clients are busy managers and conducting lengthy interviews with all of them was simply not possible. In order to capture as many perceptions of coaching impact as possible it was necessary to use a closed survey.

Semi-structured interviews add further depth and richness to the data. A semi-structured interview guide was used including open questions to frame the interviews and permit probing for additional information (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This enabled exploration of the impact of coaching on individual performance, organisational performance and the public. It also enabled exploration of how coaching had impacted each performance level. The semi-structured interviews were used as a means of producing codable data. All participants were guaranteed complete anonymity and their participation was voluntary.

The organisation and the coaching programme

The case study was conducted at Trafford Metropolitan Borough Council (Trafford MBC). Trafford MBC is one of the 10 metropolitan authorities covering the Greater Manchester area. It has a population of around 213,000 people and supports around 10,000 businesses. It has one of the best schools achievement records in the country and is a key driver of the region's economy, with Trafford Park, the biggest industrial park in Europe, within its boundaries. It has recently been judged as a three-star authority, 'improving strongly', according to the Audit Commission's (2008) annual assessment. The borough is also home to Manchester United Football Club and Lancashire County Cricket Club.

Thirty-six senior managers at Trafford MBC were offered coaching in conjunction with a leadership development programme which ran in parallel to the coaching

sessions. Each manager was offered five coaching sessions, each lasting two hours per session. The coaching was offered on a developmental basis within which coachees were free to discuss any issues impacting on their work based performance. In total 22 managers participated in four or five sessions over a six-month period with two additional managers taking up three sessions. A further six individuals presented for their first coaching session but decided at the end of that session that they would not continue with coaching either because they did not believe coaching was right for them, that the time was not right for them to undergo coaching or that they had no issues to focus on at the time. Therefore, a total of 24 managers participated in the current evaluation study. Three coaches carried out the coaching work, each using eclectic approaches to fit with individual client needs.

Participants

Of the 24 participants participating in three or more coaching sessions, 14 were male (58 per cent) and 10 female (42 per cent). Details of their job titles are not provided here in order to preserve anonymity but all were senior managers at Trafford MBC, such as Heads of Services or Directors.

Procedure

Participants were required to evaluate their experience in three ways. Survey one was designed to assess the impact of coaching and the leadership development programme on two aspects of leadership skills (interpersonal and task accomplishment). Survey two was designed to assess the impact of coaching on individual performance and the business benefits of coaching. The qualitative interviews were designed to evaluate the impact of coaching on individual/ organisational performance and the public.

Survey 1

The first survey was devised by personnel in the Organisational and Learning Development department and was designed to evaluate the impact of the combined leadership development training and coaching on individual leadership performance. The survey was sent through the internal mail to the participants on the leadership development programme (*N*=36) both prior to and after they had completed the programme. Responses were anonymous and were returned to the Organisational and Learning Development department. Twenty out of 36 participants returned their completed surveys pre-leadership development programme (55.5 per cent) and 13 out of 36 participants returned their completed surveys post-leadership development programme (36 per cent).

The survey was split into three sections.

Section 1 required participants to rate the impact of the leadership development training and coaching on their interpersonal relationship skills (working with others). Examples of the seven statements included in the interpersonal relationship skills section are: 'I elicit information and ideas by asking open ended questions' and 'I mediate for others, helping them find and reinforce the common ground on which solutions can be built and manage conflict effectively'.

Section 2 required participants to rate the impact of the leadership development training and coaching on their task accomplishment skills (getting the work done). Examples of the eleven statements included in the task accomplishment skills section include: 'I initiate ideas, actions, solutions and procedures' and 'I diagnose the sources of difficulties and attempt to facilitate positive outcomes'.

Participants were required to respond to the questions on a five-point Likert scale where1=low agreement and 5=high agreement.

Survey 2

The second survey was based on and developed from an existing survey available on the Association for Coaching website (www.associationforcoaching.co.uk) which was provided to coachees at the end of the

second coaching session by their coach (i.e., four hours of coaching). In order to protect coaching client confidentiality and anonymity, coachees were not asked to identify themselves on the survey and were provided with a pre-paid envelope so that they could return their completed surveys direct to one of the coaches. Twenty-one out of 24 coachees returned their completed evaluation form (response rate 87.5 per cent).

This survey was split into three sections.

Section 1 required the coachees to evaluate their coaches skills and abilities.

Section 2 required the coachees to evaluate the business benefits for Trafford MBC of the coaching.

Section 3 required the coachees to evaluate the individual benefits of the coaching (only sections two and three are referred to for the purposes of this paper).

Coachees were required to respond to the questions on a five-point Likert scale where 1=low agreement and 5=high agreement.

Semi-structured interviews

An opportunity sample was used for this study whereby all 24 coachees, as described above, were e-mailed with an outline of the purpose of the interviews and asked if they would be willing to take part. Confidentiality and anonymity was assured. Ten coachees (four male and six female) volunteered to be interviewed and at the time of their interviews they were provided with an information sheet outlining the research objectives and a consent form which they were asked to sign. Each interview lasted between 30 to 60 minutes. Briefly, the interview schedule included questions about the impact of the coaching on individual, organisational performance and their client base, in addition to questions about barriers and facilitators of the coaching process.

Analysis

The surveys were analysed using SPSS. Descriptive statistics were performed on the data from survey one to compare the means of the pre- and post- survey results. It was not possible to undertake a *t*-test to compare the pre- and post- results from this survey for a number of reasons. One reason was the small sample size and another was that a paired sample was not available as the questionnaires were returned anonymously and therefore it was not clear whether the same participants responded to the questionnaire at both time points.

In respect of survey two average response scores were collated.

The interviews were audio taped and transcribed. The interview analysis used a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Grounded theory is a methodology for developing theory that is grounded in data which is systematically gathered and analysed. The analysis was undertaken by one researcher but a second analysis of a smaller sample of the transcripts was undertaken by a second researcher to fulfil a need for inter-rater reliability. In addition, the interview transcripts were read by the interviewees, as well as a draft of this paper, so that any changes could be made which reflected interviewees' perspectives. The analysis followed the framework set out by Taylor and Bogdan (1984), which suggests several methods can be employed to enable the identification of themes and developing concepts. The data was coded and categorised in order to make meaning of the data. The data was then thematically analysed whereby emerging themes and sub-themes were drawn from the interview material.

Results

Survey 1

The results of survey one were analysed using means, standard deviation and range. Results are presented in Table 1.

A difference was found between time one and time two ratings of the differences in interpersonal relationship (T1 mean=3.41; T2 mean=3.89) and task accomplishment skills (T1 mean=3.47; T2 mean=3.99). Figures 1 and 2 show the total average comparison scores at time one and time two

Table 1: Means, standard deviations and ranges for Survey 1 at Time 1 and Time 2.

Time 1 Results (before leadership programme)		Time 2 Results (after leadership programme)	
Interpersonal relationship skills			
Mean	3.41	Mean	3.89
s.d.	0.217	s.d.	0.311
range	3.1 – 3.7	range	3.46 – 4.31
Task accomplishment skills			
Mean	3.47	Mean	3.99
s.d.	0.127	s.d.	0.179
Range	3.25 – 3.75	Range	3.77 – 4.23

Figure 1: Average comparison scores at Time 1 and Time 2 for relationship skills.

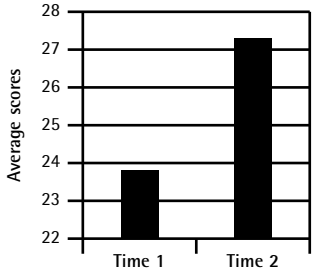
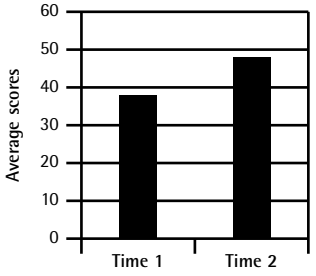


Figure 2: Average comparison scores at Time 1 and Time 2 for task accomplishnment skills.



of these differences, that is the average scores of the whole group of respondents. At time two the scores were higher for both scales, indicating improvements in the interpersonal and task accomplishment skills of participants.

Survey 2

The results from the coaching evaluation surveys were analysed in terms of average response rates. The results are divided into two sections. The first section outlines the perceived benefits to individuals to have been accrued by the coaching and the second section outlines the perceived business and organisational benefits of the coaching sessions.

Section 1: Perceived individual benefits of coaching

Figure three shows the perceived individual benefits of the coaching sessions (based on average scores (1=low, 5=high) across all three coaches).

Figure 3 illustrates how effective the coaching programme was at helping people to enhance individual performance. The scores ranged from 3.46 to 3.75, with an average of 3.62. Once more there is evidence of improved performance as a result of the coaching together with high scores for setting goals and targets, a crucial aspect of the coaching process. Lower scores were achieved for maximising learning opportunities and prioritising development needs.

Figure 3: Perceived individual benefits of coaching.

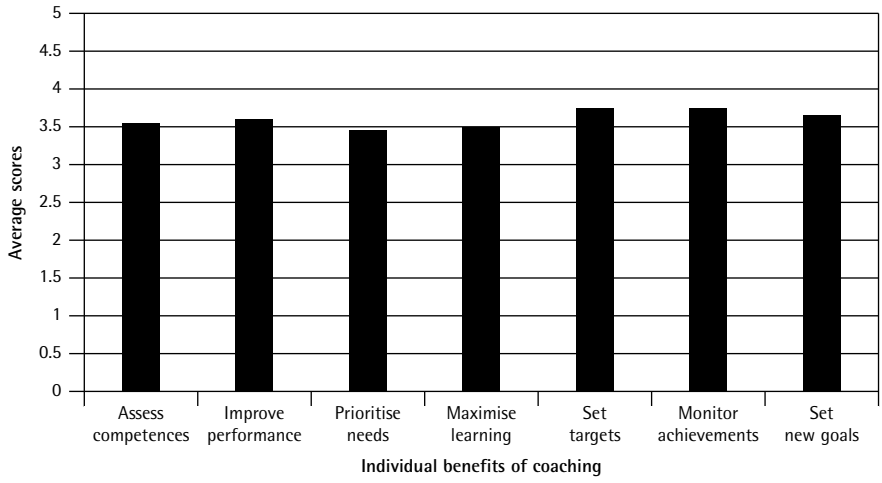
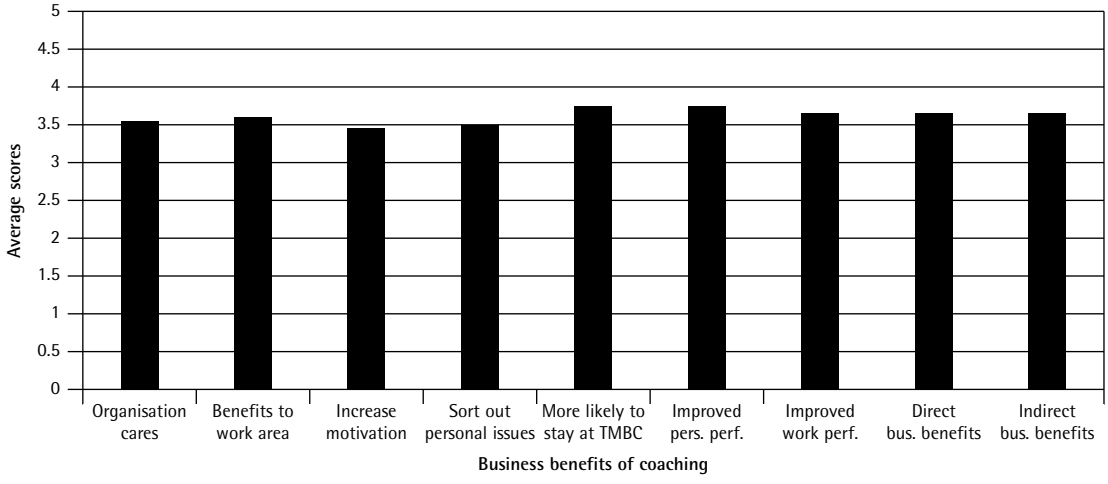


Figure 4: Perceived business benefits of coaching.



These results link to the second aim of this study and add weight to the premise that coaching impacts on individual performance of coachees.

Section 2: Perceived business benefits of coaching

Figure 4 shows the perceived business benefits of the coaching sessions (based on average scores (1=low, 5=high) across all three coaches).

Figure 4 shows that coaching makes a difference to work carried out in specific business areas, as well as personal and organisational performance. The scores ranged from 3.23 to 4.20, with an average of 3.70. In addition, the results demonstrate definite benefits to business and hence performance, providing evidence to support the third aim of the current study.

Overall, the quantitative data presented here demonstrates that coachees of the coaching programme perceive many business and individual benefits from participating in coaching. No score falls below the average of 3 and the vast majority are above 3.5. In fact, the overall average score is 4.07. These scores contribute to the growing evidence that coaching makes a difference to both individual and organisational performance.

Qualitative findings

The resulting themes from the thematic analysis, together with the accompanying sub-themes (theme one only), are outlined in Table 2 and then presented in further detail, with accompanying, representative quotations taken from the interview material afterwards.

Theme 1: Impact of coaching on individual and leadership performance

Seven sub-themes emerged within Theme 1, all of which are presented here. The first two (space and time for reflection and using the coach as sounding board) relate to the individual benefits accrued from participating in a coaching relationship. The following four sub-themes relate more to the individual benefits and resulting changes in behaviour and performance (increased self-confidence, career development, work-life balance and stress reduction and coaching as retention mechanism). Finally, the last sub-theme relates more specifically to leadership development and performance (change in leadership style). Overall, these findings relate to the first aim of the study which was to consider the impact of coaching on individual performance.

Space and time for reflection

All of the respondents talked about the value of coaching in terms of the space and time it provided for reflection, that is reflection both about themselves and their work or leadership style:

> *'Well my view is that the coaching sessions have provided some space within which I can, with the coach, do some reflection and forward planning around issues that are quite complicated.…'*

The value that this space for reflection provided, and the reassurance it gave to people that they were valued by the organisation was emphasised by several participants, particularly in the following quotation:

> *'I think it recognises that in order to perform effectively you need some space to think effectively about what you are doing … so it's making a very important symbolic statement*

Table 2: Themes emerging from the interview material.

Theme number	Theme	Sub-themes
1	Impact on individual and leadership performance	Space and time for reflection Using the coach as sounding board Increased self-confidence Career development Change in leadership style Work-life balance and stress reduction Coaching as retention mechanism
2	Impact on organisational performance	
3	Impact on the public	

that those activities are important and therefore they are necessary to carry out the work that we do…it gives legitimacy to thinking.'

One person talked about the thinking and reflection that continued in between coaching sessions and how cognitive changes led to behaviour change:

'… you don't just stop after two hours, you might think about that that evening or that week and then it's just sort of something that sticks in there but enough to spark something off and change my way of thinking really … your thinking changes and then you think 'right I'm not going to treat them like that'…'

Using the coach as a sounding board: Gaining an objective perspective and reassurance

People also valued the opportunity to discuss issues within this 'space' with someone who they believed was objective and not involved in the organisation, thus upholding the premise that an external coach in this instance was of value:

'I found it really helpful to have some structured time within that with somebody who is independent and in a sense is supporting me and responding to it, not in resolving the situation, but you know, helping me to manage it effectively…'

Linked to this was the perception that the coach was providing reassurance and reinforcement that the coachee was performing competently or professionally, something which they did not always feel able to gain from peers or other colleagues:

'… it's an independent to listen to that to say whether you were off the mark or actually whether there are glaringly any things you should be doing … So I got that reassurance that I wasn't doing anything totally off the mark.'

Increased self-confidence

Several interviewees commented on the increase in confidence they experienced as a result of the coaching input:

'So it was a confidence booster and you can overcome that psychological self-doubt and move on from there…'

Career development

The coaching sessions highlighted for some respondents what they needed to do to develop their career and identified when might be the right time for them to think about promotion or career changes in the future:

'In terms of my career development I know what I need to do now in terms of making that next step up to becoming a director and I'm thinking I'm more confident in the job I've got now but in order to break away from that I've got to make my mark and be seen to move towards the next level up.'

Work-life balance and stress reduction

Respondents often referred to the impact that changes to their work-life balance had had on their performance at work, which was a direct impact of the coaching intervention:

'One of my light bulb moments was work-life balance. When we first met I felt really pressured, taking work home, felt tired and hard done by and probably not performing particularly well…my coach kept pushing to the questions that I'd kind of been avoiding … from that moment I stopped taking my briefcase home with me and didn't do any work at home. I'm more focused now, when I'm at work I'm more calm, I'm not tired and I tend to come into work refreshed … far more productive … if I didn't have coaching I'd probably still be struggling…'

Some respondents also mentioned the reduction in stress they experienced as a result of coaching:

' I think my performance has improved an awful lot due to the coaching. I'm certainly a lot more calm, measured and certainly less stressed … we did spend a lot of time talking about how I could lessen the burden if you like because at the time I was whacking extremely long hours off, doing 14- to 16-hour days … you're not spending any time with your family and I was finding the job that I was doing extremely challenging and it really was affecting my moods an awful lot but … it's helped me to distinguish between the things

that I should be getting excited about and the things that are not actually in my control and a lot of what was stressing me …were all the things that were completely out of my control…'

Coaching as a retention mechanism

Two respondents stated that coaching had helped and enabled them to make the decision to remain in the organisation whilst without it they believed they may have left. In addition, these interviewees believed they were both more satisfied, happy and productive at work because of the work they had done as a result of the coaching and the way they had gone about making decisions with their coach:

' *… it has kept me in work and I think coaching is the difference between keeping me in work and dealing with the situation and carrying on as opposed to getting very upset, getting very angry and then either leaving period or leaving temporarily in terms of sickness, stress. It's helped me to reduce the stress and deal with a difficult situation and doing it assertively and doing it positively … with consequences for both self and organisation…'*

Changes in leadership style: Becoming more strategic and managing staffing/team issues

A number of respondents stated that one of the main ways they had changed in terms of their leadership style was becoming more strategic and moving away from becoming so embroiled in the operational, day to day aspects of their jobs:

'One of the main issues I talked through was about finding the time to be strategic in the future rather than being a trouble shooter … and as a consequence I've put my head above the parapet really and I've become more effective because you realise you're on a treadmill and it's about taking an approach of 'how do I stop the fire fighting?' … before it was just react, react, react and I suppose I feel more comfortable you know at a higher level of leadership really, really making things happen rather than this reactive thing.'

Others talked about the way coaching had helped them to manage staffing and team development issues more effectively and successfully:

'… another issue was how I developed my team … some of it was around individual issues … but more of it was around 'how do I engage them better'? And using processes that help them and me become part of a team. I feel there is more of a team ethos now … so I've thought about how can my team be a team not just a set of people.'

Theme 2: Impact on organisational performance

This theme relates to the aim of this study which was concerned with assessing the impact of coaching on organisational performance.

The majority of the respondents asserted that the impact on organisational performance which directly derived from their coaching experiences was related to the improved performance of their teams due to changes in their own behaviour brought about by the coaching:

'Getting the most from yourself and your own teams then cascades its way through the organisation'.

'… I think the benefit I had from coaching was not going along with the same old thing … but sitting back and thinking, no I'm going to change that and they're not just my ideas they're ideas from the group and I'm quite optimistic about that because I think that will change performance. Perhaps in the past I wouldn't have had that mentality.'

Theme 3: Impact on the public

Finally, this theme links to the final aim of the study which was to consider the impact of coaching on the public, the organisational clients of Trafford MBC.

Although not working directly with the public the majority of respondents perceived that coaching led, either directly or indirectly to improved services for the public:

'I think coaching is about improving the performance of individuals, which I think improves the performance of either teams

and/or the organisation, which in turn impacts on better services and greater public satisfaction.'

As with the impact on organisational performance, individuals believed that this impact cascaded down from changes in their own behaviour which included relinquishing control, taking on a different leadership style:

'I think it goes back to the services I manage provide key public services and if they're not performing properly then that obviously impacts directly and indirectly … one of the barriers to implementing those services was the management of the service and the coaching has helped to enable me to nail that and to make sure we've got a way forward … I've had to assume more directive leadership during the last six months and because of that we're turning the corner and during the coaching process I stepped back and stepped forward again and each time I stepped back the performance dipped again so I have a very clear audit trail that shows that it improves when it's got good leadership'

One respondent talked about the impact on local partners and other organisations that their department works with:

'It is a good feeling when you get the MD from … phoning up and saying we've got a problem, we don't think it's very good, can we get someone from Trafford to have a look at it. That is starting to show that we are starting to make a difference.'

Only one respondent perceived that coaching had not had any impact on the public:

'I don't think it has filtered down to stakeholders, customers or clients at all.'

Discussion

The results of the analyses in relation to the aims of the current study demonstrate impacts over all three areas evaluated, that is, the impact of coaching on: individual performance, organisational performance and the public. The results indicate that participants perceived that their interpersonal and task accomplishment skills were enhanced when measured post-intervention. Therefore, subsequent to the leadership development programme and coaching input, individuals appeared to rate their own task accomplishment and interpersonal skills higher than before their participation in these events. This finding demonstrates that coaching and other developmental input did have an impact on individual performance in this case and suggests that coaching significantly influences some of the major factors contributing to leadership effectiveness.

In addition, direct and indirect business benefits were believed to have been demonstrated as a direct result of coaching, as well as individual benefits such as improved individual performance, the ability to monitor achievements and goal setting. These findings offer further support to some of the existing literature presented earlier in this paper, which demonstrates similar results (e.g. Hannah, 2004; Libri & Kemp, 2006; Ponte et al., 2006; Smither et al., 2003).

Of particular interest in relation to survey two is the high score relating to the statement: 'the provision of coaching demonstrates to me that this organisation cares about my development.' This was also an emerging theme within the qualitative material where people responded without prompt in this respect, stating that they felt valued by the organisation because the organisation had provided coaching for them and fulfilled developmental needs, thus the organisation's values provided a fit with their own individual values. There is a body of research which demonstrates that feeling valued by the organisation, and finding a fit between individual and organisational values (thus increasing affective commitment), can have a significant impact on employees and their performance (see Sparrow & Cooper, 2003). For some this factor outweighs the monetary benefits attached to work (e.g. see White & Mackenzie-Davey, 2003). Therefore, coaching and other developmental interventions are likely to be a cost effective means for organisations to influence well being and performance in staff.

Lower average scores were achieved for the individual benefits of coaching for maximising learning opportunities and prioritising development needs. This could be because it was too early in the coaching process to assess these factors, or that coachees could not see at this stage how they were learning; this can often occur for people weeks or months after a learning event has taken place, particularly if individuals are learning about a number of different concepts and gaining experience about those concepts back in the workplace (see Reece & Walker, 1997).

The relationship between coach and coachee, including the importance of an independent feedback mechanism via the coach, has been shown to impact on the outcomes and resulting performance of coachees (e.g. see Kilburg, 1996). The coaching process therefore provides knowledge about how coaching impacts on performance. Similar to Hardingham (2004) and the Association for Coaching (2004), using the coach as a sounding board was reported as an important use of coaching for participants in this study, as was gaining feedback about their behaviour. Hardingham (2004) asserts that when people are ready for change or are attempting to change, they often need someone 'independent' who will listen and respond appropriately as they talk through their ideas and possible courses of action. Sometimes that is 'all' the coach does but the importance of this coaching role requires tough discipline and is deceptively difficult as the coach needs to refrain from becoming a critic or thinking that they know what the coachee should do. This need for an 'independent' outsider was emphasised within the qualitative findings here, something which is not always a possibility within organisations due to the competitive nature of senior managers or lack of confidence in one's own ability.

Increased self-confidence appears to be a common outcome of coaching interventions, according to some of the literature (e.g. CIPD, 2005; Leedham, 2005) and it was a prominent theme resulting from the interviews in this study. This boost to confidence appeared to emanate, at least in part, from the reinforcement and feedback received from the coach that what the coachees were doing was competent and valuable. The role of feedback, particularly positive feedback and reinforcement helps people to learn to play to their strengths. The importance of building on strengths and positive behaviours rather than weaknesses is acknowledged increasingly in the literature but within organisations there is still a tendency to focus on weaknesses (see Linley and Harrington, 2006). This need to self-actualise derives originally from Horney (1951) and the person centred theory of Carl Rogers (1959). Because organisations tend to focus on weaknesses, people often lose sight of what their strengths are and coaching can act to redress this imbalance. However, when strengths are reinforced, people ultimately feel good about themselves (Linley and Harrington, 2006) and therefore, presumably more confident. According to Gyllensten and Palmer (2006) improved confidence levels also lead to a reduction in stress levels and increased feelings of well being, these were other outcomes experienced by participants in the current study.

Addressing work-life balance and issues around work-family conflict (WFC) had a significant impact on individuals and linked to self-perceptions of more productive behaviour, together with enhanced well-being. Previous research has found that as WFC increases, job satisfaction and organisational commitment decrease and turnover and intention to leave the organisation increase (Allen et al, 2000; Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007). In addition, employee well being suffers as a consequence of increased WFC which results in mental health issues (Frone, 2000). The benefits, therefore, of addressing this issue during coaching sessions are obvious and further research which specifically focuses on WFC and coaching would be useful.

Respondents talked about taking on a more strategic leadership style as opposed to being more operational. This finding indicates that participants were perhaps moving from a transactional type of leadership to a transformational approach, the latter being viewed more positively. A transactional style would not involve changes to work methods or approaches to staff, including staff involvement or delegation whereas a transformational style would involve the creation of structures or mechanisms that inspire and encourage the required actions, results and changes from employees. In other words, the latter would involve more employee involvement and hence delegation. According to Zeus and Skiffington (2000), one of the goals of coaching is to develop and enhance these transformational skills.

As stated previously, the coaching was offered on a developmental basis within which coachees were free to discuss any issues impacting on their work based performance. It may be interesting, in the future, to assess whether a different 'contract' with the organisation, whereby coachees were asked to focus on improvements to personal effectiveness, team effectiveness and performance, improvements to organisational performance and improving the impact on the public, would deliver different, and more simple to measure outcomes. The latter area (impact on the public) is extremely important in the public sector and further research which might include the public as participants could help to build a clearer picture in this regard.

Both the qualitative and quantitative responses in relation to the impact that coaching has on organisational performance and organisational clients are positive, indicating that coaching does have direct business benefits and does impact on the public. The interview data demonstrates that coachees perceive that the benefits accruing to the organisation and the public emanate from changes to their own individual behaviours which cascade down to their teams and hence alter organisational performance. There have been few studies that have considered the impact of coaching on organisational performance (see Sparrow, 2007) and none were found on the impact of coaching on clients. It is interesting to note that the Council recently received a judgement of 'improving strongly' from the Audit Commission (2008) and more specifically that the Council is doing a good job at making a difference for the communities of Trafford, particularly in terms of narrowing the gap between the advantaged and disadvantaged. The report also identifies improvements in the leadership of the Council and again, coaching could have contributed to these changes also. Therefore, something has occurred at Trafford MBC which has influenced this outcome and coaching may have contributed to this difference. It is clear that more research is required in this area, particularly return on investment studies and links between the impact of coaching on customers or clients. However, there are difficult methodological issues to overcome in this regard as it is difficult to isolate the effects of coaching from other factors which might impact on organisational performance or clients. Even when using control groups it would be difficult to measure this impact.

Methodological implications and future research

There are many ways to assess the impact of coaching on performance. Qualitative methods enable a depth of understanding into 'how' coaching impacts on performance. Quantitative methods enable the tracking of behaviour changes and impacts on performance. The current study used a mixed method approach to assess these impacts. It should be noted however that the sample size, particularly for the quantitative parts of the study was relatively small. Future research needs to use both larger sample sizes and could also be enhanced by the use of a control group to compare impact of coaching, together with other outcome

measures such as leadership style, emotional intelligence, stress and so on. In addition, using others perceptions as opposed to self-perception only, by means of a 360 degree feedback process would also enhance findings. The impact of coaching on the public is also a problematic methodological issue as it is difficult to find causal effect. However, future research could also use the public in its sample base to enhance the knowledge base in this area.

Conclusion

Coaching is perceived to impact individual and organisational performance. Enabling employees to access coaching can lead to enhanced well being and performance, both for individuals and the organisation. However, further research assessing the impact of coaching is required, particularly research which attempts to address the methodological issues involved in such evaluative studies. Coaching psychology is a relatively new area of study but there is a clear need for research as it would benefit the coaching community, in terms of reputation, as well as organisations who would then have an evidence based which would recognise the cost and talent management benefits of coaching on their workforces.

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