

**ALIGNING
ORGANISATIONAL COACHING
WITH
LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

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ABSTRACT

This case study investigated ways in which a coaching culture can improve organisational effectiveness and had six objectives: (i) explore the view that coaching in the workplace, supported by a strategic coaching framework, is an effective means of enhancing employee engagement and performance; (ii) identify key characteristics and barriers to building a management coaching capability able to deliver an improved quality of performance in the workplace; (iii) develop a model of conducive attributes, initiatives and management capabilities that enhance coaching effectiveness; (iv) understand the nature of coaching within an organisation; (v) establish the most effective ways in which coaching can achieve an improved quality of performance and (vi) evaluate the effect of a 'strategic coaching approach' on engagement and individual performance.

The research study was primarily based on data obtained from a UK building society. A multiple methodological approach utilising data gathered from surveys, interviews and discussion groups was designed to reflect the organisational nature of the research, the views of the participants and to facilitate learning which may be transferable to similar organisational contexts.

This research study was undertaken over a seven year period, to enable contextualisation of the research activity within a realistic corporate planning cycle. The research time span resulted in the research stance undergoing two stages of evolution/perspective; from employee/researcher with an 'insider' understanding; to the position of researcher with an 'ex-insider/outsider' perspective, the researcher having left the organisation before the research was completed. Many participants also contributed to the research from both perspectives since their career paths followed similar trajectories.

The longitudinal nature of the study combined with the 'insider/outsider' research stance has highlighted new insights into evidence-based learning providing an enhanced understanding of culture, leadership, management skills and performance in an organisational coaching context and which evidenced that organisational coaching

has the potential to increase statistically significantly both employee engagement and performance. In doing so the thesis challenges the skills driven competency paradigm (often utilised singularly in organisations with the aim of achieving immediate behavioural change) and argues that an ambitious, holistic approach encompassing a range of organisational driven interventions focused on leadership development acknowledging the importance of emotional intelligence, employee engagement, HR alignment, evaluation and continuous improvement is needed to achieve a sustainable coaching culture and the related performance benefits.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Preamble

Coaching has become increasingly popular since the late 1990s as organisations and their workforces have had to cope with the challenge of a changing and increasingly complex workplace. The use and utilisation of coaching within the workplace has taken many forms over the past few years, yet despite the onward march of coaching through the ranks of myriad organisations there remains a knowledge gap in terms of the key elements of effective coaching within organisations. This research study considers the role of coaching within an organisational context in terms of culture, leadership, management skills and performance. There are six objectives, namely to (i) explore the view that coaching in the workplace, supported by a 'strategic coaching framework', is an effective means of enhancing employee engagement and performance; (ii) identify any critical key characteristics and/or barriers to building a managerial coaching capability; (iii) develop a model of conducive attributes, initiatives and management capabilities that enhance coaching effectiveness; (iv) understand the nature of coaching within an organisation; (v) establish the most effective ways in which coaching can achieve an improved quality of performance and (vi) evaluate the effect of a 'strategic coaching approach' on engagement and performance.

The central focus of the research is to better understand the nature of coaching within an organisation and, in doing so, to establish the most effective ways in which coaching can achieve an improved quality of performance. In summary, the research seeks to evaluate the effect on employee engagement and performance of a strategic coaching approach and to identify the key characteristics of successful coaching interventions.

The thesis commences with an introduction which sets out the general background to the research work highlighting the key structural elements of the literature review, including an overview of the organisational case study context. The broad nature of

coaching created a high potential for exploration of multiple threads of research across a wide spectrum and against this background the aims and objectives of the research were critical to identifying key emergent themes within the literature review. The list of personal development and other related categories which link to coaching are innumerable and the concept of direction of fit (Anscombe, 1957) offered a challenging backdrop by which to consider intentions and beliefs in order to develop the literature review and achieve an open, challenging and free thinking exploratory style within a robust research framework. As such, the literature review explores those key elements that relate to organisational culture, leadership, management skills and performance, whilst firstly considering the historical context of coaching in settings other than business. To not follow a thread of research which whilst not linked directly to organisational coaching at its conception, in turn played a significant part in the development of such coaching applications, as in the case of Gallwey (1986), would endanger enlightenment of the research enquiry. Similarly to not acknowledge that coaching is intertwined with a host of other personal development interventions, which may or may not be labelled for the convenience and understanding of those practitioners or students who use or study such methods and many of which have been practised at a higher incidence within business environments, would arguably produce a formalised and constraining research approach not conducive to effective research work.

The case study approach provides the setting for the focus on coaching within the workplace and the particular characteristics of the organisational setting are summarised so as to provide initial background information on the arena of the research fieldwork. A balance within the literature review process was therefore sought to acknowledge the interdisciplinary nature of the research and ensure an understanding of coaching in a workplace setting through a review of leadership, organisational development and culture, business practice, professional development, personal skills and attributes and coaching models and concepts, all from the perspective of a coaching context. The content of the literature review includes published work that informed the research up to the commencement of, and during, the final review phase during 2010.

The methodology chapter provides a rationale for the research framework and sets out the process. The use of a multi methodology combining positivist and phenomenological methods to achieve triangulation is explained in terms of the research 'fit' to an organisational case study. The methodology recognised that the case study environment placed an emphasis on quantitative outcomes in terms of the organisation's language construction which was based around the prevailing dominant logic (Prahalad and Bettis, 1986), centring on the key organisational goals. In doing so an incomplete insight is arguably created due to a one-view mentality and to counter this an interpretive approach was adopted to capture the personal experiences of research participants (Fitzgerald and Howcroft, 1998) and enable a greater understanding of the coaching process and relationships involved, as well as the impact of the background environment, culture and leadership behaviour. A realist approach acknowledged the way in which the quantitative data was gathered yet recognised the complexity of the case study environment and the involvement of the researcher within the organisation and therefore potential for bias and subjectivity in the collection and interpretation of data and information. The interpretive nature of these factors enriched the ethical framework which was developed to acknowledge these factors as well as recognise the multiple perspectives, rather than a single reality, within the case study environment (Guba and Lincoln, 1994)

The analysis of data emanating from the various research techniques, covering surveys, interviews and discussion groups, are considered within the next chapter, to establish patterns, trends and insights of knowledge. The data from several surveys of the employees of the case study organisation is added to by discussion groups and interviews of a pool of employees, both from the perspective of a manager as a coach as well as the perspective of a subordinate as a coachee. The longitudinal nature of the research facilitated the development of an approach based on contextualism (Denzin, 1978) enabling organisational and behavioural change to be gauged over a period of time, within an historical context. The changing nature of organisational life created an opportunity to capture views from research participants who, during the period of the research, left the case study organisation and so provided research input from both an 'insider' and 'outsider' perspective (Bartunek and Louis, 1996). The multiple strands of the central research framework captured a manifold number of insights from different perspectives and enabled conclusions to be developed about the nature of,

and desirable strategies for, coaching within an organisational context, in terms of culture, leadership, management skills and attributes and performance.

The next chapter enabled a discussion of the key findings of the research in the context of other research studies as well as the limitations of the research work. The concluding chapter provides an overview of the research content, reviews the evaluative process and considers the key themes of the thesis. From the research findings a route map or model of deployment is developed to support the introduction of effective and impactful coaching activity within an organisational context. The epistemological core of the research is reconsidered and final conclusions are presented, together with a contextual view of the findings in relation to previous work and suggestions for future research work that would offer the potential to build upon the knowledge gained.

1.2 An Overview of the Context of the Research

The context of the research is the use of coaching in the workplace to support the management of change and the delivery of higher performance through the transformation of organisational culture. This has involved consideration of the use of systemic approaches to organisational change as well as cultural change around human behaviour in the creation and implementation of organisational change plans.

Coaching is seen in some commercial quarters as a way of releasing individual potential to effect changes in the workplace through empowering and motivating employees. The potential of coaching in the workplace to improve employee performance has therefore generated increasing interest in recent years, not just in terms of behavioural change but for other reasons such as employee performance development. Using the search engine Google to trawl the worldwide web in 2010 the term 'coaching' produced 53,700,000 hits (interestingly a search on the same search engine in 2003 revealed 48,600,000 hits for 'coaching'). The interest generated by coaching has far outstripped the current interest in mentoring, which again in 2010 produced 12,800,000 hits. The term 'business coaching' produced 19,600,000 hits (1,860,000 hits in 2009), 'workplace coaching' 667,000 hits (15,600 hits in 2009) and

'organisational/organizational coaching' 468,000 hits (21,540 hits in 2009). It is the latter two terms that this piece of research considers; an area that has begun to attract interest from a broad spectrum of people in commerce, business and academic circles, many of whom have an interest in exploring the strategic application of coaching in macro as well as micro terms, thus linking to organisational culture and leadership style and by the nature of the changes required to respond to social and economic conditions.

Empirical research on managerial coaching in the workplace has been historically low and as stated by Yukl (1994); 'Empirical research on the effects of coaching by managers is still very limited' (p.125). However the commercial and educative interest in the potential of coaching strategies has generated increasing academic interest and debate in recent years with published peer review research on coaching having escalated considerably since the mid 1990s (Grant, 2003a). However the majority of empirical investigations researched to date have not been based on specific corporate case studies but rather uncontrolled group studies, over short periods of time. These broader research approaches have made it difficult to identify benefits due to the research covering a range of individuals and/or organisations, not linked in any strategic or structured way, and often involving relatively short time periods that are not conducive to measuring organisational and/or personal change.

Whilst there is undoubtedly a growing body of evidence-based knowledge about organisational coaching, research arguably remains in its infancy, and although there is some measure of empirical support for the effectiveness of organisational coaching (Ellinger, Hamlin and Beattie, 2008), there is a requirement for more systematic empirical research (Grant, 2002) and of particular relevance to this research study any links between line managers' coaching behaviours and employee satisfaction and performance (Ellinger, Ellinger and Keller, 2003). Consideration of this potential gap in research knowledge supported those research objectives which sought to explore whether coaching is an effective means of enhancing employee engagement and performance and facilitated the development of a central research question that is 'does coaching offer organisations a sustainable management approach to improve the quality of employee engagement and performance?' The development of an organisational-wide coaching approach is explored in terms of the reaction of managers to the case study organisation's adoption of a participative, and at times a

non-directive, coaching approach/style to managing and leading. This then required consideration of a further key research question that is 'how best can a coaching style and approach facilitate the achievement of organisational goals through the development of employee potential?' Whilst many organisations have accepted the tenet that a leadership/management coaching style can impact positively on employee performance, there is arguably very little evidence of practice to draw on in terms of developing and implementing such approaches.

The contextual nature of the research therefore relates to organisational coaching as a corporate strategy designed to maximise the potential of a workforce and, within an historical perspective, this stance could be argued as part of the search for a successful management formula for business success. This has led to management theory being part of a major academic industry based on a continuing output of new tenets of groundbreaking management principles or short-lived fads, dependent on the academic and practitioner viewpoint at a particular point in time. Re-engineering, total quality, downsizing, management by walking around, centralisation and decentralisation have all been fashionable as change trailblazers in academic and corporate circles before slipping into mid-life obscurity (Micklethwaite and Wooldridge, 1996). An example of this is a research project based on excellent companies undertaken in the 1970s by Peters and Waterman (1982) which identified best principles adopted by successful companies and this work was followed up by Peters and Austin (1985) with a similar theme of excellence, this time with an emphasis on best practice leadership principles. Even by the time the books were being read in large numbers, many of the companies were beginning to lose their winning-edge as profits began to slide. Some would argue that such approaches developed by business gurus are insubstantial as most rely very little, if at all, on evidence-based research and robust academic work. Organisational coaching, as a relatively recent arrival, is still in its ascendancy. How long the progressive curve lasts, will arguably depend largely on the quality of the evidence-based research available to sustain the ever increasing corporate spend on coaching strategies and related management development. This was the kernel of the research quest to understand the nature of coaching within an organisation and in doing so to identify and explore the characteristics and inputs necessary for coaching to achieve a favourable impact on organisational culture and performance.

Coaching has seen a remarkable growth in recent years and is now an often used word in the dictionary of business executives. Popular news coverage has regularly highlighted this interest with coaching often being reported, during the 2000s as the next big thing (Sunday Telegraph, 2003). Bryce (2002) has even published a best-selling novel based on an executive coach, which sets out coaching approaches against a fictitious business background. Tellingly the growth in coaching has appeared at a time when sociological change has transformed the nature of our environment in terms of family relationships, religious beliefs and job security. All of these factors have created social pressures which to a varying extent have impacted on employee performance, whether physically through time and resource constraints or emotionally and mentally via stress. The term work/life balance is now a standard inclusion in most HR strategies. The phrase 'work to live' rather than 'live to work' is regularly mentioned by employees in workplaces and the newer generations of workers feel less comfortable with the concept of systemised working, preferring a more flexible working policy enabling them to work variable hours and at different locations, including their homes.

Increasingly, organisations are adopting a view that an employee's performance is affected by many issues, some of these issues being outside of the workplace and coaching, partly due to its emphasis on individual ownership and consensus, has moved to the forefront of leadership techniques in response to this realisation, encouraging as it does self reliance and personal responsibility. In recent years some organisations have set out to implement organisational coaching programmes and in doing so have integrated coaching into the fabric of their management behavioural patterns. An example, albeit a radical one, of a leadership coaching style being lived in the workplace is Semco (Semler, 1993), often referred to at the time as the world's most unusual workplace, where staff took on many of the management's duties including making decisions previously made by their managers and agreeing their own targets. However such examples are rare and whilst coaching is becoming an increasing feature of corporate management development programmes, these are often 'ad hoc' corporate affairs, sometimes loosely aligned to the leadership message, rather than sustainable leadership behavioural strategies emanating from an assessment of corporate values and beliefs. The literature review of this research sought to establish evidence of robust organisational coaching programmes being undertaken as an

accepted management method. The use of formal accreditation or benchmarking to external 'best practice' standards can appear to be at best patchy and sporadic with organisations differentiating between management behaviours designed to develop the potential of employees; for example, mentoring is often closely associated with coaching.

The use of both coaching and mentoring interventions by managers, often within one or a series of employee development sessions, could be viewed as a regular feature of the development of coaching within an organisation, yet differentiating between the two, or sometimes more, interventions is arguably a challenge to the practice of effective management coaching behaviours. There is potential to create an inclusive style, through the application of multiple development approaches based on an increasing awareness of knowledge of these areas and self. It is argued by MacLennan (1999) that coaching and mentoring approaches, when brought together in an appropriate way by self-aware and skilled managers through a combined process, offer high potential for employee development. The relationship between coaching and mentoring, including techniques based on similarities and differences, was later developed by Garvey, Stokes and Megginson (2008) and Clutterbuck and Megginson (2004, 2009)

The use of coaching within organisational change plans has become more prevalent as work places become increasingly complex, both in terms of technology, knowledge and social behaviour. Coaching by the nature of its reason for use and the questioning approach employed could be considered as a way of effecting change in some way. The application of coaching techniques in creating change, linking an analysis of the current situation with a vision of the future and identifying skills to get there, could be the reason for some organisations and their managers being attracted to coaching over recent years. Other approaches, such as counselling and mentoring, have been used in the workplace over a longer time period to help individuals to change (Egan, 1998). Whilst these techniques have been used more intensely over a longer period of time than coaching, the latter development approach has seen an exponential increase in workplace application. There are differing views as to the reasons for such an increase and some are linked to the impact of social change, including the changing profile of workforces which, at the very least, leads to consideration of the effectiveness of

traditional management styles. Organisations have sought to adapt to such changes in many ways; by changing technology, systems and processes and by seeking to affect the behaviours of their employees. It is in these behavioural areas that coaching has provided a different perspective for understanding and affecting organisational processes and employee behaviour.

The coaching role, in the context of leadership and management, is set against a background of emerging workplace landscapes that are often based on flatter structures and which emphasise employee involvement and promote wider decision making outside of the traditional management hierarchy. These new working environments are demanding a different way of managing which requires managers to be more participative and to develop a 'player coach' style, that is, working within the team ('on the pitch') as well as leading, motivating and coaching team members ('off the pitch'). These various pressures have led organisations to develop ways in which to manage change in all its forms and, as such, many are realising that the key ingredient is management and leadership behaviour.

The source of the case study research approach is one such organisation, a UK building society, which had set out an organisational change plan designed to increase efficiency and improve performance. The desire to effect organisational change required more than a revision of systems and processes but also employee behavioural change to take advantage of the growth in the financial services sector. At the outset of the research programme the case study organisation relied on traditional methods of training, in a limited framework of delivery, in part due to corporate culture, management skill levels and budgetary constraints. Training was often seen as a drain on resources and not linked to business targets or goals. The desire to achieve 'stretching' performance levels created an opportunity for the organisation to develop, support and implement an organisational coaching programme proposal which focused on developing managers and staff through an organisational coaching framework, which included approaches not generally implemented within the commercial sector at that time.

1.3 The Case Study

The case study component of the research programme is based on the creation, development and implementation of a leadership coaching programme at an organisation which operates in the UK financial services sector. For four years of the seven year research study (2002-2006) the researcher was employed by the organisation in an executive capacity, thus providing a dual view of the research from three perspectives: (i) an employee perspective in the pre-research period, (ii) a researcher/employee perspective during the first four years of the research, and (iii) a researcher/ex-employee perspective during the final three year period of the research study (2006-2009). The different 'insider' and 'outsider' perspectives (Bartunek and Louis, 1996) are discussed in the chapter on research methodology but, at this stage, it is worthy of mention to highlight both the challenge and opportunity that was introduced in equal measure through this situation and, in turn, the set of conditions that existed for the development of an unusual and original, if not unique, research project involving different research perspectives – a longitudinal approach within an action research framework set in a case study context.

The linking of an academic research study and a 'live' business initiative created the opportunity to achieve organisational change through evidence-based approaches similar in nature to the collaborative HRD Professional Partnership, a joint academic and practitioner partnership approach undertaken by Hamlin and Cooper (2004). The action research methodology enabled the case study organisation to gain benefits on an ongoing basis over the research period rather than at the end of the research programme. The financial services sector has, in recent years, seen major changes in terms of services, products and government regulation, driven by a growing demand for financial services and increasing customer expectations. Within this challenging and potentially profitable marketplace the case study organisation, in 2000, sought to achieve a corporate strategic plan that would transform its financial performance. To achieve this the Chief Executive identified the need for a new style of leadership, which in turn resulted in the development of a leadership framework which required the management team to learn new behaviours and skills based on a participative leadership approach. From this position, through a series of management and employee discussion groups, grew a transformational leadership coaching model

which represented the most appropriate leadership style for the embedding of the organisation's values and the achievement of the corporate plan. This transformational coaching model was created, developed, implemented and continuously improved throughout the period of the research programme utilising several supportive and aligned strategies which were designed to maintain the momentum of the leadership coaching programme, for example, ongoing coaching skills training, internal accreditation, coaching newsletters, master classes, recognition events and coaching using the telephone.

The development and implementation of the coaching programme was set against a wider background of regular reports of corporate coaching programmes not delivering evidenced value with clear measurable outcomes. Therefore the development of the research questions provided an immediate input and impetus to the new coaching programme. The development of coaching within organisations, in line with many other developmental interventions, is sometimes based on 'acts of faith' developed and promoted by internal and external coaching advocates. The position at the case study organisation was no different at the outset of the coaching programme. When the question 'Does coaching work?' is asked, the answer very often excludes the context, constraints and specific, detailed objectives and linked outputs. What was different about the coaching programme at the case study organisation was the research context, which enabled learning to be integrated into the fabric of the programme and provided ongoing assessment of progress both in performance and cultural terms. This action learning approach produced additional research questions that would assist organisations contemplating a coaching approach or evaluating their present coaching activities and these included: (i) 'Can coaching achieve what other forms of learning and development fail to?' (ii) 'What is the purpose and objectives of the coaching programme?' (iii) 'How will the coaching activity be measured?' and (iv) 'What will coaching deliver to the organisation and its employees and customers?'

By identifying and responding to such questions the research sought to understand the nature and true picture of coaching activities in the workplace, and establish the reality in terms of the value that coaching offers organisations. Additionally, this approach set out to discover if the coaching activities identified were specific transformational coaching behaviours, approaches and frameworks which promoted employee

engagement and commitment as well as improved the quality of performance within the organisational context.

The expected outcomes of the research process were a comprehensive view of the origins of organisational coaching via the literature review; a deeper insight into the links between mentoring, facilitation and coaching; identification of critical coaching skills and competences in the workplace and ways in which coaching may develop.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This study sets out to explore the role of coaching in the workplace within the context of managers coaching their employee reports, with specific emphasis on the enhancement of employee engagement and individual organisational performance. The recurring themes of the study are: the contested concepts of coaching and its relationship with/to other personal development interventions; the implications of introducing coaching into the workplace; the impact of coaching on the role of the manager; the resulting change in management capability requirements in terms of knowledge, skills and emotional awareness and the influence of organisational culture on coaching effectiveness.

A major part of this study has been to develop a critical literature review to enable the development of a research framework. Literature between 1937 and the 1960s mainly involved descriptive reports of managers coaching employees in workplaces and from this point more rigorous work started to emerge based on organisational coaching. Even noting this increase in academic interest there is still relatively little research available. The first peer-reviewed paper was published in 1937 (Gorby, 1937). Between 1937 and 1999 only 93 peer reviewed and doctoral research papers were published. From 2000 the level of peer reviewed and doctoral research increased with 121 papers or PhD dissertations dated between 2000 and 2004, many of these relating to the role of the professional coach rather than the coaching of employees in the workplace. A further increase occurred from 2005 to 2007 with 141 papers, making a total of 355. PhD research accounted for 58 papers, with 42 of these being since 2000. However, despite the relative increase in activity, there remains relatively little academic research about the effectiveness of coaching in the workplace with less than half of the 355 papers being empirical studies and the majority of these were not based on specific workplace situations rather uncontrolled group studies. Case study outcome approaches total only 23 with 12 of these being undertaken since 2005 (Grant, 2003a; Grant, 2007). Grant emphasised the need for coaching-specific

frameworks including integrative models of psychopathology, well-being and goal attainment. This research provides a valuable opportunity to forward the evidence-based learning approach in the organisational coaching field linking, as it does, to related themes such as the psychology of leadership and management approaches, employee engagement and performance related outcomes.

The literature review also embraced wider publications than peer reviewed press to ensure a comprehensive approach was adopted and emerging developments were identified. The literature review investigated the origins and definitions of modern day organisational coaching identifying the history and evolution of coaching in the workplace, from the widely-recognised emergence of organisational coaching (Hamlin, Ellinger and Beattie, 2008), which it could be argued commenced in the 1980s, to the popularisation of coaching within organisations some 20 years later, unpicking the threads between coaching and other related disciplines such as mentoring. The development of leadership theory is considered as a background to the emergence of coaching approaches, together with the influence of coaching developments in a sporting context and its impact on, and relevance to, organisational coaching and the development of professional standards.

From this base of knowledge the review focused on the nature and development of organisational coaching from an academic and practitioner perspective covering research-based knowledge, organisational learning strategies, organisational case studies, the applications of coaching interventions in a business context, coaching models and frameworks, the impact of organisational coaching strategies on managers and the use of coaching to support organisational and cultural change. In the light of this knowledge base the conclusion summarises the literature review and identifies the key findings from which the research methodology process learned from and built upon to develop the thesis.

2.2 Background to the Development of Coaching

The notion of coaching as a natural part of life, whether from the Stone Age, in terms of hunting or fire lighting, to today, in the parent-child situation, is portrayed by

Edwards (2003) when he referred to Socrates who discovered that people learned best when they took ownership of a situation and personal responsibility for the outcome through personal experience. In more recent times the term allegedly recalls the multi-tasking skills associated with controlling the team of a horse-drawn stagecoach (Wikipedia, 2008). The origin of the term 'coach' comes from the French word 'coche', which in turn derives from the Hungarian word 'kocsi széker' or 'wagon from Kocs', a town in Hungary. This could be interpreted in the 'coaching' sense as conveying a person from one place to another in terms of personal development objectives. From the 1840s the word coach was used colloquially at Oxford University to refer to private tutors, in the sense of a student being conveyed through their academic career in a coach driven by the tutor. By the 1880s American College sports teams had coaches in addition to managers.

The affinity with sport has remained to the modern day and literature in the 1970s and 1980s frequently referred to sports coaches and training techniques (Allenbaugh, 1983). There is an unattributed view that organisational coaching emerged in the late 1980s when an American financial planner was asked by his clients for guidance on work and life issues, although the term 'coaching' in the 1990s was generally viewed mainly in the context of learning and development (Evered and Selman, 1989). During the late 1990s and early 2000s executive development expanded rapidly, partly driven by organisational transformation activity e.g. mergers, acquisitions and downsizing (Giglio, Diamante and Urban, 1998). However early use in the business world often carried a remedial connotation, such as underperformance or dysfunctional leadership and management behaviour. Over the past ten years the popularity of coaching in business has grown year on year with an increasing trend in the number of professional coaching providers and the number of businesses using coaching. The International Coaching Federation reported 2,600 hits a month in 2000 and estimated the number of coaches at over 10,000 in the USA (Morris, 2000), with an estimated 50,000 coaches across the world in 2003 (Hyatt, 2003). Berglas (2002) estimated that there were 10,000 coaches in the USA in 2002, which would grow to 50,000 coaches in the USA alone by 2007. The diversity of coaching in terms of categories, networks, associations and individuals makes an accurate assessment very difficult. However a global survey conducted by Frank Bresser Consulting (2009) across 162 countries reported that there were an estimated minimum of 43,000 to 44,000 business coaches

operating in the world in 2008/2009. The main markets for coaching being the USA, UK and Australia with an estimated 80% of the total number of coaches but fast growing emerging markets include wider Europe particularly Germany, Canada, South America particularly Brasil, Asia, South Africa and Japan. The survey reported a fairly even balance between directive and non-directive coaching styles.

Whilst the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (2007) sets out the origins of the word 'coach' and provides brief and clear definitions of the noun 'coach' as 'an instructor or trainer in sport' and 'a tutor who gives private or specialised teaching' and describes the verb 'to coach' as to 'train or to teach as a coach', definitions of the coaching process in a workplace context vary in the same way that perceptions of coaching vary across the range of practitioners, managers and clients.

Within the professional coaching fraternity there is much debate between the emphasis on coaching as a means of direct instruction or as self-directed learning. The majority of definitions relate to coaching as a two-way process in terms of a one-to-one relationship between a coach and a coachee which aims to improve the coachee's skills, competence or performance levels through releasing their potential to achieve specific goals. King and Eaton (1999) described coaching as a structured two-way process which develops and harnesses a person's talents in pursuit of specific goals. Definitions which incorporate a view on the coach's behaviours are varied and could be seen to generally fall into one of two categories – a directive and instructive process or a non-directive process. The former school of thought was more prevalent in the 1980s and 1990s with Druckman and Bjork (1991) and Parsloe (1995) asserting that coaching is concerned with skills and performance improvement through tutoring or instruction. Bentley (1995) highlighted support and guidance as a coaching approach to increase an employee's skills and knowledge. Parsloe (1999) later referred to coaching as a learning process for personal improvement and one which requires a coach to have knowledge of coaching including process, style, skills and techniques so as to ensure the coaching approach is appropriate to the situation. This later view indicated a more complex arrangement of coaching elements which could enable the bridging of the two extremes; that is directive and non-directive coaching approaches.

Since the mid to late 1990s there has been an increased emphasis on coaching as a non-directive process with coaching viewed by many academics and practitioners as a self-directed learning or collaborative process aimed at achieving objectives, facilitating learning, changing behaviour and solving problems, as referred to by Hadden (1997), Downey (1999), Caplan (2003), Dude and Velez (2003), Buck (2003) and Grant (2005); the latter referred to organisational coaching as part of a solutions-focused, results-orientated systematic process, with the coach as a facilitator rather than a tutor or instructor, focused on the enhancement of the coachee's work performance, self-directed learning and personal growth. Whitmore (1999) sums up his view of the coaching process succinctly with his oft quoted '.....unlocking a person's potential to maximise their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them' (p8, lines 32-34).

Grant and Cavanagh (2004) referred to coaching in the context of professional coaching as a theoretically grounded, systematic, goal-directed process designed to facilitate sustained change with the aim of fostering the ongoing self-directed learning and personal growth of the coachee. The theme of personal growth is also picked up on by the International Coaching Federation (2005a), whose definition referred to an 'intentional process that creates a compelling environment for growth and effective action', although a later definition by the International Coaching Federation (2007) provided a comprehensive statement on professional coaching as 'an ongoing professional relationship that helps people produce extraordinary results in their lives, careers, businesses or organisations. Through the process of coaching, clients deepen their learning, improve their performance, and enhance their quality of life. In each meeting, the client chooses the focus of conversation, while the coach listens and contributes observations and questions. This interaction creates clarity and moves the client into action. Coaching accelerates the client's progress by providing greater focus and awareness of choice. Coaching concentrates on where clients are now and what they are willing to do to get where they want to be in the future'.

The role of the coach as an instructor has, in most professional coaching circles although arguably not in workplace practice, given way to the view that a coach's role is, via skilful conversation, to challenge, ask questions and to provide guidance. The importance of skilful conversation is identified by Zeus and Skiffington (2000), Starr

(2003), Downey (2003), Keane and Parsloe (2001) and Hardingham (2004), who emphasised the importance of conversation finely tuned by considered reflection; the latter writer summed this process up through an aspirational statement, namely 'one person helping another through conversation to achieve their hopes, fulfil their wishes and live their dreams' (prefix ix, lines 13-15), as well as referring to team coaching in another definition which described a coach as 'someone who helps another person or group of people articulate their goals through conversation with them' (prefix ix, lines 23-25). Thorpe and Clifford (2003) also referred to the importance of reflection in their definition of coaching as 'the process of helping people enhance or improve their performance through reflection on how they apply a specific skill and/or knowledge' (p36, lines 13 -15).

These different perspectives also show many similarities, and in doing so, highlight the critical importance of context when considering and analysing the respective views and positions on coaching. This is of particular relevance when considering the longevity of a coaching relationship. Clutterbuck (2003) defined coaching as a short-term intervention aimed at improving performance or a particular competence. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2005b) referred to the purpose of coaching as focusing on developing employees' skills and knowledge generally lasting over a short period with the aim of improving performance and achieving organisational objectives, noting that such coaching may also have an impact on employees' lives outside of work. In the context of the workplace, managers will generally have a longer term coaching relationship with their staff. This may involve a series of different themed and short coaching interventions over time or could also involve coaching on a related or linked theme over a longer term.

The view of coaching as a short-term intervention therefore contrasts to the longer-term nature of a manager and employee relationship, organisational culture and change within the workplace. This point is highlighted not to show a significant contrast or offer a lead to a debate around the variances in coaching definitions, but rather to highlight the complexity of the discussions around the term coaching and the need for contextual awareness and understanding when considering coaching in its various forms, i.e. workplace.

This research is concerned primarily with coaching in a workplace context primarily managerial coaching, which is provided by internal coaches, that is managers with line responsibilities. However coaching activity in the workplace also includes coaching support provided to a senior manager by an external coach, which is widely known as executive coaching, that is, a relationship between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organisation and a consultant who uses a wide variety of coaching techniques and methods to assist the client to achieve specific objectives (Kilburg, 2000). Executive coaching has been an acknowledged feature of leadership development programmes in the corporate sector since the 1980s (Kluger and DeNisi, 2002).

The focus of this research, that is managerial coaching, principally emerged in the mid 1990s, which involved the use of coaching principles by managers in their day-to-day role with the aim of delivering organisational improvement through increasing employees' knowledge and experience (Thomas, 1995). Whilst these two categories of coaching arguably capture the majority of coaching interventions in the workplace, the variance and complexity of coaching delivery and applications present difficulties in establishing an overarching and all encompassing definition which is made even more challenging by the similarities that coaching shares with other related disciplines such as mentoring, which often relates to discussions concerning career progression, counselling, which can focus on preventing negative aspects of the past limiting future potential, and psychotherapy, which requires an understanding of past experiences and existing behaviour.

The core characteristics of two main strands of organisational coaching relate to time bound interventions – fairly short-term if on an external basis focusing on one-to-one development, feedback, specific issues around performance and/or skills and self-awareness whilst not requiring clinical intervention. The more long term intervention often relates to internal coaching interventions aimed at changing and/or creating new leadership and employees' behavioural approaches in the workplace.

The linkage of personal and organisational values to coaching concepts brings with it a complex cocktail of human behaviours which may cross over into general life behaviours and as such cannot often be easily divorced from working life. Life

coaching seeks to bridge the work/life balance equation offering a range of interventions and fitting mainly within the non-directive spectrum of coaching (Richardson, 2004). As such life coaching does not easily fit into workplace coaching undertaken by managers within an organisational context, although many organisations seek to use external coaches to provide an holistic coaching approach covering health and personal relationships, with the aim of maximising the potential of their managers.

A coaching culture has been described as one where coaching is the predominant management style and where there is a dual commitment to improving the organisation and the people (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 2005a). This research built upon the aforementioned approach of organisation and people and from this was developed a definition of organisational coaching as 'a multi-level leadership strategy supported by systematic, results-focused performance management processes, aligned HR processes and relationship driven leadership coaching behaviours designed to achieve an engaged, committed workforce and a high performance culture'.

In view of the close overlap between the various approaches it is understandable that many organisations fall into the trap of implementing coaching programmes which are closer to mentoring or training interventions. The potential offered by organisational coaching is balanced by the challenges of coaching processes being delivered by managers who are not professional coaches and who need to employ a variety of leadership and management styles dependent upon the workplace situation. The first stage in meeting these challenges is to further the discussion on organisational coaching, enabling a greater clarity as to how such an organisational approach is defined and understood. It is argued that such clarity is currently lacking across the organisational sphere and that progress of coaching in the workplace would be assisted by an increased knowledge of organisational coaching within a context of other personal development disciplines which are often linked, purposely or unwittingly, with coaching interventions.

The changes in the workplace are considered by Mawson and Poppleton (2002) and they argued that the workplace would continue to evolve away from a centralised control centre and move towards a state of mind, in that the location of work could be

anywhere. This will in turn result in less direct managerial control and a need for managers to rethink their leadership approaches in terms of communication, performance management, motivation and coaching skills.

An obvious impact on coaching approaches is the use of coaching over the telephone, which appears to be gaining momentum in the corporate sector as a convenient and cheaper option than face-to-face coaching. According to the European Coaching Institute (2003), over 90% of coaches are now prepared to provide a service over the telephone and many are starting to work via e-mail and web-based applications. Dalpra, Deputy CEO of the European Coaching Institute, proposed that many people find the telephone conducive to deep discussion as well as finding coaching conducted in this way more convenient. Sparrow (2006d) interviewed several academics and practitioners on the development of telephone coaching and referred to the US trend for telephone coaching following the fall-off in air travel since 9/11. Within his own organisation the researcher had developed a telephone coaching capacity incorporating e-mailed presentations. Eric De Haan of the Ashridge Centre for Coaching suggested that face-to-face sessions are required as a precursor to telephone coaching to build the relationship between coach and client. Eileen Arney of the CIPD recommended the exchange of CVs if a face-to-face meeting is not possible, whereas Tony Sweeney of Oakridge Training and Consultancy highlighted concentration and confirmation as two key techniques of coaching using a telephone. Carole Gaskell of the Full Potential Group utilised a questionnaire in between telephone coaching sessions to capture successes and challenges. Anna De Vere of Elizabeth Arden referred to a coaching programme that commenced with a face-to-face meeting and rolled out with a telephone coaching session every two weeks. Vale (2002) undertook a study of coaching that utilised the telephone (including assertiveness training, goal-setting, knowledge and beliefs) conducted by a dietician, experienced in working with patients with cardiovascular disease, which reportedly resulted in cholesterol levels of those coached reducing by a significant percentage compared to those patients not coached.

According to Hakim (2000) virtual coaching is a, practical, interactive, highly accessible one-on-one development process that adds continuity to the coaching process via telephone, fax, web camera or e-mail, providing a more cost effective solution. Hakim proposed a balanced approach with a face-to-face meeting supported

by additional interventions via virtual means. Bagshaw and Bagshaw (2002) referred to coaching through the web and the argument that web learning is not appropriate for coaching for several reasons, including the reason that it prevents trust building and does not provide information on non-verbal clues. However they argued that e-coaching can be integrated into the traditional coaching delivery through a blended learning approach utilising e-learning, telephone discussions and personal contact.

The growth in the use of the telephone for coaching conversations has led to numerous proprietary electronic communication coaching products being available. For example McLeod (2003) has developed a code of conduct for e-mentoring as part of the AskMax e-mentoring e-learning tool and the Oxford Coach-Mentor Online Toolkit was created by the Oxford School of Coaching and Mentoring (2005) and Brightwave. From a one-to-one process, a new scenario is emerging, one where companies seek to use coaching as a full-scale organisational initiative that adds value to training initiatives, cultural change programmes and the benchmark strength of their talent pool. To do this companies need to consider applying coaching in an organisational context utilising the systemic people processes, such as performance management systems, training evaluation processes and leadership development and technology applications, e.g. e-learning systems to support online sessions, with self assessments, skill levels, goal setting tools and record keeping/tracking.

Interestingly, the rapid increase in coaching activity in all its forms has come at a time of significant social change with the power of the individual becoming more central to human philosophy. The pattern of organisational paradigms and the related development interventions often follow social history trends. The 1950s approach of state centralisation and mass production resulted in command and control planning and management training designed to replicate the past. An era of decentralisation commenced in the 1980s, which helped to break up and dismantle corporate structures through a move towards regionalisation to enable the development and delivery of specific products and services to meet customer needs and requirements and, in doing so, required different organisational development approaches. This was followed by the concept of differentiation taking hold in the 1990s and 2000s when rapid changes in the marketplace created a demand for invention and creativity, driving bespoke personal development interventions such as coaching (Ledgerwood, 2005). The

growth in the coaching industry is supported by the accumulation of coaching experience through an increasing entry of professionals from several backgrounds including psychologists, psychiatrists, adult education specialists and organisational change and personal development experts and the increasing sophistication of HR professionals who are requiring evidence of the benefits and outcomes of coaching interventions (Grant and Cavanagh, 2004).

Many in the business world and learning and development field believe coaching to be a 'fad' in line with other previous 'flavour of the month' management approaches and tools. However the continuing use and evolution of coaching in business towards a mainstream personal development approach, has led to an increasing demand from organisations and coaching practitioners for professional standards and professional bodies to regulate coaching activity. To meet this demand several coaching bodies have been formed to take forward the professional development of coaching. In 2004 ENTO, the Employment Network of National Training Organisations and the independent standard setting body for the UK, undertook to develop a suite of occupational standards for coaching and mentoring in a work related environment and these standards were delivered during 2007 (Employment Network of National Training Organisations, 2007). These professional developments clearly show that coaching has the potential to develop into a new cross-disciplinary profession, although to do so will require underpinning research and knowledge on which to base training and supervision.

2.3 Organisational Learning – Integrated Coaching Approaches

2.3.1 Coaching in a Sporting Context and Relevance to Business

Any research investigating coaching in the workplace will benefit from an examination of coaching developments in the sporting world for several reasons including the development of coaching approaches originating in the sporting world, coaching specialists who have regularly crossed over from the sporting world to business, the emergence of the sporting coach as a high profile personality and the high number of notable coaching icons who have become household names worldwide

due to their coaching ability. For these reasons the concept of coaching within a sporting context has been much more widely acknowledged, and arguably better understood, than coaching in a business context. The global appeal of major sporting events, such as the Olympics, encourage a populist debate on the use of coaching in other fields including social work and this is evidenced by the development of Government sponsored coaching strategies such as the UK Government's decision to introduce 3,000 community coaches to support grass-root development of sport in readiness for the 2012 Olympics in London (Hart 2007) and social driven community coaching strategies to support national mental health programmes.

The role of coaching in sport is accepted as having evolved over thousands of years and has mainly involved instruction and teaching, although in recent decades new thinking has emerged around the value of strength recognition and the development of the 'inner- self and mind' to facilitate improved performance. Gill (1980) concluded that the optimum approach to performance improvement, in a team context, was for coaches to comment on something done well in the contest, whereas, after losing, again comment on something well done but also add something which is possible to be improved upon through skill development techniques, a finding broadly reinforced by a study of tennis players (Buzas and Ayllon, 1981). Gallwey (1986, 2000) also focused on tennis and was an early advocate of how coaching could be applied to developing the 'inner self' and is credited by many for the initial introduction of coaching techniques from the sporting world into the organisational world, bringing into business the idea of a paradoxical balance of skilful questioning based on challenging yet supportive coach behaviour.

Parallels drawn between coaching, both in sport and in business, have identified the coach as a key agent for maximising the commitment and contribution of a team, with the concept of the 'play', whether on a pitch or in the workplace, requiring the player or employee to be competent for the position and aware of their performance levels and accountability areas in precise detail, although in business this often is not the case due to performance feedback not being given to employees or, when given, not being communicated in a motivational way; for example, through the separation of both good aspects and weaker areas of performance e.g. the no 'buts' policy (Bell, 1987).

Clement and McCormick (1989) concluded that the most successful basketball coaches were those who observed analysed and acted upon player performance best. The concept of analysis, review and action is now firmly embedded in the professional world of sport through sophisticated technology which breaks down the sporting activity into high and low level management information. Manges (1990) argued that events over a long duration need to be broken into segments to enable athletes to totally concentrate on what needs to be done, a process known as 'segmenting' which enables recognition and ongoing motivation. This work could be considered in the organisational context of performance management and the need to measure and monitor performance particularly in those areas difficult to observe, often over an extended period of time and without the benefit of specific milestones such as competitions. Organisations that are experiencing trading difficulties or other major challenges often use this approach to motivate their workforce in the short-term by focusing on survival.

Knippen and Green (1990) drew other similar parallel arguments between sports coaching and coaching in a business context, including the stages of learning a new skill, whether 'shooting' in basketball or selling in business. They proposed that coaching offers two key benefits – skill improvement leading to improved business results and improved communication leading to improved morale; in short managers can improve their team's 'shooting', or in business terms, sales or productivity percentage, by effective coaching through creating a learning need, stating learning goals, advising and showing how to perform the skill, practising the skill and providing feedback on performance of the skill. This approach involves a directive coaching technique to skill development which is generally found in sports coaching.

For Yager (1993), the use of correct performance measures, a focus on results rather than effort and continual encouragement from a caring coach are factors always present in consistently high performing teams. Atkinson and Reitman (1956) argued that multiple-performance goal-setting was found to be more effective in performance terms than singular goal-setting. Burdett (1997) likened the world of sport to business, comparing world class sports stars to a case study of Tamrock, a multinational corporation. He positioned the role of coach within a three stage learning approach based on performance, work and the organisation. Burdett (1998) later analysed the

reasons behind successful athletes and found that coaching was a critical component and asserted that coaching programmes often fail in organisations due to the lack of support systems to develop coaching skills. Burdett referred to the move from a dictatorial culture to a participative culture and asserted that coaching is a deep rooted management philosophy, not a periodic activity and, as such, can be measured by employees' willingness, capability and opportunity to make decisions. Whilst acknowledging the learning benefits for business managers in the way sports coaching is applied Zemke (1996) argued that the sports celebrity element of sports coaching often gets in the way of understanding effective coaching, which is asserted to be centred on five techniques of gathering data, providing feedback, questioning, informing/instructing and rewarding for example through recognition and praise. Similarities between sports and business coaching were identified as a focus on core elements of role, teamwork, evaluation/adjustment, reinforcement and motivation to learn and improve.

The essence of coaching relates to learning and improvement and, in the sporting world, the importance of success in economic terms has created a high learning curve through new coaching techniques. This is particularly relevant in the Barclays Premiership, the most lucrative football league in the world, where there has been an influx of top class foreign coaches and players. The appointment of Sven-Göran Eriksson, the first ever foreign coach of the English national team, symbolised a new style of management leadership to that which had gone before, recognising that football, like business, involved changing conditions and once a game is underway a coach is, to a large extent, dependent upon his players to make their own decisions to events that happen on the pitch. His coaching philosophy was grounded in a participative leadership style based on encouraging players to accept personal responsibility for both individual and team performance through involvement in team decisions, whilst he focused on each team member's motivational needs through the utilisation of different approaches to suit them (Burkinshaw and Crainer, 2002). Yet Eriksson's reign as England manager was unfulfilled in achievement terms despite arguably having the most talented squad of a generation and, following a return to an English manager with the appointment of Steve McClaren, the FA again appointed a foreign coach, Fabio Capello, to bring in a new stronger and more directive approach (Ryan, 2008) which did not improve results in the competitive arena of the 2010

World Cup. Simpson (2002) reported on several English based football managers including Arsene Wenger, manager of Arsenal Football Club, known as 'The Professor', who also focused on developing a system that enabled players to carry out team responsibilities yet at the same time express individual skills. Simpson proffered that football managers, like business managers, fall into certain basic types, for example, the dictator – Sir Alex Ferguson, the wheeler-dealer – Terry Venables; the organiser – Don Revie; the democrat – Arsene Wenger, and proposed that these different styles were based on personal characteristics as well as personal learning and development.

Herrick (2005) reported on Krzyewski, an outstanding basketball coach in the USA, and identified five key principles of his team coaching – communication, trust, collective responsibility, caring and pride. In a similar study, Bannister and Meriden (2004) analysed the coaching methods of Clive Woodward, the manager of England's 2003 world cup winning rugby team, who focused on leadership, team-ship and partnership within a framework of mental strength to enable his team to think correctly when under pressure ('T-cup').

Fagenson-Eland (2001) referred to Bill Parcells who had a highly successful track record in the USA's National Football League and his key ingredient of success, which he thought to be the ability to help team members to envision the desired future in terms of their individual performance. Facilitating the development of an individual through an effective coaching style is a theme taken up by Neal (2004) in the development of the X-Factor model, which sought to identify the optimum coaching style for each individual coach with emphasis on learning styles through a collaborative programme involving rugby coaches and business managers. Two-way learning was achieved with the business managers noting the intensity of the rugby training due to the pressure of weekly games and the rugby coaches from the longer term strategic approaches of business. However, Greenspan (2005) considered the use of sports coaches and outdoor activity within a business context and argued that whilst there may be benefits in these activities from a motivational and team building aspect, there is less to be gained in terms of securing long-term performance from a senior team, who would benefit more from a focus on alignment and understanding of commercial goals and priorities, clarity of team purpose and addressing team

dynamics. Higginbottom (2006b) reported that a lack of business experience can be a barrier to former sports people in certain areas of coaching development, for example executive coaching, whereas team coaching in a business environment has high potential. He concluded that there are many in the coaching profession who believe that whilst sport coaching has its place in the learning and development framework of a business, there are constraints and limitations as to its effectiveness in certain areas.

Despite these constraints there are many similarities which are reflected in the language construction that is transferred from the sports world to the business environment and vice versa. The similarities though still offer potential for learning initiatives and an example of this is a programme launched by Ashridge Business School aimed at bridging the gap between sports coaches and business managers (Neal, 2006). Such linkages have been developed by modern day business coaches who have sought to bridge the gap between the sports world and the business world in terms of the application and language of coaching techniques. Starr (2003) compared the sports coach to the business coach and concluded that by building trust and applying similar principles of observation and feedback, sports and business coaches can make a difference by helping the coachee to deliver exceptional performance.

2.3.2 Coaching in the Context of Other Personal Development and Support Interventions

The relationship between counselling, coaching and mentoring has been described as a continuum of development, with counselling focused primarily on the past to the present, coaching focused primarily on the present linked back to the past and forward to the future, and mentoring focused primarily on the future linked to the present (Kenton and Moody, 2001). Walker (2004) considered both inductive and historical methods to discern distinctions between coaching and other disciplines such as mentoring, counselling and therapy, concluding that these approaches do not sufficiently identify the true differences between each and, as such, developed a conceptual model titled 'personal ecology'. This model classified the differences between the various personal development methods to identify inductive factors such as observational characteristics which, whilst measurable, involved rigid distinctions

which may not add value. Historical factors identified emergent historical patterns, yet, like the inductive approach, failed to show differences and could be over simplistic; for example the development of medicine/neurology circa 1850s, therapy circa 1900, management consultancy circa 1930, counselling circa 1960, mentoring circa 1970, coaching circa 1980s and life coaching circa 1990. Conceptual factors were considered based on a hypothesis that the people development history has evolved as a representation of the expected range of human interactions, in other words the range and type of people development interventions that will emerge can be predicted. From this analysis three capabilities of personal ecology were identified – empathy, logic and control; directly related to people-development work and, it is argued, this has particular relevance to coaching and the closely linked disciplines of mentoring and counselling.

There has been considerable research into mentoring including a comparison of the characteristics between informal and formal mentoring (Baugh and Fagenson-Eland, 2007); evaluations of mentoring in the workplace (Ragins and Kram, 2007); best practice case study approaches (Cranwell-Ward, Bossons and Gover, 2004); career development outcomes (Dougherty and Dreher, 2007); a case study investigation which found that the impact of a similar learning goal orientation in mentor and mentee may favourably affect the outcome of the mentoring intervention (Egan, 2005); investigations into the attributes of positive relationships through a phenomenological approach (Gibson, 2004); mentoring from a human resource development perspective (Hezlett and Gibson, 2005) and a survey of empirical work on mentoring incorporating a conceptual model based on mentoring process (Wanberg, Welsh and Hezlett, 2003). However the differences between coaching and mentoring mean that such research may not be directly applicable to coaching and any attempts to draw evidence based on similarities creates a potential risk to identifying robust learning data (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 1999; Zeus and Skiffington, 2000).

These different disciplines though often share several similarities within patterns of social interaction, including the importance and use of language yet, at the extremes, can be viewed as being radically different and thus requiring specialist knowledge and understanding to meet the needs of the individual being coached, mentored or counselled. A debate about the nature and depth of knowledge required to coach in

relation to the potential for purposely or accidentally moving into the territory of specialist areas such as counselling and psychology and, in doing so, putting the coachee at risk, is a recurring theme in coaching networks. The complex nature of human understanding and behaviour creates challenges and dangers for coaching practitioners which arguably can be ameliorated through a mix of self-awareness, appropriate knowledge and skilful conversation. An important feature of any discussion about the role of the manager as a coach is the capability, or the negative capability, of managers to coach effectively, noting the psychological nature of coaching. The human psychological background upon which coaching is practised has been referred to as three psychological templates, namely, psychodynamic orientation, relating to a lack of awareness of the reasons behind actions which often have origins in childhood; cognitive behavioural orientation relating to problem-solving approaches; and humanistic orientation, which relates to the current experiences of the coachee (Hudson, 1999).

The dangers of coaching when the problems stem from psychological difficulties raises the need to differentiate between an employee who requires training to work effectively and an employee who requires psychotherapy to deal with a problem. Organisations may benefit in such situations from drawing on the expertise of both psychotherapists and executive coaches with employees being screened to ensure they are psychologically prepared and post coaching interviews implemented by medical health professionals to review coaching outcomes (Berglas, 2002). With coaching on the increase there is a fine line appearing between coaching and counselling, with some participative coaching sessions being a mixture of the two disciplines and, based on this premise, there is an argument for those who practice coaching to have a knowledge and practical awareness of counselling skills (Summerfield and Van Oudtshoorn, 1995). The debate as to where coaching ends and psychotherapy begins is a complex one and has a backdrop of many years' history of psychotherapy and counselling, with coaching in a business context existing for a relatively short span of time. Based on this historical context it could be argued that those who wish to coach effectively, in the best interests of their coachees, need to understand and learn from the history of the profession of psychotherapy. The differences between coaching and psychotherapy are arguably more defined than the differences between coaching and mentoring or facilitation, as psychotherapy is often associated with resolution of past

issues, requiring specialist knowledge. The other key difference is that the client populations are very different and this factor requires therapists to be aware that their clients may, through the nature of the referral, be harmful to themselves and/or others. Therapy tends to look for causes of problems and is reactive in nature whereas coaching is predominantly proactive and emphasises new competences (Grant, 2005). Based on the potential for coaching interventions to stray into the area of psychology, it has been proposed that for coaches to be fully effective they need to use both coaching and psychotherapy skills and therefore require an element of counselling, possibly even being qualified in some form of therapeutic qualification (Simons, 2006).

Conversely there is a view that because coaching has the potential to stray into counselling and other therapeutic related areas, it is not implicit that coaches require a background in psychology (Downey, 2002). Context, in terms of roles, responsibilities and relationships is often viewed as a key difference between coaching, counselling and mentoring for managers versus social scientists and scholars (Parsloe and Wray, 2000). Despite the tensions between the various arguments it is arguable that an understanding of those similar, yet different, approaches to coaching interventions offers beneficial value to any discourse aimed at improving the quality and effectiveness of coaching through the bridging of the paradoxical natures of these often inter-weaving disciplines.

Whilst there is much debate and argument on the need for coaches to be aware of the psychological and emotional risks of straying into certain areas of the human psyche and therefore equipped in terms of knowledge and experience, there is less concern voiced on such dangers when comparing coaching with mentoring due to the nature of the latter intervention. The emergence of organisational coaching in recent years has fuelled an ongoing debate in both coaching and mentoring fields of the differences between coaching and mentoring with views varying in terms of differences and similarities (Walker, 2004, McLeod, 2004, Clutterbuck and Lane, 2004, Holloway and Smith, 2006). These include viewing coaching as facilitative and mentoring as a skill-based approach that may or may not involve coaching interventions.

The debate between the professional coaching and mentoring communities is often not followed in the business world, where the terms are often used interchangeably as descriptions of similar programmes. Indeed coaching and mentoring are often considered as complementary approaches within an integrated process which offers managers the option to use both as part of a combined development tool box, yet at a senior organisational level there is a clearer distinction; with executive mentoring undertaken by internal experienced senior managers or on a less frequent basis external industry experts and executive coaching undertaken by an external independent coach over a shorter period of time (MacLennan, 1999). The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2005b) acknowledged the role of coach-mentoring, proposing that such a process is designed to help and support the individual to achieve personal development goals for maximising potential and improving performance. The ability to develop an integrated and combined approach illustrates the close overlap between approaches and provides the potential for mentors to be more effective through the development and application of a coaching style (Darwin, 2000). Orth, Wilkinson and Benfari (1987) considered coaching and mentoring from the perspective of a manager's role and identified similar but subtly different skills required for each developmental approach. From a coaching perspective the importance of influence, support, analysis and mutually agreed action was proposed and from a mentoring perspective observation, analysis and feedback skills.

Whilst coaching and mentoring share many similarities, there are some commonly, albeit not universally, agreed differences, such as mentors tend to be more experienced and qualified persons than mentees and the process is often over a longer time span, informal and broader in content, with a focus on practical advice, career self-management, personal development and an agenda driven by the mentee (the use of 'buddying', a support practice often used to help new employees find their way around policies, people and processes, is acknowledged; however this practice generally refers to a buddy relationship which is based on an equal status relationship). Conversely coaching is often of fixed term duration, highly structured, performance focused, goal-driven and developmental, with the coach not necessarily being a more skilled and experienced person than the coachee (Jarvis, 2004; Dude and Velez, 2003; Clutterbuck, 2004a). The emergence of coaching has been seen by some to be invasive of territory occupied traditionally by mentoring yet the rapid evolution of

coaching has created an increased level of behavioural techniques, which is arguably available to both disciplines, through techniques such as the four helping styles; namely the directive styles of coaching and guiding and the non-directive styles of networking and counselling, of which mentoring draws on all four to varying degrees (Clutterbuck, 2004b). Clutterbuck and Lane (2004) put forward a comprehensive set of mentor competencies including network facilitation, role modelling, career guidance, managing perspective, giving advice as well as the avoidance of direct sponsorship. These competencies often require some form of directive intervention, either by direct action or the provision of information, and thus it could be argued that mentoring interventions are more direct in their nature than coaching interventions; yet very often these interventions tend to be driven by the past experiences of the mentor. It could be argued that the critical practical difference between the two disciplines is that a mentor often provides the answers to a mentee's questions whereas the coach provides the questions for the answers to be developed by the coachee. Clutterbuck (2007b) set out guidelines for a mentoring relationship from a mentee's viewpoint including the selection of a mentor and focus on the positive aspects of differences as well as similarities; the key traits of a mentor including the need for trust and rapport and available resources to use when considering a mentoring relationship.

McCracken (2006) considered the relationship between coaching and mentoring and proposed that both approaches are designed to create a relationship between coach/mentor and client with differences illustrated through the emphasis placed on directive and non-directive interventions by the coach/mentor, for example, mentoring activity often includes telling, training, teaching and giving advice whereas aspects of solution seeking, creative thinking, gaining clarity, questioning and listening could fall into both coaching and mentoring interventions. Interestingly this would indicate that mentoring is all-encompassing whereas coaching should be restricted to specific interventions. The ability and competence of the person in the roles of coach, mentor and coach/mentor though would dictate the extent of any boundary limitations and crossover activity.

The difficulty in pinning down the differences between mentoring and coaching is, arguably, largely due to terminology with certain terms used interchangeably, which in turn leads to the generic term of coach-mentor being used for formal standards

(Parsloe, 2004). Notwithstanding this difficulty in language, there is an emerging view that coaching is a facilitated process which is different from the teaching and advice elements of modern day mentoring, and mentoring is a skill-based process, which may or may not contain coaching interventions (McLeod, 2004). Thus mentoring is often seen as a form of teaching or advising. Edwards (2003) focused on this view of mentoring when he referred to Greek mythology and Homer's poem, *Odysseus*, which told of how, when Odysseus was setting out for Troy, he entrusted his house and the education of his son to his friend Mentor (Athena), asking him to tell his son all that he knew. If coaching is considered in three ways – the transition from one state to another, dealing with change and skill development (Leimon, 2004), then the latter point would possibly, in some circumstances, indicate a mentoring or training approach rather than a coaching one. Similarly other interventions such as facilitation have potential for individual and team learning (MacNeil, 2001) as well as the development of knowledge within an organisation (MacNeil, 2003) subject to a manager having the necessary skills or access to appropriate development.

To summarise the information emerging from the literature review on how coaching differs from mentoring, therapy, facilitation, counselling and training; there are certain views that suggest coaching is not about instructing a person on what to do, nor about resolving dysfunctional behaviour or having specialist skills, apart from coaching skills. There is at times, however, some commonality between the various developmental approaches, and these sit within a complex often inter-linking relationship. The mix of differences and similarities may create challenges to organisations which are trying to identify coaching programmes yet identify and implement programmes which are, in reality and practice, closer to mentoring, training and other non-coaching interventions. Based on this complex web of developmental interventions it would seem both appropriate and necessary to understand the evolution of coaching in an organisational learning context.

2.3.3 Coaching in an Organisational Learning Context

There has over recent years been a growing consensus within the business world that an effective learning and development strategy and implementation framework of

delivery is a critical success factor, with increasing research being conducted on the links between effective people management and corporate performance. Indicative of this type of research is a study by Patterson, West, Lawthorn and Nickells (1997) which found that investment in people management and development has a positive impact on company performance and is more effective than competitive strategies, quality focus, or investment in research and development. According to Horowitz (1999) the potential for such performance improvement is largely reliant on a strategic approach to human resource development including strategies such as managerial ownership of employee development. Yet it was argued such strategic approaches were limited and largely unexplored due to other competing organisational priorities. Over recent years organisations have increasingly invested in people development strategies designed to increase performance and this focus on employee development has coincided with a rise in the popularity of coaching. A survey by the magazine Learning and Development Journal (2006) of learning and development professionals revealed that 89% of respondents intended to increase their spending on coaching (the highest increase of the training delivery channels quoted).

Research on the role of managers in workplace learning has also increased in recent years. The role of first line managers in taking on developmental responsibilities was researched across 23 participant companies and three key role themes arose, that is the importance of analytic skills, supportive intent and trainer orientation (de Jong, Leenders and Thijssen, 1999). Heraty and Morley (1995) discussed the trend towards devolvement of training and development to the line manager. Beattie (2006) investigated the ways in which managers could be supported to carry out such a role. Mumford (1993) explored practical ways that managers can develop other managers and asserted that such managerial approaches were beneficial to the development of a learning organisation.

The progression of coaching as a learning and development tool within an organisation also places a similar emphasis on the line manager, an area addressed by Bianco-Matthis, Nabors and Roman (2002) through a development framework based on a coaching model, by Hunt and Weintraub (2002a) through practical personal strategies supported by a coaching model and by Ellinger and Bostrom (1999) through the identification of 13 managerial behavioural sets in two categories of facilitation and

empowerment. A comparative study of effective managerial coaching behaviours supported the view that coaching behaviours support effective management and leadership. A cross cultural study of previous research sought to identify ineffective managerial coaching behaviours which were summarised as autocratic, dictatorial, directive and controlling (Hamlin, Ellinger and Beattie, 2006; Ellinger, Hamlin and Beattie, 2008). Ellinger (2003) discussed the application of coaching to develop learning within an organisation and found that the manager's commitment to coaching can impact upon the success or otherwise of the learning process. A case study based within Rover Group cited a coaching approach as a key element of a corporate learning approach which linked leadership and teamwork (Altman and Iles, 1998).

The development of learning through coaching is also impacted by several other related issues apart from the managerial role in the process, some of which to a lesser or greater extent are specifically related to the workplace; these include hierarchical barriers, which very often are along traditional lines incorporating job description roles which set out a personal development framework on which to base learning requirements. These structured approaches can create inflexibility which is added to by the challenges to creativity and innovation a chain of command presents and this can often manifest itself in a lack of empowerment, risk taking and personal responsibility at the front-end of a business. Other factors include corporate values and beliefs which support the organisational culture, personal learning styles which impact on the effectiveness of the coaching interventions and the overall learning and development strategy for the organisation and its relationship with coaching – the way in which an organisation learns will impact upon the effectiveness of coaching. It is argued that consideration of these factors will benefit the implementation of coaching activity within an organisation, although evaluation of coaching processes is necessary to measure any such impact (Corrigan, Hayes & Joyce, 1999). The aspect of evaluating coaching development interventions is considered by Paige (2002) who applied a structure identified by Guskey (1998) to a research project on participants' views of learning. Paige identified that a coach should be familiar with an organisation's culture, the importance of trust in the coaching relationship and the relevance of timing of a coaching intervention in terms of career stages and job situation. With such a mix of learning activity taking place, organisations are seeking ways of establishing some measure of control through the monitoring of progress. The

value of the use of learning logs, as a form of diary and record of learning experiences, was considered by Barclay (1996) who identified that learning was enhanced in relation to personal strengths and weaknesses, particular activities and organisational context, with particular emphasis placed on learning logs helping in planning, recording and monitoring development.

It is this pursuit to see more clearly the reality or truth of a situation from a multiple perspective in terms of the applications of coaching in the workplace that from a research position has created the potential for learning within the research study. The interpretation of the skills and knowledge required by managers to coach effectively is developed through an exploration of the views of both coach and coachee. The importance of the organisational cultural context is also considered by the research methodology framework. Senge (1992) asked the question 'does your organisation have a learning disability?' (p17, line 1) and considered the concept of learning organisations setting out eleven tenets of the fifth discipline, his words for practices of organisational learning, noting that 'cause and effect are not close in time and space' (p63, lines 9-10), suggesting that organisations and their managers fail to allow enough time for solutions to work through to successful conclusions, often opting for a return to the old ways of doing things and applying the pushing harder approach of more of the same. Whilst the traditional maxim of increasing effort in the face of an increased challenge still generally holds sway, the changing nature of the workplace and the rise of the knowledge-based economy is impacting on ways of working and changing the roles of employees towards a new breed of knowledge-based workers; with a move from working harder to one of working smarter.

The challenge for all organisations is to create learning offerings that appeal to all employees and blended learning is a popular way of doing so. Such a trend seems to be developing with electronic learning impacting more on traditional training methods (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2005b). This trend, together with a growing knowledge of how people learn, informs the learning debate and provides important inputs for coaching programmes, particularly around the importance of self-awareness in terms of coaching capability. Many managers often continue to apply the same principles and actions to management and leadership as they have done over many years despite evidence to suggest that change would be beneficial. Festinger

(1957) set out a theory of cognitive dissonance that states that whilst people may hold contradictory cognitions or viewpoints, for example on leadership behaviour, it can be psychologically uncomfortable; further, he argued that there are three ways to deal with such dissonance – by changing a belief or beliefs, acquiring new information to reduce the dissonance or reducing or forgetting the importance of the cognitions driving the dissonant relationship. The cognitive model of learning supports an individual to accept more readily knowledge or experiences that do not fit in with their own existing beliefs or views thus encouraging an open mind and flexibility in times of change. The use of research-based psychometric assessments and 360 degree feedback can support this process and help managers to reflect on their behaviours and their impact on others (Passmore, 2008).

Argyris and Schön (1974) set out a learning framework involving two approaches, namely, single-loop learning focusing on the detection and correction of errors which affect the performance of the business and double-loop learning which focuses on a continuous improvement approach based around taking action to innovate and change. A third factor is described as the organisation's action theory relating to explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge. The double-loop learning model coupled with the action theory approach arguably best supports a coaching style requiring an open approach to challenge through discussions and responses which involve change based on learning, self reflection and personal responsibility.

The dominant themes of coaching within a total learning approach relate to the growing awareness of the benefits of coaching as an integral part of the overall learning and development strategies of organisations. The emergence of the learning company as an organisation that views learning as a way to take controlled risks, often in pilot form, whilst measuring and monitoring results via feedback (Pedler, Burgoyne, and Burdell, 1996), offers an aligned and positive context for coaching to sit within. Whilst coaching can deliver benefits as a stand-alone alternative to other developmental initiatives, there are grounds to suggest that an integrated approach is much more beneficial. The multiplicity of learning approaches offers a rich background against which coaching is played out and from these various corporate learning positions organisations have to consider the source of supply and provision of coaching services.

2.3.4 The Provision of Professional Coaching Services and Related Standards

The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (2007) defines a profession as 'a vocation, a calling, esp. one requiring advanced knowledge or training in some branch of learning or science'. To develop as a profession it could be argued, from an historical context, that coaching requires underpinning research and knowledge on which to base training and supervision. According to Ellinger and Stalinski (2004), the hallmarks of becoming a profession often involve the establishment of an empirical knowledge base, minimum industry-wide skill sets, regulatory compliance regarding entry into the profession and ongoing development and measurement of skills and competencies. The nature of a profession therefore requires a range of criteria that builds credibility outside as well as inside the area of skill and, as such, there is an argument that coaching can only currently be considered as an occupation or a skilled appendage to other professional approaches.

In the UK and throughout the world generally, the coaching fraternity is still some distance away from achieving a consistent and agreed measure of professional status or a benchmarked level of professionalism as defined by regulated entry requirements, a shared knowledge base, formal qualifications, regulatory powers of enforcement, a code of ethics and a generic regulatory framework recognised at Governmental levels, for example through chartered status. However there appears to be an increasing momentum building towards the establishment of a professionally recognised coaching profession framework. There are major coaching networks already established both in the UK and internationally; in Europe for example, the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (2008) exists to promote good practice in mentoring and coaching across Europe and aims to achieve this through the development of ethical and professional standards, benchmarking, membership facilities and research, including the Competencies Research Committee whose key goal is to identify the core behaviours of coaching and mentoring for the assessment of training and skills. Other key bodies are the Association for Coaching, the Coaching Psychology Forum (part of the British Psychological Society) and the USA based International Coaching Federation. As can be seen from the links with mentoring and psychology, there are examples where associations originally formed on the basis of another discipline have

expanded their brief to include coaching activities. This highlights one of the challenges to the development of professional status, in that the range of coaching practitioners cuts across several other professional disciplines including consultancy, management, teaching, counselling, sport, psychology and clinical and, as such, coaching could arguably be regarded as a cross-disciplinary profession. Sheppard (2005) reported on the various activities underway to move towards self-regulation in the coaching industry, including the European Coaching Institute's decision to launch an international register of coaches and the joint efforts of the Association of Coaching, the International Coaching Federation and the European Mentoring and Coaching Council to launch a combined code of practice. Sheppard highlighted the disagreements between individual coaching firms in that many are not in agreement with such a move, arguing that the purchasers of coaching services should use personal references to check out the suitability and credentials of coaching suppliers.

Various informal networking and collaborative groups have been developed to discuss the changing landscape of coaching particularly the development of frameworks for coaching competences and the kite marking of qualifications. At the end of the 1990s discussions began around the development of a set of mentoring standards for UK workplaces and these standards were eventually finalised via EmpNTO (Employment Network of National Training Organisations) as the Coaching and Mentoring Units (L21 and L22). Several concerns were raised during the development, many around the danger of the units constituting a narrow and inaccurate view of organisational coaching and mentoring Parsloe (2000). EmpNTO evolved into ENTO, the UK's independent Standard Setting Body, and this body launched a comprehensive suite of organisational coaching and mentoring standards in 2007 which offer a framework to support the design of standards such as National Vocational Qualifications and possibly, at some stage, the formative basis of nationally accredited qualifications (Employment Network of National Training Organisations, 2007).

From an academic perspective professional qualifications generally fall into three main categories: (i) masters level coaching programmes, for example those provided by Middlesex and Oxford Brookes universities; (ii) postgraduate diplomas and certificate level programmes, such as those run by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development and the Oxford School of Coaching and Mentoring; and (iii) shorter

coaching programmes similar to the Newcastle College of Life Coaching and Coach U. The emergence of new programmes is a regular feature as a growing number of academic institutions are introducing or enhancing courses on coaching, including Lancaster University Management School, Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, Institute of Leadership and Management, Henley Management College and Oxford Brookes University. Such academic programmes tend to fall into two categories –certified, that is acknowledged and recognised by the university but not fully representing a university qualification (University of Strathclyde was the first university to introduce such a programme), and accredited, which are programmes acknowledged, issued and often run directly by the university.

Many larger organisations, such as the Prudential, have set up their own internal coaching programme within their own corporate learning universities (Hall, 2006c). Whilst internal provision of coaching services is an increasing trend, the major coaching provision is sourced via external suppliers. The emerging educative and skills driven supplier landscape was considered by Ahern (2005) who argued that the size of coaching provider is relevant in terms of finding the right match for a specific organisation and three different supplier types were identified. Firstly the ‘conglomerates’ were described as predominantly multinational with a range of services, possibly strong internal accreditation and supervision processes, although drawbacks may include inappropriate ‘coaches’ appointed through traditional succession processes and expensive fees. Secondly, ‘solos’ are considered to be individuals who can deliver a bespoke approach yet who may find it difficult to avoid seclusion and have no internal choice to match coach to client. Thirdly, ‘boutiques’, that is specialised coaching teams consisting of several coaches thus avoiding many of the downfalls of the ‘solo’ coach, for example the ability to match coaches globally, although the disadvantages are deemed to be the potential for a group mentality to take over and run through the delivery of coaching services in terms of coaching methods. Ahern concluded that organisations are increasingly seeking an upfront measure of quality, in terms of accreditation, delivery and ethics as well as agreement on specific deliverables which puts more focus on quality assurance within the purchasing selection process.

The selection process of external coaches appears to vary dependent upon several factors including continent. A US survey study by Grant and Zackon (2004) of International Coaching Federation members, examined six key broad areas relating to professionalism, career patterns, processes used, practice, client profiles and demographics. Interestingly coaching was found to be mainly conducted over the telephone, twice as much as face-to-face, a factor that would appear to be influenced by the majority of the respondents being based in the USA. Coaches did not generally appear to be adept at evaluating the impact of coaching. Grant and Zackon concluded that it will be increasingly important to further investigate the skills of professional coaches in recognising and referring clients with mental health issues, ensuring that the lines between psychotherapeutic mental health interventions and coaching become more, not less, distinct. Further that there appears to be a blurring around the work of coaches, with reports that some coaches are straying into business consultancy without the appropriate experience and, on the other hand, business consultants are giving coaching sessions without appropriate training and qualifications. These findings are in line with themes identified elsewhere within the literature review, in that coaches who work on increasing a coachee's potential may uncover personal 'blockages' to the coachee's performance which may require other approaches such as counselling if these are to be tackled and, as such, indicate a growing challenge to the profession of coaching.

Research on coaching services (Hemsley Fraser, 2005) found that the main barriers to using coaching were the upfront cost and a coaching style being a poor fit to the culture of the organisation. The main focus of coaching was reported to be on developing leadership capability, supporting a project or specific 'stretch' goal, team performance improvement, developing high performers and remedial situations, focused on behavioural change and specific business related goals, rather than just one of these areas. Jarvis (2004) referred to the purchasing of coaching services and questioned whether one professional body could fulfil the different aspects of coaching, noting that the majority of coaches are not members of a professional body, and predicted that the growth in demand for coaching will continue with a requirement for higher standards, possibly driven by regulation, and this in turn may lead to consolidation of coaching suppliers. To assist purchasing decisions Jarvis proposed a preparatory framework for purchasing coaching services.

Various ways of selecting coaching suppliers are reviewed by Sparrow (2006c) who reported that in excess of 3,000 coaches are registered with the six leading coaching bodies in the UK, whilst the majority of coaches are not registered. A specific case study example was the approach of Panasonic UK which used an internet search to identify high profile suppliers, followed by the creation of a shortlist leading to three or four interviews, which focused on the level of chemistry between supplier and staff through employee involvement in the selection process. Lee and Pick (2004) put forward key questions to consider when purchasing coaching services, covering the area of experience, training, organisational dynamics and accreditation/qualifications, whilst Moloney (2005) offered a process which involved reviewing professional status, coaching experience, track record, relevant experience, use of coaching methods, organisational fit, rapport and monitoring of progress. The importance of the selection process is balanced by the source of the selection decision, a role that generally falls to the Human Resources Director who will often base selection on previous experience, very often relating to sector experience and personal recommendation (Hemsley Fraser, 2005). The increasing need for HR departments to be involved in selecting external coaches is identified by Hall (2006c) through several interviews with learning professionals and the screening processes of BP and Norwich Union are referred to in relation to HR and coach selection. The difficulties in selecting the appropriate coach or coaching consultancy can result in a poor fit relating to the coach and organisation. These difficulties are not helped by the lack of consistent standards across the workplace.

A survey of coaching services identified that employers are not achieving the full benefits of coaching due to a lack of standards and quality supervision and revealed wide variations in practice ranging from one-to-one interviews to large group sessions delivered face-to-face or remotely. The research concluded that the move towards a formal professional status is likely to be accompanied by an increase in the quantity and quality of supervision for both external and in-house coaches, with the benefits of supervision seen to include a reduction of risk in terms of poor or unethical practice enabling organisations to support and develop internal coaches (Bath Consultancy Group, 2006). Richardson (2006) discussed the reasons for supervision, the conflicts within the process, the overall sustainability, evaluation and the promotion of the interests of the client.

The ongoing search for a consistent standard has resulted in initiatives such as the European Mentoring and Coaching Council's quality award, based around a competency framework, launched in the UK in 2006, which has encouraged training providers, including the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, the Universities of Sheffield Hallam and Oxford Brookes and the Oxford School of Coaching and Mentoring to use it to accredit their programmes. The quality 'kite mark' was rolled out across European organisations in 2007 and covered four award categories – Foundation, Intermediate, Practitioner and Master. This initiative is an attempt to raise the level of professionalism in the coaching industry and it is argued by its supporters as offering a more relevant yardstick for the European marketplace than the International Coaching Federation's accreditation framework of Associate, Professional and Master, which many believe incorporates an American cultural bias, although with a membership of over 9,000 members and more than 1,600 credentialed coaches in over 30 countries, it could be argued that the International Coaching Federation's standard is a global award. Scott (2007) reported that there is a growing trend for universal benchmarks and this is evidenced by several initiatives including the Graduate School Alliance for Executive Coaching which was formed by a group of academic leaders based in the US and Australia through the collaborative work of the University of Sydney (Hall 2006e).

The move towards standardisation appears to initially be resulting in a multiplicity of accreditation frameworks which could create confusion amongst the buyers of coaching services. The challenge of accreditation within organisations though offers additional complexity due to the context of coaching particularly in terms of coaching by line managers, with any kite mark needing to fulfil the business requirement as well as the individual need. Whether these pressures will result in one overarching organisation is a topic of considerable debate with a diversity of conflicting opinions from a view by Mike Hurley, former Chairman of the UK standards committee who was elected President of the European Mentoring and Coaching Council UK Board, that it is unlikely that the various coaching organisations will merge into one body; to a view that one professional body will emerge, as expressed by David Lane, a member of the Global Convention on Coaching (Soriano, 2007). From an organisational perspective the key concerns appear to centre on a demand for a way to identify quality in terms of 'qualified' and experienced coaches in some form, consistency to

help tackle the level of variability around coaching qualifications, the emergence and understanding of different coaching approaches and a move towards empirical based coaching models rather than a 'one-size fits all'.

Against this supplier background organisations have implemented coaching programmes in various ways using a diverse range of applications and approaches incorporating internal and external provision and thus creating business practices which incorporate a coaching component.

2.4 Business Practice, Applications and Approaches

2.4.1 Business Practice and Context

The exploration of coaching in an organisational context raises questions as to the nature of business practice in terms of workplace activity. The consideration of practical application via a case study review provided the opportunity to assess actual practice with academic and professional perspectives, which was achieved through the identification of organisational examples covering a range of companies across the world. Whilst the vast majority of these case studies were not undertaken within a formal structured research approach, the different perspective considered through the lens of largely practitioner-driven reports offered different learning insights which have benefited the research programme.

Coaching within a business context began to emerge in the 1970s; the Virgin record company is an early example of an organisation which embodied the principles of a coaching culture (Wilson, 2004). However coaching was not seen as part of corporate learning and development strategies on a regular basis until the 1990s, when the coaching approaches of Coca Cola Foods (Veale and Wachtel, 1996) and Vodaphone (Eaton and Brown, 2002) were arguably two of the most advanced leading-edge programmes of the time. Whilst coaching was mainly seen to be the preserve of larger companies such as those mentioned, there is evidence that innovative approaches were utilised to enable the provision of coaching to small companies by learning and skills deployment organisations such as the North Yorkshire Training and Enterprise

Council (Porter, 2000) and Sheffield Training and Enterprise Council (Devins and Gold, 2000), PJR Print Systems (Blyth, 2005) as well as other initiatives involving small and medium sized organisations (Peel, 2004).

Whether coaching was conducted in a small or large organisation the lack of evaluative assessment is a common theme, although many case studies identified personal development objectives and measured progress within these areas including Unilever Faberge (Wild, 2001), Claire's Accessories (Kubicek, 2004b) and the UK Rail Industry, which was the setting for a phenomenological case study that claimed to have established a link between coaching and customer service satisfaction whilst acknowledging that improved results would have been achieved if an action research approach had been adopted (Hannah, 2004). A research study based at Palestinian Public Universities used both qualitative and quantitative methods, adopting a triangulation approach (Khoury and Analoui, 2004). Phillips (2006) referred to the coaching programme at West Bromwich Building Society in terms of the importance within the programme of quantifiable evidence relating to the effectiveness of coaching and the need for organisational programmes to incorporate the measurement of benefits, raising the point that unlike sport coaching in a business context often did not develop a goal or objective for the strategic coaching programme or even the specific coaching intervention.

Research on maximising the returns of leadership coaching by the Corporate Leadership Council (2003) included case studies at the National Australia Group, Capital One, Hildenbrand Industries, Bristol-Myers Squibb Company, Pfizer and Shell. The research concluded that whilst there was a growing trend for coaching as a leadership development intervention it was found to be costly, lacking in consistency, requiring a need for greater advocacy as well as a more systematic approach to measurement and evaluation. Hall (2006h) discussed evaluation in terms of how Land Rover and Jaguar used team coaching to overcome the complexity created by several plants in different countries and how Tube Lines implemented a coaching programme to change leadership behaviour from a 'tell' culture to an 'ask' culture, with an evaluation model based on identifying a business measure and the benefit achieved via the coaching of that measure. Whilst this type of approach is not unique and noting that many referenced case studies refer to some measure of evaluation, it is apparent

that very few adopt some measure of rigour and therefore cannot be considered to be valuable in terms of evidence-based research. Notwithstanding, such examples offer insights and background data on which to further develop learning in several organisational coaching areas.

According to separate studies by Triad Performance Technologies and Manchester Consulting (Blanchard, 2002) coaching produced significant returns on investment, of approximately 10 to 1 in the former study producing an estimated \$2m and in the latter study improvements ranging between 48% and 67% were achieved in the areas of relationships, teamwork, productivity, job satisfaction and quality. A range of coaching interventions enhanced workplace effectiveness and produced tangible business results through improvements in workplace relationships driven by leadership behaviour. The evaluative aspects of coaching practice are crucial to the provision of evidence-based research in this area and there is therefore an investigative thread running throughout this study.

Leadership is a common theme on which coaching activity is based; examples include Airbus (Brown and Wilkes, 2004), Safeway (Kent, 2002), Britvic (Sweet, 2002), Harvester Restaurants (Barry, 1994), KPMG (Kubicek, 2004b), the Employer's Organisation for Local Government (Sheppard, 2004), London Underground (Kubicek, 2005), Toronto Rehab (Howard, 2004), Surrey and Sussex Strategic Health Authority (O'Reilly, 2005b), Coca Cola (Arkin, 2005), Southern Railway (Paton, 2006), Omgeo (Turner, 2006), United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority (Hall, 2006d), Royal Dutch Shell and Shell International Exploration and Production BV (Conway and Desmond, 2005), Woolworth, Tate and the Highlands and Islands Enterprise network (Hall, 2006f), Corus, Panasonic UK and Thames Water (Hall, 2006g) and the Royal College of Nursing (Hall, 2007) all used coaching to support their respective leadership programmes, with many seeking to change culture by establishing a link between the corporate vision and leadership behaviour incorporating a variety of methods and approaches including e-coaching, 360 degree feedback, assessment, sports psychology, emotional intelligence, learning accreditation, internal communications, situational leadership as well as focusing on a variety of organisational issues such as talent management, innovation, employee engagement and merger integration. Brumwell and Reynolds (2006) described

coaching at BT Retail as designed to increase overall performance and achieve consistency in leadership style. Redford (2005b) referred to a coaching programme at the West Bromwich Building Society, in an article on the skills required by HR professionals to put in place leadership coaching programmes and stressed the need for cultural awareness. Redford (2005c) also reported on the coaching programmes at Voluntary Service Overseas, Deloitte and BES Systems all of which centred on leadership development and increasing the self awareness of managers. Hall (2006a) reported on how coaching was deemed to help John Lewis to shift the organisation's culture towards empowerment rather than control, resulting in achieving leading recognition by customer satisfaction indexes of industry analysts Verdict Research and *Which?*

Leadership coaching is often used within organisations to facilitate change. Bill (2002) referred to such an example at the London Borough of Merton – Housing and Social Services Department, which identified that the organisation's hierarchical structures did not 'strategically fit' with the learning organisation methodology and, whilst coaching was seen to be an effective learning tool, there was a need for integration to performance management systems, evaluation processes and the learning and development strategy including succession planning. Dixons (Czerny, 2005) also undertook the use of coaching as a tool to facilitate change, purposely not gaining top team commitment due to their top team's paternalistic and aggressive cultural approach, yet their overall aim was to change management behaviour and in so doing create a culture of high performance. This is not an unusual feature of coaching projects and is often created by a passionate and/or influential organisational champion or sponsor. Whilst it is possible to get a coaching programme up and running with such an approach, very often the beneficial effect of these programmes is dissipated due to 'turf wars' and dysfunctional leadership behaviours which were not addressed at the outset, through the raising of both organisational and individual manager awareness of the change issues.

Higginbottom (2006a) reported on a leadership coaching programme at Thames Water which set out to raise leadership awareness by integrating a measurement of behavioural change via 360 degree tools, into the coaching, with a 'whole person' philosophy including issues relating to home life as well as work life. The programme

was seen as a way to change culture through leadership style. On a similar theme Hilpern (2006) reviewed how the Greater Manchester Police Centre for Excellence in Leadership developed professionally qualified internal coaches and used solution-focused coaching to move away from its command and control culture. Johnson (2007) reported on how LogicaCMG utilised coaching to strengthen and perfect their approaches to mergers and acquisitions, which helped to grow the company from 3000 employees in 1993 to a 40,000 strong workforce in 2006, by focusing on a value-driven coaching style initially through a 'marzipan' layer, a group of ambitious managers just below Board level and then rolled out to other management levels. A review by Hall (2006c) of coaching trends and activities in the US identified culture change as a key driver at Credit Suisse and Lehman, both of which utilised coaching in a strategic way as part of wider leadership development, linking activity to organisational objectives, common challenges found across the businesses and the development of high potential talent. Other key points were that more benefit was gained when there was less emphasis on remedial training, more targeted coaching, the building of an internal coaching capability, an increasing emphasis on business acumen when selecting external coaches, 'on-boarding' support for newly appointed executives and team coaching.

As the use of coaching grows there is an increasing diversity of reasons for its application, thus moving coaching into a strategic arena when utilised to develop solutions to key organisational issues. The theme of diversity in terms of the focus of coaching activity is related by Hall (2005a) who reported on a pan-European coaching programme at Panasonic designed to embed a new set of core leadership competences, BUPA where coaching was targeted at reducing attrition in the organisation's call centre, Westminster City Council which developed a coaching scheme to support black and minority ethnic staff and a women-only coaching programme at the Greater London Authority to support career development aspirations and improve female management representation. Gender issues were also the theme at Arcadia (Griffiths, 2006) and Clifford Chance (Freeman, 2008), where in both cases 'maternity coaching' was claimed to have helped to increase the number of females returning to work following maternity leave. McLoughlin and Kirwan (2007) discussed the use of coaching when working with dyslexic individuals in the workplace and the importance of placing the client in control of developing and taking forward actions through the

development of plans and strategies to build commitment, self-confidence and communication skills. Increased staff retention was reported to have resulted from integrating coaching into management roles at the American Hospital Association (Martin, 2004), the Irish Life and Permanent (O'Reilly, 2005a), Portman Building Society (Blyth, 2006a), First Direct (Phillips, 2007b), and Nando's chicken restaurant (Blyth, 2006b), with improvements also noted in terms of internal promotions and diversity approaches. Staff retention and development was also the theme of coaching at Ofgem, FirstGroup, First Great Western, UK Bus, DSG International, Tesco and Nationwide Building Society, the latter of which publicly stated that coaching was a major contributor to many of the organisation's successes including the winning of the Sunday Times Best Big Company to Work For accolade (Hall, 2005c).

The diversity of approach extended to supporting 15 disaffected youngsters who enrolled on celebrity chef Jamie Oliver's training course, titled 'Fifteen', which was documented in the television programme *Jamie's Kitchen* (Cottee, 2006). Hall (2005b) investigated Child Line's coaching approach to helping fundraisers lose the 'charity mentality' and gain a more businesslike attitude to making money through positive visualisation techniques and a review of personal skills and attitudes. Age provided the focus for coaching in B&Q and involved their older workers in skill development (Cottell, 2006a). Whiteley (2006) reported on how the General Medical Council used coaching sessions to identify common trends across the business and so inform strategic thinking. Sales performance is often a driver for coaching programmes particularly in competitive marketplaces such as financial services. The Principality Building Society coached employees on sales skills and approaches linking to 'softer' skills training with the aim of increasing mortgage business, which reportedly increased although no specific data was provided (Wynne, 2006). Sparrow (2006b) reviewed the coaching approaches of four organisations – Kimberley-Clark, Autoglass, United Utilities and ABN Amro, to identify reasons for, and learning areas relating to, organisational coaching programmes. Key areas of focus included talent management and cultural change with learning points being the use of both internal and external coaches as part of an integrated strategy, the importance of a long-term view, the positioning of coaching as a tool to achieve the organisation's objectives, the selection of the right coaching suppliers, the positioning of coaching within the learning and development strategy, the need to understand the organisational culture in

terms of present day and future, the identifying of advocates, line manager engagement and training support and measurement and communication of benefits. Passmore (2006) pulled together a collection of views from coaching practitioners including a review of an integrative coaching model designed to achieve an integrated coaching approach, a theme further explored by this research in terms of aligning coaching to organisational structures, culture and leadership behaviour.

As highlighted in earlier references the delivery options of coaching are expanding from the traditional externally sourced provision to a mix of external and internal provision. Hall (2006b) referred to the AA's decision to build a team of in-house 'super-coaches' to achieve an improvement in coaching quality and sales and service delivery following an internal audit of coaching which identified inconsistencies in coaching approaches across the organisation. Phillips (2007a) reported that Britannia Building Society introduced an executive-level coaching qualification rolled out to senior managers with the aim of having a pool of internal coaches. Apart from the internal versus external coaching provision debate, new ways in delivering coaching have emerged in recent years including technology advances, a topic which was referred to by Chubb (2007), who reported on the use of coaching using teleconferencing to overcome the challenge of a globally distributed workforce at EDS involving 1,500 leaders in 41 countries.

Return on investment from line manager coaching interventions has been a major challenge for academic and practitioner driven coaching activities and there is evidence that difficult economic trading periods adds a new urgent perspective to the measurement of the impact of coaching (Sparrow, 2009). A coaching project at BT Wholesale had a target of a 10% to 15% increase in productivity based on a pilot study yet this approach incorporated multi-media facilities and other applications which were not primarily linked to line manager coaching and there was little detailed evidence recorded of links between coaching and any impact on productivity (Pollitt, 2008). As indicated earlier in this section there are innumerable examples of coaching interventions which are claimed to deliver a measurable return on investment yet fail to convince due to a lack of a rigorous research approach. An exploratory research study (Bowles, Cunningham, De La Rosa and Picano; 2007) on the impact of coaching on the performance of managers with recruiting responsibilities provided

possible links between coaching and performance by comparing the performance of coached and un-coached managers, a similar approach, in some way, to this research study. A survey based study that focused on organisational coaching found that more internal coaching for middle line managers appeared to improve culture and morale yet only a third of coaching engagements in the study were evaluated (McDermott, M., Levenson, A. and Newton, S; 2007). Notwithstanding examples of existing research and the emerging work on the efficacy of coaching in the workplace there are relatively few studies that address the measurement of the outputs of coaching and even less that include 'hard' performance measures. Levenson (2009) makes this point in relation to executive coaching but it is arguably even more relevant with regards to coaching by line managers, probably due to the later introduction, in general terms, of such coaching approaches at that level compared to the more widespread use of executive coaching in past years.

The examples referred to indicate that coaching is now viewed by many organisations as a necessary skill of a manager's role, yet in past years coaching was primarily viewed in an executive context with external coaches working with senior managers. Having recognised the significance of coaching as a leadership tool a new coaching scenario is emerging within many organisations to one that adds value to organisations on a strategic and tactical level from cultural change to specific training initiatives, as well as being used to tackle organisational challenges and problems.

2.4.2 Organisational Coaching Applications

Various examples of coaching applications have been identified within the business case studies set out earlier and this coaching activity is primarily focused around key business drivers. According to Clifford and Thorpe (2007), coaching within an organisation can be used to enhance performance, transfer learning from classroom learning and theory to working practice, inducting new employees, managing talent, supporting senior managers and developing 'soft' skills. Rabey (2001) sets out four sequential steps to use coaching as a complementary development tool to training utilising observation, analysis, diagnosis and coaching focused on the problem, solution, ownership and actions. There is though, a wider spread of applications.

McGarrah (2004) reported on a survey of 6,121 sales professionals which identified that without follow-up reinforcement of training approximately half of the learning was forgotten within five weeks of the training programme. Coaching was identified as the second most effective way of reinforcing new sales skills, with sharing sales methods and language being the most effective and follow-up classes the third most effective.

McFadzean and O'Loughlin (2000) discussed how team building can benefit from a coaching approach, dependent upon its stage of development, involving the coach working with the team as a group rather than on a one-to-one basis. Process consultation, a way of identifying and resolving problems through a facilitated group process, is considered as one aspect of how coaching can be integrated into team development processes. Team coaching in business is not a widespread practice although it is an emerging coaching approach and appears to be gathering pace in terms of application and usage. Clutterbuck (2007a) sets out a range of team coaching processes and interventions identifying differences between team coaching and team facilitation and puts forward a set of key components around feedback, engagement, learning process, action/monitoring, relationship, learning conversation, enablers and outcomes. According to Clutterbuck, facilitation focuses on creating the environment for dialogue, focusing on the process for clarifying and making decisions and does not require specific expertise; whereas coaching offers potentially additional value around creating and analysing feedback, sometimes giving advice and focusing on performance. Clutterbuck also identified differences between team coaching and team building particularly in the areas of purpose, focus, learning process, reflective practice, role focus, learning conversation, typical time horizon and outcomes. Yapp (2004) discusses career and/or role change and considers how coaching can offer a supportive yet focused approach to assisting managers during periods of change, particularly relating to the need to achieve results during the adjustment, coming to terms with the new role and handling complexity and ambiguity.

Minter and Thomas (2000) proposed that a productive area for organisational coaching is within a performance management framework. Utilising a profiling approach they placed employees into performance categories with 15% of a company's workforce profiled as High Performance Employees (HPEs), another 70% as Average Performers

(AP's) and 15% as Marginal or Problem Employees (MPEs). A three multi-dimensional approach is proposed with coaching for HPEs, mentoring for AP's and counselling for MPEs. A set of assumptions for each scenario was developed to provide guidance on the criteria for the selection of which model to use in the three different instances. Carter and McMahon (2005) set out a coaching approach to improving employee performance through regular feedback and coaching by line managers.

The transfer of key knowledge is of critical importance in an organisation particularly in the context of succession planning. The knowledge is often skill or people based, for example intuition or judgement, rather than technical or process driven, and can only be transferred within an ongoing coach and/or mentor relationship, due to the complexity of the subject matter. Leonard and Swap (2005) termed this type of knowledge worker 'Deep Smarts' and asserted that 'knowledge' coaching can form part of succession planning and talent management through the creation of multiple coach/mentor relationships across the organisation. Sonsino (2003) reported on the findings of the Tomorrow's Leaders Research Group related to the identification and development of leadership talent, a prime finding being that coaching on a day to day basis is the most underrated learning opportunity for developing high potential managers and that benefit would accrue from coaching being formally incorporated into a manager's role. Phillips (2006) addressed the issue of coaching to support talent management programmes and concluded that coaching has the potential to add value.

It is suggested that the use of coaching within such programmes is generally less than other development options such as training courses, personal development plans, leadership skills programmes, mentoring and secondments. Internal coaches versus external coaches is considered and the latter option is identified as possibly being more appropriate and offering more potential dependent on the nature of confidentiality and level of expertise required. Thomson (2005) argued the use of coaching to support female executives within a talent management framework, helping to overcome the challenges of building credibility in often male-dominated board environments through developing resilience and confidence. The role of coaching in stress management was considered by Hearn (2001) who argued that the building of self-confidence, action planning and reflective thought through coaching could help to

reduce stress. Gyllenstein and Palmer (2005) undertook research to consider whether coaching could reduce workplace stress finding that coaching was not responsible for reducing stress although coaching was found to reduce stress indirectly through the provision of techniques to improve confidence and thus take actions to reduce stressful situations. However coaching also had the potential to create stress if the coaching activity was seen to be unproductive. Conversely there is potential for coaching to support health or 'wellness' programmes, linking personal coaching to other tools such as health assessments (Arloski, 2006; Nowack, 2007). Uberoy (2006) explored the potential for strategic coaching (building future capability), as opposed to tactical coaching (problem focused), identifying the need to link coaching to organisational strategy, ensuring a top level champion, integrating coaching activity within the organisation's learning and development framework and focusing on outcomes and benefits. Hunt and Weintraub (2007) developed a similar theme with their views on organisational coaching and the strategies and applications required to develop leadership talent with a coaching approach.

As can be seen, the different ways in which coaching is being developed and utilised within organisations continues to grow and covers the spectrum of organisational processes including follow-up support to training, acceleration of personal development, performance management, career development, talent management, organisational change issues, induction of new staff, diversity development (e.g. gender, race, disability), strategic development, work/life balance executive support, supporting psychometric and 360 degree feedback, new projects and assignments, error situations, feedback, relationship conflict, building confidence, increasing individual and team competency, appraisal reviews, behavioural issues, development of aspirational goals, skill development, transference of skill and knowledge and management of organisational politics. Against this background there is a drive to find appropriate models and tools by which to effectively apply coaching activity to the desired individual, team or organisational area of development.

2.4.3 Coaching Models and Approaches

2.4.3.1 Context of Implementation

Coaches use a variety of tools and techniques from a wide range of theoretical backgrounds including organisational theory, occupational psychology, psychometrics, learning and counselling. Hay (2003) proposed a continuum of coaching styles based on a spectrum running from a directive ('push') approach to a non-directive ('pull') approach. Coaching operates within this range utilising techniques and models from a growing range. Coaching models vary widely although Kenton and Moody (2001) argued that there is a common set of factors which span the range of models and which cover individuality (personal needs), immediacy (responsiveness), change-orientation (flexibility), achievement (outcomes), trust (unique relationships), and attention (interest). Coaching models and frameworks, which present approaches in a memorable way, appear to have a better chance of being used regularly by busy, under pressure managers. Models enable complex ideas to be framed in a process which can offer a concise 'packaged' solution to coaching interventions and the potential to capture the imagination of managers who can link the concept to their workplace requirements. However the benefits of using models can be offset if the underpinning knowledge behind the conceptual nature of the model is not discussed or considered in sufficient detail; also the untidy nature of personalities and work issues does not always fit into a 'model' approach. There is a risk of coaches tending to use a small number of models and/or approaches irrespective of the client situation and many organisations may therefore fail to gain the optimum benefits of coaching activities through adopting a 'one size fits all approach'. To overcome such issues coaches may find that using coaching models and tools that are 'fit for purpose' rather than adopting a 'blanket' approach by using just one or two models to cover a variety of situations, is more beneficial to the organisational context.

There is a vast range of coaching models being used in the workplace, the numbers of which increase on an ongoing basis. A selection of these coaching models is included as Appendix 1 which provides a range of those coaching models and frameworks that are being used within organisations, noting that there are many other such approaches

in use which are not referred to in a formal way. The models are documented in alphabetical order for ease of reference.

Whilst a review of the practical models and approaches adds value and insight to the research learning experience, there is also a need to consider the influences, whether these are direct or underlying, to the development of coaching frameworks. The next section therefore considers the conceptual influences and approaches that have helped to shape the development of coaching in the workplace.

2.4.3.2 Conceptual Approaches

Much of the conceptual thought processes on coaching emphasise the importance of the potential of individuals to bring about the required change in their lives, whether socially or work-wise. Bandura (1977) argued that such self-efficacy is mainly determined by previous performance in a given area and is created by four key factors. Firstly, successful performances although occasional failures do not change a person's self-efficacy but rather increases motivation to greater performance; secondly, vicarious learning based on observing others succeeding; thirdly, verbal persuasion although this is considered less effective unless accompanied by experience of success and fourthly, emotional arousal through positive emotional feelings. Popper and Lipshitz (1992) considered the power of self-efficacy to improve performance at the skill level through the establishment of a coaching relationship based on defining success, building delivery structures and accessing personal resources.

For Laske (2004) coaching, irrespective of background, life experience or idiosyncratic approach, is based on three generic processes, namely, supporting and guiding attention, envisioning and interpreting outcomes and enacting new behaviours and experiences. Laske used the Evidence-Based Capability Framework methodology which reflects the belief that a behavioural profile linked to performance results takes into account only a proportion of an individual's potential, whereas a developmental assessment is said to consider the potential capability. Laske argued that a change in a client's ability relates to a behavioural change in relation to their presently applied capability; however whether the new behaviour can be maintained depends on their

willingness to change and their developmental potential capability at the time of coaching. Notwithstanding, a developmental shift to a higher level of mental growth may occur after the coaching process has ended and at this time further change may occur. The research identified that positive behavioural change occurred whether a developmental shift occurred or not, however the behaviour was only sustained when accompanied by a developmental shift. The potential for a delayed or progressive developmental impact creates challenges for learning and development specialists who very often have to justify training programmes on an immediate benefit impact basis. The immediacy factor is often tackled by the development of learner goals linked to personal development and business outcomes.

A study by Steers and Porter (1996) identified two key factors in increasing coaching outcomes, namely, goal-specificity or detail comparative to the development of vague, distant or general goals, and building of ownership of the solution by the coachee. Umstot, Bell and Mitchell (1996) identified that goal-setting had a major impact on productivity and less impact on job satisfaction compared to job enrichment which had a major impact on job satisfaction and less impact on productivity. Locke (1996) investigated the relationship between conscious performance goals and performance on work tasks and described goals as having two aspects: internal – ideas or desired ends, and external – object or condition sought. The ideas guide action to attain the object, in other words a person's thoughts influence their actions. Locke concluded that several factors impacted upon performance outcome including specificity of goal, personal commitment, self-efficacy, feedback and task planning. Komaki (2001) argued from a different angle a similar point, that managers perceived to be effective by their reports very often clearly expressed an interest in their reports' work, the implication for coaches being the importance of outcome-based measures and follow-up reviews.

The power of thought in personal motivation terms is related within the theory of spiral dynamics (Beck and Cowan, 1996), which sets out a view on how people think, are motivated, how they learn and how they change as individuals, groups and organisations. The theory is based on a spiral hierarchy of human behaviour which is determined by external conditions as well as internal values and personal mentality, arguably an ideal framework of personal development on which to base coaching

interventions as it places emphasis on building and maintaining positive relationships. The perspective raised by the spiral dynamics theory, that our environment influences our behaviour as well as our internal feelings, is a theme that Oshry (1996) considered in terms of power and systems within organisational life, identifying three patterns of relationship that is leader and team member, supervisors and middle managers and provider/customer. The complexity of organisational systems and the impact on workplace relationships is very often the focus of coaching interventions and, as such, Oshry's work offers a framework for coaching aimed at achieving behavioural change, to complement other more popular models such as the Helping Process (Egan, 1998), which can help structure counselling, mentoring or coaching conversations. Other coaching models such as the Meta-Coaching model, a proprietary coach certification training programme for performance, developmental and transformational coaching, developed by Hall and Duvall (2001), have been developed through the study of cognitive-behavioural science, including neuro semantics and neuro-linguistic programming.

Sieler (2003) proposed that ontology, the study of being, provides a rigorous theoretical basis for a sound coaching methodology and effective coaching practice through the development of three key approaches: language (fundamental in creating reality through the use of stories); emotions (including the difference between moods and emotions); and body. Psychosynthesis (Assagioli, 1993), a concept related to ontology due to its focus on personal self awareness, is a potential resource available for coaching situations where it is beneficial to redirect forces that resist change rather than deploy the use of strong will to overcome ingrained behaviour. The benefit of increasing the self awareness levels of coachees as a valuable way to maximise the benefits of coaching skills programmes is discussed by Peltier (2001), who identified coaching strategies to foster self reflection and improvement, namely one-to-one coaching sessions over a period of time to build the relationship through listening and questioning skills, direct behavioural observation of the manager by the coach and the use of psychometric assessment and 360 degree feedback to encourage self reflection. The integration of such external inputs to build personal awareness levels appears to be used more and more often within coaching sessions, although there is less evidence to suggest a wider application and integration into leadership development programmes.

Bisiker (2001) considered the development of self awareness and the concept of self coaching through a range of frameworks including self-assessments and self questioning techniques which are designed to enable an individual to follow through a coaching process. The challenge of self-coaching is that there is no third party to aid objectivity or provide a 'sounding board', and therefore this is not a method that has found many advocates within an organisational context.

The use of specific methodologies such as Pathfinder Pragmatic Enquiry, which is a trademarked process for eliciting and testing values and how they influence decision making, offer ways in which individuals can consider and analyse their personal motives and philosophy. Ron Nahser (Nahser and Ruhe, 2004) developed this five step model on a continuum framework: Begin, Explore, Interpret, Hypothesis and Act (then begin again). Key applications include linking an individual's value sets and contribution to organisational values, strategic marketing, problem solving and development of personal values. The Pathfinder Pragmatic Enquiry model was developed through research-based methodologies; however there are many coaching models in the market place which do not benefit from such an approach. The growth of coaching frameworks and models led Grant and Cavanagh (2004) to argue that there is a need to base professional coaching practice in a solid theoretical understanding and empirically tested models rather than mass market approach proprietary systems that do not have such a grounding, and put forward the Scientist-Practitioner model which drew on behavioural science frameworks during its development and in doing so addressed theoretical and empirical foundations of coaching knowledge, together with critical thinking skills and sound research methodologies.

As a genre, diagnostic tools can be useful starting points for a conversation that can lead to increased self-awareness. The use of tools to stimulate reflection, including psychometric tests and 360 degree feedback, integrated within the coaching process is a methodology used by many coaches particularly within an executive coaching context. The use of a personal balanced scorecard can help to focus the coachee on a range of 'critical incidents' which incorporates 360 degree feedback. However, the interpretation of such tools is a specialist skill and therefore arguably beyond the skill and knowledge levels of the vast majority of managers. Many external coaches have

developed specialist skills in the interpretation of diagnostic tools. The concept of using 360 degree feedback in a coaching framework has been considered by Goodge and Coomber (2007) who proposed seven steps: (i) commence with emphasis on developing personal performance before reviewing feedback from the 360 degree report, which should be given out at the initial meeting; (ii) clarify an individual's performance including measures and achievement; (iii) identify an individual's major goal for the year; (iv) encourage an individual to personally identify two or three goals based on the feedback; (v) adopt a flexible approach to the feedback session so as to enable other areas of development outside of 360 degree feedback to be discussed; (vi) develop at least ten options, such as actions based on delegation, time management, meetings, structures, relationships and information systems as well as personal development before encouraging the individual to select three key actions; and (vii) ask how individual will engage their line manager and consider the relationship between them. Whilst Goodge and Coomber (2008) later stated that 'it is probable that good self awareness enables a person to work with others more effectively' (lines 71-72, p13) there was a proviso that using 360 degree feedback to increase self awareness only works effectively if it is supported by coaching, workshops and development resources rather than as a stand-alone tool.

Luthans and Peterson (2003) undertook a research case study, set in a small manufacturing company, which combined 360 degree feedback with coaching focused on enhanced self-awareness and behavioural management and reportedly resulted in improved manager and employee satisfaction. However, meta-analytic evidence of over 600 studies showed that one third of the studies identified a decrease in performance following individual feedback (Kluger and DeNisi, 2002). Despite these findings there is a strong experiential view to support the notion that the integration of leadership development with coaching supported by 360 degree feedback provides the potential for a powerful and valuable learning experience. Goodge (2006) emphasised the potential of using 360 degree feedback prior to, or at the beginning of, training courses with the aim of underpinning the training with a clear personal focus, together with consideration of interpersonal communications such as transactional analysis (Berne, 1964), a theory of human personality and social behaviour based on three ego states: parent, adult and child, through which people communicate either verbally, using body language, or tone.

Berne (1966) later developed a model on how two parties could contract to understand what they are jointly working towards through three categories: procedural – administrative; professional – goals; and psychological – personal dynamics. English (1975) developed themes on Berne's work and identified that most business contracts were three-cornered in that the organisation added an extra dimension. Hay (1992) reviewed contracting from an organisational perspective and added two levels: perceptual – how work is viewed within an organisation; and political – who is commissioning the work. The different parties therefore expanded to include the coachee, the coachee's line manager, the sponsoring organisation and the coach. The use of transactional analysis within a coaching framework is further considered by Hay (2006) particularly the theories of discounting, that is, the avoidance of information that does not fit our preconceptions and contracting and an understanding of the rights and responsibilities of those in the 'contract' or relationship. Zaleski (1988) argued that success in achieving personal goals was related to interpersonal relationships such as a life partner relationship and that the integration of such voluntary support into coaching programmes offered the potential for enhancing performance.

The Trans-Theoretical Model of Change developed by Prochaska and Di Clemente (1984a) detailed the socio-cognitive and meta-cognitive process related to the adoption of new behaviours. Peel (2005) discussed the significance of behaviourism in achieving effective coaching practice and proposed that whilst many coaches use coaching models based on behaviourist techniques, there is often a lack of understanding in terms of the theoretical underpinning of behaviourism. Peel argued that an understanding of the significance of behaviourism, in the coaching context, provides coaches with the possibility of better understanding of the appropriateness of their interventions.

According to Hargrove (2002), transformational coaching sets out to go beyond people performing better (coaching for incremental behaviour – single loop learning) to getting to the source of a person's behaviour and altering their frames of reference (coach to learn to do new things – double loop learning), moving onto enabling people to make a shift change in learning and growing (coaching for transformation of being and behaviour – triple loop learning). It is argued that transformational coaching helps

people identify, question and reframe perceptions (e.g. 'rut' stories that keep people in old ways of being and thinking, whereas the coach seeks to transform 'rut' stories into 'river' stories which open up new possibilities and explores potential). The development of transforming old routines into new behaviours is discussed by Willis (2006) of Lequin Executive Coaching, who refers to the Lequin Russian Doll method which is based on five complementary layers: self-belief and vision, energy and focus, PR and branding – personal impact and strengths, emotional intelligence and relationships, and leadership skills. Biswas-Diener and Dean (2007) emphasised the value of identifying a client's key strengths within a coaching context, to increase their feeling of subjective well-being or happiness and create a platform for improved performance, a tenet based on the positive psychology school of coaching.

Clutterbuck and Megginson (2004) considered several coaching techniques including: (i) culpable vagueness – the use of vagueness by the coachee to avoid action which can be tackled by the coach through questions aimed at driving out specific details; (ii) vice into virtue – requiring the coach to encourage the coachee to look at the positives around the vice and align an acknowledged strength to develop a solution; and (iii) exaggeration – a technique which exaggerates the coachee's negative embedded behaviour in order to shock the coachee into action. These methods are designed to focus attention on the learner's behaviour and stimulate thought processes around the possibility of change. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005b) also discussed the value of achieving focus through identifying a client's view of success and proposed a technique which required a rating out of 10 points, based on how much they value each, to be allocated to four success factors: money, status or peer recognition, job satisfaction and work-life balance. Other areas can be added by the client, for example happiness. The client is then asked to look backward ten years and apply the same rating approach and then to look forward ten years.

Coaching for change is addressed by Grant (2003b) when he describes the 'House of Change' framework based on four dimensions: situation, behaviour, emotions and thoughts, with the latter two elements being in the basement of the house and not readily on show. According to Grant coaching for change requires discontent with the past, a vision of the future, skills and knowledge and continuous and deliberate action. Grant (2005) later expressed the essential criteria of a coaching framework as: (i) an

empirically validated model of change which facilitates the coaching process; (ii) a model of self-regulation which allows delineation of the processes inherent in self-regulation and goal setting and attainment; (iii) how behaviour, thoughts and feelings arise and interact; and (iv) how behaviour, thoughts and feelings can be altered to facilitate goal attainment. Grant set out a generic model of goal-directed self-regulation and argued that coaches must assess the coachee's readiness for change, drawing on models of transition and change namely: (i) the Transition Model (Bridges, 1986) relating to the phases of letting go, which requires time to move from the neutral zone in which confusion is often experienced to the new beginnings phase when they are ready to move forward; (ii) the Adaption to Transitions Model (Schlossberg, 1981), which is particularly relevant to major life changes and which cites three factors that affect a person's adaption to change, the transition itself, the pre and post transition environments and the individual state; and (iii) the Trans-Theoretical Model of Change (Prochaska and Di Clemente, 1984b) which identifies guidelines for coaching application, firstly by assessing the readiness of the individual to change, secondly the transitional cross-over from preparation to action and thirdly the creation of relapse prevention or post relapse strategies.

The process of change in terms of human behaviour is addressed by many coaching practitioners who have utilised specialist knowledge of neural linguistic programming (NLP), the study of communicating through thinking, language and behaviour, to bring together NLP techniques within a coaching framework. Knight (2002) set out such an approach to coaching in the workplace through focusing on a coachee's subjective experience with the aim of them moving from their present state to their desired state. NLP techniques include eliciting well formed outcomes and goals, anchoring techniques to enable past resources to support present development, meta-models to clarify reality and put into perspective self-limiting beliefs and future pacing, designed to envision required personal actions and behaviours in the future. Narrative therapy (White and Epston, 1990) holds that personal identity is created by a series of life stories. The methodology focuses on the effects of problems rather than on a personal view of problems, using narrative conversations around core values and personal commitments. Law (2006) argued that a narrative therapy approach is beneficial within coaching enabling coaches to view problems as separate from people.

The situational leadership model (Blanchard and Hersey, 1977) is often used by coaches to encourage and facilitate a flexible, more responsive approach to change and, in terms of the manager as a coach, offers insights to the needs of others. Appreciative Inquiry (Cooperrider and Srivastva, 1987) is also a methodology used within an organisational coaching context and focuses on the corporate strengths to take forward organisational development based on four characteristics, i.e. appreciative, applicable, provocative and collaborative. The appreciative inquiry approach was developed via the 4-D model (Srivastva, Cooperrider and Case Western Reserve University, 1990) based on four elements: discover – best moments, dream – visioning, design – planning, and destiny – implementing. Appreciative inquiry techniques can also be considered at an individual level to focus on strengths and what is going well, particularly where there is a requirement for non-directive coaching aimed at building self-confidence.

Zeus and Skiffington (2000) discussed behavioural coaching focused on the actions, responses and reactions of an individual, team or organisation and drawing from behavioural, social sciences, management and leadership theories. Grant (2002) identified the potential of behavioural science to support coaching in change situations through referral to Lewin (1947) and the Force Field Analysis theory including the unfreezing of old ways and the refreezing of new ways; Bridges (1991) and the Transition Model of Change based on three phases of letting go, in between and new beginnings; and the Transtheoretical Model of Change (Prochaska et al, 1994) relating to the several stages of change: pre-contemplation, contemplation (or determination), preparation, action, maintenance, relapse and exit.

The various conceptual ideas present a rich pattern of background themes upon which coaching is often developed and implemented, in many cases via more structured and business/client focused coaching models referred to in the earlier section. These varied yet often interlinking approaches are applied to achieve specific goals, yet there is potential for such activities to be viewed, in a strategic sense, with the aim of effecting wider organisational change. The next section considers the literature on the utilisation of coaching as an organisational change driver through leadership and cultural change.

2.5 Leadership Coaching – Organisational and Cultural Change

2.5.1 Leadership in the Context of a Coaching Approach

The notion of coaching as a leadership style is one which opens up a wide debate on the impact of leadership approaches on human motivation. The argument that workers are motivated by money and need to be controlled (Taylor, 1911) was countered by the concept of group collaboration and team identity as a way to manage motivation (Mayo, 1933). Mayo (1945) later applied therapy-based approaches to assess the impact on workforce dissatisfaction in a research project argued by O'Connor (1999) to be solutions focused and interventionist. McKeown and Whiteley (2002) asserted that whilst the principle of control and order continues to be a key feature of management behaviour, this is not sustainable and that a balanced interdependent approach, recognising the tensions between an employee's work and home commitments, offers a longer term solution. This was a theme investigated earlier by Maslow (1987), who developed a motivational theory based on a structured hierarchy of human needs based on five levels, ranging from the most basic needs up to the highest level of self-actualisation, which involves activities that have some value to others not just self. Alderfer (1969) introduced a three level needs hierarchy based on basic material existence, relationships and personal development, arguing that, unlike Maslow's model, more than one level may motivate at any time and, if a higher need is frustrated, then the person may regress to increase the satisfaction of a lower level need.

The search for a meaning in life is considered by many to be a primary motivator (Frankl, 1959) and is intrinsic in management theory based on the higher levels of human needs, yet is countered by a view that control is necessary in a manager – employee relationship in order to achieve a task (Herzberg, 1966). This motivational paradigm is contemplated by McGregor (1960) when he considered the impact of managerial belief patterns of human motivation on trust levels and the consequent impact on management behaviour; low trust resulting in a high level of direction and control and high trust in a reduced level of directive and controlling management behaviour. The dynamic of change in the working environment offers challenges to maintaining high levels of trust and can create disharmony and result in a loss of

employee motivation through perceived inequities which employees will seek to correct in some way (Adams, 1965). However the Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964/1995) related to a motivational force based on the factors of valence, expectancy and instrumentality interacting psychologically to create emotional orientation, desire for extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, confidence in capability and a belief that reward will accompany achievement and minimise pain whilst maximising pleasure. The avoidance of pain and the need to develop potential was considered by Herzberg (1966), who identified two behavioural categories – hygiene and motivational, where the latter category, which focused on reward and recognition drivers, had the potential to drive motivation whereas the hygiene category included those factors that only maintained personal motivation at best with the potential to effect a decrease in motivational levels.

The impact of management behaviour on motivation at work is often captured and simplified by referral to the polarised stances of directive management, utilising a ‘command and control’ style, and participative management which can build on trust levels and empowerment. Potter (1994) argued that a directive style restricts the potential contribution of the individual and referred to organisations as being aggressive, passive or constructive, emphasising the importance of coaching in a participative management approach as well as behavioural alignment to mission, competency, recognition, involvement, feedback and the building of self-esteem. Yet Fiedler (1967) argued that effective leadership may consist of both relationship-motivated and task-motivated approaches, dependent and contingent on the nature of the task and the work environment with task oriented managers likely to perform better in situations which are either very favourable or very unfavourable and relationship oriented managers performing better in those situations that fall in between the extreme areas; with the use of feedback considered to be beneficial to raising the awareness of managers in their choice of leadership behaviour. MacGregor Burns (1978) argued that transformational (relationship driven) leaders, rather than transactional (task driven) leaders, can transform the expectations and commitment levels of employees to achieve outstanding results, arguably a more polarised approach compared to the wider concept of situational leadership (Blanchard and Hersey, 1977). Bennis (1984) argued that transformational change requires a collaborative style of leadership, particularly in the context of a less hierarchical

business models such as those advocated by Moss Kanter (1989), who referred to the four 'Fs' principle of organisations being focused, fast, friendly and flexible.

The search for leadership behaviours that motivate employees has led to a myriad of management behavioural models designed to achieve desired organisational cultures, an early example being the System of Profound Knowledge, created to achieve a quality culture (Deming, 1986). A prime driver of such leadership systems is arguably the need to improve the effectiveness of managers in an increasingly complex working environment and as Drucker (1996) acknowledged '... as companies grow ever more complicated the job of manager becomes ever more ill defined' (p.13, lines 26-27).

Edwards, Winter and Bailey (2002) describe leadership in management as 'a process of communication to individuals and groups which results in the enhanced motivation of those individuals and groups' (p15, lines 4-5) and refer to the importance of the 'helicopter view' and assert that management consists of four broad skill sets: entrepreneurship, political skills, leadership and administration. The difference between leadership and management is a theme explored by Kotter (1990) who asserted that these are two separate yet complementary approaches; management to control complexity through transactional approaches and leadership to produce useful change through transformational behaviours. Bass and Avolio (1994) proposed that transformational leadership is created through individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealised influence and identified directive, consultative, participative and delegatory styles as behaviours displayed by transformational leaders dependent upon context. Bass (1998) later related this concept to different leadership situational environments including academic, military and industrial. Geroy, Bray and Venneburg (2005) referred to a leadership approach involving transactional, transformational and transcendental, the latter being based on coaching, counselling and mentoring influences.

The tension between transformational and transactional approaches exists within organisational change structures as well as leadership behaviour, with the option of a 'hard' strategic economic approach through economic incentives, delayering and downsizing or an alternative 'softer' approach, developing people potential, building trust and commitment through communication, coaching and team values (Beer and

Nohria, 2000). Very few organisations manage to simultaneously balance these different approaches although it could be argued that General Electric's rise to a world class company was achieved through linking 'hard-edged' goals and 'softer' values-based objectives to rigorous performance appraisal systems backed up by coaching and mentoring approaches (Welch, 2001); the latter management interventions being identified as a key trigger for leadership development activity (Bentley and Turnbull, 2005). Leakey and Lewin (1992) proposed that a reflective approach to cultivate cultural and behavioural awareness could meet an individual's motivational needs. The emphasis on a reflective and less directive style was the essence of the Authentic Leadership model which identified a way of viewing leadership through seven generic features of action: meaning, mission, power, structure, resources, existence and fulfilment (Terry, 1993).

Goffee and Jones (2000) challenged four popular views about leadership, namely that everyone can be a leader, people in eminent positions are leaders, leaders deliver business results and leaders are great coaches. The principles of good coaching within a leadership context was discussed by Barry (1994) who set out key factors of: timing, communication, listening, delegating, continuous improvement, constructive feedback, and awareness of others career goals, interests and concerns, within an overall context of human connection. The importance of human connectivity or emotional intelligence was defined by Goleman (1995, 1998) in terms of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill, arguing that these abilities could be learned. Yet Collins (2001) argued that abilities which involved a paradoxical blend of personal humility and professional will, require inherent skills which cannot be developed through management education and very often required life changes to create an impact on the personality of the individual.

The nature or nurture argument on the development of emotional intelligence is complicated by possible gender differences, with an argument that females are more likely than males to use an interactive emotionally grounded transformational leadership style which focuses on positive relationships based on role modelling, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and emotional needs (Burke and Collins, 2001). Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002a) identified six leadership styles being: visionary, coaching, affiliative, democratic, pacesetter and commanding, and

argued that the first four usually lead to better performance but whilst the last two may be appropriate in certain circumstances they can foster dissonance. The view that communication is a critical component of leadership is considered by Pearce (2003) from an internal perspective that is personal authenticity and values as well as an external perspective relating to communication skills.

The reflective style of leadership leans heavily on the development of emotional communication to achieve a collaborative partnership between leader and follower, a theme discussed by Blanchard, Carlos and Randolph (1996) who argued that leaders need to modify their styles to match the needs of those they lead. The potential of a coaching style to support the achievement of a holistic work/life balance approach through personal development is explored by Whitmore (1999) who referred to his experience that, when groups of people are asked the question “What percentage of people’s potential manifests itself in the workplace on average?” (p16, lines 21-22), the averaged answer is 40%. When asked what obstructs the other 60% from emerging, the answers include restrictive structures, management style and lack of encouragement and opportunity. The primary blocks though are fear of failure, lack of self confidence and self-doubt. Whitmore argued that these can be addressed through increasing self-belief and creating a sense of meaning through a leadership coaching style. The concept of coaching within a leadership context is a challenging one and not, to date, well defined. The bringing of a coaching style to a leadership approach often requires the balancing of a mainly directive management approach to a generally non-directive coaching style.

The theme of leadership coaching has been developed in several ways, whether as an option to the cult of charismatic leadership (Binney, Wilke and Williams, 2005), an emerging essential skill requirement (Humphrey and Stokes, 2000), the concept of group followership (Burnham, 2002) or new personal leadership strategies based on an awareness of self, people, team, company, culture, skills and career (Taylor, 2002). Antonioni (2000) referred to the demands on middle managers to lead and coach as well as manage, even though based on survey responses, the study indicated that the managerial respondents spent on average 75% of their time managing. The ‘New Model Leader’ concept emerged from research by Aspen Institute’s Business and Society Programme (McGaw, 2005), emphasising listening and questioning skills to

encourage reflection; key principles of effective coaching. Much research during the 2000s has emphasised challenges to the cult of charismatic leadership styles, the growth of contextual and collaborative leadership rather than leadership based on a generic formulae and increasing evidence that a focus on participative leadership approaches, a leadership style arguably best suited to a coaching approach, results in improved organisational performance (Osbaldeston, 2005).

On a European basis UK managers identified more closely with a participative leadership style than German and French leaders (Development Dimensions International, 2006). The potential for coaching in the UK is arguably greater with a higher number of managers pro rata (i.e. 4 million in 2002) than the USA, Japan, Germany and France yet, in comparative terms, the UK's managers are more under qualified, under trained and unprepared than their world counterparts (Keep and Westwood, 2003). The emerging requirement for front line managers is to have the 'softer' people skills (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2004b) and this is supported by research conducted by Investors in People (2005) which showed that 66% of staff believe that their manager does not role model the organisation's values; and the Worker's Index published by the Work Foundation (2006) and MORI, which indicated that the UK's managers are not getting the most out of their staff due to poor communication and poor levels of employee engagement. This is evidenced by the CIPD's research finding that only a third of British workers are engaged at work (Phillips, 2009).

The identification of a more emotionally grounded leadership style to meet the needs of a new generation of workers has highlighted the importance of relationships and trust in the workplace. The debate on new leadership approaches is increasingly drawing on followership. Authority, role and status no longer automatically confers leadership, rather an ability to lead and gain the trust of colleagues through liberating, encouraging, achieving, developing, role modelling and relationship building (Work Foundation, 2003). The dichotomy presented by the need to develop trust in organisational relationships whilst organisational structures and processes create obstacles to the achievement of this aim, is discussed by Maitland (2003a) who reported on a survey by IRS that revealed that the level of trust is partly determined by organisational culture and to the extent senior managers are divorced from the service

and productive activities of the organisation. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2005b) reported that fairness and trust in the workplace in the UK had reduced over the period 2003 to 2005. The commencement of an economic global downturn in 2008/2009 bringing with it, at least in the UK, large scale redundancies has had a generally negative effect in the workplace with 81% of employees surveyed stating that senior managers needed to improve trust in their leadership (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development 2009b).

The issue of trust, or lack of it, in the workplace is not a new phenomenon. Handy (1993) referred to the trust-control dilemma and that if control is increased, trust is decreased. The dilemma is arguably more acute for the first line manager as the degree of control is very often dictated by his/her manager's tolerance of risk in terms of errors and mistakes and reaction to such events. It could be argued therefore that the potential of a coaching style of management to deliver improved individual and team performance is dependent to a significant extent on management behaviour and tolerance of risk at the level above the manager. The emphasis on leadership behaviour aligned to words or policy statements challenges those executive management teams who have signed up to a set of corporate values, which has an esoteric factor which cannot alone be replicated through a system or process. The concept of trustful communication and the need to understand before seeking to be understood is addressed specifically by Covey (1989). Gibb (1991) argued that distrust and defensiveness reduce the level of trust in an organisation and identified fear, excessive pressure, poor performance, emergencies, staffing pressures, unclear organisational vision and cultural unrest as key factors. Lundin and Lundin (1993) argued that distrust usually started at the top of an organisation, whereas Galford and Siebold Drapeau (2003) proposed that trust was reduced at strategic, personal and organisational levels by inconsistent messages, inconsistent standards and a failure to tackle poor performance or employees who do not 'live the values'. Rogers (1995) asserted that the level of trust in the workplace was generally low as evidenced by inaccurate 'grapevine' communications, elaborate approval processes, high turnover, high fear factor, turf wars and defensiveness, and that trust was primarily dependent on senior leadership behaviour linked to ethics and values in the form of a strengths-based ethos, empathetic listening, ideas generation, sharing and disclosing and openness. He put forward trust building strategies involving the creation of a high-

trust common goals vision, self awareness, open communication, role modelling and encouraging a team mentality. Rogers and Riddle (2005) defined trust in an organisational sense as confidence in leaders, peers and colleagues, in that people are respected and valued. The importance of expectation, empowerment, communication, consistency, passion, integrity and confrontation were emphasised by Bibb and Kourdi (2004) as important factors in building trust.

The nature of coaching dictates a dependency on the relationship between coach and coachee which in turn requires high levels of trust. From a leadership perspective the rethinking of a manager's role is potentially a crucial factor in the development of coaching within an organisational context. The move towards a more reflective leadership style is a theme developed by Gostick and Elton (2007) when they referred to a study by the Jackson Organization which identified that managers who achieved enhanced business results were seen by their employees to be strong in goal-setting, open communication, building trust and personal accountability. The notion of such a leadership style has arguably led, in some measure, to an increasing demand for coaching techniques within leadership programmes, although many organisations appear to be asking managers to effect such cultural transformational change whilst not impacting upon the delivery of existing short term transactional goals, a difficult balance.

Coaching is more and more being seen as a supportive process to organisational change which offers a balance between individuals and organisational needs. The increasing pace of change within organisations was highlighted by Worrall and Cooper (2006) when comparing previous studies between 1997 and 2001 with a study in 2006, which identified a continuing increase in managers who had experienced some form of organisational change. The later survey revealed that most managers felt that the change had reduced the level of their motivation, well-being and morale. Worrall (2004) had previously undertaken a survey of UK managers which revealed that prevalent management styles in many organisations were bureaucratic, task reactive, crisis-driven and prone to responding to change in an ad hoc and haphazard fashion.

Based on the current level and impact of change within organisations there is arguably a requirement for an improved leadership approach to the management of change and to achieve this objective, an increasing number of organisations are turning to a leadership coaching style. One response to these challenges is to consider applying coaching in an organisational context utilising systemic people processes, such as performance management systems, training evaluation processes, leadership development and technology applications; however this does not appear to be happening often. The School of Coaching (2002) identified that most organisations do not take a strategic approach to coaching. The Coaching Conundrum 2004 survey (Blessing White, 2004) reported that compared to the level of coaching activity, the identified benefits of coaching were low. The main reasons for this were a failure by managers to understand the overall business priorities, build trusting relationships with their team members and help employees to link their individual needs to the organisation's vision. Managers struggled with confidence and efficiency with the biggest challenge to their coaching being a concern that they don't have all the answers and that coaching takes too long due to too many direct reports. The findings concluded that coaching programmes need to be aligned to the organisational culture, so as to foster the desired management behaviour.

The Heart of Coaching 2005 survey (Blessing White, 2005a) followed up the Coaching Conundrum 2004 survey (Blessing White, 2004) with a similar participant pool and revealed that the vast majority of managers enjoyed coaching, yet most of these managers stated that they spent less or a lot less time coaching than they felt they should. The challenges remained the same as in the previous year. The 2005 survey, like the 2004 survey, showed that according to manager respondents coaching was generally not contributing to employee performance or job satisfaction, with only 23% (30% in 2004) of those respondents who had received coaching reporting that there had been a significant impact on performance and 20% (25% in 2004) reporting a significant impact on job satisfaction.

The report concluded that the impact from coaching remains at best inconsistent and at worst non-existent due to a failure to back up coaching programmes with systems and related reward and compensation strategies, managers attempting to coach everyone and failing to provide sufficient coaching at an individual level, and a failure to

achieve an impact at an individual level. Time continued to be a major challenge together with a lack of skills and expertise resulting in confidence issues. Only 10% of managers said that coaching activity was linked to tangible reward which is in line with research by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2006). The Coaching Conundrum 2009 survey (Blessing White, 2009) continued to support the view of the aforementioned surveys and found that very few organisations have managed to establish a coaching culture or even a consistent coaching approach and are therefore failing to gain the rewards this would offer.

A study of organisational coaching (Blessing White, 2005b) identified the five top mistakes that hinder coaching success as: coaching to a job description rather than a person, focusing only on work issues rather than finding out how a person feels about work; coaching in a directive manner as an expert, jumping in with advice and suggestions at too early a stage rather than encouraging a coachee to develop solutions; using coaching for a 'category' of employee, e.g. new starter, problem performer, rather than as a core development tool; waiting for the right time, which often means putting coaching on the 'back-burner'; and coaching only in specific agreed sessions rather than as a day-to-day management activity using face-to-face, e-mail, telephone and team sessions.

The emerging need for coaching in the workplace driven by organisational factors including structure, social, political and market place demands, places a heavy emphasis on managers and their ability to adapt to the changing role requirements including new skills, mind sets and behaviours, a theme which is considered in the next section.

2.5.2 Line Managers as Coaches in the Workplace – Skills, Attitudes, Roles and Behavioural Sets

The competences required for successful coaching have been researched by Creane (2003), who identified the perceptions of clients who received coaching and highlighted competences centred on listening, perceptive questioning and acknowledgement; and Fanasheh (2003), who identified the perceptions of senior

leaders of their coaching experience in an empirical mode. Cox (2003) examined, from a qualitative perspective, how context impacts on coaching and mentoring in respect to how relationships are shaped by the environment and the effect of competency. Cox argued that coaching skills are dependent on context including the experience of the coach or mentor and competency standards do not take into account this aspect. Therefore there will always be a gap between competence and performance and this gap is governed by the contextual imperative. Standards are helpful to guide inexperienced coaches/mentors but these cannot be a substitute for higher level professional development.

The difference in skills required for managing and skills required for coaching was considered by Marsh (1992) who identified that managers who scored highly on coaching style could be separated most prominently from those with low scores on coaching by their approach to pre-planning and target setting. Whilst all managers scored lowly on the provision of feedback and a focus on positive aspects of performance, managers with a predominant reflector or theorist learning style were scored the best coaches, indicating that managers with a predominant activist or pragmatist style would benefit from support in helping them develop a more effective coaching approach. Phillips (1994) referred to successful managers who have a 'fixer' rather than enabler approach which can tend towards a directive coaching style and asserted that coaching skills can be divided into two parts: (i) mental – observation, analysis and the ability to structure the coaching process; and (ii) interpersonal – questioning, listening, giving and receiving feedback, communicating and motivating. Caplan (2003) discussed the need to balance the coaching role of facilitation and encouragement, within a management role involving a directive and instructive approach.

Hopkins and Kleiner (1993) proposed four key concepts to coaching in a managerial situation: (i) personality – with five main types being identified namely nice guy, easy going, businesslike, intense and authoritarian; (ii) motivation – self-esteem, focusing on problems not personalities, using reinforcement to shape behaviour, actively listening, setting solid goals and constant communication; (iii) teamwork – responsibilities, accountabilities, equality; and (iv) communication. Bolton (1998) identified the management of conversations as a key component in the development of

an organisational team coaching culture and set out a conversational discipline framework based on: (i) shared commitment: conversation for relatedness – establishing overall commitment to the topic or issue; (ii) value: conversation for possibility – imagining the future and the desired outcome; (iii) feasibility: conversation for opportunity – creating clear, measurable criteria to measure success; and (iv) requests, who, what, when: conversation for action – based on two categories (a) requests made of other people and (b) promises made to other people.

Cook (1999) developed a comparison of a manager's behavioural profile to a coach's behavioural profile (i.e. talks/listens, tells/asks, fixes/prevents, presumes/explores, seeks control/seeks commitment, orders/challenges, works on/works with, puts product first/puts process first, wants reasons/seeks results, assigns blame/takes responsibility, keeps distant/makes contact) and likened a coach's relationship to that of a parent helping their child to learn to ride a bicycle. The bicycle metaphor was intended to show how a coach and coachee must work together; the need for the coachee to take responsibility for action and the end result being that the coach is no longer required.

Hudson (1999) referred to empathy, reflection, probing questioning, the ability to relate and the establishment of core values as core coaching skills and attributes. The importance of establishing personal core values to underpin coaching behaviour is also referred to by Minter and Thomas (2000), who developed a core values personal assessment model to enable managers to assess how well they identify with a set of core values deemed necessary for effective coaches, namely vision and goal clarity, supportiveness, confidence building, consideration, risk orientation, patience, trust building and openness. Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002b) proposed that self-awareness and empathy are essential key elements of a coaching behavioural approach to enable feedback to be given within a positive way. The relative importance of factors considered to be important to successful outcomes by clients in therapy situations identified that 40% related to a client's personal factors – openness, optimism, motivation, friendships and family; 30% related to the relationship with the counsellor – empathy, respect, genuineness and a shared understanding; 15% related to hopes and expectations; and 15% related to models, theories and techniques (Assay and Lambert, 1999). It was concluded that the client's perception of self, the

counsellor and the world was more important to a successful outcome than the structure and technical content of the sessions.

Sills and Critchley (2003) argued that the key skills of coaching centre on communication and interpersonal dynamics to enable phenomenological enquiry (i.e. enquiring into a client's current situations as they see it), challenging, clarifying and giving feedback, together with attitudinal approaches such as reflexivity, self-awareness and relatedness including feelings, biases and prejudices, to help build empathy and focus on the key issues identified. Downey (2003) differentiated between skills relating to a directive 'push' approach and a non-directive 'pull' approach using a spectrum incorporating skills such as instructing, giving advice, offering guidance, giving feedback, making suggestions, asking questions that raise awareness, summarising, paraphrasing, reflecting and listening to understand.

Wasylyshyn (2003) identified the top three personal characteristics of an effective coach as the ability to form a strong personal connection, professionalism and the use of a clear and sound methodology. Kilburg (1997) identified the characteristics of respect, consideration, understanding, empathy, authenticity, predictability, reliability and transparency of arrangements. Downey (2004) identified six specific skill sets namely: (i) generating understanding and raising awareness through listening, repetition, paraphrasing, summarising, silence and key questions to follow interest or clarify; (ii) proposing by way of feedback, suggestions, advice, challenge, instruction, evoking creativity and innovation; (iii) managing self, involving self awareness, boundary awareness, transparency and clarification of intent; (iv) structuring by following interest, using coaching models and setting goals; (v) building relationship and creating a contract; and (vi) understanding organisational context, gaining understanding and hypothesising. As in many definitions of core coaching skills there are many areas listed that would possibly be defined as attitudes, attributes or behaviours. For example Lee (2003) identified the importance of 'psychological mindedness' to enable coaches to engage on personal issues and to identify issues they are not qualified to handle.

However Ferrar (2004) argued that that it is impractical to apply a competence based approach to certain types of coaching, challenging the value of this approach by

pointing out the difficulties of identifying coaching competences due to such factors as the need to use professional judgement, exposing the different views of coaching practitioners and identifying the lack of evidence-based research to show tangible benefits. Whilst the difficulties of defining competencies are acknowledged there is a demand for the identification and documentation of key competences of coaching so as to provide, at the very least, a target for developing skills and knowledge. This theme has been developed in terms of an assessment method aimed at measuring managerial coaching skill based on four dimensions of open communication, team approach, valuing people and acceptance of ambiguity (McLean, Yang, Kuo, Tolbert and Larkin; 2005). The validity of such a specified construct of dimensions was challenged by Peterson and Little (2005), whose work referred to the limitations of the literature review, particularly the reliance on sports and professional coaching references as opposed to managerial, and specifically to the lack of a broader construct.

Hardingham (2004) identified the key coaching skills of active listening, questioning, reframing and confronting, together with the habits of self-awareness, storytelling, wondering (e.g. 'what would happen if?'), structuring and ordering, empathy, robustness and action orientation. The International Coaching Foundation (2005b), otherwise known as the ICF, identified eleven core coaching competencies (each competency has a definition and related behaviours) grouped into four clusters, which were used in the ICF credentialing examination process; these were: (i) setting the foundation – meeting ethical guidelines and professional standards; establishing the coaching agreement; (ii) co-creating the relationship – establishing trust and intimacy with the client; coaching presence; (iii) communicating effectively – active listening; powerful questioning; direct communication; and (iv) creating awareness; designing actions, planning and goal setting; managing process and accountability. Flaherty (2005) adopted a broader perspective when producing a wide ranging approach to coaching, from coaching skills, models and approaches to personal development which focused on a holistic whole person perspective. Hunt and Weintraub (2002b) observed that managers need to develop a coaching mindset within their managerial role to establish a style that embraces the range of coaching skills and competences. Anderson, Rayner and Schyns (2009) identified two coaching types: primary coaching involving a development and performance orientation with feedback and goal setting

process; and mature coaching characteristics which are based on a participative management style.

The need to cultivate empowerment through employee development and engagement is arguably driving the demand for managers to develop skills that support a participative and facilitative management style (Hamlin, Ellinger and Beattie, 2004). The ability of certain managers to achieve such a style consistently is arguably dependent on the manager's level of intelligence and personality profile, an area considered by Furnham (2008). However whilst Hyman and Cunningham (1998) found that responsibility for employee development was being devolved to line managers in many organisations their research also identified problems in transforming many managers into developers of their reports.

Irrespective of the importance of the personal and process factors surrounding coaching, there is the relationship factor between the coach and coachee. Evered and Selman (1989) proposed that a coaching relationship is based on a collaborative partnership aimed at achieving results with the manager as a coach encouraging their report through empowering rather than controlling. The coaching partnership or relationship will be impacted by the individual personalities of the coach and coachee. Scoular, (2006) proposed that matching a coach to a client for optimum benefit could be helped through the use of psychometric assessments such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator although coaching appeared to be more successful when coach and client have different temperaments. This 'mismatch' may be more needed when a coach is faced with a coachee who has unconsciously built up a strong work mental mindset around what behaviours achieve successful outcomes and what behaviours do not (Travis, 2003). Humphrey and Holland (2006) argued that effective matching helps the effectiveness of the coaching intervention and to this end they set out a framework for matching a coach to a coachee including a review of context, purpose, coachability/contribution, fit/chemistry and contracting/boundaries. Ireland, Hussain and Law (2006) discussed the role of a broker in matching a coach to a coachee and in particular the key skills of negotiation, mediation, facilitation and synthesis. Within an organisational coaching context there is a possibility that a mismatch of temperament between line manager and reporting employee will create a negative impact on any coaching relationship.

There are a range of opinions on the key skills that are important to effective managerial coaching, yet there is a general consensus that these could be summarised as listening, skills, concentrating, rationalising/analysing, emotionality/feeling, giving feedback, setting expectations, observing, questioning and creating a supportive environment (Orth, Wilkinson and Benfari, 1987; Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester, 1993; King and Eaton, 1999; Marsh, 1992; Phillips, 1994; Zemke, 1996; Mobley, 1999; Ellinger, Ellinger and Kelly, 2003). The importance of silence, in the mode of appropriate pauses, is not a skill or characteristic that is readily associated with effective coaching within a literature search or practitioners' perspective, but is one that should be at the forefront of a coaching practitioner's mind. It is often acknowledged as a key personal attribute in the sense of active listening or patience. Within this research data has been gained from case study participants as to their view of the critical coaching skills and this enabled the information gathered from the literature review to be compared and contrasted.

2.5.3 Coaching as a Strategic Lever to Achieving Organisational and Cultural Change

Culture change within organisations is often considered in terms of employee mindsets and morale levels. The willingness of employees to change is often linked to their view of the business and how satisfied they personally are within it. This has led to a myriad of employee satisfaction tools which are then linked to other more traditional measures such as business performance. There are many reported instances of employee satisfaction correlating to improvements in other business areas, such as customer satisfaction and business performance, although the majority are not formal academic research studies, for example reports from PNC Bank which found an 84% correlation between branches and their levels of customer and employee satisfaction (Bank Advertising News, 1996) and Nationwide Building Society, which calculated that a 3% rise in employee commitment resulted in a 1% upturn in customer commitment and an £8m rise in business performance (Hall, 2002).

There is therefore a need for caution as, whilst there is evidence that companies reporting the strongest financial performances often had high employee satisfaction

levels, companies with poor financial performance also have high employee satisfaction levels (Grant, 1998). However, an 'employee-customer-profit' chain used to analyse data from Sears' outlets found a correlation in employee attitudes towards their company and job and positive employee behaviour towards customers. Sears found that a 5% increase in employee satisfaction resulted in a 1.3% increase in customer satisfaction and a 0.5% increase in revenue growth (Rucci, Kim, and Quinn, 1998).

The vast majority of organisations make use of some form of employee involvement practice, with the majority of respondents favourable to such practices (Fenton-O'Creevy, 1995). A study by Koys (2001) categorised employee attitudes and satisfaction into five measurable employee behaviours: conscientiousness, altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and courtesy. Findings supported the view that employee satisfaction, behaviour and turnover predicted an impact on the following year's profitability. Gilbranch (2003) referred to research by the Chartered Institute of Management which indicated a significant positive correlation between the organisational priority given to leadership development and the level of employee motivation and satisfaction. According to Maitland (2003b) a study by IRS of 40 major global companies reported that a key driver of business profitability was the level of commitment shown by a firm's employees and that the key factor driving employee commitment was the leadership skill of managers.

A further study by IRS (2004) revealed that the employer respondents thought that the major influences on employee satisfaction and commitment to be relationship with managers, relationship with colleagues, quality of line management, leadership visibility and confidence, recognition of contribution, job satisfaction, working culture, job security, internal communications, workload, pay, business performance/success, skills development, quality of service and values/ethics. 98% stated that there was a business case for investing in projects seeking to improve employer – employee relationships and 88% stated they had sought to improve employee engagement, most popular initiatives being 'brown-bag' lunches, brainstorming sessions and directors/staff 'round-table' meetings.

There is an increasing use of the term 'employee engagement' which is replacing the term 'employee satisfaction'. Rather than seeking to achieve a 'satisfied' workforce, many organisations seek to achieve an 'engaged' workforce which, is often associated with the level of employee commitment. Bernthal (2004) referred to several studies which have shown that employee engagement has an impact on organisational performance, including research by the global consultancy Development Dimension International, which showed that when employee engagement scores are high, employees are more satisfied, less likely to leave the organisation and more productive. The focus on engaging employees so as to meet the demands of a fast-changing knowledge-based economy is a theme tackled by Holbeche (2008) when she discusses employees wanting the same kind of individualised attention that customers demand.

The Corporate Leadership Council reviewed the research linking employee satisfaction with productivity, performance and customer satisfaction and concluded that numerous studies supported the idea that there exists a link between employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction, productivity and financial results (Corporate Leadership Council, 2003). The top drivers of employee engagement were identified by a survey of 1,000 HR and Communication specialists as the behaviour of senior leadership and direct supervisors, opportunities for career and/or skill advancement through training and development, a belief in company advancement, a people-centric culture with communication, involvement/consultation and formal recognition, and compensation and benefits (Melcrum, 2005). The survey underlined the importance of leadership behaviour in achieving an engaged workforce.

Many organisations have attempted to create employee commitment through the development of a common purpose and values which reflect the way in which companies wish their employees to behave. However, the instilling of a set of values into the culture of an organisation when such an organisation is changing daily, with people who are leaving and arriving, is a challenging task. Yet many people leave companies because their needs are unfulfilled, i.e. lack of personal growth and job challenge opportunities, indicating that a lack of change is the reason for their leaving. The US and UK Employee Engagement Report survey (Blessing White, 2005c) on employee engagement (defined by Blessing White as an alignment of maximum job

satisfaction and maximum job contribution) found that few employees are truly engaged and if they're not engaged, employees are likely to be 'spinning' (not dissatisfied enough to make a break but not totally committed) or 'splitting' (preparing to leave organisation). The survey suggested that personal fulfilment drives engagement, manager – employee relationships are a key driver of dissatisfaction and that a majority of employees surveyed trusted their managers 'completely' or 'most of the time' although a majority did not believe that their manager recognised and encouraged them, to use their talents. There was no difference between the US and UK, however the higher trust ratings were identified in HR and Business Services, and the lowest in 'not for profit' and Government sectors. The survey identified that 98% of employees who planned to stay trusted their manager compared to only 63% of those who planned to leave. The survey's conclusions included a reference to the potential for coaching to provide a way for managers to increase employee engagement. A similar follow-up survey (UK and Ireland) by Blessing White (2008) reaffirmed the findings of the earlier 2005 survey indicating that little had changed in the workplace with 23% of employees fully engaged and 22% disengaged.

Mabey (2005) undertook research, on behalf of the Chartered Institute of Management, on the impact of leadership in effecting culture change, including engagement/commitment, performance and productivity, and potential links between sustained investment in leadership development and improved organisational performance. The study concluded that a greater favourable impact was achieved through flexibility in leadership development including the use of new methods of learning rather than just traditional methods, the integration of leadership development within business strategy to reflect current organisational context and a focus on benefits linking to business performance. Similarly Longenecker and Neubert (2005) argued the case for senior managers to learn and utilise coaching skills and in doing so support junior managers so as to establish greater impact across an organisation.

The difficulties in leading and facilitating controversial cultural and social change in organisations is a subject addressed by Austin (1997) in his study of Branch Rickey's efforts towards the racial integration of players into the USA sports team Brooklyn Dodgers in the 1940s. Austin concluded that controversial social change cannot be accomplished in one step. An action learning process was proposed as a way in which

challenging changes can be accomplished through close alignment to organisational goals, understating or keeping hidden other key social drivers until a momentum has been established and the change is underway. This is described as 'single loop' learning through the advocacy of an individual or group to recommend proposals to senior management based on organisational goals; 'double loop' learning is described as an enlarged advocate group taking forward the idea and presenting to the organisation on a goal-based 'single loop' approach, then proceeding to 'triple loop' learning through linking other reasons for change apart from original organisational based goal. This research can be considered in the light of many organisational changes which require social change around personal attitudes, behaviours and values, including the precursor of a move to a leadership coaching culture, the need to realign and change management views and behaviours to match the new desired leadership model.

Schein (1992) proposed that leaders and managers play a crucial role in culture formation through several culture mechanisms including role modelling and coaching. Kegan and Lahey (2001) described competing commitments, that is, deeply held beliefs which people are not necessarily able to articulate due to their deep personal nature, as roots of resistance to change. These beliefs may never emerge directly but remain as blocks to changing behaviour. The importance of beliefs and values was discussed by Deal and Kennedy (1982) who argued that organisations which created a common purpose underpinned by clearly articulated and shared values are more successful than counterparts without these attributes.

Handy (2002) argued that the key to understanding permanent change is the sigmoid curve, an S-shaped curve that describes the normal life cycle of a being (steady growth, peaks and declines), requiring a second curve which needs to start before the first one peaks. The paradox is that when success is at its peak then change is required. This learning was developed within the case study through the use of a 'wave' strategy, developed from the concept of a sigmoid curve (Handy, 2002), which enabled the commencement of a new range of coaching approaches just as the previous approaches were peaking, thus maintaining impetus and progression. Swailes (2002) discussed the changes which have taken place in the way organisations behave, in terms of the new forms of employee relationships and argued that there is a

difference between the use of commitment in a temporal sense and an active sense and that the reason why there is little evidence between organisational commitment levels and related outcomes is due to the reasons for commitment being measured rather than commitment itself. He suggested that research should consider taking into account relational and transactional contracts, differences across occupational groups and the changes in the commitment levels of employees over time. This recommendation was developed by this research through the longitudinal nature of the case study and the use of the 9Factors™ methodology, a measure of employee commitment.

Goffee and Jones (2003) identified four types of organisational culture drawn from two broad types of social relationship: 'sociability' (friendliness) and 'solidarity' (common goal); these are networked – high sociability and low solidarity; mercenary – high solidarity and low sociability; fragmented – low elements of both and communal – high elements of both. They proposed that solidarity and sociability can be developed through management; however the results may be subtle and take place over a long period of time, yet sociability is easier to destroy and harder to create leading to many organisations gradually losing the 'magic' that sustained performance. McAleese and Hargie (2004) proposed a set of universal conditions which leaders and managers should consider when developing and maintaining organisational culture, namely the development of values, the development of cultural leaders or role models, the communication of the desired culture across the organisation downward, upward and lateral and face-to-face. Further, the measuring of cultural performance ensures measures reflect the values of organisation, and align the culture to customer communications.

Research surveying more than 1,000 managers, by Holbeche and Springer (2004), indicated that executives and senior managers are looking for a greater sense of meaning in their work. The largest group reporting a search for meaning is in the age range 20-30 years, a reducing pool of talent due to demographic trends. When people experienced a lack of meaning at work they also tended to report a lack of trust. The growing emergence of corporate social responsibility cut no ice with many who felt such approaches were a 'sham' when senior managers did not 'live the values' or 'walk the talk'. Key findings to create more meaning in the workplace included the growing importance of work-life balance, line manager training in team building and

conflict management, career tracks to support flexible working, career breaks and voluntary activities, making corporate values 'real' and two-way communications.

The WorkUSA study (Watson Wyatt Worldwide, 2005) found that organisations with high employee commitment levels, line of sight between employees and strategic objectives, empowered employees and high employee rated integrity ratings created significantly more than the surplus value created by organisations with low levels in the aforementioned areas. Whilst the study did not refer to coaching in precise terms, there is reference to leadership behaviour which is aligned to gaining employee engagement through role model behaviour and supportive management practices.

According to Ledgerwood (2003), coaching offers an effective method of developing an innovative culture. The information economy and the move to corporate transparency and global responsibility is resulting in emerging new features such as brand fragility, ethical trading, stakeholder consultation, corporate social responsibility and innovation. Ledgerwood sees coaching as a way to align individual potential with the corporate values and overall direction, terming this approach corporate or strategic coaching.

The debate as to the importance of employee satisfaction is moving into a different arena based on the validity of employee engagement or commitment levels in terms of driving business performance. Research is increasingly focused on the value of an engaged and committed workforce. The emerging discussion is around the attitudes and appropriate behaviours that are required to positively influence organisational effectiveness – a factor which is not included in many models of employee satisfaction and/or engagement measurement. There are also issues in comparison terms concerning the nature of each model being different dependent upon company. This has prevented a wider comparison of employee engagement data although the variability of this factor is able to be reduced through benchmarking with a range of other organisations.

Notwithstanding there is a considered view arising from the literature review that leadership and management behaviour influences employee engagement, both favourably and unfavourably dependent up on the situation, and that when leadership

style is credibly aligned to the organisation's purpose the outcomes of the increased employee engagement and commitment levels and any new cultural shift can relate to a beneficial impact on core performance drivers and business results.

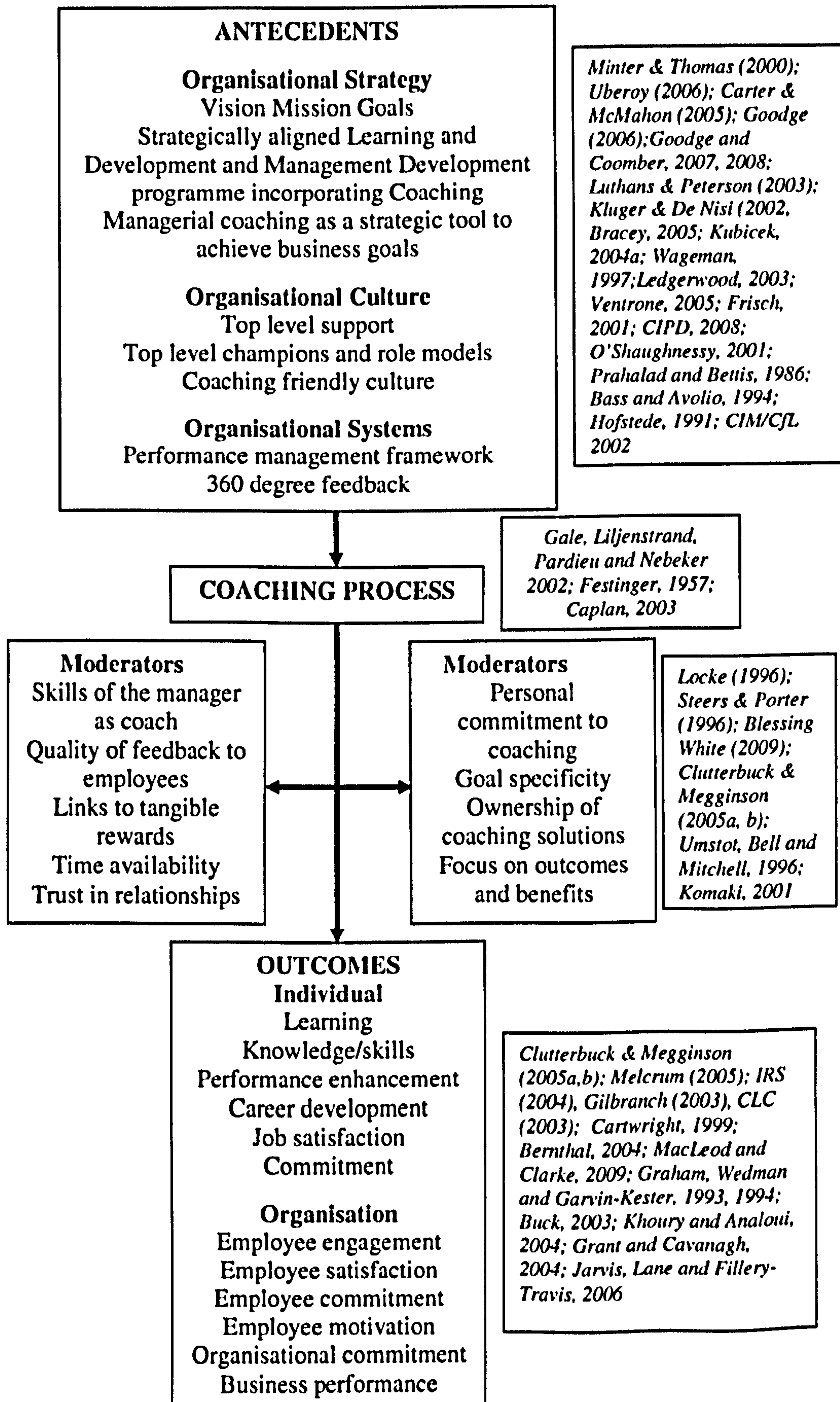
This revelation has led to an interest in determining the most effective leadership style to achieve optimal value in organisational performance through increased employee engagement. This case study has built on previous research and explored further the potential for an organisational leadership coaching style and related organisational approaches to positively impact on employee engagement and performance.

2.6 Conceptual Framework of the Research

This section sets out the conceptual framework which has been developed from the issues and concepts that emerged from the review of literature. The background nature of the research problem is the organisational case study with coaching linked to three main organisational elements of *strategy, culture and systems*. These three elements provide the organisational background against which the coaching *process* provides the methodology, which whilst impacted by several *moderators*, delivers the *outcomes* in terms of the individual and organisation.

Figure A sets out a conceptual framework of the study in diagrammatic form and outlines the antecedents of organisational strategy, culture and systems, the coaching process which impacts the existing organisational state creating changes which in turn are impacted upon by several possible moderators before any outcomes can be measured (Hegstad and Wentling, 2005).

Figure A. Conceptual Framework of the Research



The case study provided the opportunity to consider the use of managerial coaching as a strategic tool through an integrated approach within the organisational learning and development framework, which in turn linked to behavioural and business outcomes (Uberoy, 2006; Bracey, 2005; Kubicek, 2004a; Wageman, 1997; Ledgerwood, 2003; Ventrone, 2005), who referred to companies in the United States which are using internal coaching to deliver more coaching at less cost, and Frisch (2001)). The difficulty in achieving such an integrated strategic approach was highlighted by a CIPD (2008) survey which revealed approximately 20% of organisations focused on managerial coaching as a strategic tool with most utilising coaching in a transactional singular way rather than on a transformational cultural basis.

The cultural nature of organisational coaching is arguably impacted by the level of support for managerial coaching at the top level including role modelling (O'Shaughnessy, 2001). The nature of organisations is often driven by its dominant logic (Prahalad and Bettis, 1986) which largely centres on financial performance objectives, although these are driven by the behavioural aspects within an organisation (Bass and Avolio, 1994). The relationship between the two elements within the case study required a quantitative and qualitative approach to further understand the behavioural aspects (Hofstede, 1991).

The systemisation of the strategic and cultural aspects of managerial coaching is possible through organisational performance systems including those relating to monitoring of outcomes, employee feedback (Carter and McMahon, 2005;) including learning logs (Barclay, 1996) and 360 degree feedback via a coaching session (Goodge, 2006; Goodge and Coomber, 2007, 2008; Luthans and Peterson, 2003). The beneficial nature of the latter activity was advocated by findings of a survey of UK managers (Chartered Institute of Management and Campaign for Learning, 2002). Yet this is balanced by the work of Kluger and DeNisi (2002) in a study which suggested a decrease in performance following individual feedback is often experienced.

The coaching process provides the opportunity to either enhance or diffuse the effectiveness of workplace coaching (Gale, Liljenstrand, Pardieu and Nebeker, 2002). This being so, such processes are limited by the ability of the management team to change their leadership behaviour (Festinger, 1957) in terms of their relationship skills

as well as skills development. The nature of workplace coaching also requires a balance between instructive and facilitative behaviour which recognises the managerial context (Caplan, 2003). However other moderating factors may impact the outcomes of the managerial coaching activity.

Several moderating factors may impact upon performance outcome including goal specificity, ownership of problem by coach and coachee, skills, self confidence, feedback, task focus and outcomes (Locke, 1996; Steers and Porter, 1996) Umstot, Bell and Mitchell (1996) identified that goal-setting had a major impact on productivity and less impact on job satisfaction compared to job enrichment which had a major impact on job satisfaction and less impact on productivity. Komaki (2001) argued from a different angle a similar point, that managers perceived to be effective by their reports very often clearly expressed an interest in their reports' work, the implication for coaches being the importance of relationship skills and outcome-based benefits. The time available, either due to commitment or resources, was reported to be a major barrier to managerial coaching (Blessing White, 2009) and this in turn challenges the development of quality feedback and trust (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 2005a; 2005b).

The outcomes that are derived from managerial coaching could be viewed as either individual or organisational whether in respect of job satisfaction or employee engagement (Melcrum, 2005; Cartwright, 1999; Gilbranch, 2003; Bernthal, 2004; IRS, 2004; MacLeod and Clarke, 2009) or other more tangible return on investment factors such as productivity, sales and service levels (Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester, 1993, 1994; Corporate Leadership Council 2003; Buck, 2003; Khoury and Analoui, 2004; Grant and Cavanagh, 2004; and Jarvis, Lane and Fillery-Travis, 2006).

In summary the conceptual framework, through consideration of the literature review provided an analytical approach to assessing the impact of the coaching process and related interventions on the existing and progressive states of the organisation, whilst recognising the potential impact of moderating influences on the individual and organisational outcomes.

2.7 Conclusion

The key findings established via the literature review relating to coaching in the workplace were that coaching offers organisations potential benefits in several different areas. There are though competing views of coaching in terms of definition and application, value and approach, the boundaries between coaching and other similar and related interventions such as mentoring, the ability of managers per se to learn and apply coaching skills, the difficulty in identifying suitable external coaches against a background of competing networks and associations, budgetary restraints and the challenges in maintaining the momentum of a coaching culture. There is an acknowledgement that such external expertise is necessary to support the delivery of a coaching culture – noting that such external expertise would need to be fully aware of their client’s organisation in terms of structure, culture, learning strategy and other related areas.

The need for managers to be self-aware and emotionally intelligent is also deemed to be of relevance and importance according to many research findings, so as to be able to understand the nature of their personal impact on the coaching relationship and to be aware of the importance of psychology and the boundaries in which they can operate ethically. The literature search and review has enabled the identification of key learning and critical aspects of organisational coaching for further exploration, investigation and development within this research study. The development of the conceptual framework has provided the basis for the nature of the research problem to be addressed and the research paradigm to be chosen within the research methodology design (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Chapter 3 Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

A realistic approach acknowledged the way in which the quantitative data was gathered yet recognised the complexity of the case study environment and the involvement of the researcher within the organisation and, therefore, potential for bias and subjectivity in the collection and interpretation of data and information. The interpretivist nature of these factors enriched the ethical framework which was developed to acknowledge these factors as well as recognise the multiple perspectives, rather than a single reality, within the case study environment (Guba and Lincoln, 1994)

When undertaking the research study insights were gained less from a direct appreciation of new knowledge and more from viewing reality in different ways and achieving a better view of existing knowledge and current views and beliefs about such knowledge; whether those things be the different perspectives from a manager or employee viewpoint or the range of external opinions on the application of coaching. Kant (1969) referred to the difference between phenomena, things as they are known to people through their sensory perceptions, and the noumenal, things as they are in themselves and therefore will never be known to the same people. In line with the aims of the study the research seeks to understand the nature of coaching within an organisation and, in doing so, explore how managers view their coaching role and how their employee reports view them, in relation to coaching in the workplace. The interpretation of the skills and knowledge required by managers to coach effectively is developed through an exploration of the views of both coach and coachee.

The research was conducted by a sole researcher who was a senior employee of the case study organisation and as such was, for part of the research period, an 'insider' researcher which required constant consideration of the impact of the researcher's perceptions on the reality of the situation for, as Kant (1969) states, '... the judgement which these pure intuitions enable us to make never reach farther than the objects of

the senses and are valid only for the objects of possible experience' (p61, lines 39-42). There is a recognition that the senior nature of the sole researcher's role in the case study organisation impacted upon the research, particularly an acceptance of implied knowledge of the research environment as well as a less than neutral stance on the choice of research subject, which challenged the pursuit of reality. This was balanced by the development of an appropriate framework with linking strategies designed to provide rigour (Padgett, 1998) including triangulation through surveys, interviews, discussion groups and coaching assessment documents; prolonged engagement via the longitudinal approach, the combination of numerical and illustrative data to enhance the rigour of the research through qualitative and quantitative approaches, cross checking of data and a audit trail linking the respective elements of data through the time period of the research.

The multiplicity and different standpoints of philosophical views on the nature of realism is considered by Magee (2004) including the method of 'Cartesian doubt' which consists of, according to Descartes (1637), '... a suspension of belief for purposes of the argument in any proposition that could be conceivably wrong' (Magee, 2004, p117, lines 27 – 28). Similarly Popper (1959) highlighted the challenge to scientific thinking with a discussion on Meta physics and the impact of an individual's perception. Popper is quoted by Magee (2004) in respect of the ongoing pursuit of new knowledge in that 'the world exists independently of us, but our knowledge of the world does not and cannot exist independently of us, for it is we who form it.' (p65, lines 21-23). Locke (1975) had discussed the nature of truth in that it was different for each individual and was influenced by experience rather than innate ideas. Harrison (1981) discussed Hume and his views on the impact of human motivations on society and the distinction between ideas and facts and the dilemma that either our actions are pre determined or as a result of random acts, resulting in both cases for us not being responsible for them, commonly known as Hume's Fork. It is this pursuit to see more clearly the reality or truth of a situation from a multiple perspective in terms of the applications of coaching in the workplace that from a research position has created the potential for learning within the research study.

The importance of the organisational cultural context, a theme which is central to the research objectives, is also considered by the research methodology framework.

Senge (1992) asked the question 'does your organisation have a learning disability?' (p17, line 1) and considered the concept of learning organisations setting out eleven tenets of the fifth discipline, his words for practices of organisational learning, noting that 'cause and effect are not close in time and space' (p63, lines 9-10), suggesting that organisations and their managers fail to allow enough time for solutions to work through to successful conclusions, often opting for a return to the old ways of doing things and applying the pushing harder approach of more of the same. Whilst the traditional maxim of increasing effort in the face of an increased challenge still generally holds sway, the changing nature of the workplace and the rise of the knowledge-based economy is impacting on ways of working and changing the roles of employees towards a new breed of knowledge-based workers; with a move from working harder to one of working smarter.

The research, being a study of social science in a workplace setting, lends itself to an empirical approach based, as the research is, on observation and sensory perceptions as well as perspectives and this is a matter discussed by Magee (2004) when he discussed the work of Schlick and his consideration of statements referring to sensations and the differences between the empiricism and the metaphysical which relates to matters falling outside of logic and sense experiences. Whilst it could be argued that such coaching activity and the relationships associated with it cannot be viewed solely through an empirical scientific viewpoint the epistemological argument is one that favours the development of knowledge through the experiences and perceptions of the participants. The research approach is qualitative in that the focus is on how managers and their employee reports view their world and adopting an analytical approach to the narratives of participants enables meaning to be derived. Yet the research environment also favoured a quantitative aspect particularly in relation to the needs of the case study organisation, its primary cultural drivers and internal dominant logic (Prahalad and Bettis, 1986).

The epistemological foundation of this research study is based on a sociological constructivism to establish the views and perceptions of the employees of the case study organisation and as such the methodological selections are designed to support this through both qualitative and quantitative data. A multi-method approach to the research has been taken to provide crosschecking and reinforce validity involving

questionnaires sent to employees of the case study organisation including managers, follow-up interviews with a sample pool of those who completed the questionnaire, discussion groups consisting of employees (including managers) of the case study organisation and as a secondary data theme additional interviews and discussion groups with employees including managers of other organisations and other persons such as professional coaches. It should be noted though that the secondary data was used only as background information rather than in a robust research sense. The interviews and discussion groups were tape-recorded, transcribed and/or analysed manually dependent upon the situation and circumstances. When tape-recording did not take place detailed notes were recorded for analysis. Other methods of recording, including video recording, were also utilised. In addition, supplementary data including further 9Factors™ Methodology analysis relating to the period prior to the research was considered. As such the approach is broadly based on 'triangulation' (Denzin, 1978) in the sense that several data sources are accessed to gain a view on the subject of the research study although, in the context of this research, the nature of the triangulation methodology was also concerned with comparing data so as to establish similarities and differences which built on the findings of previous research and generated new knowledge. The following sections in this chapter review the research paradigm, the profile of the case study, the research strategy and related framework and conclusions.

3.2 Research Paradigm and Philosophy

The aim of this section is to consider the research paradigms within which the research is carried out in ontological and epistemological terms and the impact on the methodology. Ontology being the reality of the case study environment, epistemology the relationship between that reality and the researcher and methodology the techniques used to investigate that reality (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). From an epistemological perspective the social nature of the case study research and the positioning of the researcher as a participant within the case study organisation, created the potential for subjectivity through merging of the different roles with the researcher role primarily based on learning and the participant role on intervention and action. The ontological basis of the research recognises the social aspects of the case

study environment and the multiple individual perspectives. It was required therefore for the methodology to be aligned to these elements and this was achieved through a quantitative approach to capture, illustrate and understand data numerically and a qualitative approach to achieve an increased understanding of the individual viewpoints.

A case study approach provided a framework for the research, enabling several methodological approaches to be considered with the aim of establishing the most suitable methodology to identify consistent behaviours by which to investigate the degree of relationships between actions and outcomes as outlined in the section on conceptual framework of the research (reference section 2.6). A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context where the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (Yin, 1984).

There are few examples of research providing links between coaching activity and evidenced behaviours or performance. The research programme set out to (i) identify such links on an individual employee basis relating to learning development, knowledge/skills, performance improvement, career development, role satisfaction and personal commitment and (ii) investigate a possible correlation and links between the overall coaching programme and organisational aspects of employee engagement, employee satisfaction, employee commitment, employee motivation and business performance.

The research methodology process initially involved the consideration of the conceptual framework of the research (Miles and Huberman, 1994) and the primary paradigm to be adopted. The ontological perspective of the research was considered within a case study context with a realist view (as opposed to a positivist or constructionist paradigm) which sets out a single reality viewed in several different ways and which required a measure of multiple perceptions through a triangulatory approach (Denzin, 1978) rather than one reality (positivist) or multiple realities (constructionist). The case study context provides an environmental reality which is subjective and multiple as viewed by the various participants and thus generally requires a qualitative input (Patton and Applebaum, 2003) to consider the different

views, yet in such a context there are singular and objective measures used to establish organisational factors such as performance and morale and these are often expressed in quantitative measures. As this case study research is based on a singular example the importance and relevance of context is critical to understand the behavioural dynamics within the organisation and this, in turn, often leads to multiple data collection techniques being used to capture the different perspectives (Eisenhardt, 1989).

The epistemological perspective of establishing valid knowledge recognises that the research framework and outputs, including the related models, are an indicator rather than a 'truth' of the reality within the case study organisation. The realist view adopted would indicate that if the research were based on a complete and comprehensive description of the world then certain statements on the outcomes can be made based on the research model. The research framework sets out to provide insights that have helped result in certain statements based on the research findings. This view is different to a positivist stance which would argue that factors leading to bias have been effectively removed and there is no error due to the act of observation. Whereas the interpretive view (constructionism) would suggest that reality is internally and subjective driven. The research seeks to describe and explain complex social phenomena and this is suited to the research paradigm of realism. In doing so, consideration has been given to the validity and reliability of the research.

The nature of case study research creates challenges to the establishment of validity and reliability and these challenges need to be addressed within the research design irrespective of the realism paradigm. Approaches to strengthen validity and reliability may focus on multiple sources of data, collection and cross-checking of participant transcripts to increase construct validity; cross case comparisons using illustrations and diagrams to increase internal validity; comparison of literature and peer citation to increase external validity all of which are more commonly applied within the paradigm of positivism; and other test techniques to establish transferability, confirmability, credibility and dependability (Riege, 2003). Patton and Applebaum (2003) set out a case study road map with several steps namely the determination of the object of the case study, selecting an appropriate case, building initial theory through a literature review, collecting and organising a data review, analysing data and reaching conclusions. They concluded that case studies based on such approaches did

not necessarily lack rigour even though case studies have traditionally been considered to do so (Yin, 1984). In asserting this Patton and Applebaum acknowledged that case studies are prone to subjectivity and strongly influenced by the researcher and two important factors being access and pre-understanding and that the greater the researcher's awareness of their viewpoint and paradigm the less risk of subjectivity and the greater chance of new insights and explanations (Gummesson, 1991). Rowley (2002) asserted the importance of multi-faceted perspectives within a case study and the observation of three key principles namely triangulation, development of a case study database and clear citation within a chain of evidence structure.

The role of the researcher in terms of his involvement with the case study organisation as an employee is acknowledged and the impact of this involvement has had an effect on the way in which the research paradigm has been developed and progressed. Through awareness of the various issues these challenges have been responded to so as to build on the strengths and eliminate or reduce the weaknesses associated with such a researcher position. The researcher's stance was primarily positioned from a realist stance with triangulation adopted to identify several sources of knowledge including the interaction between the researcher and the research participants; yet elements of positivism and constructionism impacted dependent upon the situation and nature of the research intervention. The nature of the realist approach adopted provided support for the need to establish multiple perceptions of the events occurring in the case study organisation. The contextual nature of the research suited a critical case study (Yin, 1989) providing an in-depth intensive approach to identify less obvious insights and cover contingent contexts (Eisenhardt, 1989) by theory development based on a prior theoretical base building through semi-structured research methods providing both qualitative and quantitative data which, in turn, provide perspective and balance (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Gummesson, 1991).

In order to establish the links between the coaching process and outcomes within the case study context a variety of methodologies, that is qualitative, quantitative and mixed methodologies were available for consideration. These two research paradigms, namely the positivist (quantitative) paradigm and the phenomenological (qualitative) paradigm, have been considered in an epistemological context to achieve the aforementioned requirements although a mainly qualitative approach was adopted with

a quantitative element included to satisfy the requirements of the research for evidence-based knowledge related to performance outcomes. In a coaching context the research methodology has sought to identify outcomes and benefits from specific coaching approaches within a case study approach. This mixed methodology approach, albeit with an emphasis on qualitative, recognises that the case study context brings to the research process a multiplicity of views and that these needed to be recognised within the research design.

The case study context provided a unique research setting and one which required consideration of various factors within the research design process. The components of a good case study design are referred to by Bryman and Bell (2003) and these include the core questions of the research, the research proposition, the units of analysis which define the case study, the logic linking the data to the propositions and the criteria for interpreting the findings. The latter two elements are considered to be the least well developed components of the case study as a genre and Yin (1984) refers to a corroborative chain of evidence and independent demonstration of the internal validity of the research findings. It is this validation requirement that provides a challenge to case study research and one which this research sought to meet through the research design and methodology; from the development of the conceptual research framework to the chosen research methodology which enhanced the collection of qualitative and quantitative data. In doing so, such an approach provides the opportunity for cross examination, comparison and corroboration to be built into the research design.

Eisenhardt (1989) stated that a case study approach is particularly well suited to new or inadequately researched areas of study in that such studies can identify less obvious insights through an in-depth intensive approach. This scenario fits with the lack of rigorous research into coaching in the workplace. The case study approach offers the opportunity to investigate the impact of a corporate coaching programme on management behaviour and to identify those examples that support a high performance culture. Yin (1984) compared the case study method, i.e. investigating links via an analysis of a case study in whatever form, with other research-based approaches such as historical data or survey methods which seek to establish behaviours that follow a pattern or trend. Yin stated that case studies tend to use questions such as 'how' and 'why' to investigate events within an historical

perspective and questions such as 'what', 'how many' and 'how often' are used within a survey method approach. The research combined both elements using an exploratory approach to determine the outcomes of management behaviour and the reasons for such outcomes in the context of a leadership coaching style.

Case study research may also relate to identifying principles underlying taxonomy and, through doing so, seek such ways to identify the causes of a changing situation. The use of a case study approach can enable the development of theoretical generalisation, that is, if an idea is proven by the study of a case study then it is possible to develop general statements which can be developed so as to apply to cases where interrelationships are similar. However, because of the complex social factors existing within the organisational case study it was recognised that generalisability may be difficult to apply and that the concept of transferability was particularly relevant as the research findings may not be applicable to all situations but rather those with similar characteristics to the research case study (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

Yin (1984) referred to the principle of replication in two forms: literal, which relates to cases which are as similar as possible to check whether similar processes and outcomes occur; and theoretical, which relates to case studies which are different enabling a check to see if processes and outcomes differ. Yin suggests three main rationales for using a single case study design: (i) critical, which may be a test of theory or a comparison of ideas; (ii) extreme, sometimes unique; and (iii) revelatory, access to a previously unavailable situation. Whilst there are aspects of each category in this research there is arguably a greater linkage with the 'critical' case study category. The case study approach was not adopted to produce a statistical generalisation across the whole population but to consider whether theories could be developed which, in turn, could arguably be applied or transferred to other organisations that adopt a similar approach to the coaching strategy and models applied at the case study organisation. As such, this approach more closely fits Yin's 'critical' rationale rather than the 'extreme' and 'revelatory' rationales, offering a test of the view that coaching provides the potential to improve employee performance in the workplace.

Popper (1959) developed a hypothetic-deductive approach based on setting out a theory and testing it against the evidence. The research study adopted a similar approach in that it sought to test the research hypothesis, namely by the application of certain approaches and behaviours via a case study approach. Thomas (1998) referred to the use of a case study to provide a view on the research topic and listed the following methods for possible use within a case study framework: background literature, interviews, data analysis and surveys. All of these methods have been used to varying extent to test the evidence identified and this formed a research framework based on 'triangulation' through the obtaining of evidence from different perspectives, and the documenting and recording of the evidence and findings. It was recognised at an early stage of this research that there was a potential for a lack of rigour and the presence of fragility, hence the use of triangulation, which involved obtaining evidence from several sources to improve rigour and reduce fragility. Denzin (1978) viewed triangulation as a combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon with qualitative (positivist) and quantitative (phenomenological) methodologies as complementary rather than competing. The duality of methodologies combined with a longitudinal design to gauge changes over a period of time, offered the possibility of enabling organisational change within the case study organisation to be tracked over time; an approach Denzin termed contextualism. The use of 'triangulation' involving different data gathering methods e.g. archive records, literature review, interviews, discussion groups and surveys, offered a way in which to compare data and enable the development of several explanations for testing and consideration within a holistic research view.

The prevailing dominant logic of the case study organisation (Prahalad and Bettis, 1986) required that the language and construction of coaching related to quantitative as well as qualitative terms. Therefore the research recognised that coaching needed to be objectified and quantified in a way that the case study organisation and, in a generalisation context, a way that other similar organisations can understand in terms of positive or negative impacts such as changes in performance or morale. This required that research methods and measures such as questionnaires were needed to take account of the way in which the organisation defined what happened from an activity perspective and what was important as an outcome of these activities. However it was recognised that such an approach, if used singularly, would limit the

research through providing an incomplete insight in that the way in which coaching was enacted through relationships would not be captured to any meaningful extent and, as in organisational life, the subtleties would be missed against the background of the more powerful forms of the organisation's meaning and purpose. These subtleties could be captured through understanding the experiences of the participant employees in the case study and their reading of them and this required qualitative and interpretative research. When evaluating the research approach it was therefore decided not to exclude either a singular quantitative or a singular qualitative approach, for example a quantitative approach involving questionnaires to assess employees' perception of management behaviour compared to a qualitative approach based on responses within a framework of interviews and discussion groups. Both methodologies were considered and the 'pros and cons' of each evaluated. The pure quantitative approach offered the benefits of hard statistics, but failed to provide a way to fully evaluate employees' perceptions of management behaviour and the prevailing culture. Conversely a purely qualitative approach lacked the inclusion of 'hard' measurable data, necessary to monitor trends in management behaviour and employee morale over the period of the research study. Based on the review of both methodologies the research project incorporated both a quantitative and qualitative element in order to benefit from both approaches. Employee questionnaires to provide 'hard' data were supported by semi-structured face to face interviews and discussion group sessions to provide 'soft' data on the underlying reasons for the 'hard' data outputs.

The provision of quantitative data enabled an understanding of the relationship between the variables of behaviours and outcomes and the use of qualitative data facilitated interpretation of the relationships as well as a view on the micro and macro aspects of the research. As Hussey and Hussey (1997) discussed, the basic premise to the positivistic approach is that laws provide the basis for a deductive or integrated theory and therefore objective methodological approaches are best applied rather than subjective methods. Conversely Gummesson (1991) suggested that people react in different ways to different situations and therefore research methodologies should consider why people respond differently. Qualitative approaches interpret data through processes which set out to describe and interpret the meaning of the occurrences as opposed to quantitative methodology which seeks to generate

systematic results from larger groups with a view to generalising findings to the entire sample population. The combination of quantitative and qualitative research data enabled a general picture to be gained with a focus on the process and related structure.

The relationship nature of coaching arguably lends itself more easily to the qualitative approaches in terms of research. Hard quantitative studies of organisational coaching are few and far between (Grant, 2003a) yet the benefits of such an approach include reliability and the ability to measure more accurately over time. However, quantitative research studies which exclude qualitative inputs risk ignoring the underlying cultural reasons for the research outcomes, a key requirement of this research study. Yet qualitative assessments are generally dependent on individual feedback resulting in data being subjective and therefore questioned by some as being less reliable than hard objective data such as productivity statistics. Hofstede (1991) referred to qualitative data within the context of a case study within one single organisation and the challenges and the questions around reliability, understanding and applications of learning to the external world. The consideration of quantitative data in tandem with qualitative data offers the potential to reduce the risk of subjectivity created by a false view of the reality surrounding both the coaching relationship and the state of the organisational culture. Hofstede also referred to the use of qualitative data in understanding organisational culture through a systemic learning application of knowledge, values and behaviours.

The use of quantitative data to support qualitative data, and vice versa, in determining the reality of the impact of management behaviour offered a way to create a rich textual background on which to develop the research findings. The inherent social aspect and the relationship networks within the case study environment offered aspects of social research (Bulmer, 1984). Checkland and Scholes (1991) argued that a pictorial view of human relationships and activities can be built up to develop a richness of data through an holistic approach involving analysis and comparison of several survey activities which helps to inform research. The use of the deductive method through empirical observation within a grounded theory framework was favoured, although inductive methods favoured by many who undertake research in the social sciences area were considered and adopted in some measure via semi-

structured approaches, designed to capture experiences and interpretations based around the outcomes of the systematic empirical research and thus add value to practicing managers (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Various factors challenged a greater use of inductive methods including the researcher's position in the case study organisation and the sole nature of this research position; that being so, a primarily deductive approach provided a theoretical framework in which to establish when phenomena occurred and when it did not. The application of empirical research involved three key areas of activity, that is: measurement, design and analyses; and required cases, measures and scores to enable a systematic view of the relationships between the different sets of research data (Schwab, 2005). The combining of methodological approaches to meet the requirements of the research work offered a way to ameliorate the risk position and the inherent weaknesses that existed in the research study. Patton (1990) set out a range of suggestions for conducting ethnographic studies including multiple data methods, capturing of participants' views of their experiences in their own words, the balancing of involvement and objectivity assessment methods.

The type of assessment methods relating to the case study organisation were considered, namely through three types of assessment: (i) organisational assessment – conducted within the organisation utilising its own processes and procedures with the purpose being to assess the organisation's corporate performance; for example, corporate climate and culture; (ii) individual assessment – this type of assessment is conducted with the aim of assessing personal performance, for example management style or individual achievement, often involving employee feedback on a manager's behaviour; and (iii) external assessment – these assessments can involve assessing the performance of external companies to benchmark and compare results. Gill and Johnson (2002) referred to the use of external comparative data and, in the case of this research study, 9Factors™ Methodology survey data of other companies' employee groups was obtained to provide an external perspective although this was considered as background information. Gill and Johnson also discussed other relevant areas related to this research including methodological pluralism, that is, the use of several methodologies dependent upon the research subject and the application of ethnography through an understanding of the research environment and the culture within the case study organisation. The latter point introduced an element of personal interest both in

terms of the research enquiry, which was a focus of personal reflection for the researcher for some time prior to the commencement of the research study, and the researcher's position in the case study organisation and therefore the researcher's formal role in the organisation's environment, both physically and culturally. This aspect created a set of 'pros and cons' to the progression of the research as the researcher was engaged in the day to day work activities of the case study environment. From this was developed a conscious reflective stance through which the impact of the researcher on the research study was considered on an ongoing basis.

The 'complete member' role as outlined by Adler and Adler (1987) fitted with the researcher role, for most of the research study, being undertaken at the same time as working in the organisation. Whilst an ethnographic observer attempts to be an unobtrusive observer, the action researcher works at enabling change. The advantages of working in a case study organisation were described by Adler and Adler as the researcher having a personal working knowledge of the organisation, flexible access and relatively inconspicuous observation. The accessibility issue is a factor that can create major challenges to completing a substantial piece of longitudinal research and whilst a high degree of networking on a formal and informal level was required, the nature of the organisational contacts eased the introduction of the research into the organisation's reference. This was completed through the initial introduction of the idea through the formal hierarchical route before communicating on a wider scale. Notwithstanding these points, the researcher's knowledge and understanding of the case study research environment could also have been a weakness, particularly in relation to the researcher's role in the organisation being at executive level and the associated 'power' implications, which could have created a conspicuous observational presence rather than an inconspicuous one. Schein (1967) discussed the issue of the impact of an observation or enquiry on the organisational process and proposed that a researcher, by the very act of undertaking research, introduced a variable which changed the nature of the situation. These aforementioned issues were considered and actions incorporated into the framework to lessen the impact of these phenomena. The research gathering process, used a mix of independent and third party researchers, protecting identity where requested by respondents and providing confidentiality for those respondents who requested this.

By its nature of being part of a search for improvement, the research programme enabled a 'research and action' approach, through the utilisation of a learning process to drive continuous improvement. Coghlan and Brannick (2001) referred to the purpose of action research being not just to contribute to knowledge or theory but to establish links between knowledge and action with the aim of improvement. Action research seeks to establish what happened, making sense of what happened and then extrapolating knowledge from reflection. The research was constructed to incorporate the development of a learning and action process and by doing so counter the challenges often identified by business managers that much of management research is irrelevant to 'real-life' business issues. As such, the research sought to build upon the performance of the case study organisation, identifying relevant research-based issues relating to such performance to enable further learning and continuous improvement, rather than as a primary method of a problem solving tool or approach. The validity of the research has been strengthened through the cooperative nature of the relationship with the case study organisation. Within the framework of the case study the research has not sought to impinge on civil rights and responsibilities, nor constrain academic and creative freedom. Rather, the application of a coaching approach offered the potential to improve many aspects of a participant's approach and work environment, thus creating more innovative solutions both at micro (individual) and macro (strategic corporate) levels. The prolonged process of the research, which spanned seven years with data being available from the period two years prior to the research, created a strong longitudinal base to develop credibility and rigour through identifying data trends and measuring behavioural and cultural change.

The research structure incorporated an ethical approach, both in design, implementation and evaluative phases, so as to maintain rigour and incorporate clear ethical standards adhering to the core principals of validity. This was considered of particular importance as the primary data was to be taken from one organisation (Gill and Johnson, 2002) and the data concerned would have the potential to not only affect the organisation but also employees in a work context. The work of Reeves and Harper (1981) was considered and appropriate research inputs developed, in particular the view that there were four minimum requirements for any code of practice governing survey research in an organisation and these covered the issues of consultation, communication, feedback and any special circumstances that may require

consideration. The work of Remenyi, Williams, Money, and Swartz (1998) was also considered and actions taken to ensure the gaining of full access to respondents to ensure knowledge and meaning, the achieving of a cooperative approach from the management team, the continuous re-checking of interim findings and data through the research phases; an awareness of the reliability issues including the meeting of data security and confidentiality guidelines, the ongoing communication with respondents prior to interviews and forums, the importance of meeting equal opportunity principles and the concept of generalisability, that is, considering the relevance of findings in terms of different situations.

Whilst formal research activity was conducted as an observer in the overt sense, there were times when events happened outside of the structured research framework which, through the researcher being aware of in a participant sense, could be described as covert. However the nature of the research environment, that is, a social network and the researcher's role within the network, meant that the researcher moved between overt and covert positions both consciously and, on occasions, unconsciously. Therefore the issue of informed consent and the nature of the researcher's high profile position within the case study organisation impacted upon the research framework with a decision not to use the method of observation as a primary method of research due to the dangers of covert observation, whether in actuality or participant perception as well as the issue of power and influence. The researcher was aware of and acknowledged the dangers of intrusiveness and the need to establish a position of informed consent, as well as the need to be aware of reciprocity issues (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Communications were sent to the case study organisation's employees informing them of the research and the researcher's role in the research process and, in respect of interviews and discussion groups, an employee's right not to participate in such research activities (an example memorandum is reproduced as Appendix 6). Whilst documentary evidence of the individual participants' consent for the internal surveys was not obtained, as mentioned all employees were informed of the optional completion process and the anonymous use of such surveys within the research. The approval of the case study organisation to using the survey data for the purposes of the research was formally gained. This involved obtaining permission of certain Board members of the case study organisation to the principle of the research as well as the way in which it would be conducted.

The effect and impact of the research approach was reviewed and the possibility of negative implications was considered to be very low due to the nature of the research and the proposed research approach. It was not felt that employee participants were at risk of exploitation, either on an individual or group basis, due to the research activities, although this remained an element of the ongoing ethics review. The need for diversity in the make-up of the survey groups was considered and research processes ensured that as far as possible diversity was built into the research activities (e.g. gender, ethnicity, age). The respondent pool for the 9Factors Methodology™ survey was the entire employee population of the case study organisation, which through the nature of the organisation's approach to diversity provided a close representation of the local population and business community in terms of ethnicity, gender, age and disability. With regards to the additional questionnaire surveys the diversity of the employee respondents was also in line with the overall employee profile. A consideration of ethical approaches was linked to every area of the research processes from the commencement of the research study via the creation of the research design, participant involvement and the final analysis of the findings.

The nature of the case study and the research design would suggest that the research findings may be considered within an overall context of generalisation (Yin, 1984), in that whilst other workplace situations may be specialist specific (as this case study is within the financial services sector) there may be underlying themes which could be relevant or even conveyable to other workplace scenarios. However, it was recognised that it may not be possible for the learning from the research findings to be applied to every work situation or context due to the social construction of the research and the varied and multiple factors surrounding the social framework of organisation and the application of coaching. Even so, there existed as a constant thread throughout the learning outputs the potential for transferability of knowledge subject to the situational context (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The use of qualitative data analysis would arguably position the findings generated from such data to be less than conclusive, yet the nature of the qualitative data spans both language and numeric which could be described as empirical research (Schwab, 2005) and this approach coupled with a quantitative data research input provides a broader research perspective on which to base findings and develop conclusions. The selection of research methodologies was based on appropriateness to the research study aims, the identification of appropriate

knowledge, skills, attributes and approaches for effective coaching in the workplace through the exploration of organisational culture, leadership and management behaviours. A set of primary data, spanning several methods, has been gathered through a structured research process and data analysis methods used to establish a research base of knowledge. The multiple method research approach has suited both the sophisticated nature of the social and cultural aspects of the research as well as meeting the needs for evidence-based research within a 'realist' paradigm and associated research design.

Healy and Perry (2000) set out six criteria that they argued would facilitate further the adoption of a 'realist' paradigm these are the research paradigm, construct validity, multiple perceptions about a single reality, methodological trustworthiness, analytic generalisation and construct validity. The research design recognised in ontological terms the complex nature of the social relationships within the case study environment when seeking the answers to the research problems, such as the identification of the specific managerial coaching behaviours that are most valued by employees and most effective in positively impacting on employee engagement and performance. This required an acknowledgement that the research findings were derived from an environment that did not involve direct cause and effect paths, rather generative mechanisms and therefore contingent validity. This involved an acknowledgement of the researcher's position within the case study organisation and related factors together with a need to ensure selection of the appropriate categories of data to enable triangulation and through system design to build in quality checks and mechanisms taking account of the 'realist' nature of the research. This in turn required data analysis which enabled a descriptive as well as a tabular approach to achieve internal consistency of the data collected. Through this process propositions need to be developed through comparative analysis of the similarities and differences of the different data streams. The use of triangulation assists the development of multiple perceptions rather than striving to achieve a singular view and this is achieved through one-to-one interviews, group discussions, survey questionnaires which ask the same questions of different participants, observation and documentation.

As such, the methodology reflected the epistemological nature of the research context to ensure trustworthiness which is deemed to be valid, reliable and objective to

achieve internal validity, that is, the degree of similarity between the research findings and the reality of the situation. The adoption of quality approaches strengthen the objectives of reliability and validity including the use of templates for interviews and discussion groups, maintenance of transcripts, notations, recordings, gathering of data via an independent third party, categorisation and summarisation of data to develop understanding and relevant documentation so as to provide an audit trail. This required a thorough and rigorous approach to methodology in terms of design, collection and analysis. The design phase included developing the interview and discussion group protocols and procedures including case selection, participant involvement and group composition. The collection of data considered the options available and appropriate including tape recording, observation, note taking and survey completion. The analysis of data considered the uses of data tables, participant quotations, diagrams and peer review to examine and interpret the chain of evidence from beginning to final conclusions.

The establishment of methodological trustworthiness then enables analytic generalisation so as to use the findings to develop a broader theory within a concept of generalisation, that is, external validity where findings can be applied to similar situations, albeit to varying degrees dependent on context and other factors (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The defining of research scope and boundaries is essential to the development of multiple methods informed through research issues identified in the literature review. These methods then enable the creation and maintenance of a case study database from which research propositions may be developed to compare the findings and evidence with existing literature. Through such a process the research framework can achieve face validity and provide tests and measures which are relevant and appropriate to the research areas. There is though a need to ensure that the phenomena which is not directly observable is also measured and assessed and in doing so achieve construct validity and make a case for a degree of generalisation through statistics gained in a sample population or within the context of a single case study based on the elements of the phenomena being studied (Gummesson, 1991; Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

In summary the research being based on a practitioner related concern within a case study setting required a theoretical context in the wider field of practice. A

comprehensive review of selected literature to demonstrate a full understanding of background theory to the research subject was undertaken and this was followed by the development of an exploratory conceptual framework to illustrate the key variables identified by the critical review and their potential relationships to each other (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

3.3 Case Study Profile

The case study research related to a UK based building society which operated primarily in the West Midlands conurbation on a branch basis and nationally via a direct retail channel and which employed approximately an average of 850 employees during the period of the research. The organisation had set out to align management style and behaviour to its corporate vision and values so as to create the conditions for a high performance culture built on trust, empowerment, respect, recognition and accountability. The organisation adopted an external benchmarking approach to enable comparative data to be obtained and considered when evaluating progress against targets. This enabled the Executive to measure progress in several ways apart from financial results including the level of employee engagement via the 9Factors™ Methodology survey model, external awards, and data gathered and analysed via the European Foundation Quality Management model otherwise known as the Business Excellence model.

By the time the research commenced its initial phases in 2002, the case study organisation had undergone extensive change which had focused on a complete review of distribution channels and products, together with processes to meet new customer demands. These actions had ensured the Society's survival through the difficult trading conditions of the 1990s but would not be enough to achieve the ambitious growth plans set down by the Board. To do this the Society's Board, led by the then Chief Executive, recognised that the secret to such success would rely on the Society's workforce and how engaged and committed they were to the new vision, values and supporting business plans. To achieve these aspirational people objectives his first move was to appoint the researcher to the position of General Manager (People) in 1999, responsible for all employee related HR and training matters but most

importantly for employee relations, leadership development and organisational culture. The focus was placed on delivering the new vision and supporting behaviours based on the organisation's values. An overarching mantra was intuitively developed between the Chief Executive and his General Manager (People) which was simply that every employee should be focused on three things: *'people, that is, our customers; people, that is, our staff; and people, that is, our communities'*. Whilst the mantra focused on three types of stakeholder, the Chief Executive believed that the organisation's employees would be the key to delivering value to its customers and the communities they lived in. From this base of thinking it was realised that the prevailing culture of 'command and control' had to change to a more participative leadership style. The Chief Executive's reasoning centred on a value-based belief that an engaged, motivated and committed workforce would only be achieved through his management team at all levels, role modelling and displaying behaviours based on the organisation's values. These values had been developed from the organisation's rich history of mutuality and were strongly linked to customer service. Such focused leadership at the top ensured that a structured and comprehensive approach was adopted to develop the new leadership framework.

The aims of the coaching strategy were therefore to support the organisation in its quest to focus on people in terms of its employees, customers and communities and in doing so achieve the stretching business targets. The impetus for the development of the leadership coaching programme centred on the need to achieve unprecedented record-breaking business performance over a forecast five year period. The leadership coaching programme needed to provide a range of development tools to introduce and improve coaching techniques and skills whilst challenging management behaviours that were not aligned to the organisation's values. The design of the leadership coaching programme in terms of scale and methodology was driven by the senior management teams' view that there was a lack of a sizeable cohort of managers who had either the desire and/or skills to coach their teams. On the basis that the vast majority of managers would have no experience of leadership coaching as defined by the case study organisation's senior management team, a 'wave' strategy methodology developed within the research study and based on the sigmoid curve (Handy, 2002) was used to ensure a phased and sustained approach to learning and the embedding of a coaching approach into the organisational culture.

The coaching programme set out to provide a learning framework to enable managers to use coaching as a leadership tool. However as the research programme progressed, the wider issues around the need for a situational approach to management arose and a desire grew to move the management mindset to a balanced leadership style utilising a full range leadership style incorporating both transformational and transactional methods (Kotter, 1990). The aims focused on these areas and set out to (i) introduce a common leadership coaching philosophy and style throughout the management team; (ii) improve team working across the organisation to support a matrix approach to organisational development based on collaboration; and (iii) identify clear benefits in terms of individual performance in the form of business results and/or learning. The new leadership initiative offered the researcher the opportunity to develop an action research approach running concurrently with the leadership programme, enabling both the research process and the leadership programme activity to be refined on an ongoing basis. With the support of the Chief Executive and a line Director the necessary approval was gained to conduct the research study at the point of origin of the leadership strategy so as to maximise the benefits of learning, in order to add value on an ongoing basis to the leadership programme.

The starting off point of the leadership strategy within the research framework involved two 'top team' sessions which were held to identify and agree the desired culture and the associated key leadership approaches. The sessions used a range of inputs based around the Society's vision, values, business plans and included feedback from employees via forums and surveys. The semi-structured sessions provided direction to the HR team, of which the researcher was head, so as to ensure that the key leadership behaviours could be identified and from these a leadership development strategy created. These behaviours and skill sets fell broadly into two categories – firstly, technical, specialist and functional behaviours to drive the delivery of tasks involved in the day to day running of the business, and secondly, relationship behaviours that were required to lead change, achieve engagement and meet the medium to longer term objectives of the business. The first category, that is the task or transactional sub set, was incorporated into the existing management development programme which was upgraded to take account of the new requirements. The outputs around the latter category clustered around skill sets and behaviours based on an open, participative, empowering and trustful relationship between managers and their

employee reports. From an analysis of these outputs a leadership approach was forged which very clearly related to a leadership style based on coaching behaviours necessary to create the new culture. In a follow-up meeting of the senior leadership team it was agreed that the primary style of leadership to fit the new vision and achieve the desired culture was leadership coaching, which was to be defined in leadership behavioural terms, together with a set of skill sets, to be developed by way of a leadership development programme. In summary the transformational or relationship sub set of leadership development was placed in a coaching context and would be the way in which the new high performance culture would be achieved.

From this base a leadership coaching programme (Level 1) was designed and developed during 2002/2003 with the help of an external provider accredited by the International Coaching Federation. The Level 1 programme commenced, in pilot form, involving the senior Executive team during 2003. The entire process, including the external coach supplier who had been identified and selected within a coach supplier section process, benefited from learning gained via the initial phases of the research literature review as well as external research of best practice, initially undertaken as part of the initial research phase and which consequently became an ongoing process. Prior to this period, i.e. 2000-2002, there was existing archived data information relating to organisational culture, quality, business metrics, staff engagement and business results, all of which was measured to external benchmarks. These measures supported the research framework and informed the validation process and evaluation, both from pre and post coaching programme perspectives.

The Level 1 coaching programme was rolled out from 2004 to managerial levels below the Executive by a combination of external suppliers, who delivered the leadership coaching programme and ongoing coaching to the Executive team, and internal coaching specialists, who were trained and accredited by the external supplier via a train the trainer programme and who delivered the leadership coaching programme to all other managers. The leadership coaching programme initially consisted of several key elements, broadly:

- Pre-course work, involving textbook reading and a learning styles analysis.
- Three day coaching skills programme.

- Post-course validation programme requiring manager delegates to undertake ongoing coaching sessions with their staff and document approaches used, results and outcomes as defined by the research criteria.
- Celebratory certificate presentation ceremony, together with action learning sets and related activities, was incorporated into six monthly Masterclass events (the Society's Chief Executive was the first of the management team to step up and collect his certificate).

Data capture and analysis was undertaken as an integrated component part of the roll-out, which enabled the capture of the ongoing information referred to earlier, together with new data, that is, leadership coaching behaviours and outcomes including life and business results through manager delegate and non-delegate forums, interviews, questionnaires and a coaching impact analysis. Throughout this process a refinement approach was adopted.

During 2005, approximately two thirds of the way through the Level 1 coaching skills programme roll-out, a research-based review was conducted which involved an analysis of learning points and outcomes through the allocated research methods. The learning points included a need to advise staff, that is the employees who would receive coaching, of the strategic importance of the leadership coaching programme as well as what to expect in terms of leadership behaviours, a tighter approach to delegate attendance, a critical appraisal of course content and follow-up work, actions to reduce the negative impact of time constraints, more supportive ongoing coaching interventions including the use of virtual and telephone coaching and regular email newsletters providing 'tricks and tips' for coaching success.

Senior management discussions were held during which it was agreed that significant progress had been achieved both in terms of leadership behaviours and results. The executive team agreed at this stage to support and endorse a decision to continue the coaching programme via the 'next wave' of coaching skills training, a Level 2 coaching programme which was set to commence during 2005, involving all managers who had completed Level 1 and attained accredited standard through the ongoing validation programme. Level 2 phase consisted of similar components to Level 1 with

additional content and processes developed via the formal review and learning points analysis of the earlier programme.

This content included:

- An employee communication strategy to set the context of coaching within the wider leadership and business strategy.
- Pre-course work incorporating textbook reading, consideration of the key challenges to coaching and a key goal analysis.
- Two day coaching skills programme, reviewing Level 1 content and covering new areas such as performance coaching, self coaching and team coaching.
- Post-course validation programme requiring manager delegates to undertake ongoing coaching sessions with their staff and document approaches used, results and outcomes as defined by the research criteria.
- Regular e-newsletters providing information and advice on coaching techniques as well as success stories or ways in which to overcome coaching challenges provided by peer managers .
- Ongoing coaching support through online and/or telephone coaching.
- A process to ensure all newly appointed managers received Level 1 skills training.
- A celebratory certificate presentation ceremony, together with learning sets and related activities, was again incorporated into the six monthly Masterclass event.
- Telephone coaching applications on a pilot basis designed to provide cost effective support.

Again, the previous external supplier was used to assist with the support of the Level 2 programme providing external accreditation and credibility and specifically delivering the Level 2 coaching programme to the Executive team. The roll-out of Level 2 was commenced during 2005. The research framework incorporated a second review of the impact of the second phase of the programme, again involving forums, interviews and questionnaires. In parallel with the Level 2 coaching programme another external supplier was taken on to provide one-to-one individual coaching sessions over a period of 18 months to the four Directors in the Executive team, the rest of the Executive team members reported into these four Directors. The major focus of this top team

programme was to support succession planning. The Level 1 programme continued to be rolled out to new management starters, newly promoted managers and high performance non-management staff from the talent pool (Development Track). Managers became eligible to undertake the Level 2 process within six months of completing the Level 1 coaching skills training and accreditation process.

The overall coaching programme was based on a first wave high impact strategy which created the momentum to achieve a coaching fraternity of managers which from late 2005 onwards represented a critical mass. The second wave of the coaching programme was developed to instil further momentum within the ranks of those managers who had undergone the first phase of coaching development. Additionally it was to be launched at the same time the Level 1 programme would become mandatory for all managers and, as such, was likely to set expectations amongst the management team that coaching was to be embedded within the organisational culture.

3.4 Research Framework and Strategy

3.4.1 Research Strategy

In view of the complexity of the research environment and subject it was determined that there was no optimum single methodology for collecting the research data. A mixed methodological approach of a large scale survey (9Factors™ Methodology) supported by a series of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and discussion groups to ascertain individual observations; was considered to provide the most favourable method (Jick, 1979). A multi method triangulation approach required a framework robust enough to provide validity and reliability.

Validity was required to ensure the research findings accurately represented what was happening in the case study research environment, that is 'An effect or test is valid if it demonstrates or measures what the researcher thinks or claims it does' (Coolican, 1992, p 135). To achieve validity it was necessary to build into the research design steps that would reduce the incidence of faulty research procedures, poor samples and inaccurate or misleading measurement; and establish measures to reflect what they are

supposed to measure, that is face validity. Additionally the concept of construct validity was considered and the view acknowledged that certain phenomena are not directly observable, that is hypothetical constructs e.g. motivation, satisfaction. This required observational findings to be explained by a construct. For example when coaching activity was undertaken on a certain area the outputs, such as increased performance, may have been due to other non observable factors as well as the coaching input. The approaches used to strengthen validity and reliability focused on multiple sources of data, collection and cross-checking of participant transcripts to increase construct validity; cross case comparisons using illustrations and diagrams to increase internal validity; comparison of literature and peer citation to increase external validity all of which are more commonly applied within the paradigm of positivism; and other test techniques to establish transferability, confirmability, credibility and dependability (Riege, 2003).

The use of techniques such as multiple manager/employee inputs and measures were adopted to strengthen the reliability aspect of the research and achieve credible findings. Within the research study a cross manager/employee approach was utilised to establish internal replication via several one to one coaching relationships between managers and employees. However as the study was based on a single case study then replication constructs across external environments was not considered possible within the existing research although the use of the 9Factors™ Methodology survey questionnaire enables cross comparison of other organisations who have also utilised such an approach, a theme that is revisited in section 6.6 when considering future areas of potential research. Following the development of the conceptual framework and structure the detailed design of the survey tools were considered and assessed for risk to reliability and validity. Based on this assessment there were three main areas of the research where it was identified issues could have produced a higher risk to the reliability of the findings. These were the responses to the survey questionnaires, the input via the discussion groups and interviews: and the outputs from the coaching sessions. The collection of data via multiple methods provided strengths and weaknesses and as such challenges to reliability. In each area the research methodology was designed to eliminate or reduce the risk to the reliability of the findings including the use of the main survey questionnaire framework.

The 9Factors™ Methodology survey questionnaire was the product of ten years research prior to this study (Cartwright, 1999) and was used at over forty other organisations apart from the case study, involving over 3m individual responses. This provided a recognised cross referenced survey model which within the research study was used extensively throughout the research period in a time series approach (Gill and Johnson, 2002) to analytically measure the responses of the employee population pool. A multi-method approach was adopted involving other surveys with supplementary questions to provide crosschecking and reinforce validity. The development of the additional surveys included an assessment to establish whether these should be analytic or descriptive, and whilst the 9Factors™ Methodology survey questionnaire was primarily analytic based the additional surveys were primarily descriptive. Whilst the analytic based 9Factors™ Methodology survey questionnaire was respondent completed via post or e-mail the additional surveys were primarily interviewer administered. The 9Factors™ Methodology survey questionnaire responses were considered to be large enough to use random sampling. The number of additional surveys were considered to ensure a representative number of the general employee population yet because of the lower numbers, compared to the 9Factors™ Methodology surveys, stratified sampling was adopted. The development of these surveys required consideration of research focus, design, phraseology, form of response and sequencing. The pilot design study enabled incorporation of these factors to reduce errors and biases.

The interviews and discussion group methodology also followed a developmental path to ensure participant communication was appropriate, for example the elements of the purpose of the research and the confidentiality issues were covered. Sampling was also considered in a similar manner to the survey design. Consideration was given to incorporating into the design appropriate tested procedures such as sampling, format, introduction, questions, discussion topics and additional facilitators (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). The interviews and discussion groups were tape-recorded, transcribed and/or analysed manually dependent upon the situation and circumstances over the research period. The use of several data sources enabled a richer view of the research subject including a comparison of data findings and, as such, the research methodology was based on triangulation (Denzin, 1978). The use of triangulation in

the research study arguably enhanced the strength of the research, enhanced qualitative methods and allowed the complementary use of quantitative methods (Jick, 1979). The research methodology was designed to achieve this through data triangulation, with data being collected throughout the research period from different participants and in different ways to achieve methodological triangulation, where both quantitative and qualitative methods of data were used. However this approach recognised that external replication would prove difficult to perform due to the complexity of a mixed methodology including the design and use of qualitative data approach (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). To enhance the prospects of replication detailed consideration was given to the use of different methodologies and respective data generation.

The research strategy, being a multi-method approach, involved different methodologies the selection of which was driven by the nature of the research as well as the researcher. The selection of different methods by different individuals would be expected and would reflect the influence of their preferred learning style and whilst this case study research perspective emphasised learning through reflection and theory building, there was also an emphasis on research work based on activity and pragmatism (Honey and Mumford, 1992). In the same sense the methodologies were selected to encourage a reflective review of personal leadership styles and the appropriateness of the learning to the individual in respect of both managers and their employee reports. As well as incorporating a range of methods such as questionnaires, surveys, interviews and discussion groups, there was an ongoing requirement for individual managers to undertake 20 hours of coaching following the coaching skills course. This involved a documented approach which was developed through consideration of learning logs (Barclay, 1996). Failure to follow this process by several managers could indicate a lack of desire through a failure to take action in terms of practicing new coaching skills, which with many training programmes is not transparent. Managers' reasons for not following this process included the challenge/rejection of the new culture, the lack of priority given to the leadership coaching approaches by their senior manager, personal (e.g. time management) and/or other limitations (e.g. environment).

In terms of data generation the developing methodology did not favour a single survey-based approach and required the adoption of dual quantitative and qualitative

methodologies so as to obtain volume data from many respondents and more detailed data from a smaller group of respondents. The qualitative research focused on the meaning of data not based on the frequency and volume of data, as opposed to the quantitative methodological approaches which utilised larger numbers with a view to generalising findings. Qualitative methods based on discussion groups were expected to support a more rigorous approach compared to just a single quantitative methodology approach and vice versa.

Whilst the research preparation, involving a literature review and analysis, indicated that the benefits of coaching are most clearly expressed as anecdotal evidence in the form of the case study, including surveys and discussion groups, there was an opportunity to integrate metrics via data collection methods within the research framework both in terms of 'soft' outcomes as well as linking to specific objectives developed from the coaching activity within the case study research framework. Two methods of data collection were considered; the use of semi-structured interview sessions with individual participants and the use of semi-structured discussion groups. The view that, during the initial phase of the coaching programme at least, there may be different issues and challenges with each method, including a concern that individual staff may be threatened by a one-to-one interview, led to the adoption of a dual approach utilising both methods. The use of discussion groups offered a way of generating the qualitative data required while the group element could reduce participant concerns caused by a variety of reasons including a lack of knowledge of coaching. Also in involving colleagues with similar concerns, this methodology offered the potential of a learning set approach moving forward (Krueger and Casey, 2000). The groups were run in sizes ranging from 4 to 18 participants to ensure a balance between frequency and interpretive meaning, although the smaller numbers related to the 'reflective' group sessions held during 2008 and 2009.

In gathering the research the case study provided an environmental reality which was subjective and multiple as viewed by the various participants and thus required a qualitative input (Patton and Applebaum, 2003) to consider the different views, yet in such a context there were singular and objective measures which were used to establish organisational factors such as performance; and in certain cases it was most appropriate to express these in quantitative measures. The singular aspect of the case

study placed considerable importance on the context if the behavioural dynamics within the organisation were to be interpreted and understood. The research context favoured a critical case study (Yin, 1989) and multiple data collection techniques being used to capture the different perspectives and insights (Eisenhardt, 1989). Due to the nature of the research context it was considered that a mixed methodology approach was required to provide perspective and balance (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Gummesson, 1991). To establish the links between the coaching process and outcomes qualitative and quantitative data was sought via the research framework and process.

The identification and evaluation of the analysis of qualitative data was a key consideration when considering and implementing the research design and methodology; with a requirement identified for cross examination, comparison and corroboration of multiple perspectives. The surveys and questionnaires needed to take account of the way in which the organisation defined what happened from an activity perspective and what was important as an outcome of these activities. However it was recognised that such an approach, if used singularly, would limit the research through providing an incomplete insight in that the way in which coaching was enacted through relationships would not be captured to any meaningful extent and, as in organisational life, the subtleties would be missed against the background of the more powerful forms of the organisation's meaning and purpose. These subtleties could be captured through understanding the experiences of the participant employees in the case study and their reading of them and this required a qualitative and interpretative research.

Qualitative approaches favoured the case study context particularly in relation to participant reaction which had the potential to vary considerably. The ability to use qualitative approaches to interpret data from multiple perspectives through descriptive and interpretative methods added to the richness of the data (Gummesson, 1991) and complemented the quantitative data which generated systematic results from the entire employee population of the case study organisation. The latter approach created potential to explore generalisation in that the data was contained in a broader framework. However the combination of quantitative and qualitative research data enabled a general picture to be gained with a focus on the process and related

structure. The analysis methods and techniques were considered in terms of identifying the key issues associated with a mixed methodology of qualitative and quantitative data analysis, which included reducing, structuring and summarising the data in the most appropriate way.

The chronology of research data stretched over several years. The 9Factors™ Methodology survey data was obtained at regular periods throughout the research enabling a cross case comparison with events, other data gathered and enabled a singular as well as a total view, for example an analysis of accredited coach managers as well as non accredited coach managers. Following the pilot development of methodology approaches during 2002 to 2004 coaching behaviour surveys (pre and post the coaching training intervention) and coaching questionnaires were undertaken in 2005/2006. These surveys and questionnaires were followed by employee and manager discussion groups to enable greater investigation into the data obtained. The coaching impact assessment was undertaken during 2006 to assess the outputs and any benefits associated with the coaching activity. Interviews were conducted in 2007 and the final elements of the research were the reflective discussion groups and interviews in 2009.

Components of the research data were suited to quantification in numerical terms whereas other data components were more suited to a non quantifying method (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). An informal quantification approach was adopted in content analysing the outputs of the discussion groups in order to identify certain information, for example, a list of the benefits of coaching as perceived by those employees who received coaching. The outputs could then be presented in list and/or diagrammatic forms. Additionally the discussion groups enabled further clarification and understanding via respondent validity through gaining reaction and opinions. This aided the use of specific terms used by participants and quoted in the thesis with the aim of creating broader understanding and insight.

Frequency distribution, bar, line and pie charts were used to compare and evaluate the various data arising from the various 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings, coaching assessments and coaching questionnaires. Additionally the 9Factors™ Methodology data ratings for each of the years for which data was gathered were

compared to determine whether there were any statistically significant changes during the course of the initiative. SPSS was used to calculate the mean scores for each year and the t-test scores for each year. Given the level of measurement, unpaired t-tests were calculated for each pairing of years and equal variances were not assumed thus providing a more conservative test of statistical significance.

The choice of data methods for analysing the qualitative data were selected to provide a multiple perspective picture of the views of the participants which had been gathered via surveys, questionnaires, discussion groups and interviews. The need for rigour and systematic processes was matched by a general analytical approach (Miles and Huberman, 1994) to manage and control the research data. This involved field notes taken in discussion groups to be converted in a systematic manner and referenced prior to summarising the general concepts emanating from the data. The transcripts of discussion groups and interviews were processed in a similar way to reduce the potential for de-limiting factors relating to time, cross comparison and research linkages. The choices of data displays were considered to provide where appropriate a visual data display in a systematic manner which aided the development of conclusions (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

The research study was undertaken over a seven year period; the longitudinal approach was necessary to contextualise the research activity within a realistic corporate planning cycle rather than a shorter period of time and this approach offered challenges as well as opportunities. The research programme itself underwent a change in its academic status with the completion of the MPhil research degree application process. The MPhil literature search provided the platform on which to challenge the research questions in a more robust manner and develop a more detailed research framework in preparation for a transfer to the PhD research programme. This enabled the researcher to refine the research title and parameters and achieve increased clarity and focus.

The research time span resulted in the researcher's role undergoing three stages of evolution; from a starting position as an employee of the case study organisation, to an employee/researcher 'insider' perspective and finally to an end position as a researcher with an 'outsider' perspective, having left the organisation before the research was

completed. Bartunek and Louis (1996) discussed the development and implications of insider/outsider team research highlighting that researchers approach groups of research participants from a background of theory and conceptualisation whereas the participants have their own theories about their behaviour and as such the goals of both parties should be considered at the outset and throughout the research phase. The research challenges of this approach were considerable. As the research was being conducted by a lone researcher there were resource and technical issues to manage. The researcher also had to consider his impact and influence on the research and participants at every stage, in view of his senior role in the case study organisation.

A range of strategies to reduce the risk of bias arising out of the researcher's role as a 'complete member' (Adler and Adler, 1987) were implemented including the issues surrounding confidentiality, identification and consent. The opportunities that were presented by the researcher's 'insider' and 'outsider' research stances were balanced by the challenges of maintaining continuity and access throughout the change, both with the case study organisation and participants, many of whom had also left the organisation in the concluding stages of the research. Again this presented an opportunity to consider the views of those participants who remained in the organisation and those participants who had left the organisation.

The make-up of the social background of the research case study related to the organisational culture created by those who worked within the organisation, all of whom undertook different roles but within a classic social hierarchy and all having their own views, feelings, motives, experiences and as such interpreting working life in different ways. The ethno methodological approach (Garfinkel, 1967) relates to the ways in which people make sense of their social world and argues that social activity is not based on order as prescribed by many sociology doctrines such as Marxism (Tucker, 1978), but is chaotic and depends upon the individual to make sense of life rather than for them to merely defer to the culture and pattern of life around them.

A research concept was developed that initially incorporated an observational aspect to provide inputs on such themes, including how employees went about constructing and maintaining their roles and positions within their respective areas and cultures. However the challenges offered by the 'insider' sole researcher role and the associated

power implications, created issues that presented ethical considerations and therefore this aspect of the research was curtailed. Whilst employees within the case study organisation were advised of the researcher's role at specific points within the programme, e.g. discussion groups and interviews, it was not practical or relevant to do so every time the researcher wished to record an observation and, in any event, by doing so the researcher would have been potentially impacting upon the behaviour of the employees.

3.4.2 Initial Facilitated Group Discussion Sessions

At the outset of the research exploratory semi-structured facilitated meetings were held with the senior management team, middle management team and a mix of employees representing various levels to identify views on coaching behaviours to assist in the formulation of leadership coaching approaches and research development framework and materials. In addition, the meetings provided an opportunity to discover if affinity and commonality existed amongst participants in relation to the ideas of leadership and coaching and, specifically, coaching as a tool for organisational culture change, employee engagement, individual learning and business performance. At this stage the research process benefited from the technique of mind mapping (Buzan, 1993) to help with the generation of ideas and the creation of a framework in which to structure, develop and coordinate the several different strands of inputs.

3.4.3 9Factors™ Methodology

The collection of quantitative data was primarily through a cultural employee engagement survey which was termed the 9Factors™ Methodology, a cultural measurement methodology which provided a consistent standard against which the organisation's culture could be measured. Cartwright (1999) developed the 9Factors™ Methodology over a three year study (Cartwright, 1997) identifying nine key motivating factors, each of which represented an important psychological characteristic of motivation at work. Cartwright developed these factors into the 9Factors™ Methodology through continuous development in cooperation with

practitioners and researchers from all sectors including public service, industrial, educational and commercial. In doing so Cartwright incorporated aspects of the work of Maslow (1987) into the methodology by building on the premise that the main purpose of culture in a business context is to fulfil human needs in order for people to fulfil an organisation's needs through their motivation, commitment and accountability, and defined culture as 'an organised body of people who share the same goals, beliefs and values' (Cartwright, 1999; pp 10, 11) and asserted that it could be measured in terms of motivation. Cartwright expressed culture in life cycle terms using four models. The *mono* culture is based on a single mindset which is often how cultures begin, being dominated by a strong entrepreneurial leader. The mono culture often leads to a *divisive* culture where the organisation is pulled in different directions due to competitive internal divisions. The *disjunctive* culture can follow in the cycle or appear when two organisations come together through a merger or takeover. Throughout the culture cycle there is an opportunity for a *superordinate* culture to emerge which consists of multi-cultures each with different micro beliefs and values but all joined by macro core beliefs and values. However throughout this cycle Cartwright asserted that only the leaders can establish and maintain sustainable core cultural values of an organisation.

The 9Factors™ Methodology survey was introduced into the case study organisation in 1998 on a pilot basis to measure employee engagement, morale and commitment; and provided a way in which these factors could be measured at team, department, functional and organisational levels. The questionnaire consisted of thirty six questions for which participants could score five points ranging from a strong negative five (-5) to a strong positive five (5) dependent upon the strength of their feeling towards the question (Appendix 2).

The 9Factors™ Methodology provided the researcher with a way in which to track the cultural journey of the case study organisation through providing a language for the values that represented the 'psychological contract' between employees and the organisation and its managers e.g. exchange of respect, trust, fairness and commitment, which were in line with the defined values of the case study organisation. The 9Factors™ Methodology enabled a way in which morale and motivation could be measured in an orderly and consistent manner through the use of

four questions per factor, making 36 questions in total. Additionally the 9Factors™ Methodology recognised that cultural change requires a change in attitude behaviours and values and that culture is measured by its effect on motivation. This element of its make-up provided a way in which to measure the impact of management behaviour throughout the case study organisation at organisational macro level and at management micro level. By measuring the force and direction of motivation, the 9Factors™ Methodology provided a standard against which the management of cultural change could be measured and monitored. As the 9Factors™ Methodology was a proprietary product owned by Hemsley Fraser Limited there were also many other organisations which were using the process and this provided a secondary source of data although this was used only as background information.

Whilst the 9Factors™ Methodology was the chosen way of measurement of employee engagement and commitment for the case study organisation and, as such, the favoured way by which the organisation would wish to measure engagement, there was a choice to use a different survey model purely for the research purpose although that would have required additional duplicated surveys and related processes. Therefore prior to choosing the 9Factors™ Methodology survey for the case study research an assessment was undertaken to benchmark and validate the model against other approaches and available surveys. Bernthal (2004) described employee engagement as total commitment driven by high involvement, job motivation, organisational commitment and a high level of trust and identified the common characteristics of tools designed to measure engagement namely (i) a focused succinct set of measures (e.g. feedback, trust, communication), monitored over a longer term; (ii) benchmarking to peer or target group; (iii) a framework for action and delivering improvements based on the feedback; and (iv) links to organisational performance. A report requested by the UK Government on employee engagement identified 50 definitions of the term centring around a people driven approach and found that there were key drivers of engagement namely leadership behaviour, interactive communication and integrity of action (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009). The 9Factors™ Methodology in different ways provided all of the characteristics identified by Bernthal.

Several other culture survey models were reviewed, for example, the E3 survey (Development Dimensions International, 2003) focused on employees, leaders and the organisational context to establish the level of employee engagement via 20 questions and had many similarities to the 9Factors™ Methodology approach. The Focus methodology (Den Hartog and Verbug, 2004) produced two dimensions further split into four segments namely, innovative, rules, support and goals. The Focus survey methodology was used to establish positive correlation between employee skill and direction, employee willingness to provide discretionary effort and the economic performance of 175 Dutch organisations participating in the survey. However the survey structure of two respondents from each firm, Chief Executive and HR Executive, did not provide a view from an employee's perspective, nor did the high performance work practices include specifically a management style such as coaching skills.

The review identified some disadvantages to the use of the 9Factors™ Methodology such as that the 9Factors™ Methodology was not as flexible in terms of amendment as a 'bespoke' research-driven survey. Such a personalised survey would not have been reliant on a third party to meet timescales and the use of such a 'bespoke' framework potentially increased the researcher's control of the research timescales. Such disadvantages were weighed against the potential advantages such as: a proven, well tried culture measurement system which was used across many UK and international organisations with a potential to benchmark ratings against other organisations which used the model; an alignment of the survey questions to the research subject, a method that had been accepted and trusted by the case study organisation and one that would therefore more easily drive action to move the culture to the desired state; a bank of existing data covering several years on which to compare future results; a third party collection of the data to ensure confidentiality and remove bias; the level of academic rigour in terms of the development framework – the model being initially developed as part of a Masters research degree and the researcher's inside knowledge of the 9Factors™ Methodology due to being involved with the developmental stages.

Full consideration was given to these areas and during this review approaches were developed to offset the challenges identified and presented earlier, including an agreement with Hemsley Fraser, the owners of the 9Factors™ Methodology, to enable

the researcher, whilst working for the case study organisation, to input into the future development of the 9Factors™ Methodology survey model, an ability to draw on research on the survey data generated by other clients and an agreement on timescales. For these reasons the 9Factors™ Methodology was chosen as the primary research survey.

The 9Factors™ Methodology had been used regularly within the case study organisation since 1999 and therefore provided excellent reference material to the period preceding the research programme. Informed by a literature review, the existing 9Factors™ survey areas were developed to take account of emerging issues from the research programme as well as providing an historical comparison, thus applying an action research practitioner approach to establish links between knowledge and action with the aim of achieving continuous improvement. Through an agreement with Hemsley Fraser the researcher was able to gain access to data relating to other organisations (e.g. participation rates, engagement levels) and specialist knowledge related to the construct of the methodology and best practice.

The research methodology involved a total participant pool of the total workforce of the Society, for the 9Factors™ Methodology survey questionnaire, which assisted in achieving an excellent and acceptable level of responses. The complete range of individual responses was analysed for significance using the SPSS t-test for equality of means.

An additional coaching feedback questionnaire (Appendix 3) was created to provide more information on possible linkages between employee engagement and coaching behavioural activity. In relation to the first ten questions the questionnaire was developed through an analysis of the 9Factors™ Methodology survey to ensure methodology alignment and a consistency in ratings. This additional questionnaire was focused on establishing the level of coaching behaviour based on the key attributes and behaviours as required by managers in terms of the desired leadership coaching culture.

The additional questionnaire was sent to employees who reported to managers who had undergone the coaching skills programme. The questionnaire survey was

undertaken a month before a manager attended a coaching skills programme and then three months after the date of the coaching skills programme. The purpose was to establish, against the background of the ongoing coaching programme, any changes to manager participant leadership coaching behaviours.

Discussion group sessions were used to develop a more in-depth understanding of the survey responses. These discussion groups involved semi-structured facilitated meetings which were held with representatives of employees across the case study organisation's various functions to enable validation and rigour in terms of understanding of the results of the employee engagement surveys and additional research questionnaire. Suff (2006) reported on this process and how employee engagement, as opposed to employee satisfaction, was developed at the case study organisation to deliver increased performance and how the 9Factors™ Methodology was used to measure and cultivate engagement and commitment.

3.4.4 Coach and Coachee Questionnaires

In addition to the 9Factors™ Methodology survey further data was gathered based on two questionnaires designed to establish the impact of leadership behaviour and coaching activity across the organisation to support the research process which provided details of specific outcomes relating to key areas of organisational performance from the individual coaching sessions. One questionnaire (Appendix 4) was distributed to employees (coachees) who had been coached and another questionnaire (Appendix 5) to managers (coaches) who had undergone the coaching skills programme. The employees were asked to complete the questionnaires several months after the coaching skills training so as to ascertain any changes in management behaviour. These questionnaires supported the data from the main culture survey questionnaire through the analysis of key learning points from the emerging literature review, feedback from the internal case study and external site visits of 'best practice' companies and research work within the case study organisation.

Questionnaires were developed through referral to external applications of surveys such as a coaching survey by Blessing White (2004) and internal inputs gathered

during the research cycle, which culminated in a pilot study of managers during 2004 (Schwab, 2005). The questionnaires consisted of qualitative and quantitative questions designed to establish perceptions of management behaviours, focussing on the extent to which a coaching style was adopted by managers within the sample survey pool.

The questionnaires focused on those key areas of management style and behaviour that affect employee motivation, both positively and negatively. The data gathered was used in the discussion group sessions referred to earlier. Discussion groups were arranged, in two different sets, 'What's it like to coach?' involving the coaches (managers) and 'What's it like to be coached?' involving coachees (managers' reports) to further test understanding, obtain additional data and increase rigour. Within the questionnaire design some areas of commonality were developed between the two questionnaires so as to enable a comparison between the views of those who received coaching and those who coached.

A stratified random sample approach (Borg and Gall, 1989) was considered as the case study organisation represented a homogeneous group within a heterogeneous (e.g. hierarchical) population. However the 9Factors™ Methodology survey enabled all employees irrespective of position to take part and this survey attracted increasing levels of participation each time it was undertaken. The other questionnaires were distributed to consider gender, age and ethnicity factors and benchmark to employee population levels where practical and possible although the composition of teams reporting to specific managers did not always enable accurate representation.

3.4.5 Coaching Impact Assessment

To complement the research data above and provide a view on outcomes of coaching conversations a coaching impact analysis of coaching interventions was undertaken. As part of the research cycle managers who undertook the coaching programme were asked to cooperate in the production of coaching impact assessment records (Appendix 9) which were used as a part of the accreditation process to validate that managers were meeting the required level of coaching activity, both in terms of quality

and quantity elements. The areas of accreditation covered background information to the coaching activity including coachee's role and responsibilities; coaching methods used, the reaction of individuals to the coaching sessions, the impact on the individual and the related business area and testimonials relating to the coachee's perspective of the coaching sessions.

The data analysis approach sought to establish content validity (Schwab, 2005) and identify themes around which the coaching was based so as to identify characteristics or tactics that illustrate findings (Stares, 1987). This approach fits in with the overall research data methodology which resulted in various data being gathered so as to enable a content analysis (Hussey and Hussey, 1997) to take place which offered a diversity of perspective.

The coaching impact assessment enabled outcomes from specific coaching sessions to be identified and analysed thus providing evidence-based research whilst meeting the requirements of the case study organisation in terms of validation and evaluation. All managers who had completed the coaching skills programme were offered the opportunity to achieve accredited status through undertaking dedicated coaching activity via a formalised and documented accreditation process involving the external coaching supplier. Managers and supervisors who undertook the accreditation process were monitored via the research methodology framework with the aim of establishing the benefits or otherwise of the coaching activity.

Additionally the results of the coaching impact analysis were discussed with the managers completing the accreditation process so as to validate and gain a greater understanding of the coaching impact analysis which was designed to identify links between the coaching programme and any business impact and results.

3.4.6 Discussion Groups and Interviews

Throughout the cycle of questionnaires, discussion groups and interviews the research methodology incorporated a range of approaches relating to selection, discussion group structure, development of a question schedule involving the use of open

questions, conversation, key words and phrases, the use of conversational non-jargon style language, the integration of linkages to key research questions and a combination of approaches to data collection through transcripts, analysis and interpretation of key words and key phrases. Where appropriate other persons, fully trained in facilitation techniques, were used to facilitate discussion groups as a support to the sole researcher so as to ensure a rigorous approach and as recognition to the issues identified around the 'inside' researcher factor. All employee participants were briefed on the procedure and the purpose of the various research activities and provided with feedback on the results. A structured process for both individual interviews and group discussion sessions was used to achieve consistency. These discussions gave respondents an opportunity to externalise perceptions and identify sensitive issues that may have remained hidden or suppressed if a follow-up process was not applied. The selection of interview and discussion group participants was undertaken to achieve a range of experience, age, gender, race, skill sets, jobs and positions within the organisation. Attendance at the interviews and discussion groups was voluntary and conveyed through internal communication by e-mail and at coaching programme events.

The sessions were conducted using a question schedule which was developed through various inputs generated internally and externally. All discussion groups considered their response to the coaching programme as a whole and from a personal reflective viewpoint. Recorded transcripts of some of the group discussions and interviews were not considered appropriate following input from participants in view of the confidentiality issues relating to personal views on line managers and the organisation as a whole. The coaches' (managers') sessions focused on personal coaching activity and the overall approach of the coaching programme, the outcomes as well as identifying the 'pros and cons' of the strategy and its implementation. The coachees' (line reports) sessions focused on the coaches' behaviours, impact and the identification of 'pros and cons'.

The discussion groups were run at the organisation's locations, primarily its Principal Office. The potential risk of reduced numbers due to non-attendance was tackled by pre discussion group communication and checks. Each one-to-one interview ran for approximately 30 minutes and each discussion group for approximately 60 minutes. The itinerary for group discussion was developed so as to encourage and support semi-

open discussion questions as well as questions that 'drilled down' further within a relaxed, informal yet direct and clear style (Krueger 1998) thus encouraging participation and involvement yet providing specific information on key areas. This was a particularly key aspect of the discussion groups as it was important for the participants to feel confident enough to express their opinions freely. The first few minutes of the sessions 'set the scene' around the research and included introductions. This was followed by questions to gain a view of the group's general attitude to coaching in the organisation before introducing questions around their managers' coaching approaches and behaviours. The questionnaire agenda was thus developed to obtain data that would meet the requirements of the research. An outline of the scope of the sessions is detailed in Appendix 8.

Two categories of discussion group were used, one for employees who received coaching and another for managers who coached, although some managers would also have been involved in the workshop focusing on those who received coaching. The objective was to explore the issues surrounding the coaching programme and related activity including behaviours, communication, system effectiveness and attitudinal approaches. A communication was sent to participants in advance advising of the research aspect (Appendix 6). The two workshops were structured differently in terms of content to reflect the research aims and the nature of the difference between the two roles that is being coached and coaching. By taking this approach a line of investigation was achieved which followed the structure of the questionnaire process undertaken in earlier months and detailed in the earlier section.

The key areas of focus incorporated issues relating to coaching in the workplace, manager behaviour in terms of coaching, effectiveness of coaching, organisational support and/or positioning, feedback on the coaching programme – including course, support mechanisms and continuing coaching development and the attitude of the coachee to a coaching approach. The format of the discussion groups was informed by a literature review which included the use of language in terms of clarity and understanding, the overall design layout and rigour (Burgess, 1993). The sessions produced comparative data to contrast with data obtained via the other research methods used. The semi-structured part of the discussion groups provided the

participants with the opportunity to offer their opinions on the key areas under discussion.

Eight one-to-one interviews were carried out with managers during 2007 and provided an opportunity to consider the coaching programme by utilising both a structured approach to gain comparative data by which to consider research data previously gained and a semi-structured approach to enable a broader discussion of the key areas of research. The interviews fitted into a semi-structured framework as the structured components were integrated into survey questionnaires similar to those used in the discussion groups. The interview techniques were also developed to include face to face and telephone taking account of current organisational practice and acknowledging the need to establish the attitude and behaviours of managers.

Effectiveness of the coaching and the results obtained was an important ingredient of the feedback. Another element was how the managers involved, that is those who were coaching, were being supported, for example through coaching by their line manager. The structure also enabled discussion of the organisational coaching framework, the use of coaching models and the attitude of staff. The documenting of the interviews included the use of shorthand notes and telephone recording, to meet the different situations that existed at the time. The use of recording equipment enabled a complete capture of qualitative data, and complemented the other methods (e.g. email and surveys), which were used at times due to the resources required to transcribe and create transcripts for structured responses (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2001).

The key areas of focus incorporated issues relating to coaching in the workplace, manager behaviour in terms of coaching, effectiveness of coaching, organisational support and/or positioning, feedback on the coaching programme – including course structure, support mechanisms and continuing coaching development and the attitude of coachees to a coaching approach. Interestingly several of the interviewees were no longer employed by the Society although no discernible differences in view appeared to exist between those who were still employed by the Society and those who were not. The interview structure consisted of eight questions and these questions and example participant quotations are included within Appendix 7.

The format of both discussion groups and interviews was split into free style verbal discussions and a written response to specific questions from each participant to ensure both flexibility and coverage of the key data required. As mentioned participants were given the choice as to whether the conversations were audio taped. Where recording did not take place notes including key words and phrases were taken. Written transcripts of the discussions produced from these recordings were documented. Employees and therefore respondents to the research surveys were used to survey information being gathered on a regular basis and these surveys were often undertaken by independent or third party research companies. The research design was therefore aligned to meet the prevailing expectations of the employee population so as to obtain, as far as possible, the most open and precise view on the reality of the culture. These expectations were driven by the case study organisation's use of open feedback channels through a range of communication activities including surveys, forums and feedback on managers' behaviours. Against this background the research was constructed to apply a 'best fit' approach which satisfied the research requirements by aligning processes to the research participants and their working environment.

3.4.7 Elite Interviewing

The use of 'elite' interviewing (Dexter, 2006) was also employed to ascertain the views of influential people within the case study organisation including the Chief Executive (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Undheim (2003) explored the most appropriate ways for an elite interviewing methodology to be applied including the issues relating to ethical considerations and concluded that this is dependent upon the researcher's position in terms of status, approach and cultural impact. These same aspects are also driven by the interviewee and there was therefore a need for the researcher to consider the balancing of the 'power' implications so as to maintain the integrity of the research process.

These challenges may be balanced by the potential of elite interviewing to add insightful input and value to the research process (Welch, Marschan-Piekkari, Penttinen and Tahvanainen, 1999). In terms of the case study research the use of elite

interviewing was primarily employed to gain the views of the senior management team, including the Chief Executive, who as a collective were used to providing feedback and input on a range of corporate issues.

3.4.8 Return on Investment

It was noted in Section 2.4.1 that a number of evaluation studies have sought to calculate return on investment. Alternative approaches have been outlined by Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester (1993, 1994), Corporate Leadership Council (2003), Buck (2003), Khoury and Analoui (2004), Grant and Cavanagh (2004) and Jarvis, Lane and Fillery-Travis (2006). These approaches were considered when developing the evaluative and return on investment framework within the research study so as to provide a robust assessment of the impact of coaching between line managers and their employee reports.

A record of the coaching between participant managers and their employee reports was created through the production of coaching impact assessment records via a standard template which is detailed in Appendix 9. The outputs were measured in terms of qualitative benefits such as personal development skill and knowledge areas and quantitative benefits relating to improvements in sales, service and productivity.

The 72 managers and 259 employee reports who undertook the coaching assessment study were involved in a total of 882 coaching sessions which formed the basis for evaluating the benefits of the coaching. The qualitative benefits were documented and analysed in order to evaluate the outcomes but no return on investment was estimated in respect of these due to the intangible nature of the outcomes and the difficulty in achieving a monetary benefit. However the quantitative benefits were used to produce a return on investment evaluation through identifying the tangible improvements derived from specific coaching sessions. Managers were asked to estimate a percentage 'confidence' rating which related to their measure of confidence in the monetary benefit which was achieved through employee actions based on their coaching sessions. This confidence rating was applied to the total monetary benefit to calculate a reduced monetary benefit. The estimated cost of the coaching was then

taken away from the reduced monetary benefit to obtain the return on investment. A further calculation was then carried out to take account of the period of documented coaching, averaging 26 weeks per manager, which provided an estimated annual monetary benefit to reflect the ongoing undocumented coaching activity of the managers.

3.4.9 Final Reflective Sessions

Following the researcher leaving the case study organisation in 2006 a final round of reflective interviews and discussion sessions were conducted between October 2008 and January 2009 with 20 employees, so as to further understand the views of those involved in the programme and, by doing so, build the database to support the establishment of the research findings.

At the end of the research study two forms of final reflective discussions were held, interviews with 8 individual managers who were involved in coaching their employee reports as well as being coached by their senior managers and discussion group sessions with 12 employee reports. The key objective of these sessions was to gain further input and data with a particular focus on obtaining a reflective view of the coaching programme.

3.4.10 Supplementary Data Gathered in the Course of the Research

The research methodology was developed to incorporate supplementary data from individuals and forums external to the case study environment. The primary objectives being to enable a broader contextual view in which to base the case study and to gain additional insights through comparing and contrasting external data to the case study data. The type of data collected related to information gathered from individuals and organisations. The individuals involved were managers and employees of other organisations, professional coaches and those having had responsibility for coaching programmes. Data was also obtained from several

organisations spanning 'best practice' forums, coaching consultancies, research bodies and Hemsley Fraser, the owners of the 9Factors™ Methodology.

The supplementary data was obtained through informal discussion groups, interviews and published reports. The case study research methodology was applied where possible but due to the nature of the data source it was not possible to apply a consistent methodological approach to the gathering of this supplementary data. The supplementary data is therefore not deemed central to the research argument and related analysis yet provided a valuable contextual input and served as a comparator or a corroborator on which to consider the case study research findings.

3.5 Conclusion

The analysing, interpreting and writing up of the dissertation in note form was ongoing throughout the research cycle, although the researcher commenced the formal writing up stage in May 2007. During the discussion groups, keywords and phrases were recorded at the time and these were supported by audio taped recordings where this method was deemed acceptable to participants. This process enabled keywords and phrases to be identified and the construction of core themes evident between the various discussion groups and interviews. This process was achieved through the reading and re-reading of facilitator notes, respondents written responses and the transcripts. Key words and key phrases were noted and cross referenced with other records and transcripts (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Data analysis was then carried out by noting key words and phrases. A descriptive statement of the discussions was then developed (Patton, 1990) to inform the research findings and conclusions.

As well as the 'internal' research processes within the case study organisation, an external assessment component within the research study was informed by site visits of 'best practice' companies, which assisted in establishing knowledge of 'best practice' coaching styles within the wider business world together with other companies using the 9Factors™ Methodology. From an external perspective key findings were compared through research analysis of other companies' coaching approaches. This involved facilitated discussion groups with managers of other

institutions including several companies and members of the UK College of Life Coaching. This activity, supported by interviews with business leaders, professional coaches and academics involved in activities and research relating to coaching and cultural change, informed the development of the questions for use in the primary surveys, discussion groups and focused interviews.

The research plan was designed to create a continuous cycle of learning and development, not just internally within the case study environment but also externally, to ensure that the research was not progressed in a vacuum without reference to the external environment. This was considered from the perspective of the case study organisation's environment of financial services and the wider commercial world as well as the perspective of the coaching community both in terms of practitioners and academics. An external assessment of 'best practice' was undertaken via a programme of fact finding which was established to provide a continuing and up to date view of organisational coaching activity in the business field. The visit plan involved the researcher visiting several companies and specialists who were engaged in organisational coaching activities. This included several companies from the Business Excellence Awards. The case study organisation was recognised as a finalist in the UK Business Excellence Awards in 2005.

The leadership coaching strategies within the case study organisation were integrated within the Business Excellence Model framework from the outset to ensure alignment to the organisational vision and objectives. Hendricks and Singhal (2000) found that recognised 'best practice' organisations that had utilised the Business Excellence Model framework for implementation of organisational strategies such as leadership approaches showed no significant differences when compared to peer companies who did not utilise a strategic organisational framework. This would indicate that the Business Excellence winners were performing no better than their peers. However the research indicated that during the post-implementation period Business Excellence winners outperformed their peers in the designated performance criterion, including share price. This indicated that such strategic approaches, involving organisational change and affecting culture, did not effect results in the short-term rather there was time lag often of two to three years but if the strategic interventions were sustained results improved in the medium to long term.

Following the researcher's departure from the organisation in 2006 further exploratory investigations were conducted by the researcher with several leading UK companies and this process enabled an external view to be maintained as well as using the background information as a backdrop to continue to test theories and models identified via the research process.

The recognition of the long term nature of the impact of organisational change was a prime driver of the longitudinal nature of the research which involved the research project taking place over a period of seven years from 2003 to 2009, noting that much historical survey data was available for periods prior to 2003 due to the 9Factors™ Methodology survey being in use before the research study commenced. The availability of pre research period data enabled a view and evaluation of trends, for example, data based on employee cultural and attitudinal surveys collected during the period 1999 to 2002 served as valuable background data information on the existing culture and leadership styles within the case study organisation.

During late 2006 the researcher left the case study organisation to pursue a career in HR consultancy and coaching. However the case study organisation agreed to continue to cooperate and support the research study until completion. This cooperation involved the organisation in providing the opportunity to gain access to further data and enable additional feedback to be captured. The research gathering process continued to use data gained via independent, third party researchers as well as the researcher and followed similar approaches to those employed over the previous four years. These approaches protected identity where requested by respondents and provided confidentiality for those respondents who requested this. For example, where confidentiality was an issue for a respondent, survey data was only used if the numbers of respondents in a specific manager's area was sufficient to protect anonymity.

The researcher stance therefore changed from an insider perspective to an outsider, or ex-insider, perspective and the benefit of a longitudinal approach; all of which has enabled insights which may have remained hidden to the researcher operating in a research environment that did not offer these aspects. These aspects, coupled with the intenseness of the organisational culture and environment, offered a rich research

experience by which to compare and contrast previous research. Yet these positive aspects were balanced in kind by challenges created through the same characteristics in terms of issues such as employee turnover and management changes and the involvement of the researcher as an executive of the case study organisation and, therefore, a participant in the development of the organisational culture.

The methodology recognised the importance of evaluation to both the research, in terms of evidence-based findings, and the case study organisation, which required a tangible view of the success or otherwise of the coaching programme. As such the research sought to provide an evidence-based view on the outcomes of the coaching programme in a business context in ways similar to the works of Buck (2003) whose research in a retail organisation indicated that coaching appeared to have a positive impact in terms of results and employee perception; Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester (1993), who reported qualitative improvements in manager and employee relationships but no objective measure of business performance; and a further study by Graham, Wedman and Garvin-Kester (1994) which asserted that whilst coaching can improve performance there was little evidence to suggest that managers know what constitutes good coaching and even when managers have a grounding in coaching techniques then they still find coaching difficult to perform. In developing these approaches there was a need to evaluate the impact of the interventions so as to draw learning insights from these and incorporate improvements through a form of action research. This approach was developed from a 'triple loop' learning process (Austin, 1997) designed to maximise the impact of coaching interventions.

The researcher drew on such previous research work to establish a focus on providing evidence of any outcome related benefits as well as the individual behaviours and organisational processes and culture required to achieve these. Previous studies that have focused on culture change have rarely been linked to specific coaching activities at the 'coal face' of the workplace and it is this micro and macro combined approach within the research study that offered new learning. However the nature of the case study restricted its ability and range to add value in many facets of cultural learning, in that the research was primarily focused on one organisation based in the financial services sector and which traded solely in the UK. Whilst secondary data from other organisations and professional coaching associations based inside and outside of the

UK was gathered and considered, this data was not generated within the research methodology framework and therefore can be viewed only as background information. The singular nature of the case study, without the benefit of comparison with robust external data, arguably restricted its value in terms of a lack of evidence-based data from a wider business sector perspective or within an international context.

Over the relatively extensive period of the research an overall research methodology process was therefore used to combine both quantitative and qualitative approaches to identify and evaluate research data, collected through internal and external sources, including an assessment of the organisation, the individual participants and the external business environment. The selection of the research methodologies was directly influenced by the nature of the case study research which focused on exploring the verbal and written accounts of participants' views of the impact, or otherwise, of their organisation's decision to cultivate a coaching culture.

The role of the researcher within the research was a complex one, involving as it did an 'insider' and 'outsider' stance dependent upon the point of time. Whilst an 'insider' the researcher, by the nature of his executive role in the case study organisation, was able to access the culture as it was expressed in the language of the organisation, bringing with it the challenges of retaining objectivity as the researcher was part of the culture. The move from 'insider' to 'outsider' enabled the researcher to access another view this time as an 'outsider', albeit as an 'ex insider'. Schulz (1944) referred to a similar situation when he considered the multiplicity of issues that may occur in relation to the customs and habits of groups or the 'cultural pattern of group life' (p101, line 4) and the difference between the sociologist as the disinterested scientific onlooker of the social world and the person who acts and thinks within it. Yet this situation offered great potential for learning and positive outputs concerning insights and knowledge. The next chapter presents these outputs in the form of informed findings and from these findings theme-based discussions seek to draw out the key findings and the areas of particular relevance in terms of evidence based learning.

Chapter 4 Research Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the refined elements from the data so as to bring together the key findings of the research. The core outputs from the data relate to the impact of the coaching activity on the level of engagement and motivation of the workforce, employee performance in business related areas, the personal skills and attributes considered as important to deliver effective coaching as well as those strategies that best support the development of a coaching culture within an organisation. The concluding summary analysis draws these themes together and considers the ways in which coaching can best be utilised within the workplace.

4.2 9Factors™ Methodology Survey Data

The 9Factors™ Methodology survey analysis processing structure enabled views on the results from both micro and macro perspectives, thus enabling measurement of scores for individual managers as well as departments, functions and the organisation as a whole. This ability ensured that the survey results could be used to develop actions at manager, team and organisational levels. There was also a facility for free format which enabled employees to comment on the ratings they had given. The questionnaire consisted of thirty six questions for which participants could score five points ranging from a strong negative five (-5) to a strong positive five (5) dependent upon the strength of their feeling towards the question (Appendix 2). The research methodology involved a total participant pool of between 700 and 904 employees (the total workforce) dependent upon the survey period for the 9Factors™ Methodology survey questionnaire, which assisted in achieving an excellent and acceptable level of responses (i.e. a range of 66% to 95% was achieved which compared very favourably with similar workplace surveys, in that a response of 50% or more is considered a very good result). Within the participant pool the turnover rates averaged 15%, in line with the average turnover rates in the sector generally. The majority of employee turnover

related to new employees, with service of less than two years with low levels of attrition levels for longstanding personnel. The complete range of individual responses was analysed for significance using the SPSS t-test for equality of means. The high response rates, which averaged 79% over the period of the research, strengthened the validity level of the data as it represented the views of the vast majority of the organisation's employees. In 2000 and 2002, prior to the commencement of the coaching programme, the employee participation levels totalled 66% and 70% respectively, with the overall ratings of 3.38 and 3.32 (out of 5) respectively. The 2004 and 2005 surveys, achieved participation levels of 73% and 80% respectively and the overall ratings were 3.38 and 3.32 (out of 5) respectively, very similar to previous years.

The 2004 and 2005 surveys were undertaken during a period which spanned the introduction and roll-out of the coaching programme including the skills training period and, as such, represented the transitional period between a 'no coaching' culture and a 'developing coaching' culture. The 2006 9Factors™ Methodology survey was undertaken in July 2006 and achieved a participation level of 90% with an overall rating of 3.65 (out of 5), the highest ever rating recorded and an increase of 0.33 (9.9%) over the 2005 survey and an increase of 0.3 (9%) over the average rating of the previous four surveys. By this time all managers had undergone at least one level of coaching training and the majority had undergone the level 1 coaching accreditation process.

The researcher left the case study organisation in October 2006 and no further data collection was obtained after this date with the exception of the 2007 9Factors™ Methodology survey and the researcher returning, as an ex insider, to the case study organisation during 2008 and 2009 to conduct a final round of reflective interviews and discussion groups. A coaching skills programme aimed at new managerial appointees continued to be run following October 2006, however the supporting strategies, including the 'wave' strategy which created an ongoing delivery of coaching skills, was dropped together with the cultural and communication elements. The leadership coaching culture programme, supported by the research framework, therefore effectively ended during late 2006 with the various supporting strategies being either stopped or reduced. The 2007 9Factors™ Methodology survey was

conducted in July, 2007, nine months after the change of direction in the coaching culture programme from an organisational development coaching approach to a skills training only driven approach. The survey attracted a participation level of 95% with an overall rating of 3.32, a fall of 9.9% when compared to the previous year's survey rating of 3.65.

Figure B presents a comparison of the 9Factors™ Methodology ratings over the period 2000 to 2007.

Figure B. 9Factors Methodology Survey 2000 - 2007

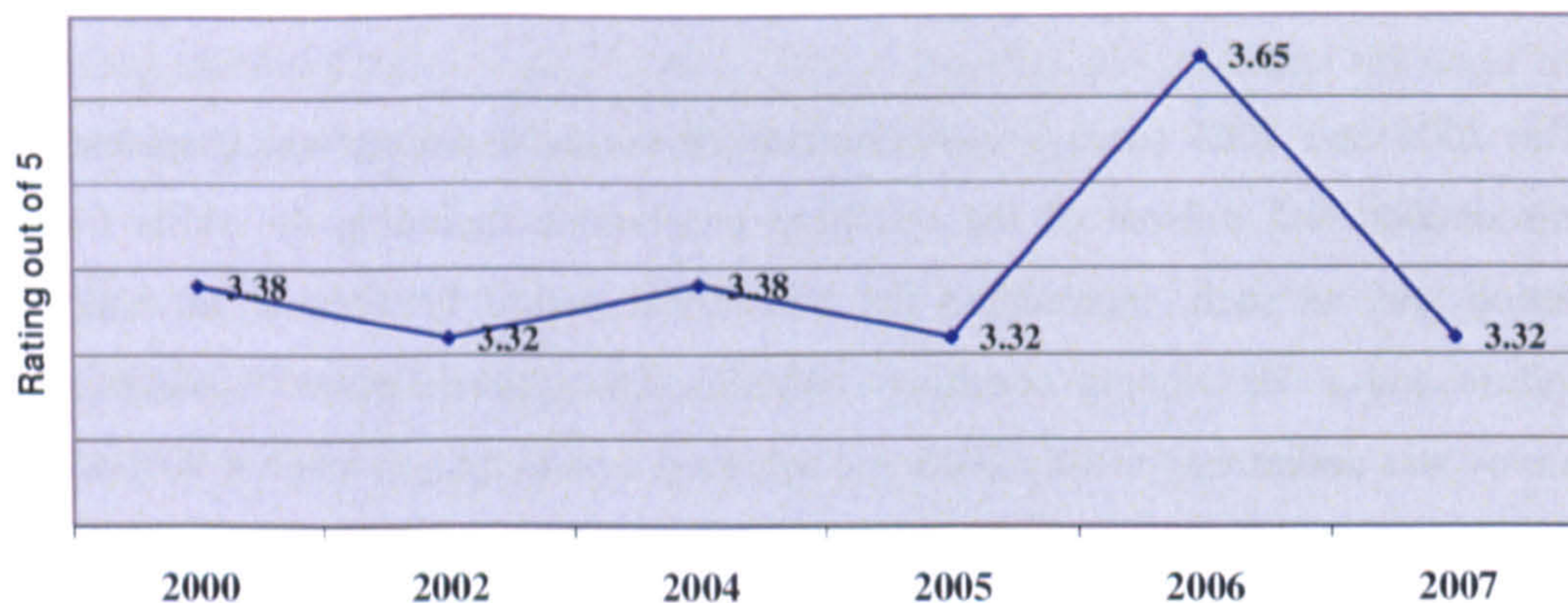


Figure B provides a diagrammatic illustration of the overall 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings which were the primary measure of employee engagement and morale in the case study organisation over the period 2000 to 2007. The correlation between the increase and then decrease in the 9Factors™ Methodology ratings illustrated in Figure B was tested using the t-test for Equality of Means on the SPSS methodology software. The 9Factors™ Methodology rating scores from the case study employee source for each of the years for which data was gathered were compared to determine whether there were any statistically significant changes during the course of the initiative. Given the level of measurement, unpaired t-tests were calculated for each pairing of years (e.g. 2000 compared to 2002, 2000 compared to 2004, 2002 compared to 2006, etc). Equal variances were not assumed. This provides a more conservative test of statistical significance. SPSS was used to calculate the mean scores for each year and the t-test scores for each year. The results are presented in the following table (Figure C).

Figure C. Mean Scores, T-Scores and Statistical Significance for Engagement Scores from Employee Sources for Each of the Survey Years of the 9Factors™ Methodology Survey

2000 Mean = 3.3784	2002 Mean = 3.3205	2004 Mean = 3.3747	2005 Mean = 3.3154	2006 Mean = 3.6535	2007 Mean = 3.3172
2000 Mean = 3.3784	t = 1.138 df = 953.549 p = 0.255	t = 0.076 df = 1007.917 p = 0.939	t = 1.591 df = 761.079 p = 0.112	t = (5.899) df = 1113.470 p = < 0.001*	t = 1.418 df = 984.191 p = 0.156
2002 Mean = 3.3205		t = (1.082) df = 1022.657 p = 0.279	t = 0.119 df = 763.971 p = 0.905	t = (6.761) df = 1101.152 p = < 0.001*	t = 0.072 df = 965.904 p = 0.943
2004 Mean = 3.3747			t = 1.535 df = 934.273 p = 0.125	t = (6.078) df = 1293.583 p = < 0.001*	t = 1.361 df = 1191.744 p = 0.174
2005 Mean = 3.3154				t = (9.010) df = 1263.705 p = < 0.001*	t = (0.054) df = 1445.816 p = 0.957
2006 Mean = 3.6535					t = 8.151 df = 1554.883 p = <0.001*
2007 Mean = 3.3172					

* Statistically significant difference $p < 0.001$

It can be seen from Figure C that the 9Factors™ Methodology rating scores in 2006 were statistically significantly higher than each of the other years. There were no statistically significant differences between the scores for other years.

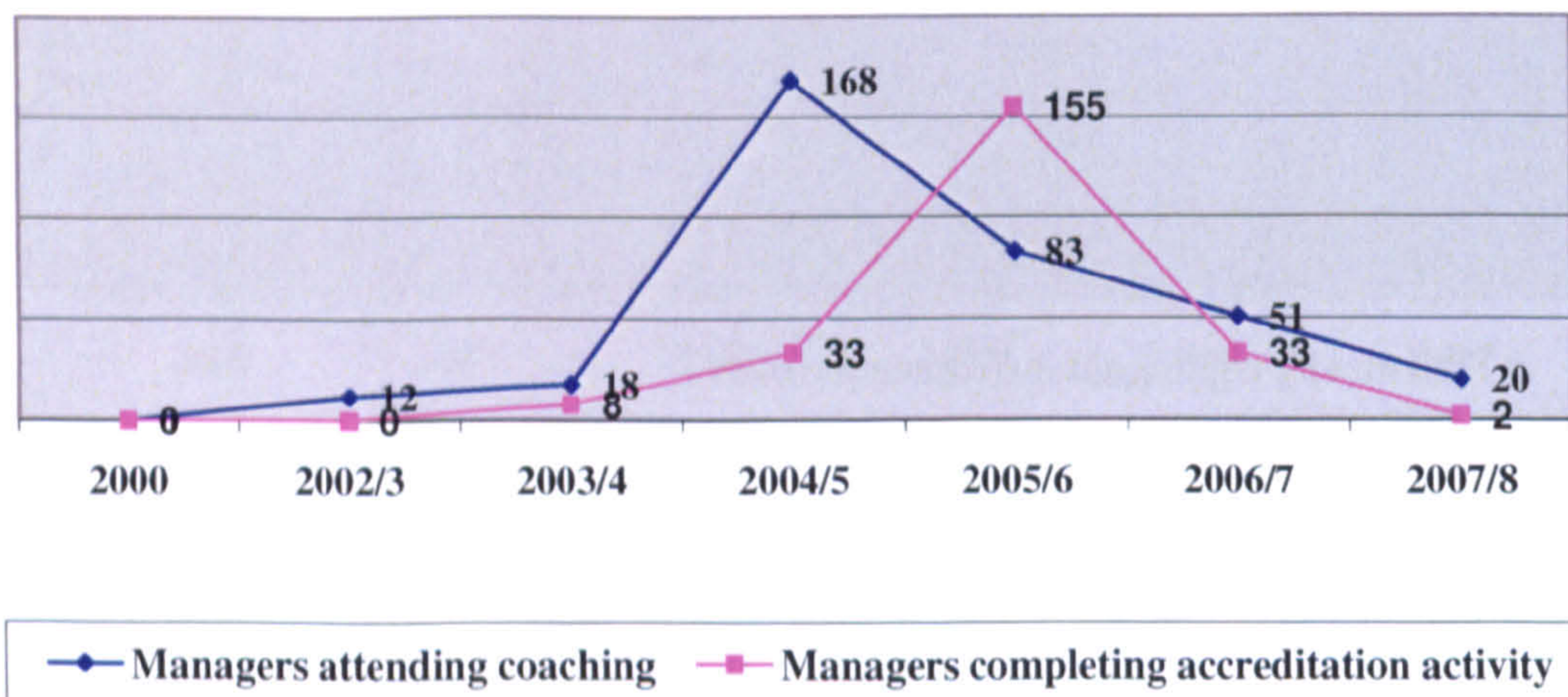
The survey data for 2006 is therefore deemed to be statistically significant when compared to the survey data for other years. The 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings for the four surveys, conducted on a mid-year basis, over the period 2000 to 2005 fluctuated between 3.32 and 3.38, until the 2006 survey when it increased to 3.65. Following the introduction of a pilot skills only training coaching programme in 2002/2003 when a small number of executive managers achieved accreditation, the coaching programme was launched to the wider business during 2004 with the first line managers to achieve accreditation of effective coaching doing so from late 2004 onwards with most managers having achieved Level 1 accreditation by mid 2006. Coaching activity in the workplace therefore reached a peak and critical mass levels

during the second half of 2005 and throughout 2006 following the completion of Level 1 accreditation and the commencement of Level 2 coaching skills training phases.

Based on the level of coaching training, the volume of coaching activity, participant data and feedback, it was noted that there was a reduced emphasis on the coaching programme from late 2006 onwards. This was accompanied by a reduction in the 9Factors™ Methodology rating from its peak of 3.65 in 2006 to 3.32 in 2007.

Figure D below compares the level of attendances on the coaching programme and the subsequent coaching accreditations with the 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings.

**Figure D Level of Attendance and Coaching Accreditations
2000 - 2008**



A total of 352 managers, including supervisory levels, attended the coaching programme over a six year period with nearly all of these managers commencing an accreditation process involving a minimum of twenty hours coaching activity for up to five of their reports or colleagues. Of these managers 231 completed the full accreditation process with periods of completion ranging from 3 months to 12 months. Figure D shows that the coaching skills training activity reached its peak during 2004/2005 and this resulted in coaching activity between managers and their reports and/or colleagues within the organisation peaking during 2005/2006. It could be argued that there is a correlation between the statistically significant increase in the 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings to 3.65 in 2006 and the build-up of formalised

coaching activity aligned to the cultural transformation programme. Similarly the reduction in formalised coaching activity and associated supporting strategies coincided with a 9Factors™ Methodology survey rating level of 3.32 in 2007, a return to the levels of between 3.32 and 3.38 recorded in the years leading up to 2006.

The coaching process involved a manager undergoing the training programme and then undertaking a minimum of 20 hours of monitored and documented coaching sessions to achieve accreditation. However not all managers undertaking the coaching training achieved accreditation. The number of managers undergoing the coaching training programme peaked at 168 in 2004/2005 and 155 managers achieved accreditation in 2005/2006, a record number. This meant that the level of coaching activity reached its peak between mid 2005 and mid 2006, in the run up to the 9Factors™ Methodology survey of 2006, which recorded a record rating of 3.65.

The 9Factors™ Methodology (Hemsley Fraser, 2004) was the result of ten years research with 40 of the world's leading organisations and has been used by over 50 organisations across a range sectors (Hemsley Fraser, 2008). The average annual 9Factors™ Methodology rating for the case study organisation over the period 2000 to 2005 was 3.35 which represented an above average rating in comparison to other organisations based on 2.5 million employee responses and these were considered from two perspectives, organisations holding and organisations not holding Investor in People (IiP) accreditation (Investors in People, 2008). The average 9Factors™ Methodology rating over the period 2000 to 2005 was 2.9 for those organisations without IiP and 3.2 for those organisations with IiP accreditation. The average rating of 3.35 for the case study organisation was therefore higher than both the overall averages for IiP and non IiP organisations and this average increased further to 3.41 in 2006. This higher than average rating was validated by evidence to suggest that the organisation became a leader in organisational people practices having gained in excess of 100 industry HR awards including the Award for Employee Engagement at the UK Quality Awards for 2005/2006 (British Quality Foundation, 2008). The high levels of employee engagement and commitment were matched by high profit levels making the organisation a leader of its peer group in performance terms (Suff, 2006). This equation of high employee engagement being associated with high organisational performance is in line with much previous research including the WorkUSA study

(Watson Wyatt Worldwide, 2005) that indicated organisations with high employee engagement levels create more than six times the surplus value created by organisations with low employee engagement levels). A report commissioned by the UK Government asserted that employee engagement is measurable and correlates with organisational performance and innovation and as such is a matter of national strategic interest recommending a national awareness campaign and related business support measures (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009).

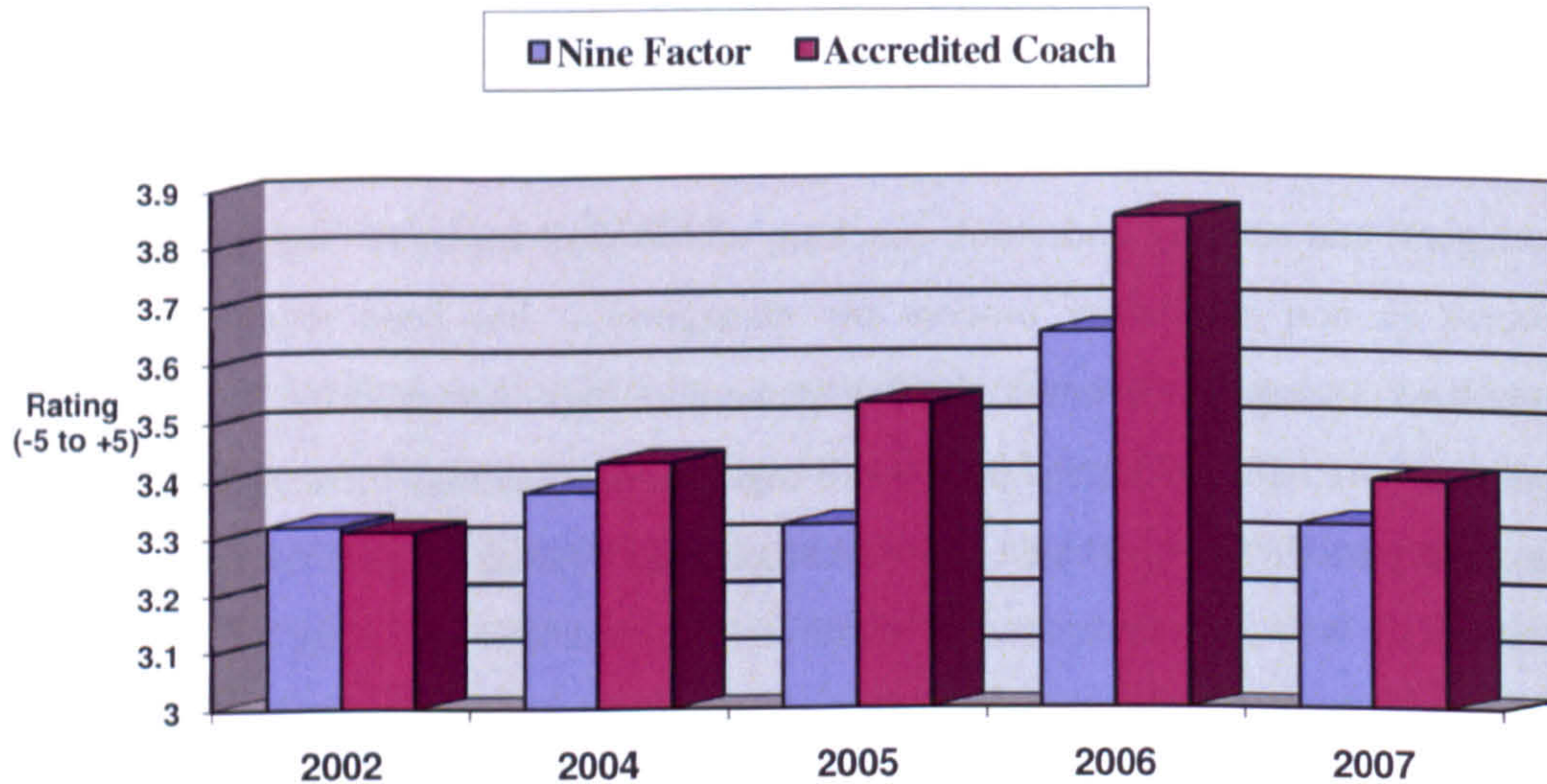
This research presented an opportunity to investigate the correlative context of the levels of employee engagement, coaching activity and organisational performance within the case study. To further investigate correlative aspects of impact on employee engagement through new leadership coaching behaviours adopted, a more detailed study of the 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings, which utilised ratings taken both pre and post coaching programme, was undertaken involving a pool of 46 managers who had attended the coaching programme and achieved accredited coach status which required them to coach to a quality standard on a regular basis. This showed that the 9Factors™ Methodology survey rating for these managers increased following their involvement in the coaching skills training programme, by 4.5% in 2004 (compared to a 1.8% increase in overall organisational ratings), 2.9% in 2005 (compared to a 1.8% decrease in overall organisational ratings) and 9.1% in 2006 (compared to a 9.9% increase in overall organisational ratings). The combined ratings for these managers during 2004 and 2005 inclusive showed an increase of 3.65%, at a time when the overall 9Factors™ Methodology ratings remained the same; whilst the pool of managers who had achieved coaching accreditation through regular coaching activity showed an increase of 9.1% in their 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings during 2006 – this was lower than the increase of 9.9% for the overall rating, a sign possibly that many other managers had by this time undergone coaching skills training and this was impacting positively on overall employee engagement levels. The 9Factors™ Methodology ratings of the accredited coaches pool fell in 2007 when compared to 2006 ratings, by 11.7% compared to a fall of 9% in the overall rating.

This finding shows that employee engagement levels increased more in those areas where managers were actively undertaking coaching activity with their teams compared to those areas where managers were not consistently undertaking coaching

activity. As more managers undertook coaching activity then the correlative relationship between coaching activity and employee engagement was more widely noticeable. This finding was then considered in line with the earlier stated finding which showed that the 9Factors™ Methodology ratings increased as the coaching skills activity and a change in leadership behaviour was taking place. By focusing on those managers who attended the coaching skills courses (a mandatory event for all managers) and actively undertook coaching within their teams through the accredited process (a non mandatory process for managers) it has been identified that for accredited managers the employee engagement ratings increased by 16.3% in 2006 comparative to 2002, whereas the overall organisational ratings increased by 9.9% for the same period. The average employee engagement rating in 2006 for the accredited coach pool was 3.85 compared to the overall organisational rating of 3.65. Such findings offer an indication that those managers who undertook the coaching programme and actively coached achieved increased employee engagement ratings compared to those managers who did not actively undergo the agreed coaching process. However it should be noted that the ratings of the accredited coach pool fell to 3.4 in July 2007, compared to an overall organisational rating of 3.32 indicating that once the accredited and regulated coaching activity was reduced or stopped the ongoing positive impact, in terms of employee engagement, of such activity also reduced very quickly afterwards. This would indicate that managers did not maintain a consistent approach to coaching outside of a holistic strategic coaching framework, which provided both 'hard' process driven support mechanisms as well as 'soft' behavioural approaches including senior management role modelling, to drive coaching activity. The rapidity of the decrease in the impact of coaching activity is dramatic and would indicate that cultural inputs cannot be stockpiled, rather these cultural drivers have a 'sell by' date which only extends a short period into the future.

Figure E sets out the comparative 9Factors™ Methodology survey data relating to the overall employee rating and the employee ratings of managers who were accredited coaches for the period 2002 to 2007.

**Figure E. 9Factors Methodology Survey Ratings 2002 - 2007
Comparative Data Accredited Coaches to Manager Population**

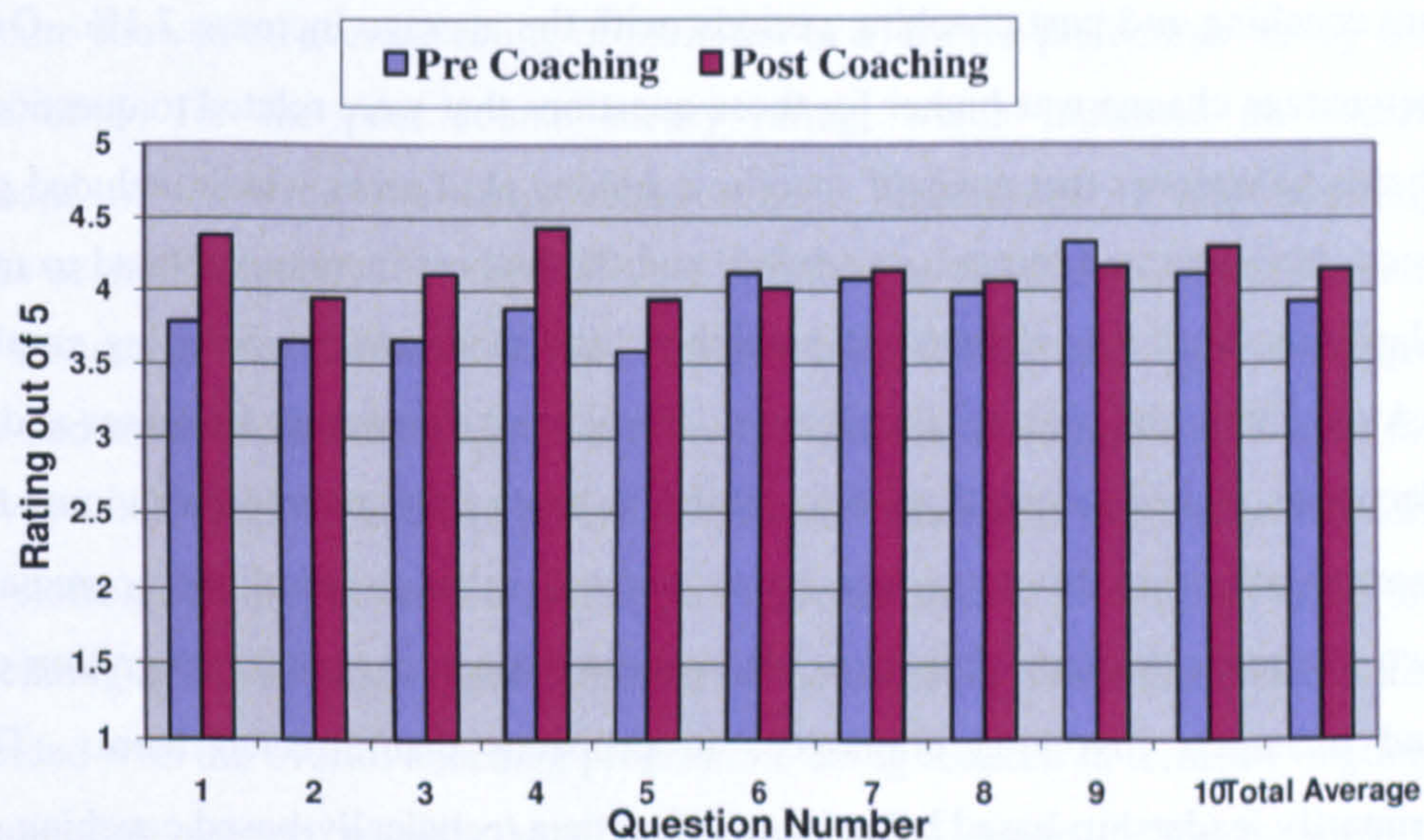


To help further investigate the higher employee engagement ratings attributed to accredited coaches compared to the overall ratings, a coaching feedback questionnaire had been created as part of the research methodology framework which asked ten questions developed through a combination of organisational specific input and an alignment to the 9Factors™ Methodology survey in terms of employee engagement drivers. An additional four questions were developed to enable a view on the impact of coaching activity on empowerment by focusing on the volume of issues submitted to a manager for a decision (Appendix 3). In relation to the first ten questions the questionnaire was developed through an analysis of the 9Factors™ Methodology survey to ensure methodology alignment and a consistency in ratings. This additional questionnaire was focused on establishing the level of coaching behaviour based on the key attributes and behaviours as required by managers in terms of the desired leadership coaching culture.

The additional questionnaire was sent to employees who reported to managers who had undergone the coaching skills programme. The questionnaire survey was undertaken a month before a manager attended a coaching skills programme and then three months after the date of the coaching skills programme. The purpose was to establish, against the background of the ongoing coaching programme, any changes to

manager participant leadership coaching behaviours. The period of distribution and collection spanned 2005 and 2006. The pool of managers on which the researcher gathered both sets of survey data totalled 44 with respondents to both surveys totalling 123 employee reports from a total distribution pool of 220, a response of 56% to both surveys. Figure F shows the average ratings (out of 5) before and after the coaching programme.

Figure F. Coaching Feedback Questionnaire



Coaching Feedback Questionnaire – the behavioural questions

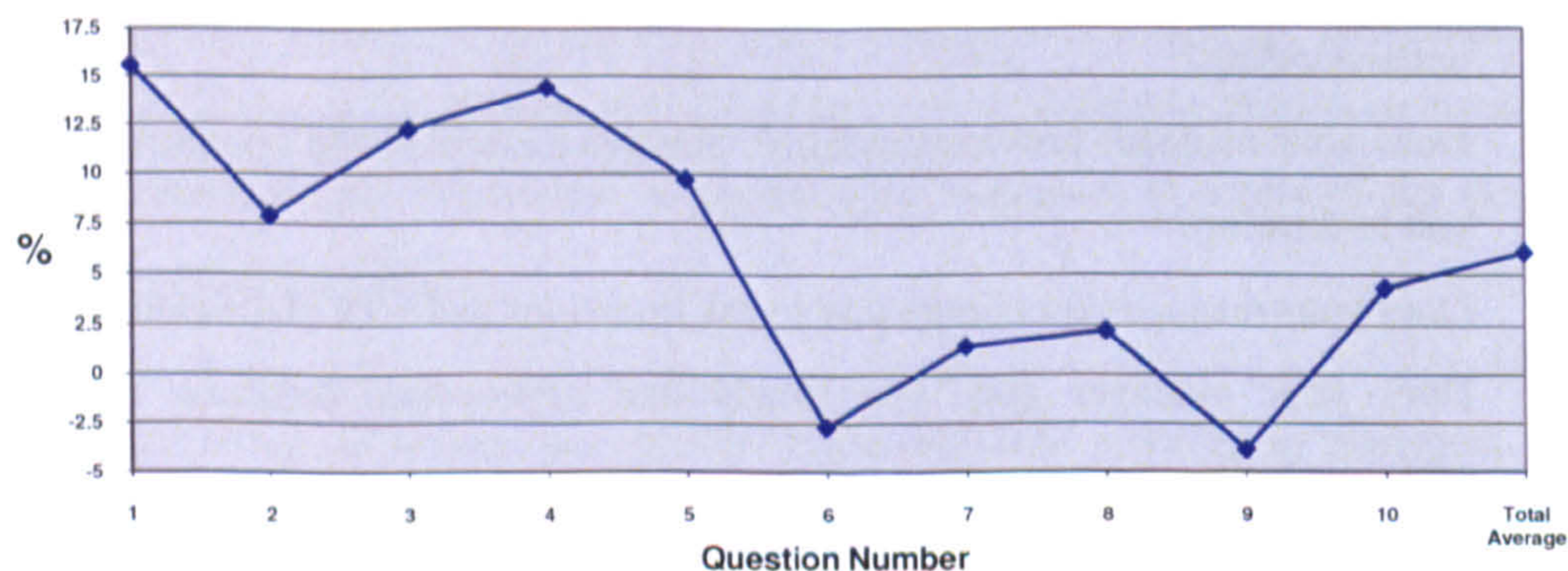
1. Does your manager clarify the behaviours, knowledge and levels of proficiency required of you?
2. Does your manager seek and share information with you and check mutual understanding?
3. Does your manager provide guidance, positive examples and opportunities for you to develop?
4. Does your manager encourage you to ask questions and seek clarification?
5. Does your manager give you timely and appropriate feedback on your performance?
6. Does your manager recognise your efforts and contributions?
7. Do you feel valued and appreciated by your manager?

8. Do you feel that your manager is supportive and helps to enhance your self-esteem?
9. Does your manager involve you in decisions that affect you, your work and your team?
10. Does your manager give you the appropriate authority and resource to make decisions?

Figure F shows that the majority of questions increased percentage-wise between the pre coaching and post coaching periods, with the average increase 7.1%. Overall the percentage change was higher for those questions that were related to questions 1 to 5, that is behaviours that covered specific coaching skill areas which included guidance, encouragement and mutual agreement, and the highest increases related to managers' clarifying what was required of employees and managers encouraging employees to ask questions and seeking clarification. The lowest percentage increases and also any decreases related to questions 6 to 10 that is those that covered behaviours that were more relationship driven such as being supportive, empowered and appreciative, and two of these questions showed a fall, namely those concerning recognition of efforts and managers involving employees in decisions that affected them. These are primarily leadership-based behaviours rather than technically-based coaching skills.

Figure G sets out the range of increases and decreases in the percentage change between the pre coaching and post coaching periods.

Figure G. Coaching Feedback Questionnaire Percentage Change



There is a clear distinction between the ratings given for the coaching process skills which averaged an increase of 12% and the ratings given for the relationship-based behaviours which averaged 2.2%. From this it could be argued that the coaching programme had a greater impact on the skill levels of managers attending the coaching programme than on their behaviours.

Whilst recognising the lesser impact on relationship-based behaviours compared to skills-based behaviours, on a broader basis the overall results for the additional questionnaire showed an average rating of 3.95 (out of 5) for the pre course survey and 4.23 (out of 5) for the post course survey rating, which indicated an overall improvement of 7.1% in the employees/coachees perceptions of the coaching behaviours of their respective managers. This is similar to the increase in the overall 9Factors™ Methodology employee survey ratings which in 2006 (a period when most managers had undertaken coaching skills training) showed an improvement over the same survey undertaken in 2004 (a period when most managers had not undertaken coaching skills training), from 3.38 to 3.65, an increase of 8%. From late 2006 the activity relating to the research-based structure of the coaching programme ended and this coincided with the overall coaching programme being reduced in terms of ongoing activity although several specific skill set aspects were retained, for example a coaching course for new managers. A further review in October 2007 of the 44 managers in the original pool used for the additional questionnaire was able to produce data by way of the same coaching behaviours questionnaire survey as undertaken during the coaching course period (that is pre and post coaching course). Survey data was obtained from 40 employee reports out of a pool of 75 employees (53% response) for 15 of the 44 managers, which revealed a fall in this rating to 3.1 compared to 4.23 recorded during the coaching skills course period, a fall of 36%. The relatively low level of managers was due to several factors including job changes, respondents' participation and employee turnover. The fall in the rating indicates a change in management behaviour resulting in a reduced emphasis on the identified leadership coaching behaviours, which appeared to have been recognised by employees and this, in turn, correlates to the 9Factors™ Methodology survey trend which also fell in October 2007 with an overall reduction from 3.65 to 3.32, a fall of 9%. The fall to 3.1 was significantly lower than the pre and post coaching course ratings of 3.95 and 4.23 respectively. This would indicate that once managers failed to sustain the leadership

coaching behaviours introduced, employee reports reacted with even lower ratings than before the coaching had commenced.

4.2.1 Comment upon 9Factors™ Methodology Survey Data

The development of the leadership coaching behaviours aligned to the coaching programme would appear to have provided a route map for managers to follow in terms of leadership behaviour and in turn this increase in coaching activity correlates to increased employee engagement rating levels as measured by the 9Factors™ Methodology survey. This process also provided findings that supported the correlative trends which were based on the 9Factors™ Methodology survey results referred to earlier; that appropriate leadership coaching behaviour is a strong predictor of an increase in employee engagement levels. Further, those organisational coaching approaches which are embedded, through regulated and accredited coaching processes introduced systemically within an organisation, provide greater potential as a strong predictor of an active leadership coaching style over and above the impact of standalone coaching skills programmes. Yet it was identified that the impact of such processes are limited by the ability of the management team to change their leadership behaviour (Festinger, 1957) in terms of their relationship skills as well as skills development. The former area would appear to be the more challenging for managers to change even noting the potential of 360 degree feedback in facilitating behavioural change. However such behavioural change through the development of coaching knowledge was often beneficial in the case of managers who adapted their leadership style to incorporate a coaching approach (Peltier, 2001). Whilst there are strong predictive themes to suggest that 9Factors™ Methodology survey results were influenced by line manager coaching activity, the nature of the research, that is, a case study in an organisational environment, brings with it precautionary caveats around the linkage of coaching activity to employee engagement levels. There are factors which threaten trustworthiness of these findings which the research framework was designed to limit. The potential for an overly and unrealistic positive outlook by respondents being incorporated into data was reduced through third party collection of data, the high level of participant completion of surveys to ensure a wider organisational view and the use of the SPSS methodology software. Whilst

acknowledging the limitations of the research, the correlative aspects of coaching activity and employee engagement remains significant, particularly in view of the processes incorporated into the research framework to foster reliability and validity. Any specific linkage between the two factors can be challenged though due to the nature of the research, its social construction and other possible reasons for the correlation such as participant bias, cultural norms and other unknown factors which may have run in parallel with the coaching activity.

4.3 Questionnaire Findings

4.3.1 Questionnaire to Employees who Received Coaching

An assessment of the views of employees who received coaching from their managers was sought. This was in order to better understand the employees' views of the coaching programme in relation to the quality of coaching relationships, the level of the coaching activity, the impact of the coaching interventions, the key skills required of their managers as coaches and other related matters. The questionnaire was developed through referral to external applications of surveys such as the annual coaching surveys by Blessing White (2004) and internal inputs gathered during the research cycle, which culminated in a pilot study of employees during 2004 (Schwab, 2005). In 2005 the developed questionnaire was sent to a pool of 80 employees across the business who had received coaching as the questionnaires were designed to gain feedback from a 'receiver' or 'coachee' viewpoint. The questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix 4. Responses were received from 44 employees across the business, a response of 55% of the respondent pool, all of whom had line managers who had attended the coaching skills programme.

The majority of respondents (53%) considered the amount of coaching they received to be just about right, with 38% of respondents stating they did not get as much coaching as they wanted and 9% stating they did not receive any coaching. The latter percentage indicates that approximately one in eleven respondents received no coaching from their managers even within an environment where coaching was required of managers.

Of those respondents who had coaching conversations with their managers on personal work performance (82%), 36% of these conversations were driven by their personal request for help or the performance management system (36%), with 25% being driven by an established schedule of coaching conversations and only 3% due, in the respondent's opinion, to a manager's belief that the respondent needed coaching. Yet 18% of respondents indicated that they did not receive coaching on their personal performance. If one considers that 9% of respondents indicated that they received no coaching it is likely that 9% received coaching but not on personal performance areas.

Of those respondents who received coaching, coaching conversations between respondents and their manager on their career or personal goals were driven by the performance management system (50%), a respondent's request for help (37%), an established schedule of coaching conversations (11%) and a manager's belief that the respondent needed coaching (2%). This would indicate that the performance management system was flexible enough to enable coaching conversations on a respondent's career or personal issues.

In terms of a belief that coaching made a difference, 90% of respondents who received coaching believed it had improved their performance (38% believed the improvement had been significant, 43% believed that performance had improved slightly and 9% only a little impact). 10% believed coaching had no impact on performance. No respondent believed that coaching had resulted in a deterioration of their performance levels.

Of those respondents who received coaching, the majority (61%) believed that coaching had improved their job satisfaction (39% either contributing significantly to their satisfaction or 22% slightly improving their job satisfaction). 39% of respondents believed that coaching had little or no impact on their job satisfaction (8% little impact and 31% no impact).

The best things about their coach were deemed by respondents to be the coach having trusted them with special assignments (22%), inspired them to achieve their potential (19%), stretched them beyond what they thought they could do (13%), treated them as an individual by understanding their unique needs (13%), provided useful feedback to

help them achieve their goals (9%), guided them with his/her personal insights, learning and experiences (9%), increased their self confidence (3%) and encouraged them to take risks (3%). 9% of respondents were not coached and therefore did not have a view on this question.

From an activity based perspective approximately one in eleven employees received no coaching at all even in an environment where their organisation required all managers to coach. A further one in ten employees was not coached on any performance areas, personal career aspects or role satisfaction. Approximately 5 in 10 employees (53%) believed the amount of coaching they received was about right, whilst the remainder received less than they required (38%) or no coaching at all (9%). The three biggest drivers of performance coaching were from individual employee requests (36%), the organisation's performance management system (36%) or a corporate coaching process (25%). Coaching on any topic was rarely started by the personal choice of individual managers (3%).

9 in 10 (90%) employees who received coaching believed that it had improved their performance, with 4 in 10 (38%) of these employees believing their performance improved in a significant way and over 6 in 10 (61%) employees who received coaching believed that it had improved their job satisfaction. Employees believed that the best thing about coaching related to their being inspired and stretched to achieve more of their potential (32%), being trusted with special projects or duties (22%), the provision of feedback and guidance (20%) and being recognised and valued as an individual (14%). Yet based on the coaching feedback questionnaire (Appendix 3) the areas that were identified by employees as being the best things about coaching were given the lowest ratings in terms of the actual change in management behaviour. This would support the view proffered earlier that a focus on the 'technical' coaching skills and related issues relative to a manager coaching such as feedback and guidance, whilst important, may not be as effective unless accompanied by a change in the behavioural aspects of managers particularly those that are important to relationships and supportive of building self confidence and empowerment.

Within a case study of an organisation committed to a coaching ethos with agreed processes and structures designed to ensure as far as possible that coaching took place

on a regular basis, there were still nearly 20% or 1 in 5 of employees, who received no coaching from their managers relating to their performance, their career or their role. Further, nearly 47% of staff did not receive as much coaching as they felt they needed and this is borne out by respondents stating that an estimated average of 1.2 hours coaching per employee per month was undertaken. The majority of coaching activity that is 61%, of the total coaching activity was driven by the organisation's performance system and the coaching programme's processes. Only 3% of the coaching interventions were driven by a manager's proactive approach to an employee's development compared to 36% of coaching interventions driven by an employee's request for coaching support.

It is an understandable and arguable view that if coaching is not undertaken to such an extent in a pro-coaching environment that managers are unlikely to coach their staff on a regular basis in a less pro-coaching environment and that unless an organisation has in place a structured management process for coaching approaches and sessions, there is little chance of coaching flourishing as a predominant leadership approach. Yet the research indicates that employees believed that coaching improved both their performance and job satisfaction, sometimes to a significant extent, by achieving more of their potential, through inspiration, trust, feedback and recognition. 9 in 10 (90%) of employees who received coaching believed that it had improved their performance, 4 in 10 (38%) employees believed that coaching achieved this in a significant way and over 6 in 10 (61%) of employees who received coaching believed that it had improved their job satisfaction.

The major skill areas that the coaching activity focused on were sales (for example objection handling and communication of product benefits), complaints, assertiveness, interview techniques, customer service, broadening personal horizons, accurate information processing, management skills, knowledge, giving feedback, call handling, people/team management, data inputting, knowledge, broader thinking, time management, team motivation, coaching and interpersonal. In terms of objectives the coaching activity covered self motivation/own initiative, knowledge, customer service, fulfilling personal potential, management development, knowledge, customer complaints, management and control of work levels, productivity, extra responsibility,

multi-skilling, career progression, team management, team targets, sales, personal confidence and administration.

4.3.1.1 Comment upon Employee (Coachee) Questionnaire Findings

The findings based on the responses of employees all of whom who reported to managers who were expected to coach found that, in the majority of cases, these employees valued coaching and believed such coaching helped them to achieve an improved performance through the creation of focused goals and the development of skills and behaviours to support goal achievement. Employees who received coaching valued factors which were supportive of their relationship with their manager such as trust and openness more than they valued the manager's technical coaching skills. This raises questions as to the emphasis on and the balance between coaching skills and the development of more generic relationship drivers such as empathy and personal trust. The value given to personal coaching by employees was offset in several cases by difficulties experienced in obtaining coaching despite the performance management process and scheduled coaching programme driving most of coaching activity. Even in such a pro coaching culture environment a number of managers failed to undertake coaching in line with their role responsibilities to a varying extent preferring to maintain their existing leadership style. Where coaching was undertaken to the levels required by the coaching programme this resulted in employees finding value and benefit from this coaching activity in line with a growing body of research evidence (Grant, 2007).

The limitations of the data-gathering via questionnaires were considered within the research framework and several areas were identified which focused on the trustworthiness of participants' response from a research perspective. The nature of the relationship between the participant and their line manager may have influenced, to some degree, the content feedback via the questionnaire either from a positive or possibly negative perspective. The relatively low level of participation (44-55% of the staff respondent pool) must also be considered in terms of limitations. To reduce the impact of limiting factors, wider scale coaching surveys were reviewed when

designing the questionnaire to ensure comparison with a wider participant audience and the research results were similar to these. The anonymous nature of the questionnaires would have arguably reduced the potential for false positive orientation, although there could arguably have been an impact on negative orientation. The overall structure of the research framework involving triangulation via several data collection techniques in addition to the questionnaires was designed to reduce the risk of data not being representative of the reality, noting that each participant had a different perspective of such reality.

4.3.2 Questionnaire to Managers who Coached

The questionnaire was directed at 30 managers who had coached their staff following attendance on the coaching skills programme and was therefore designed to gain feedback from a 'giver' or 'coach' viewpoint (Appendix 5). In late 2005 the questionnaire was sent to 30 managers across the business, all of whom had attended the coaching skills programme. Responses were received from 20 managers, a response rate of 66%. Managers responded that on average they spent an average of 14 hours per month coaching, although the responses ranged from 2 hours per month to 40 hours per month.

The managers who coached less hours recognised that they felt this level of coaching to be inadequate with no managers stating that they spent too much time coaching. 15% felt they spent a lot less time than they should, 55% less time than they should and 30% about the right time on coaching. No manager felt that they had spent more time on coaching than they should have taken. The level of activity stated by managers to be dedicated to coaching that is an estimated 14 hours per month is not in line with the 1.2 hours, which employees who received coaching estimated the level to be (reference 4.3.1). This would indicate a major difference between the perceptions of managers and employees.

In general, managers stated that their coaching sessions were directed to all employees (50%) whether high, average or low performing, all employees but dependent on need (25%), low performers only (15%) and those employees who asked for coaching

(10%). This could provide some explanation as to why approximately 20% of employees felt that they received no coaching on their performance areas (reference 4.3.1), in that only 50% of managers stated that they coached all of their reports.

The majority of managers either liked (70%) or loved (15%) to coach. A minority of managers (15%) were unsure about how they felt about coaching. Managers stated that their biggest challenge to coaching was having enough time to coach (70%). The three reasons for this were given as being coaching taking too long (33%), having too many direct reports (33%) and that managers were unsure about certain aspects of coaching (33%) in that they either did not have all the answers (22%) or were not sure where to start with coaching (11%).

The majority of managers (95%) stated that the case study organisation expected them to coach with 5% stating that the organisation was not bothered either way. When asked about whether their manager expected them to coach this dropped to 70% where the response was positive and where this was not the case, the reasons were that their manager did not expect them to coach (15%) or were not bothered either way (15%). When asked about the impact of the coaching programme the managers overall responses indicated that, on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = none, 2 = little, 3 = slightly improved, 4 = improved, 5 = significantly improved), employee engagement (4.1) was impacted most positively, followed by profitability (3.8), sales (3.7) and customer service (3.3).

4.3.2.1 Comment upon Manager (Coach) Questionnaire Findings

In summary the themes arising from the findings based on the managers' responses relate to a disparity between the views of managers and those of their employees in respect of actual coaching activity undertaken.

There were similarities in that many staff indicated that they were not coached either at all or on a regular basis and this corresponded with survey data that indicated 50% of the managers surveyed did not coach all of their staff. There was also evidence to suggest that some managers were unsure as to how they should coach despite coaching

skills training being provided on an ongoing basis and these concerns coupled with time pressures would indicate possible reasons for the lack of consistency in the application of coaching across the management team. Whilst nearly all of the managers stated that the case study organisation expected them to coach such a high expectation was not the case in respect of their line managers' view, with nearly a third of managers stating that their line manager did not expect them to coach. This senior manager viewpoint fits with the variance of difference between functional areas of the organisation in terms of levels of coaching activity and also levels of employee engagement.

As with the questionnaire process for the coachees, limitations of the data-gathering via questionnaires to coaches (line managers) were considered within the research framework and several areas were identified which focused on the trustworthiness of participants' response from a research perspective. As with the questionnaire feedback from coachees, the nature of the relationship between the participant (line manager) and their staff may have influenced to some degree the content feedback from managers via the questionnaire either from a positive or possibly negative perspective. However, this is argued to be less likely as the managers were not giving their views on the factors surrounding their relationship with staff. The level of participation (20-66% of the manager respondent pool) must also be considered, although the participation level was relatively higher than staff due to the smaller number of managers within the case study organisation. To reduce the impact of limiting factors, wider scale coaching surveys were reviewed when designing the questionnaire to ensure comparison with a wider participant audience and the research results were similar to these.

The anonymous nature of the questionnaires would have arguably reduced the potential for false positive orientation, although there could arguably have been an impact on negative orientation, dependent upon the managers' view of coaching. The overall structure of the research framework involving triangulation via several data collection techniques in addition to the questionnaires was designed to reduce the risk of data not being representative of the reality, noting that each participant had a different perspective of such reality.

4.3.3 Comparative Analysis of the Responses from Coaching Managers and Coached Employees

This section reviews the data from an internal and external comparative approach and seeks to identify similarities and differences between the different sets of data. In terms of the amount of coaching a majority (53%) of employee reports received the coaching they required which meant that 47% did not. Although no manager indicated that they did not coach, 9% of employees stated they did not receive any coaching. The high percentage of managers who recognised that the time they spent on coaching was inadequate was reflected by the level of employees who felt they required more coaching than they received. This is further evidenced by employees estimating coaching on an individual basis to total 1.2 hours a month compared to an average estimation by managers of 14 hours per month. These findings would indicate that whilst 80% of employee reports stated that they found coaching to be valuable and 85% of manager respondents stated that they enjoyed coaching, these two viewpoints did not result in coaching being applied on a consistent basis across the organisation with many employee reports stating that they received very little or no coaching.

Coaching in the case study organisation was driven more through an established system and schedule within the performance management system than personal requests either via the employee or manager. This would indicate a strong organisational approach putting more emphasis on systemised approaches than personal requests or beliefs. However the case study responses again indicate a lack of consistency across the piece with a relatively high level of employees not being coached on their performance areas.

Coaching conversations between employee report respondents and their manager on their career or personal goals were, like their performance areas, again driven primarily by the performance management system and an established schedule of coaching conversations rather than personal requests. However the effectiveness of the performance management system in terms of driving coaching is dependent on the endorsement of the managers' senior managers. Where this was lacking then the performance management system would not have necessarily resulted in coaching conversations taking place.

The view by managers that coaching has improved the level of employee engagement is supported by the responses from employees that job satisfaction has improved as an outcome of coaching sessions (61%), yet this was not validated by the high percentage of employees (39%) who believed that coaching had little (8%) or no impact on job satisfaction (31%). The variance between the two appeared to be due primarily by the variance in approaches of line managers to undertaking coaching. The employee respondents identified being trusted with special assignments and being inspired to achieve their potential as the best things about coaching.

4.3.3.1 Comment upon Comparative Questionnaire Findings of Coaching Managers and Coached Employees

The difference in perceptions of the level of coaching activity between managers and employees responses is in line with international surveys conducted by Blessing White (2004, 2005a, 2009). This finding is supported by the measure of alignment between the responses from employees who received no coaching and those responses from managers who, for various reasons, did not coach as much as they wanted to or to the level they felt that they should. The responses from managers perhaps gives a clue as to why this did not happen to the aspired levels as a number of managers responded that their manager and/or the organisation either did not expect them to coach or was not bothered either way. Still the majority of employee respondents believed the amount of coaching they received was about right. This being so, it is interesting to note that the biggest driver of performance coaching was the organisation's performance management system and the linked schedule of coaching conversations.

It could be viewed that if a manager did not follow the internal performance management process then coaching, as it was incorporated within this system, would not have been carried out unless it was by personal request. This failure by some managers to follow the organisation's coaching processes was arguably accepted by their senior managers and this is a view supported by responses that indicated the line managers of coaches were not bothered whether they undertook coaching. In terms of impact the vast majority of employees and managers believed that coaching did improve performance and similarly a majority also believed it impacted upon job

satisfaction and employee engagement driven primarily through relationship factors such as leadership, employee involvement, commitment, integrity and trust, findings broadly in line with the view of Bernthal (2004) and MacLeod and Clarke (2009). These benefits appear to have been brought about by the style of coaching that emphasises leadership behavioural changes rather than the application of technical coaching skills, with employees stating that the best thing about coaching related to their being inspired, stretched to achieve more of their potential and being trusted with special projects or duties.

The comparative relationship of the two questionnaires combined with the compatibility to external survey was a feature of the research framework design in terms of limiting the risk of error and establishing the level of alignment with external environments and testing for differences relating to reliability and validity. Further, the discussion groups were designed to enable the data obtained to be compared and contrasted with the other data obtained via triangulation, thus increasing the reliability and validity through cross-checking and validation.

4.4 Discussion Groups Findings

4.4.1 Introduction

The two categories of discussion group, one for employees who received coaching and another for managers who coached, were held during 2005 and 2006. The two workshops were structured differently in terms of content to reflect the research aims and the nature of the difference between the two roles that is being coached and coaching. The sessions produced comparative data to contrast with data obtained via the other research methods used. The semi-structured part of the discussion groups provided the participants with the opportunity to offer their opinions on the key areas under discussion.

4.4.2 Employees Who Received Coaching (Coachees)

Four discussion groups, involving 64 employees, were held during 2005 and 2006. The discussion groups provided a way in which to further investigate and explore data gathered earlier via the questionnaires as well as enabling other areas of discussion to take place through joint structured and semi-structured approaches (Krueger, 1998).

The discussion groups were structured to incorporate short questionnaires which enabled specific data to be obtained for analytical purposes and these were incorporated within sessions which enabled semi-structured discussion to encourage debate and discussion yet retain a focus on the key areas. Through the use of a short questionnaire participants were asked to consider the benefits, if any that accrued from coaching sessions. In practice this required the participants to consider questions on an individual basis and then this was followed by a group discussion to enable a more detailed understanding of the questionnaire responses. Firstly the participants were asked to consider the key benefits gained from coaching sessions with their managers. Once participants had considered any potential benefits they were asked to prioritise their list of benefits into a 'top three' priority order with the first representing the most valuable benefit of the three chosen and the third the least valuable. Several participants chose less than three benefits.

The benefits have been categorised in Figure II to estimate their ranking in terms of priority, that is participants were asked if they gained any benefit from the coaching activity and, if so, what were the benefits, prioritising their choices in first, second and third order, where appropriate.

Figure H. Prioritised List of Benefits Emanating from Coaching Sessions as Cited by Employees who Received Coaching

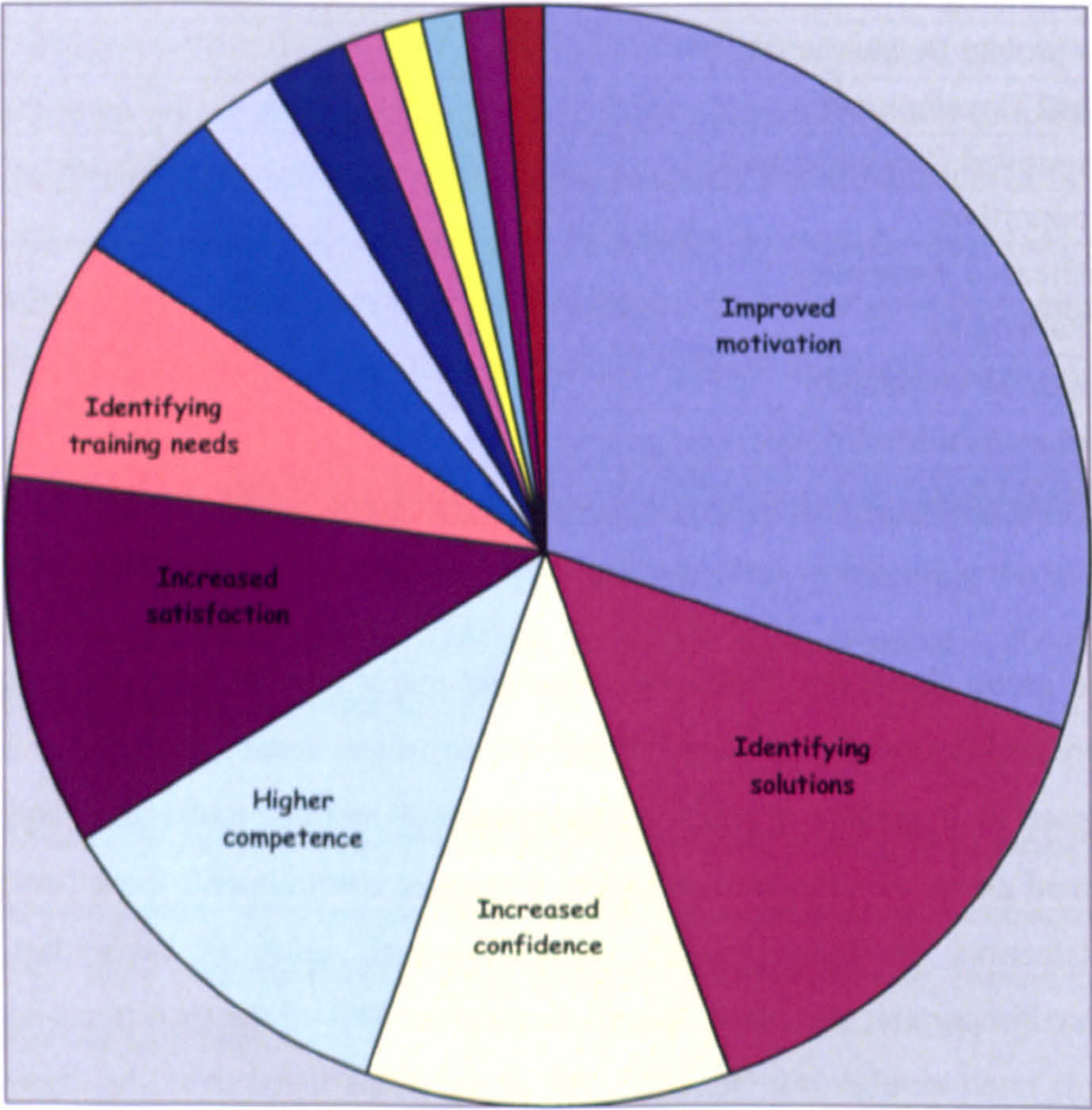
AREA	1	2	3	Total
Improved Motivation	22	24	4	50
Identifying Solutions	10	6	8	24
Increased Confidence	10	2	6	18
Higher Competence	8	8	2	18
Increased Satisfaction	8	4	6	18
Identifying Training Needs	2	6	4	12
Improved Behaviour Skills	2		6	8
Goal Development			4	4
Improved Communication			4	4
Supportive	2			2
Increased Awareness		2		2
Challenging		2		2
Sense of Ownership			2	2
Relationship Building			2	2
TOTALS	64	54	48	166

The group discussion highlighted that the major benefit appeared to be centred on increased personal motivation. When one considers those factors in the list that would impact to a greater degree on organisational morale, motivation and satisfaction, termed employee engagement and/or employee commitment; these being motivation, satisfaction, confidence, sense of achievement, sense of ownership and feeling valued/important; then such factors account for 54% of the total items and 66% of the items rated number one benefits. All of the items listed could be argued to have an indirect effect on employee engagement if not a direct effect (Melcrum, 2005). If this is the case then one may expect to find that an organisation's measure of employee engagement/commitment would be impacted favourably by an increase in coaching activity or vice versa, noting that other factors could also impact upon this.

To provide an additional perspective on the impact of coaching on employee engagement or any other areas the discussion group, participants were asked to consider whether they experienced any positive outcomes from coaching sessions.

The composition of these results and other responses given are shown in Figure I, a diagram which shows that the most identified key benefits were improved motivation (30%), identifying solutions (15%), higher competence (11%), increased satisfaction (11%), increased confidence (11%), identifying training needs (7%) and improved behavioural skills (5%) representing 90% of the total benefits identified.

Figure I. Diagram of Benefits Emanating from Coaching Sessions as Cited by Employees Who Received Coaching



The positive impact on motivation, satisfaction, sense of ownership and relationship building would emphasise the earlier findings that support the view that a structured coaching programme has the potential to positively impact on employee engagement levels.

In the semi structured discussion session participants made mention of the way that they appreciated certain aspects of the coaching.

'I received praise for good work'

'The personal development plan was referred to more often once the coaching started'

'Coaching provided an opportunity for me to check where I was going and how I was doing'

'Coaching created more emphasis on customer service, personal performance feedback and praise'

These comments provide direct linkages to the findings of the questionnaire and indirect linkages to employee engagement. Whilst comments were mainly positive some respondents referred to negative aspects.

'Coaching sessions sometimes took place to tick a box so that it was done'

'There was little opportunity to discuss problems or opportunities'

'The manager's approach whilst coaching was not motivational'

'The coaching sessions did not make me feel valued and provided less rather than more emphasis on support'

These responses would indicate that whilst coaching has the potential to generate an increase in morale and motivation there is also potential for coaching to have the opposite effect in certain circumstances.

When asked for the key attributes of a good coach in a line management role there were differences in the respective views and language used to describe these attributes. Again participants were asked to prioritise their choices in first, second and third order, where appropriate. Several participants selected less than three choices. Figure J sets out the list of key attributes chosen.

Figure J. List of Key Coach Attributes Identified by Employees Who Received Coaching

Attribute	1	2	3	Total
Listens	17	11	7	35
Approachable/open	9	3	4	16
Trustworthy	8	4	4	16
Supportive	4	7	4	15
Probing	4	6	5	15
Empathetic	4	3	3	10
Non-judgemental	1	3	2	6
Gives feedback	0	2	4	6
Role model	2	2	1	5
Instructive	1	2	2	5
Understanding	1	2	2	5
Assimilation	1	1	2	4
Problem solving	0	1	3	4
Honest	1	1	2	4
Patience	1	1	2	4
Self-aware	1	1	2	4
Motivated	1	1	1	3
Discrete	0	1	2	3
Leader	0	1	2	3
Confident	1	1	1	3
Communicator	1	1	0	2
Knowledgeable	1	1	0	2
Challenging	1	1	0	2
Total no. of times selected	60	57	55	172

During the discussion that followed the above exercise, a variety of other words/phrases were used to describe positive attributes of a great coach as shown in Figure K:

Figure K. List of Other Positive Attributes of a Coach

Tenacious/persistent	Generous	Alert
Integrity	Perceptive	Personable
Positive	Reliable	Courageous
Experienced	Common goal	Authentic
Encouraging	Fun person	Enthusiastic
Helps to plan	Goal driven	Influential
View of situation/perspective	Change agent	Calm
Achiever	Visionary	Amenable
Credible	Inspirational	Body language
Respectful	Organised	Focused
Flexible	Drive	Sensitive
Reflective	Dedicated	
Non-directive	People focused	

Whilst participants provided a wide range of terms, to describe positive coaching attributes there was a high degree of commonality around the key attributes of listening, approachability, trustworthiness, supportiveness, questioning/probing skills and empathy. These six attributes represented 77% of the first choice selections and 62% of all selections and as such arguably provide a clear indication of the views of employee participants on what they feel to be important in terms of managerial attributes in a coaching relationship.

Listening in an active empathetic way was considered to be the prime quality of a great coach. The next most important attributes were considered to be supportiveness, openness, trustworthiness and an understanding/empathetic approach. Participants also made mention of the importance of regular meetings as this was perceived to help build relationships. The participants commented on these terms in discussions.

'It's important to me that my manager adopts an adult to adult approach'

'I value my manager being open and approachable so that we can sit down when it suits me as well as when it suits her'

'Because he (the manager) is helpful, understanding and supportive we can be more open in the coaching sessions'

'Respect, trust, honesty is very important attributes in a manager that is critical to coaching working'.

4.4.2.1 Comment upon Employee (Coachee) Discussion Group Findings

In summary a dissemination of the discussion groups outputs and related conversations identified that the majority of key benefits to the employee arising from coaching activity related to those factors that drive employee engagement; primarily improved personal motivation (30%), higher levels of competence (11%), increased satisfaction with job (11%) and increased confidence (11%). The identification of solutions to problems and issues was also identified as the key benefit by 15% of the participants. Whilst there were differences in the respective groups' view of the key attributes with 97 individual terms used to describe these, there was commonality around the attributes of listening, empathy, supportiveness, trustworthiness and questioning/probing skills.

From a coachee's perspective the research study identified the primary feature of a successful coaching relationship as a supportive, open relationship, followed by a high level of trust, a good understanding and empathy, mutual respect and the availability of coaching in line with the needs of the coachee. There was recognition that coaching conversations impacted on morale and motivation in positive as well as negative ways, although those line reports who were coached by managers who underwent the formal coaching assessment accreditation recorded levels of engagement, during the active coaching periods, higher than the average 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings for all managers, which would indicate that coaching by managers who undertook the more stringent accreditation process created a more positive impact on employee engagement levels, noting the limitations of the research study in terms of the social construction and possible risk factors relating to personal relationships and individual perspectives which could differ for reasons relating to areas not necessarily associated with the coaching process.

4.4.3 Managers Who Coached (Coaches)

The discussion groups involving managers provided a way in which to further investigate and explore data gathered earlier via the questionnaires as well as enabling

other areas of discussion to be followed through semi-structured approaches (Krueger, 1998). Two discussion groups involving 12 managers were held during 2006. The managers' sessions did not follow the content format of the discussion group for those who received coaching as the researcher wished to enable the managers to explore the issues around coaching as they perceived them to be. The broad scope of the discussion topics centred upon the content of the questionnaire framework (Appendix 5) with the aim to gain further insights and learning. The key discussion topic areas covered by the managers in the discussion group were the perceived reasons and motivation for the organisation's desire for coaching, the resistors to coaching activity, their personal motivation for undertaking coaching, the areas on which coaching was applied, the type/category of employee reports involved in their coaching, the areas of responsibility, their understanding of coaching, the organisation coaching process and the use and application of coaching.

The main resistors to the creation of a coaching culture within the case study organisation were identified by the managers to be time constraints, the use of coaching to resolve problems rather than the creation of opportunities, the waste of time and effort of widespread coaching focusing on everyone including many who managers felt would leave the organisation (as averse to focusing on a small number of individuals) and a concern over losing control. There was a perceived feeling amongst some participants that the coaching programme was viewed as a 'flavour of the month' initiative and even well into the programme there was a view put forward that some managers were waiting for it to be dismantled and that coaching would not be sustained.

'I just had too many reports to coach'

'Coaching was often seen as a way to fix a problem rather than develop an opportunity'

'It seemed such a big thing to find time to coach everyone'

'I felt I was the manager and therefore the expert who should have the answer'

'Many people thought that it (coaching) was flavour of the month and a fad that would gradually drop off'

Participants were asked to consider why the organisation viewed coaching as a beneficial approach and the reasons were considered to be the constant need to change and reinvent, the impact of change on the managers which required them to constantly achieve more, the way coaching was flexible and reactive as well as proactive, the changing nature of the workforce in terms of personal motivation factors and the need to attract and retain talent.

'Coaching helps to bring out new ideas within the team'

'I think coaching was seen as a way to get more out of our people'

'Coaching can be used anywhere at any time'

'Coaching offered me a chance to manage performance in a positive way'

'People want to be acknowledged and given time, coaching allowed me to do this'

In responding to a question on what motivated them to improve their own coaching, the participants primarily highlighted a desire to improve their team's performance and therefore their own performance as a team leader. This went together with a natural desire for self learning, knowledge improvement and career advancement. There was also a desire to motivate others and facilitate learning within others. When the participants were asked to be specific about their own learning needs via management development training, the main areas put forward were time management, leadership skills, managing change, strategic planning, performance management, influencing and IT skills. Whilst coaching was not put forward as a specific area it was seen to be a part of the other management development areas.

When asked about where the responsibility lay between the organisation and themselves to improve their coaching skills and abilities, most managers responded that both the organisation and they were jointly responsible. When challenged on who was primary responsible, most considered that the greater responsibility was for themselves to develop their coaching skills. From this perspective they considered the organisation as providers of coaching training, whereas managers should be motivated in developing their coaching skills. There was a general view that this responsibility

increased the more senior, in a hierarchical sense, the manager was. This theme came across when considering their own personal development, in that managers wanted their line manager to role model coaching, however this did not appear to happen very often. Indeed their view was that, apart from some shining examples at senior level, it seemed to be left to middle and junior management to role model coaching. The strategies to support coaching at organisational level were noted though more so in terms of the structured coaching support programmes than broader initiatives linked to other HR areas such as reward.

When questioned about the impact of coaching in an organisational change sense, the managers were generally positive about the potential for coaching to support change programmes and individual situations within the wider organisational context. However when asked specifically about their experience in being coached by their managers, the majority replied that coaching appeared to be viewed as an ad hoc activity rather than a strategic leadership dimension, with some exceptions as previously mentioned. There was some debate as to why this was the case and several views were put forward including a lack of desire by senior managers to change behaviours and a desire to stick to the ways which had resulted in personal success in the past. Another view was shared that some managers may lack confidence in coaching others as it can be very uncomfortable during the early stages of developing the skill.

When asked to consider what coaching actually meant in practical terms within the context of a manager's role the responses were broadly similar in that it required a focus or direction, facilitated their report's development through listening and asking questions and very often involved instructive input either in terms of knowledge or opinion. Views on this subject ranged from quite well defined illustrations to opposing viewpoints on the same topic. The debate on this area mirrored to a certain extent the uncertainty around coaching within the management fraternity. Within an organisational context it would appear that the development of a clear understanding of what coaching means to the organisation would be beneficial to the impact of coaching activity.

In relation to a question on their view of being arbitrarily told that they must coach for a period of time to achieve accreditation, as was the position in the case study organisation, there was a difference of opinion. The majority of managers stated that the initiative was a good one although they would likely have not done as much coaching if they could have gained accreditation without such formality. Concerns were raised on how the appraisal and personal development process linked to coaching in that some managers felt a more defined approach would have been helpful and made the accreditation process easier through integrating coaching activity into the process. Other participants did not require this though as they felt coaching should be adapted to situations rather than processed into areas.

The participants' views on external coaching were requested and the idea of having access to an external coach was generally favoured. The use of an external coach provided a positive response. External coaches were viewed as providing an independent objective and new approaches and ideas. They were considered to be more professional and skilled in terms of coaching technique, with a wider base of knowledge through working with different organisations. However, the downside of using an external coach was identified as a lack of detailed knowledge of the organisation, as well as the cost implications which could result in limited coaching sessions due to budget issues. It was generally accepted that budget would be a major barrier to the use of external coaches. The reasons given for employing an external coach were that an external coach could bring new ideas, styles and choices, whilst being more honest in their opinion yet less subjective than their line manager or peer colleague. When asked who would provide the best coach for themselves the responses ranged from their line manager, a representative from the Training and Development area, a senior manager from another part of the organisation and an external coach.

The use of Training and Development specialists was not perceived by some managers to be a good idea, although it was recognised by other managers that such specialists would have better and more developed coaching skills. The use of a senior manager from another part of the organisation gained a more positive response, as they felt that senior managers would understand the business issues more and provide a new view. There were concerns over the variable level of coaching quality dependent on the line

manager and in the case of internal coaches the issues of new perspectives, ideas and confidentiality and the potential to damage the reputation and progress of the coaching programme.

The uses of coaching were discussed and these included the development of a range of ideas, the most popular being a sounding board to generate creativity, objective analysis and performance. The groups generally identified that coaching fell into several categories, namely, the focus on under performance, new assignments, promotions, projects and talent management. The application of 360 degree feedback within a coaching framework was generally considered to be a good idea, providing the coachee with a multi-level viewpoint and a focus for development; though a distinction was made by the managers on the importance of how good the coach was and the relationship with the individual coachee, which was felt to be of paramount importance. Issues included concerns over whether a line manager can balance the coaching role with the more directive management role as well as the previously raised issues around time and priorities. The issue of distance was also raised as well as confidentiality and possible conflicts over certain areas of discussion.

When asked about their role in relation to coaching others, the managers believed that they had a responsibility to coach their staff first and foremost. However, replies included that coaching needed to be further formalised in terms of structure and there was a view that many managers lacked the confidence and/or the motivation to coach. Most considered time factors, the culture of the organisation and the pace of change, new staff, and a lack of training to improve coaching skills, as the prime barriers. A majority view was that some managers have a natural ability to coach, others do not and that an element of coaching is in every manager's role. The issue of managers not being rewarded for coaching behaviours emerged, with views that the emphasis was very much on 'hard' results not 'soft' behavioural based measures, often meaning that how results were achieved was of secondary importance to the outcome.

Managers raised the point that many staff showed resistance to coaching possibly, in their view, due to a fear that opening up to a manager would reveal weaknesses and many were not interested in being coached as this required more effort and thought from them in terms of contribution. The key personal strategies adopted by managers

centred on building trust, focusing on objectives and developing potential. The key challenges came from the implications of confidentiality, the management of issues not directly related to work but having an impact on work performance, the temptation to push staff too quickly too early which appeared to result in a weakening of personal ownership, and the need to keep some 'distance' within the coaching relationship. In particular the need to build trust was identified as a key issue and managers commented on the importance of openness, admitting personal weaknesses, sharing knowledge and experience, showing an interest in the coachee and the giving of their time. Feedback on difficult and sensitive issues also appeared to offer challenge and learning points centred on sensitivity, positivity, objectivity and stepping back to enable reflection.

The major blockers to developing a coachee's potential were cited as fear of failure, poor self-confidence and peer pressure. There was a general view that ongoing support relating to coaching skills training for existing and newly appointed managers would be beneficial and any induction programme for new managers should include training on this skill. The responses from managers indicated a desire to put into practice the skills set out in the Level 1 training and an acceptance that responsibility for learning is moving away from the organisation to the individuals within the department. Several participants commented on the value of activity based approaches following taught lessons which were incorporated into the overall Level 1 organisational coaching programme. Several participants expressed their support for the pre-course work around learning styles which helped them focus on the effectiveness of their learning approaches both during the course and afterwards (Honey and Mumford, 1992).

'The mix of learning activities greatly enhanced the overall learning experience'

'An appreciation of my preferred learning style set the scene for what followed - an opportunity to build my level of awareness in terms of myself and others'

Several managers confirmed that they had completed the ongoing accreditation process to achieve the certificate of competence but for them coaching had now lapsed into irregular use. Several participants welcomed the certificate of competence both as

a process to develop effective coaching skills and a motivational recognition tool for celebrating competence and achievement. However, some participants referred to the value of the certificate from an external perspective in that the certificate was only relevant within the organisation's leadership model and not transferable externally. This individual view was balanced by an 'organisational' view that nationally accredited professional coaching qualifications presented challenges to career structure and employee retention. Several participants raised the value of the workplace as a learning environment in the use of coaching development (Kolb, 1984).

'The accreditation process made sure we practised the skills learned but for a few months now it has been difficult to find the time to coach'

*'It was great to follow the Chief Executive onto the stage to pick up my certificate'.
'The achievement of the certificate was motivational I would have preferred an accreditation that I could have used outside of the organisation'*

'As a senior manager I can see the dangers of providing managers with semi professional or vocational coaching qualifications when we are just wanting them to integrate coaching skills into their management role'

'This was one training course that was easily transferable to the workplace'

4.4.3.1 Comment upon Manager (Coach) Discussion Group Findings

The need for structured coaching was recognised by managers, together with the implementation of personal development strategies, performance management, and improved direction from senior management. The managers clearly identified a need to update and improve their skills in the current environment and were willing to consider coaching as a training tool to effect change. The use of external coaches was generally viewed as providing the best type of support in changing circumstances, however, it was acknowledged that this was unlikely to happen at a level below Executive due to the cost and budget issues. If external coaches were used they would need to be briefed about the organisational structure, culture and traditional learning methods employed in the case study organisation, before embarking on any activity.

The matching of coaches to managers was also an important consideration. Senior managers within the organisation were considered as potential coaches, although a lack of role modelling was identified. Many managers doubted their own ability to coach, which was an ongoing issue, as coaching was extended within the organisation.

From these discussions several key points emerged as follows: (i) coaching created more focus on the individual; (ii) managers who coached encouraged people to develop through their coaching skills and role modelling behaviour; (iii) good coaches showed a concern for the welfare of the coachee; (iv) a coaching perspective should be based on a positive view of people's potential; (v) people should be helped to find their own solutions; and (vi) coaching has to be a partnership between a coach and coachee, that is the manager and the direct report working together for mutual benefit.

There was a general appreciation that supervision, mentoring and coaching are different techniques, although there remained a variance in the level of understanding of these techniques amongst the managers due partly to the context of the coaching situation and relationships (Parsloe and Wray, 2000). There was a strong feeling that coaching is an important tool, particularly in periods of organisational change, however it was felt that the nature of such changes created resistance to the implementation of coaching, for example in terms of time, focus and staff morale. This perspective was particularly relevant to the case study organisation and its change programme.

However, coaching was not necessarily viewed as being better than other traditional learning methods. This reflects the view that coaching is an appropriate training tool in certain situations and should be used alongside other training strategies. It was felt that coaching skills training should be provided for managers, thus endorsing the decision to progress a coaching skills programme within the context of managing. There is a view though that many managers lacked the confidence, commitment and/or ability to coach others despite the level of training and support provided. The integration of coaching technique with other development approaches such as mentoring (MacLennan, 1999) also offers a way to further align coaching to the role of the line manager.

As in the case of the discussion groups involving coachees, the same caveats need to be considered in terms of the limitations of the research study relating to the social construction and possible risk factors relating to personal relationships and individual perspectives which could differ for reasons relating to areas not necessarily associated with the coaching process. However, the research framework used a multi perspective approach which was aligned to enable cross-checking, comparison and contrast to strengthen the reliability and validity of the data.

4.5 Data from Manager Interviews

Eight one-to-one interviews were carried out with managers during 2007. The interviews revealed that for those managers who adopted a leadership coaching style, the main challenge related to time constraints. Coaching activity was considered to have peaked over the period 2005/2006. All interviewees stressed the positive aspects of the coaching programme with views ranging from the fact that coaching supported the required cultural change, added value, increased employee engagement and that it was the right thing to do in terms of leadership development. The interviewees stated the coaching had a favourable impact on employee role performance and development, particularly during the formalised accreditation period which ensured levels of coaching activity was high.

Whilst the formal nature of the accreditation resulted in positive benefits there was some resistance to the way in which this was structured with the need for less documentation and more support cited. Yet there was also acknowledgement that when the existing structured and supportive approaches were dismantled then coaching activity reduced.

The managers placed emphasis on challenge in the coaching process and nearly all managers used coaching to support all their reports although one manager focused on poor performers. The biggest challenge to coaching was the lack of time and too many reports. Their views on the key attributes of a coach put listening and challenging as the top two desirable characteristics with all of them placing the need to

be open, approachable, supportive and helpful as the most important elements of a good coaching relationship.

4.5.1 Comment upon Manager Interview Findings

There was a general consensus of opinion that the coaching programme had a significant impact on the organisation through a change in management behaviour. However there was deemed to be a lack of consistency across the organisation due to several functional areas not embracing coaching in terms of senior leaders not role modelling coaching behaviour. The paradoxical nature of the several managers' viewpoints is revealed when there is noted a resistance to the structured process (that ensured a certain level of coaching occurred) and yet an acceptance that without such a process coaching would not generally have been undertaken.

The limitations of this aspect of the research are similar to those identified in the discussion groups, notably personal perspective, bias and relationships. However, the nature of the interviews enabled the flexibility for closer investigation into the key areas of the research whilst following a template structure which retained order which facilitated analysis (Patton, 18990).

4.6 Coaching Assessment Records

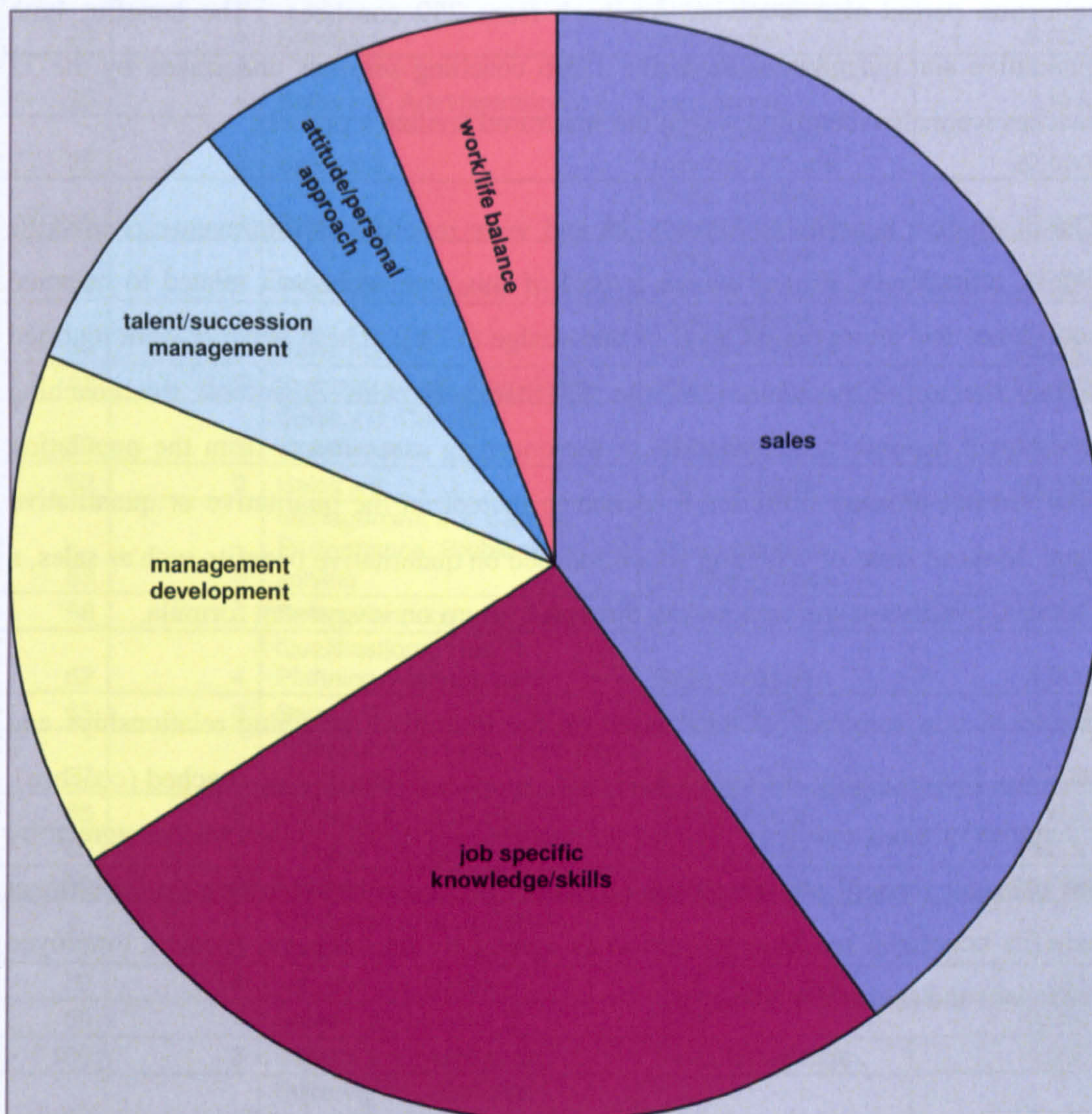
4.6.1 Summary Outline

The various main themes of the coach/coachee coaching relationships were supervision, work/life, induction, personal confidence, change management, time management, qualifications, sales, job knowledge, administration, staff supervision, planning, mindset, performance, general management development, procedural, coaching, management style, presentation skills, positive thinking, compliance, career, assertiveness, customer service, job role, IT skills, health, team retention and team communication. These aforementioned sub topic areas have been categorised under general headings, together with a percentage figure in brackets representing how much

of the total topics covered the particular heading represents; sales (40%), job specific knowledge/skills (26%), management development (15%), talent/succession management (8%), attitude/personal approach (5%) and work/life balance (6%).

Figure L provides a diagrammatic illustration:

Figure L. Areas of Coaching



The coaching programme involved 231 coaches coaching 752 employees over the duration of the research with qualitative benefits based on job/role skills, knowledge,

mindset, behaviours, attitude, communication/interpersonal and personal confidence. Quantitative benefits based on sales, service and productivity equated to £669,000. 4,680 coaching sessions were conducted averaging approximately one hour each, totalling approximately 4,680 hours. The coaching record assessments show that the sessions focused on a range of areas, and often several topics were addressed.

Of the 231 managers/supervisors who conducted coaching with 752 employees, 72 coaches were involved in a structured feedback process during the research data collection period also involving feedback from 259 coachees. The benefits, both qualitative and quantitative, from the 1,296 coaching sessions undertaken by the 72 coaches were also identified within the structured feedback process.

The qualitative benefits numbered 128 and were reported as improvements in skills (47%), attitudinal (23%) of which a third of this type of benefit related to personal confidence and an increased level of knowledge (17%). These benefits were reported across the entire population of the 72 managers who undertook the coaching assessment process, noting that 11 of the coaching assessments from the population pool did not provide sufficient evidence to include in the qualitative or quantitative data. In those areas of coaching which focused on quantitative benefits such as sales, a financial evaluation was undertaken through a return on investment formula.

Figure M is a summary of data based on the individual coaching relationships and sessions, incorporating the coach reference, number of employees coached (coachee), categories of areas coaching focused on, qualitative benefits to the coachee agreed by the manager (coach) and employee (coachee) and quantitative return on investment benefits beneficial to the organisation as agreed by the manager (coach), employee (coachee) and senior line manager.

Figure M Summary of Coaching Assessment Records Data

Coach Ref	Number Coachees	Coaching Categories	Qualitative Benefits	Quantitative ROI £'s
3	3	Procedural, IT Excel, Sales	Skills, knowledge, confidence	10,000
4	3	Sales x 3	Skills, knowledge, confidence	19,000
8	3	Sales x 3, Administration	Skills, confidence	21,000
12	3	Sales x 3	Skills, confidence	30,000
16	5	Career x 3, Management, Time	Skills, attitude, behaviour	N/A
22	4	Sales x 4	Skills, knowledge, confidence	5,000
25	4	Sales x 2, Administration x 2	Skills, knowledge, confidence	N/A
27	3	Sales x 3	Skills, positive mindset/attitude	22,000
30	3	Sales x 3	Skills, positive mindset/attitude	15,000
38	3	Work life x 2, Career	Skills, positive mindset/attitude	5,000
39	3	Sales x 3	Skills, positive mindset/attitude	18,000
42	3	Productivity x 2, Knowledge	Skills	27,000
50	5	Sales x 3, Career, Qualification	Skills, attitude	33,000
52	3	Sales x 3	Skills, attitude	16,000
53	5	Management x 2, Career, Performance, Problem solving	Skills, positive mindset/attitude	N/A
58	3	Delegation, Job role, Sales	Skills	8,000
62	4	Qualifications, Health, Planning, Management	Skills, attitude	4,000
63	3	Sales x 3	Skills, attitude	35,000
67	5	Induction x 2, Time, Planning, Communication	Skills	2,000
68	5	Career x 4, Work-life	Skills, attitude	N/A
69	3	Mindset x 2, Sales	Skills, attitude	24,000
70	3	Sales x 3	Skills, attitude	16,000
78	5	Management x 3, Career, Qualification	Skills, confidence	N/A
79	4	Job role x 3, Career	Skills, behaviour	N/A
89	4	Sales x 2, Career x 2	Skills	10,000
106	3	Sales x 2, Qualification	Skills, knowledge	8,000
107	3	Supervision, Work life, Induction	Skills, knowledge	12,000
108	5	Qualification x 2, Confidence, Change management, Time	Skills, knowledge, confidence	N/A
110	5	Sales x 3	Skills	5,000
111	3	Sales x 3	Skills	40,000
112	3	Administration, Knowledge	Skills, knowledge	10,000
115	5	Sales x 5	Skills, knowledge	25,000
116	3	Qualification, Mindset, Planning, Supervision, Time	Skills, knowledge	N/A

117	4	Sales x 4	Skills, knowledge	10,000
118	3	Knowledge x 2, Performance	Skills, knowledge	20,000
130	5	Management x 4, Confidence	Skills	N/A
132	3	Sales, Procedural, Mindset	Skills, behaviour	5,000
133	3	Procedural x 2, Supervision, Mindset, Coaching	Skills, behaviour	2,000
135	5	Management style, x 3, Sales	Behaviour, interpersonal	20,000
142	5	Work life x 2, Sales, Presentation skills, attitude	Confidence, skills, knowledge	40,000
145	3	Sales x 3	Communication, skills	12,000
149	3	Sales x 3	Skills, knowledge	12,000
151	5	Work life, Sales, Compliance, Career, Procedural	Skills, knowledge	5,000
157	3	Sales x 3	Skills, attitude, confidence	4,000
168	4	Sales x 2, Career, Induction	Skills, attitude, knowledge	5,000
169	3	Sales, Management, Career	Skills, attitude, knowledge	6,000
170	4	Sales x 2, Management, Time	Confidence, skills, attitude	4,000
176	3	Sales, Career, Performance	Skills, attitude	2,000
180	4	Sales x 2, Induction x 2	Skills, knowledge	4,000
189	5	Planning x 2, Knowledge, Assertiveness, Career	Skills, attitude, knowledge	N/A
191	3	Sales x 2, Assertiveness	Skills, attitude, knowledge	10,000
194	4	Customer service, Communication, Work-life, Job role	Skills, attitude, knowledge	N/A
199	3	Sales x 3	Skills, knowledge	11,000
200	3	Sales x 3, Procedural	Skills, communication	10,000
212	5	Work life x 2, Time x 2, IT skills	Skills	N/A
224	3	Work life x 2, Planning	Skills, attitude	10,000
226	3	Qualification, Health, Work life	Attitude, behaviour	2,000
228	4	Sales x 2, Retention, Communication	Skills, behaviour	15,000
229	3	Sales x 3	Skills, behaviour	6,000
230	5	Knowledge x 2, Time, Administration, Job role	Skills, knowledge	5,000
231	3	Sales x2, Job role	Skills, behaviour	29,000

* 11 of the coaching assessment documents did not provide valid or reliable evidence to claim as a qualitative or quantitative benefit and have therefore not been included in Figure M.

4.6.2 Financial Return on Investment

It was noted in the research methodology section 3.4.8, that a number of evaluation studies have sought to calculate return on investment and these approaches were considered when developing an evaluative return on investment framework; a coaching impact assessment record consisting of a standard template as detailed in Appendix 9. The outputs were measured in terms of qualitative benefits such as personal development skill and knowledge areas; however these were not included in the return on investment primarily due to the intangible nature of these outputs. The quantitative benefits relating to identified improvements in sales, service and productivity were used for the purposes of the return on investment calculation.

Where the coaching sessions focused on the areas of sales, service and productivity, quantitative benefits were considered and where possible identified. 49 of the 72 (68%) coaches produced, via 882 coaching sessions, identifiable increases in sales income, improvements in customer service or savings in productivity that could be linked to a monetary equivalent. The total of the monetary benefit reported was £669,000 ranging from £2,000 to £40,000 (averaging £13,653 per coach and £758 per coaching session) over the period of the coaching interventions, which averaged six months per coach.

As the sample pool of 72 managers is relatively high in terms of the total pool of managers, there is a case to argue that this sample pool of managers is a fair representation of the accredited manager population. On this basis if the 72 cases were representative of the total coaching interventions and an extrapolation is applied across the 231 cases then 157 cases, that is, 68%, would have reported identifiable quantitative benefits making a total economic return of £2,143,530. When one considers that the coaching continued past the post coaching course 26 week period as part of the organisation's management process then continuing benefits may have continued to accrue to a larger or lesser degree. Based on this scenario and the assumption that the accrual of benefits continued at the same rate for a year, this would have equated to £4,287,060 over a period of one year.

As stated, for the purposes of the return on investment calculation, only those coaching interventions that focused on 'hard' results such as time savings, sales results and productivity gains were used. However to challenge the robustness of these figures the coaching managers were asked to provide their level of confidence in the coaching intervention being responsible for the specific improvement. The average level of confidence rated 80% which if applied to the total return on investment figure would reduce this amount to £3,429,648 per annum.

Research was also conducted into the volume of topics referred to managers for a decision during two periods of one week, the first period prior to the course and the second period three months after the course. Of 89 managers, it was identified that referrals fell from 570 during the first weekly period to 287 referrals during the second weekly period some three months after the coaching skills course. Based on managers' estimates a referral would take on average 15 minutes of a manager's time, which in total would equate to a saving of 70.75 hours per week. If this was maintained over a year then the total would be 3,679 hours. Based on a working week of 35 hours, this equates to 105 weeks or approximately 2.3 working years, which is the equivalent saving/cost of £80,500 using an average time lost cost of £161,000 (based on a remuneration income of £35,000 with a salary generating twice its value in profit).

If this trend is extrapolated across the 231 managers involved in the coaching accreditation process this would result in a total of 1,479 referrals pre course and 745 referrals for the post coaching programme period. Again if this was maintained over a period of a year then the total would come to 9,542 hours. Based on a working week of 35 hours this equates to 273 weeks or 5.93 working years, which is the equivalent saving/cost of £415,100.

The income estimated to be generated from coaching sessions together with the savings based on fewer referrals to managers equated to £3,844,748 for a period of one year. No allowances for benefits value over more than one year has been calculated although the coaching programme continued over a four year period and as such it could be argued that benefits may have accrued at some level for the duration of the programme and, indeed, at some level if continued into the future.

It could be argued that there are costs of generating such coaching activity relating to training and time spent by the managers and employees in coaching sessions.

Conversely such an argument could be challenged in many situations as the cost of training and coaching is generally part of a management development programme for which there is an annual budget (as was the case for the case study organisation) and therefore it is more a decision as to what development area to spend the finance budget on and use the manager/employee time on rather than a decision not to spend the allotted budget. If it is assumed that the cost of this activity should be offset in terms of understanding the bottom line financial impact then the organisation's costs have been calculated to enable this viewpoint to be achieved. The two major items of expense were the cost of the programme, which was estimated at £60,000 inclusive of internal and external training resource, as well as materials and £70,000 representing two years of management time attending coaching training and ongoing development sessions. The total costs being in the region of £130,000 per annum, less than 3.38% of the estimated financial return exclusive of any qualitative benefits such as skills and knowledge improvements. Once costs of £130,000 are deducted the net return on investment equates to £3,714,748, a 2,957% annualised return.

4.6.3 Participant Perspective – Qualitative Data

The coaching assessment framework enabled qualitative data to be gathered to support the quantitative data relating to the coaching outputs. This enabled a greater understanding of how the outputs were achieved from both coach and coachee perspective. The coaching assessment process was formulated to gather information on (i) the background of the coaching activity in relation to the coachee; (ii) the coaching methods used; (iii) a view of the coachee's reaction to the coaching from a coach perspective; (iv) the impact on the business and (v) a view of the coach and the coaching from the coachee's perspective.

Section 1, the background section of the coaching assessment record provided details of the coach and coachee relationship including personal aspirations and role

responsibilities. Generally coaches were managers of branches or departments and the coachees were team members reporting into the coach.

Section 2 on coaching methods required a description of the methods, tools and techniques used. The main methods used were based on the TGROW coaching process, SMART goal setting, Learning Style preferences, Well Formed Outcome planning, Precision Questions, Johari Window framework, Role Performance Compass, Communication Sensory Preferences, Language System Diagnostic Instrument, Personal Action Planning Framework and the Wheel of Work methodology. All of these methods were covered in the coaching training sessions.

Section 3 required details of the coachee's reaction to the coach and the coaching sessions. The reactions varied considerably yet overall the majority of coachees welcomed the opportunity to be coached although initial resistance was often the case. The comments below illustrated this approach:

'I'm perfect, I have years of experience, it's the sales adviser that isn't trying hard enough to convert my referrals ...' (coach reference 4).

'I can't see how this (coaching) can help me as I'm just too busy ...'
(coach reference 8)

'I don't think I can change ...' (coach reference 16)

'Initially my colleague was struggling to manage workloads, bottling up her frustrations and not being able to ask as she is a proud individual ...'
(coach reference 170)

'At the outset the coachee found it difficult to discuss options and see things in a different way ...' (coach reference 230)

However over the period of the coaching coachees began to see the benefits of coaching and adopted a more positive approach to the sessions and the comments relating to section 5 illustrate the change in attitude to coaching.

Section 4 described the impact on the business including the personal impact of the coachee's actions emanating from the coaching. In many instances these impacts

related to non quantifiable areas such as career counselling. However in the more quantifiable areas such as sales there were some major improvements in personal performance in the areas of coaching focus.

Some examples are provided below:

- Increase in financial services sales from £12,932 to £37,000 over a quarter resulting in a move from 12th to 6th in the sales table (coach reference 4)
- Improvement in branch audit rating from amber to green (coach reference 4)
- Increase in sales league table for the three coachees from 27th to 3rd, 70th to 31st and 118th to 77th (coach reference 8)
- Increase in referrals of 326% and sales of 141% (coach reference 12)
- Increase in sales by 206% and league table increase from 128th to 28th...(coach reference 22)
- Increase in sales from 12 to 28 and league table position from 38th to 22nd ...(coach reference 30)
- Increase in sales for one employee from 0 to 19 and 206% achievement of target and for another a rise in the sales league table from 43rd to 8th (coach reference 117)
- Revisions to mortgage process achieved productivity gains enabled £1.8m to be written in one month (coach reference 151)
- Increase in sales league table from 100th to 18th (coach reference 199)
- Increase in sales league table from 89th to 39th (coach reference 200)

Section 5 required the coachee to describe the coaching sessions and provide a personal view. Comments included the following:

'This (the coaching) has developed me as a person ... made me feel more confident ... better understanding of the products ...' (coach reference 4)

'The coaching helped me to develop my confidence ... more understanding of the products ... I feel more positive and valued ... I know this (my improvement) is because of the coaching and the focus it has given me, making me hungry for success and wanting to be the best I can ...' (coach reference 8)

'I was able to go away from the coaching (sessions) with new ideas ... I feel far happier now approaching customers about their mortgage needs ... overall my coaching experience has been a very positive one ... I enjoyed the coaching sessions and it made me focus on the end goal ...' (coach reference 12)

'Thanks to your coaching it's great to see I am now one of the top five performing people in this area ...' (coach reference 22)

'I feel that the coaching sessions have been beneficial to me and the branch as both figures have increased ...' (coach reference 30)

'My figures and performance since the coaching sessions have improved and I finished number one (in the sales league table) and when they (coaching sessions) started I was 10th ...' (coach reference 117)

'I feel I have really benefited from the coaching sessions. I am more enthusiastic in my work and enjoy being set challenges. I feel more confident in dealing with complaints myself ...' (coach reference 149)

'I felt that this (the coaching) was a refreshing change as in the past I have had issues that had not been addressed because nobody had bothered to ask me ...'
(coach reference 151)

'My coach has enabled me to realise what skills are needed and how to achieve my objectives in a positive manner. I now feel far more comfortable to tackle situations myself without worrying about asking first ...' (coach reference 169)

'The sessions have helped me re-focus and use the strengths and skills of my team ... given me more time to develop business ... this has resulted in a record level of mortgage applications ...' (coach reference 170)

'The coaching sessions...have helped me a great deal ... I have learnt that my greatest weakness was product knowledge. I realised the importance of completing my product training modules on the dates appointed. My self confidence is a lot better ...'
(coach reference 180)

'I asked to be coached on the objections I receive to referrals and I think I have overcome the barriers I have when I approach customers. My vast improvement in the league shows this has worked for me ...' (coach reference 199)

'... before my coaching sessions I was third from bottom of the referral table and after the coaching sessions I am now 36th (out of 53). Coaching has enabled me to achieve my personal target for self generating business, it also helped increase my confidence within myself and my staff. I have achieved three times more sales than last quarter and I feel that I have benefited from coaching ...' (coach reference 200)

4.6.4 Comment upon Coaching Assessment Records

The inclusion of the coaching assessment records in the research provided a direct link to the coaching activity undertaken during the research period. This enabled a view to be obtained on the effectiveness of coaching at the sharp end of the business both qualitatively and quantitatively. However it was recognised that there were inherent limitations imposed by the case study environment which challenged the pursuit of reliability and validity. As the data was provided primarily by the manager and their subordinate employee there was a risk of bias and subjectivity within the collection process (Rapoport, 1970). These risks included the potential for collusion and compliance as well as natural bias and personal subjectivity. To reduce, limit or eliminate the impact of these factors the research framework used several methods including a structured process of recording the coaching activities and outputs thus enabling the two perspectives, that is, manager and employee to be captured separately; referral to other data to validate the coaching activity and outputs such as the manager's senior manager; and cross comparison to other questionnaires relating to the manager and their subordinate. In adopting such methods the research acknowledged the inherent subjective stances and sought to establish a realised subjectivity through the achievement of credibility, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) and, as such, recognise the multiple perspectives within a socially constructed research environment (Travis, 1994). This research approach identified ways which supported the achievement of individual goals through the 'how's', that is the personal development inputs required such as knowledge, skills and attitude and the 'what's', that is the business orientated outcomes such as sales, productivity or service improvements. The alignment of the coaching activity to business goals through the research methodology enabled the impact of coaching within the case study organisation to be assessed on a micro basis; in terms of the individual employee's personal development and a causal linkage to measurable improvements in their performance and on a macro basis which enabled an organisation-wide view of the benefits from the coaching activity to be assessed through a return on investment analysis. This component part of the research methodology complemented the similar methodological approach adopted for measuring the level of employee commitment through the 9Factors™ Methodology, which measured employee engagement at individual, team and organisational levels.

4.7 Final Reflective Sessions

4.7.1 Introduction

Between October 2008 and January 2009 two types of reflective sessions were held, namely a discussion group made up of employees who had experienced coaching from their managers and interviews with those managers with experience of coaching their line reports. These sessions, involving 20 employee participants in total, provided a way for those involved to look back and reflect on the coaching they had experienced over the period of the coaching programme thus introducing a reflective element to the research study.

4.7.2 Employees' (Coachees') Perspective

Two discussion groups were held between early October 2008 and January 2009 involving twelve employees selected to be representative of a pool of employees all of whom had, or should have, received coaching from their line managers over the period of the research project. The discussion groups were made up of a diversity pattern generally based on the pool characteristics covering gender, age and ethnicity.

The discussion groups were set up to consider the coaching programme in the context of time and learning and provide a way in which to look back on the coaching programme as a whole and take a reflective standpoint. The discussion groups were based on a semi-structured framework to encourage debate and discussion yet retain a focus on the key areas of the research study (Appendix 8). The discussions were recorded and a transcription produced to enable further analysis. A summary of the discussions, including specific quotations to illustrate key points, is provided as follows:

Final Reflective Sessions – Employees' (Coachees') Perspective

Initially the participants were asked to consider the current state of coaching at the organisation. In terms of a qualitative view there appeared to be a lack of commonality around the meaning of coaching in their workplace setting with a primary view that

coaching encompassed a range of learning and development elements rather than in a more specific sense, such as a leadership style or specific activity.

Employee 1 – *'You are given one-to-one training, someone that will sit with you, they'll tell you how to do something, how to complete a task, do it a few times, and someone will set you up while you're doing one so it's like one-to-one, you're heavily trained or looked after. It's progression (sic) really you do it more on your own with less training or any help until you get to the stage where you're fully competent'*

Employee 2 – *'I think it's really to develop people to understand the role of the job and understand the tasks they are doing, and to train and develop somebody within that area. You're hopeful that there might be coaching there, one-to-one. I suppose you can get it from a book or videos or DVDs where you're given that type of either personal coaching or you might just have something on a DVD or a prescribed book or even tapes like you have here, you could have coaching that way'*

Employee 10 – *'Obviously coaching has been helping you to develop yourself, someone trying to guide you in a way that will get you to where you want to be. Not necessarily just a job role, but just in your life. Like when we had the coaching some of the things we were talking about weren't anything work related but in order to progress yourself you just need a bit of pushing in the right direction'*

From a quantitative view the participants expressed two different views, firstly that the level of coaching delivered was about right to a view that there was very little coaching undertaken due to their manager's view of coaching or time pressures.

Employee 2 – *'I'd say it's just right because there's scope there that if you do want more then there's always someone who will give it too you'*

Employee 3 – *'The initial 6 months, yes, as in the training development and you were learning the role, but once you got into it you were left to your own devices. Looking at the coaching I think if you've got a manager, because I've had a brilliant manager, who's been there for you, in a one-to-one he'll ask you what you want to do, where you want to develop, what you want to talk about and I think that's really important. I've also had a manager who's not had that coaching experience and who's come along in a one-to-one and said "You're not doing as well in that area, this is what you ought to be doing" and I think the experience is totally different. This is where the coaching course is very very good, it makes you look at things in a different way and I think it's very important that whoever is going to do the coaching is actually being coached themselves correctly'*

Employee 4 – *'You've got your one-to-ones, and it's all there but the reality is that you haven't got the timeso therefore managers are doing their best to try and fit them in and to give you the time to coach you and explain things to you but the reality is that you don't really get what you need'*

Employee 11 – *'Now, I would probably say not enough – too little. Whether it's because they don't have the time with the situation XXXXXXXX is in at the moment, but we haven't always been in that situation over the last 12 months and I've been in the role 3 years. Once you've had your initial training you're left to your own devices'*

When asked about how much coaching on a one-to-one basis they received per month the unanimous view was that very little coaching had been undertaken with the majority of participants stating that they received no coaching on a regular basis and one participant stating that coaching was limited to 'one or two hours per month'. From a perspective of who instigated coaching the general view was that coaching was primarily driven by the organisation's performance management system or by the request of the employee rather than manager driven.

Employee 1 – *'I think 9 times out of 10 it's going to be a member of staff saying to the management they've got an issue that they need to sort out. The only time we really get the line manager saying about coaching is probably when you do your VIP or PDP'*

Employee 2 – *'I'd probably say it would be up to myself. There may be times when the line manager says 'I've found something that may be beneficial to you' but I'd say it's more your own development once you're confident in the job'*

Employee 5 – *'Yes, especially the VIP(i.e. case study organisation's performance management document) having an actual PDP (i.e. Personal Development Plan) section in it now so you have to look into making a decision on what you want to be doing and where you need coaching'*

Employee 8 – *'In the branch they tend to look at the manager and look at what areas you might be struggling in a bit, telesales or whatever, and then they'll send you on a course but it's usually dependant on whether you're struggling or not in a particular area'*

Employee 12 – *'In my department, when you first start, it's going to be instigated by either the manager, the deputies or seniors of the department'*

When the participants were asked if they had experienced benefits from coaching they had received in the past there was a general consensus that all had benefited in some way although the more specific examples came from coaching in the area of sales and service.

Employee 2 – *'We had about 6 or 7 sessions for an hour a week ... it was just really beneficial'*

Employee 3 – *'You always came out feeling positive and he'd find the smallest thing to make you feel positive and you just came out ready to go again'*

Employee 4 – *'I came from a retail background and, even though it was retail, I worked in the offices so I hadn't had any real experience of selling face to face with a customer. It (coaching) increases your knowledge of how to approach customers, to get sales from customers, how to handle them over the phone, how to handle awkward customers'*

Employee 6 – *'The coaching I had increased my sales and my referral targets that I had and it did help'*

The participants were asked to consider how important they felt coaching was to the organisation currently compared to at other times when the coaching programme was underway. The unanimous view was that the accreditation follow-up after the coaching course together with the ongoing nature of the coaching programme ensured a high level of coaching activity through requiring managers to undertake coaching. However once the ongoing coaching programme and the accreditation process ended the level of coaching fell away to minor activity levels. There was a definite view that there was no longer a priority placed on coaching at a manager level.

Employee 2 – *'I think it's one of those classics that if the managers have got to do it they'll do it, and it tends to be once they've got their qualification, their tick in the box, it tends to be put by the wayside and they don't really think about it anymore. You find that you get different people and new seniors coming in who have to get their coaching and again you go through the same scenario that they need people to coach and as soon as they get signed off it tends to get forgotten about. There are no updates they have to do every year, so I wouldn't say the priority is there anymore for them to do what they were doing to get their qualification in the first place'*

Employee 4 – *'I think it's less. As you say, when the initial people get on their coaching skills course they want volunteers to help them get their qualifications, but no, I don't see anybody asking the question to say "Does anybody fancy having a bit of coaching" I just don't hear that at all no'*

The participants were asked to give a view on the best characteristics, attributes or skills of a great coach. The unanimous view was that the willingness of a coach to listen is the best characteristic from a coachee's perspective, with enthusiasm to generate motivation, also being very important.

Employee 1 – *'I think they just need to be a really good listener and motivator of people, and just to understand what people want as opposed to having a one-sided view that they've got and think you should do it my way instead of your own'*

Employee 2 – *'I think really good listening skills by asking questions or listening to what you want to achieve or develop. I think really to be quite enthusiastic about it, some are a bit negative, but they need to be enthusiastic for you so that you go away and think they really want to help me do this and then I'll try my best to develop really'*

Employee 4 – *'Somebody that can listen to you and that you can approach quite easily and not feel that they haven't got the time to listen to you'*

Employee 6 – *'Probably enthusiastic, good listener'*

Employee 8 – *'I think you need to have someone who can deal with all sorts of people'*

Employee 12 – *'I would actually agree with that, I think somebody who's got the time to listen, they actually do try and motivate you as well so they're able to turn a negative feeling into a positive'*

When asked if there were any aspects of the coaching programme that could have been done better or improved the participants referred to the slimming down of the coaching programme in latter years particularly the lack of a continuous follow-up through ongoing initiatives such as Level 2 training, master classes and accreditation processes.

Employee 2 – *‘There should be ongoing coaching that you need to be doing – you need to have at least one person, instead of doing 6 people when you first come out, do one person a month and then you’ve got a whole year of just ongoing training and coaching.*

Employee 4 – *‘I think once you’ve done your coaching session then that’s it, you’re sort of forgotten, it’s left. If you could have follow-up sessions and then go on and coach somebody else’*

Finally the participants were asked if there were any other comments they would like to make in relation to their coaching experiences and the coaching programme overall. The major points related to the quality of the coaching programme including the impact of coaching particularly in motivational terms around self confidence and self belief.

Employee 2 – *‘I think the fact that we had coaching on a regular basis like a week or a month and it was like “These are the things we brought up last month – did you actually look at doing those? What were the consequences; did it benefit you or have a negative effect? Will you do it again in the future; is it something you want to do long term?”*

Employee 3 – *‘It (coaching) made you actually question yourself and you almost came away thinking have I got a little voice in my head telling me I can’t do that – but the reality was that you could do it’*

Employee 4 – *‘I think it is (gives you) self-belief that you can do the role and you can do it efficiently, get your sales and your targets and everything’*

Employee 9 – *‘It (coaching) gives you a lot of self-confidence, gives you a belief in yourself’*

Employee 11 – *‘I found by going on it, in some areas I probably lacked a bit of confidence but it gave me the confidence’*

4.7.2.1 Comment upon Findings from Employees’ (Coachees’) Final Reflections

The participants had a broad view of what coaching meant within the organisation yet referred to coaching being part of the broader learning and development approach as

well as being an activity specific to the individual and their manager. The accreditation system appeared to be responsible for the high level of coaching in previous years. Whilst there was a unanimous view that participants received little or no coaching currently, any coaching that was taking place was driven by the performance management system. However it would appear that coaching was no longer the dominant leadership approach within the performance management system.

Despite coaching activity reducing there was still a unanimous view that when coaching was undertaken it was beneficial, particularly in job related performance and personal motivational areas. The stated desirable attributes of a coach concurred with previously stated findings of the research; these were primarily listening, motivational and relationship interpersonal skills.

4.7.3 Managers' (Coaches') Perspective

Interviews were held with eight managers between late October 2008 and January 2009 selected from a pool of available managers, all of whom had attended the coaching skills programme and achieved accreditation. The interviews aimed to ask the managers to reflect on the coaching programme in the context of time and learning and provide a way in which to look back on the coaching programme as a whole and take a reflective standpoint. The interviews were based on a semi-structured framework to encourage discussion yet retain a focus on the key areas previously discussed with employees (coachees) in the respective discussion groups held earlier in the month (Appendix 8). The discussions were recorded and a transcription produced to enable further analysis. A summary of the discussions including specific quotations to illustrate key points follows.

Final Reflective Sessions – Managers' (Coaches') Perspective

The first area discussed was the meaning of coaching in an organisational sense. Unlike the views expressed in the coachees' discussion groups there was a more specific and defined view of coaching, as a way to enable their reports to develop ideas through focused questions yet it was not just undertaken in one-to-one sessions but also a leadership approach or style supported by techniques.

Interviewee A – *'I suppose in coaching the one thing you do learn is that you're not putting the words in the other person's mouth'*

Interviewee B – *'The actual coaching models were quite structured and supportive so the T grow model is a particular one that stands out as quite a simplistic but simple format to take you through a coaching interview'*

Interviewee F – *'The coaching training challenged my overall leadership style which had been (up to then) highly tasked focused'*

When asked to consider the time they spend on coaching staff, participants expressed the view that coaching was now only undertaken during the scheduled performance management sessions and then intermittently, whereas previously when the coaching programme was being rolled out the level, the level of coaching activity was conducted on a weekly basis. The participants were asked to consider the reasons for this and the prime reason given was time pressures.

Interviewee A – *'Once the accreditation system finished there was not the discipline to undertake coaching on a regular basis'*

Interviewee G – *'Coaching is still used to assist sales development though time pressures often mean that it's more about performance monitoring and management'*

The participants were asked to consider whether there were any benefits from coaching in their experience. The major benefits were seen to be improvement outcomes in job related performance areas, better teamwork and a way in which to enable employees to contribute thinking and add value.

Interviewee C – *'...so it (coaching) encourages better teamwork because they've gone out of that office feeling good about themselves or relieved that they've been able to talk to somebody and I think sometimes that gives them other ways of thinking or developing their thinking'*

Interviewee E – *'Sales increased due to an improved attitude and a better focus'*

Interviewee G – *'I think performance coaching – certainly this environment (sales focused) that we work in now has got to be a topic that it adds real value'*

Interviewee H – *'Improved personal relationships and morale'*

When asked to consider the current priority the organisation places on coaching there was agreement that the current emphasis is now dictated by individual managers rather than from an organisational strategic perspective. Whilst there was a view that many managers felt that the coaching programme prescribed the level of coaching activity both qualitatively and quantitatively, and that this approach created a certain amount of resistance which resulted in certain extreme positions, with some managers being advocates and other managers not complying.

However the current ad hoc approach had resulted in a fragmented coaching approach which resulted in those managers in the middle possibly joining the ranks of non coaching activists.

Interviewee B – *‘There is still an ongoing coaching philosophy but not consistently across the board’*

Interviewee E – *‘There are many managers who have continued to adopt a coaching approach yet it’s less a corporate approach now and many managers have gone back to just telling staff what to do’*

4.7.3.1 Comment upon Findings from Managers’ (Coaches’)

Final Reflections

The managers had a more specific view of coaching than the line report employees particularly in the sense of engaging their team members in the resolution of issues and problems. There was a clear view that coaching was beneficial in terms of performance related areas such as sales as well as the potential for improving motivational commitment and engagement. Despite this positive view of coaching there was a recognition that coaching was not being conducted to the levels of previous years primarily due to time constraints coupled with a reduction in the level of priority given to coaching by the organisation.

4.7.4 Comparative Discussion of Final Reflections of Employees (Coachees) and Managers (Coaches)

The reflective sessions provided an opportunity to discuss the implementation and impact of coaching on the organisation from a qualitative viewpoint both in terms of coaches and coachees. There appeared to be a clearer understanding of the meaning and purpose of coaching from the managerial participants. Although the employee line reports had differing views, including viewing coaching as a broad training approach, there was recognition that coaching covered areas of skills, knowledge, behaviours and emotions. The benefits of coaching were described by coachees as covering personal motivation and self confidence through achieving improved sales and service outcomes. Similarly the coaches stated that the biggest benefit related to performance in the job as well as more effective team working and improved relationships.

Despite the unanimously positive view of coaching from both managers and employee reports, both groups recognised that the level of coaching activity had greatly reduced since 2006 when the coaching programme had been reduced to cover only new manager skills-based training with systemised coaching accreditation activity dropped for other managers. This had appeared to initially create a legacy of coaching knowledge and active practise in areas of coaching advocacy, driven by the respective manager's leadership style and their views on the value of coaching. However this was not the case across the organisation and reduced over time. Once the organisational priority for coaching was reduced and the supporting systemised structures and controls removed or ignored, the perennial barriers to coaching, such as time and personal leadership style preferences, impacted adversely on the application of leadership coaching.

The reflective sessions sought to establish the reflective views of both employees (coachees) and managers (coaches) from an historical perspective within a topical context. It is recognised that the passage of time and the state of the current situation, as at the time of the discussion groups and interviews, would impact to some degree or extent on the reflective views given. It was recognised within the research framework that the narrative data would possibly be subject to several multiple interpretations

whether from a manager, employee or researcher perspective and the passage of time and current context may impact upon any captured narrative. Notwithstanding the research aimed to capture the narrative in specific terms so as to enable a reflective analysis and interpretation based on the individual's views expressed through dialogue (Guba and Lincoln, 1989).

4.8 Supplementary Data from External Reviews and Benchmarking

It was noted in section 3.4.10 of the research methodology that some additional insights were to be sought from other supplementary data. The data was not planned to be a central plank of the argument or analyses but it was hoped that it might serve to add richness, illustrate or corroborate other findings. Whilst all of the primary research data was taken from within the case study parameters, the researcher also gained access to data and resources which had an external focus. At a higher macro level this included data related to the European Foundation Quality Management (EFQM) Business Excellence model which was used to gather and document progress via several measures including external awards. For example the case study organisation gained recognition in the prestigious EFQM UK awards in 2005, was listed in the top 3 ranked organisations for race and diversity strategies in the UK by Race for Opportunity (Kerr, 2005) and achieved the Award for Employee Engagement in 2005/2006 (British Quality Foundation, 2008). In total the case study organisation was recognised by over 100 external awards over the research period in several terms of definition covering customer service, business achievement, community initiatives, quality standards, HR strategy and practices, employee development and equality and diversity. Within the research paradigm these awards indicated no more or less than that the case study organisation was recognised by many leading trade and government sponsored associations as being a 'best practice' organisation across a range of factors. However there is a case to argue that the potential for positive impact of a coaching programme on a high performing organisation could be considered to be less than on a lesser performing organisation with higher potential for improvement.

Data was also gathered from Hemsley Fraser (2004), the owners of the 9Factors™ Methodology, which helped to inform the development of the research tools, including

survey questionnaires, and enabled comparison with other organisations which had used the same 9Factors™ Methodology survey approach. One interesting aspect of this review showed that the average 9Factors™ Methodology survey rating for all organisations that used the survey model during the research period totalled 2.9, and of those organisations who had gained the Investor in People standard 3.2, both of which were below the case study organisation's average rating of 3.41. This would indicate that the management employee practices within the case study organisation consistently resulted in a higher motivational response from its employees when compared to the majority of other organisations using the 9Factors™ Methodology model.

At a lower micro level, data was gathered from 76 members of the College of Executive Coaching during a seminar address (Turner, 2004) and other external management groups to informally compare the findings with those of the case study. 'High Street' interviews were also facilitated in partnership with Vox Pops International (2005) which included asking members of the public a set of questions on their coaching experiences, if any, of coaching and these interviews were video recorded to enable later analysis. From a comparison viewpoint this external data provided a different perspective and a useful backdrop to the case study research and provided insightful reflection.

The data gathered from managers in other organisations generally followed the patterns and findings of the data around the coaching relationship experience from the case study research, including barriers, key skills and behaviours. This data would seem to indicate that the experiences and views of the employees in the case study organisation were broadly similar to the wider employee population based on the data gathered from employees of the external organisations involved, which covered different sectors including retail, financial services and housing. However there was a divergence of opinion around the benefits of coaching as those employees from other organisations did not rate coaching as highly in terms of benefits nor did they feel they had ready access to such coaching. Arguably this would not present a surprising view in that the case study organisation had the benefit of an action learning research framework enabling changes to be made on an ongoing basis which included several

interventions designed to evaluate the impact of coaching and generally encourage a coaching culture.

The external feedback was obtained from managers who had undergone coaching skills development but did not have the benefit of other broader supportive strategies to encourage ongoing coaching development and linking coaching practice to business outcomes. Therefore the more positive image presented of the coaching programme by employees of the case study organisation concerning access to and benefits from coaching, is likely to be due to the emphasis placed on strategies to support access and the targeting of benefits through the follow-up processes designed to embed coaching into the case study organisation's overall leadership culture.

There was an interesting diversity of opinion when comparing the data gathered from those operating in the capacity of external 'professional coaches' who delivered coaching to organisations. The views of professional coaches did vary in some areas of the research to the views of employees of organisations who received coaching from external coaches. The views of the 'professional' coaches on the benefits derived from coaching were much more positive than the views of those managers in other organisations than the case study organisation who received coaching from external coaches. This is arguably not surprising given the immediacy of the feedback given to professional coaches following a coaching intervention and a general view of coaching impact expressed some time after a coaching intervention.

The limitations of the supplementary external data gathered from peer companies (via their managers and employees) and industry organisations is acknowledged yet is considered valuable in that such data enabled a peer review, check and cross comparison which, as part of a wider methodology using other methods such as triangulation and prolonged engagement, helped to enhance the rigour, robustness and trustworthiness of the research data (Padgett, 1998).

Chapter 5 Discussion

5.1 An Overview

This chapter of the thesis brings together comparative conversations explored in previous chapters with an emphasis on the current and emerging context, both from academic and practitioner viewpoints, with the aim of enhancing the interpretation of the research findings. The findings have created opportunities to develop learning in terms of interpretative organisational applied coaching approaches which are presented as a distillation of insights and outputs within an action research framework with the intention of contributing to existing knowledge and helping to resolve practical issues faced by organisations and their managers in terms of developing a coaching culture. This enabled the development of a processual framework that included the Cultural Change Levers model, a strategic view based on a grounded theory perspective of the various interactions (Figure O); an operational approach to organisational coaching (Appendix 10) and a specific coaching tool, the 9R Coaching Model (Appendix 11) for line managers to use.

A major challenge to achieving such learning and establishing the value or otherwise of coaching strategies and/or interventions in the form of cultural change and performance outcomes/measures has been the difficulty in gaining research opportunities that span a substantive or valid time period, i.e. a longitudinal approach which enables an historical context (Denzin, 1978). Based on the literature search within this research, a large majority of studies on coaching in the workplace, whether via formal academic routes or through commercially driven surveys, have been based over a relatively short period with some even representing a 'snapshot' in time. The ability within this research to span a seven year period in an organisation's life presented challenges yet, more importantly, significant opportunities to gain learning over an appropriate and valid time span, and one which is fitting in view of the cultural aspects. To achieve this position required the researcher to consider the research from several perspectives including those of the employees of the case study

organisation and the organisation in a broader context, that is, the Board, Executive team and other stakeholders.

This latter aspect of an organisational perspective required a mutually beneficial approach to the development of the research framework which required the researcher to consider ways in which to align the research with the specific coaching needs of organisation, for example through the development of coaching and business performance, reflecting the organisation's culture and language within the outputs of the research. This is a concept that has been present in the research field of organisational coaching, driven as it is by understanding and integrating the organisation's thinking or in other words the dominant logic of the organisational environment (Fitzgerald and Howcroft, 1998); but not always to the extent required to facilitate evidence-based data in terms that can be applied constructively in both academic and practitioner areas. This is supported by Grant and Cavanagh (2004), who raised several questions in terms of organisational coaching programmes which fit within a research framework and asserted that there are key tasks still to be tackled in the research area of coaching, namely further defining the nature of coaching, elaboration of rigorous, coherent and theoretically grounded approaches and the development of a solid empirical research base.

On a different but related theme Grant and Zackon (2004) concluded that it would be increasingly important to investigate the skill levels of coaches. These views and other academic inputs identified by the literature search and review were considered closely at the commencement of and throughout this research and such perspectives and insights have helped to further the development of learning within a coaching context including the areas of definitions, approaches and skills.

Whilst these perspectives and insights have arisen within a research framework of a singular case study approach, the study has benefited from a review of other academically structured studies and informal practitioner driven reviews of external coaching practice. The researcher, whilst acknowledging the critical importance of academic views and inputs around the progression of coaching research including the need for rigour and robustness in determining insights into the deployment of coaching within the workplace, also wished to gain an appreciation of other stakeholders in the

coaching mix, particularly those with an interest in the workplace context of coaching. One way of gaining such an appreciation was through opportunities to compare and contrast the findings from this research with surveys on coaching, largely driven by trade associations, commercial enterprises and government departments or funded bodies e.g. ENTO; so as to gain a wider perspective, which is arguably a more commercially driven approach aimed as it is at the commercial marketplace and practitioners. Many such surveys on coaching have been undertaken in recent years in line with the increasing popularity of coaching in the workplace and these were extensively reviewed so as to enable this research to be compared and contrasted within the wider business arena and so provide a parallel longitudinal context to external research data to complement the case study research data, gathered as it was over a similar time frame.

In the pre research study period there was evidence that coaching activity was on the increase in the UK's workplaces. The Coaching at Work UK survey in 2002 identified a near two-fold increase in organisational coaching since 1996. It was further claimed that coaching activity was undertaken in the majority of UK organisations and that this activity was driven by organisational structural change, staff motivation, manager demand, staff retention and the development of 'soft' emotional skills; with larger companies more likely than smaller companies to have a formal coaching programme. A survey by the Work Foundation (Kubicek, 2002) identified several findings including that senior staff were more likely to receive coaching, the majority of organisations did not have a strategy linked to a coaching programme, a confusion between coaching and mentoring, and that most organisations used a non-directive coaching model, with the GROW model being the most popular. Those businesses which used coaching as a development tool primarily did so to improve individual performance and personal development. These findings painted a rich picture of coaching activity as the research study began its life and to a varying extent resonated in many ways with the way in which the case study organisation viewed coaching. The overall themes seemed to be of general confusion in terms of strategy and implementation, a 'pick and mix' approach to coaching activity and little evidence of organisational coaching in its wider sense of linking to leadership style, culture and HR systems and processes. All of these features were evident in the case study organisation's approach to coaching prior to the research period and, as such,

created an opportunity to develop an action research framework by which to develop more strategic and 'best fit' coaching approaches designed to achieve the desired high performance culture.

A consistent feature of survey data on coaching in the workplace are the learning and development surveys produced by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development and these were referenced before the commencement of and throughout the period of the research, that is from 1999 to 2010 (IPD, 1999; IPD, 2000; CIPD, 2001; CIPD, 2002; CIPD, 2003; CIPD, 2004a; CIPD, 2005a; CIPD, 2006; CIPD, 2007a; CIPD, 2008, CIPD, 2009a, CIPD, 2010) and a survey on organisational coaching (CIPD, 2007b). These surveys showed coaching and mentoring becoming increasingly popular and moving to become the third most popular training method in the UK in 2007; remaining there in 2008 behind on-the-job training and traditional face-to-face training, with coaching by line managers seen to be used more since 2007 than any other learning and development practice and overall second to in-house development programmes, as well as being seen to be the most effective development approach with the exception of in-house training programmes.. Coaching (47%) moved to second place to in-house development programmes (48%) in terms of the most effective learning and talent development programmes in 2009 and retained this position in 2010 (in-house training programmes 56% compared to coaching at 51%). One major challenge to this perceived rise in coaching activity was the level of agreement and understanding as to what coaching means both in academic and practitioner terms.

A review of the CIPD 2004 survey by Parsloe (2004) commented on the increase in coaching activity and highlighted that the biggest area of coaching activity was performance and skills coaching followed by developmental coaching and executive coaching, with most coaching activity focused on middle managers. Parsloe raised the issue of understanding the notion of coaching when challenging the survey's finding that 95% of managers claimed to be coaching in some form, yet despite all of this activity the majority of organisations had no formal written strategy for coaching activities and did not train their managers in coaching skills. He concluded there was an increasing interest and usage of coaching yet asserted there was little evidence to suggest that coaching in organisations was an integrated aspect of performance

management and related development activities, with confusion clearly evident in terms of the definition of coaching and concerns about the lack of regulation, commitment of senior management and skills training. In the post Parsloe review period there is no strong evidence to suggest that such confusion has been resolved and indeed many aspects of this research support his views on such confusion of practice.

Notwithstanding such confusion of coaching practice in the workplace, the CIPD (2008) survey showed that coaching activity, in whatever form defined by the participants, continued to be used by the vast majority of participant organisations (71%) and managers (80%) who responded to the survey stating that they used coaching in some way. Whilst this survey showed that most participant organisations undertook coaching activities and a similar proportion of organisations (72%) found coaching to be an effective tool, there appeared still to be signs that training in coaching skills to line managers remained low. Interestingly the most favoured purpose for implementing coaching related to arguably a more positive stance based on personal and leadership development, with the more historic reasons such as poor performance and behavioural change just behind. However the major reasons for coaching continued to be transactional rather than transformational with objectives generally being confined solely to micro aspects within individual areas rather than being linked to macro aspects such as strategic objectives through an overarching HR framework. Although 72% of organisations believed coaching to be effective the evaluation of the effectiveness of coaching remained anecdotal driven and perception based as only 8% of organisations claimed to evaluate coaching in a more formal way. The main methods used for evaluating the effectiveness of coaching were reported as through observation of changes and reviews of objectives conducted with line managers, coach and coachee.

The CIPD (2009a) survey generally provided similar survey results to the 2008 survey although the respondents using coaching fell to 69%. Despite such high levels only 25% of respondents agreed that coaching is the predominant leadership style in their organisation possibly a result of only 36% of respondents stating that in-depth coaching training is given to managers in their organisation. The CIPD (2010) survey for 2010 reported an increase in coaching activity with 56% of organisations stating

coaching was used more than in the previous year and 82% of organisations stating that coaching is used, although it was noted that bigger companies (i.e. more than 250 employees) used it more (86%) than SME's (62%). The latest 2010 survey indicated that evaluation of coaching was on the increase with 36% of organisations evaluating yet only 44% of these evaluation approaches related to business measures.

These surveys, attempting as they do to take the pulse of coaching activity in the workplace, raise more questions than answers yet whilst doing so would appear to reinforce other theoretical discourses discussed in previous chapters and the findings of this research in respect of learning in a range of areas particularly in terms of performance outcomes, evaluation frameworks, strategic leadership and managerial coaching behaviour. The latter theme was discussed by Winkler (2008) who reviewed the findings of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2008) survey, in particular the increased demand for line managers to coach, and questioned how managers would respond to further pressure being placed on their role and how organisations would react to the need for evaluation of coaching activity particularly when only two in five respondent organisations claimed to link coaching to their overall learning and development strategy.

Across a range of surveys similar findings were evident with an emerging issue of the need for improved evaluation. The business drivers of coaching have continued to focus on performance, organisational change and supporting ongoing learning and development; yet more and more organisations are linking to employee job satisfaction, motivation and commitment as well as cultural change, the latter topic being a key focus of this research. The main barriers to developing a coaching culture were reported to be a lack of internal skills and experience, investment and resources, senior management commitment, measurable benefits and a failure to integrate coaching into the wider HR strategy; again these views are supported by this research. Confidence in the effectiveness of traditional learning resource centres appears to be falling with more flexible methods of delivery such as in house programmes, coaching and on-the-job training being seen as the most effective of all delivery methods. The potential for coaching in this activity area of training is self-evident and this is evidenced by coaching experiencing the largest increase in usage over the last few years, even ahead of e-learning. Whilst this research reinforces the view provided by

surveys of business practitioners, such that the demand for coaching and mentoring is seen to continue to be high in the future, there appears to be a slowing of demand forecast for external coaching. The trend for an increase in internal coaching was noted throughout the period of this research and indeed was a significant element of the reasons for this research. However the increase in the pace of such usage is high with a strong emphasis by organisations for their line managers to adopt coaching behaviours.

The focus on the need for line managers to coach continues to grow yet this emphasis is beginning to be questioned more widely. The use of coaching techniques by line managers was explored by Howe (2008) who challenged the view that line managers can deliver transformational coaching interventions citing the problems in establishing rapport, emotional intelligence, boundary issues, motives and time constraints whilst questioning the reason for the unwillingness by organisations to fully evaluate coaching. These barriers are identified as issues within this research. Whilst these challenges are recognised by the researcher and supported by the research findings, the research has produced a view, including insights, of organisational coaching from a humanistic perspective, that is of the line manager coaching in the workplace rather than from a subject driven perspective, that is coaching as a broad developmental technique; and a paradigm that seeks to understand how best coaching can be utilised by line managers with an emphasis on the context, moulding the coaching offering to the needs of the line manager and their reports rather than seeking to fit the line manager into a puristical concept of coaching or indeed any other concept of coaching that does not have a perspective driven by the line manager role.

By adopting this paradigm, that is the nature of coaching within a line manager's role, it is recognised that the nature of the role of the line manager raises issues and barriers to effective coaching; many of which are contextual and which, based on the findings of this research, suggest that these barriers can be best ameliorated by adopting a range of strategies such as the prevalence of setting objectives at an organisational level, the positioning of coaching within the learning and development strategy, defining the role of HR in the coaching process, clarifying the role of line managers, the provision of both skills and behavioural learning support, evaluating the impact of coaching at an organisational level, and the use of internal and external coaches. The contextual

perspective of coaching in the workplace has been explored by many including Parsloe (1999), Caplan (2003), Cox (2003), Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005a, b) and the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2009c). These discussions together with the work of other commentators and researchers have provided valuable insights for organisations seeking to develop their coaching approaches over recent years.

The increase in coaching activity has left many organisations seeking either an assurance that their current practices are effective or that any new practices will be; with generally three broad approaches being applied or considered, that is, centralised and structured, tailored middle ground and organic and emergent. This research study would indicate that there are benefits to be gained from all three approaches. With the latter approach however there would appear to be a high risk of inconsistency, dysfunctional behaviours and reductionism inherent in the organic and emergent approach and a high likelihood of failure in terms of developing an holistic high performance coaching approach. Similarly the tailored middle ground offers a way forward to achieve benefits yet runs the risk of falling between high and low adaptation due to increased flexibility within the model. The structured centralised approach again creates opportunities to achieve a consistent and validated approach to coaching implementation yet runs the risk of curtailing flexible organic developments through inflexibility.

This research programme focused on a case study organisation that arguably adopted an approach consisting of an organic/emergent and a structured centralised approach rather than a tailored middle ground approach. This approach was beneficial in achieving significant benefits yet once the centralised support structures were removed or reduced and with it the organic learning inputs to drive improvement, the application of coaching activity also fell away in many areas leading to less focus on leadership coaching behaviours and a reversal in the cultural trend of the organisation, a reduced impact of outputs from coaching interventions and a correlatory decrease in employee motivation. The research findings would indicate that organisations cannot stockpile employee engagement as can be done with other more tangible commodities. This would lead to the conclusion that whatever approach or combination of

approaches is utilised there is a need for a sustainable overarching framework to maintain the quality and quantity of coaching activity and related benefits.

Based on this central finding, this research has identified learning which has enabled strategies, approaches and models to be explored in such a way that offers evidence-based interventions to support the development, implementation and sustainability of a coaching culture within the workplace. The researcher reflected upon this research against a backdrop of other research in the field of coaching and this illustrated several areas of learning and provided richer insights through doing so.

5.2 Research Learning in the Context of Other Work

Organisational coaching research could broadly be described as falling into three methodological categories: qualitative investigations into the coaching relationship; quantitative research designed to identify empirical evidence; and a mix of both methodologies. The latter approach was chosen for this case study research to provide a perspective on coaching behaviours and relationships as well as the value of coaching outputs.

In adopting such a paradigm this research acknowledged the argument that the increasing usage of coaching in organisations is expensive and this has led to a demand for a return on investment approach. The long term nature and variability of behavioural change presented challenges to identifying return on investment outputs, yet the nature of the case study research required such aspects to be considered. Conversely a research methodology strongly emphasising the quantitative aspects risked not offering sufficient insight and learning into the reasons for such outputs in terms of the behavioural aspects of the participants in the coaching programme gained through a qualitative perspective. Against this background the researcher developed a methodology based on a blend of quantitative and qualitative approaches designed to achieve a balanced set of findings.

The researcher was influenced by the methodological approaches utilised in research work identified within the literature search thus providing contextually relevant inputs

which enabled refinement of the chosen methodology as well broadening and deepening coaching specific knowledge. Whilst this research study was predominantly centred upon managers coaching in the workplace, the research considered the different aspects of organisational coaching and has arguably benefited from a broader perspective. The development of coaching within the workplace has often been considered from a professional coaching perspective rather than from a manager's perspective, a role which brings with it the imperatives and distractions of managing in a modern organisation.

There are examples of the manager's perspective being adopted in research studies and these explored the major influences on the discipline of coaching within an organisational context and certain conclusions can be drawn as to the meaning and development of organisational coaching as a genre of coaching. Whilst appreciating the learning aspects of these studies, the scarcity of empirically based organisational case studies makes it difficult to draw wider conclusions on the impact of coaching on an individual employee's performance linked to organisational benefits. Notwithstanding several studies have provided in various ways quantitative and qualitative assessments, including the work of Glaser (1958) in relation to staff turnover, higher sales and greater team motivation; Mold (1951) who identified the manager's interpersonal skills as a key priority to establishing a coaching culture; Bridgeman, Spaethe, Driscoll and Fanning (1958) who used a grounded theory approach in a study of sales managers; Evered and Selman (1989) who asserted that coaching can impact positively on workplace environment and performance; Strayer and Rossett (1994) who identified benefits in terms of sales and staff satisfaction; Peterson (1996) and Diedrich (1996), who both utilised 360 degree feedback and identified benefits relating to interpersonal behaviours and Ellinger and Bostrom (1999), who concluded that coaching was perceived by managers to be an important facilitative approach to employee development.

There was a general consensus of opinion that the coaching programme had a significant impact on the organisation through a change in management behaviour. However there was deemed to be a lack of consistency across the organisation due to several functional areas not embracing coaching in terms of senior leaders not role modelling coaching behaviour. The paradoxical nature of the several managers'

viewpoints is revealed when there is resistance to the structured process that ensured a certain level of coaching occurred and yet an acceptance that without such a process coaching would not generally have been undertaken. In an external contextual sense these findings are broadly in line with external surveys conducted across several organisations and countries (Blessing White, 2004, 2005a, 2009).

The views on desirable characteristics were generally in line with the views of the participant pool of coachees referred to in section 4.4.2 earlier with the exception of an increased emphasis on challenge within coaching conversations. The need to support the level of challenge with skilful conversation as identified by several commentators including Zeus and Skiffington (2000), Starr (2003), Downey (2003), Keane and Parsloe (2001) and Hardingham (2004), is an area which would often prove difficult to achieve due to a combination of factors identified as barriers to coaching including time constraints, skills and knowledge.

This research developed findings that built on previous research during a period of evolutionary thinking around organisational coaching. From these findings developed the theme of the value of strategic approaches to coaching and then strengthened the theme through the identification of coaching processes (Gale, Liljenstrand, Pardieu and Nebeker, 2002), which in practice either enhanced or diffused the effectiveness of coaching in the workplace.

The research findings provide support for the view expressed by O'Shaughnessy (2001) that whilst the application of coaching and related processes offers the potential for incremental improvements both on an individual and organisational basis, there is no one 'silver bullet' for coaching to transform a culture. However the research indicated that culture can be transformed towards an environment conducive to high performance both at individual, team and organisational levels. The research identified a three dimensional approach to achieving this cultural transformation. Firstly by focusing on *individual* leaders within organisations commencing with the 'top team', a transformational leadership coaching style can be created to drive behavioural change. Secondly the role modelling coaching behaviour of the senior leadership team creates a transformational momentum maximising individual performance through *team* development and facilitation. Thirdly the *organisational*

dimension provides the framework to nurture and foster the high performance culture through the development of several organisational specific 'silver bullets' which are designed to be supportive of and add value to, the coaching processes. The case study environment enabled such learning to be identified.

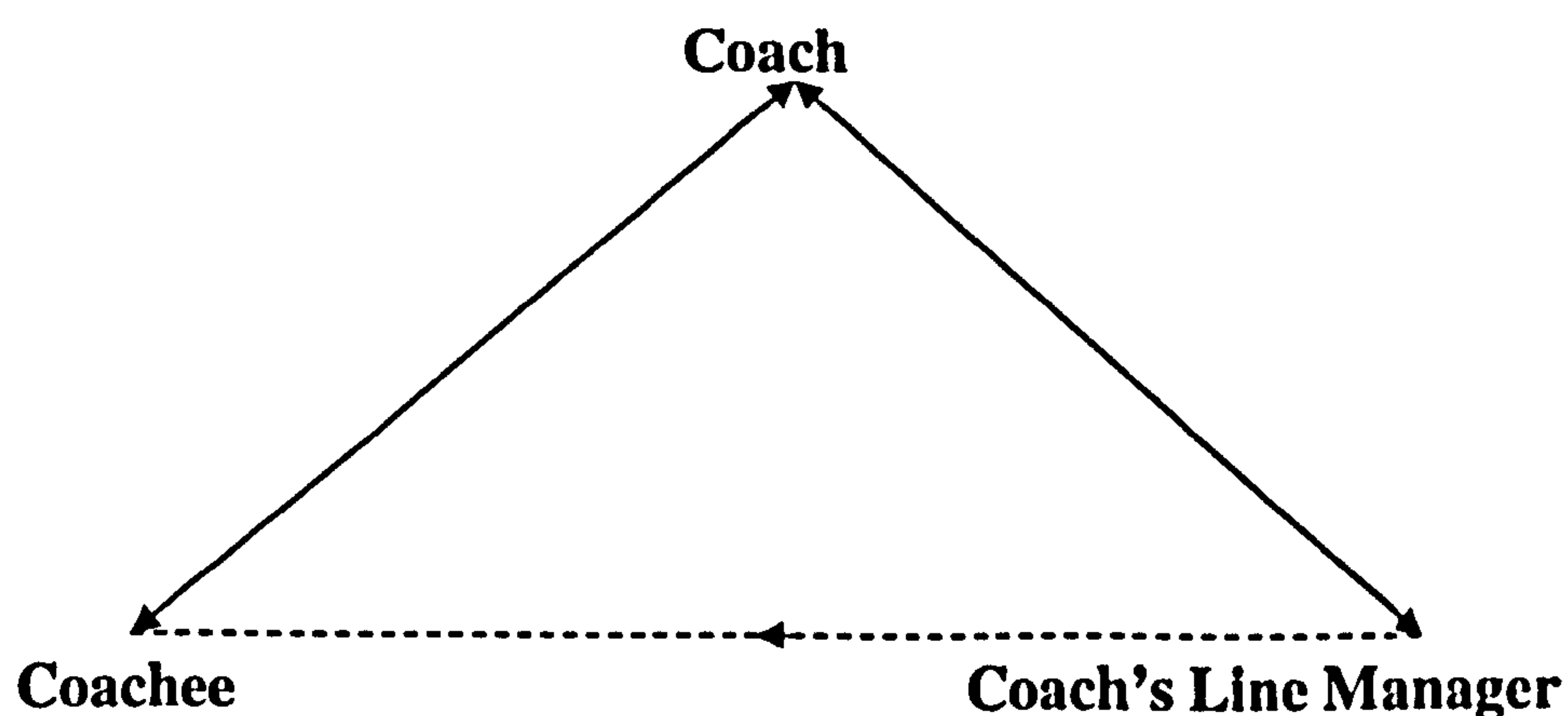
The literature review provided input to enable those aspects not covered by the case study environment to be considered, for example a study across international boundaries by Clutterbuck (2006) who identified the potential to underestimate the importance of strategy, flexibility within centralised control and the impact of cultural differences. Within the case study it was recognised that employee cultural differences existed across age, gender, ethnicity and socio-economic backgrounds. The case study organisation offered a range of interrelationships that is characteristic of the financial services sector and other sectors which have similar hierarchical structures, employee profiles, cultural elements and strategic approaches, all of which supported the concept of generalisation (Yin, 1984). However it was recognised that the social construction of the case study and the relationship driven nature of coaching provided a complex backdrop to the research and one which would challenge generalisability yet offer potential for transferability (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

The use of coaching within this case study to support the integration of learning into corporate strategy, in terms of moving in some way from conventional training courses to an informal ongoing learning process, is in line with several previous studies (Bracey, 2005; Kubicek, 2004a; Wageman, 1997) which support findings that coaching works best as a behavioural based intervention which is part of a strategic learning initiative. The work of Bagshaw (1998) who referred to a two-stranded coaching and mentoring approach aligned to the needs of the individual and organisation, could be seen as recognising the impact of a manager's role on coaching activity in a changing work environment which may require 'flatter' management structures in 'downsized' organisations particularly during times of recession.

The theme of alignment coaching was developed in this research in a different way; at a transactional level that is coaching delivery and at a transformational level and this dual micro and macro approach was a core principal of the case study organisation's coaching model. The development of a transformational approach was discussed by

Redshaw (2000) who considered dysfunctional implementation was due to misalignment of coaching activity to organisational factors and argued that to be effective, organisational coaching programmes require a supportive culture with a high level of trust existing between managers and team members. The nature of trust is by its very essence a fragile emotion and whilst the case study organisation adopted a positivistic approach to the development of trust; various events impacted upon this both positively and negatively, which in turn affected the relationships between the employee, manager and the organisation. The nature of coaching in the workplace therefore benefits from a triangular view as illustrated by the diagram below.

Figure N. Triangular View of Coaching in the Workplace



The unbroken lines show the flow of the primary direct method of communication between a coach and coachee and a coach and their line manager; the broken lines show the flow of primary indirect communication between the coachee and their coach's line manager. The influence of the coach's line manager, whilst less direct was shown within the case study environment to be influential in the development of a coaching culture within the respective function or territory, either positively through role modelling and supportive behaviours or negatively through indifference or opposition to coaching activity. The flow of interaction and events between a coach, their report (coachee) and their line manager provided an ongoing input into the organisational culture and impacted to different and varying extents on relationship elements such as the level of trust and, as such, were recognised by the researcher as

uncontrollable occurrences which required appropriate consideration when making sense of the findings. The research covered seven annual business periods, however throughout the cycle of the business planning life and the various occurrences, the focus on supportive coaching behaviours within a systematic performance model only remained as an organisational imperative for less than half of this time.

This focus on a consistent approach to coaching implementation over a lengthy period of time is not common as many organisations have viewed coaching as a quick way to achieve improvement through performance management and competency frameworks (Deane, 2001). The case study organisation applied a similar approach yet placed an increased focus on performance outputs. In doing so a conflict between performance management and coaching arose when the performance focus was at odds with a coaching philosophy of personal learning in line with Mobley (1999). The research found that there is benefit in placing an emphasis on a broader approach to coaching in the workplace by consideration of a strategic macro approach incorporating both 'soft' behavioural and 'hard' systematic processes and a personal micro approach which balanced the potentially conflicting or complementary aspects of performance and relationship, a theme considered by Caplan (2003). The balancing of these two 'hard' transactional and 'soft' transformational features was a theme of the research and is mirrored by similar discussions around organisational development (Beer and Nohria, 2000) and leadership (Kotter, 1990). A challenge was often expressed that coaching can encourage a 'hands-off' leadership style resulting in under-managing, yet Tulgan (2004) described under-management as a lack of performance management and concluded that coaching could assist managers to tackle this problem. The research findings supported this view and led to a performance management approach which incorporated coaching strategies such as formal coaching skills training, including an understanding of theoretical frameworks and psychological perspectives to help identify when coaching was not appropriate as well as opportunities to practice coaching skills and interventions (Smith, 2003).

Whilst all of the managers received coaching skills training, only the Directors received coaching from external 'professional' coaches, a process commonly known as executive coaching, which was linked to the executive succession plan and involved a framework of competency development in line with Beckett-Hughes and Clawson

(2003). The research did not provide specific data on the executive coaching activity from the perspective of a 'manager' as a coachee as the perspective of the 'manager' as a coach was adopted. Coaching was generally directed to all employees irrespective of position or any other related employee factors such as high or low performance unlike Minter and Thomas (2000) who proposed different interventions for different employee segments, focusing coaching primarily on the high performing employee. This was considered necessary as there was an organisational requirement to shift performance upwards across the organisation and at all levels, not just around high performance employees or succession strategies. Nyman and Thatch (2002) discussed four major types of organisational coaching, namely performance, holistic work and life balance, content – business specific and the line manager as a coach and change agent. Whilst the latter area could be considered to be more closely aligned to the case study organisation's approach, it could be argued that the other types were also covered, together with relationship building behaviours, within the coaching strategy driven by the specific characteristics of the management team. In doing so the research developed an ambietic organisational approach which encompassed various aspects of coaching designed to improve employee engagement and deliver high performance.

The different roles of the management population spanned over 20 specialist areas, and covered many areas of management that are not generally perceived to be 'people' based including specialist areas in which managerial appointments are often based on technical skills and professional knowledge. Augar and Palmer (2002) focused on how managers can achieve their individual specialist responsibilities as well as motivate their team to achieve high performance levels using coaching to manage processes and people, a theme linked to balancing the transactional and transformational nature of the managerial role. Downey (2003) proposed sharing leadership authority with employees through a facilitative coaching style, rather than the adoption of a 'command and control' management style, whereas Caplan (2003) recognised that coaching as a management style includes taking a directive or 'tell' approach when necessary. This is a particularly important area of the output of this research in that there are particular aspects to the art of coaching as a manager.

The research identified two key challenges to coaching in line with Richards (2003). Firstly a gap between what many coaching practitioners believe coaching to be and what many managers think coaching is, that is from a managerial viewpoint coaching is often perceived to be too time consuming and not related to bottom line performance. This was particularly so for managers who did not place as much emphasis on the 'people' elements of their role and for who time appeared to be a major barrier. Secondly the performance paradox of having to achieve short-term results with a task focus whilst sustaining long term performance through a developmental approach with a reliance on emotional intelligence and 'soft skills'. The pre coaching self awareness training session alleviated some of these behavioural issues in the case study. Social complexities mean change may be emergent and unpredictable rather than linear and programmable and therefore a coach in an organisational context should use reflection and awareness to challenge, educate and support through the concept of being in charge but not in control, balancing advocacy with enquiry, and managing the present while leading the future (Critchley, 2003). This is in line with findings which identified that a positive relationship was generally a necessary precursor for effective coaching between a manager and a line report and that the most effective coaching occurs against a background of a positive and trusting relationship built by a motivational leadership style which embraces both transactional and transformational behaviours (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2008). Additionally the findings identified that the level of senior manager commitment, particularly from the coaches' boss upwards, can have a major impact on the quantity and quality of coaching undertaken.

The case study organisation sought to develop an organisational coaching approach as a strategic transformational initiative through internally delivered coaching, a growing trend illustrated by Ventrone (2005), who referred to companies in the United States which are using internal coaching to deliver more coaching at less cost, and Frisch (2001) in terms of individual developmental intervention supported by the organisation and provided by a colleague. Jarvis, Lane and Fillery-Travis (2006) described three main roles to coaching; technical skills, specialist development, and business change, with an emerging fourth role of supporting the development of a coaching culture. This case study represents a part of the emerging trend towards a

strategic cultural driven approach to designing and implementing organisational coaching programmes and within this context understanding and learning was sought.

The learning was often created through challenges including the unsuitability of certain managers and employees to coach or be coached, a 'flavour of the month' cynicism amongst some employees at all levels, relationship issues, constraints around time and finance and the impact, often negative, of the attitude and behaviour of the coach's line manager to coaching. Some of these findings are in line with Kenton and Moody (2001) who identified time constraints, credibility, knowledge, confidentiality and skill sets; and Wasylyshyn (2003) who referred to issues of coach ability and credibility, trust and confidentiality. This was, in part, tackled by the use of an external coaching consultancy for training senior managers and facilitation of coaching knowledge and skills within the learning and development team, which acted as the providers of centralised coaching resources. This approach was reinforced by Lincoln (2006) who concluded that internal coaching works best with a mix of managers coaching and external coach provision and dependent on the complexity involved, a view supported by this research subject to a 'best fit' approach developed by way of defining and refining coaching approaches, including peer coaching (Sills and Critchley, 2004).

The use of peer coaching was developed primarily for and by those senior managers who were keen to develop their coaching skills outside of their normal line roles or specialist managers who had no, or a limited number of, reports to coach and therefore required coaching time in order to achieve experience and accreditation. There is evidence to suggest that such coaching benefited not only the coach and coachee but also the development of peer relationships within the case study organisation. This finding is reinforced by Kutilek and Earnest (2001) who found that peer coaching was particularly successful over a short time frame although a follow-up system was not deemed necessary to maintain coaching activity, a finding challenged by this research in that the level of coaching activity depended, in most cases, on such systems being in place. The term co-coaching is used when exploring the practice of peer coaching and is described as a sign of coaching being embedded within an organisation's culture (Stern, 2003; Gruhn, 2003), a view that is aligned to the findings of this research, when referring to the use of peer input such as 360 degree feedback which is highly

effective in changing behaviour according to a survey by the Chartered Institute for Management and the Campaign for Learning (2002). Within the reality of the case study environment the development of such practices were not initially welcomed as openly, which is perhaps unsurprising given the difference between offering a view by way of a one-off survey which is completed without any personal implications and a view influenced by the impact upon self and one's workplace. However, when used, 360 degree feedback, coupled with coaching, was generally seen to be effective in facilitating a change in leadership behaviour.

The research supported the findings of Hamlin (2004) who in a study of internal coaching argued that high performance is the result of the interaction between two factors, ability and motivation both of which are moderated by the positive or negative effects of a third factor, environment. In the context of the case study research the findings identified a similar equation to Hamlin's findings with key 'hard' and 'soft' environmental factors such as organisational culture, systems, processes and the attitude of the case study organisation's senior managers. It is argued that coaching interventions often provide the potential for high performance through developing ability and motivation but fail to deliver due to a failure to align the approach to the organisational environment. Hamlin, Ellinger and Beattie (2004) argued that an effective manager is someone who proactively and effectively coaches their staff. This research would suggest that the impact of such coaching will vary dependent upon the skills and abilities of the respective manager, a point reinforced by Lee and Pick (2004) who proposed coach selection. The case study did not allow the choice of coach due to the 'given' that managers already had line reports and therefore cross-matching of coach to coachee was not generally possible. However the potential for a mismatch between a coach and coachee was high due to this factor, an area focused on by Frisch (2005) who identified the coach/coachee relationship as a key variable which could threaten the progress of coaching in organisations. The case study included developmental work with managers around self awareness and relationship skills, including 360 degree feedback, and found that it was generally beneficial to prepare managers, in terms of mindset, for coaching before any skills training was delivered so as to alleviate any negative impact arising from the attitude of coaches and their senior managers.

A leadership change was required from a strongly pro 'command and control' culture to a culture which encouraged empowerment, accountability and feedback at a personal employee level, with coaching behaviours embedded into the leadership 'DNA' of the organisation. This involved a move from a 'no coaching' culture through to the management team displaying transactional coaching behaviours aimed at task management achievement and then onto a values based strategic adoption leading to embedded transformational coaching behaviours being lived within the organisation by many managers on a daily basis. This organisational scenario was considered by Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005a) who identified four stages of development in moving to a coaching culture, namely, *nascent* involving little or no coaching and where coaching exists it is uncoordinated and reactive; *tactical* when coaching is in place but overall commitment is low with little integration of coaching behaviours into management style; *strategic* where there is a high commitment to coaching culture with rewards and punishments for non-compliance and some integration of coaching into formal HR management systems although informal coaching not well developed; and *embedded* when all levels of the organisation are engaged in both formal and informal coaching, with seamless integration into HR management systems. The case study provided several parallels with the work of Clutterbuck and Megginson as evidenced by the commonality of problems and solutions including line manager competence and low confidence, learning sets, inability of employees to be coached and to know when and how to acquire coaching, cultural factors, poor performance management, transference of skill issues, organisational politics and a failure by leaders to role model. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005b) concluded that it was possible to change organisational culture using a coaching style, albeit over a period of time and subject to an integrated strategic coaching approach. Whilst this research supports these findings there is the proviso that to achieve the higher levels of the coaching culture echelons there is a need for a leadership profile which is primarily based on a participative style and a recognition that changes in the management team, both behavioural and positional, may be necessary. Through the identification of the limitations of the coaching strategies adopted in the case study, the findings emphasise the importance of the support of the management team at all levels in terms of commitment, skill, ability, self awareness and role modelling. A lack of buy-in also created a dysfunctional impact on the coaching performance of middle managers due to senior managers not

accepting the leadership coaching mantra. It is argued that more emphasis on behavioural based leadership development to support coaching skills would have been beneficial.

A study by the East London Business School and Rheinische Fachhochschule Cologne (2005) identified a lack of tangible benefits as a critical factor towards of failure of a coaching initiative within an organisational context; a factor addressed within the case study research. Sparrow (2006a) referred to a survey by the Association for Coaching which revealed that only 40% of respondents could point to a quantitative benefit arising from coaching interventions, although the majority of respondents reported perceived significant improvements in motivation and people management areas. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2004c) survey indicated that the most popular evaluative measures were feedback from participants, appraisal systems, employee attitude surveys, exit interviews, assessment against objectives, performance indicators, 360 degree feedback and employee turnover. Redford (2005a) also identified a balanced scorecard evaluative approach. This case study research would challenge the value of many of these measures in application and found that there has been little evidence to date of verifiable outcomes and results based on business objectives in specific business situations. The case study design focused on those evaluative measures that offered a credible linkage to effective coaching incorporating the 'how's' of the coaching relationship as well as a view of the 'what's', in terms of measurable performance outcomes based on coaching activities, an approach different to the 'norm' as a more formal specific return on investment measures is much less used (Gaskell, 2007). It is intended that such evaluative findings will add to the emerging and growing body of research that strongly evidences a range of benefits from coaching to the individual employee, manager and organisation (Grant, 2007).

The case study may aid this move towards evidence-based coaching research as it identified impact relating to return on investment in terms of time, quality and quantity; in line with Jarvis, Lane and Fillery-Travis (2006) who identified similar measurements for evaluating benefits from specific financial areas relating to sales, service and productivity areas. Other arguably less robust coaching studies include the Pyramid Resource Group (2003) which engaged MetrixGlobal LLC to identify financial gains. The coaching is reported to have produced a 529% return on

investment and significant intangible benefits to the business, although the findings were based on a relatively small number of participants and would be difficult to define in replicable terms. A more recent study by Rock and Donde (2008a, b) identified ways of utilising coaching to drive organisational change through training the internal management team rather than hiring external coaches, with stated returns on investment of up to seventeen times cost.

To build on the increasing number of articles highlighting return on investment coaching interventions and alleviate doubts around robustness, the case study research set out to establish the value or otherwise of coaching interventions within a single corporate environment over an extended period and this provided opportunities to establish outcomes, both positive and negative, due to commonalities relating to the participants. In addition to the documented evaluation process the coaching programme also incorporated ongoing coaching support to help employees achieve other goals with less tangible financial outcomes identified within other training programmes not directly linked to the coaching programme. Such a 'training – coaching' approach is acknowledged as having the potential to enhance personal development and achievement. A study by Olivero, Bane and Kopelman (1997) reported that training followed by coaching increased performance by 88% compared with an increase of 22.4% for training alone, and concluded that the most critical elements of the coaching phase were goal setting and public presentation; the latter appeared to have potency due to the acknowledgement of the importance of coaching and related recognition.

The use of goal setting and public acknowledgement is argued by this researcher to be central to effective organisational coaching. Megginson (2007) raised reservations about specific goal setting in coaching in that it could constrain the coaching dialogue and therefore an agreed direction may be more appropriate. This view is acknowledged by the researcher, however within a workplace context there is generally a strong emphasis on goals whether on an individual, team or organisation basis and the case study environment was no exception to this. The transparency of objectives through public presentation was incorporated into the case study coaching programme through the follow-up coaching sessions, which were required to achieve internal accreditation and a necessary pre cursor to managers achieving public

recognition through the presentation of a coaching certificate in front of their peers and senior colleagues. The importance of goal setting and public recognition was strongly acknowledged by the managers in the case study organisation but understandably less so by line reports. The difference in perspectives, that is, the impact on the motivation of the manager compared to the impact on their line employee, is an important factor. The research would indicate that goal setting was generally recognised as a critical element of achievement of outcomes within the coaching process (i.e. 'what's') and public presentation was seen to be a key motivational driver to complete the required number of coaching sessions and achieve accreditation (i.e. 'how's'). The quality of coaching though related to the coaching relationship and consistency and quality aspects.

The research indicated that to achieve the aforementioned critical elements a structured joint coach and coachee evaluative approach was required to validate higher performance and justify the use of coaching interventions. Very often such evaluation of coaching programmes is based solely on beliefs rather than on evidence-based data or a mix of both perspectives and this has led to challenge around the identification of benefits. In another context Rushall (2003) considered belief-based coaching to be a traditional form of coaching based on personal experience and varying levels of knowledge of current coaching practices incorporating pseudo-scientist knowledge, which is at best incomplete and at worst incorrect; and evidence-based coaching as being formed from replicated reputable studies, with fewer but highly predictive guides. Rushall asserted that evidence-based coaching makes predictions that can be verified, whilst belief-based coaching explains why an event occurred and concluded that how much disorder or entropy error is involved in coaching will depend upon the extent to which evidence-based coaching principles and beliefs are involved in coaching. The research design was constructed to capture both perspectives and continuously evaluated evidence-based data related to the inputs, relationships and outcomes from the coaching sessions so as to help develop an action-based continuous improvement cycle. The importance of the beliefs of participants was also captured as it was acknowledged that beliefs shaped the overall culture and the view of coaching in terms of performance benefit.

The performance measurement of coaching activity within this research was important as profit was the dominant organisational goal, albeit through a social process founded on employee development and personal achievement. This perspective is supported by a study undertaken by Sparrow and Arnott (2004), which identified that many organisations do not use or maintain a coaching strategy due partly to a failure to identify benefits and that the more systematic the approach the more likely that positive business outcomes will be achieved. These assertions reinforce the findings of this research which found that a systematic approach maintained the momentum of the coaching culture and in so doing resulted in benefits relating to individual performance as driven by direct links to coaching activity and an increase in employee engagement levels framed within a corollary perspective. The researcher would argue that the corollary aspects are no less important particularly as the impact of management behaviour on employee engagement in a corollary context is a theme of much recent research as well the view that an organisational leadership doctrine influenced by human motivational and relationship driven approaches is a driver of organisational performance. There are examples of other correlative links although most of these examples are anecdotal or restrictive in terms of rigour and other factors such as time. Nevertheless such examples provide an illustrative background, for example the reported increase in employee engagement ratings from 55% to 70% in two years at Britvic, which was asserted to be aligned to an increase in leadership behavioural ratings from 51% to 72% over the same period (Johnson, 2008); a similar finding to this research in relation to the correlative links between employee engagement and leadership behaviour.

However this research also identified that sustainability of performance required sustainability of behaviour and, as such, behavioural change began to reverse when the impact of the supporting structures waned. Once such structures and systems were dismantled or left to run unaided then the coaching culture began to implode and break off into differing directions; whereas when coaching was at its peak of effectiveness, there was arguably a culture based on a common leadership coaching style. When this culture was left to develop without a controlling coaching structure there was an inevitable move away from the focus on common core coaching behaviours and this led to a disjunctive phase when the organisation's leadership style was left to develop outside of the coaching ethos. This finding supports the argument that an

organisational leadership coaching approach backed up by a holistically structured framework consisting of appropriate elements is required to sustain the quality of impact of coaching and to maximise the value of coaching skills training and other related coaching inputs.

5.3 Summary Comment of Key Findings

The use of a documented process of accreditation offered several advantages to the organisation and the research study. The requirement to evaluate the effectiveness of coaching provided evidence-based findings related to business benefits and employee development. These findings support the earlier findings referred to in section 4.2 which identified correlative linkages between the adoption of a leadership coaching style and an increase in employee engagement, with higher levels achieved in those areas of managers who actively coached. Whilst reported cases of successful coaching programmes are numerous (reference section 2.4.1) there remains a lack of evidence-based research on coaching in the workplace (Grant, 2003a) although there is an emerging and growing body of evidence-based research in this area (Grant, 2007). The desire by organisations to achieve higher employee engagement levels is largely driven by a belief that there is generally a positive correlation to increased customer satisfaction and revenue growth (Rucci, A., Kim, S.P. and Quinn, R.T., 1998). Whilst acknowledging that the case study organisation achieved substantive and record breaking profit levels during the period of the coaching programme and a rise in employee engagement, any linkages between leadership behaviour, employee engagement and overall performance should be considered in a correlative context from an organisational perspective. This research though offers evidence to suggest a causal link between coaching and individual employee performance which in turn adds value to an organisation's performance. The research findings therefore show that there are strong indicators to support the view that an effective organisational coaching programme is a strong predictor of an increase in employee engagement and a driver of individual performance.

To achieve its aims this research set out to explore the area of coaching in the workplace in relation to employee engagement and performance, describe the results

of this exploration, explain the main findings and make some predictions based on the learning gained. The research framework recognised the complex nature of the social construction surrounding the case study environment and the impact this may have on the pursuit of evidence related findings. Notably the multi-perspective views of the various participants on the coaching activities and impact on behaviours and culture. The key research findings are derived from within the case study environment and, as such, reflect the context and nature of the organisation and the personalities, positions and situations of its employees. Notwithstanding the challenges of the research context, the methodology was designed to identify the theoretical rational position and balance against the practical nature of a working environment in order to derive learning which can be applied in some similar local if not general context. Therefore the case for generalisability is argued to be valid subject to context and it is this contextual nature that offers more scope in considering the concept of transferability through confirmability, credibility and dependability (Riege, 2003; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The following statements set out the key findings described earlier within a framework of a series of predictive statements, provided with an acknowledgement of the challenges to generalisability and the potential for transferability within certain situational contexts:

a) The key benefits to individual employees from coaching strongly relate to those factors that are widely considered to drive employee engagement, including motivation and commitment

The research identified that the majority of the key benefits to the employee of coaching activity related to those factors that have a direct impact on employee engagement (Melcrum, 2005, MacLeod and Clarke, 2009), that is primarily, improved personal motivation and commitment in role, relationship based, higher levels of competence, increased satisfaction with job, trust and integrity, training support, the identification of solutions to problems and issues and increased confidence.

b) Coaching has the potential to positively impact on employee engagement

There are strong indicators that the majority of the benefits of coaching identified by this research had a positive impact on employee engagement through improved morale, motivation and satisfaction. The measure of employee engagement within the research model was the 9Factors™ Methodology survey. The survey ratings over a

five year period had remained much the same fluctuating between 3.32 and 3.38 until 2006 when it increased to 3.65. Whilst this increase is statistically significant and can be considered in a correlative context of the coaching programme which ran from 2003 to 2006, that is, an increase in coaching activity was accompanied by an increase in employee engagement, there was no causal linkage identified by which to show that the coaching programme had a direct impact on employee engagement levels.

To further investigate the correlative linkage between the benefits of the coaching activity and employee engagement a more detailed study of a pool of 46 managers was undertaken at pre and post coaching programme stages. This showed that the employee engagement rating relating to those employees who were coached by managers in the participant pool, increased following the coaching programme by 5.7% in 2004 (compared to a 2.9% increase in overall organisational ratings), 7% in 2005 (compared to a 2.9% decrease in overall organisational ratings) and 9.1% in 2006 (compared to a 12.1% increase in overall organisational ratings). The combined ratings for these managers during 2004 and 2005 inclusive showed an increase of 6.35% at a time when the overall 9Factors™ Methodology ratings remained the same. Whilst the pool of managers who had achieved coaching accreditation through regular coaching activity showed an increase of 9.1% in their 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings during 2006, this was lower than the increase of 12.1% for the overall rating, a sign possibly that many other managers had by this time undergone coaching skills training and this was impacting positively on overall employee engagement levels. The 9Factors™ Methodology ratings of the accredited coaches pool fell in 2007 when compared to 2006 ratings, by 10.5%, however the overall ratings of all managers fell by 12.1%.

c) Management coaching behaviour is strongly impacted by organisational strategies including ongoing support structures and processes

The incidence of above average increases in employee engagement relating to those managers who underwent the coaching accreditation framework was considered. A leadership coaching survey (developed from the 9Factors™ Methodology survey) was undertaken to assess the employees' perceptions of coaching behaviours displayed by managers, as different to leadership behaviours.

The surveys showed a high level of manager commitment to coaching behaviours averaging 4 (out of 5) during the period of the coaching programme, that is from 2003 to 2006; yet the same survey undertaken in October, 2007, 12 months after many of the supportive strategies within the coaching programme ended, showed employees' perceptions of positive coaching behaviours falling away to 3, a 25% reduction. Whilst this varied on an individual basis the fall in the average rating would indicate that to maintain a level of impact and benefit on an ongoing basis required strong supportive strategies, such as a continuous framework of accreditation, designed to encourage effective coaching on a regular basis in addition to the delivery of coaching skills. Where this happened within the case study there was a strong indication that this resulted in increasing employee engagement levels.

These findings would indicate that to achieve sustained management change towards coaching behaviours there is a need for an holistic ongoing developmental approach incorporating other supportive strategies apart from coaching skills training. Examples of ongoing supportive strategies within the research case study were quality accreditation process, follow-up training and a reward initiative which ensured that only managers who had achieved the coaching accreditation level were eligible for the highest level of performance bonus.

d) The role of a manager as a coach may benefit from a balanced approach between directive and non-directive so as to blend managerial inputs with coaching inputs and achieve an optimum leadership coaching style

The key attributes of a successful coach as a manager may vary dependent upon the perceptions of the individual coachee, the personality, role and skill sets of the coach and the contextual situation of the coaching relationship; notwithstanding that there is evidence from the research to suggest a commonality of view on specific attributes from the perspective of a manager as a coach, an employee as a coachee or a professional coach.

Research was conducted on the key attributes of a manager in relation to the coaching aspects of their role through the use of discussion groups across a range of employees within the case study. Additionally external research was conducted with managers from external organisations and professional 'external' coaches who were members of

the UK Executive Coaching College. The views of the employees within the case study strongly matched the views of those outside the case study organisation. Whilst there were some differences in the respective groups' view of the key attributes there was commonality around the attributes of listening, empathy, supportiveness, trustworthiness and questioning/probing skills.

These findings are in some ways similar to the findings of much previous work including Creane (2003) and Fanasheh (2003), although from a coachee's perspective there was an emphasis on relationship building skills and from a managers' perspective there was an increased emphasis on performance focus and direction, possibly driven by the contextual nature of the coaching that is the line manager in the workplace, a theme discussed by Phillips (1994) in terms of managers using coaching to 'fix' problems rather than enable solutions. The need for managers to balance directive and non-directive behaviours was found to be necessary to achieve an optimum leadership coaching style. This has been addressed within this research through the development of a coaching tool for managers in the workplace, the 9R coaching model (Appendix 11).

e) The primary competency of an effective line manager coach is relationship building ability

Whilst the key features of a positive and productive coaching relationship appear to vary dependent upon the coaching participants and their coaching relationship there is a strong emphasis on the value of a relationship displaying supportiveness, openness, trust and mutual respect.

From a coachee's perspective the research study identified the primary feature of a successful coaching relationship as a supportive, open relationship, followed by a high level of trust and a good understanding and empathy, mutual respect and the availability of coaching in line with the needs of the coachee. These desired relationship characteristics were not achieved in all cases and the findings suggest this impacted upon the effectiveness of the coaching relationship. The barriers to the development of the desired relationship included the managers being unable to devote the necessary time to coaching activity. The research would indicate that those managers who achieved an appropriate balance between a directive and nondirective

stance in their coaching approach (Caplan, 2003) and allocated time for coaching activity, achieved better value from their line reports through a performance focused, yet relationship driven coaching style.

f) A performance focused relationship driven coaching style can directly and significantly impact favourably on the bottom line, through increased sales, improved customer service and improved productivity; as well as achieving other less tangible benefits

Based on a pool of 72 managers and 259 employee reports within the case study organisation, quantitative benefits were identified via the coaching activity of 49 managers using performance coaching models and techniques. These benefits were achieved through increases in sales, improvements in customer service and savings in productivity that could be linked to a monetary equivalent of £669,000 over an average 26 week period. Based on a qualified assumption that the remainder of coaching activity undertaken during the average 26 week post coaching course period would follow a similar pattern and trend of return then a monetary equivalent of £2,143,530 was achieved via the initial phase of the coaching programme.

If this trend is extrapolated over a financial year then the level of monetary return would be £4,287,060 per annum, to which a confidence discount rating was applied reducing the amount to £3,429,648. To this can be added a saving in management time through a qualified reduction of referrals from employees to managers of £415,100 per annum; making a total estimated return of £3,844,748 over a one year period. If costs of £130,000 are taken from this then the net return on investment equates to £3,714,748.

Other non-tangible benefits perceived by coaches and coachees to have been achieved from the coaching programme related to skills, knowledge, behaviours, personal confidence, ideas generation, effectiveness, improved working relationship/atmosphere, career development, self awareness, motivation which could arguably have an indirect impact on performance through increased motivation and employee engagement. However, in view of the difficulty in equating such improvements to a monetary equivalent, this has not been attempted in such cases and instead these type of benefits have been categorised as benefits in a general yet

important and significant sense, which can be considered in tandem with the quantitative results derived from those coaching interventions relating to sales, customer service and productivity improvements. Whilst the research has not attempted to relate these benefits to a tangible value, there is evidence to suggest that such benefits impacted positively upon the morale and motivation of the coachees.

g) Managers are unlikely to coach their staff on a regular basis unless their organisation has in place a structured management process for coaching approaches and sessions, even then some managers will seek to avoid coaching their staff

Within the case study of an organisation committed to a coaching ethos with agreed processes and structures to try to ensure coaching took place, there were still 20% of participant employees who indicated that they received no coaching from their managers, relating to performance, career or role. Further, nearly 47% did not receive as much coaching as they felt they needed with an average of 1.2 hours coaching per employee per month taking place. 61% of coaching activity was driven by the organisation's performance system and the coaching programme's processes. Only 3% of the coaching interventions were driven by a manager's proactive approach to an employee's development compared to 36% of coaching interventions driven by an employee's request for coaching support. This would indicate that there was a greater desire for coaching from employees than was delivered by the managers. Factors for this mismatch included time constraints, a lack of managerial commitment to coach and a lack of support from the manager's boss.

h) A majority of employees believed that coaching improved both their performance and job satisfaction, sometimes to a significant extent, by achieving more of their potential

Over 8 in 10 (81%) of participant employees who received coaching believed that it had improved their performance; nearly 4 in 10 (38%) of participant employees believed this to be the case in a significant way and over 6 in 10 (61%) employees who received coaching believed that it had improved their job satisfaction. The reasons for the views that coaching had impacted favourably on their performance were primarily fourfold: their manager providing inspiration through motivational coaching behaviours; the development of trust within the relationship; the provision of

feedback and input on their performance; and acknowledgement and recognition of their value and worth.

i) The key challenges to the success of the coaching programme often related to the development of other factors apart from coaching skills; including ‘hard’ factors such as a communication strategy and ‘soft’ factors such as the attitude and emotional awareness of the management team. These factors should be considered in advance of the coaching activity and included in any related project plans

The research findings showed strong indications that there are critical factors to the development of a coaching culture which need to be managed and developed to ensure a successful launch and maintenance of a coaching programme, namely: employee communication strategies; resources and priorities (e.g. time, cost, importance); management elements (skills, behaviour, attitudes and ability including emotional intelligence); employee awareness and buy-in; integration into and alignment with other employee learning and development processes; reward initiatives and a supportive environment.

j) Organisations that wish to introduce and maintain a performance coaching management style within a developing leadership coaching culture will benefit from adopting a flexible yet coordinated strategic approach, considering organisational factors, apart from the development of skills, through the progression of a coaching programme and related supportive elements

These strategic elements involve the values that drive organisational behaviour; the mantra and predominant behavioural characteristics of the organisation’s leadership model and the organisational environment. It is argued that these three strategic elements help to create the unique organisational culture which will surround and impact upon the coaching activity. However the behaviours and benefits, including employee engagement, accruing from the organisational coaching strategy were not sustained once the focus changed and emphasis reduced – indeed the fall-off was significant. This would indicate that employee engagement cannot be ‘stockpiled’ like other more tangible elements.

In summary, the research study indicated that employee engagement and performance will benefit from an organisational coaching programme underpinned by a network of factors focused on supporting coaching activity. These factors relate to a *culture* built on common shared values, high performance, trust, openness, support, mutual respect and inclusiveness; *leadership* that role models the coaching culture through all levels of a management team that is *skilled* in coaching technique and relationship management; a *learning environment* that provides an appropriate setting for coaching activity, and *HR processes* that develop, monitor, and reward coaching behaviours. This approach is, for the purposes of the research, termed an *ambietic* approach to coaching, which in a general sense is developed from a consideration of the ambience by which is meant the environment, surroundings and atmosphere (Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, 2007).

These factors which envelop the coaching activity include the aura or unique aspects of an organisation, the physical surroundings and the atmosphere including the emotions of the workforce that impact upon workplace activity as well as coaching relationships, whether externally expressed or internally suppressed and which are often as, or more, important than the coaching itself. The approach primarily recognises the need for unstructured free-flowing coaching activity within a framework of flexible control processes, hence the use of -etic which in general usage describes a 'generalised non-structural approach to the description of a particular language or culture' (Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, 2007). Such an approach has been developed on the basis of a coaching philosophy of ambieticism which is, in the researcher's view, some feature of a situation of human behaviour that arises through the result of an action (that is the coaching intervention), which alone would appear to have caused the resultant reaction yet would in reality have had no direct impact unless influenced by the combination of several other environmental elements (that is the supportive organisational factors either preceding or following the singular action), which relate to human motivational perceptions.

The search for ways in which employee engagement can be cultivated is highlighted as of strategic importance in terms of the UK economy (MacLeod and Clarke, 2009). This research offers strong indications that leadership coaching is a key predictor of employee engagement, with the potential to maximise the benefits of an organisation's

performance management system and drive improvements in both the 'hard' factors of sales, service and productivity and the 'soft' factors of improved working relationships and employee commitment through the development of appropriate skills, knowledge and behaviours.

This research indicates that higher organisational performance through leadership coaching is best served by the application of an holistic, systematic and leadership driven ambietic approach which embraces the organisational elements surrounding and impacting upon a coaching activity and which is aligned to the development and utilisation of employee potential. Additionally there would appear to be a requirement for a critical mass, in relation to the emotional capability and self-awareness of the management team so as to enable it to build relationships with direct reports through trust and mutual respect and bring those personal attributes that are supportive of a coaching relationship including listening, empathy, supportiveness, trustworthiness and questioning/probing skills to the fore when utilising a performance focused coaching model or approach. Significantly the research indicates that once there is a change in focus in terms of the importance of those factors that drive employee engagement, then employee engagement levels will fall off very soon afterwards and cannot therefore be 'stockpiled' for a period of time.

5.4 Limitations of Research

The development of the research methodology incorporated a review of the known and potential constraints. This review resulted in certain research enquiries being constrained both from limiting and delimiting perspectives. When limitations were identified actions were developed to ameliorate the negative impact of such factors or note such impact so that the findings were considered against their contextual relevance. Similarly delimitations were considered either at the outset or ongoing as the research progressed together with the steps and measures adopted in response to these challenges.

The singular nature of the case study provided challenges to the scope of the research as the methodological framework set out to adopt a critical rationale achieving

learning through comparing and contrasting. The 'critical' case study approach (Yin, 1984) was utilised to consider whether learning could arguably be applied to other organisations that adopted similar approaches. However the longitudinal nature of the case study research limited the potential to adopt a multi case study approach across other organisations, yet the research study did incorporate inputs from external individuals, organisations and professional groups although these inputs were not gathered within the research framework and therefore were considered as background information only. The internal factors of the case study organisation also delimited the area of research covered in that the scope, to an extent, was constrained by the organisation's view. Whilst this aspect was not deemed to be of major concern, the sensitive nature of internal politics and organisational driven dynamics sometimes impacted on the studies ability to gain a more comprehensive insight. The final round of reflective sessions was, for example, limited to a specific number of individuals due to the organisation's priorities at the time. The sociological changes that occurred over the seven year period were to an extent unknown at the outset and difficult to gauge on an ongoing basis. The cultural shift of society and the related impact on work, through the lessening of hierarchical structures (Bennis, 1984), created a state of flux which, whilst natural to most organisational environments, introduced a measure that arguably increased the variability factor due to the relatively long period of the research.

The case study research provided evidenced measurement from both a qualitative and quantitative position yet it is acknowledged that there are limitations to this evidence due to the scope of the research, in that the qualitative 'soft' skill gains were not financially measured whilst the quantitative gains of sales, productivity and service improvements were. Also there were areas of contradiction in perspectives between different parties, for example, the difference between actual time coached (outside of the accreditation process) from a managers' viewpoint and their reports' viewpoint; with the former group generally stating that they conducted more coaching than the figure given by the latter group. Another difference in perspective involved the secondary data gathered externally which showed that value of coaching rated by professional coaches was higher than the value as judged by managers. It should be noted though that the secondary data was used only as background information rather

than in a robust research sense. However, in most areas a general consensus was gained, for example, the qualities, attributes and skills of an effective coach.

Notwithstanding these findings and other findings, whether qualitative or quantitative, the potential limitations of the research relating to subjectivity, bias and cultural norms are acknowledged due to the social construction of the case study and the many and varied perspectives of the participants involved. These limiting factors were potentially present and impactful throughout the life of the research, for example, the findings from the 9Factors™ Methodology survey would indicate that the results were to some degree influenced by line manager coaching activity; yet the social context requires a cautious approach to the linkage of coaching activity to employee engagement levels. The research framework was designed to strengthen the reliability, validity and trustworthiness of the findings and methods included third party collection of data, a high level of participant completion, the use of SPSS methodology software, peer review and comparison and an integrated triangulatory approach to data collection and analysis.

The limitations of the data gathering via questionnaires were considered including the nature of the relationship between the employee participant and their line manager and the level of participation. External research surveys on workplace coaching were reviewed when designing the research questionnaires to align the case study with an external context. The anonymous nature of the questionnaires would have arguably reduced the potential for false positive orientation as comments could not be attributed to an individual. The findings relating to the discussion groups involve the same caveats in terms of the limitations of the research study relating to the social construction, personal relationships and individual perspectives which could differ for reasons relating to areas not necessarily associated with the coaching process. However the research framework used a multi perspective approach which was aligned to enable cross-checking, comparison and contrast to strengthen the reliability and validity of the data.

The inherent limitations imposed by the case study environment also posed risks to the overall reliability and validity of the evidence related to the coaching outputs, for example, personal relationships and individual perspectives, which could differ for

reasons relating to areas not necessarily associated with the coaching process. To reduce, limit or eliminate the impact of these factors the research framework used a method of recording both manager and employee perspectives and third party validation via senior managers.

Finally, the role of the researcher spanning as it did multiple positions throughout the research from insider to outsider/insider to arguably outsider (Bartunek and Louis, 1996) during the reflective sessions, impacted in many ways, sometimes in a limiting way, through the nature of the researcher's inherent knowledge and understanding of the organisation, the power base and the singular nature of the researcher's role, the researcher's internal relationships with colleagues, peer politics and organisational changes which impacted upon the researcher.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

6.1 Overview

The mix of qualitative and quantitative methodologies offered advantages in that there was potential to achieve a balanced set of findings by which to measure the success or otherwise of coaching interventions and acknowledged the relative lack of evidence-based case study research in this area (Grant, 2003a, 2007). From an organisational aspect the research framework acknowledged, through its longitudinal approach, there is little evidence to suggest that a short term answer to achieving culture change through a leadership coaching strategy is possible and arguably this holds true to any other approach given most situational positions. There are though different ways of achieving culture change and this section and the following sections in this concluding chapter sets out to summarise the key learning from this research in respect of adopting a leadership behavioural model based on internal coaching through the perspective of strategy, policy approaches, processes and framework models.

6.2 The Changing Organisational Environment and the Impact of Leadership Coaching Approaches

Ledgerwood (2003) considered the value of corporate coaching and referred to the term strategic coaching examining the point that coaching should deliver value in an organisational sense as well as on individual basis. From a strategic perspective this research has identified the importance of several factors in determining the success or otherwise of the development of a coaching culture within an organisation. Such factors relate to leadership behaviour, employee engagement and commitment and support processes. All of these factors to some extent were considered within this research study and when taken together required a strategic approach to be adopted to enable a radical review of learning and development strategies. In a wider context, the focus of learning and development historically has been mainly on increasing the level of skills and specific competencies of employees within a business through a broad

generic training strategy with most of the development interventions being introduced on a 'stand alone' basis. The emerging trend is for an increased emphasis on employee talent management and individualised approaches rather than prescribed training interventions, through the development of integrated and inter linked training initiatives each of which is interdependent (Knights and Poppleton, 2007). To achieve this organisations are seeking ways in which to utilise learning and development approaches aligned to and supported by leadership approaches.

The pace of the move from traditional 'pull-down' courses to an ongoing self development process will arguably primarily be dictated firstly by the leadership mantra within each organisation to provide a self aware workplace environment conducive to learning and secondly by the willingness of managers to seek to develop their own levels of self-awareness and coaching ability. The advent of flatter hierarchical structures forecast by Moss Kanter (1989) is demanding a different way of managing, involving an increased emphasis on personal communication and relationship building, which is presenting challenges to managers. This research would indicate that internal hierarchies have the tendency to lead, through the nature of their structure, to a transactional based 'safety first' approach to leadership and management. This approach often involves the splitting of routine organisational life into neat vision statements, goals and roles yet working life is complex and not straightforward and, as such, requires innovation and some acceptance of risk, which depends to a great extent upon the strength of relationships within an organisation (McKeown, 2008). The increased emphasis on relationship building has arguably led to the rapid take-up of coaching as a facilitative and motivational line management tool. If the successful management of people is facilitated through cultural aspects driven by relationship development between the layers or sub layers of the organisational hierarchy (Cartwright, 1999) then communications, or rather conversations via a coaching approach, offer organisations and their managers a relationship framework by which to structure conversations around the roles and goals of the team. This provides opportunities for team members to discuss problems and develop solutions, and by doing so increasing their buy-in and personal motivation.

However this research has identified that asking managers to change their approach, in whatever form this might take, is not likely in a singular form to create a desire or

willingness to do so. Rather it is asserted that to achieve management 'buy-in' at a critical mass level, a purpose and desire needs to be developed throughout the organisation and a way forward based on a core leadership style, as defined by the organisation, set out for wider discussion. From such discussions can emerge a leadership coaching style that is a 'best fit' for the organisation and its employees. In view of the nature of challenges facing organisations, leadership coaching, that is a leadership approach drawing heavily on a coaching style and related techniques, potentially offers a way forward that embraces emerging workplace landscapes and new social orders through both transformational behaviours such as generating ideas, motivating and role modelling to drive change, and transactional behaviour such as control and review to manage day to day performance (Bass and Avolio, 1994). This can be facilitated in such a balanced way which is appropriate to the manager, their reports, their organisation and the general business context including the prevailing environment and economic conditions.

The findings in this research show that line coaching offers a way for managers and the organisations in which managers work, to make the transition away from a transactional driven, skill-based learning and development strategy to an inclusive approach which incorporates a transformational people-driven talent management approach, supporting the organisations' ability to constantly develop and recreate new propositions and related processes. An effective way to achieve this is through the integration of line coaching within the overall learning and development strategy, together with an aligned performance management system. Employee communication of the coaching approach is vital to build involvement and support amongst those to be coached, a feature that is very often forgotten amidst the roll-out of a coaching skills programme to managers. There is a strong argument arising from this research and several previous examples (Semler, 1993, Higginbottom, 2006a), that coaching should be seen as the way in which leadership behaviour can bring alive the organisation's vision and values. 360 degree feedback and leadership assessment tools can be incorporated into the coaching programme to challenge management behaviour and establish alignment of such behaviour to a leadership coaching role model style. Such feedback can either utilise existing data or will require a new feedback tool so as to offer managers an opportunity to increase their self-awareness and benchmark their

behaviours to an agreed set of leadership competencies which are aligned to the organisation's leadership philosophy.

The research has raised several issues for consideration commencing with the readiness of an organisation to move towards a coaching culture. It was found to be beneficial to undertake a diagnosis phase during which consideration could be given to the state of readiness of an organisation including the likely barriers to the development of coaching, so that expected and unexpected developments can be planned for. This is argued to be the first base for the development of line coaching within an organisation. This phase offers an ideal time to consider the measures by which the coaching programme will be monitored and these may include employee morale, specific performance targets and other employee indicators such as retention. During the diagnosis phase a key area of focus should be the identification and analysis of stakeholders. This diagnosis element can provide a situational picture of the organisational situation, the prevailing culture and the views of those who will need to deliver support and/or participate in the coaching programme.

Within this research the situational context was found to be important in the development of a coaching programme in that the current and desired organisational state can then provide a base of knowledge from which to drive the organisational definition of leadership coaching and the category of coaching development and skills model best suited to deliver this. The research identified that the selection and/or design stage of the preferred coaching skills framework represents a key element of the coaching programme design. Within this research study this element was considered initially within a singular line manager coaching framework which did not greatly recognise the different circumstances, abilities and situations relating to line managers. As the research progressed, this singular approach was adapted through the action-based research feedback and from this developed a more sophisticated approach which involved certain managers undertaking additional and progressive coaching skills development. The research identified that such a stratified or layered coaching framework provided a way in which coaching skills development could be targeted and within this five key areas emerged: (i) task – skill-based coaching to achieve a task; (ii) technical – with high mentoring emphasis on the technical knowledge of coach; (iii) transitional – behavioural based with more emphasis on coaching skills

rather than technical knowledge; (iv) transactional – a continuous and consistent performance coaching style focused on individual performance and objectives; and (v) transformational – embracing an holistic leadership coaching approach linked to organisational leadership and business strategy. The coaching model was considered in the light of the desired coaching paradigm and from these findings adaptations were made throughout the phases of the coaching programme to take account of the varied and different elements relating to the line manager's role and overall context.

Notwithstanding the adaptive and contextual nature of the coaching framework, it was deemed beneficial to develop the learning from the research study through the development of a streamlined summarisation. This was in the form of an organisational coaching framework by way of a formulation, named a 3T framework, relating to: *traditional* – involving training approaches with coaches having a high degree of subject knowledge and task focus; *transitional* – around new ways of working with individuals, which is suited to less specific performance requirements with less emphasis on a coach's specific knowledge of the subject and more emphasis on behavioural development; and *transformational* – with a focus on organisational development and which embraces the entire organisation requiring a team approach, either in terms of methodology or group work, as well as a sustained period of coaching activity. It is in these areas of coaching that field work and case study research has identified the potential to use coaching as both transactional and transformational toolsets, as discussed by Kotter (1990), by which managers can manage and lead through developing coaching behaviours and skills to increase individual, team and overall organisational performance.

Dependent upon the desired state of the coaching deployment, for example as measured by the 3T framework or other method, the development phase towards achieving this can be lengthy; a point often missed by organisations considering moving towards a coaching culture and one often understated, or ignored, by coach suppliers. However the research found that there was value in undertaking a stakeholder analysis and agreeing a follow-up strategy, both in terms of offering advantages during the early days of the programme and much later on when difficulties and challenges arise. The remit and parameters of such a pre coaching programme intervention will vary dependent upon the situation yet the research

provided a strong indication to support the inclusion of a consideration of internal values (within the case study this was achieved through the use of the 9Factors™ Methodology). This can link the leadership coaching approach to an existing, or new, values programme and enable a consistent approach to several areas including role model behaviour, employee motivation, integrated performance management, aligned communications, team-building structures or an organisational structure review.

6.3 The Evaluative Process

The research methodology, incorporating as it does both structured processes and behavioural influences, reinforces the findings of Beer and Nohria (2000) concerning the development of both 'hard' and 'soft' input interventions and the targeting of outputs in the management of change. This is deemed to be particularly relevant to those organisations which, like the case study organisation, wish to reduce the constraining features of a traditional, hierarchical, command driven organisation to benefit from innovation and empowerment through a flatter, imperative driven customer focused organisation with a manager – employee relationship based on an adult to adult relationship paradigm rather than based on a parent – child paternalistic relationship and culture (Berne, 1964). In the research environment both managers and employees needed time to adapt to the change in emphasis relating to leadership style, a feature which was not fully recognised or considered by the coaching framework within the research case study.

The impact of the inputs and subsequent outputs from the coaching programme was a catalyst in some respects for some managers and employees to leave the organisation, others to ignore the changing perspective and others to embrace the new ways of working. The research would indicate that organisations who are considering cultural change are likely to experience all three categories including departures primarily driven by the culture journey. However it is argued that such a journey would benefit from having a clear and transparent approach to those employees who either ignore the changing world around them or actively seek to derail the cultural process. Within the case study research, gradually, with the changes both in personnel and in attitudinal terms through the influx of new employees and the changed behaviours of many

existing employees, the organisational culture evolved and this was monitored and evaluated in both research and organisational terms through the 9Factors™ Methodology. This methodology together with other research measures provided a way in which to measure the 'cold' and 'hot' spots of coaching activity both in periodical terms and throughout the organisation's management functional areas. However there remained a number of employees who were never tackled, which resulted in a dissonance that impacted negatively on the cultural journey in terms of impact those in managerial positions created the major resistance.

The evaluation of culture within the case study environment through the 9Factors™ Methodology was central to the research stance as the case study organisation had placed considerable importance on changing its culture from a potentially divisive multi-culture, with individual subcultures with their own agendas resulting in 'us and them' divisions and conflicts such as the division between Principal Office and the retail network; to a superordinate culture which comprised of similar subcultures with distinct beliefs and values but coordinated, integrated and aligned to the overall organisational values and goals (Cartwright, 1999). From the use of this methodology was developed a behavioural model which set out how managers should lead through a leadership coaching framework within which was detailed the desired behaviours or the 'way things are done around here'. This approach captured the benefits and disadvantages of coaching from an individual performance perspective as well as measuring any performance gains from a team and organisational perspective. Whilst this approach and related factors were specifically relevant to the case study organisation and its internal culture as well as the commercial reality of the marketplace within which it operated, it is argued that other organisations will have a relationship to similar factors. It is acknowledged that the respective cultural state and external marketplace of another organisation will drive a different emphasis on delivery, with some organisations seeking a slimmed down approach to implementing a coaching programme rather than a robust comprehensive programme, and many seeking a way forward which falls in between both.

This research would indicate that whilst there is no 'one way' to achieving a high performance coaching culture there is a need to ensure the relative inputs are designed and undertaken so as to gain productive outputs. Either way, the identification of an

overarching purpose, aligned goals, measures and related benefits is likely to add value to the coaching programme and enhance the potential for achieving tangible outcomes. With regards to outcomes this research would indicate that coaching can deliver benefits both in terms of 'hard' business results and 'soft' motivational outcomes through maximising the value of an organisation's employee development strategies including succession management, performance management, absence management, talent development, employee engagement, innovation and creativity development and recruitment strategies to ensure as far as possible new recruits have the necessary skills to adapt and/or flourish in a leadership coaching culture. Further, this research provided strong indicators that coaching by line managers can be associated in a correlative context with improved employee engagement as evidenced by the statistically significant increase in employee engagement scores at a specific juncture in the initiative (Figure E).

The research also provided evidence of increased workforce performance as measured by a return on investment methodology (4.6.2) which was supported by appropriate cultural and specific approaches being adopted which involved the organisation in setting cultural expectations through the development of cultural change levers. The concept of a primary action such as a coaching intervention which appears to drive the coaching outcome, yet is dependent on several other environmental factors to achieve the outcome, is referred to as ambieticism and within this conceptual context the coaching approach is termed ambietic.

6.4 Cultural Change Levers

From the review of the 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings it is evident that on an organisational level at least, the survey ratings remained at a consistently similar level from the period preceding the coaching programme, i.e. from 2000 until three years into the coaching programme in 2006 when survey ratings increased significantly from a previous parameter band of 3.32 to 3.38 up to 3.65. When considering these ratings it is worthy of consideration to note that the lack of improvement in the 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings is in line with other findings that show cultural

measurements do not respond immediately to social interventions as there is a need for a sustained approach (Mabey, 2005).

A period of time would be expected between any intervention and the resultant impact on business results to take account of the delayed impact of relationship and transactional factors (Swales, 2002). However, even noting the aforementioned factors, the overall analysis is arguably too broad with a multiplicity of factors and elements involved to draw any other conclusions of cause and effect apart from the correlative nature of the coaching interventions when compared to the survey trends. Therefore as discussed in section 4.2 the 9Factors™ survey ratings were investigated, where available, of those managers/coaches who participated in the structured accredited feedback analysis. This investigation compared the specific 9Factor Methodology survey ratings of these managers both pre and post coaching course programme. These comparisons showed that from a return of 46 coaches, all of whom had undertaken the coach assessment process, 44 showed an increase in their specific survey rating based on their direct staff reports following their participation in the coaching programme. This would indicate that within the case study, those who received coaching reported that the key benefits related to the drivers of employee engagement and that in those manager – employee relationships where coaching was taking place, the 9Factors™ Methodology survey ratings, as a measure of employee engagement, were higher than the norm.

The Cultural Change Levers model sets out the relationships between organisational culture, leadership behaviour, employee engagement and performance. The model recognises the facilitative momentum for leaders within the business to adopt aligned coaching behaviours and through this favourably impact upon employee performance in a direct manner through a causal relationship to specific role objectives, as well as being a strong predictor of employee engagement. The impact on employee performance through line manager leadership coaching interventions is supported by the level of employee engagement, which in turn is a strong predictor of employee performance. Employee performance sustains and develops the organisational culture (see Figure O).

Figure O. Cultural Change Levers



The Cultural Change Levers model brings together a top level view from a grounded theory perspective of the various elements of the research data based on the chosen research methodologies (Gill and Johnson, 2002). The case study research emphasised the importance of leadership coaching behaviours being displayed by managers to support the development of a high performance culture and employee engagement through improved individual, team and organisational performance.

These leadership coaching attributes were identified in those areas where the coaching ethos was strongest and can be summarised as a strong inclusive senior leadership buy-in from top to bottom (whether in an organisational or team sense), an emphasis on the value of quality employee relationships, trust, a focus on performance, the value of personal recognition and development, management ability in terms of skills and behaviours including emotional intelligence and an overarching holistic strategy,

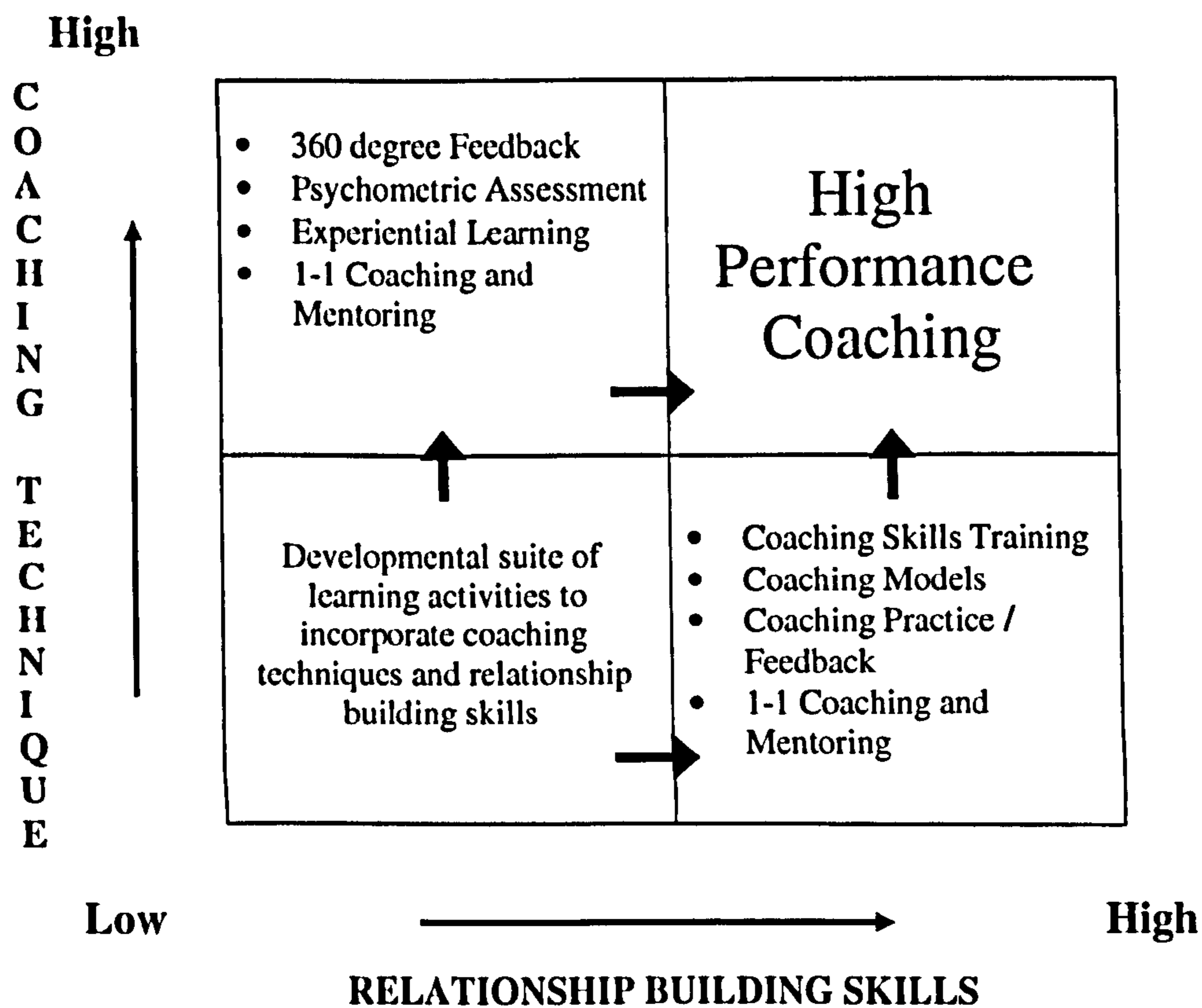
including HR policies to support the desired leadership behaviour such as reward incentives, to link, align and integrate the various behavioural interventions.

These attributes were similar to those behavioural aspects described by Melcrum (2005), although he also considered wider HR strategies rather than adopting a primarily leadership perspective as in this research study. Whilst the research findings indicated that when the aforementioned conditions existed, a significant number, arguably a critical mass, of managers developed their skills and aligned their behaviours towards the agreed coaching approaches resulting in such management behaviour driving gains on a micro level – with many employees achieving a higher level of performance in their role, and on a macro level. There were strong indicators that when such a critical mass of managers adopted the agreed coaching techniques and behaviours there was a beneficial impact on employee engagement, that is the level to which employees understood, related and committed to the achievement of its aims and objectives or as put forward by Bernthal (2004) as driven by the level of commitment, involvement and trust within the workforce.

The achievement of a critical mass of managers skilled in coaching applications related to the business performance rationale outlined in Appendix 11, both intellectually and emotionally, was found to relate correlatively to an increase in employee engagement and causally to an increase in specific areas of individual employee performance. This required managers to be adept at coaching technique as well as relationship skills through displaying self awareness, empathy and emotionally maturity. As the research evidenced where this balance was achieved, line reports that were coached, responded both in terms of engagement, motivation and performance.

The balance between the coaching technique and relationship building skills together with developmental options is set out in Figure P.

Figure P Coaching Technique -v- Relationship Building Skills



As can be seen from Figure P various developmental options are listed for consideration dependent upon the individual coach or, in a wider context, the coaching benchmark strength of the organisation.

The success or otherwise of such developmental options are largely reliant on the attitude of the manager or managers concerned and this can be positive, negative or somewhere in between. The research framework therefore also provided feedback on those areas of the business where managers were resistant to and/or did not adopt a coaching style of management, thus enabling ongoing targeted development within the case study to improve implementation and coaching technique processes; as well as providing learning around the evaluation of the management teams prior to the implementation of coaching programmes, through the use of 360 degree feedback, psychometric assessments and employee feedback models such as the 9Factors™ Methodology.

The reasons provided by managers for disaffection or a lack of commitment to the application of coaching at a manager level were numerous but primarily covered poor overall implementation of the coaching programme, personal time constraints, the pace of change being too fast, a lack of training to improve coaching skills, a lack of support and role modelling from their senior managers and a feeling of inadequacy and low confidence levels in relation to undertaking coaching at a competent level. However there was a consistent view that whilst there was an element of coaching in every manager's role some managers have a natural inclination and innate skills to coach, whilst others do not have such an inclination or skill level, or alternatively would prefer to continue to adopt their existing primary management style rather than change through the learning of new skills. The issue of managers either not being rewarded for, or disadvantaged for not displaying coaching behaviours emerged, with views that the organisational emphasis was very much on outputs around 'hard' results not inputs based on 'soft' behavioural based measures, often meaning that how results were achieved was of secondary importance to the outcome.

The nature of organisational life within the case study environment created a tension between the behavioural ways in which goals are achieved and the achievement in itself and from this emanated barriers to the development of desired leadership behaviours. The barriers identified within this research study fell both into the behavioural areas as well as process areas, the latter of which were tackled primarily through a continuous improvement process. The behavioural barriers were deemed to be much more difficult to resolve, due to the need for individuals to review and reconsider their leadership styles and habits, many of which had been learned over many years. The research framework therefore provided feedback on those areas of the business where managers did not adopt a coaching style of management, thus enabling ongoing targeted development to improve coaching technique. Some learning from the case study was therefore drawn from failures, in terms of non engagement of managers or a lack of quantifiable output and this provided beneficial insights which benefited the research.

Notwithstanding these issues, the case study research also identified results to evidence that effective line manager coaching is a predictor of improved employee engagement and released the performance potential of the workforce subject to the

appropriate culture being in place and specific supportive approaches being adopted. The study enabled key coaching behaviours to be identified which have the potential to support the development of a high performance coaching culture, through improved individual, team and organisational performance. Specific qualitative and quantitative data was obtained which strongly indicated that a leadership coaching style, underpinned by a corporate coaching framework, enhanced employee engagement on an individual basis and in a correlative context, on an organisational basis. On an individual coaching basis qualitative and quantitative data was also obtained which showed tangible benefits arising out of specific coaching relationships and sessions.

6.5 Key Themes of the Research Findings

At its outset this research set out to identify organisational coaching approaches and aligned leadership behaviours, skills and attributes that were conducive to facilitating employee engagement and enhancing individual and business performance.

In seeking these research objectives a number of themes have emerged representing factors that are conducive to the development of a coaching culture. These are considered as the key building blocks of a culture supportive of coaching and in no particular order are summarised as: (i) the need for focused goals; (ii) a learning organisation approach which values personal development; (iii) a 'best fit' mix of coaching, mentoring and training applications within the line manager role; (iv) an emphasis on building relationships and trust; (v) valuing diversity in all its forms; (vi) teamwork and collaborative working; (vii) strong buy-in and role modelling behaviour at senior levels; and (viii) a recognition of the importance of the emotional intelligence and self awareness levels of the organisation's management team.

The research identified that the key benefits of coaching activity were linked to those factors that have a direct impact on employee engagement such as personal motivation, competence, job satisfaction and supportive behaviours. These benefits are generally recognised to have a beneficial impact on employee engagement through improved morale, motivation, commitment and satisfaction, and in the context of this

research a correlative link in terms of a statistically significant positive impact between a leadership coaching style and employee engagement was identified.

In terms of leadership behaviour the research found there was commonality around the attributes of listening, empathy, trustworthiness and questioning/probing skills together within a supportive, open line relationship. The research found that to achieve increased employee engagement other supportive strategies additional to coaching behaviours were needed, such as a continuous framework of accreditation, designed to encourage effective coaching on a regular basis, in addition to the delivery of coaching skills. This was evidenced by manager behaviour in that it was found that managers did not often coach their staff on a regular basis once the organisational framework was dismantled and the barriers to coaching activity were not tackled.

In view of the challenges identified within the research it is not surprising that whilst the majority of larger organisations in the UK use coaching, the reality is that few can yet make a case for coaching making a sustained and measurable impact on their business and it would appear that most organisational coaching activity is not integrated into the overall business framework (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2008, 2009a). This research would indicate that the major barrier to a successful coaching culture relates to overcoming behavioural issues both at manager and employee levels. There is therefore a need for an overarching organisational approach which is supportive of a coaching style of management to provide encouragement and momentum for managers to adopt a leadership coaching ethos, for example those managers who consistently adopt a command and control management style will find it difficult to develop a coaching mentality within their areas of operation and this should therefore be considered within the design of the coaching programme. Appendix 10 sets out an organisational coaching approach to providing ways in which the behavioural and other barriers identified and considered by this research study can be tackled within the development and implementation phases of an organisational coaching strategy framework.

The eight steps identified within the organisational coaching approach represent a desire to describe an ambitious and holistic approach to the development of organisational coaching, which is identified by this research has an effective way to

achieve a sustainable coaching culture. Whilst there may be benefit in viewing them in a linear stage frame, there is also a need to view the elements from a flexible phase adaptation, noting that the areas may not, and most likely will not, be applicable to all situations. It is recognised that such an approach is set apart from the normal development and implementation of coaching programmes in the workplace and that this is often due to the nature of organisational life and constraints. By the nature of the commercial world and the workplaces within it, there is no right way in which organisations can follow to achieve the optimum result. However by setting out a methodology of design and implementation a greater awareness of the issues is created and the choice of options enriched. Whether these options are taken up will be determined by several factors, not least time and finance. It is though proposed that even in its most streamlined approach the methodology will provide a challenging and insightful tool for those undertaking the task of developing and implementing organisational coaching strategies. It is proposed that the core essence of the entire coaching enterprise will be the way in which managers as coaches and employees as coachees relate to each other and to the coaching structures applied. The learning in this research study provided a way in which an overarching coaching structure can assist both parties to achieve this objective.

This research has enabled a view of coaching from an organisational perspective and identified that coaching creates different challenges for managers who coach their reports than for other coaching situations, including those relating to the use of an external coach. The recognition of these challenges per se is not a new insight, far from it, yet the findings of this research offered a different view of these challenges and with this evolved different insights which emanated from the application of line coaching which, in many instances, are ignored by organisations and their suppliers when introducing coaching programmes. As well as providing information for reflection and consideration these insights have supported the development of a organisational coaching model specifically developed for managers who wish to coach effectively in the workplace (Appendix 11).

The nature of the case study research including the aspects of time, the researcher's position and the socio-dynamic context, enabled an action learning framework approach and in doing so created both authentic learning in an academic sense and

inventive practical models for use by organisations and their managers in the workplace, within a three dimensional organisational coaching approach embracing the different perspectives of the individuals, teams and organisation. In this sense it is argued that the research construct more fitted an action science perspective in that a contribution was made to understanding social change in terms of problem solving and mutual learning (Gummesson, 1991).

In such a context the main themes of this research have been investigated and explored with the findings identifying a correlative relationship between organisational coaching and employee engagement as well as a causal relationship, in the view of coach and coachee at least, between coaching activity and individual performance.

6.6 Recommendations for Future Research

This research identified consistent themes from both academic and professional quarters which set out the debate on coaching in an organisational context around the role and skill sets of managers, process and cultural integration, the growth of internal coaching provision through line managers coaching their reports, employee motivation and evaluation. This focus is useful in considering the future of coaching in an organisational context, particularly in terms of a continuous learning process through practice, application and review.

Coaching continues to grow in popularity for many reasons (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2008, 2009a, 2010) and many factors have led to the rise in the popularity of coaching in organisations, including: (i) a rapidly changing business environment requiring an ability to learn and adapt quickly; (ii) changing organisational structures; (iii) an increasing emphasis on lifelong learning and the learning organisation; (iv) a demand for individualised targeted development; (v) less acceptance of poor performance; (vi) the need for improved decision making; (vii) individual responsibility for personal development plans; (viii) recognition that coaching adds value when combined with traditional classroom training; and (ix) an attractive approach which offers the coach and coachee personal satisfaction. Whilst the case study organisation strived to achieve a coaching culture to enhance employee

performance and morale, it also recognised all of the aforementioned areas within its ongoing reviews of the coaching programme. These factors could be termed internal factors relating primarily to organisational driven dynamics.

From a reflective research stance it is proposed that there is also a set of external factors to which the popularity of coaching is also linked, to some extent at least, and many of these factors are related to sociological change. The world has arguably moved from an authoritarian society to one in which authority is challenged and individual choice enables self directed action and thus learning. The increasing popularity of coaching and the emphasis on the quality of manager – employee relationships has arguably reflected this change and this has been particularly evident in workplaces where ‘command and control’ management approaches are less acceptable to employees and therefore less evident, or at least less valued and challenged more. Organisations can be viewed as representative samples of society and, as such, leaders of organisations respond to society and organisational change in ways that best suit their strategic plans and goals, yet this is happening against a backdrop of social unrest, major demographic changes and job insecurity; a challenging and complex world and one in which the rules are rewritten constantly through technological and social change. Companies may therefore utilise coaching as a means to increase performance and productivity through developing and motivating employees to embrace new ways of working and new skills. When considering the current state of flux it should be acknowledged that sociological changes are not linear or constant and will depend upon situational factors, for example the needs of indigenous industries requiring large numbers of relatively unskilled workers to carry out mundane tasks in a relatively stable environment will often result in a ‘command and control’ management approach. Yet these types of situations are becoming less common, hence the search for a new way of working and management approaches that are aligned to situations more suited to a less hierarchical approach. This research was primarily based on the specific conditions surrounding the case study organisation and, as such, there appears to be potential to further explore the nature of the drivers, both internal and external, and establish their impact upon the development of coaching in the workplace.

As discussed, the impact of both the internal and external factors behind the increase in organisational coaching has created the need for managers to develop the necessary coaching skills (Parsloe, 2004), as competitive pressures are requiring managers to do more with less thus creating an internal coaching flow around the organisation. Yet in past years coaching was viewed as a development provided by external 'experts' for senior executives, with a more external coaching flow inwards. This change has reflected the socio-demographic changes referred to earlier, the changing of the workplace from one of stability, predictability and conformity to constant change and innovation. The development of new industries requiring highly trained and highly skilled workers placed pressure on the old ways of managing through 'command and control'. This change placed more emphasis on guiding and influencing, which is why, it is argued, so many managers and organisations have turned to coaching. As executives became used to employing external coaches for their own personal development (Kilburg, 2000) they began to consider the possibilities of using such external coach 'experts' to deal with their line reports, sometimes titled 'problem child' situations, that is, managers who may have had some form of personal or development issue, e.g. unsatisfactory performance, interpersonal relationships, dealing with change, career development or redundancy.

These types of coaching interventions were often seen in a negative sense by the coachee and the wider organisation. Despite the negative connotations of some coaching interventions the overall beneficial aspects ensured that coaching began to establish a grip at lower levels within organisations; very often in an organisation's sales area possibly because of the more direct linkages to tangible results. These coaching interventions often included the use of several behavioural techniques including neuro-linguistic programming techniques (Knight, 2002) and were mainly undertaken by external coaching 'experts' in isolation of an organisation's learning and development strategy. The independent nature of this type of coaching could be viewed as a tactical approach to specific performance challenges such as sales and service targets relating to a range of organisations (Strayer and Rossett, 1994; McGarrah, 2004; Hall, 2006b; Wynne, 2006). Whilst the increasing business interest in organisational coaching resulted in increased academic interest, there is still a lack of evidence-based research (Grant, 2007) particularly relating to specific case studies.

There is therefore potential for further research to build on the findings of this case study including the aspect of generalisability.

The new generation of 'strategic' coaching reaches out throughout the entire organisation rather than just focusing at the senior level and/or on specific functions. This change involves a shift from traditional concerns with hierarchical authority, order and control, and motivation by job insecurity, to one that is based on a partnership for achieving results and commitment through collaboration. Due to the shift change in coaching applications happening within recent years much of the academic research base remains focused on executive, senior management and targeted applications relating to succession, talent management and task specific coaching activities. This research offers a base of a single case study upon which to undertake new studies designed to take forward the learning gained either via a further case study, a multiple case study or a broader base of enquiry.

Such an enquiry could investigate the impact of management structures and the ways in which organisational development processes can be more closely aligned to a leadership coaching style. It is proposed that rigid hierarchical management structures and traditional forms of leadership such as 'command and control' do not naturally complement or support a cultural change towards empowerment through the use of non-directive coaching, as they do not encourage decision taking, challenge and individual leadership responsibilities. Hierarchical organisations therefore present significant challenges to the introduction and maintenance of a coaching culture due to status and chain of command, functional divisions and 'power' issues. Moss Kanter (1989) argued the need for flatter, less hierarchical structures to enable a more flexible, responsive approach to cope with the impact of change. In a similar way coaching offers the potential to maximise the value of less structured hierarchies through enhancing individual and organisational performance, although that is not to say that there is not a place for coaching in such 'command and control' organisations.

The traditional internal coaching model is of one-to-one relationships between managers and direct reports and significant benefits can be gained through the maintenance of this type of silo coaching approach as it was within the case study organisation. However there are greater opportunities for coaching as a strategic

development approach or embedded within a collaborative leadership style (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 2005a) set within an organisational structure and environment of 'best fit' to a coaching culture. The research offered the potential for measurement within a case study context, yet there are further opportunities to achieve a way to gauge the impact of coaching within a broader learning and development context possibly utilising a multi-range of activities, techniques and the development of different sets of learning, together with the use of new technology to take account of new work trends. The emerging 'knowledge' economy and the advent of the knowledge worker (Leonard and Swap, 2005) and the subsequent impact on organisational design offers further opportunities for organisational coaching models to provide a more flexible multi-leadership framework through collaborative coaching across the organisation and in different forms, such as peer coaching, group coaching and learning networks. The rise of the 'knowledge' worker has challenged organisations to consider leadership approaches in terms of motivation and learning. This trend has provided the organisational environment for coaching skills within a management role, focused on developing the knowledge and ability of the individual rather than providing the individual with knowledge. This could be a productive line of enquiry for future research work.

The behaviour of the organisation's leadership, for example the application of behavioural influences that build trust and commitment, will impact upon the ability of an organisation to learn and respond to change. Within a hierarchical structure this is a very challenging aspect with learning very often utilised for the benefit of the individual or specific department rather than the organisational as a whole. Coaching techniques could be viewed as a way to encourage managers to embrace change and take positive action to implement new leadership behaviours through the stimulation of new ideas based around systematic knowledge approaches, skilful questioning and listening. The literature review has evidenced an emerging view that as organisations become less hierarchical the command and control approach is likely to become less effective, which in turn is driving a move towards a more participative leadership style. These flatter, less hierarchical structures challenge management behaviour that is focused on 'command and control' approaches which has developed and flourished in silo-driven functional environments.

The new matrix, process based structures, the increasingly litigious environment driven by social change and political policies, together with the emerging 'knowledge' economy and the need for workers to develop in response to the need for speed, flexibility and creativity, is creating a desire for a leadership style that involves a collaborative coaching approach. Whilst there appears to be a pent up demand for managers to embrace a more flexible, situational multi-leadership framework, which embraces coaching behaviours, there is also a resistance by managers to do so fuelled by the fear of change, self confidence, emotional capability and everyday working pressures relating to time and the delivery of short-term objectives. There is potential to consider more deeply the managerial mindset when faced with a requirement to change leadership behaviour in the workplace. The aspect of how gender differences might impact when a change in leadership style is required (Burke and Collins, 2001) could also be explored in the context of coaching and an increased need for an empathetic emotionally aware management approach. The nature of coaching dictates a dependency on the relationship between coach and coachee, which, in turn, requires time to build high levels of trust through supportive management behaviours with a focus on personal development and recognition. The complexity of the aspect of trust within the relationship between manager and line report is challenging to the coaching relationship and a research perspective on this impact would be enlightening in taking forward the role of the manager as a coach. The research findings acknowledge a key challenge for organisations seeking to implement a coaching culture, in that many of the well known and accepted qualities and skills of a successful manager do not necessarily fit with the generally accepted skill requirements of a coach. Managers who have a very competitive, directive, controlling approach and like to be seen as an 'expert' may find the development of new coaching skills and, potentially the acceptance of a coaching style, from a personal and line report viewpoint, as a major challenge.

With the increase in the use of internal coaching and the role of managers as coaches there is an emerging challenge created by the nature of social and personal problems impacting up on work situations. This can lead to managers, in their role of coach, becoming involved in discussions of an intensely personal nature, such as relationships outside of work. Learning frameworks in organisations would be improved by recognition of such situations and relevant guidance and monitoring incorporated into

management development systems, including competency structures. A richer view through insights gathered via this perspective on the manager as coach and the employee as a coachee would be of wider interest in both academic and practitioner circles.

The perspectives of managers and their reports were generally similar around the value of coaching and effective coaching attributes, however a conflicting theme was identified in terms of time spent on coaching (outside of the coaching accreditation process), with managers generally stating more time was spent compared to the view of employee reports who were coached. Future research might consider a more rigorous methodological approach to the amount of time spent on coaching so as to analyse the reasons for any such divergence of opinion. Another contradictory theme identified via the secondary research data included the difference between the views of professional coaches and managers in the workplace, with the former group stating a value higher than the latter group. Within the research construct this was considered to be due to the professional coaches gaining feedback shortly after their coaching ended whilst the managers' viewpoint is likely to have been influenced by an historical perspective as well as a wish not to give their external coach negative feedback. However further research in this area would offer the potential to facilitate greater clarity on the reasons for this difference.

The importance of emotional intelligence to a participative management coaching style is an area that would benefit from greater research particularly within an organisational context. Goleman (1995, 1998) when referring to the concept of emotional intelligence and its related attributes including empathy and self-awareness argued that these social elements could be learned, in contrast to Collins (2001) who considered them to be inherent within personality types and requiring significant life changes to alter them. From these insights it is arguable that whichever doctrine is adopted that changing behaviour patterns would appear to offer much more complexity in developmental terms particularly concerning a significant developmental shift (Laske, 2004) than would appear to be the case for a change in, and adoption of, skill sets. From a learning perspective it was evident that whilst the coaching programme incorporated techniques to encourage self awareness and reflection on personal leadership style, based on feedback via the 9Factors™

Methodology and additional coaching questionnaires, this level of feedback was not as comprehensive in its nature as other formal 360 degree and psychometric assessment feedback models such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass and Avolio, 1996) and Hogan Inventories (Hogan, Hogan and Warrenfelz, 2007) used by the researcher at other organisations, which would have provided a different perspective and arguably helped to raise self- awareness further in line with the findings of Luthans and Peterson (2003), who identified the value of 360 degree feedback in the development process of behavioural change. There is potential for other research methods to investigate the use of tools that build self awareness and emotional intelligence, within an organisational case study.

As mentioned earlier in the research thesis, there is a relative lack of evidence-based research on organisational coaching and its impact on the workplace (Grant, 2007), particularly relating to specific case studies, and therefore this research is no more and no less than a contribution to the growing platform of evidence-based knowledge on line manager coaching in the workplace.

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Appendix 1

Coaching Models and Frameworks

Hannah (2004) referred to the **ACER** model, within an organisational coaching context, defining the four stages as: **Assess** – motivation gap/blockers and enablers; **Challenge** – mental models and options; **Encourage** – implementation and action; and **Review** – progress, focus and learning.

The **ACHIEVE** model involves a seven stage process (**Assess** current situation, **Creative** brainstorming of alternatives to current situation, **Hone** goals, **Initiate** options, **Evaluate** options, **Valid** action programme design and **Encourage** momentum) and was developed by Dembkowski and Eldridge (2003) from the well-known **GROW** model (Whitmore, 1999). Dembkowski, Eldridge and Hunter (2006) later discussed how this coaching model could be used for Executive coaching.

Campion (2006) referred to the **ARC** model (**Awareness** of the issues, **Relationship** of trust, **Choices** of the client) in terms of building awareness and relationships to assist in determining the most appropriate choices and decisions.

The **ASPIRES** model developed by Mackintosh (2003) focuses on sales field visits (**Agreement** – required outcomes from visit, **Specific objectives** – goals, **Pre-call** – objectives for each sales call, **In-call** – awareness and monitoring of discussion, **Review** of the call against the objectives, **Encourage** and enthuse for next call, **Support** – ongoing).

The **BASIC** coaching model is a proprietary product developed by Coach U, a coaching consultancy. The model sets out three key coaching skills – questions, messages and responses, all of which focus on listening, feeling and responding (Leonard, 1998).

The **CARERS** model developed by Mackintosh (2003) seeks to establish the root cause of poor performance through a framework of **Clarity** (clear objectives), **Ability**, **Rewards**, **Environment**, **Relationships** and **Support**.

The **Coaching for Results** model uses four basic steps: firstly the setting of specific and long term goals for the coaching process; secondly the exploration of the current predicament in terms of personal reactions, problems and possibilities; thirdly the identification of options through which a realistic goal can be achieved; and finally commitment to a timed action plan through which the goal can be accomplished (King and Eaton, 1999).

Gonzalez (2005) created a **COLLABORATIVE** coaching model, which was developed as a doctorate dissertation, based on a philosophy of collaboration and partnership between coach and coachee. The model is designed for managing communication, emotional and/or psychological issues in personal or workplace relationships.

Martin (1996) refers to the **Corporate Transformation Process**, which was created in the late 1980s by an American Consultancy, Creative Dimensions in Management (CDM), based on a combination of mentoring, therapy and coaching techniques and designed to deliver step change improvement rather than incremental performance improvement, thus requiring a range of interventions to support clients.

Laske (1999, 2004) developed a coaching model based on **developmental coaching** and later linked a methodology based on return on investment to research on coaching clients.

The **DREAM** Model is a proprietary model copyrighted by Coaching and Mentoring International (Gee, 2006) and is designed to assist the decision making process within a coaching session (Decide – what you want to achieve, Rate – how much you want to achieve the goal, Encourage – consider the strategies you need to use to achieve your goal, Action – specific plans, Make it happen – taking ownership).

The **Effective Coaching Model**, developed by Cook (1999) is a seven step process aimed at defining an opportunity and/or problem, defining a goal, creating an action statement, creating an action plan, setting an evaluation standard, confirming understanding and planning follow-up activity.

Cauffman and Berg (2002) discuss the **EIGHT STEP DANCE** model which is based on a solutions focused framed coaching discussion and is particularly suited to corporate environments (Socialising – good working relationship, Context – consideration of related issues, Goal Setting – clear, concrete and realistic goals, Exceptions – focus on when things go right even if exception, Resources – consider every resource tool available, Complimenting – give positive feedback, Scaling Questions – use of a ten point scale, Future orientation; ‘the miracle question’ – if a miracle happened overnight which resolved the problem, how would you know?)

Wilson (2007) developed the **EXACT** model, which is designed as a framework for goal setting, placing emphasis on a positive and exciting goal, within a framework of self-directed learning.

Pemberton (2006) addressed the issue of applying coaching skills in the workplace within a framework of several models based on a solution-focused approach, including **FAST**, a ‘brief therapy’ technique (focused, action-oriented, solution driven, timely), which was initially developed for social workers and counsellors in the UK as a way of utilising coaching in a quick and effective manner.

Duncan (2006) considered the performance relationship $\text{Performance} = \text{Potential} - \text{Interference}$ (Gallwey, 1986) and compared to the physicist’s formula Ohm’s Law in electricity $\text{Flux} = \text{Driving Force} \text{ divided by Resistance}$ to develop the **FLUX** model (Flow to Lessen resistance and Unleash Xcellence) for performance improvement in corporate coaching. Duncan views the model as a way to reduce resistance to change by removing limiting beliefs and building self-esteem; liberate the individual by acknowledging change and recognising choice; increasing the driving force for change by goal-setting, action implementation and the establishment of new habits and reinforcement behaviours.

Hardingham (2004) developed the **Goal Setting Process**, a framework to enable a coach to structure discussions to diagnose in terms of a positive outcome, check personal commitment to the outcome, think systemically being aware of effect on self and others, check control in terms of realistic attainment, assess value and benefits,

create measures, review diagnosis and test reality through the expression of the goal and actions required.

The **GO MAD THINKING SYSTEM** is a proprietary facilitation framework developed via a research project undertaken by Gilbert and Chakravorty (2001). The model can be used in a variety of coaching situations and is based on a pyramid shaped framework with a base of defining goals (reasons and priorities), a second tier of self belief, personal responsibility and involvement of others with a final 'cap' of taking action and measuring results. The broad framework of the **GO MAD THINKING SYSTEM** was developed to produce the **GO MAD Macro Analysis System**, a collective model to support corporate leadership, based on organisation (reason why), culture (collective beliefs), vision and objectives, management thinking and planning, people, and leadership responsibility.

The **GROW** (Goal, Reality, Options, Willingness/Wrap-Up) model developed by Whitmore (1999) is probably the best-known coaching model in the UK and Europe, if not the world, and the model that most strongly influences coaching in the workplace today. As such, the development of many of the coaching models in use today were influenced by Whitmore's work. The **T-GROW** model is based on the **GROW** model with emphasis at the outset on the wider consideration of the Topic or general theme of the coaching sessions.

The **Helping Process** (Egan, 1998) was initially developed to support counselling conversations but also offers a structure for coaching dialogue. The four stages are: (i) **Present Scenario/Problem Identification** – story, blind spots identification/challenge, clarification and themes; (ii) **Develop a Plan** – identification of preferred possibilities, creation of variable goals, choice and commitment; (iii) **Formulate Plans/Strategies** – range of strategies to choose from using the **SAMCET** evaluation approach (Simple, Attainable, Measurable, Concrete, Evaluative, Timely); and (iv) **Action**.

The **HIGH PERFORMANCE** coaching model is a proprietary product developed by Breen and Percival (2005) and focuses on direction, motivation, beliefs, achievement, resources and choices.

The **IDEAS** coaching methodology (Initiate – including objectives, Discuss issues and current performance, Evaluate alternatives, Action planning and Support) is a proprietary executive coaching product framed around behaviour driving performance (Changescape, 2003).

The **INNER GAME** model was developed by Gallwey (1986), who through his experiences as a tennis coach noticed that there was an internal conversation taking place in a player's mind and he labelled the internal voices Self 1 (negative) and Self 2 (potential). From this he developed an equation to express how performance can be improved through reducing internal interference; Potential minus Interference equals Performance. This approach seeks to achieve an optimum state of performance flow conducive to the player performing to potential.

The **INNER and OUTER MODEL OF DEVELOPMENT** was created through academic research in a UK clearing bank and emphasised the importance of self-awareness in a coaching situation through focusing on the areas of management, work/life balance, stress management, understanding of differences and assertiveness (Wales, 2003).

The **INTENTIONAL CHANGE** model focuses on five 'discoveries' namely the development of self, an assessment of strengths and weaknesses, the development of a learning agenda and plan, experimentation and practice of new behaviours, and the establishment of a coach relationship for support (Boyatzis, 2004).

Cottell (2006b) reported on the Lee Hecht Harrison consultancy's coaching model, **OISR** (Outcome, Information, Strategy, Results) used at Catholic Health, a not-for-profit health organisation with 65,000 employees operating in the US.

The **OSKAR** method is a proprietary approach developed by Solutions Focus (2005), a coaching consultancy, which aims to find out what works so coachee can do more of, and what doesn't work so that coachee can stop doing (Outcome – objective/goal, Scaling – on a scale of 0 to 10 with 0 representing worst the problem has ever been and 10 the preferred future, Know-how and resources, Affirmation and Review).

Another variation of the OSKAR method is the **OSCAR** model which replaces Know-how with Choices (Higginbottom, 2004).

The **OUTCOMES** coaching model (Objectives, Understanding, Take stock, Clarify the gap, Options generation, Motivate to action, Enthusiasm and encouragement, Support) developed by Mackintosh (2003) is based on the GROW model and claims to provide a more structured and disciplined approach to help managers for whom coaching is not a full-time activity.

Salisbury (1992) developed the **POWER** coaching model (Purpose and parameters, Objectives and options, What's happening now? Empowerment and Review), which in keeping with many models has similarities to the GROW model.

The **PYRAMID of SUCCESS** is based on four tiers of building blocks: the first tier comprising of Industriousness and Enthusiasm (devotion and belief), Friendship, Cooperation and Loyalty (rapport, trust, supportiveness); the second tier blocks are Self- control, Intensity (consistency, stability, focus), Alertness and Initiative (allowing for mistakes, quick thinking); the third tier blocks are Conditioning, Skill and Team Spirit (individual responsibility for performance and putting team first); and the final tiers are Poise, Confidence and Competitive Greatness.

The **SAFE** model (Summarise specific behaviours and consequences, Ask to gain understanding of behaviour and desire to improve, Formulate a plan of action and desired consequences, Express gratitude for employee's effort and participation) was developed by Sibson (2003) for use in a call centre environment particularly for performance improvement.

According to Jackson (2003) the **SHORT STORY** method offers an additional tool to other models, possibly as an enhancement or replacement to an action plan, through the coachee being encouraged to visualise the next step, for example how they will behave in the respective scenario.

Jackson and McKergow (2002) discussed the **SIMPLE** model, which is a solutions based coaching approach, focusing on developing solutions through finding out what

works most effectively for an individual rather than focusing on the problem to be solved. The first step being to understand the current situation and frame this perspective as a 'platform' on which solutions can be developed through the creation of a positive mindset by the use of questions that focus on the client's strengths and/or past successes. The coach then moves onto encouraging the coachee to move their attention to the future to develop conversations that can lead to solutions.

Gee (2005) refers to the **STAR** model (Stop – take a step back and reflect, Think – in a non-judgemental self aware way, Assess – options in the light of reflection, Respond – selecting an appropriate option) which Gee asserts is particularly useful for interpersonal relationships.

Pemberton (2006) developed the **STARTED** model (Set-up, Tangibles, Assumptions, Reality bites, Targeting, Emergent solutions, and Delivery) to support the integration of coaching behaviours into a line manager's overall approach.

Burley (2004) refers to the **STOP, START and CONTINUE** coaching model which can be used for various scenarios including manager and employee relationships, for example an employee could ask the manager what he/she should stop doing, start doing and continue doing.

The **STORYTELLING** coaching model developed by Lipman (1995) sets out a four part coaching structure based around storytelling (Listening, Appreciating, Suggesting and Asking). The development of the model was based around classroom teaching although a revival in the popularity of storytelling in management communication has led to similar approaches being taken up in business situations.

Burdett (1998) refers to the **STRETCH** model, part of a three stage behavioural change coaching framework involving (i) Game Plan, (ii) Following the Play and (iii) Time Out. The third part 'Time Out' is around the Stretch model (Set the context and engage client in defining the problem or opportunity, Transfer the problem or opportunity to the client, Revisit the perfect scenario, Establish the individual motivation including consequences of not changing, Take time to agree on what will

change, Catch the coachee doing it right and Have a time set aside to celebrate success).

The **7 EYED SUPERVISION** model (Hawkins and Shoet, 1989) was originally developed for use with psychotherapists and counsellors, however the model can be applied to coaching and mentoring interventions. The model specifies seven areas that supervision can focus on namely the problem, the focus of the coach intervention, the relationship and dynamics between the coach and coachee, the coach's own experience, the information the coach has absorbed from the coaching relationship, self reflection, the organisational, social, cultural, ethical and contractual context. As such the model covers both reflection on the practicalities of the coaching and the dynamics of the coaching relationship.

Appendix 2

Nine Factors Cultural Assessment Questionnaire
Investors in People Edition

*Prepared from research in association with the University of Exeter's Economic Psychology
Research Group*

CULTURAL ASSESSMENT

for

XXXXXXXXXX

This questionnaire is designed to help us to better understand the culture at XXXXXXXXX. A culture is what affects our morale and motivation, our attitudes and the quality of our work performance. The quality of our culture and the effect that it has upon us is therefore very important. Please take a few minutes to answer the questions on the following pages. Your answers will be treated in strict confidence and will be placed with those of your colleagues to produce a profile for the XXXXXXXXX.

Please tick the relevant boxes to indicate your department/team, job grade, ethnic origin and gender and then answer the questions as honestly as you can, using the scoring method illustrated on the following page.

NINE FACTORS QUESTIONNAIRE

How to Score

For each question score five points by filling in five boxes on the score bar below each question. Your score will depend on your strength of feeling towards the question from strong positive (5+) down to strong negative (5-).

Your score will be all positive, all negative or a mixture of both positive and negative. Altogether there are 6 alternative ways you can score and these are shown below:

Score five positive

- +

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Score four positive

- +

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Score three positive

- +

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Score two positive

- +

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Score one positive

- +

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Score nil

- +

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

← NEGATIVE 0 POSITIVE →

1) Does Management make clear your role in achieving XXXXXXXX objectives?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

2) Do you feel a sense of pride working for XXXXXXXX?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

3) Is there consistency in your branch/department between plans made and follow up actions?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

4) Do you have confidence in XXXXXXXX and its management?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

5) Do you feel you are treated fairly by XXXXXXXX?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

6) Do you feel there is a fair balance between your personal needs and what XXXXXXXX require of you?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

7) Can you talk openly and constructively with your supervisor/manager?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

8) Do you feel your efforts are properly recognised and rewarded?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

9) Are the differences in benefits between yourself and other colleagues fair?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

10) Are people treated with consideration and respect as individuals?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

11) Do you feel you are a valued member of your team?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

12) Do people generally within the organisation trust each other?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

13) Do you and your supervisor/manager discuss how best you can do your job?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

14) Is your supervisor/manager prepared to discuss problems and work opportunities with you?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

← NEGATIVE 0 POSITIVE →

15) Do you have all the information you need to do your job well?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

16) Is your supervisor/manager prepared to listen to different points of view and act on them?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

17) Is your work clearly related to goals and objectives?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

18) Do you get satisfaction from your work?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

19) Do you feel that your personal ambitions can be satisfied by XXXXXXXX?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

20) Are your personal achievements properly recognised by your supervisor/manager?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

21) Do managers tackle problems with a reasoned and balanced approach?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

22) Are you kept informed about XXXXXXXX policies and plans?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

23) Are you encouraged to learn from your mistakes?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

24) Does the XXXXXXXX management team properly explain decisions?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

25) Does XXXXXXXX value its people and try to develop them?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

26) Are good development and training opportunities provided and are you encouraged to use them?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

27) Are you encouraged to take responsibility for your own work quality and performance?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

28) Are you encouraged to work on your own initiative?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

← NEGATIVE 0 POSITIVE →

29) Is there a good team spirit within your team?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

30) Are there good working relationships between teams?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

31) Are meetings focused on producing effective results?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

32) Does your team have a strong loyalty to XXXXXXXX?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

33) Do you feel a sense of loyalty toward XXXXXXXX?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

34) Do you feel a sense of belonging and being part of XXXXXXXX?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

35) Do you feel that the work you do is worthwhile?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

36) Are you dedicated to XXXXXXXX standards and values?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

1) Please indicate the division/team to which you belong by ticking the appropriate box below:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5 th Floor Pas, Directors | <input type="checkbox"/> Internal Audit, Procurement |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Business Improvement, Project Development (DMMs execs + Pas) | <input type="checkbox"/> Lending Operations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Business Operations, Customer Services and Operations | <input type="checkbox"/> Marketing/Corporate Communications |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Call Centre | <input type="checkbox"/> National Sales (England) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Commercial Sales, Community Development, Relief Team, Retail Operations, Telephone/Electronic | <input type="checkbox"/> National Sales (Wales) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Compliance, Equity Release, Legal Services | <input type="checkbox"/> People Development |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Corporate Facilities | <input type="checkbox"/> Project Nucleus |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Corporate Finance | <input type="checkbox"/> Regional Sales (North) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Financial and Accounting | <input type="checkbox"/> Regional Sales (South) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Financial Services | <input type="checkbox"/> Regional Sales (West) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Information Technology | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) |

2) Please indicate the job grade range to which you belong by ticking the appropriate box below:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> A to C | <input type="checkbox"/> D to F |
| <input type="checkbox"/> G to J | <input type="checkbox"/> K and over |

3) Please indicate your ethnicity by ticking the appropriate box below:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> White | <input type="checkbox"/> Other Ethnic Origin |
|--------------------------------|--|

4) Please indicate your gender by ticking the appropriate box below:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Male | <input type="checkbox"/> Female |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|

Appendix 3

Coaching Feedback Survey Questionnaire – Coachees

1	Does your manager clarify the behaviours, knowledge and levels of proficiency required of you?
2	Does your manager seek and share information with you and check mutual understanding?
3	Does your manager provide guidance, positive examples and opportunities for you to develop your skills?
4	Does your manager encourage you to ask questions and seek clarification?
5	Does your manager give you timely and appropriate feedback on your performance?
6	Does your manager recognise your efforts and contributions?
7	Do you feel valued and appreciated by your manager?
8	Do you feel that your manager is supportive and helps to enhance your self-esteem?
9	Does your manager involve you in decisions that affect you, your work and your team?
10	Does your manager give you the appropriate authority and resource to make decision?
11	How many decisions did you refer to your manager during the week?
12	How many of these referrals were because you did not have the authority?
13	How many of these referrals were because you did not have the knowledge?
14	How many of these referrals were for other reasons?

Scores were allocated as follows:

- 5 = Always
- 4 = Mostly
- 3 = Sometimes
- 2 = Rarely
- 1 = Never

Appendix 4

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WHAT'S IT LIKE TO BE COACHED?

Please answer the following questions with respect to your current job and current manager.

<i>PLEASE TICK AS APPROPRIATE</i>		
1.	The amount of coaching I receive is:	
	-	More than I want or need
	-	Just about right
	-	Not as much as I want
	-	Zero – I don't receive any coaching from my manager

2.	My coaching conversations I've had with my manager on my performance have been driven by:	
	-	My requests for help
	-	My manager's belief that I needed coaching
	-	An established schedule of coaching conversations
	-	Our organisation's performance management system
	-	Not applicable – my manager doesn't coach me on my performance

3.	The coaching I receive:	
	-	Has contributed significantly to my performance
	-	Has slightly improved my performance
	-	Has had little or no impact on my performance
	-	Has actually hurt my performance
	-	Is non-existent – my manager doesn't coach me on my performance

4.	Most coaching conversations I've had with my manager on my career or personal goals have been driven by:	
	-	My requests for help
	-	My manager's belief that I needed coaching
	-	An established schedule of coaching conversations
	-	Our organisation's performance management system
	-	Not applicable – my manager doesn't coach me about these issues

5.	The coaching I receive:	
	-	Has contributed significantly to my job satisfaction
	-	Has slightly improved my job satisfaction
	-	Has had little or no impact on my job satisfaction
	-	Has actually decreased my job satisfaction
	-	Is non-existent – my manager doesn't coach me on my job satisfaction and career

6.	The best thing about this coach was that he/she:	
	-	Increased my self confidence
	-	Treated me as an individual, understanding my unique needs
	-	Stretched me beyond what I thought I could do
	-	Encouraged me to take risks
	-	Trusted me with special assignments
	-	Inspired me to achieve my potential
	-	Provided useful feedback to help me achieve my goals
	-	Guided me with his/her personal insights, learnings and experience

Appendix 5

What's it like to coach?

1.	In an average month was the time you spent on coaching:	
	-	A lot less time than I should
	-	Less time than I should
	-	About the right amount of time
	-	More time than I should
	-	A lot more time than I should

2.	In general I tried to focus most of my coaching on:	
	-	High performers
	-	Average performers
	-	Low performers
	-	New employees
	-	Everyone but dependent on need
	-	Those employees who ask
	-	No-one – I don't coach

3.	In general I:	
	-	Loved to coach
	-	Liked to coach
	-	Didn't really like to coach
	-	Dreaded coaching
	-	Am not sure how I feel about coaching

4.	The biggest challenge I faced in coaching was that:	
	-	It took too long
	-	I had too many direct reports
	-	I was not comfortable having coaching discussions
	-	I was not sure where to start
	-	I didn't have all the answers
	-	I didn't think it could help me achieve my goals
	-	I didn't see the results of my efforts
	-	I didn't like to coach

5.	XXXXXXXXXX:	
	-	Expected me to coach
	-	Did not expect me to coach
	-	Was not bothered either way

6.	My manager:	
	-	Expected me to coach
	-	Did not expect me to coach
	-	Was not bothered either way

7.	What is your view on the impact of the coaching programme (rate on a scale of 5 with 1=none, 2=little, 3=slightly improved, 4=improved, 5=significantly improved):	
	-	Employee Engagement
	-	Profitability
	-	Sales
	-	Customer Service
	-	Other (please detail)

8.	How much time per month did you spend coaching (in hours or part hours)?
-	

9.	How much time per month should I have coached in an ideal world?
-	

Appendix 6

Participant Communication for Discussion Groups

Dear Colleague

This workshop is one of several being held throughout the Society to ascertain employees' views on what it is like to work for XXXXXXXX. The value of face to face communication is in the potential to explore the reasons for the written survey responses, thus helping to create a more meaningful and effective improvement action plan.

A part of the workshop will focus on management behaviour. I intend to use the feedback in this section of the survey to inform my personal research on organisational coaching, which I am conducting as a registered research degree student with the University of Central England. The purpose of my research degree is to identify the way in which management behaviour, in particular coaching, can impact on employee performance, both positively and negatively.

I will not make use of the information gathered for any purpose other than this research. The information will not be forwarded to any third party other than in a contextual format which will not identify individual input. No individual feedback will be personally identified.

It is only through such research projects that consider personal and sensitive issues that our understanding of management behaviour on employee motivation can be identified.

By participating in this workshop you will be furthering a greater understanding of workplace motivation and performance. Please take this opportunity to do so.

PS Turner (January 2005)

I hereby give my authority for the information supplied to be used for the purposes described above.

Name: Signature:

Appendix 7

Managers' Interview Questionnaire

Question 1 What was the best feature or features of the XXXXXXXX's approach to coaching?

The predominant theme focused on the organisation's decision to make a leadership coaching style a strategic approach which, through the support of senior management, spread right across the organisation and became a 'norm' in terms of management behaviour. Examples of this view included the following verbatim comments from interviewees.

Interviewee A – *'The fact that it was supported by top levels of management obviously gave it the focus and importance that it needed if it was going to permeate through'*

Interviewee B – *'The key feature was the consistency of approach right across the organisation. Also that it supported the overall caring, recognition and valuing people philosophy I wished to see in XXXXXXXX'*

Interviewee C – *'The best features for me was that it was a prominent feature of the culture of the organisation so it became the expected norm'*

Interviewee E – *'For me I guess it was inclusive across the organisation ...the overall strategic approach to actually incorporate the coaching culture within the business'*

Interviewee G – *'...giving the other person a chance to air their views, and I suppose in coaching the one thing you learn is that if you're not putting the words in the other person's mouth and you're encouraging them to be open and honest with you, you get a feel for things from the other person's perspective and I suppose finding out the underlying reasons for a person's performance...bad ...or good'*

The way in which the coaching skill training was implemented was also seen as a positive feature, particularly the demonstration of coaching at the beginning of the Level 1 course.

Interviewee D – *‘I think the idea of having one of the coaching firm, who were engaged to kick the project off, actually do a coaching exercise on the people who were going to be coaching was particularly valuable...’*

Question 2 What was the worst feature or features of the XXXXXXXXX’s approach to coaching?

The main themes of the responses to this question was around the approach and quality of coaching being dependent upon the manager and from an organisational view that whilst the coaching culture spread across the business there were several functional areas which did not fully embrace the coaching concept in practical terms. The issue of having the time to coach was also raised.

Interviewee A – *‘I think the worst thing was as with anything of this nature it depends on who’s delivering it. If you have somebody delivering it who is actually telling everybody he/she is a coach and not actually delivering coaching then it all falls down’*

Interviewee E – *‘I guess it was that different parts of the business bought into it and really took it on board whereas other parts of the business pretty much paid lip service or even ignored it’*

Interviewee H – *‘it’s having the time to do that coaching on a daily basis...you just haven’t got the manpower to do it’*

Question 3 Do you have a view on the impact of the coaching programme on individual, team and organisational performance?

Generally all interviewees found the coaching programme to be positive in terms of impact with several believing it to have had a very positive impact and a number believing the impact to be significant. The issue which was raised earlier, of variability in coaching delivery and quality, was also raised.

Interviewee A – *'... for me in the main it was very positive ... I think it did help because it was there and never went away. I think from the top part of the business down it was almost relentless in that respect, which is good because if you are going to introduce something like that the business has got to follow it through to its natural end if this is one'*

Interviewee B – *' Yes I firmly believe that it was a key feature of the tremendous success we achieved at XXXXXXXX with record profit performance and industry wide recognition ...I'm not saying it was the only reason but it was a main one and made an impact at individual and organisational level' (ex Chief Executive)*

Interviewee E – *'...the coaching approach made a significant difference in terms of business performance both individual, team and overall business performance ...and particularly you notice it with those who really did get into the coaching culture, their performance as top performers just went through the roof'*

Interviewee F – *'Certainly once you move from consciously coaching to sub-consciously coaching, so you were doing it without having to think back to your models, I think it then started to add a lot of value'*

Interviewee H – *'... it brought more sales into the business so it was very rewarding for me'*

Question 4 What would have improved the impact of the coaching programme?

The main themes focused on the level of documentation, the need for more support, more time and the way in which the programme was implemented strategically in that all managers were required to coach.

Interviewee B – *'maybe we could have given more support in completing coaching logs, or allowed more time for this but there is not a way that I could think of that was significant'*

Interviewee D – *'I think a more flexible approach to how it was introduced and driven throughout the organisation. I am struggling really to come up with some enlightened thoughts on that ... I think that enthusiasm in some quarters waned a bit when it was driven into the organisation regardless'*

Interviewee F – *'perhaps you had no-one to go to if you were unsure about anything'*

Question 5 When was the coaching programme at its most effective?

The general consensus was that the coaching programme reached peak effectiveness some two to three years after its initial launch to the business that is 2005/2006. Other interviewees related this question to their individual position.

Interviewee E – *'... probably about two or three years after the launch ... so I would say 2005/2006 was when it really became instilled within certain parts of the business like the sales area. That was when it really did start to make a noticeable difference in peoples' behaviour and peoples' performance'*

Interviewee F – *'I'm quite proud that my staff retention has been way below the average.....and I think that coaching has got to play a part in that, in that they are motivated, they understand their roles, they can challenge results and they're encouraged to come up with their own way forward and develop their own development plans through the coaching programme'*

Interviewee G – *'In the middle (2005) because I think you have to develop a trust factor'*

Question 6 When was the coaching programme at its least effective?

Several interviewees stated that the coaching programme was consistently effective but others referred to circumstances where individual managers were not coaching, during the initial deployment of the programme and during 2007 when the programme appeared to be reduced in terms of importance particularly in respect of how it supported the organisational culture.

Interviewee A – *'When the person who was managing wasn't doing it. You couldn't get less effective than having a coach who doesn't coach'*

Interviewee B – *'... when the culture changed, following my departure I think, from what I have heard, the coaching suffered' (ex Chief Executive)*

Interviewee H – *'... I would say at the beginning because it was something that came out of nowhere... we were just sent on a course and we came back and fed this back to the staff'*

Question 7 Are there any areas that are best suited to coaching – that is either topic or person?

The areas mentioned included performance management, personal development, sales and customer service. However, most interviewees felt that coaching was relevant in all areas of the business and in respect of all employees.

Interviewee E – ‘No I don’t think there are because I think it can work across the board. I’ll come back to this fundamental belief that I believe that coaching is a style of interaction’

Interviewee F – ‘I think performance coaching.....we work in a very harsh environment with a lot of competition and we need our people to be performing on a daily basis ...’

Interviewee H – ‘... it can help any number of staff with their sales and any problems that they’re having with approaching a customer, which will generate other sales’

Question 8 Do you have any personal views on the coaching programme that have not been discussed earlier?

Most interviewees stressed the positive aspects of the coaching programme with views ranging from the fact that coaching supported the required cultural change, added value and that simply it was the right thing to do at that time in terms of leadership development.

Interviewee C – ‘I just think it was the right thing to do – I was proud to be part of it. I think everything went in the right way, the right approach; for me it was very good ... it was perfect for me’

Interviewee F – ‘I think the coaching certainly was a buzzword, certainly for me the first I heard of a coaching programme was when XXXXXXXX introduced it. We’ve got a whole new branch management team who have yet to go through the coaching accreditation and I think that needs to be rolled out quickly so that it continues to be part of the culture going forward’

Interviewee G – ‘Other than the time factor – having the physical time...’

Appendix 8

Group Discussion Sessions; Semi-Structured Framework

Employee Reports

Are you happy with level of coaching time you receive? How much coaching do you receive? Is this about right, too much, too little?

What do you find are the best topics/areas for coaching?

Who instigates coaching sessions? Your request, your manager's request, XXXXXXXX's process?

Are you coached now? How many hours?

How much benefit do you get out of coaching sessions? Examples?

How important is coaching now compared to when formal programme was running?

When was coaching activity at its peak?

What is the best characteristic of a great coach?

What part of the coaching programme could have been done better?

What was good about the programme?

Managers Interview Format

Review areas of documented feedback with manager.

How important is coaching now in XXXXXXXXX compared to during the programme?

Do you like to coach?

What is your biggest challenge to/when coaching?

What lessons have you learned in terms of getting maximum benefit from coaching sessions?

What type of areas/topics benefit most from coaching? And the types of employee i.e. average, high, low, new, everyone.

What has changed between the time of the coaching programme and now?

Discuss the time spent on coaching. % terms

Should you spend more, same or less time on coaching?

Does XXXXXXXXX demand, expect, you to coach? Any reward for coaching? Is it important?

What could have been done better?

What was good about the programme?

What would you not do?

Appendix 9

Coaching Impact Assessment Record

Name of Coach

Date Coaching Commenced

Name of Coachee

Date Coaching Concluded

Background

This section enabled managers to provide the background to the coaching in terms of the general areas covered and the importance of these to the coachee with links to the organisation's needs.

Coaching Models and Dates

This section included the specific dates of the coaching sessions. Also reference is made to the coaching models and tools used within the coaching sessions and the reasons why such approaches were adopted.

Reaction of Individual

This section enabled input on the reaction of the individual to the coaching in terms of motivation and achievement, also any specific challenges that needed to be overcome.

Impact of Individual

This section enabled information on any change in the coachee's behaviour during the period of coaching, particularly relating to those behaviours that were required to progress the goals identified in the coaching session.

Impact on the Business

This refers to the specific goals of the coaching sessions and actual achievement whether this was in a tangible performance area such as sales, productivity or customer service, or a less tangible area relating to personal development skills.

Coaching Testimonial

This provided a summary of the coachee's view of the coaching in terms of the process, their personal view and the impact.

Appendix 10

Organisational Coaching Development Stages – An Approach

The overall context of the coaching activity within the case study setting was related to organisational development and change. In developing a leadership coaching approach to support the use of transactional and transformational management behaviours (Kotter, 1990) the research considered the high level or macro steps required to effect this change. From such a perspective an approach was developed which drew on the work of Kotter and Cohen (2002) in relation to their change model, the eight steps of change, with a particular emphasis of establishing a sense of purpose, a coalition of key stakeholders to drive the implementation, communicating to and the empowering of employees whether coaches or coachees, through to embedding behaviours and evaluating results. This research study has established a view of coaching in the workplace through a case study approach and a wider review of external coaching. Through this a number of key steps, eight in all, have been identified which are recognised within the research as being conducive to the development of a coaching culture. These are set out below in a diagrammatic illustration. Whilst there may be benefit in viewing them in a linear stage frame, there is also a need to view the elements from a flexible phase adaptation, noting that the areas may not be applicable to all situations.



The stages are further detailed below:

- 1. Set out the vision – establish the business case, gain top level commitment and desire.**

There is a need to establish early on the overarching vision and purpose of the intended coaching approach through engaging key stakeholders. The way in which this can be achieved will vary dependent upon the organisation, situation and context. However a diagnostic approach is recommended with the aim of developing and seeking answers to key questions, which this research has identified to assess the readiness of the organisation for the adoption of a coaching culture. The organisation will need to consider whether to appoint an external consultant or consultancy to facilitate this part of the process. Given the importance of this stage of the process the organisation should ensure, that whether an internal or external approach is chosen, it has sufficient knowledge and skills to undertake a thorough diagnosis. The diagnosis phase will seek to achieve a detailed understanding to a series of questions with the overarching question being ‘why is a coaching culture required?’ Other questions may include the following:

- What is the vision and purpose of the coaching programme?
- What are the organisation’s objectives? What are the objectives of the coaching programme?
- What is the culture? How is it measured? What are the formal and informal values? Are they aligned to a coaching culture?
- What is the shape of the organisation’s structure e.g. hierarchical, matrix?
- Is the organisation a learning organisation (consider the level of the responsibility balance between organisation, manager and employee)?
- What is the state of readiness of its managers in respect of coaching application?
- How will coaching fit with other learning and development activity (e.g. competencies, evaluation methods, management development programmes)?
- What are the target leadership groups for coaching interventions (all, senior, high potential)?

- What will be the structure and framework within which coaching will fit (line, matrix, structured/unstructured, boundaries)?
- How will the programme be evaluated and benefits and outcomes measured?
- What are the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats relating to the coaching programme?
- How will the programme be phased e.g. pilot, full-on?
- What will be the internal communication strategy including the internal marketing/positioning?
- What type of coaching framework and model(s) would be best suited to achieve the goals of the coaching programme?

By challenging the organisation to answer these questions the organisational context of coaching can be developed. The diagnosis will consider the organisational culture and those tenets of organisational culture that drive the leadership behaviours, taking fully into account the prevailing dominant logic of the organisation (Prahalad and Bettis 1986). The diagnosis phase should consider the likely barriers to the development of coaching within the respective organisation so that expected and unexpected developments can be planned for. It is likely that even at this early stage differences will emerge and from this possible conflict may accrue. Such a conflictual scenario should be accepted as a developmental team sequential stage rather than avoided with important differences left unresolved (Tuckman, 1965). Avoidance of potential challenge and issues at this stage may threaten the project at a later stage or at the very least affect the overall effectiveness of the coaching programme. The situational context is important as the current and desired organisational state will then drive the organisational definition of leadership coaching and the type/category of coaching development and skills model required to deliver this. At the end of the initial diagnosis phase the purpose of the coaching programme should have been drilled down and options established for objectives, goals, direction of route, outline process approaches, measurements and benchmarks. Based on the answers, and related discussions, to the initial questions a greater understanding and focus should emerge on which to take forward the development of the coaching programme.

Sub stage 1.1.

At some stage either preferably early on in the process, an external coaching partner(s) would usually be appointed. There would be exceptions to this, for example in the case of a large organisation with its own professional coaching resources (Hall, 2006c). The external coaching partner(s) would therefore be active to varying degrees in all or significant parts of the activities described in this framework dependent upon individual organisational factors. The starting point in the coach selection process could be to gain an understanding of the type of coaching suppliers available and whether a major conglomerate, an individual or a medium sized supplier would provide the best fit in terms of budget, skills, personality and culture. If appropriate a mix of suppliers across these three size ranges could be considered in the selection process (Ahern, 2005).

Whatever the decision in terms of size criteria the choice of the external coaching partner(s) is critical and a range of other factors should be considered including parameters of relationship, added value, potential for transfer of knowledge to internal learning and the balance between generalist and specialist development. A selection criterion could be developed identifying such factors as available budget, the required profile of the coach including a knowledge and skills inventory, qualifications and experience, range of techniques and models used and supervision arrangements (Jarvis, 2004). The recruitment/attraction process could utilise coaching associations/networks, referrals and the internet (Sparrow, 2006c). Once down to a short list by utilising the selection criterion then key questions can be formulated covering the area of experience, training, organisational dynamics and accreditation/qualifications process (Lee and Pick, 2004) and a review of professional status, coaching experience, track record, relevant experience, use of coaching methods, organisational fit, rapport and monitoring of progress (Moloney, 2005). The level of internal coaching capability should also be considered at this stage as, whichever stance is taken whether a high level of internal coaching capability or none at all, will affect the nature of the requirement for external coaching.

2. Form a coaching coalition – decide who is to be involved/developed and conduct a stakeholder analysis

Having considered the role and purpose of the proposed coaching programme and the selection and role of the external coaching supplier, there is a requirement to broaden the involvement of key stakeholders and this could be achieved through conducting a stakeholder analysis, a feature considered in a research project undertaken by the East London Business School and Rheinische Fachhochschule Cologne (2005) when discussing the nature of an organisational coaching initiative. This approach will require an initial stakeholder analysis to be conducted to ensure the validity of the responses to the questions raised during the initial diagnosis phase. This follow-up phase would ideally be kicked off during the initial diagnosis and can then be developed further at this stage, to ensure the identification and analysis of stakeholders. The stakeholder analysis provides an opportunity to take the top line areas identified by the initial diagnostic phase and drill down into more details through challenge and reasoning. The stakeholder make-up will be driven by the type of organisation and coaching context but generally could include representatives of five major category players namely coachee, line manager, organisation (often sub-divided into various players from key areas e.g. sales, finance), the programme co-ordinator and HR. The stakeholder analysis may benefit from the involvement of other stakeholders at this stage, e.g. Board, and identify both key and supporting stakeholders and establish a stakeholder strategy. A stakeholder analysis should be undertaken from a perspective on various factors such as power, interest, influence and operational support. This approach can identify and take into consideration within the planning process the rationale of the coaching strategy; type of coaching structure, e.g. internal, external or a mix of both; selection process of suppliers; range of coaching interventions, e.g. to cover work life or whole life; and the way in which coaching will interact and relate to other developmental options such as training, mentoring and performance management. This element can provide a picture of the organisational situation and prevailing culture as well as a further opportunity to strengthen the support and 'buy-in' of key influencers.

3. Generate a coaching strategy and plan – decide upon the strategic coaching structure and internal coaching delivery approaches

Once a diagnosis and stakeholder analysis has been conducted the organisation will be in a better position to gain initial top level commitment and finalise the strategic objectives and related coaching approaches to be applied, an approach discussed by Ledgerwood (2003) when he used the term strategic coaching to relate to corporate coaching and contrasted coaching activity in individual and corporate terms. These approaches will depend upon the nature of the organisational context and purpose of the coaching activity but would relate to the leadership coaching framework including tools to increase the self-awareness of the proposed coaches in addition to specific coaching techniques.

The learning from this research suggests that an audit of the readiness of the management team is beneficial, for example through 360 degree feedback, employee surveys and/or psychometric assessments. This could be accompanied by initial one-to-one coaching sessions to consider the personal development areas of each manager. Dependent upon the organisation and managerial context such one-to-one sessions may be rolled out to certain management categories, for example senior management, but there is considered to be benefit for the process to be conducted for all of the management population. The commercial nature of the business environment can determine approaches and resources, however the case study research identified that an awareness of the leadership perspective is in itself beneficial and provides insights on which to integrate developmental actions into the coaching strategy and plan.

The nature of the coaching skills programme would depend upon the diagnosis findings which would drive the type of coaching techniques required to achieve the aims of the initiative. The coaching skills model represents a key element of the coaching programme design. The most well known coaching model is arguably the GROW model (Whitmore, 1999) and a populist approach is to use the GROW model, or a derivative, as it offers an effective and simple coaching structure on which to develop technique. Alternatively

organisations may use the coaching framework and model of an external supplier. Within this research study a line manager coaching paradigm was considered in order to establish where the balance lay within the coaching process, for example between non-directive and directive, transactional and transformational, personal and work life. A coaching balance based on a business performance rationale was agreed within the case study organisation and from this a line manager coaching model, the 9R coaching model (Appendix 11). This model was created specifically for line manager application and developed within a broad coaching framework that is the 3T framework discussed earlier (6.2). The 9R coaching model may be of use in other organisational settings where the emphasis is on line managers' coaching their reports. Whichever coaching model is used it is important for it to be aligned to the coaching strategy and to recognise the nature of coaching in the workplace, particularly from a line manager (coach) and employee (coachee) perspective. A three dimensional view which incorporated the perspectives of individuals, teams and the organisation proved beneficial within the research study to the development and implementation of the coaching programme.

4. Integrate and align – merge the coaching programme into organisational people process

Having agreed the coaching strategy and broad content of the programme consideration should be given to understanding the various linkages to the overarching people processes that exist within the organisation (Bill, 2002). These linkages may include the integration of coaching into leadership development programmes, performance management systems, evaluation measures, training frameworks including follow-up coaching after training sessions to embed learning, talent management and succession strategies, graduate programmes, innovation and creativity initiatives, reward strategies and policies, employee retention and well-being programmes. However this research would indicate that the coaching integration plan would particularly benefit from the incorporation of key areas such as other learning and development interventions, leadership and management development,

performance management processes, appraisal reviews and management reward/recognition schemes. The latter area of reward is the most contentious within organisations undertaking coaching programmes with very few linking coaching activity with reward payments or initiatives (Blessing White, 2005a, 2009), yet such reward approaches are considered to be characteristic factors of organisations which are highly committed to achieving a coaching culture through a strategic coaching structure (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 2005a). Within the research case study initiatives were introduced including recognition through public presentation and a reward refinement to the corporate bonus scheme which ensured that only managers who had achieved the coaching accreditation level were eligible for the highest level of performance bonus.

5. Communicate the message – develop and deploy a communication strategy

The importance of a communication strategy in managing cultural change is emphasised by McAleese and Hargie (2004) and such an approach links to the development of a coaching culture. The communication strategy therefore represents a major tool in embedding coaching into organisational life and achieving the desired cultural change. Within the case study this was an area that provided high learning in that during the first phase of the programme the communication ‘radar’ spanned only the management team. No overarching communications were sent to the employees; instead it was left to the managers to individually communicate in their own way. This led to a confusion of message as different managers communicated different themes on the coaching message, sometimes in a positive manner and sometimes, although less often, in a negative way. The focus had been on the manager as the coach and not the employee as a coachee. This approach failed to recognise the coachee perspective and did not help to ameliorate or overcome any initial resistance to coaching from employee reports.

As the coaching programme rolled out improvements were identified through the action learning approach adopted and an internal coaching communication

process was created which reduced the 'rumour mill', prepared employees for their coaching sessions and provided everyone with a consistent high level message. This increased the effectiveness of the coaching programme implementation in line with other examples reported by Sparrow (2006b). Through a process of continuous improvement the internal communication process broadened to include newsletters, face to face coaching induction briefings and email updates all of which covered a range of topics including ongoing benefits, coaching success stories, the provision of feedback and hints and tips on coaching techniques.

6. Establish quality process – develop an accreditation process to test and assess

If an accreditation process is to be used then a framework will need to be developed. The type of accreditation will need to be considered, for example whether the standard is an informal one to be used internally only as in the case study organisation or if the standard is to be externally verified. The use of an external supplier within the accreditation process should be considered to ensure objectivity and enhance quality standards. The accreditation of the external supplier will be influential in decisions relating to the accreditation process and this factor would have been addressed at the selection and appointment stage of the external supplier. The debate as to whether such professional accreditation will move towards a centralised professional association or focus on several professional associations or networks is ongoing (Soriano, 2007) and therefore will impact on both supplier selection and internal accreditation approaches.

Either way the internal accreditation assessment process should be transparent and rigorous enough to achieve internal credibility. The accreditation process may follow several different channels including examination, written submissions, observations and testimonials and can be time fixed or ongoing. The research findings would indicate that there are disadvantages to having a fixed period of accreditation, yet without such rigorous methodology coaching activity was not sustained. The case study organisation introduced, although

did not maintain, a stratified approach (through different levels of training) to developing coaching skills within its management team, which was found to drive coaching activity.

Within or outside of an accreditation process the use of a coaching contract may be considered dependent on the type of coaching programme and the relationship between the coach and coachee. Much insightful research discussion on coaching contracts is within the overall perspective of matching coach to coachee (Humphrey and Holland, 2006) the use of which can exist in terms of an external coach or in an internal context such as when peers are coaching peers or seniors are coaching juniors who are not their reports. Where coaching is primarily between a manager and his/her line report then the contract could take the form of a procedural process which sets out clear guidelines for coaching. This type of approach will help to manage expectations and progress a communal understanding of what coaching means to the organisation. The document should provide a clear, shared agreement, an understanding about the coaching activity, direction, parameters, goals, confidentiality, roles, coaching guidelines and responsibilities of appropriate parties. The contract should consider taking into account the three-stakeholder involvement (i.e. manager, employee and organisation) in line with Hay (1992) or possibly multiple stakeholder involvement.

7. Plan the next 'wave' – ongoing coaching activity to create a phased implementation

Culture changes slowly. Whilst the number and content of the stages will be dependent on the ongoing nature and impact of the coaching activity there is benefit to be gained in taking a view of the 'big picture' and looking ahead to at least consider the next phase. Within the case study research programme there were three main phases in the planning, relating to the initial launch, the Level 1 programme and the Level 2 programme. The second phase was mapped out during the early part of the roll-out of the first phase. Based on learning, the research findings would indicate that more benefit would have

been achieved with even more emphasis on the development of this phased approach. If managers and employees can see a programme spanning a meaningful period of time then the doubts around its sustainability are likely to reduce. The work of Mabey (2005) would indicate that sustained investment in leadership development positively impacts on organisational performance. However within the research study the barriers to achieving this sustained strategic stretch were numerous and included resource limitations, budget and 'top team' buy-in and commitment. The research findings would indicate that the gaining of cross organisational support prior to the commencement of, and during, the coaching programme greatly helped to sustain coaching activity.

8. Chalk up the results – evaluate the outcomes both positive and negative

Whilst the topic of evaluation is at the end of this list the research findings would indicate that the establishment of key measures is a process that should be commenced prior to the coaching programme being launched and then ongoing throughout. The reluctance to evaluate coaching activity within organisations is evidenced in a CIPD (2008) survey which stated that only 8% of organisations who utilise coaching activity evaluate such coaching activity in a formal manner. However it would appear that despite the current lack of evaluation there is a trend towards more rigorous measurement and assessment of the benefits or otherwise of coaching (Grant, 2007). The most recent CIPD survey on learning and talent development would appear to support this assertion with 36% of participant organisations evaluating coaching, yet only 44% of these organisations evaluate in terms of business measures. (CIPD, 2010).

This research study was informed by much previous research including the work of Jarvis, Lane and Fillery-Travis (2006) on pre and post course evaluation comparison and investment return methodology. From this development of evaluative approaches there is a strong indicator that it is beneficial for consideration to be given to the dominant drivers of the organisation when considering key evaluative measures, for example profit,

customer service, sales, productivity, employee engagement and community/social value. From this point of inception these measures can be integrated into the coaching strategy through high level macro measures such as employee surveys and micro measures such as individual sales and service targets. Also the research findings support a balanced approach to evaluative data through a requirement to balance 'hard' factors such as the 'what's' such as sales with 'soft' factors, that is the 'how's' such as behaviours.

Appendix 11

Coaching by Managers – A Model

Various approaches to introducing managers to coaching techniques have been referred to in the dissertation and these are based on the creation of a common understanding of what coaching means to the organisation and those who work within it. From this understanding the coaching programme can seek to raise the level of self awareness throughout the management team through feedback tools and education. This stage was found to be a particularly impactful exercise in the case study organisation as it sought to encourage managers to understand the impact of their behaviours on their colleagues.

The case study considered and applied different methodologies to achieve this including asking managers' to complete a self-assessment questionnaire which, based on their responses, provided them with a view on their management style in the context of coaching (Megginson and Pedler, 1991). The use of coaching sessions to provide 360 degree feedback was also utilised within the case study research (although not extensively) and found to be of benefit as in the work of Goodge and Coomber (2008) and Luthans and Peterson (2003), a conclusion supported by a finding that 80% of managers welcomed 360 degree feedback being given via a coaching session (Chartered Institute of Management and Campaign for Learning, 2002). 360 degree feedback supported by coaching can identify the individual elements of the manager's developmental requirements as well as the core educative organisational themes relating to coaching that require a broader group set understanding to ensure commonality and facilitate cultural change. Within the case study organisation a corporate leadership behavioural analysis was developed from a review of all 360 degree assessments undertaken and this enabled a strategic overview to leadership developmental requirements. Within this 360 degree coaching framework it is was found that a coaching model focused on the role of the manager as a coach proved beneficial and added value through an acknowledgement that coaching applications in a line role is different in some ways to other coaching situations. Based on this acknowledgement this research provided the potential to develop a model which managers may use to coach within their role as a line manager.

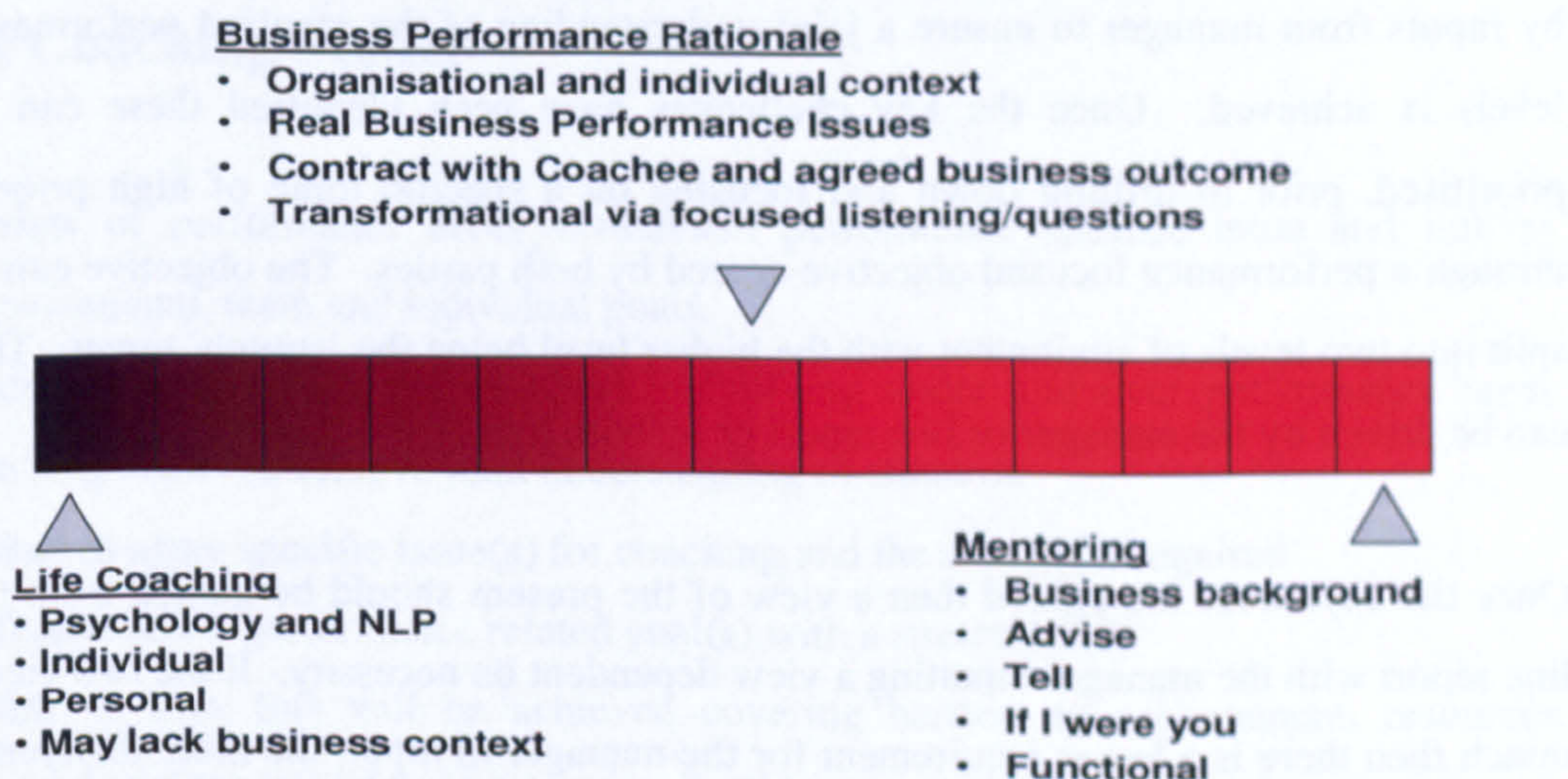
Managers, by the nature of their roles, operate in many situations and this challenges them to consider their approach to the different situations. From a coaching aspect the manager could, as discussed earlier, consider their primary leadership style through such feedback as 360 degree mechanisms. From such a reality check the manager can then consider whether an adaptive coaching style can be integrated within their primary leadership approach. It was found that such integration can create issues and resistors to coaching from line reports if they feel their manager is disingenuous. A key consideration being the reaction of their line reports to coaching sessions which are based on their response to the development of 'false' values which are utilised solely for the duration of the coaching activity.

In seeking to develop a line manager coaching model the research has considered a range of coaching models and approaches, many of which have been referenced within appendix 1 and, from these considerations together with application within the case study organisation, a model of approach has been developed based on achieving outcomes through ownership and awareness. A view of coaching in the workplace requires a perspective which is both coachee based (the employee) and coach based (the manager), that is a recognition that a manager as a coach is in a somewhat different situation to those who coach outside of a line role and line relationship, a theme explored by Caplan (2003). This research identified benefit in recognising two other perspectives, namely those related to the line manager's manager and the organisation as referenced in figure N (section 5.2).

It is argued that successful and effective coaching within a line manager's role requires a manager to display the coaching attributes valued by the organisation and its managers, including those set out within this research, on a consistent working basis and not just within coaching sessions. Yet even when these behaviours are displayed and role modelled by managers (Schein, 1992) it was found that there were several challenges around achieving a consistency of approach throughout the organisation in terms of a manager undertaking a coaching approach within a line managerial role. Based on progressive learning within the case study environment it was found useful, in facilitating progress towards achieving a commonality in coaching technique throughout the organisation, to construct a common coaching rationale. In the instance of the case study organisation a coaching paradigm described as the business

performance rationale was developed for coaching in the workplace by its line managers. This followed a period when the content of the coaching activity was not prescribed and this resulted in wide variations of coaching applications. As can be seen in the diagram below the business performance rationale sits between the life coaching and mentoring paradigms drawing as it does on real business performance issues set within an organisational context with a specific outcome targeted. The coaching sessions were based on both parties, that is coach and coachee, having responsibilities for the successful outcome of the coaching activity through an agreed coaching contract. Whilst the coaching activity was focused on real business performance topics this did not exclude related personal and behavioural issues which impacted upon such performance areas being discussed, however the driver of such coaching conversations was business performance rather than personal matters.

Line Manager Coaching Paradigm



Once such a framework for coaching activity is established at a macro level then a coaching structure can be considered for coaching to operate at a micro level, for example an agreed set of parameters based on a business performance coaching rationale, and a coaching skills and education programme developed to support managers. This phase should consider the optimum coaching approach to facilitate success that is in terms of coaching structure, approach and methodologies. Within

the case study organisation a 9R coaching model was developed to align coaching activity to the line manager business performance rationale. It was found that a common coaching contract was helpful in embedding the business performance coaching rationale throughout the case study organisation and that if this or a similar approach is adopted then the contract/agreement should be discussed between coach and coachee prior to any coaching activity taking place, with the manager setting out the nature of the coaching relationship or contract between themselves and the line report.

The review of the overall performance of the line report through initially a self analysis of total performance fits within the business performance coaching rationale as it enables the 'gap' between required performance and actual performance to be assessed. Once this has been achieved then the key challenges and issues can be prioritised by relating and linking the performance focused objective to personal, team and organisational objectives and identifying the level of priority/importance as well as motivation and desire to resolve. This process should be facilitated and supported by inputs from manager to ensure a joint understanding of the required performance levels is achieved. Once the key challenges have been identified these can be prioritised, prior to drilling down and focusing on a specific topic of high priority through a performance focused objective agreed by both parties. The objective can be split into two levels of attainment with the higher level being the 'stretch' target. This can be driven by the manager or line report or by both jointly.

Once the objectives are agreed then a view of the present should be gained from the line report with the manager inputting a view dependent on necessity. If the two views match then there is a lesser requirement for the manager to input, the more difference there is between the two views the greater the need for the manager to input so as to achieve common ground. The review of the present performance levels will provide pointers towards potential ways to help facilitate improved performance.

The next step is to establish the barriers to achievement and resources required including any potential for support, for example mentoring or technical assistance. This stage should also consider any personal development strategies that are necessary, for example, skill development. The manager as well as the line report

needs to consider these areas as there may be resource or other issues outside of the line report's control, e.g. training. If resources are an issue the manager can then consider the nature of support required and agree an approach. Based on these coaching discussions a series of actions should be agreed to facilitate the achievement of the various actions agreed.

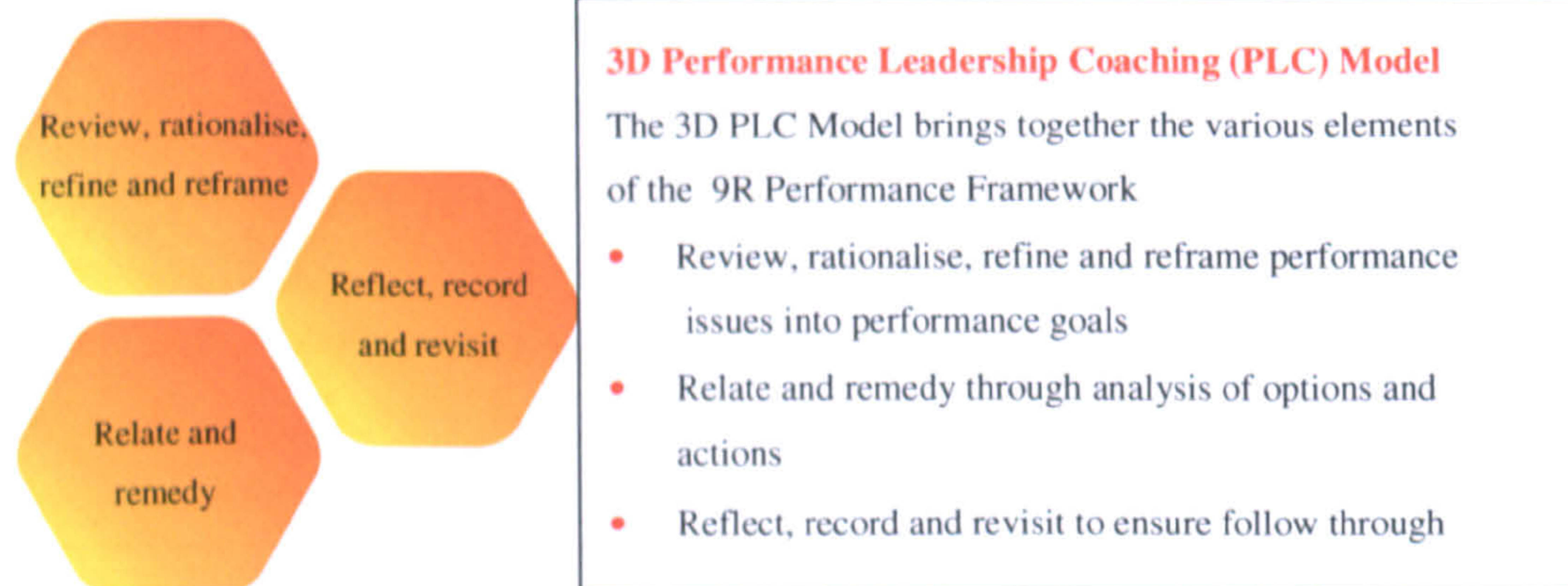
The line report should then be encouraged to play back the actions agreed, including dates, and any discrepancies in viewpoint between the manager and the line report should be discussed until a commonality of viewpoint is agreed. A follow-up meeting should be agreed as appropriate. The actions should be documented, preferably by the line report to increase ownership, and sent to the manager.

The above stages are summarised and set out below in a framework named the 9R coaching model.

9R Coaching Model

- Review** of performance areas – establish performance specific issue and link to organisational, team and individual goals
- Rationalise** through a reality check identifying under and over performance areas matching views to achieve joint understanding of situation
- Refine** to agree specific issue(s) for coaching and the change(s) required
- Reframe** into a performance related goal(s) with a stretch level
- Relate** to how this will be achieved covering barriers to achievement, resources required and personal development implications
- Remedy** through actions developed in response to issues discussed
- Reflect** on coaching session through feedback, understanding and commitment
- Record** coaching discussion including actions and timescales
- Revisit** progress with a follow-up coaching session

To enable flexibility, an ease of learning and greater practicality a three dimensional overlay was designed with the first dimension incorporating the stages of Review, Rationalise, Refine and Reframe performance issues into performance goals. The second dimension incorporates the stages of Relate and Remedy through an analysis of options and actions. The third dimension incorporates the last three stages of Reflect, Record and Revisit to ensure flow through and completion.



Whilst the above model is set out in a linear way the framework can be implemented flexibly whether in part, in stages or in a different order. The researcher sets out this model as one way in which managers can apply coaching within a line and organisational context, whilst acknowledging the diversity of approaches available to structure coaching conversations in the workplace.
