ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: EXECUTIVE COACHING AS A DEVELOPMENTAL EXPERIENCE: A FRAMEWORK AND MEASURE OF COACHING DIMENSIONS

Hilary Joyce Gettman, Doctor of Philosophy, 2008

Directed by: Professor Cynthia K. Stevens, Management and Organization

The widespread and rapidly growing practice of executive coaching (Berglas, 2002) has evolved as a practice outside of the context of any academic discipline. While the literature on executive coaching is voluminous, there has been no attempt to systematically outline and operationalize the important dimensions of coaching practice. This lack of empirical foundation has made it difficult assess coaching in any meaningful way, for example, to determine what aspects of coaching are critical to effectiveness, or if it is even effective at all. In order to begin to fill this gap in the research, I sought to understand the important dimensions of executive coaching. To this end I reviewed the literature on coaching, and relevant research literatures, to get a better understanding of what coaches likely do to promote development, to develop a more grounded conceptualization of the dimensions of executive coaching, and to begin exploring the theoretical bases for these dimensions. I proposed six dimensions of coaching activities: assessment, challenge, emotional support, tactical support, motivational reinforcement

and promoting a learning orientation. Second, I operationalized these dimensions by creating items based on the literatures reviewed, as well as input from subject matter experts, and based upon my own expertise. Finally, I administered the scales to 188 coaches and 32 executives, and evaluated the scales for their structure, reliability and validity. In the resulting factor structure, four of the dimensions were found as proposed, but challenge split into three factors and tactical support into two factors, resulting in nine dimensions of coaching activities, with reliabilities ranging from .75 to .91, averaging .84. Finally, some analyses of convergent, divergent and criterion-related validity of the dimensions were conducted, resulting in some preliminary indications of the construct validity of three of the scales, and providing information of where future validation work should be done. Interestingly, levels of engagement in seven of the dimensions varied meaningfully and predictably amongst coaches according to their education and training, which could have widespread implications for coaching selection and training. The resulting dimensions and measures open the door to further study of coaching, advancing both research and practice.

EXECUTIVE COACHING AS A DEVELOPMENTAL EXPERIENCE: A FRAMEWORK AND MEASURE OF COACHING DIMENSIONS

by

Hilary J. Gettman

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
University of Maryland, College Park in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
2008

Advisory Committee:

Professor Cynthia Stevens, Chair
Professor Gilad Chen
Professor Michele Gelfand
Professor Paul Hanges
Professor Jeffery Kudisch
Professor Karen O'Brien
Professor Joyce Russell

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The practice of executive coaching has boomed in recent decades, an increasing percentage of the $50 billion per year leadership development industry (Day, 2000). In fact, it is estimated that the number of coaches working for businesses increased 500% between 1996 and 2002, with coaches charging anywhere from $1,500 to $15,000 a day for their services (Berglas, 2002). This growth has been attributed to changes in the modern business environment, which have created a shift in emphasis towards the development of human capital, as well as a need for more flexible and adaptable development processes. Executive coaching, it is argued, provides such a process (Frisch, 2001; Hollenbeck, 2002). Despite this marked growth and the apparent need executive coaching is meeting, there is limited empirical evidence regarding the methods or efficacy of executive coaching.

Generally speaking, executive coaching evolved as a practice outside of the context of any other academic discipline, including leadership development, which is perhaps the most closely related discipline in the organizational sciences. To date, there has been little effort to systematically understand executive coaching, or to utilize theories or findings from other organizational disciplines to inform the study and practice of coaching. A considerable amount of work has been published in the literature on executive coaching, typically focusing on purposes and best practices, and some solid empirical work has begun to emerge in the literature. However, there has been no attempt to systematically outline and operationalize the important dimensions of executive coaching practice, nor have attempts been made to assess what aspects of

coaching are crucial to its effectiveness (i.e., achieving the desired outcomes in a coaching engagement).

This outlining and operationalization of key dimensions is important to furthering research on executive coaching for several reasons. First, such a framework and operationalization would make possible more rigorous empirical examination of executive coaching, notably by allowing for examination of the effects of variation in coaches behavior, strategies and techniques, rather than simply comparing coaching to no coaching. This would open the door to the future determination of which dimensions (if any) of coaching are related to which outcomes. Additionally, understanding the various dimensions of executive coaching may aid in the future investigation of mechanisms of executive effectiveness (e.g., perhaps particular dimensions tend to lead to more specific goals, or greater insight). Moreover, the ability to measure dimensions of executive coaching could contribute to its practice by serving as an aid in the development of coaches themselves, perhaps by providing a framework for coaches to examine their practice and a rubric with which to assess themselves. Thus, the purpose of this dissertation was to take first steps towards the systematic empirical examination of coaching: begin outlining the important dimensions of what coaches do, create measures to empirically assess these dimensions, and start exploring theoretical rationales for how these dimensions of executive coaching might be effective in promoting development.

In order to begin to understand the important dimensions of executive coaching, I reviewed the literature on coaching, and other relevant literatures (e.g., leadership development, motivation, mentoring) to get a better understanding of what it is that coaches likely do to promote development, to develop a more grounded conceptualization

of the dimensions of executive coaching, and to begin exploring the theoretical bases for these dimensions. Second, I operationalized dimensions of executive coaching by creating items based on the literatures reviewed, input from subject matter experts, as well as my own experiences as a coach.[1] Finally, I administered the scales to coaches and executives to empirically evaluate the scales for their structure, reliability and validity.

Parameters of the Study

"Coaching" has most popularly been thought of as a concept in athletics, though it has more recently been translated into different areas. Coaching has the distinguishing characteristics of focusing on the development of individuals (sometimes as part of a team), and the capability to be tailored to the needs of the individual being coached. The concept of coaching is now being used for individual development outside of the athletic arena, and in the contexts of personal and individual career development. While there are many different, sometimes overlapping, specialties in coaching (e.g., personal coaching, executive coaching, leadership coaching, conflict coaching, ADD coaching, career coaching), experts have posited that there are really two overarching categories of coaching: coaching in the personal realm, and coaching in the business realm (Carr, 2004; Thach & Heinselman, 1999). Life coaching and executive coaching[2] respectively, are the two most common types in these areas (Carr, 2004). My focus here is coaching within the business realm, specifically executive coaching. In what follows I will distinguish executive coaching from another important form of coaching (life coaching),

[1] I have coached over 40 executives over the last five years, in engagements lasting from two or three months to about 15 months.

[2] Note that executive coaching can encompass leadership coaching (coaching leadership competencies), conflict coaching (helping individual effectively engage in conflict) and career coaching (helping determine career path and plans), depending on the needs of the client.

define it generally (e.g., the nature of coaching engagements, tools, etc.), discuss its parameters, goals and purposes, and then delineate the type of coaching being examined in this study.

Type of Coaching

First, it is important to clearly distinguish executive coaching from the other common form of coaching – life coaching. Life coaches work outside the boundaries of work and business, focusing more on personal issues. Specifically, life coaching is the practice of helping clients determine and achieve personal goals, find personal fulfillment, and purpose and meaning in life, and is a very prevalent practice (Carr, 2004). There are marked differences in the goals and implications of executive and life coaching. Most importantly, the primary purpose of life coaching is *not* improving work performance or career success (though that may be a byproduct), but rather, the attainment of personal goals and fulfillment. Further, it is intended to be utilized by people without regard to their managerial authority or employment status (Carr, 2004). Finally, there are not necessarily any individual or organizational performance related implications with life coaching, while this is a principal goal of executive coaching. Therefore, for purposes of focus, the subject of this study is confined executive coaching as defined below, and excluding life coaching.

It is also important to define the parameters of "executive coaching" for this study, as executive coaching is a largely unregulated and non-uniform profession in which there is wide variation in coaches' backgrounds and the nature and focus of their practices (Berglas, 2002; Sherman & Freas, 2004). While all the variations in coaching have not been mapped out, and there is not complete agreement in the literature on the

definition of executive coaching, there is general consensus regarding several key elements of the practice: executive coaching is a (a) formal helping relationship between (b) a coach (an individual who possesses knowledge of behavior change and organizational functioning)[3] and (c) an executive (an individual having managerial authority and responsibility in an organization) (d) for the purpose of creating behavior change that results in improved performance and enhanced career success (e) and (where hired by the organization) improving their contributions to their organization (Kampa & White, 2002). This type of coaching is the intended subject of this study.

More concretely, while there is no standard format, coaching engagements are typically conducted in several one-on-one private sessions which last any where from a few minutes to several hours (Sperry, 1993), and span anywhere from one session to several years. There is usually some level of confidentiality (Kampa & White, 2001). Depending on the purpose of the engagement, the coach may assess the executive (via 360-degree feedback, qualitative interviews, psychological instruments such as personality and leadership inventories) in order to provide feedback to the executive regarding their strengths, weaknesses, perceptions of others, performance, etc. (Kampa & Anderson, 2002). Coaches then work with the executive on whatever particular issues are the subject of the coaching, helping them determine what objectives they need to meet, identifying steps they need to take to achieve their objectives, and helping them make concrete plans to successfully carry the plans out.

There is a broad spectrum of purposes of executive coaching. Witherspoon and White (1996) assert that there is a continuum of four general purposes for coaching: (a)

[3] There currently is significant controversy over the qualifications of coaches, and it has been noted that many practicing coaches do not meet both, or either, of these criteria. This however, is the industry's stated preferred or ideal qualifications (Kampa & White, 2002).

for skills (usually focused on a specific task or project), (b) for performance (helping client function more effectively in their current job), (c) for development (focused on future job, strategically enhancing skills and capabilities) and (d) for the executive's agenda (focused on providing insight, perspective, constructive feedback, and a talking partner). These purposes are listed in order from the most simple to most complex, and the clients typical for each category list from the most junior to the most senior (though many engagements include multiple levels).[4] These categories provide an idea of the wide range of activities and goals that are pursued in coaching engagements.

In order to keep the focus of the study from being too broad, the study was limited to the two intermediate purposes – coaching for current performance and coaching for advancement. The focus or goal of these two categories is generally the improvement of executives' capabilities and performance, either to the level desired in the current job, or to the level required for promotion and success in a future job. This is done by enhancing executive behavior change through self-awareness and/or improving upon or building new competencies, knowledge, skills, and attributes, ultimately leading to career success for the executive and corresponding benefits for the organization (Joo, 2005; Sherman & Freas, 2004; Witherspoon & White, 1996). Coaching for the executive's agenda on the other hand, is largely focused on insight and perspective, often without clear goals for the coaching engagement and often is an open-ended long term advisory type relationship.

[4] Executive coaching began as a developmental intervention for with upper level executives. However, it has evolved and is now used for individuals at lower levels in organizations, especially at managerial levels (Kampa & Anderson, 2001). There is conceptual overlap between executives and managers in many aspects of their jobs (e.g., managing others, the necessity of well developed emotional intelligence and interpersonal skills, importance of critical thinking, etc.), though there are also areas where they differ (notably the scope of responsibility and the level of strategic thinking required). This study focuses only on coaching for performance and coaching for development which generally cover development in the areas of overlap, and not on coaching for the executive's agenda, which generally covers the areas in which they differ. Therefore, it is reasonable to examine executives and managers together in this study.

Conversely, the focus of coaching for skills is quite narrow, and can include coaching that is essentially training a particular skill (e.g., public speaking coaches who solely help people learn and practice public speaking skills; Witherspoon & White, 1996). Therefore, neither of these categories is examined here, and the focus of this study is limited to what occurs in coaching for current performance and coaching for advancement.

Focus and Perspective of Measurement

What coaches do could be examined with two different foci of measurement – focusing on behavior with each individual client, or focusing on coaches' behavior across clients in general. Focusing measurement on coach behavior with each individual client and focusing on behaviors across clients both have something to contribute to our understanding of coaching. In this study, I examine coaches' behavior across their clients in general. While coaches certainly can vary their behaviors from executive to executive depending on each executive's needs the and purpose of the engagement, I would expect there to be within-coach consistency across engagements with different clients based on the coach's overall style, philosophy and methods or techniques of coaching (coaching style).

Research regarding situational behavior lends support to this expectation. It is well accepted that people's behavior varies by situation, and that individuals are characterized by both distinctive systematic variation of situational behavior (e.g., coaching engagement to engagement) and by stable differences in overall levels of behavior (e.g., across engagements; Mischel, Shoda & Mendoza-Denton, 2002; Shoda, Mischel & Wright, 1994). When compared with the variability across situations accounted for in the research on situational behavior (i.e., across various domains of life), the variability across coaching engagements is relatively constrained. Therefore I would expect to find some consistency in the coaching dimensions from client to client. Of course, examining whether coaches' have distinctive profiles of situational behavior (e.g., consistently engage in certain behaviors when dealing with arrogant versus meek clients, or long-term versus short-term engagements, etc.) is an important question as well, which

will be able to be more easily addressed in future research once the dimensions of coaching behaviors are better understood.

Examining coaching at the across engagement level would be useful both for determining individual coach's style of coaching, and for examining the differential effectiveness of different styles of coaching. From a practical perspective, it would allow researchers to address a significant controversy in the coaching profession regarding the appropriate education and training of coaches. With such a measure of coaching dimensions, it could be determined what differences there are (if any) in coaching styles based upon education or credentialing, and whether those differences have meaningful effects on coaching outcomes. Further, such a measure could allow for the determination as to whether one coaching style is best suited for particular types of engagements (e.g., executives in particular industries or organizations, with specific personal characteristics, with certain issues to be addressed, etc.)

To be sure, there are benefits to focusing measurement on individual client engagements, such as being able to examine the interaction of coach behaviors with executive characteristics (e.g., differences in personality or situation), which might help coaches better tailor their behaviors to particular executive's needs. While acknowledging the benefits of examining coaching at the client by client level, I elected to start with examining coach behaviors at the more general level, to begin to address and measure coaches' general style, examine the issue of the relationship of coach education and training with coach style, and open the door for assessing implications of coach style for coach effectiveness. Such a measure might also prove useful in developing measures intended to assess coaching activities within individual engagements.

Finally, in this study I focus on creating a measure of coaching activities assessed from the perspective of the coach rather than the executive (i.e., the measures are created to be administered to coaches). I followed this practice for several reasons. First, coaches are likely to have a higher awareness of the various goals and practices they adopt, and therefore are in a better position to answer questions regarding those techniques and strategies. Second, from a logistical perspective, coaches are more likely to have an interest in advancing research in coaching, and be willing to invest the time to participate. Finally, the ability for coaches to self-assess the dimensions of coaching would be a significant contribution to practice by aiding coaches in their own development, and asking them about their behavior across engagements would allow them to assess their coaching style in general.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONSTRUCT DEVELOPMENT

There is a large volume of practitioner literature on coaching, reviewed below, which provides excellent insight into the breadth of the field, best practices, and beliefs and findings about how coaching works. I reviewed this to identify how coaches and practitioners view and define the scope and nature of coaching practices and activities. I then examined better established research literatures, including the leadership development literature and several others, in order to expand upon the construct development of coaching dimensions, and to begin exploring theoretical bases for why various dimensions lead to improved performance.

Coaching Literature

To help ensure content validity of a conceptualization of the dimensions of coaching and to help operationalize those dimensions, an extensive review of the literature on executive coaching was conducted. This step was undertaken to determine how coaching is defined by those who practice it, what the generally accepted practices are, and how coaches are believed to help executives develop. While theoretical and empirical work on coaching is limited, the practitioner literature is very well developed, especially the work on best practices and models.

There are numerous models of coaching in the literature, most of which focus on best practices, either through case study (e.g., Kilburg, 2004a), successful coaches explicating their personal coaching approach (e.g., Diedrich, 1996), or surveys of coaches and executives (e.g., Hall, Otazo & Hollenbeck, 1999; Wasylyshyn, 2003). Some models, however, are based on schools of counseling psychology, such as psychodynamic counseling (Kilburg, 2004b), multi-modal therapy (Richard, 1999) and

cognitive – behavioral therapy (Ducharme, 2004; Peterson, 1996). These models and best practices can vary significantly in their techniques,[5] but there are distinct similarities amongst them as to what they believe to lead to successful coaching.

For example, the broad purposes of executive coaching are generally agreed upon (i.e., Witherspoon & White's continuum of coaching purposes, discussed above). Executive coaching is designed bring about attitudinal and behavior changes that result in improved performance (whether in a particular task, or more general performance on the job), the development of the executive in their career, and benefits to the organization (Feldman, 2005; Joo, 2005; Kampa & White, 2002; Sherman & Freas, 2004). Numerous best practices articles as well as surveys of coaches and clients regarding the effects of coaching have cataloged more specific performance and developmental outcomes of coaching (Hall et al., 1999; Kampa & White, 2002), including improvements in relationships, managing people, productivity, goal setting, adaptability, understanding the perspectives of others, mentoring and delegating skills, self-awareness, and leadership effectiveness. The few existing empirical studies have examined both intermediate process variables, such as goal specificity and feedback seeking (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas & Kucine, 2003), and more distal outcomes, such as actual performance on specific tasks (Olivero, Bane & Kopelman, 1997) and improved ratings of performance in 360 degree feedback (Smither et al., 2003). While the expected outcomes of coaching have not all been empirically shown to occur, there is agreement that a major purpose of coaching is to improve executives' performance and aid in their development (Kampa & White, 2002).

[5] For example, Kilburg promotes methods intended to tap the unconscious (Kilburg, 1996), while many others explicitly avoid delving into the personal, focusing instead on techniques such as assessment, goal setting, practice and homework (Ducharme, 2004; Peterson, 1996).

There is also widespread agreement that the quality of the relationship between the coach and client is an important driver of coaching effectiveness (Hollenbeck, 2002). In fact, some assert that the relationship between the coach and client is the principal tool coaches have to effect change (Bluckert, 2005; Wasylylshyn, 2003). More specifically, the existence of trust in the coaching relationship is widely discussed as a critical facet of the relationship (Bluckert, 2005; Frisch, 2001; Hall et al., 1999; Hollenbeck, 2002; Peterson, 1996).

Additionally, there is consensus regarding several key coaching activities or techniques. For example, 360-degree feedback, qualitative interview assessment, use of assessment instruments (such as personality and leadership inventories), and feedback that is heavily data driven, are all generally accepted as necessary and effective coaching tools (Kampa & Anderson, 2001; Kampa & White, 2002). Many other techniques are listed in the literature as useful in coaching: honest and challenging feedback, being a talking partner or sounding board, providing good pointers and action ideas, providing expertise regarding multiple career paths, reflecting caring, helping teach a trial and error attitude, checking back and following up, exhibition of commitment to client's success, demonstration of integrity and honesty, pushing the client when necessary, and role modeling effectiveness (Hall et al., 1999; Kampa & Anderson, 2001; Kampa & White, 2002).

There is also considerable discussion in the coaching literature about the ideal credentials of a coach. There is general consensus that having both training in psychology or adult development and knowledge of business is ideal, though there is disagreement regarding the relative importance of each (Feldman & Lankau, 2005;

Kampa & White, 2002). However, in practice, the credentials, training, education, and experience of individuals calling themselves executive coaches vary widely (Berglas, 2002; Feldman & Lankau, 2005; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Sherman & Freas, 2004). Currently there is no educational or certification requirement for executive coaches, although there is a voluntary certifying body – the International Coaching Federation (ICF, which is the largest international coaching organization in the world; "What is ICF," n.d.), as well as many educational programs where individuals can acquire various coaching certificates. As a result, there is little standardization across the profession (Berglas, 2002; Kampa & Anderson, 2001; Kampa & White, 2002).

Even amongst those in the coaching community who are actively involved in organizations such as ICF, there is no agreement about the importance and relative value of various types of training (e.g., certification programs, MBAs, PhDs), and these differences in background and training may have significant effects on coaching practices and outcomes. It is likely that those who have training and familiarity with certain disciplines or techniques would find those techniques more salient, consider them more useful, and feel more comfortable utilizing them, and therefore shape their coaching model and practice in accordance with their background. While there has been no systematic evaluation of the effects of type of training on the type of coaching methods and style employed, there are suggestions in the coaching as well as counseling literatures that background and training likely impact coaching practices. It has been noted in the coaching literature that those who promote and subscribe to coaching models that are more psychoanalytical tend to be those with backgrounds in clinical and counseling psychology (Joo, 2005). There is also support for the effects of training on practice in the

counseling literature, with different types of training having an effect on some counselor practices and outcomes (e.g. differences in medication management, Wells & Sturm, 1996; client acceptance of feedback, Collins & Stukas, 2006). The effect of coach background and credentials is an important issue that has yet to be systematically examined.

Overall, the coaching literature provided useful information regarding what practitioners believe are the broad parameters of coaching engagements, what techniques are commonly used, what the qualifications of coaches should be, the wide variance in actual qualifications of coaches, and the perceived centrality of the quality of the coach – client relationship to successful coaching engagements. Understanding what practitioners say coaching is and what coaches do was a helpful first step in beginning to map out what the dimensions of executive coaching might be.

Empirical Work

While the practitioner literature on coaching is voluminous, rigorous empirical work is just beginning to emerge in the literature. Very few studies have proposed and actually tested hypotheses. Most rely on general surveys that ask executives and coaches what they thought was gained from coaching, and do not attempt to tie specific characteristics of coaches' strategies or behaviors to those outcomes. However, there have been three quasi-experimental empirical studies that offer insight into the effectiveness of coaching practices.

Olivero et al. (1997) tested coaching as a transfer of training tool using top- and mid-level managers and supervisors in a large US government agency. All the participants received training regarding techniques for improving their subordinates'

performance on a particular task (i.e., turning reports in on time), but one group received coaching after training (consisting of goal setting, practice, evaluation and feedback), while the other received training only. Olivero found that coaching accounted for increases in performance (subordinates turning in reports on time) above and beyond training itself. The sample size in this study was small (depending on the stage of the study, the size ranged from n = 31 to n = 4) and the coaching outcome was a very specific task, limiting the study's generalizability. However, it was an important advance as it showed that coaching may have an impact on performance beyond the effects of training alone.

In 2003, Smither and colleagues published another quasi-experimental study where they examined changes in performance over time, and looked at possible mediators of coaching effects on performance (Smither et al., 2003). They examined over 1,200 senior managers from a large global organization who had received two rounds of 360-degree feedback at one year intervals. Approximately 400 of these managers received executive coaching as well. The coaching consisted of reviewing and helping interpret the feedback, linking the feedback to the manager's development plan, and helping them set goals and identify ways to meet those goals. The authors suggested that coaching might have effects on performance by helping the client discuss feedback (which would increase accountability), providing guidance in navigating stages of change, helping set more specific goals, and encouraging them to share feedback and solicit suggestions from raters in their 360-degree feedback. They tested a subset of these propositions, hypothesizing that the effects of coaching on performance would be mediated by goal specificity and feedback seeking of the executive. The findings in this

study only partially supported these hypotheses. It was found that those who were coached were more likely to solicit feedback from their supervisor and peers, and set more specific goals. Additionally, those who were coached showed improvement in their 360 ratings from their direct reports and supervisors. However, feedback seeking and specific goals were not found to mediate the improved ratings.

Finally, Luthans and Peterson (2003) conducted a one-group pretest-posttest design study, using 20 employees with managerial responsibility from a small organization (including the presidents, vice presidents, various functional division heads, and first-line supervisors). All were given 360-degree feedback, and one structured coaching session. The session focused on understanding the feedback and uncovering the causes of any discrepancies between self-rating and other-ratings. Additionally, the coach helped the executives determine what and how they were going to change in the future, and taught them behavioral management strategies.[6] The coach also randomly conducted a follow-up visit with each person who was coached. It was determined that the combination of coaching with 360-degree feedback resulted in improved job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and increased ratings by subordinates on certain interpersonal and task oriented competencies. However, because there was no control group, causal connection of coaching to changes in 360-degree feedback could not be distinguished from the effects of the feedback itself.

Together, these three studies point to several aspects of coaching that may lead to improvements in executive competencies or performance, including: providing and discussing feedback, goal setting, practice, providing accountability, providing guidance

[6] These strategies were: (1) how to identify behaviors central to relevant task (2) how to obtain objective data regarding their performance of those behaviors and (3) how to identify antecedents to desirable behavior.

in navigating the stages of change, and helping to create plans and strategies for development. Further, the results suggested that coaching might affect feedback seeking, goal specificity, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. While these studies provide very useful information, important questions remain. Notably, none of these studies examined coaches' differing practices and strategies, or their effects on outcomes.

To summarize what the current coaching literature has contributed to the determination and operationalization of dimensions of coaching. There is a large body of non-empirical literature on best practices and coaching models which enumerated many coaching techniques and aspects of a coach's role, and emphasized the importance of the relationship between coach and client to coaching success; what the coach does affects the development of the coach – client relationship, and the various activities then in turn, are affected by the nature of that relationship. Additionally, the early empirical work has cataloged some behavioral and performance outcomes of coaching. While this literature provided important information for beginning to determine what the dimensions of coaching might be, it has not yet yielded a coherent or explicit framework for these dimensions, nor has it examined effects of differences amongst coaches or any coaching dimension. Therefore, I explored other empirical literatures to create a more complete framework within which to examine the dimensions of coaching.

An Integrated Model of Coaching

In line with Kampa and White's (2002) definition of coaching, coaching is conceived of as a process of helping individuals move through the process or stages of change in behaviors, attitudes and cognitions relevant to career success. For assistance in developing an appropriate framework within which to examine how coaches engage in

this process, I turned to two complementary literatures that have parallels to this type of change: counseling and leadership development.

Counseling Literature and the Stages of Change

Counseling has important parallels to coaching: both counseling and coaching involve one-on-one dyadic helping relationships that exist for the advancing of the growth and development of a client, and counseling relationships also are similar to the structure of coaching relationships (i.e., paid outside specialist, confidentiality, scheduled sessions). This indicates that theories of change from the counseling literature might be relevant and useful in thinking about coaching. There is significant theory and research regarding change in the counseling literature. The process of change is conceived of as a "process that unfolds over time and involves progression through a series of stages" (Prochaska & Norcross, 2001, p. 443). Prochaska and DiClemente (1982) created a widely accepted model of behavior change, known as the *transtheoretical model*, which has also been shown to be useful in contexts outside of counseling such as learning (Cole, Harris & Field, 2004). The model provides a framework that is helpful in understanding the process how coaches help executives achieve change.

According to the transtheoretical model, individuals move through several stages of change, from lack of awareness or acceptance of any need for change at one end, to successful changes that have become engrained patterns of behavior or thought. More specifically, individuals start at *pre-contemplation* where they are essentially unaware of areas of deficiency, or having some awareness but not conviction that the deficiency merits any effort towards change. From there they move to *contemplation*, where they become aware that they have a problem area or an area they should work on and consider

doing something about it. Next, they make plans and take preliminary steps towards doing something about the issue (*preparation* stage), and subsequently move into the *action* stage where they begin to modify their behavior, environment, in an effort to effect change. Finally they work to consolidate and maintain the gains they have made (*maintenance* stage), until the change is engrained and no longer requires active attention (*termination*). The counselor (or coach) provides impetus and assistance throughout the process of moving through the stages.

These stages have been shown to not be completely rigid in practice. First, the process of change does not necessarily follow the stages linearly from pre-contemplation to termination (Hicks, 1999; Khaw & Hardesty, 2007). The process of change may be iterative, as the as the client may not be working on one simple change, but multiple changes to promote his or her growth and development. For example, a client might be taking action on one issue while still moving into contemplation and working on gaining clarity regarding a deficiency in a different area. Further, clients may encounter difficulties and regress to an earlier stage (Prochaska & Norcross, 2001).

Additionally, all the stages may not be necessary with every issue a client presents. For example, where the goal of a coaching or counseling engagement is a change of perspective or attitude, reaching awareness (contemplation) might be the end goal (though certainly there could be related behaviors that the client might want to address as well). Further, how far a client moves towards sustained change is affected by limitations on the number of sessions available (an increasingly significant issue in counseling due to insurance constraints; Dunlap, Norton & Zarkin, 2006; Harman, Kelleher, Mulsant & Reynolds, 2001). This is especially salient in coaching as some

engagements are by design very limited (e.g., as short as one session; Sperry, 1993). Therefore not all coaching engagements, even ones that are successful, will see the executive all the way through the change process. For example, in a two-session coaching engagement for debriefing 360 degree feedback, success might include getting the executive to accept the feedback as valid and useful, and perhaps to make an action plan. In this example, reaching action, maintenance and termination necessarily occurs outside the coaching engagement. Additionally, the stage at which an individual comes in to counseling or coaching will have an impact on what stage they reach by the end of the engagement (Prochaska & Norcross, 2001). In coaching, getting some executives to recognize they have an issue needing addressing takes a considerable amount of time, while others arrive with high levels of self-awareness and ready for action (Sperry, 1993). In terms of the stages of change, the purpose of coaching then, is to help executives move through the stages of change, not necessarily to complete the process.

The transtheoretical model contributes to our understanding coaching by providing a framework and insight into the process and stages of individual change. The research in this area has shown that counselors help their clients achieve change by skillfully assisting them through the necessary stages by helping them achieve awareness, develop and maintain motivation, and by providing expert guidance in the creating plans and initiating action (Prochaska & Norcross, 2001). As is discussed in more detail later in this paper, I posit that coaches similarly serve to motivate, support and guide executives through these stages.

Leadership Development Literature and Facilitating Change

The transtheoretical model provided insight into the process of change, and I turned to the leadership development literature for insight into what developmental interventions such as coaching can provide to aid individuals in accomplishing change. The leadership development literature is especially useful in examining coaching as it is perhaps the most closely related discipline to coaching in the organizational sciences (in fact, coaching is considered to be a method of leadership development; Day, 2000).

The Center for Creative Leadership (CCL), which has been the driver of significant advances in the theory and practice of leadership development (Day, 2001), developed a general model of development and developmental experiences. This model describes what needs to be provided, as well as the context (individual and environmental) that needs to exist, in order for an experience to bring about development. This framework is popularly used in thinking about and assessing leadership development programs and activities (Day, 2001; Van Velsor et al., 1998).

Note that CCL uses the term "development" broadly, referring to growth and change in competencies, attitudes, values, knowledge, skills, and abilities in areas relevant to the individual's job performance or career progression (Van Velsor, McCauley & Moxley, 1998), and is not attempting to make distinctions along the lines of "coaching for development" and "coaching for performance" discussed previously. I also use the term development in the same fashion when talking about the expected outcomes of coaching. While this study does not investigate outcomes, the outcomes that would be expected to result from successful or effective coaching, as reflected in the coaching literature, parallel CCL's conceptualization of development. As discussed previously,

development via coaching is believed to include increases in self-awareness and adaptability, acquisition of new knowledge, skills, and abilities, and attitude or perspective changes, all resulting in improvements in executive performance and effectiveness (Feldman & Lankau, 2005; Hall et al., 1999; Joo, 2005; Kampa & White, 2002; Sherman & Freas, 2004).

The researchers at CCL have theorized that for development to occur, three components must be in place: The individual must have the *ability to learn,* work in a *supportive organizational environment*, and he or she must have *developmental experiences* (Van Velsor et al., 1998). All of these components are necessary for development to occur (see Figure 1). It is important to note that CCL does not delineate the development model with as much specificity as is shown in Figure 1, nor does to account for the unique characteristics of the coaching relationship (discussed in more detail later in this dissertation). Therefore, this representation of their model is based on their literature but is also informed by other developmental literatures, including the coaching practitioner literature. This model is particularly applicable and useful here, as coaching is in fact explicitly discussed as a type of developmental experience in this literature (Van Velsor et al., 1998). While the developmental experience component is the most relevant to the current examination of executive coaching, I elaborate briefly on the other components of the model in order to provide context for how coaching operates as a developmental experience.

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

First, in order for an experience to lead to development, individuals themselves must possess the *ability to learn*. The ability to learn has been conceptualized as a

complex combination of motivational factors, personality, and ability. A person with this ability places a high value on learning, recognizes when new behaviors, skills or attitudes are necessary, is motivated to seek out and engage in activities that provide the opportunity to learn new skills and behaviors, and is diligent in working to develop a variety of learning tactics in order to acquire the needed skills or behaviors (McCauley, 2001; Van Velsor et al., 1998). The ability to learn affects how much an individual is willing to engage in and learn from a developmental experience, and how much they openly and actively engage in the process of growth. Those without this ability will not realize much benefit from developmental experiences.

In addition to the ability to learn, an individual must have a *supportive organizational environment* with regard to learning in order to experience development. The development process is typically embedded in an organizational context, which shapes development efforts, and a supportive environment is therefore crucial. A supportive organizational environment can be likened to a "climate for learning/development," a milieu where members are encouraged and aided in their development, and where there are policies and reward systems that align with learning and transfer of learning (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). The organizational climate affects how much individuals are open to and value developmental experiences, and therefore how much they will gain from the experience and how much they are willing to engage in the process of growth. Organizations without such environments inhibit developmental experiences from leading to development, and inhibit any development from transferring to the job (Eddy, Tannenbaum, Lorenzet & Smith-Jentsch, 2005; Goldstein, 1990; Tracey, Tannenbaum & Kavanagh, 1995).

Further, an individual must have "developmental experiences," which meet particular criteria, in order to develop. For an experience to lead to development, it must provide three things: assessment, challenge and support (Van Velsor et al., 1998). An experience provides significant *assessment* when individuals are provided with frequent, specific information from multiple sources regarding their current performance: their strengths, weaknesses, level of performance, effectiveness, and primary developmental needs. An experience provides *challenge* when it helps create disequilibrium that encourages change (Van Velsor et al.). This can include challenges to existing ways of thinking and doing things, having to take on tasks that require skills and abilities outside an individual's current capacity, having to face situations that require them to do things they would rather not do, and being pushed to set challenging goals. Finally, an experience affords *support* when the individual is provided with comfort, acceptance, an emotional outlet, a sympathetic ear, a sounding board and talking partner and someone to provide advice during the difficulties of development and change. This support helps keep them from being discouraged and giving up on their development work.

The existence of these dimensions in coaching practice are substantiated in the practitioner literature, which cites assessment (e.g., providing feedback, helping interpret feedback; Hollenbeck, 2000; Kampa & Anderson, 2001; Kampa & White, 2002), challenge (e.g., pushing executives to take on difficult goals, challenging their ways of thinking; Hall et al., 1999) and support (e.g., providing encouragement, advice, being a good listener, and a sounding board; Hall et al., 1999; Hollenbeck, 2000) as being important elements of coaching.

The transtheoretical model provides some theoretical explanations for how these activities can result in change or development, as assessment, challenge and support have implications for helping individual move through the stages of change. For example, assessment gives information to either provide awareness of areas of deficiency that need to be developed, helping the individual move from pre-contemplation to contemplation, and to provide further clarity on those areas which can help them be more successful. Specificity in feedback and advice from the coach can help with the making of sound plans for change, in that they target areas truly in need of improvement, and are well developed in their planned execution (planning stage). Coaches also challenge their clients to motivate them to move from planning to action, and provide accountability for sustained action (action and maintenance). Further, the support provided by the coach could also aid in maintaining action as the coach's encouragement should prevent discouragement by the executive, fostering continued effort on the executive's part throughout the rest of the process of accomplishing (action) and solidifying (maintenance) the behavioral or attitudinal changes.

The conceptualization of an effective developmental experience as providing assessment, challenge and support was used as a starting point for determining dimensions of coaching activities, which as mentioned above, impact the development of the coaching relationship.[7] I expanded on this basic framework to include findings in organizational behavior and other related research pertaining to development and I did

[7] The relationship and coaching activities are likely interrelated, with the activities affecting the development and quality of the relationship, and the quality of the relationship impacting the effectiveness of coaching activities (e.g., provision of emotional support by a coach would likely result in a better relationship. A better relationship would likely lower the executives' defenses, causing them to be more receptive to feedback from the coach.) I distinguish here between these for greater conceptual clarity while acknowledging that in practice such distinctions may become confounded.

this by both modifying and clarifying CCL's definitions to account for unique characteristics of the coaching context, and by adding a relationship component to capture the characteristic of coaching's distinctive one-on-one helping relationship. The relationship component and its relationship with coaching activities are discussed in more detail, below.

Literatures Relevant to Dimensions of Coaching Functions

From this preliminary framework of coaching functions (assessment, challenge and support), I revisited the coaching literature and reviewed other better established literatures related to coaching in order to further expand my framework with additional dimensions. Specifically, given that assessment has been identified in the coaching literature as an integral component of coaching (Kampa & Anderson, 2001; Kampa & White, 2002), I included performance appraisal and feedback acceptance literatures, which both deal extensively with conducting and delivering the results of assessment. I reviewed the mentoring literature because both mentoring and coaching involve one-on-one helping relationships focused on work-related development. I also drew from motivation theories (i.e. self-efficacy, expectancy theory, goal orientation, goal setting, motivation skills) because coaches are described in the coaching literature as helping executives develop and sustain motivation. I proposed additional components to the framework of coaching activities based on these literatures. In what follows, I review the contributions of the coaching and other literatures to the expansion and understanding of assessment, challenge and support, then discuss my additional proposed dimensions based on these literatures. I also identify constructs that should be related to, or result from, the various dimensions of coaching, for future use in examining the construct

validity of measures of coaching dimensions. A subset of these related dimensions will be examined in this study. It is important to note that the prediction that the coaching dimensions would be related to executive development is always contingent upon each executive's "ability to learn" – their willingness to accept feedback, buy into goals for growth, put in effort, etc. (McCauley, 2001). This is consistent with findings in counseling psychology, where the individual's level of readiness for change at which an individual comes to therapy predicts the success of the counseling intervention (Prochaska & Norcross, 2001).

Assessment

It is clear from the coaching literature that coaches provide *assessment.* Coaches are said to provide extensive and honest feedback regarding performance, effectiveness, strengths and weaknesses, and help to interpret that feedback (Kampa & Anderson, 2001; Kampa & White, 2002), which should be instrumental in helping executives become aware of their developmental needs, and to provide increased clarity with regard to those needs. In fact, the provision and interpretation of feedback is believed to be a hallmark function of executive coaches (Kampa & White, 2000; McCauley & Douglas, 1998) and all three experimental studies on coaching centered on the provision of assessment and feedback (Luthans & Peterson, 2003; Olivero et al., 1997; Smither et al., 2003). According to the coaching literature, coaches provide assessment/feedback in many ways, including 360-degree feedback, qualitative interview assessment, personality and leadership inventories, as well as immediate behavioral and affective feedback (Hollenbeck, 2002; Kampa & Anderson, 2001).

The literatures on performance appraisal, assessment centers and self-regulatory theories of motivation provide theoretical support for the importance of assessment to improvement in performance, and they offer theoretical explanations as to why coaching that includes assessment may be effective. The notion that assessment and feedback are essential for development is a deeply entrenched principle in the organizational sciences and practice (Ilgen, Fisher & Taylor, 1979; London, Smither & Adsit, 1997), so much so that the practice of performance appraisal is one of the most widely used performance interventions in organizations (Kluger & DeNisi, 1998). Indeed, there is evidence that assessment leads to increases in self-awareness (Koen & Crow, 1999; McCarthy & Garavan, 1999; Peterson & Hicks, 1995), which has been shown to be related to willingness to commit to developmental activities (e.g., practicing behaviors, reading relevant books, taking training, engaging in special on-the-job projects, seeking advice from coworkers; Noe & Wilk, 1993), and to high performance itself (Church, 1997; Noe & Wilk, 1993). Goal setting theory emphasizes that feedback regarding performance is necessary in order to inform evaluation of the appropriateness of the chosen goal, and the adequacy of current strategies and effort (Locke & Latham, 2002). This corroborates the premise that feedback is necessary for development.

Additionally, the type of feedback is also important. The performance appraisal and assessment center literatures show that the specificity of feedback is important for it to be effective, as specificity affects individuals' willingness to believe and accept the feedback (i.e., there is less room for the recipient to engage in defensive cognitive distortion and dismiss it; Ilgen et al., 1979; Kudisch & Ladd, 1997). Both clarity (or understandability) and specificity of feedback have been shown to be related to intentions

to engage in developmental activities (Kudisch, Lundquist & Al-Bedah, 2004; Kudisch, Lundquist & Smith, 2001). Further, clear and specific feedback should serve to help move the executive through stages of change in two ways. First, unambiguous information regarding deficiencies can provide the executive with awareness of any problem areas that need to be addressed, helping move from pre-contemplation to contemplation. Specific feedback can also provide a basis for specific or concrete plans for change, thus aiding in progression through the planning stage of behavior change (Prochaska & Norcross, 2001). Further, series of assessment and feedback are more helpful than one-time feedback. According to control theory, series of assessment and feedback are considered essential to ongoing development, as feedback is necessary to determine goals and then additional feedback is necessary to determine progress and re-evaluate goals and strategies (Klein, 1989). Coaches can play a large role here by providing feedback that is specific and clear, as well as ongoing assessment and feedback throughout the change process (Kampa & Anderson, 2001).

The provision of assessment should also have effects on the relationship between coaches and clients. Based upon my experiences as a coach, I expect that provision of clear feedback regarding various characteristics of the executive (e.g., strengths and weaknesses, feedback based on behavioral and personality assessment), and aiding the executive in interpreting and understanding the feedback, increases executive perceptions of coach expertise. The assessment and feedback that coaches provide is outside the typical executive's knowledge or training, and the coach's ability to provide such information and help the executive interpret and understand the feedback as it relates to

their development should result in an increased perception of the coach being competent and knowledge related to development and behavior change.

In sum, through extensive, specific feedback, coaches provide executives with increased awareness of their strengths and deficiencies, and help clarify their understanding of the nature of any problems they need to address. Without such assessment, it would be unclear which change efforts would have the most impact. Additionally, executives may be more likely to accept feedback that is specific and consequently be more likely to take action upon it by engaging in various activities geared toward improved performance and development. Therefore, when coaching includes significant assessment and feedback, executives should be more successful in furthering their development and changing their behavior in important ways. The dimension of *assessment* as a dimension of executive coaching is defined as follows:

> Activities of the coach related to providing executives with frequent, specific, clear, accurate, information regarding their current performance, strengths, weaknesses, effectiveness, and primary developmental needs.

Propositions:

1. Consistent with the findings in with the performance appraisal and assessment center research that the provision of clear, specific feedback results in increased feedback acceptance, I predict that *the provision of assessment in coaching will be related to increased feedback acceptance by executives.*
2. Consistent with findings in the performance appraisal and assessment center research, I predict that *the provision of assessment will be positively related to executive intentions to engage in developmental activities (e.g., practice*

behaviors, read relevant books, take training, engage in special on-the-job projects, seek advice from coworkers).

3. Consistent with the research showing that assessment can lead to increases in self-awareness, I expect that *the provision of assessment will be positively related to increases in executive self-awareness.*
4. Because assessment is considered essential to ongoing development, and because clear and specific feedback is related to precursors to action (feedback acceptance and intention to engage in developmental activities), I expect that *the provision of assessment will be positively related to development in the areas focused on in coaching.*
5. I expect that *provision of assessment will be positively related to perceptions of coach expertise* because when a coach provides assessment and feedback, they are exhibiting specialized knowledge and skill with regard to information related to development and behavior change.

Support

For a coaching experience to be developmental, the executive needs *support* during the challenges of development. According to CCL's conceptualization, supplying support during development includes providing encouragement, a sympathetic ear, someone to vent frustrations to, and being a sounding board, talking partner and advisor. In reviewing this concept of support in conjunction with the coaching and other literatures, it became clear that there were two distinct types of support. The provision of advice and being a sounding board for ideas are quite different from other areas involving emotional support (e.g., being encouraging, supportive), and both are discussed in depth

in the coaching literature. Therefore I proposed two types of support, emotional support and tactical support, and review each, below.

Emotional Support

With emotional support, coaches provide important assistance in emotional aspects of motivation, by providing encouragement, sympathy, being a good listener and allowing the executive to vent his/her frustrations throughout the change process. By providing emotional support the coach helps prevent executives from becoming discouraged, especially when they reach difficult times in the change process (e.g., receive negative feedback or encounter obstacles or failures in their attempts at change; Hollenbeck, 2002; Kampa & Anderson, 2001; Kampa & White, 2002; McCauley & Douglas, 1998). Indeed, periods of difficulty are discussed in the leadership development literature as being major obstacles to success in engaging in development (McCauley & Douglas, 1998). Further, there is evidence that the maintenance of positive affect is especially important to development, as a strong connection has been found between positive affect and career development activities, strategies, and success (Burger & Caldwell, 2000). Consistent with this, literature regarding the transtheoretical model notes that receiving empathy and support is important for progress through the stages of change, notably, through the pre-contemplation stage (moving from lack of awareness or denial to acceptance of the oftentimes painful truth of having problems that need to be addressed), and action/maintenance stages (needing someone to support them emotionally when progress is not as smooth as expected; Rosen, 2000).

Because of the personal nature of their relationship with executives, coaches are in an excellent position to provide such personal support (Kampa & Anderson, 2001).

For example, executives might not be willing to talk to a peer or superior regarding frustrations and difficulties at work because of concerns about image or confidentiality. However, because of the nature of the one-on-one helping relationship with their coach, they might be more likely to open up about such issues in that context.

The importance of emotional support to development is also reflected in the mentoring literature. A mentoring relationship is a one-on-one helping relationship where a senior member of the organization commits to guiding and supporting the professional development and advancement of a protégé, or more junior member of the organization (Kram, 1985; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). Mentoring has clear parallels to coaching as a one-on-one helping relationship for the purpose of development. A widely accepted conceptualization of how mentors have beneficial impact on their protégé's career success is that they facilitate development and advancement through two main functions: the psychosocial and career functions. The career and psychosocial functions have been shown to correlate positively with outcomes such as increased job satisfaction, career satisfaction and compensation (Noe, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Underhill, 2006).

Through the career function (consisting of subfunctions of sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments), mentors use their senior position in the organization to help prepare the protégé for advancement and to make advancement easier. Because coaches are not typically senior executives from within the organization, [8] the career functions are not relevant to coaching. However, the psychosocial functions are particularly useful in understanding coaching functions.

[8] i.e., they are often brought in from the outside, and when internal, they are typically in staff positions and not in senior, powerful positions (Frisch, 2001).

Through this psychosocial support (consisting of role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship), mentors provide emotional and personal support, and enhance their protégés' self-efficacy, identity and personal effectiveness, which is parallel to the support coaches provide executives. Particularly relevant to the context of coaches provision of emotional support are acceptance (aiding in development of sense of professional self) and friendship (providing support and respect), as they parallel emotional support in the provision of support, encouragement and someone to confide in (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Friendship and acceptance have been shown to relate to several positive outcomes, especially job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and satisfaction with the mentor (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz & Lima, 2004). Therefore, coaches may also influence executive career success through similar positive effects on job satisfaction, career satisfaction and satisfaction with the coach.

In sum, coaches likely provide emotional support by being encouraging, sympathetic, and providing an emotional outlet, thus helping create a positive relationship with the executive, helping prevent executives from being discouraged, keeping the executives' affect positive and increasing their persistence in working on their development. There are indications that this type of emotional support could have effects in increased engagement in various developmental activities and greater satisfaction, and could help executives progress through phases of change, especially those times of challenges or discouragement. The dimension of *emotional support* as a dimension of executive coaching is defined as follows:

Activities of the coach related to providing an emotional outlet, comfort, encouragement, acceptance, and sympathy that bolster the executive's positive emotional state, and/or decrease negative or destructive emotional states.

Propositions:

1. Based upon the theory and findings in the leadership development and counseling literatures that individuals often require emotional support from others to keep from being too discouraged and derailing their progress, I propose that *higher levels of emotional support displayed by the coach will be related to lower levels of executive discouragement regarding their developmental progress.*
2. Based upon the research tying positive affect to engagement in career development activities and positive strategies I expect coach *emotional support to be related to greater executive persistence in engaging in development activities (e.g., practicing behaviors, reading relevant books, taking training, engaging in special on-the-job projects, seeking advice from coworkers).*
3. Because of the research in the mentoring literature tying psychosocial functions, which have many similarities to emotional support, to higher job and career satisfaction, I propose that *coach provision of emotional support will be positively related to executive satisfaction with their job and satisfaction with their career.*
4. The mentoring literature has shown that the provision of psychosocial functions is related to greater satisfaction with the mentor, so I propose that

coach provision of emotional support will be positively related to greater executive satisfaction with their coach.

5. Emotional support is purported in the leadership development, counseling and coaching literatures to help prevent individuals from being discouraged by difficulties (e.g., negative feedback, obstacles, failures), to keep them from giving up, and maintaining positive affect which is related to engaging in certain developmental activities and success in development. Therefore I posit that *coach provision of emotional support will be related to increased executive development in the areas focused on in coaching.*
6. The coaching, counseling and mentoring literatures all indicate that behaviors paralleling emotional support are essential to the development of the personal relationship between coach and client. Therefore I predict that *coach provision of emotional support will be related to a stronger positive personal relationship between coach and executive.*

Tactical Support

The other component of support is tactical support, generally, the provision of advice and serving as a sounding board for the executives' ideas for accomplishing their work and their development. The counseling literature provides evidence that tactical support is useful in helping clients grow and develop, as this type of support has been found to be important to helping them move through the stages of change, as defined in the transtheoretical model, especially in the planning stage (Porchaska & Norcross, 2001; Rosen, 2000). The coaching literature makes similar claims, citing the importance of the coach's role in providing advice, ideas, and helping the executive evaluate his or her

plans and strategies. Perhaps the best survey of executives and coaches about what works in coaching (Hall et al., 1999) reports that one of the top two things executives find important for effective coaching is that the coach provides good action ideas and pointers, and both coaches and executives report the importance of the coach being a sounding board to help analyze and vet ideas and strategies for development and for issues at work. In fact, executives cite their coaches' expertise and ability to recommend realistic actions as important to the ability of coaching to successfully affect their performance and development (Hall et al.). This assertion is paralleled in the mentoring literature (discussed in detail above). Part of the "counseling" psychosocial subfunctions of a mentor is to act as a sounding board and provide guidance for their mentee's development (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). The psychosocial functions have been shown to be related to positive career outcomes such as increased compensation, promotions, and satisfaction (Allen et al., 2004).

All together, there are strong indications that this type of support is important to behavior change, and the coaching and leadership development literatures strongly claim that tactical support is an important part of coaches being successful in helping executives develop. To account for this, I added a dimension to account for coaches' role of advice giver and provider of specific action ideas, called *tactical support*. The dimension of *tactical support* as a dimension of executive coaching is defined as follows:

> Activities of the coach that aid the operationalization of motivation; assistance or advice on how to do the work of development or perform on the job.

Propositions:

1. Because of the research in the mentoring literature tying psychosocial functions (including the counseling subfunction) to increases in career satisfaction, I propose that *coach provision of tactical support will be positively related to executive career satisfaction.*
2. Because of the research in the mentoring literature tying psychosocial functions to greater job and career satisfaction, I propose that *coach provision of tactical support will be positively related to executive job satisfaction and career satisfaction.*
3. Executives and coaches agree that the provision of tactical support is important to coaches successfully affecting executives' development, and this type of advice giving has been found to be important for individuals to successfully move through stages of change. *Therefore I predict that coach provision of tactical support will be related to increased executive development in the areas focused on in coaching.*

Challenge

The most powerful developmental experiences are the ones that stretch and challenge (Van Velsor et al., 1998). Coaches are believed to provide *challenge* in line with this conceptualization in several ways (McCauley & Douglas, 1998). Coaches supply challenge when they push executives outside of their normal "comfort zones" (McCauley & Douglas, 1998). They do this by speaking truthfully and frankly, and being willing to address tough subjects, which is important in overcoming defenses to unpleasant feedback or to overcome resistance to action. Additionally, coaches provide alternative points of view, challenge executives' existing views about themselves and

others, and their ways of thinking about and doing things (Hall et al., 1999; Kampa & White, 2002; McCauley & Douglas, 1998), to help executives have a perspective change that allows them to see areas they should change that they could not see before, or to gain insight regarding new ways of doing things or thinking about things that they can work towards (Hall et al., 1999; Joo, 2005; Kampa & White, 2002; Sherman & Freas, 2004).

Additionally, examining this through the lens of the transtheoretical model (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1982) coaches can push executives who are in the planning and action stages of change to take on challenges that increase the development gains from these stages. For example, coaches are said to push executives to set goals and take action on tasks that require skills and abilities outside their current capacity, to face situations requiring them to do things they would rather not do (e.g., deal with conflict), and set goals that will stretch them (Hall et al., 1999). The motivation literature, especially that of goal setting, is clear that setting appropriately challenging goals is a key factor in goal attainment, and that those who set such goals outperform those who do not (Locke & Latham, 2002).

To this point, literature on training indicates that challenging individuals during the learning process is important to their development (i.e., actual behavior change), especially for learning tasks that are changing and complex. For example, Gist and Stevens (1998) found that individuals training under challenging conditions had greater learning (i.e., recall, comprehension and synthesis) and typically had greater transfer of learning than those who trained under less demanding conditions. Similarly, giving trainees the opportunity to make errors during training has been shown to result in increases in learning and performance on the job as it gives them opportunities to learn

how to manage errors and learn from them (Keith & Frese, 2005). Learning under these conditions is also particularly important when the job is not static and requires the individual to adapt to changing circumstances. The rapid pace of change is a commonly discussed characteristic of modern organizations and careers (Wall, 2005), so learning under conditions of challenge should be especially important to ensuring that executive learning leads to increased performance on the job. When coaches push executives to take on more difficult and error-producing projects and goals so that they learn under more challenging conditions, greater transfer of learning to the job should occur.

In sum, coaches challenge their clients by being truthful and straightforward with them regarding their developmental needs and pushing them to take action. Further, they provide different points of view and challenge the executive's perspectives in order for them to gain insight into different ways of thinking about and doing things. Importantly, coaches encourage executives to take on challenges and difficult developmental goals to stretch themselves and maximize the growth they achieve through their activities. All of these have been cited in the coaching or training literatures as important elements of what makes coaching successful. The dimension of *challenge* as a dimension of executive coaching is defined as follows:

> Activities in which the coach pushes executives past the status quo of their thinking, acting, and comfortable levels of performance in order to create the disequilibrium necessary to encourage appropriate action and change (e.g., taking on tasks that are beyond their current capabilities).

Propositions:

1. Because challenge involves pushing executives to stretch themselves, I predict that *coach provided challenge will be positively related to the executive setting more difficult goals.*
2. Similarly, because challenge involves pushing executives to take on activities outside their current capacities, I expect that *coach provided challenge will be related to greater executive engagement in challenging or stretch activities.*
3. Challenge involves encouraging the executive to set difficult, challenging goals for their development and to engage in difficult and challenging activities. Research has shown that individuals who set difficult goals are more likely to attain those goals. Further, research has shown that training and practice that is more challenging results in higher levels of transfer back to the job. Therefore *I predict that coach provided challenge will be positively related to executive development in the areas focused on in coaching*.

Motivational Components

According to the leadership development literature, individuals often need assistance in overcoming motivational obstacles throughout the process of development and change (Van Velsor et al., 1999). Because of the personal nature of coaches' one-on-one helping relationship with executives, coaches are especially well positioned to assist in developing motivation and maintaining it even in the face of obstacles (and in fact have been said to do so; Brutus, London & Martineau, 1999; Day, 2000). The literature on motivation provided further details of ways coaches might help their clients through challenges and bolster their motivation. The dimensions of assessment, challenge,

emotional support and tactical support do not adequately capture this assistance in creating and maintaining motivation (discussed in more detail below), and therefore possible additional coaching activities components were identified.

Specifically, I reviewed the literature regarding creation and maintenance of motivation skills (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997), the development of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), development of learning goal orientation (Tabernero & Wood, 1999; Vandewalle, 1997), and goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2002), which corroborate the importance of overcoming motivational obstacles to development, and indicate ways in which coaches may help to do this. Because of the importance of motivation to development, and because it appears coaches likely contribute to development by affecting motivation, I looked to add dimensions capturing the coaches' role in supporting executive motivation, to the coaching activities framework.

The general theoretical framework for how coaches might support motivation was found in Kanfer and Heggestad's (1997) theory of motivation (I later incorporate other motivational literatures in detail and explicate the framework). Kanfer and Heggestad conceptualize motivation as involving a set of stable traits and a set of malleable skills, specifically emotion control skills and motivation control skills. These traits and skills are important drivers of progress through stages of change (Cole, Harris & Field, 2004). In fact, those who start the process weak in these areas and do not improve are more likely to fail to attain or sustain sufficient motivation, and derail in their efforts at growth and change.

It is in the area of skills that coaches can have influence. Emotion control skills serve to manage emotions such as anxiety, in order to maintain focus and effort and fend off intrusive non-task related thoughts and feelings. Those with poor skills in this area tend to have high anxiety, low self-efficacy, little persistence, and excessive intruding task-irrelevant thoughts. Motivation control skills, in contrast, serve to bolster the individual's motivational intention via various strategies such as creating plans, setting well crafted goals, creating contrived consequences and rewards for performance, in order to maintain high levels of motivation and effort. Motivation control and emotion control skills have been found to be important precursors to successful performance (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997). Importantly, while these skills are affected by individual differences in various motivationally relevant traits such as general anxiety, they can also be affected by various external forces, most notably training and the influence of others. Other theories of motivation further elucidate areas in which coaches could have impact on executives' motivation skills. Specifically, self-efficacy, goal orientation and expectancy theories relate to coaches' possible impact on emotion control skills. Further, goal setting theory, as well as practice from the coaching literature itself, relate to coaches' possible impact on motivation control skills.

Emotion Control Skills / Developing a Learning Orientation

According the Bandura's theory of self-efficacy, individuals' beliefs about their capabilities to perform a particular task or accomplish a particular goal greatly affects how they "feel, think, motivate themselves and behave" with regard to that task or goal and ultimately, how successful they are at that particular endeavor (Bandura, 1993, p. 132). More specifically, executives need to believe they are competent to determine

ways to accomplish change and master obstacles, so that they are able to focus on learning and development, and are willing and able to exert the effort necessary in order to successfully move through the action stage of change to successful behavior change. Without these beliefs, anxiety and intrusive thought interrupt performance and cause decreased effort, paralleling the idea that emotion control skills help control negative affect that impede motivation and effort. Bandura explicitly states that self-efficacy can be developed via "social persuasion," or encouragement from others (1977). Due to the fact that coaches are in one-on-one helping relationships with executives, they have sufficient personal contact to engage in this type of persuasion. In fact, the coaching literature talks about helping clients in this way (Hall et al., 1999).

Relatedly, expectancy theory states that both an individual's expectancy that their efforts will result in positive performance (essentially their self-efficacy with regard to the task) and a positive valuation of the outcomes of that performance are necessary in order for them to be motivated to put in effort (Vroom, 1964). Again, because they are involved in one-on-one helping relationships with executives, coaches are in an excellent position to boost not only individual self-efficacy (discussed above), but to make the case for the benefits of achieving a particular type of development and thereby increase executives' valence with regard to that development.

Additionally, the concept of emotion control skills finds strong parallels in the goal orientation literature. Goal orientation refers to the broad goals pursued by individuals in achievement situations, and these goals are differentially related to cognitive, affective and behavioral responses to challenging situations, such as the challenges of learning and development. Those with a goal orientation focused on

learning (learning goal orientation) pursue goals of increasing competence. They enjoy exerting effort towards mastering tasks, and are relatively unafraid of failure, regarding mistakes as feedback that helps them improve. Because of this they do not suffer much anxiety or task intrusive thoughts at the prospect of failure (Dweck, 1999; Farr, Hofmann & Ringenbach, 1993). In fact, learning goal orientation has been shown to moderate the relationship between negative emotions ensuing from negative feedback and the decreases in subsequent goal levels that typically result (Cron, Slocum, VandeWalle & Fu, 2005). Therefore individuals with strong learning orientations are typically more accepting of feedback regarding developmental needs and move more easily into and through the contemplation stage of change. Similarly, they are more likely to act upon the feedback and more easily move into and successfully through the action stage (VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle, Ganesan, Challagalla & Brown, 2000).

In sum, those with strong learning goal orientations are immune from some of the negative effects that failure or the prospect of failure inherent in difficult or challenging tasks, can have on growth. The development a strong learning goal orientation is similar in many important ways to the development of a set of strong emotion control skills. In fact, all of the positive characteristics of emotion control skills described above (e.g., self-efficacy for learning and development, high valuation of learning and development, low anxiety) are aspects or outcomes of a learning goal orientation.

With regard to what coaches can do to affect executives' learning goal orientation, goal orientation has been found to have characteristics of both a trait and state. While it tends to show consistency across time, it can be strongly affected the situation and by suggestions and cognitive reframing (Heslin, Vandewalle & Latham,

2006); it can be manipulated for periods of time, and possibly be permanently altered (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Dweck, 1986; Tabernero & Wood, 1999). Similar to self-efficacy, coaches are in an excellent position to influence executives' goal orientations by influencing their framing of the difficulties of development (e.g., by helping individuals view negative feedback or "failure" as growth opportunities, thus reducing anxiety and increasing effort and performance). In fact, the coaching literature reports that coaches do in fact engage in this type of reframing (Hall et al., 1999). In sum, in order to maintain a developmental frame of mind, executives may need to work to maintain good emotion control skills, or learning orientation, and coaches can provide assistance in the development and maintenance of these skills and orientation. The activity of promoting a *learning orientation* as a dimension of executive coaching is defined as follows:

> Activities of the coach that serve to increase an executive's skills/abilities to control cognitive and affective states or thought patterns related to achievement and performance, and to keep them functional/adaptive (e.g., promotion of self-efficacy, developing a learning goal orientation, and other adaptive cognitive and affective patterns and reactions).

Propositions:

1. Because learning orientation has been shown to be related to reduced anxiety, *I expect that when coaches promote a learning orientation, executives will show reduced performance-related anxiety.*
2. Part of promoting a learning orientation is attempting to bolster executives' self efficacy for development. Additionally, learning orientations in general

have been shown to be related to higher levels of self-efficacy. Therefore *I propose that where coaches promote a learning orientation, executives will show increased self-efficacy for learning and development.*

3. Part of promoting a learning orientation is attempting to bolster executives' valuation of development. Therefore *I predict that where coaches promote a learning orientation, executives will value development more highly.*
4. *I predict that when coaches promote learning orientation, executives will show increases in their state learning goal orientation.*
5. Those with higher learning goal orientations generally to invest more effort in development. Therefore, *when coaches promote a learning orientation* (which I predict will result in increases in executives' learning goal orientations), *executives will expend increased effort towards development.*
6. Because I expect that promoting a learning orientation will lead to reduced anxiety, increased self-efficacy and learning goal orientation, greater valuation of development, and increased effort, *I predict that coaches promoting a learning orientation will be positively related to executive development in the areas focused on in coaching.*

Promoting Motivation Control

Further, the adequate control of motivation is important to maintaining focus and effort on the process of development and to successfully moving in the change process. Coaches may help executives develop and sustain motivation control by being a source of motivation or by teaching the executive strategies and skills for maintaining motivation on their own. Coaches may aid motivation control by serving as an external source to

monitor progress and provide accountability, which may encourage the executive to meet their developmental goals (Hollenbeck, 2002; McCauley & Douglas, 1998). As discussed above, it is clear that follow-up and accountability may be an important method for getting action on feedback (Brutus, et al., 1999; Ilgen, et al., 1978; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Coaches can also encourage executives to find ways to achieve external accountability by talking to others in their organization about their development goals, creating more accountability to maintain effort, or helping executives find ways to create rewards for progress, including recognition from the coach or supervisor in the organization. This personal accountability could be a strong tool for gaining implementation and action on the part of the executive. In fact, the coaching literature often states that an important function of executive coaches is their role in providing accountability for development (Hollenbeck, 2002; Kampa & White, 2002).

Additionally, coaches often help individuals be successful in the planning stage of change by helping them determine their short-term or long-term plans for their growth and development (Levinson, 1996; Olivero et al., 1997; Orenstein, 2000). Well developed plans help facilitate successful progress through the action stage. It is well established that appropriate planning and setting of goals leads to significantly performance than no planning or poorly established goals by focusing attention toward goal relevant activities, increasing effort and persistence, and activating task relevant knowledge and strategies (Locke & Latham, 2002). Coaches can help executives improve their motivation control by encouraging and teaching them to create plans and goals in line with research and theory on goal setting. One example of a popular rubric used for making such effective goals and plans is "SMART" goals, that is, plans that are

specific, measurable, action oriented, have realistic goals, and a timeline (Doran, 1981; Shaw, 2004). Helping executives to make their goals and plans in this (or similar) fashion serves to provide executives with a current plan, and teach them the strategy for use in the future, leading to greater improvements in performance (Locke & Latham, 2002). In line with this theory, when coaches teach clients to create effective plans and goals, they help the executive engage in and develop skills that help keep them motivated, both during the coaching engagement and when the executives are making plans and setting goals on their own. This serves to bolster and reinforce the motivation of the executive and enables him or her to navigate the planning stage and persist through action, to successful behavior change. The dimension of *motivational reinforcement* as a dimension of executive coaching is defined as follows:

> Activities of coaches that serve to improve executives' focus, increase their levels of effort and persistence, and teach them strategies for maintaining these things outside the coaching engagement.

Propositions:

1. Part of motivational reinforcement includes helping executives create effective plans and goals. Therefore, *I predict that when coaches provide motivational reinforcement, executives will set higher quality goals (e.g., specific and challenging).*
2. Helping executives create effective plans and goals is a significant part of motivational reinforcement. Therefore, *I predict that when coaches provide motivational reinforcement, executives will be more likely to create "SMART" development plans.*

3. I predicted that motivational reinforcement will lead to higher quality goals, which research shows lead to increased goal related effort. Additionally, when coaches promote motivation, they also provide accountability to the executive for following through on their plans. Therefore, *I predict that when coaches provide motivational reinforcement, executives will exert greater effort towards achieving their goals.*
4. I predict that motivational reinforcement will lead to increases in executives' setting high quality goals and effective plans. Such goals and plans have been shown to result in increased goal success. Therefore, *I predict that coaches providing motivational reinforcement will be positively related to executive development in the areas focused on in coaching.*
5. Because I expect that promoting a learning orientation to be related to increases in development, I also predict that *motivational reinforcement will be related to improved performance in the areas focused on in coaching.*

In sum, it is clear from these literatures that the ability of executives to maintain their motivation is crucial to their development. It is also clear that an important function of coaches may be helping executives to develop and maintain a learning orientation and maintain their motivation. The existing dimensions do not appear to adequately capture this assistance in creating and maintaining motivation. Assessment deals only with providing information regarding strengths and weaknesses, and tactical support's emphasis is on providing specific guidance not on how on what to do (rather than developing the motivation to do those things). The focus of emotional support is on providing helping sustain a positive emotional state which can prevent them from being

discouraged and de-motivated, and the focus of challenge is pushing the executives to do more difficult things and contesting their preconceived ideas. However, neither of these dimensions encompasses bolstering executives' motivation directly by (1) helping them learn to control their cognitions and emotions or by (2) providing accountability and teaching them strategies to sustain their motivation on their own. Therefore learning orientation and motivational reinforcement were added to address coaches' role in developing and maintaining executives' motivation.

There are some conceptual parallels between the motivational components and challenge, however. First, promoting learning orientation is the altering of executives' cognitive framing of their developmental experiences to make that framing more adaptive and learning oriented (e.g., viewing achievement situations as opportunities to learn rather than competitions with others or possible occasions for failure). While the dimension of challenge does include disputing executives' way of thinking about themselves, promoting learning orientation adds a different element – the process of reframing executives' cognitions towards development and achievement.

Next, there are some conceptual parallels between the constructs of challenge and motivational reinforcement. The core of motivational reinforcement is keeping executives motivated, which involves teaching them strategies that produce/maintain motivation, including setting specific, difficult goals, and similarly, challenge includes pushing executives to take on stretch or difficult tasks and goals. In spite of this similarity, they are conceptually distinct in that the focus of challenge is on pushing executives make the decision to stretch themselves, while the focus of motivational reinforcement is helping executives create and sustain motivation to continue to put in

effort throughout the development process. Therefore, I hypothesized that these motivational dimensions would be related to challenge, but still distinct. In order to account for these activities, I tentatively included two new coaching dimensions to the assessment, challenge and emotional support model: *promoting learning orientation* and *motivational reinforcement.*

Summary

In summary, I drew on multiple literatures relevant to coaching to elucidate the specific activities coaches engage in that help executives successfully move through stages of change to improved performance. I began with the Center for Creative Leadership's conceptualization of a "developmental experience" as requiring *assessment, challenge* and *support*. Based upon the definition of support and influenced by the type of support the coaching literature indicates coaches give, I determined that support split into two dimensions based up the focus of the support: *emotional support* and *tactical support*. Further, I determined that coaches' role motivating executives was not adequately captured in CCL's conceptualization, so I drew from the extensive literature on motivation, and added dimensions capturing coaches' role in *promoting a learning orientation* and providing *motivational reinforcement* to the dimensions of coaching activities. This resulted in a preliminary theoretically-derived framework of six coaching activities dimensions. The definitions of these activities were as follows:

> *Assessment:* Activities of the coach related to providing executives with frequent, specific, accurate, information regarding their current performance, strengths, weaknesses, effectiveness, and primary developmental needs.
>
> *Challenge:* Activities in which the coach pushes executives past the status quo of their thinking, acting, and comfortable levels of performance in order to create the disequilibrium necessary to encourage appropriate action and change (e.g., taking on tasks that are beyond their current capabilities).

Emotional Support: Activities of the coach related to providing an emotional outlet, comfort, encouragement, acceptance, and sympathy that bolster the executive's positive emotional state, and/or decrease negative or destructive emotional states.

Tactical Support: Activities of the coach that aid the operationalization of motivation. Tactical support is assistance or advice on how to do the work of development or perform on the job.

Promoting Learning Orientation: Activities of the coach that serve to increase an executive's skills/abilities to control cognitive and affective states or thought patterns related to achievement and performance, and to keep them functional/adaptive (e.g., promotion of self-efficacy, developing a learning goal orientation, and other adaptive cognitive and affective patterns and reactions).

Motivational Reinforcement: Activities of the coach that serve to increase an executive's motivational intentions and teach them strategies for maintaining their own motivation outside the coaching engagement.

As discussed above, these activities were to be measured across clients – that is, asking coaches to describe their activities with the executives across all client engagements. While coaches likely vary the activities they engage in based up on each client's needs and the nature of the engagement, capturing differences between coaches in their levels of the activities dimensions across engagements is a way to characterize their different approaches to coaching.

In addition to the relationships of each of these six coaching activities with other variables (listed above in each section), there were also relationships that I expected to exist amongst the coaching activities themselves, as well as group differences on some of those dimensions based upon education and training. The mentoring literature indicates that the more functions provided, the greater the gains of the career and organizational gains of the mentee (Ragins, 1997; Sosik & Lee, 2002). So while coaches may not engage in all the activities all the time (e.g., the use of the dimensions is likely to vary depending upon the executive's needs and the nature of the coaching engagement),

generally speaking, the more they provide the better the outcomes. Further, Van Velsor et al (1998) suggested that all dimensions of a "developmental experience" (e.g. coaching) must be present for development to occur. Because of this, I expected that these variables, while representing distinct components of coaching activities, would be correlated.[9]

Additionally, I expected some coaching dimensions to be more closely related than others. First, because of some conceptual parallels discussed above, I expect that challenge would be more strongly correlated learning orientation and motivational reinforcement than with the other dimensions. Next, I expected emotional support to correlate most highly with learning orientation, as they both have affective outcomes (e.g., preventing discouragement with support; reducing anxiety by promoting a learning orientation).

Further, I expected there to be group differences on some of the dimensions based upon the background / education of the coach. Specifically, I expected that coaches with PhDs would report higher levels of assessment than without PhDs, and that those who held a certification (from organizations such as ICF or the Georgetown Leadership coaching program) would report higher levels of emotional support and lower tactical support than those who were not certified. The relative emphasis that coaches with PhDs place on assessment was expected as doctoral training typically includes substantial background in that area, and therefore they likely place more value on it and are more comfortable with its use. Additionally, the emphasis on more affective aspects by those who are certified also is expected as the two coach training organizations that participated

[9] This relies of course on the assumption that coaches do in fact produce development. The assumption is supported by finding of surveys in the coaching literature where the vast majority of executive clients report development resulting from coaching (Hall et al., 1999; Kampa & White, 2001).

in this research have a strong emphasis on more affective and personal issues and techniques (e.g., an emphasis on as reflection, and clarifying visions, beliefs, and values; "doing deep personal work," and supporting the client in "developing their own voice;" Georgetown CCPE, 2007; iCoachNY, 2007). Formal assessment is not emphasized. Further, a central notion of tactical support, giving specific directive advice, is counter to this emphasis on the client clarifying their own vision and developing their own voice, which would explain their lesser emphasis on these types of techniques.

These coaching activities have an important connection to the relationship between the executive and coach. The coaching activities have a significant impact the development and quality of the relationship, which in turn, impacts the effectiveness of the activities (Bluckert, 2005; Kilburg, 1997). That is, the relationship is both an outcome (at least partly) of the coaching activities, and a moderator of their impact on development. Therefore, understanding the central components of the coaching relationship is important to understanding the operation and impact of coaching. In what follows, I review the contributions of the coaching and other literatures to the understanding the coaching relationship.

Coaching Relationship Outcomes

As already mentioned, the relationship between coaches and their clients is believed to be of critical importance in the effectiveness of coaching engagements. While the importance of the relationship is discussed in the coaching literature (especially the existence of trust), no attempts have been made to more formally analyze the nature of coaching relationships. In order to begin addressing this issue, I drew on literatures that discuss helping relationships and their impact on development. Specifically, I

examined the counseling, mentoring and assessment center literatures. As mentioned previously, counseling has many parallels to coaching,[10] and was useful as it emphasizes the importance of the working bond between the therapist and client. It also discusses the relationship between therapist activities and strategies with the development of the therapist-client relationship. I reviewed the mentoring literature, as discussed above, because mentoring has many parallels to coaching, and the literature emphasizes the dynamic nature and quality of the relationship, as well as its effects on outcomes. Finally, the performance appraisal literature was useful because of its focus on the importance of trust in the relationship between the feedback giver and recipient to the acceptance and use of feedback, which parallels the agreement in the coaching literature that trust is critical to a coach having impact on their client's development.

Coaching Activities and the Coaching Relationship

Before beginning an examination of the components of the coaching relationship, I address some broader characteristics of the relationship: its relationship with coaching activities, its importance to the effectiveness of coaching, and its dynamic nature. The purpose in this study was to begin fleshing out the components of the coaching relationship and not to map out the stages of the coaching relationship or determine specifically how the relationship develops as the result, of and interacts with, coaching activities across time. However, it is important to understand how the relationship operates dynamically and in conjunction with the coaching activities to give appropriate context to the relationship components, and to help stimulate development of additional research questions and promote future research.

[10] Counseling parallels coaching in that both involve one-on-one dyadic helping relationships that exist for the advancing of the growth and development of a client, and counseling relationships also closely mimic the structure of coaching relationships (i.e., paid professional, confidentiality, scheduled sessions).

The development of the coaching relationship is likely strongly affected by what activities the coaches engage in and how they engage in them. In the counseling realm it is understood that "what is said [by the counselor], how it is said, and their broader strategies (including how they are used) surely impinge on, color, and alter the relationship" (Gelso & Hayes, 1998, p.147). This is likely especially true early in an engagement (as has been shown to be the case in counseling relationships; Horvath & Symonds, 1991), indicating that the early activities engaged in and impressions made in coaching are critical.

Along the same lines, there are indications in the coaching literature that coaches view the development of the relationship as being driven by the behaviors or activities of the coach. For example, displays of respect, consideration, and empathy are believed to have positive effects on the coaching relationship, specifically the warmth present in the relationship and the executive's trust in the coach motives (Bluckert, 2005; Kilburg, 1997). Additionally, the relationship also has reciprocal effects on coaching activities. As mentioned early, coaching activities occur in the *context* of the relationship, with the quality of the relationship greatly impacting the effectiveness of coaching activities. In fact, the relationship is believed by some to be so important that without a good relationship, coaching activities are rendered completely ineffective (Bluckert, 2005; Marshall, 2007; Wasylyshyn, 2003). The relationships amongst the coaching activities and aspects of the coaching relationship will be discussed in more detail below.

Coaching differs from counseling and mentoring in an important way. In counseling, 12 sessions is considered a "short-term" engagement (Horvath & Symonds, 1991) and mentoring typically lasts for years (Chao, 1997; Kram, 1983). Coaching

engagements, however, can consist of as few as one or two sessions (Sperry, 1993), which could raise the question whether a relationship can be established enough to have any effects. While the depth of understanding and accuracy of the perceptions the coach and client have of each other are no doubt curtailed in short-term relationships, such perceptions do in fact exist, and have effects. For example, the quality of the therapist-client relationship has been found to be especially important for short-term therapy. Clients have not only developed perceptions of the relationship early on in counseling, but their ratings of the relationship after *one session* have been found to predict outcomes (Horvath & Symonds, 1991). Similarly, in the assessment center literature, feedback recipients who met with their assessor *only once*, were able to rate their perceptions of the assessor's concern for the feedback recipient's well being and their trust in the assessor's expertise/credibility, and those perceptions had effects on outcomes (discussed in more detail below; Kudisch, Lundquist & Smith, 2001). Therefore, the quality of the relationship is important even in very time-limited coaching engagements.

Even so, the length of the coaching engagement certainly impacts the development of the relationship. To use the terminology of the counseling literature, the "real" relationship (i.e., the relationship based upon realistic perceptions and not on preconceptions or past experiences), requires time to emerge (Gelso & Hayes, 1998). Therefore the "relationship" would be unlikely to mature to this stage in short term engagements and would likely be more reflective of first impressions and previous expectations. The well established stages of the mentoring relationship support this idea, as the "cultivation stage," which most closely reflects a "real relationship," emerges after about a year. In the cultivation stage, the "fantasy" of the relationship from the initial

"attraction stage" turns into realistic expectations based upon experience and the real value of the relationship is discovered and utilized (Chao, 1997; Kram, 1983). Therefore, while the early perceptions of the relationship have effects, they are not likely comparable in nature to a longer term mature relationship.

It is also important to note that, the coaching relationship is not static – it is dynamic and evolves throughout the coaching engagement. While the coaching literature does not explicitly lay out stages the coaching relationship goes through, it does alludes to the dynamic nature of the relationship, with some consensus on the general stages of coaching: (1) relationship building, (2) assessment, (3) intervention, (4) follow-up, (5) evaluation (Kampa & White, 2002). These stages are not strictly linear, especially in longer engagements where, for example, multiple rounds of assessment may occur. These stages indicate a differential focus on the relationship, with the main focus of its development occurring at the outset (which is consistent with the counseling literature; Horvath & Symonds, 1991). However, the literature also makes clear that the relationship is important throughout (Bluckert, 2005).

Other literatures on one-on-one helping relationships have more explicit and detailed discussion as to how the relationship does in fact change and evolve over time. The mentoring literature details distinct phases that the pair goes through over time. These deal largely with the organic and unstructured nature of mentoring, where there's a period of *attraction* when the two decide to enter into the mentoring relationship, then a period of work, or *cultivation,* where the mentor provides assistance and support to the mentee. As discussed above, the relationship in this stage has a more authentic basis, and is based upon actual experiences with each other. After this, the relationship experiences

a disruption and the pair *separates*, sometimes being redefined as a *friendship*. (Kram, 1983). While these phases of the mentoring relationship do not necessarily directly apply to the more formal and structured coaching context, the implication that the relationship evolves over time supports the notion that the coaching relationship is dynamic, changing throughout the engagement. Additionally, it concurs with the idea that it takes some time for the relationship to be largely reflective of the pair's actual experiences with one another (or the real characteristics of the people involved).

Similarly, the counseling literature is clear that the therapist-client relationship is dynamic and changing (e.g., the working relationship has been shown to change across time in counseling engagements; Gelso & Carter, 1994), and that the quality of the relationship has an effect on outcomes. It is believed that the working relationship must be established in order for the engagement to be effective as it proceeds (Gelso & Carter, 1994). After the initial establishing of the relationship, it is generally no longer a focus in the sessions, though it continues to influence the effectiveness of the therapy throughout (for example, conflict is often interpreted through the lens of the relationship, with a positive relationship helping reduce friction; Gelso & Hayes, 1998). This corroborates the emphasis on the relationship in the coaching stages – relationship building is focal only at the outset (Kampa & White, 2002), but remains an important contributor to coaching effectiveness throughout.

In sum, the counseling and mentoring literatures, along with the practitioner literature on coaching, provide a general understanding of broader characteristics of the coaching relationship. The relationship is not static. It is dynamic and evolves throughout the coaching engagement, so much so that the length of the coaching

engagement likely impacts the development of the relationship, with longer engagements allowing for deeper more "real" relationships to develop. Further, the coaching relationship is likely strongly influenced by the activities the coach engages in, and in turn, the quality of relationship has an impact on the effectiveness of the coaching activities.

Components of the Coaching Relationship

This understanding of general characteristics of the relationship provides a context within which to think about specific components of the relationship. From here I then examined the counseling and assessment center literatures to understand specific, key components of the coaching relationship, namely, the *working alliance, trust in coach motivation* and *trust in coach expertise*.

Working Alliance

The counseling literature has shown that the counseling relationship has significant effects on client outcomes (Gelso & Hayes, 1998), paralleling the assertion in the coaching literature that the relationship between coach and executive has important effects on outcomes, and therefore might provide useful insights. It suggests that a positive counselor-client relationship is an important and necessary component for successful therapy (Gelso & Hayes, 1998), because the relationship provides the context that allows the client to accept and follow their treatment (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989) and determines whether the counselor can exert social or interpersonal influence over the client (Strong, 1968).

The therapeutic relationship is typically broken down into two components: transference and the relationship (Gelso & Hayes, 1998). While transference (the

unconscious redirection of feelings for one person, typically an important in a person's childhood, to another, typically the therapist) has been investigated extensively in the counseling literature, it is not appropriate for use in the coaching context for two reasons. First, there is no agreement across theoretical orientations in counseling that transference is important or useful, and secondly, it is associated with a method of therapy (psychoanalysis) which extends into methods and topics that much of the coaching literature says are inappropriate (such as Hall et al., 1999; Kampa & White, 2002). Psychoanalysis often focuses on very personal, non-business related topics (e.g., investigating important relationships from childhood), and the techniques are ones that not considered appropriate for those without psychological training, which many coaches do not have (Kampa & White, 2002). Therefore, I focused here only on the relationship and not on transference.

A common conceptualization of the relationship is the working alliance (Bordin, 1976; Gelso & Hayes, 1998). The concept of the working alliance was intended to be broad enough to cover all "change-inducing relationships" (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989), and its general nature makes it especially useful for investigating the coaching relationship. Generally speaking, the working alliance is the working bond between the client and therapist for the purpose of furthering the work of therapy. It includes the perception that the client and therapist agree on what *goals* they should be pursuing, and what *tasks* are appropriate to achieve those goals. This "degree of concordance and joint purpose between the counselor and client" reflect the degree of agreement and willingness to collaborate in the therapy (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989, p 224).

Additionally, the quality of their personal attachment or *bond* capture factors that influence the counselor's ability to exert social or interpersonal influence of their client. It has been argued that counselors who are perceived by clients as expert, trustworthy and attractive are better able to influence client behavior (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989; Strong, 1968). The working alliance has been shown to be related to perceptions of trustworthiness (honest, trustworthy), expertness (skillful, experienced), and attractiveness (likeable, warm), which are the categories that Strong (1968) has shown to be related to ability to influence. There is agreement across theoretical orientations that the working alliance is the fundamental component of the therapeutic relationship, and in fact, it has been shown to be predictive of counseling outcomes (Horvath & Symonds, 1991). In addition, the concepts of collaboration and bond are consistent with reports in the coaching literature of the criticality of the relationship of the coach and executive (Kampa & White, 2002). Therefore, I included the dimension of the *working alliance*, as defined below, in my conceptualization of the coaching relationship.

> *Working Alliance:* The working bond between the coach and the executive for the purpose of engaging in the work of the executive's development. The working alliance consists of perceptions of agreement regarding the goals of coaching and methods to be used to achieve those goals, and the quality of the bond between the executive and the coach.

Propositions:

1. Based upon the findings in the counseling literature of the effect the working alliance has on the efficacy of counseling, *I predict that the working alliance between the coach and executive will moderate the effects of the coaching activities on outcomes, such that a negative relationship will inhibit the impact of coaching on executive development in the areas focused upon in coaching*.

Trust

The literatures on performance appraisal and assessment centers discuss the feedback recipient's trust in the messenger or source of the feedback as being a key component in the acceptance of feedback. Trust is conceptualized in these literatures in two ways: as credibility, or trust in the source's competence or expertise, and trust in the source's motivation (i.e., whether or not they are looking out for the recipients' interests and genuine concern for their development). Both of these aspects of trust have been shown to be related to feedback acceptance (Halperin, Synder, Shenkel & Houston, 1976; Ilgen et al., 1979; Kudisch et al., 2001). In fact, Kudisch and colleagues found that trust in the expertise or credibility of the source of the feedback (i.e., the assessment center assessor) predicts feedback acceptance, and trust in the feedback source's motivation to predict feedback acceptance and motivation to engage in follow up activities (Kudisch et al.).

This conceptualization and findings are supported by other research on interpersonal trust in the organizational literature. Here, trust is often referred to as a "hallmark of effective relationships" (Dirks, 1999, p. 445). Dirks and Ferrin (2002) categorized types of trust as being either relationship-based (which includes the demonstration of concern about the other's welfare) or character-based (which involves beliefs in the integrity, dependability, and ability or competence of the other person). The categories of trust in motivation and trust in expertise from the performance appraisal literature clearly parallel this conceptualization. Interpersonal trust in general has been shown to be related to important attitudinal (job satisfaction, organizational commitment), behavioral (organizational citizenship behaviors) and performance

outcomes (Dirks, 1999; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).[11] It has also been found that trust does not have any direct effects, but rather serves to direct energy towards shared (versus individual), goals. Trust essentially channels energy towards collective goal (Dirks, 1999).

These literatures support the emphasis on trust in the coaching literature, and provide a theoretically based explanation of how trust likely moderates the effects of coaching activities on development. Specifically, because coaching is said typically to be assessment- and feedback-intensive, trust in coaches' expertise and in their motivation should affect success in coaching by promoting the acceptance of feedback, desire to follow through in developmental activities, improved attitudes, and direction of energy towards the goals shared with the coach.

It is important to note that the working alliance does overlap somewhat with trust in motivation and expertise. Bond is arguably related to trust in motivation as bond does encompass whether the coach and executive trust one another. However, it does not address specific question of trusting that the coach's motivation is the executive's best interest, which is the central theme of trust in motivation. Similarly, the working alliance taps the executive's confidence in the coach's ability to help them, and this confidence should certainly be affected by the executive's perception of the coach's expertise. However, the overlap is not substantial as the working alliance does not directly address perceptions expertise. In addition, the working alliance captures things that the two trust dimensions do not, such as the quality of the relationship, and agreement on the direction

[11] In a meta-analysis of research on trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), there were not enough studies of relationship-based trust to analyze, so the results were based on studies of character-based trust and studies with measures that tapped both relationship-based and character-based trust.

and method of coaching. Therefore, I included the constructs of *trust in motivation* and *trust in expertise*, as defined below, in my conceptualization of the coaching relationship:

> *Trust in Motivation*: The executive's belief that their coach is working in the executive's best interests, with no ulterior agenda contrary to the executive's interest.
>
> *Trust in Expertise:* The executive's perception that their coach possesses the skills, abilities, training and credentials to be effective in their role as the executive's coach.

Proposition:

1. Based upon the findings in the counseling literature that the relationship has on the efficacy of counseling, and that trust in motivation and expertise have been found to be related to acceptance of feedback, intentions to engage in developmental activities, and effort, *I predict that the both trust in expertise and trust in motivation will moderate the effects of the coaching activities on outcomes, such that a lack of trust will inhibit the impact of coaching on executive development in the areas focused upon in coaching*.

Summary

In sum, trust in motivation, trust in expertise, and working alliance were all found to be established conceptualizations of the quality of a one-on-one helping relationship relevant to the context of coaching. Therefore, the components of the coaching relationship were conceptualized as consisting of trust in motivation, trust in expertise, and a positive working alliance.

At this point, I accomplished the first objectives of the study which were to gain an understanding of the important dimensions of executive coaching, create a grounded conceptualization of the dimensions of coaching, and begin exploring the theoretical bases for these dimensions. Specifically, I reviewed the literature on executive coaching

and drew from relevant established literatures to develop a theoretically grounded understanding of what coaches likely do to promote development. From these literatures I developed a framework of executive coaching, which included six dimensions of coaching activities (assessment, challenge, emotional support, motivational reinforcement, learning orientation and tactical support), and three relationship outcomes (trust in motivation, trust in expertise and working alliance). In the process of developing this framework, theoretical mechanisms which may explain how coaching facilitates development were identified and these also informed the creation of items to operationalize the dimensions in the next step. This framework was an important first step in the creation of scales to measure the principal dimensions of executive coaching.

In order for this conceptual framework to be used in the research, the dimensions of coaching need to be operationalized and evaluated. This was critical empirical legwork that needed to be done in order for research on coaching to advance, as such analysis is a necessary precursor to more specific hypotheses testing. Currently, no measures regarding coaching are available, and so the ability to generate and test hypotheses is limited. Researchers can, at most, compare differences in those who have been coached to those who have not. This does not allow for the examination of differences amongst coaches on the various dimensions (i.e., differences in their coaching style), which is of great importance given the concerns about the standardization and wide variety of quality amongst coaches (Berglas, 2002). Additionally, a coaching – no coaching design is unable to capture complexity in the relationship of coaching to outcomes. For example, the effectiveness of the various dimensions may interact with the executives' needs or the characteristics of the executive, such that coaches with a

particular style may be more effective with certain types of executives, working with certain types or issues, and/or in certain environments. Validated measures of coaching dimensions will allow research of much greater complexity and rigor to be conducted.

The state of the coaching literature suggested that multiple methods were appropriate for operationalizing the coaching dimensions. Because there is no coherent theory regarding dimensions of coaching, items could not be created solely through deductive means. Additionally, because the practitioner literature and models are generally atheoretical, creating items only by inductive means may overlook practices that research has been shown to be important for development, but of which coaches are unaware. That is, coaches may be engaging in practices the research says are important. However, their conception of how their coaching practice has its effects may reflect only their individual schemas and observations, and be uninformed by theory or empirical work. Therefore, in order to ensure that the coaching dimensions were sufficiently and accurately operationalized, I sought to create empirically and conceptually rigorous scales that captured important dimensions of coaching and collected preliminary data on the soundness and utility of these scales.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

As the first step in operationalizing the coaching activities, I created items using inductive methods (i.e., creating items based upon the practitioner literature), deductive methods (i.e., operationalizing dimensions based upon related existing theory and research) and reviewed them for content and construct validity using both my own expertise as a coach and subject matter experts. Next, I surveyed coaches in order to examine the structure and internal consistencies of the dimensions. Additionally, differences in reported levels of coaching activities based on credentials were investigated. Further, clients of the participating coaches were surveyed to allow preliminary examination of convergent, divergent and criterion-related relationships of the scales in a network of other variables, in order to provide some suggestions regarding the construct validity of the scales (Cook & Campbell, 1978; Hinkin, 1995). The coach ratings of the coaching dimensions were examined for convergence with executive ratings of the same dimension, divergence with executive ratings of the other dimensions, and correlations with variables they were expected to predict (based upon the propositions derived from the literature review). Notable in this network were components of the coaching relationship, which according to the coaching literature are important outcomes of the coaching activities, and in turn play critical roles in affecting the success of coaching.

Item Generation and Review

In order to operationalize the framework, I generated items for each dimension based on all the literatures reviewed, and informed by my own years of experience as an executive coach. I created items based upon the definitions of the dimensions, and

tapped behaviors that the literature indicated coaches could engage in that would bring about development, as detailed in the reviews above.[12] Additionally, items were created inductively by reviewing the coaching literature and writing items based on what coaches say they believe to be helpful in producing positive results, as well as based upon my experiences as a coach. Next, items capturing aspects of the coach – client relationship were created.[13] Overlapping items were either eliminated or combined.

As discussed in the introduction, coaches were asked to respond to questions regarding their behavior across coaching engagements rather than with regard to a specific client. While coaches certainly vary their behaviors from executive to executive depending on the executive's needs and purpose of the engagement, I expected there to be within-coach consistency across engagement indicative of the coach's overall style, philosophy and methods of coaching, which would provide meaningful information about the application of the coaching activities in their practice. Executives, of course, were asked about their specific experiences with their coach. Because of expected consistency of coach style cross coaching engagements, as discussed above, I expected there to be some convergence of coach responses with executive responses.

With regard to the level of generality of the items, my goal was to keep each a reasonable length and focused generally enough that it could apply to a variety of coaches with different training, styles, and methodology, while still being specific enough that the nature of differences coaching style could be detected. For example, rather than just

[12] For example, encouragement is part of the provision of emotional support, so an item was written "I provide my clients with support and encouragement." Similarly, according to goal setting theory, specific, difficult and accepted goals help lead to more successful goal attainment (Locke & Latham, 2002). From this, an item asking how frequently the coach "helps [the client] set specific goals/objectives for their development" was created.

[13] For example, in Hall and colleagues' (1999) study, the coaches reported that they helped executives learn a trial and error attitude, so I generated an item asking how often the coach "helps [the client] learn a trial and error attitude."

asking broadly whether a coach provided emotional support to his or her clients, items were written to ask *how* they were supportive (e.g., provided someone to confide in). However, the level was not so specific (e.g., inquiring about specific tactics and methods for encouraging them to open up and confide in them) that its length would render the measure impractical. Although asking questions at a specific level might provide useful information, empirical research assessing dimensions of coaching is so new that it is preferable to begin relatively broadly to better understand the domain more generally and then determine if subsequent work on more specific techniques would be useful.

Additionally, some relevant existing measures and related variables from the literatures reviewed were found that tap aspects of coaching activities, as well as outcomes, including the relationship. Specifically, from the Mentoring Role Instrument (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) the friendship and acceptance subscales were used to tap aspects of emotional support, and the counseling subscale was used to capture aspects of tactical support. A measure of feedback specificity (Kudisch et al., 2001) was used to tap the specificity component of assessment.[14] With regard to relationship outcomes of the activities, assessor concern and credibility (Kudisch et al., 2001) were used to assess trust in motivation and trust in expertise, respectively, and the Working Alliance Inventory (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989) was taken to measure the working alliance. Further, satisfaction with mentor (Ragins & Cotton, 1999) was taken to tap satisfaction with the coach, and a measure of feedback acceptance was taken from the assessment center literatures (Kudisch et al, 2004). The language of all these scales was revised to fit the coaching context.

[14] Note that no pre-existing measures were found related to any of the motivational constructs reviewed. While there are of course measures of constructs such as self-efficacy and goal orientation, there are no measures regarding a third party's role in influencing those constructs.

Finally, the newly drafted items were compared with these existing measures. New items that overlapped with items from existing measures were eliminated. The remaining newly drafted items were used to cover areas of the dimensions of coaching (e.g., assessment, challenge) that items from existing measures did not cover. Notably, all of the items were easily assigned to a dimension, and there were no items leftover (i.e., there were no items that did not have a dimension to which they were related). This provided a further check on the content validity of the dimensions, as all items created both inductively and deductively were able to be assigned to a dimension in the framework, which provided evidence that the dimensions were adequately capturing the domain of coaching. The result was 73 coaching activity items assessing six dimensions. For details regarding how each component was created, please see Table 1; for a listing of the constructs and their items, please see Appendices A and B.

[Insert Table 1 about here]

The measures of the coaching activities dimensions were written to be administered primarily to coaches, rather than to their clients. However, parallel items were also written for executives to answer (i.e., identical items with a different referent – e.g., coach version asked the extent to which "you help your clients learn a trial and error attitude?" versus the executive version which asked what extent "does your coach help you learn a trial and error attitude?"). The executive items were asked in order to preliminarily examine aspects of the convergent and divergent validity of the coach measures. The coach and executive ratings of each of the dimensions were expected to be positively correlated, and the coach ratings of each dimension were expected to correlate more strongly with the executive rating of the same dimension than with the

executive ratings of the other dimensions. It is important to note that coaches and executives were rating coach activities at a different level of measurement – across engagements versus the executive's specific engagement, respectively. However, as discussed above, while it was expected that coaches would vary in their behaviors from client to client, it was also expected that coaches would exhibit sufficient consistency across engagements that there would be some convergence of coach reports of their behavior across engagements and their clients' individual reports. The expected relationships are discussed in more detail below.

The items of the relationship outcome components of trust in motivation and trust in expertise, the items were written to be administered to executives rather than coaches. These relationship constructs in expertise are focused on the effects of the executive's *subjective trust* in the motivation and expertise of their coach, and is therefore not as aspect that the coach would be in useful position to evaluate (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). It is standard in the literatures from which these measures are drawn to administer such measures in this way (Dirks, 1999; Kudisch et al., 2001). Similarly, feedback acceptance and satisfaction with coach were written to be answered by executives as they also tap subjective perceptions of the executive. The one exception was the working alliance, which was originally created in the counseling to be administered to both groups as it assesses both sets of perceptions of their bond, and agreement regarding goals of coaching and methods of development.

Subject Matter Expert Review

Next, I interviewed three executive coaches as subject matter experts (SMEs) regarding the coaching dimension measures. The SMEs were all coaches with varying

backgrounds and practices. The first was a management professor with a PhD in psychology, who coaches part-time. The second was a full-time coach with a PhD in adult development. The third was a full-time coach with an MBA and a coaching certification from a major university. The SMEs were provided with the definitions and the items for all of the constructs. They were then asked to comment upon: (1) the appropriateness of the constructs for the coaching context, (2) the appropriateness of the items for the coaching context (especially important for those drawn from other literatures), (3) whether the definitions and items for each construct were missing anything or contained extraneous material, and (4) whether these measures of coaching dimensions as a whole covered all important aspects of a coaching engagement. Additionally, they were asked to comment on the appropriateness of the level of generality of the items. They were not asked to come up with dimensions or items of their own, but were provided my framework and items to comment upon.

The SMEs agreed that the six dimensions of coaching activities adequately covered the domain of coaching. They held differing opinions on the importance of various activities however. However, in order to ensure the measures captured a broad enough range of activities, I retained the items so long as they generally agreed that coaches do engage in the activity. Specifically, one SME commented that several of the challenge items such as "push them to work on different developmental areas than they wanted to," and "push them to set difficult goals") did not fit her coaching philosophy and that she did not think they were things coaches should do. However, she acknowledged that other coaches do in fact engage in such behaviors, so the items were left in. The SMEs suggested changes in the wording of a few items to make them more

appropriate for the coaching context, and these changes were made. For example, the Working Alliance Inventory item "I think my coach (client) likes me" was changed to "My coach (client) thinks highly of me" because an SME thought the original sounded odd in the context of coaching. They also suggested four additional items, which were added, resulting in 77 coaching activity items.

Scale Development and Evaluation

From here, I moved to the survey portion of the study. My purpose was to administer the new coaching activities and relationship measures to a sample of executive coaches in order to test the structure and reliability of the scales (Hinkin, 1995). Additionally, I surveyed a subset of the participating coaches' clients, asking them about their experiences with their coaches, and used their responses to assess some convergent, divergent and criterion-related relationships expected to be found with the scales.

Survey of Coaches

Participants

The preliminary coaching activity dimensions and relationship measures (as well as other measures, described below) were administered to coaches via a web-based survey. All potential participants were sent a request via email with a link to the survey. Consent was obtained on the first page of the survey. Two hundred coaches participated, though some were later excluded due to missing data or a focus on coaching practices outside the scope of this study, resulting in a final sample of 188 coaches. I solicited participants from a wide variety of sources (professional coaching organizations, individuals listed on the internet, professional networks, and coach training organizations, as described in Table 2) in order to increase the generalizability of the study.

[Insert Table 2 about here]

The participants ranged in age from 25 to 70, with an average age of 51 (SD = 9.9), and 57% were female. Ninety-one percent were white, 3% were Asian, 2% were black, and 1% each were Latino, South Asian, Native American, and other. With regard to education, 96% had at least a bachelor's degree, and 71% had one or more advanced degrees. Thirteen percent of the participants had an MBA, 42% had a masters degree (non-MBA), 4% had other degrees (e.g., J.D., M.D.), and 29% had a PhD (note, these sum to more than 71% because 11% of the sample had multiple advanced degrees). Additionally, 57% of the sample had some form of coaching certification (43% were certified by ICF, 14% by other organizations, such as the Georgetown Leadership Coaching Program).

Measures

Prior to being administered, the survey was taken and reviewed by five individuals (two PhD graduate students and three working adults who had some exposure to coaching). This was done to determine the length of the survey, to check the clarity of the instructions and response scales, and to ensure that there were no technical problems with the online survey's operation. The survey took the individuals from 12 to 20 minutes, and they reported no problems with the items, response scales or instructions.

Coaching activities dimensions. The six coaching activities dimensions were measured using the preliminary 77 items. Specifically, the measures consisted of a list of questions regarding what is *typical* of what goes on in their coaching engagements (using a seven point scale of (1) never, (2) seldom, (3) sometimes, (4) often, (5) very often, (6) usually, (7) always). In order to keep the coaches' answers focused on the type of

coaching within the parameters of this study (as detailed previously), definitions of the four types/purposes of coaching from Witherspoon and White's (1996) rubric were provided,[15] and they were instructed to answer the questions based on their coaching in the categories of coaching for current performance and coaching for advancement. Further, because of the possibility of social desirability bias affecting the responses to the coaching dimension items (the items were written to reflect good coaching practices), the instructions stated that "the scale is positively skewed, so the middle point does not represent 'half the time,' but rather, 'often.' Please try to use as much of the answer scale variation as possible" in an attempt to reduce that effect. Because this scale is not a typically used frequency scale, the five reviewers who took the survey were asked about the clarity of this response scale. All five found the scale to be clear and understandable. Additionally, the participants in the actual survey were provided space to comment on the survey, and none expressed any confusion with the scale (though they expressed their views about other aspects of the survey, such as its length and content, discussed in more detail in the discussion section). Therefore I determined that this new scale was clear and was generally understandable to the subjects.

Working alliance. The working alliance was measured using a modified 12 item version of the Working Alliance Inventory (WAI; Horvath & Greenberg, 1989), which asks for the coach's level of agreement regarding statements about their relationships with their clients (e.g., "My clients and I agree on what is important for them to work on") using the same seven-item response scale as that used for the items tapping coaching dimensions. The WAI taps the three components of the working alliance: a strong bond,

[15] I.e., coaching for skills, coaching for current performance, coaching for advancement, coaching for the executive's agenda.

shared goals, and agreement regarding the tasks necessary to reach those goals (Gelso & Hayes, 1998; Horvath & Greenberg, 1989).

The trust in motivation and expertise measures were not administered to the coaches. As discussed previously, these constructs measure the subjective assessment by the executives, and in line with the literatures from which these measures are drawn, these measures were only administered to the executives (Dirks, 1999; Kudisch et al., 2001).

Nature of coaching practice. As discussed previously, there is extensive variability in the practice of people who label themselves "coaches" (Berglas, 2002; Kampa & White, 2002; Sherman & Freas, 2003). Because this study focused on executive coaching for specific purposes, questions regarding the nature of their practice were asked. First, a question regarding whether their practice was predominantly "life coaching" was included. As discussed earlier, life coaching falls outside the focus of this study. Second, a question regarding the percentages of their work that fell into each of four categories of coaching types was also included (coaching for skills, coaching for current performance, coaching for advancement and coaching for the executive's agenda; Witherspoon & White, 1996). The coaching dimensions measure created in this study were intended to focus on performance and development. Respondents who reported less than 25% of their practice in coaching for current performance and advancement combined were removed from analyses. Those who answered that they were life coaches, but reported that at least 25% of their practice consisted of coaching for current performance or advancement were retained, because, in spite of the fact they called themselves life coaches, a significant proportion of their work fell within the parameters

of the study. This resulted in seven individuals being dropped from analyses (four of whom labeled themselves as life coaches). Additionally, five other coaches were eliminated due to missing data, leaving a sample of 188.[16]

Education and credentials. Participants were asked about their education (both type of degree and area of study), and any certifications they might have related to coaching. Because concerns have been raised in the literature regarding the effects of variation in the credentials, education, and experience of coaches (Berglas, 2002; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Sherman & Freas, 2004), they were asked questions to explore whether such differences had any impact on coaching practices and outcomes.

Demographics. Demographic information, including age, gender and race, were asked for in a general information section of the survey. These were used to investigate whether there were differences in coaching dimensions based on demographic characteristics.

Survey of Executives

To aid in preliminary testing of a subset of the expected convergent, divergent and criterion related relationships for the coaching activities scales, a survey was administered to executives who were clients of some of the participating coaches (please see Appendix B). The measures administered to the executives were used to do some initial investigations as to whether the coaching dimensions relate as expected to other variables, including whether executive and coach ratings of the same dimension would

[16] Data were discarded completely for all participants who missed more than 10% of the coaching dimensions items or who missed data for more than 50% of the items in the entire survey. This resulted in a loss of five coaches (all five were disqualified for both reasons). For the participants who had skipped less than 10% of the coaching dimension items measures, the mean was imputed for that item. This data imputation method is known to be useful for factor analysis (Finkbeiner, 1979).

converge, and whether some coach rated coaching dimensions would relate to executive variables as predicted based upon the literature.

Participants

Executives were recruited in two ways. First, alumni of an EMBA program at a large public mid-Atlantic university were sent an email requesting their participation. Emails were sent to 119 alumni, and 24 responded. An accurate response rate could not be calculated because many alumni do not use the email account that is on file, and therefore I could not determine how many actually received the solicitation. The second group was recruited through the coaches who participated in the coach survey. At the end of that survey, coaches were asked if they would be willing to forward the survey on to their clients. Those who indicated they were willing were then sent an email to forward to their clients and eight executives responded.[17] There was no way to track the response rate for this group. The executives in the first group were matched to their coach by indicating the coach's name on the survey. Executives in the second group were matched to their coach via a unique code assigned to their coach (which was included in the email solicitation).

Measures of Coaching Dimensions

Coaching activities dimensions. The seven coaching activities dimensions were assessed using a parallel measure to the one administered to the coaches. The items were revised to ask how frequently their coach engaged in the various activities, or how much they agreed with a particular statement about their coach. These measures were compared to the coaches' ratings of the dimensions to examine expected convergence of

[17] Coaches were not asked to send the researcher contact information for their clients because of expected confidentiality concerns on the part of the part of the coaches.

different sources rating a similar variable. They were also used to examine the predicted divergence of the coach ratings of each dimension with executive ratings of the other coaching dimensions.

Measures for Preliminary Convergent, Divergent and Criterion-Related Validation

Coaching relationship. The working alliance was measured using the 12-item version of the WAI (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989). A measure of trust in motivation was included with a preliminary nine-item measure that was comprised of the three item assessor concern measure (which taps perceptions of coach concern for the executive's growth and development; Kudisch et al., 2001) and six new items from the coaching (Bluckert, 2005; Frisch, 2001; Hollenbeck, 2002; Peterson, 1996) and feedback acceptance literatures (Ilgen et al., 1979). Trust in expertise was assessed using Kudisch and colleagues' four-item measure (Kudisch et al.). The coaching relationship measures were expected to be related to various coaching dimensions, based upon reviews of the literature.

Feedback acceptance. Kudisch et al. (2004)'s six item measure of feedback acceptance was used. This measure taps individuals' acceptance of feedback as accurate (with reliability of .94 in this sample). As discussed earlier, feedback acceptance has been shown to be related to the specificity of feedback (Ilgen et al., 1979; Kudisch & Ladd, 1997) which is included in the coaching dimension of assessment.

Gains in self awareness. As discussed above, there are indications that self awareness can be improved through provision of assessment (McCarthy & Garavan, 1999). This was a five-item scale, created by using items written created to capture

expected gains in self awareness based on the literature (reliability of .92).[18] It asked about increases in understanding of ones own motivations, strengths, weakness and impacts of action, due to coaching. Gains in self awareness through coaching were expected to be related to levels of assessment provided by the coach.

Satisfaction with coach. Executives' satisfaction with their coaches was measured because the psychosocial functions of a mentor (especially friendship and acceptance) have been shown to be related to increased satisfaction with the mentor (Allen et al., 2004). Based upon the similarities of aspects of emotional support to mentoring functions of friendship and acceptance, emotional support was expected to be related to satisfaction with the coach. Executive satisfaction with their coach was assessed using a modified four-item version of mentor satisfaction (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). An example item is "my coach has been effective in his/her role." The scale's reliability in this study was .90.

Other Measures

Demographics. Demographic information, including age, gender and race, were asked for in a general information section of the survey.

[18] One item was taken from Kudisch (2007), which drew upon Sherman & Freas (2004).

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSES AND RESULTS

Structure and Reliability of Coaching Activities Scales

Before confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the structure of the coaching activities items, the unidimensionality of each factor was examined. This was done by subjecting each to exploratory factor analysis using maximum likelihood extraction and varimax rotation.[19] The number of factors to be extracted in each case was determined by theoretical interpretability (Darlington, 2006). Eigenvalues were not used to determine the number of factors because using this approach resulted in the overspecification of the data with some factors containing only one item; moreover the factor solutions based on eigenvalues were not conceptually interpretable. Items that did not meet strict standards of psychometric rigor were discarded. Specifically, any item that had a loading below .4 or that loaded on more than one factor (i.e., the loadings on the various factors were less than .2 apart) was eliminated.

One factor was the most conceptually clear solution for the assessment, emotional support, learning orientation and motivational reinforcement dimensions. Five, three, one and two items, respectively, were dropped from assessment, emotional support, learning orientation and motivational reinforcement scales, due to factor loadings lower than the minimum criterion of .40 (Kidwell & Robie, 2003). Please see Table 3 for the items and their loadings. The assessment factor captured 36% of the variance (eigenvalue = 7.67), emotion support captured 36% (eigenvalue = 4.61), learning orientation captured 50% (eigenvalue = 3.96), and motivational reinforcement captured 34% (eigenvalue = 3.25).

[Insert Table 3 about here]

[19] Orthogonal rotation was used because I was not looking for dimensions to be correlated, and varimax tends to provide a more simplified structure and greater differentiation amongst loadings (Finch, 2006; Garson, 2007)

Two- and three- factor structures were found to be most conceptually defensible for tactical support and challenge, respectively (the content of the factors is described in more detail below). The specificity and clarity of the sub-factors relative to the entire factor indicated that they would likely have more predictive value than the uni-dimensional scale (along the same lines, the subfactors of conscientiousness have been found to better predict aspects of performance than the larger factor; LePine, Colquit & Erez, 2000; Riesert & Conte, 2004). Because an important purpose of these scales was ultimately to predict coaching outcomes, this clarity outweighed the usual preference for parsimony. Of course, the predictive value of breaking challenge and tactical support into sub-factors can be empirically determined in further validation work, and if they do not differentially predict outcomes as expected, the structure could be reevaluated and the sub-factors collapsed.

For tactical support, a two factor structure was the most conceptually interpretable. While the items in both factors dealt with providing advice and guidance, they split regarding the subject matter of that guidance. The seven items in the first factor involved advice or guidance about how to do the work of development, and further, their focus was primarily on encouraging active and interactive learning (e.g., "encourage clients to try new ways of behaving in their jobs," and "promote active experimentation to further their growth"). Active or action learning is a popular model of leadership development, long practiced in Europe and Asia and growing in use in the United States (Raelin, 2006), so breaking this factor out separately seemed appropriate and potentially useful for examining a specific, widely used approach in coaching. Therefore, this factor was labeled promoting active learning or *active learning*. The five

items in the second factor focused on providing guidance or advice on tactics and strategies related to work and career objectives (e.g., “suggest specific strategies for achieving career goals” and “provide actions ideas or pointers”). Because of the focus on guidance and advice regarding tactics, the original label *tactical support*, was retained for this factor. Active learning and tactical support accounted for 37% and 17% of the variance, and had eigenvalues of 4.76 and 2.27, respectively. One item was dropped due to factor loading under .40.

As stated above, the clearest solution for challenge was a three factor structure. The focus of the first factor’s five items was challenging executives’ existing ideas and ways of doing things (e.g., “challenge clients’ assumptions” and “challenge clients’ ways of doing things”). In its model of development, CCL stressed the importance of the individual having the comfortable patterns of their thinking and actions challenged, creating sufficient disequilibrium by challenging the executives’ status quo, the executives become interested in and willing to change. This factor represents that idea, of challenging the current norms of their thinking and behavior and pushing them from their “comfort zone.” Therefore it was labeled *challenge of status quo.*

The four items in the second factor were predominantly about challenging the executives to engage in new experiences and encounter new ideas in order to stretch themselves (e.g., "challenge them to stretch themselves” and “push clients to set difficult stretch goals”). Setting difficult goals, and engaging in new, challenging or difficult experiences are considered fundamental to growth and development (Gist & Stevens, 1998; Keith & Frese, 2005; Locke & Latham, 2002), so I named it *challenge to stretch.*

The third factor consisted of three items that were related to being willing to challenge the executive directly by confronting or disagreeing with them when necessary (e.g., "I am willing to disagree with my clients" and "I am willing to tackle tough issues"). The notion of this type of challenge was a point of disagreement amongst the SMEs, with there being a stark contrast in opinions. The opinions ranged from a philosophy that this type of direct challenge is critical to coaching success, to a belief that it is inappropriate for a coach to relate with their client in such a manner (though with acknowledgement that other coaches do engage in these behaviors). Because of the pointed disagreement, I believed that it was important to assess this component separately from the rest of the challenge dimension, as this disagreement indicated that it might distinguish different coaching models or styles. Due to the items' focus on engaging in direct communication and possible disagreement with the clients for the furtherance of their growth, this factor was labeled *constructive confrontation.*

Challenge of status quo, challenge to stretch, and constructive confrontation accounted for 46%, 11% and 10% of the variance, and had eigenvalues of 5.94, 1.46 and 1.28, respectively. One item was dropped because it loaded on two factors. Please see Table 3 for the resulting 64 items and their loadings, and Table 4 for all the coaching activity dimensions, their items, reliabilities and item-total correlations.

[Insert Table 4 about here]

As the result of these analyses, a nine factor structure for the coaching activities was examined using confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). Since individual items tend to have low reliabilities and often violate assumptions of multivariate normality, it is often preferable to conduct CFAs on homogeneous item clusters or "parcels" instead of using

individual items as indicators (Bandalos, 2002; Nasser & Wisenbaker, 2003). Additionally, with a sample size of 188 and 64 items, the person-to-item ratio was low, at 2.6 to one. While there is not consensus regarding the proper person-to-item ratio, I decided to be conservative given that the ratio is especially important to detecting misspecifications in the model.[20] Therefore, items for each factor were grouped into parcels of three items where there were sufficient items in the factor, and two items where there were not, resulting in 26 parcels. This increased the person-to-item ratio to a more acceptable level of 7.2 to one. The items were chosen for the parcels by balancing the factor loadings for each parcel, grouping the highest loading and lowest loading in the same parcel.

The CFA was conducted using the Mplus statistical program (Muthén & Muthén, 1998). To assess the fit of the data to the expected nine factor structure, relationships amongst the parcels were specified according to that factor structure. The fit indices included a χ^2/df ratio of 1.78, CFI of .93, RMSEA of .06 and SRMR of .06, indicating good fit of the factor structure to the data. In order to support the nine factor structure as being the best fit, I also tested alternative models including the original six factor structure, a seven factor structure (with just tactical support split into two dimensions), an eight factor structure (with just challenge split into three dimensions), and several other combinations of factors. The fit of the hypothesized nine-factor structure clearly showed the best fit. Please see Table 5 for a description of the models tested and a comparison of the fit indices.

[Insert Table 5 about here]

[20] While sample size has been found to be more important than person-to-item ratio in several studies, person-to-item ratio has increased importance for detecting the misspecification of a model (Jackson, 2007; Russell, 2002), which would be important to detect here.

The intercorrelations amongst the dimensions of coaching activities (Table 6) ranged from .14 to .66, with an average correlation of .43. All but one of the correlations were significant at the .05 or .01 level. This pattern suggests that the nine dimensions were interrelated but still represented distinct constructs. While these correlations could be the result of same source or common method bias, they are also consistent with the original conceptualization of a quality developmental experience, which is that all the dimensions co-occur in order for development to result (Van Velsor et al., 1998).

[Insert Table 6 about here]

Note that due to sample size (n = 32), the coaching activities scales could not be factor analyzed using the executive data. Therefore the dimensionality and makeup of the scales for the executive data were based upon the scales resulting from the coach data.

Reliability of Coaching Dimensions

The reliabilities of the scales assessment (α = .91; 17 items), emotional support (α = .85; eight items), challenge of status quo (α = .87; five items), challenge to stretch (α =.83; four items), active learning (α = .84; seven items), tactical support (α = .87; five items), and learning orientation (α = .86; seven items) were .80 or higher, indicating good to excellent reliability. The reliabilities of constructive confrontation (α = .74; three items) and motivational reinforcement (α =.75; eight items), were adequate.

In the executive sample, the coefficient alphas for assessment (α = .97; 17 items), emotional support (α = .94; eight items), challenge of status quo (α = .94; seven items), challenge to stretch (α = .92; four items), constructive confrontation (α = .87; three items), active learning (α = .89; seven items), tactical support (α = .96; five items), learning orientation (α = .94; seven items) and motivational reinforcement (α =.92; eight

items) were all above .80, and largely above .90, indicating generally excellent reliability in this data (for the reliability of all coaching dimension measures in the executive sample, please see Table 9).

[Insert Table 9 about here]

Structure and Reliability of the Coaching Relationship

While the focus of the scale construction in this study is on the coaching functions and not the outcome of the relationship, the instruments used to measure the components of the relationship were a combination of items created for the coaching context with items from existing measures, or complete existing measures being used for the first time in the coaching context. Therefore I examined them to determine their structure in this context. One measure of the quality of the relationship was the Working Alliance Inventory (Horvath & Greenburg, 1989), which was administered to executives and coaches, consistent with its use in the counseling literature. In the counseling literature, the WAI has three factors: bond (the personal connection between coach and executive), goal (agreement regarding what should be worked on), and task (agreement regarding methods to reach goal). Nevertheless, I used exploratory (with principal components extraction because of the low sample size in the executive data, and varimax rotation, delta = 0) rather than confirmatory analysis to examine the structure as the task and goal items appeared as though they might actually be one factor in the coaching context. I suspected that they might collapse because in coaching there is often high physical fidelity between the *goal* and the work that is done to reach the goal (*task*), such that the goal itself (e.g. improving quality of interpersonal interactions) might in effect be the same as the task used to reach that goal (e.g., engaging in interpersonal interactions). In

fact, active practice and on-the-job learning are commonly involved in coaching. This would likely reduce the distinction of choice of goal and choice of method to achieve that goal. However, in counseling, the work is often quite different from the goal itself (e.g., overcoming depression via talk therapy), and therefore the distinction between the two is much greater.

Here, the number of factors extracted was determined by theoretical interpretability as recommended by Darlington (Darlington, 2006). The three-factor solution was rejected as being conceptually indefensible. It consisted of a bond factor, a collapsed task/goal factor, and a negative factor of one item (there were two items that refer to disagreement regarding tasks and goals, and one loaded onto this third factor, while the other double loaded onto and was therefore dropped). The two-factor solution made greater conceptual sense – it included two similar factors, WAI-bond and WAI-task/goal. One of the negative items double loaded and was therefore dropped, while the other one loaded onto the bond dimension (it was dropped later to improve reliability, discussed below). See Table 7 for the WAI item loadings and Table 8 for the factors and their items, reliabilities and item-total correlations.

[Insert Tables 7 and 8 about here]

Again, due to sample size (n = 32), the WAI, trust in motivation and trust in expertise scales could not be factor analyzed using the executive data. Therefore the dimensionality was based upon the results from the coach data (for the WAI), or on the dimensions identified in previous work (for the two trust scales).[21]

[21] For exploration, I ran the factor analysis of the WAI items using the executive data, and they factored just as expected. I also factor analyzed the trust in motivation and trust in expertise items together, and that resulted in the two factors expected.

The WAI task-goal factor had a reliability of .83 in the coach sample. The bond factor initially had a reliability of .63, but when the negative item (the item that referred to disagreement rather than agreement regarding goals) was dropped, the reliability rose to .84. The reliability for the whole scale was .88 (.83 before the negative item was dropped). With the negative item dropped, this resulted in a 10 item scale. In the executive sample, the reliabilities of the WAI, WAI-Task/Goal and WAI-Bond were .94, .91 and .93, respectively. The two trust dimensions were administered to executives rather than coaches. The four-item trust in expertise scale had a reliability of .94. The trust in motivation scale consisted of seven items and had a reliability of .89.

Preliminary Convergent, Divergent and Criterion-Related Validation Analyses

Construct validity can be shown in several ways, including providing evidence of content validity, reliability, and a conceptually and empirically sound factor structure (Cook & Campbell, 1998; Hinkin, 1995), all of which have been examined here. Specifically, in order to help ensure content validity, an extensive review of the practitioner literature on coaching was conducted. This helped generate the content of the coaching dimensions based upon reports of coaching practitioners, and served as a way to check the dimensions and items created based upon other literatures to see if they comported with what coaches say they do. Additionally, SMEs reviewed the items and dimensions for content validity. The internal consistency reliabilities of the dimensions were acceptable to excellent, ranging from .74 to .91, and had an average reliability of .84. Lastly, the final factor structure exhibited good fit to the data, and was consistent with the original conceptualization which was based upon theory and practice.

Additional evidence of construct validity can be demonstrated by showing expected relationships within a network of other variables, that is, through expected criterion-related, convergent and divergent relationships, as well as comparing ratings of the same construct by two groups that would be expected to be similar to some extent on the scale (Cook & Campbell, 1998; Hinkin, 1995). While the primary focus of this study was on developing the content of the measures and testing their structure and reliability, analyses were conducted regarding a few of the expected criterion-related, convergent and divergent relationships of the activities scales in order to get preliminary indications regarding their construct validity. Specifically, it was expected that coaches with different education and training would differ on some of the coaching dimensions, as suggested in the literature review. Further, in the literature review and construct development section, I suggested relationships that were expected to exist amongst the coaching dimensions themselves, and between each of the coaching dimensions and other variables. Additionally, the coach and executive ratings of each of the dimensions were expected to be positively correlated, and the coach ratings of each dimension were expected to correlate *more strongly* with the executive rating of the same dimension than with average executive ratings of the other dimensions. These are all discussed in more detail below.

Group Differences

Evidence of construct validity of a measure can be found by examining groups that would be expected to differ on that measure (Hinkin, 1995). As discussed previously, the credentials, training, education, and experience of individuals calling themselves executive coaches varies widely (Berglas, 2002; Judge & Cowell, 1997;

Sherman & Freas, 2004), and there are indications from both the coaching and counseling literatures that these differences might have significant effects on coaching practices and outcomes (e.g. education/training accounted for differences in medication management, Wells & Sturm, 1996; client acceptance of feedback, Collins & Stukas, 2006). As discussed above, I predicted that coaches with PhDs would report higher levels of assessment than those without PhDs, while coaches who were certified would report higher levels of emotional support and lower levels of tactical support than those who were not certified. To test these hypotheses, I examined the relationship of coach background and credentials with the coaching dimensions.

Before discussing the results in detail, it is notable that the group differences based upon education and certification paralleled each other, with coaches with PhDs and non-certified coaches having very similar results (as can be most clearly seen in Table 10). These groups were in fact confounded. Certified coaches were significantly less likely to have a PhD than non-certified coaches; similarly, coaches with PhDs are significantly less likely to be certified than non-PhD coaches (χ^2 (1, N = 188) = 31.38, p <.0001). Put another way, 80% of the sample had a PhD and/or were certified – 50% of the sample had a coaching certification only, 23% had a PhD only, and only 7% had both. It appears that these two credentials may substitute for each other as de facto qualifications for coaches.

To test the hypotheses, I ran independent sample t-tests on the coaching dimensions based on education (having a PhD or not) and whether the coach had been certified. All three predictions were supported (involving assessment, emotional support and tactical support), and group differences were found on four of the other dimensions.

Specifically, for *assessment*, those with PhDs and those without certification reported higher levels of the dimension (as well reported using a greater number of assessment instruments/techniques), than those without PhDs and those who were not certified, respectively. Certified coaches and those without PhDs reported higher levels of *emotional support*, *challenge to stretch, and learning orientation* than those who were not certified. Certified coaches reported lower levels of *tactical support,* and higher levels of *active learning* and *motivational reinforcement* than those without certifications (there were no significant differences on these dimensions based on education). Only *challenge of status quo* and *constructive confrontation* showed no group differences. For group means and t-test results, please see Table 10.

[Insert Table 10 about here]

While no apriori predictions were made regarding differences in *challenge to stretch, learning orientation, active learning* and *motivational reinforcement*, the differences were logical given the orientation and nature of the training of those coaches who are certified. Specifically, 89% of the certified coaches in this study were ICF members or had been trained by an ICF affiliated certification program.[22] ICF's coaching model, which is the basis for certification, includes a focus on learning through action (active learning), providing accountability (motivational reinforcement), supporting the executive in facing fear of failure (learning orientation) and encouraging executives to take on challenges and stretch experiences (challenge to stretch). (Please see Appendix D for the ICF coaching competencies). Additionally, while coaches with PhDs certainly might be exposed in the course of their doctoral training to research regarding the

[22] Georgetown's Leadership Coaching program is an ICF accredited program, and classes in the iCoachNY certification program have been approved by ICF as satisfying continuing education requirements for certification.

usefulness of these dimensions in achieving growth and behavior change, training in and use of these types of coaching strategies is not a central component of obtaining the degree. Therefore, it is logical that coaches who are certified and/or do not have a PhD would be more likely to endorse items in these dimensions.

Convergent, Divergent and Criterion-Related Analyses

I next tested some of the expected convergent, divergent and criterion-related relationships. First, it should be noted that not all the constructs discussed in the literature review / construct development section were measured in this study, as not all of the variables could be assessed. I employed a retrospective self-report survey from coaches and executives filled out by individuals from numerous organizations. With this study design, variables requiring longitudinal measurement, such as increases in performance, could not be collected. Additionally, activities or specific aspects of the development process such as the difficulty and specificity of goals or engagement of effort were not assessed as many of the coaching engagements were in the past, and it was unlikely that those details could be recalled with sufficient detail or accuracy.

Variables from both the coach and executive surveys were used in this portion of the study. There were varying numbers of executives responding per coach, and although hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) would have been appropriate to test the relationships (Snijders, 2003), the sample size of executives was too small to use HLM. Because there was insufficient agreement amongst the executives to justify aggregating their responses at the coach level (see Appendix C for the ICC(1) and ICC(2) statistics), the analyses were conducted at the level of the executive, with the relevant coach's responses assigned to each executive.

Before examining the data, I determined what effect size I expected in the various relationships. There were three different types of relationships examined in this section. (1) For the *different source – same variable* relationships (specifically, coach and executive ratings of the same coaching dimension), I expected a small effect size (r^2 = .10 - .30; Cohen, 1992), as the coaches were rating their experiences generally, and the executives were rating their particular experience with their coach. Additionally, the ratings reflect different perspectives on coaching, and the executives and coaches would likely perceive even the same engagement somewhat differently based upon the differing perspective, past experiences, and role in the coaching engagement. (2) For the *different source – different variable* relationships (e.g., coach rated coaching dimensions and an executive rated variable that it was expected to predict), I expected a small effect size due to having the perspective of two different sources on different variables.

The power to detect medium sized effects at the p = .05 level in analyses involving only executive data (n = 32) was good, at .92. The power to detect small effect sizes in the analyses involving both coach variables and executive variables (n = 32) was .43, meaning that there was a 43% chance of correctly rejecting the null hypotheses (i.e., finding a significant relationship when a relationship between the variables in fact exists). Put another way, there was a 57% chance of not finding the predicted relationship when in fact the predicted relationship existed. Therefore, non-significant findings in correlations between executive and coach rated variables cannot be interpreted as a rejection of the null hypothesis with any certainty (Cohen, 1992), rendering this a very preliminary look into these relationships.

Several expected convergent relationships were tested. Specifically, I expected that each of the dimensions as rated by the coaches would be correlated with their clients' ratings of the same dimensions. Additionally, predictions were made about the pattern of intercorrelations amongst the coaching activities dimensions (discussed below), which were also tested. Divergent relationships were assessed by testing the prediction the coach rating of each dimension would correlate more strongly with the executive rating of the same dimension than with the average executive ratings of the other coaching dimensions (e.g., the correlation between coach rated assessment and client rated assessment would be greater than the average of coach rated assessment with the clients' ratings of the other eight dimensions). Finally, criterion-related relationships were explored for assessment and emotional support, testing predictions based upon the literature reviews and resulting propositions. (Note, criterion-related relationships were not examined for the other dimensions for two reasons. First, the apriori propositions for learning orientation and motivational reinforcement laid out in the literature review involved variables that could not be tested in this study (e.g., performance outcomes, levels of effort). Secondly, the remaining five dimensions were subfactors of the original dimensions of challenge and tactical support, and therefore there were no apriori criterion-related relationships predicted for these variables.)

Predictions were made about the pattern of intercorrelations amongst the coaching activities dimensions, specifically that emotional support would be most strongly positively correlated with learning orientation (due to both having affective outcomes), and the original dimension of challenge would be most strongly related to motivational reinforcement and learning orientation, due to conceptual overlap. However, because of

the modifications to the dimensions of coaching activities, some of these predictions needed to be revisited. Specifically, the predictions regarding the construct of challenge being most strongly correlated with motivational reinforcement and learning orientation needed to be revised in light of challenge being split into three factors. Upon review of the new factor structure, I predicted that the subfactor of challenging the status quo, which includes challenging an individual's way of thinking about things, would be most highly correlated with learning orientation, as it focuses largely on improving executives' beliefs as they relate to development and performance. I also expected that constructive confrontation would be most strongly correlated with motivational reinforcement, as constructive confrontation focuses on being willing to be tough with the client when necessary, while a number of the items in motivational reinforcement involve holding the executive accountable which can involve confronting the executive. Finally, I predicted that challenge to stretch would be most strongly correlated with active learning (formerly part of tactical support), because of a practical convergence of the two dimensions: a purpose of active learning is to use real-time work problems which often serve to stretch the individual's capabilities (Raelin, 2006).[23]

The expected relationships and results for all the activities dimensions can be seen in Table 11. Next, I review what relationships were expected to be found for each dimension, and then discuss the results. (Please see Table 12 for a correlation table of the variables analyzed in this section).

[Insert Tables 11 and 12 about here]

[23] Note, due to the relationship expected between each of these three pairs of factors, the model fit was tested with each of the pairs combined into one factor, and in each case the goodness of the fit of the model was reduced.

Coach-rated *assessment* was expected to be positively related to: (1) executive ratings of assessment (and correlate more strongly with assessment than the average correlation with other dimensions); (2) feedback acceptance; (3) improvements in self-awareness; (4) executive ratings of trust in expertise, and (5) the number of assessments reported.

Assessment did not predict feedback acceptance or increases in self-awareness as expected. However, it did predict executives' ratings of trust in expertise (.35; $p < .05$), the executives' rating of assessment (.40; $p < .05$), and it showed some evidence of divergent validity as it was correlated more strongly with the executive rating of assessment than with the average of the other dimensions, as predicted.

Emotional support was expected to be positively related to: (1) executive ratings of emotional support (and to correlate more strongly with emotional support than with the average of the other dimensions); (2) executive ratings of the personal relationship with their coach, measured by WAI-Bond;[24] and (3) satisfaction with the coach. Additionally, (4) emotional support was predicted to have the strongest correlation with learning orientation. It was also expected to (5) intercorrelate more strongly with coach rated learning orientation than the rest of the coach rated dimensions. Emotional support was significantly related to all of the expected variables: satisfaction with coach ($r = .56$, $p < .01$); WAI-Bond ($r = .49$, $p < .01$); it showed some evidence of divergent validity as it correlated more strongly with the executive rating of emotional support than with the average of the other dimensions, and intercorrelated more strongly with coach rated learning orientation than with the other coaching dimensions.

[24] Coaches also rated WAI-Bond, but only executive rated WAI-Bond was analyzed as it eliminated the same source bias issue.

For the dimensions of *learning orientation*, *motivational reinforcement*, *active learning* and *tactical support*, two relationships were tested: (1) whether the coach ratings of each dimension correlated with the executive ratings, and (2) whether it was correlated more strongly with the executive rating of that dimension than with the average of the other dimensions. The expected relationships were not found for these dimensions.

For the three challenge dimensions, in addition to testing these two relationships between coach and executive ratings of each dimension, each of the challenge dimensions were predicted to be most strongly intercorrelated with a specific one of the other eight dimensions: challenge of status quo with learning orientation, constructive confrontation with motivational reinforcement, and challenge to stretch with active learning. For constructive confrontation, all three expected results were found. However, for challenge the status quo and challenge to stretch, none of the relationships were found.

Summary

Overall, there was evidence for the structural validity and internal consistency of the dimensions (with an average reliability of .84, range of .74 - .91). There was preliminary evidence of convergent, divergent and criterion-related validity for the dimensions of assessment and emotional support as several incidences of predicted relationships were found for each, and a small amount of evidence for constructive confrontation. These analyses provided no evidence for the convergent or divergent validity of the rest of the scales, as the few relationships predicted were not found. However, the lack of expected results for these variables cannot be interpreted as

significant evidence of a lack of construct validity, as only a few relationships were tested, and the power to detect relationships involving the executive data was limited. Additionally, tactical support showed predicted variation based upon coach training, and challenge to stretch, learning orientation, active learning and motivational reinforcement all showed meaningful differences based upon coach education/training as well. The overall results for this preliminary look at the construct validity of the dimensions are mixed, and given the limitations on the analyses this study, it is clear that further analyses need to be conducted in order to better assess the construct validity of these dimensions.

In summary, coaches varied as expected on emotional support, tactical support and assessment based up on their education and training, lending some support to the construct validity of those dimensions. Further, while no predictions were made with regard to the other variables, active learning, motivational reinforcement, learning orientation and challenge to stretch meaningfully and logically varied based upon the education and training of the coach, giving some indications of the usefulness of those dimensions for research purposes. Over all, the fact that the training of the coach is related to significant differences in seven of the nine dimensions lends support to the potential usefulness of these dimensions for research purposes. As a practical matter, these differences indicate that credentials may have considerable implications for the activities the coaches engage in.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This study is unique in that it is the first attempt to integrate existing research and theory and systematically outline and operationalize the important dimensions of executive coaching. In spite of the increasing popularity and considerable expense of coaching, no such attempts have been made, nor have attempts been made to assess what aspects of coaching are crucial to its effectiveness. In order to begin filling this gap, I mapped out the domain of coaching and operationalized dimensions of coaching activities. These dimensions and their measures were derived both inductively and deductively, drawing on the experiences of coaches as well as being grounded in the research and theory from a variety of well established literatures. More specifically, I utilized CCL's conceptualization of a developmental experience as a foundation, and drew from the transtheoretical model of behavior change from the counseling literature, along with several other related literatures, for theory as to how each dimension can serve to further executive growth and development. Analyses of the dimensions of coaching activities revealed that there were nine dimensions: assessment, challenge to stretch, challenge the status quo, constructive confrontation emotional support, tactical support, active learning, promoting learning orientation and motivational reinforcement.

Overall, the coaching dimensions showed promising evidence of content validity, internal consistency reliability, and structural validity for use in research, and there were initial suggestions of convergent, divergent and/or criterion-related validity of a few of the scales. Multiple methods (inductive and deductive; surveys and interviews) and multiple sources (coaching literature, several established literatures, SMEs, and coaches and executives) were used in the creation and review of the coaching activities items,

dimensions and scales, which lends support to their content validity (Hinkin, 1995). The reliabilities of the coaching dimensions were acceptable to high (ranging from $\alpha = .72$ to .90, with an average of .84). Analyses of the dimensions of coaching revealed that it had a factor structure that was conceptually clear and similar to what was originally predicted based upon the literature, with assessment, emotional support, promoting learning orientation, and motivational reinforcement all factoring as expected, while challenge split into three dimensions (challenge to stretch, challenge the status quo, constructive confrontation) and tactical support split into two (tactical support and active learning). Further, there were preliminary indications of convergent, divergent and criterion-related validity for the dimensions of assessment and emotional support as several incidences of predicted relationships were found for each (including their predicted correlations with aspects of the coaching relationship), and a small amount of evidence for constructive confrontation.

Additionally, I found meaningful group differences on seven of the nine dimensions (i.e., all but challenge of status quo and constructive confrontation) based upon coach training/education. Notably, there was a distinct pattern in which coaches with PhDs (and those without certification) reported higher levels of assessment and tactical support, and those with coaching certifications reported higher levels of five of the remaining seven dimensions. While these results might be explained as resulting from some systematic bias in reporting between groups (e.g., there might be different social desirability norms for each group), the differences are in line with content of the coaches' training (e.g., PhDs receive extensive training on the use and value of assessment) which indicates that these coaching dimensions are capturing constructs that

vary meaningfully and predictably amongst coaches, and could have widespread implications for coaching selection and training. This lends support to the potential usefulness of these dimensions for research purposes, and for furthering practice by giving insight into implications of different types of training and education.

Converging Evidence from Other Sources

In addition, there is converging evidence from other sources that these dimensions are tapping into important dimensions in coaching, and that at least some of the activities comprising these dimensions are related to coaching effectiveness. First, emerging research on executive coaching provides support for the usefulness of the coaching dimensions and their expected connection to effective coaching. Poteet and Kudisch (2007) used a combination of qualitative and quantitative job analytic methods to examine activities and behaviors that coaches engage in that provide value to the executive's development. They looked at these issues from the point of view of the executive, conducting structured interviews with executives in which they asked for numerical ratings of their coaches' behavior on various coaching activities, a number of which were directly drawn from this study. Further, they asked open-ended questions regarding what coaches did that was effective, and things the executives would have liked their coach to have done differently in order to be more effective. The executives' ratings of their coaches' activities were then correlated with their ratings of their coaches' effectiveness, and content analysis was conducted on the responses to the open-ended questions to determine what activities the executives believed to be effective. Nineteen of the 44 quantitative items were found to be significantly correlated to effectiveness, and

12 additional effective coaching activities arose from the content analysis of the open-ended questions (together, *effective coaching activities*).

Based on my review, each of the nine coaching dimensions from the current research included at least one of these effective coaching activities, or, part of the broader definition of the dimension itself was represented by at least one effective coaching activity from Poteet & Kudisch's (2007) study (please see Table 13 for the nine coaching dimensions and items with corresponding effective coaching activities). This not only provides some preliminary support of connection of the coaching activities to outcomes,[25] but it provides information regarding the existence of the various behaviors from a different source / perspective (i.e., executives rather than coaches and experts).

[Insert Table 13 about here]

Further, additional evidence for the value of the dimensions in this study can be found in the better established literature of career psychology, or career counseling (a branch of counseling psychology involving the study of career behavior and development, and interventions to assist individuals through that process; Gysbers & Moore, 1987). The practice of career counseling involves a one-on-one helping relationship that occurs over one to several sessions, in which individuals are assisted with job choice and career decision making (Brown & Krane, 2000). While this is not the primary focus of executive coaches, helping clients establish and plan career direction can be involved in coaching engagements (Kochman, 2003).[26]

[25] Of course, whether executives' reports of the effectiveness of their coaches are related to actual development is an empirical question that will need to be addressed in future research.
[26] Career counseling is narrower in scope than executive coaching as it does not focus on assisting individuals in building new competencies, knowledge, skills, etc. to help them perform better in their job or to advance in their career, it typically involves helping them find direction.

While the majority of the career counseling literature focuses on the mechanisms of career-development and occupational choice, rather than what career counselors *do*,[27] some models of the practice of career counseling exist. Notably amongst them is Gysbers & Moore (1987)'s outline of the two phases of the career counseling process which incorporated several existing schools of thought. There are parallels in their model to all of the dimensions of coaching found in this study, lending support to the validity of the coaching dimensions. The first phase of the career counseling process is the *goal or problem identification and clarification* stage. This stage involves establishing a relationship (much of which mirrors emotional support), gathering information regarding the client, their environment and determining the goal or problem and sorting and analyzing that information (both of which are similar to assessment), and drawing conclusions / making diagnoses. The second stage is *goal or problem resolution.* This stage begins with taking action and selecting interventions, which includes providing information and guidance regarding career and labor markets (similar to the advice giving of tactical support), working to cognitively restructure the client's maladaptive beliefs (not unlike promoting a learning orientation), and helping find ways to develop job-seeking and career decision-making skills (has some parallels to active learning). Next, the counselor helps the client use the information they have gathered to create an individual career plan (which parallels the goal setting and planning aspects of motivational reinforcement) and finally evaluation of progress (which is similar to the accountability components of motivational reinforcement).

[27] That is, they focus on understanding the process through which individuals choose their careers and what careers likely fit an individual (e.g., social-cognitive theories regarding career development, understanding mechanisms via which individuals set their career aspirations and make career choices, models of career fit such as Holland's inventory; Zunker, 1986).

As described, the framework of stages of career counseling stages has parallels to all of the coaching dimensions except for the three challenge dimensions. However, while challenging the status quo, challenging to stretch and constructive confrontation are not spelled out in components of the stages themselves, more detailed descriptions of the activities engaged in during these stages do indicate that Gysbers and Moore's use of the forms of challenge at various stages is believed to be essential to successful career counseling (e.g., challenging their views of themselves, reframing situations in more productive ways, constructively confronting the clients regarding their resistance or lack of motivation; Gysbers, Heppner & Johnston, 2003; Gysbers & Moore, 1987). In conclusion, while the stages of career counseling do not directly match each aspect of the dimensions of executive coaching (and would not be expected to do so as the career counseling model is laid out temporally while the coaching dimensions are not, and the focus or career counseling is similar but not identical to executive coaching), the significant similarities in Gysbers & Moore's (1987) stages to the content of the nine dimensions of executive coaching activities provide additional support for the validity and usefulness of the coaching dimensions found in this study.

In summary, Poteet and Kudisch's (2007) work gives preliminary empirical evidence that activities included in each of the dimensions of coaching in this study have some relationship to coaching effectiveness, as intended. Further, the overlap of the activities in the coaching dimensions with aspects of the model of career counseling, a much better established area of research, supports that the nine dimensions are in fact tapping into important aspects of the somewhat similar one-on-one helping relationship

of coaching. This, combined with the evidence provided by this research, supports the validity and usefulness of the coaching activities dimensions found in this study.

Contributions to Research and Practice

The purpose of this research – the outlining and operationalization of key dimensions of executive coaching – is critical to furthering empirical research, and is important for advancing coaching practice. Specifically, such a framework opens the door to examining the effects of variations from coach to coach, along multiple dimensions, rather than a simple comparison of coaching to no coaching. This is important given the wide variation in coaches' backgrounds and coaching styles (Berglas, 2002). Even within this sample where efforts were made to constrain the types of coaching practices that were included (i.e., excluding life coaching, focusing exclusively on executive coaching for performance and executive coaching for development), there was considerable variability amongst coaches regarding their levels of engagement in the various dimensions. This indicates that coaching is not a monolithic construct and that research using a coaching – no coaching design will be unable to capture the real complexity in the relationship of coaching to outcomes. By examining coaching using these dimensions, results would be tied to the specific style of the coach (i.e., their levels on the coaching dimensions) rather than to "coaching" or "no coaching," and therefore, findings from one sample of coaches would be more readily extended to coaching as a development tool more generally.

More specifically, beyond allowing us to empirically determine differences in coaches' styles, this framework makes a major contribution to advancing research by providing a means to examine whether those variations in style are related to variations in

coaching effectiveness. That is, understanding and assessing the various dimensions of coaching will allow researchers to determine which (if any) coaching activities are important to a coach's ability to have an impact on client development. It might be the case that only a few dimensions, or specific combinations of dimensions, have significant impact on outcomes, such that particular dimensions are clear markers of superior coaches. In fact, there is some preliminary evidence of differential impact of coaching dimensions in this study. Emotional support (as reported by coaches at the across engagement level) had a stronger relationship with executive perceptions than any other dimension, as it had the highest correlations with 14 out of 16 executive reported variables. This indicates that emotional support might be especially important to any outcomes strongly influenced by executive perceptions (though, of course, the relationship of each of the dimensions to outcomes is an empirical question to be addressed by further research). This study has opened the door to the important next step of determining the differential impact of coaching dimensions on outcomes for executives.

Further, measures of the coaching dimensions allow for the examination of the interaction of coach style with various characteristics of the executive, the issues involved in the engagement, and/or the organizational context in order to determine if coaches with particular styles are generally more successful in particular types of engagements. For example, it might be that working with executives in more competitive or tough professions (e.g., finance, law), requires coaches who engage in greater levels of constructive confrontation in order to effectively relate to executives who are used to that type of tough professional environment. Perhaps engagements with executives with

higher fear of failure will require greater promotion of learning orientation on the part of the coach in order to help them overcome cognitive obstacles to taking on difficult goals and tasks. From a practical perspective, determining these relationships would be invaluable in helping organizations choose the appropriate coach for the right coaching engagement. It would also help coaches deliberately tailor their behavior where possible to fit particular client needs. Further, because dimensions of coaching can be described and assessed, organizations would be able to systematically evaluate the practices of their coaches and encourage standardization of their coaching practices where desired, an important advance in ensuring the quality of coaching practice and improving the reputation of the coaching profession.

Further, there is additional practical importance to being able to measure coaching dimensions, as it allows us to address a significant controversy in the coaching profession regarding the appropriate education and training of coaches. Currently, there are no standards of education or training for working as an executive coach, which has raised concerns regarding the value of coaching in general (Berglas, 2002). Whether or not training matters to coaching effectiveness is a question that needs to be empirically addressed – can anyone coach effectively so long as they have an aptitude for helping people, or does coaching require specific education and training? If they need education and training, which type? An exciting finding in the current research is that those with different education and training differ on the majority of the coaching dimensions, that is, coaches do in fact behave differently based upon their training and education. What this means for coaching outcomes is not yet clear, as the connection of the various dimensions to coaching effectiveness have yet to be determined. However, validated

measures of coaching dimensions provide the means for examination of the criticality of each dimension to executive development (either generally or in a particular context) allowing for empirical determination of the impact of education and training on outcomes. Determining what effect these differences in education and training have on coaching effectiveness, and therefore what education and training are important for coaches to have, would be an enormous contribution to coaching practice.

Interesting Questions and Future Directions

In addition to the questions this study answered, an equally important contribution of this research was the interesting questions that arose during its process and from its findings.

Questions Around the Focus and Perspective of Measurement

In this study I chose to examine coaching dimensions at the across engagement focus of measurement. As discussed above, this focus allowed for the creation of measures useful for determining individual coach's style of coaching, for examining the differential effectiveness of different styles of coaching generally, and for addressing the controversy in the coaching profession regarding the appropriate education and training of coaches. However, examination focusing on coach behavior in individual engagements (i.e., a coach's engagement with a specific client) would also provide information critical to an understanding of executive coaching and how it has its effects.

First, this current work provides a starting point for examining coaching dimensions in individual engagements. The information derived from the literature reviews and SMEs for coaching dimensions and items are applicable to individual level engagements, as SMEs were not asked to think about coaching across engagements, but

coaching in general. Further, while this is ultimately an empirical question, I would expect to find the same factor structure when asking coaches about their behavior with individual executives as when asking them about their behavior across engagements, as there is no reason for coaches to have different mental representations of their coaching practice, or for the items to have different meaning for them when focusing on their work in general versus thinking about their work with individual clients. While their profile on the dimensions (i.e., the pattern of their levels on each of the dimensions) would likely change from engagement to engagement, there is no reason to expect the structure of the dimensions themselves to change.

Examination at the individual engagement level would allow for investigation of an additional, and important, set of questions. First, it would allow for a more micro-level examination of interactions of coach style with characteristics of the executive, their situation and organization, than examining coaches' style generally across clients. Examination at the level of individual engagements would be especially useful to directly linking specific coach activities to intermediate processes or mechanisms in executives' development, as mechanisms such as goal setting and effort occur at the individual level. The literature reviewed in this research points to many possible links that could serve as mechanisms between the coaching dimensions and outcomes, such as assessment leading to increased intention to engage in developmental activities, high levels of challenge to stretch leading to setting more difficult goals, or high levels of promoting a learning orientation leading to greater feedback seeking and persistence in the face of obstacles. Making these connections empirically would be particularly advantageous for practitioners, providing them important information regarding what practices are

typically effective in achieving what type of results, allowing them to adapt their methods accordingly. Further, whether various coaching dimensions' relationships to specific outcomes are mediated by those individual level processes is important for determining an overall framework of coaching and its effects.

Finally, I argue that the coaching relationship is essential to successful coaching (Bluckert, 2005; Hall et al., 1999; Horvath & Symonds, 1991), and measures of the relationship focus on the individual engagement level. Therefore examination at this level is important for fully understanding the process of coaching, and is necessary for developing and validating an integrated model of coaching (including coaching dimensions, relationship, processes and outcomes). Such an integrated model is critical to advancing both research and practice on coaching (discussed in more detail below).

Another important question that needs to be addressed is how coaches vary their behavior from executive to executive. The low ICC(1)s for the coaching dimensions in this study indicate that coaches may in fact vary significantly from engagement to engagement. It might be that instead of engaging in particular coaching activities in general being the mark of an effective coach, it is the ability of a coach to vary, and vary in appropriate ways for particular situations, that is the indicator of an excellent coach. Examination of coaches with a large sample of corresponding executives is necessary to determine the nature, extent and impact of coach variation from executive to executive.

This leads to a related question: If corresponding coach and executive ratings of the coaching dimensions differ, when is it appropriate to use ratings by coaches and when should executive ratings be used? As an initial matter, these scales were created to be asked primarily of coaches (e.g., some of the items refer to the purpose of various

activities, something executives would not necessarily be privy to), so some of the items are best answered by coaches. Also, the factor structure was determined based upon coach responses, so the factor structure would not necessarily be the same for executives. In fact, it appears likely that it would be different. First, items may very well have different meanings for the two groups based upon their differential understanding of those items (e.g., one group has more experience with the content) or different knowledge structures, causing the factor structures to vary. Because executives were on the receiving end of the activities engaged in by their coach, the executives necessarily have a different perspective. Further, executives have much less experience with and knowledge of coaching models and tactics, and it is well established that experts have more complex and developed schemas regarding information in their domain of expertise than do novices (Gick, 1986; Taylor & Dionne, 2000). Therefore it would follow that executives' cognitive representations of coaching activities are more basic than those of their coaches. In fact, while there was not enough executive data to factor analyze the dimensions, the reliabilities of the coaching dimensions were quite high in the executive data relative to coach data (average = .93, compared to .84 for coaches) as were the intercorrelations amongst the dimensions (average = .79, compared to .43 for coaches), indicating that there might be one overarching factor in the executive data (discussed more below). Therefore, as a preliminary matter, more work needs to be done regarding the appropriateness of the scales created in this study for use with executive samples.

The issue of factor structure aside, the question of when executive ratings of coach behavior are more appropriate to use than coach ratings needs to be addressed. As a general conclusion, which rater is appropriate will depend upon the purpose of the

research being conducted. If what is being predicted or analyzed would be expected to be driven by the executive's perception of what the coach does (e.g., satisfaction with the coaching process or components of the coaching relationship, such as trust in coach motivation), then the executives' ratings would be most appropriate. However, where the expected driver would be what the coach actually does, then I argue that the coaches' ratings should be used. While it is an empirical question as to whether coaches or clients provide more accurate reports of what actually occurs in coaching sessions, I expect that coaches would be more accurate for several reasons. Some of the items are technical in nature or refer to the purpose of the behavior, which would make coaches more accurate sources. Further, because the executives are the ones being assessed, given feedback (especially if negative), etc., it is possible they experience emotions that distort their attention and perceptions, rendering their ratings a less accurate reflection of what actually occurred. No similar apprehension would be expected on the part of the coaches. Finally, coaches did in fact show greater variability in their reports of the dimensions (even across executives), indicating a greater ability to distinguish amongst the dimensions.

The possibility of executives' ratings of the dimensions being distorted is relevant to the finding that executive and coach ratings did not correlate for six of the nine coaching dimensions. Of course, insufficient power[28] is a possible explanation for this lack of convergence, as is the fact that coaches and executives rated the dimensions at different levels of measurement (which is why the effect size was expected to be small). However, it is entirely possible that the divergence between the coaches' and executives'

[28] As discussed above, with a sample size of 32, the power to detect the small effect size expected here was .43, giving odds of 57% of not finding each relationship even where it does in fact exist.

ratings of the dimensions was larger than expected for another reason. The executives' ratings might be reflective of their differences in perception caused by their varying emotions and reactions to the coaching process as mentioned above, as well as their personality and other individual differences, resulting in greater non-systematic variance than anticipated, causing the coach and executive ratings to fail to correlate for several of the dimensions.

However, in the end, the predictive power of coach versus executive ratings is an empirical question that needs to be addressed by future research. Where feasible however, using ratings of both coaches and executives would be ideal as each would likely explain unique variance in outcomes. While coaches may be the best source for rating what actually occurred in coaching sessions, the executives' perceptions are likely critical to how they will respond. Further, measuring both perspectives would provide another angle from which to examine coaching, as the level of *agreement* between the executive and coach might also be a fruitful area of analysis (there are indications in the counseling literature that greater agreement in general should be related to better outcomes; Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Mallinckrodt, 1996).

Interesting Questions Raised Regarding Coaching Relationship

Another crucial area for future work that arose in this study is an examination of the link between coaching activities and the coaching relationship. I proposed that coaching activities dimensions would have effects on the development and quality of the relationship between coach and executive, and that the activities at the outset of the engagement were particularly important, especially in brief engagements. For instance, I predicted that a coach who provides high quality assessment will likely improve the

executive's trust in his or her expertise, and that a coach who provides high levels of emotional support would have a stronger personal bond with the executive, and these were in fact correlated in this study. The coaching dimensions could also have a negative effect on the relationship. For example, a coach who behaves in a cold, uncaring manner would likely damage any personal bond they could create with the executive. In line with this, I found that lower emotional support was correlated with lower ratings of the bond dimensions of the working alliance. Further, I proposed that the quality of the relationship would affect the impact of the coaching activities. For example, if an executive trusts her coach's expertise and motivation, she may be more forthcoming when being assessed by the coach, resulting in more accurate, useful information and therefore better coaching outcomes. In fact, this type of interaction between activities and relationship has been shown to exist in the counseling literature (Gelso & Hayes, 1998).

Longitudinal research regarding how the relationship unfolds over time and which activities are important to the development of the relationship at various times (e.g., counseling literature indicates that the relationship is formed early, so emotional support early on may be critical to forming a good relationship; Horvath & Symonds, 1991) is critical to providing a more detailed understanding of how the relationship develops as a function of activities, and how the relationship reciprocally influences the effectiveness of the activities. This is key to understanding coaching and improving coaching practice, and to helping researchers better understand the dynamic nature of coaching.

Questions Regarding Additional Dimensions

Additionally, feedback from the participating coaches raised a question about the possible omission of some coaching practices from the dimensions. Some survey participants indicated that there were practices they engaged in that were not reflected in the survey. Specifically, they talked about engaging in "deep" and "profound" questioning, and work on "personal transformation" which they felt were not included in the survey. These types of practices appear to be practices common in life coaching (Berk, 2004), and may have appropriately been excluded from this study. However, because there are individuals who do both life and executive coaching, it is important to be able to assess methods that are brought into executive coaching from the life coaching field. Additionally, two other areas that were not included in this framework were brought up by coaches after taking the survey: provision of homework or specific assignments for executives to complete between sessions, and activities surrounding the "contracting" of the relationship (e.g., where the coach and executive set the expectations and boundaries of the coaching engagement).

These omissions may have been the result of the way the SMEs were utilized. Specifically, the SMEs were not asked to come up with their own dimensions or items, but were provided my framework and items to comment upon. This was a large amount of information (nine dimensions and over 100 items), which required a significant amount of effort to assess. The combination of providing a pre-existing framework and the cognitive load placed upon the SMEs to evaluate the dimensions and items may have prevented them from coming up with alternative dimensions which they might have under different conditions. In order to determine if the current framework's dimensions and items sufficiently capture the important components of executive coaching, open-

ended interviews with a wider range of SMEs, particularly coaches that practice both life and executive coaching, need to be conducted.

Questions for the Coaching Profession

Finally, differences on the coaching dimensions based upon credentials were discovered, which may have important implications for coach training and coach selection. As discussed above, coaches with PhDs and those who were not certified reported a significantly greater emphasis on assessment, while those who certified reported higher levels on most of the other dimensions. These findings indicate that education and training do in fact impact the nature of coaching that the individual provides. If future work ties specific coaching dimensions to particular coaching outcomes, the practical implications of coach education and training would be significant. Coaches could be selected based upon what issues are expected to be dealt with (e.g., if it is found that assessment is critical for improving teamwork skills, then coaches with PhDs would be preferred for individuals wanting to improve those types of skills). Relatedly, coaches will be able to determine what training they need to receive based upon the type of practice they plan to engage in.

Understanding what the practical import of each of the coaching dimensions is critical for coaching as a profession to move towards appropriate requirements for certification. In particular, the International Coaching Federation has developed coaching core competencies as standards for their accreditation process, and to guide training and development of coaches (ICF Core Competencies, 1999). As the largest international coaching organization and certifying body in the world ("What is ICF," n.d.), ICF's competencies stand to greatly influence coaching practice. The competencies are

comprised of eleven core competencies, each with four to ten related items or behaviors. While the eleven competencies do not map directly onto the nine dimensions found in this research (and were not expected to do so based upon their purpose and method of creation)[29] each of the nine dimensions is represented in the ICF competencies and behaviors to at least some degree based upon my review (please see Table 14 for a listing of the ICF items and the corresponding coaching dimensions). However, three of the dimensions with more "directive" coach behavior (constructive confrontation, tactical support and challenge to stretch) are minimally represented in ICF's framework. This is not surprising as directive coach behavior is contrary to ICF's philosophy of coaching (i.e., they promote a more non-directive style of coaching, as evidenced even in their Code of Ethics; "The ICF Code of Ethics," 2005), and discourage directive behavior). However, there is evidence in Poteet and Kudisch's work of the importance of directive behaviors to perceived effectiveness (Poteet & Kudisch, 2007). Whether the more directive behaviors/dimensions are empirically shown to be important to actual executive development is imperative for either providing support for ICF's competency model, or showing a need for some modification. This is important for all the behaviors in ICF's framework, not just the ones where the two frameworks diverge. Because of ICF's wide reach and great impact on the coaching profession, it is critical to the profession to begin engaging in empirical investigation of their widely used competency model to ensure the relationship of the competencies to the intended outcomes.

[Insert Table 14 about here]

[29] ICF's competencies were created for job analysis type purposes, that is, for guiding general training and credentialing/selection processes. Their creation was not an attempt to create dimensions for research purposes.

Limitations and Important Next Steps Validating the Scales

While this study took the important first steps in creating a framework of coaching activities dimensions and determining the structure and reliability of those dimensions, there were limitations in the research. Further, there is important additional work to be done in determining the construct validity of the dimensions and ensuring that this framework and measures are useful for advancing research. First, as with any study, this research had certain limitations. Participants were solicited from a wide variety of sources in order to increase the generalizability of the study. They were solicited from the major certifying organization (ICF), business school coaching programs, and other coaching organizations. However, I was unable to calculate response rates for many of the groups, so self-selection bias may have occurred to the detriment of the study's generalizability. But, because there is no definitive cataloging of the characteristics of the population of individuals working under the title "coach," there is no way to determine if a sample is truly representative of the entire population. Fifty-four percent of the participants were recruited through the International Coaching Federation, which is the largest coaching organization in the world and the major certifying organization for coaches ("What is ICF," n.d.). Those solicited through ICF were significantly more likely to be certified than non-ICF participants ($F = 23.05$; $df = 1, 186$; $p < .01$) and less likely to have a bachelors degree ($F = 4.55$; $df = 1, 186$; $p < .05$) or a PhD ($F = 46.60$; $df = 1, 186$; $p < .01$). However, even if these levels of education and certification were not representative of the coaching population, it would not eliminate the generalizability of the results since group differences based on education and certification were determined. Further, this sample was drawn from coaches at the forefront of coaching practice and

research, which is an important population of study, even if it is not representative of all practicing coaches. While only 53% of this sample were members of ICF, the overall sample in this study parallels ICF membership in two important ways: educational levels (92% of ICF members and 96% of this sample have a bachelor's degree; 58% of ICF members and 71% of this sample have an advanced degree) and rates of ICF certification (32% of ICF members hold ICF certification,[30] as does 43% of this sample). Since education and credentialing were the two variables that showed significant differences on the coaching dimensions, this sample is representative in key ways of coaches in ICF.

Another limitation is that the data in the study are all self-report, suggesting that relationships found in the convergent validity portion of the study may be due to same source bias. However, there are reasons to believe that same source bias does not significantly compromise the results found here. First, coaching dimensions rated by coaches were compared to executive perceptions, thus greatly reducing the risk that same source had a significant impact on the findings. Second, researchers disagree as to whether or not it is in fact a serious problem in organizational research (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Doty & Glick, 1998; Spector, 1987).

Nevertheless, there was evidence of possible same source bias in the few analyses that were conducted with only variables rated by executives. The reliabilities and intercorrelations of all the coaching dimensions were high in executive data (average reliability of .91 and average intercorrelation of .75). Same source bias is not the only explanation for this pattern however. It is possible that executives are not able to distinguish very precisely amongst the various coaching behaviors because they do not have as well developed schemas regarding coaching and may only be able to rate an

[30] Note, ICF does not have data on its members' non-ICF certifications.

overarching factor, such as interpersonal affect. This would be consistent with the literature that shows interpersonal affect has both direct effects on performance ratings, as well as effects on cognitive processing involved in the evaluation (Robbins & DeNisi, 1994; Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). (Coaches, who would be expected to have more developed and complex schemas regarding coaching, distinguished amongst the coaching dimensions to a much greater degree, with intercorrelations as low as .14 and average intercorrelation of .43). A third explanation is that the fact that executives do not distinguish amongst the dimensions in the same way as coaches do accurately reflects their different perspective and experience of the coaching relationship and engagement. If this is the case, examining both perspectives may be necessary to fully understand the working of the executive coaching process, as was suggested above.

Important Next Steps in Construct Validation

Further work on the construct validity of these dimensions is the most immediate and important future work that needs to be done with regard to this research, in order to ensure that these coaching dimensions are maximally useful for research purposes. First, because it was not initially expected that challenge and tactical support would break into three and two scales respectively, it is possible that additional construct development work needs to be done with regard to the content these scales, especially examining the sufficiency of the scale items to cover the content of the dimensions. The three challenge scales of constructive confrontation, challenge to stretch and challenge the status quo, are the greater concern as the scales have only three, four and five items respectively, shorter than, and just meeting, the minimum of five recommended by Hinkin (1995). This is especially important for the three-item constructive confrontation scale, which had only

adequate reliability (α = .74). The two tactical support dimensions (tactical support and active learning) have five and seven items respectively, with good reliabilities (.87 and .84), so while these dimensions might benefit from further investigation, they are of a lesser concern.

Additionally, the dimension challenge to stretch merits additional analysis as to the distinctness of the dimension as it is part of the three pairs of dimensions with the highest intercorrelations (learning orientation = .66; challenge status quo = .62; active learning = .61). Because of the high intercorrelations, I ran three additional CFAs, combining challenge to stretch with each of these dimensions. None of the combinations improved the fit of the data to the model, indicating that the dimensions are distinct. However, parcels were used in the CFA, which tends to inflate the chances of finding predicted factor structures in the CFA (Bandalos, 2002; Nasser & Wisenbaker, 2003). Therefore, because of its high correlations with other variables, it will be important in future research to determine if challenge to stretch differentially predicts outcomes from the other three variables, to validate its usefulness as a separate construct.

Next, this study provided promising evidence of content validity, internal consistency reliability, and structural validity of the coaching dimensions, the convergent, divergent and criterion-related validation work done in this study can only be viewed as preliminary, as just a fraction of the variables in the dimensions nomological networks were able to be tested. Even though assessment, emotional support and constructive confrontation showed promising expected relationships with variables in their nomological networks, it was still a limited sample, importantly lacking outcome and performance data.

The absence of these data was due to the nature of this study – I used retrospective self-report surveys of coaches and executives from numerous organizations. With this study design, I was not able to collect variables requiring longitudinal measurement, such as increases in performance, nor could I gather accurate data on intermediate variables in the development process such the difficulty and specificity of goals or exertion of effort. Additionally, five of the nine coaching dimensions were the result of the split of the original challenge and tactical support dimensions, and therefore had very minimal predicted relationships in the first place. Therefore, in order to determine and ensure the construct validity of the scales it is critical to conduct further construct validation, using longitudinal data, including both intermediate (e.g., effort, goal difficulty) and outcome (e.g., performance, promotions, career satisfaction) variables, from a sample of coaches with a larger number of corresponding executives (with several executives per coach).

More specifically, a larger sample of coaches with a number of corresponding executives per coach would allow for the investigation of the coaching dimensions using HLM (which would account for any coach effects), and would provide more power to detect small effect sizes between dimensions of coaching and the perceptions and outcomes of executives, and allow for more extensive and sensitive examination of the convergent, divergent and criterion-related validity of the scales. In the current study, the sample of 32 executives did not provide enough power to test convergent, divergent and criterion-related relationships with expected small effect sizes definitively (though in spite of this, many of the expected relationships were in fact found). Notably, the coach and executive ratings of six of the nine dimensions did not converge as expected, while

other explanations for this finding exist (e.g., the differences in perceptions of coach behavior between coaches and executives were greater than expected; problems with the constructs themselves), power to detect the expected small effect size was only .43 (therefore there was a 57% chance of not finding each relationship, even if it did exist). Therefore definitive conclusions cannot be drawn regarding the lack of convergence. A larger sample would allow for a more definitive understanding of the relationships amongst the variables, and, with regard to the coach and executive ratings of the dimensions, would allow for further investigation not only of any convergence, but of coach variability on the dimensions.

However, there were considerable obstacles to gaining access to executives. While many coaches contacted were willing to participate in the study themselves, only a small portion were willing to send the survey to their clients. They cited two different reasons for their unwillingness to ask their clients to participate: confidentiality concerns and feeling it was inappropriate or bad client relations to ask their clients to fill out a survey. In order to gather a large sample of matched coaches and clients, it would likely be necessary to gain entrée into a coaching firm or a large organization that utilizes coaching which would be willing to encourage executives to participate.

Relatedly, access to such an organization or firm would allow for the collection of intermediate and outcome variables necessary to provide a more complete nomological network within which to test the construct validity of the dimensions. As discussed above, access to these data is critical to determining and ensuring the construct validity of the dimensions. Furthermore, examination of criterion-related relationships is critical to determining the real world implications of the coaching activities dimensions and how

important they are to the effectiveness of coaching, providing important information to practicing coaching.

Conclusion

This study represents an important first step in the advancement of executive coaching research. The field of coaching has boomed in recent decades with no signs of abating, and therefore it is critical that we be able to understand and assess what coaches do, what constitutes coaching quality, and what qualifications are necessary to be able to engage in these practices effectively. In spite of the increasing utilization of coaching, there has been little empirical or theoretical investigation of the practice, and this lack an empirical foundation has made it difficult to assess coaching in a meaningful way. In this study I have done critical empirical groundwork for the systematic study of executive coaching. This research was the first attempt to integrate existing research and theory with the coaching literature and systematically map out the domain of coaching, exploring theoretical bases for coaching practices, and creating and operationalizing a framework of dimensions of coaching activities. Already these dimensions have shown promise in gaining insight into questions regarding executive coaching, with distinct difference in coaching practice being found based upon education and training. The resulting dimensions and measures have opened the door to more rigorous and complex study of coaching, which promises to advance both research and practice.

Table 1
Sources for Scales

Construct	Existing measures	New items	Comments
COACHING ACTIVITIES DIMENSIONS			
Assessment	Feedback Specificity (Kudisch et al., 2001)	Yes	Feedback specificity only covered a portion of the domain of assessment. Therefore the three specificity items were combined with items created based on the coaching literature, performance appraisal, feedback acceptance and self-regulatory theories of motivation, as well as SME interviews.
Challenge	None	Yes	No existing measures of challenge were found. Items were created based upon the coaching and leadership development literatures, and SME interviews, and redundant items were combined or eliminated.
Emotional Support	Friendship scale of Mentoring Relationship Inventory (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990)	Yes	The domain of emotional support was not completely covered by the friendship scale. Therefore the friendship items were combined with items created based upon the coaching and leadership development literatures, as well as SME interviews, and redundant items were eliminated.
Tactical Support	Counseling scale of Mentoring Relationship Inventory (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990)	Yes	The counseling scale of the MRI only covered a portion of the domain of tactical support. Therefore the counseling items were combined with items created based upon the coaching literature, and redundant items were eliminated.

Motivational Reinforcement	None	Yes	No existing measures of motivation control were found. Items were created based upon the coaching, leadership development, and motivation literatures, as well as SME interviews.
Learning Orientation	None	Yes	No existing measures of emotion control were found. Items were created based upon the coaching, leadership development, motivation and performance appraisal/feedback acceptance literatures, as well as SME interviews
Measures regarding the coaching relationship			
Working Alliance	Working Alliance Inventory (Horvath & Greenberg, 1989)	None	The Working Alliance Inventory was taken intact with no additions. A few items were modified based on comments from the SMEs to make them more appropriate for the coaching context.
Trust in Coach Motivation	Assessor Concern (Kudisch)	Yes	The assessor concern measure did not cover the entire domain of trust in motivation. Assessor concern captured the coaches caring about clients' growth and development, but not about the lack of ulterior motives, commitment to their success, and trusting the coach to look out for their best interests. Therefore it was determined that the measure itself was did not capture the entire content domain of emotional support, so the measure and the new items were combined, with redundant new items being eliminated.
Trust in Coach Expertise	Assessor Credibility (Kudisch)	None	The Assessor Concern measure was taken intact with no additions.

Table 2
Coach participant information

Source	Number participants (number solicited)	Response rate
EMBA program	12 (13)	92%
Coaching symposium: Attendees at coaching symposium at Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology conference signed up to be sent the survey	8 (19)	42%
Professional organizations: Members of two professional organizations (the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and the Academy of Management) who appeared to be practicing coaches were solicited. Their email address were procured via organizational directories and online resources	37 (124[31])	30%[32]
Coach training organizations: Leaders in two coach training organizations forwarded the request for participation to their alumni	36	Not able to calculate[33]
International Coach Federation: Twenty-five local chapter heads sent my request for participation to their membership	105	Not able to calculate[3]

[31] Initially there were 138 people invited, but 11 people responded that they were not in fact coaches and three emails were returned as undeliverable.
[32] Note it is difficult to accurately calculate response rates for "cold call" solicitations over email as there is no way to know if the individual actually received the email and decided to accept or reject participation (or if it was filtered out as "junk mail," or simply never opened. Therefore, these are likely conservative estimates of the true response rate.
[33] It was not possible to calculate the response rate for the last two data sources as the participating organizations were willing to pass along a request for participation, but would not allow access to their membership or alumni lists. Because of this, the links to the survey used for these organizations had to be "open," that is, usable by an unlimited number of people, and therefore the percentage of those who received the request who participated could not be calculated.

Table 3
Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analyses of Individual Dimensions

** dropped from the scales due to low or double loading*

Assessment

Help them investigate discrepancies/inconsistency in assessments/feedback	**.69**
Assess clients' managerial style.	**.69**
Provide feedback that helps clients see what their primary development needs are.	**.69**
Give feedback that includes performance-related incidence of clients' performance.	**.67**
Gather data on clients' actual performance.	**.67**
Help clients integrate feedback from various sources (e.g., psychological assessments, 360 assessment, peer feedback, performance ratings, etc.)	**.66**
Help clients interpret feedback that they have received.	**.65**
Give feedback accompanied with strong supporting evidence and examples.	**.64**
Provide feedback which includes specific behavioral examples of clients' performance.	**.64**
Help them identify underlying factors that influence their performance (e.g., relate their personality/style to performance issues).	**.58**
Provide feedback about clients' strengths and weaknesses.	**.57**
Provide negative feedback when necessary.	**.57**
Assess client's personality or motivation.	**.55**
Gather information from clients about their current job situation.	**.49**
Gather information from clients about their job history.	**.49**
Provide feedback based on your personal observations of your clients.	**.45**
Provide clients with honest feedback.	**.41**
** Provide clients with frequent feedback.*	*.39*
** Gather information about what their career goals/ambitions are.*	*.39*
** Ask probing questions to determine underlying needs and motivations.*	*.35*
**Assess what clients' goals or aspirations are for coaching.*	*.32*

**Provide clients with realtime feedback (e.g., feedback on what they are doing in the moment in the coaching session).*	*.27*

Challenge Factors

	Challenge Status Quo	Challenge to Stretch	Constructive Confront-ation
Challenge clients' perceptions of others.	**.78**	.29	.21
Challenge clients' assumptions.	**.75**	.34	.23
Challenge clients' ways of doing things.	**.74**	.21	.08
Help clients understand the negative consequences of some of their behaviors/ways of doing things (e.g., derailers)	**.65**	.20	.33
Push them to work on different developmental areas that what they wanted to.	**.50**	.24	.10
Challenge them to stretch themselves.	.16	**.84**	.17
Encourage them to face situations requiring them to do things they normally would not do.	.36	**.70**	.16
Expose them to different perspectives / ways of thinking about things.	.29	**.67**	.12
Push clients to set difficult, stretch goals.	.32	**.54**	.10
** Challenge their way of thinking about things.*	*.50*	*.54*	*.30*
I am willing to disagree with my clients.	.25	-.06	**.77**
I am willing to tackle tough issues.	.10	.23	**.64**
Deliver "truth" constructively (i.e., are candid and straightforward when presenting feedback, but do so in a manner that maintains their self-esteem).	.14	.24	**.52**

Emotional Support

Provide my clients support and encouragement.	**.73**
I am someone my clients can confide in.	**.73**
I exhibit empathy towards my clients.	**.72**

I am someone my clients can trust.	**.66**
I exhibit good interpersonal skills when working with my clients.	**.59**
I provide my clients with emotional support	**.566**
I convey feelings of respect for my clients as an individual	**.562**
I provide a place for my clients to vent frustrations/difficulties	**.536**
** I encourage my clients to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from their work.*	*.345*
** I encourage my clients to talk to me about personal things.*	*.259*
** I spontaneously reach out to clients during the coaching relationship (e.g., send unexpected emails to gauge progress, etc.) and remain accessible.*	*.242*

Tactical Support Factors

	Active Learning	Tactical Support
Promote active learning (e.g., practice, action learning, etc.)	**.75**	.03
Help clients leverage a broad variety of development methods/experiences.	**.74**	.17
Encourage clients to try new ways of behaving in their jobs.	**.68**	.20
Encourage clients to reflect on successes and failures, to learn from their past performance.	**.68**	.08
Promote active experimentation to further their growth.	**.67**	.23
Encourage them to identify and leverage learning partners/confidantes as a means for getting real-time feedback on attempts to change behavior.	**.56**	.07
Help clients leverage strengths to compensate for weaknesses.	**.41**	.19
** Serve as a sounding board for clients to develop and understand themselves.*	*.32*	*.11*
Suggest specific strategies for achieving career goals.	.14	**.91**
Suggest specific strategies for achieving work objectives.	.03	**.80**
Guide clients' personal development.	.19	**.69**
Provide good action ideas or pointers.	.20	**.65**
Guide clients' professional development.	.24	**.60**

Learning Orientation

Help clients overcome fear of failing.	**.75**
Express your confidence in their ability to succeed.	**.72**
Give positive feedback to bolster clients' self confidence.	**.72**
Help clients learn a trial and error attitude.	**.69**
Help clients learn from their failures and mistakes.	**.67**
Encourage clients to see negative feedback or performance as an opportunity to learn and grow.	**.63**
Communicate to clients that learning and growth are valuable.	**.63**
** Help clients frame negative feedback as being reflective of insufficient effort or inadequate strategy.*	*.33*

Motivational Reinforcement

Help clients set specific goals/objectives for their development.	**.65**
Compliment clients' progress towards their goals.	**.63**
Provide accountability for meeting clients' goals/objectives.	**.59**
Link their feedback to potential coaching outcomes (e.g., tie feedback to a payoff, align feedback with their interests and goals, articulate the benefits of behavior change)	**.57**
Try to motivate clients to work hard on their goals.	**.55**
Follow up with clients regarding their progress	**.50**
Help clients develop a longer term career or development plan.	**.42**
Encourage clients to regularly talk about their development with other people (besides you).	**.41**
** Let them know that they will likely encounter some setbacks (e.g., discomfort, drop in performance, failure) when trying to learn new skills and build resiliency.*	*.39*
** Let clients "off the hook" when they haven't completed the work they agreed/planned to do with regard to their development.*	*.09*

Table 4
Final Coaching Dimensions
With dimension reliabilities, and item-total correlations

	Item/Total r
Assessment (α = .91)	
Give feedback accompanied with strong supporting evidence and examples.	0.59
Give feedback that includes performance-related incidence of clients' performance.	0.62
Provide feedback which includes specific behavioral examples of clients' performance.	0.59
Provide feedback about clients' strengths and weaknesses.	0.56
Assess clients' managerial style.	0.66
Gather data on clients' actual performance.	0.62
Assess client's personality or motivation.	0.52
Gather information from clients about their current job situation.	0.51
Gather information from clients about their job history.	0.48
Gather information about what their career goals/ambitions are.	0.42
Provide clients with honest feedback.	0.41
Help clients interpret feedback that they have received.	0.63
Provide feedback that helps clients see what their primary development needs are.	0.65
Ask probing questions to determine underlying needs and motivations.	0.37
Provide feedback based on your personal observations of your clients.	0.41
Provide negative feedback when necessary.	0.55
Help clients integrate feedback from various sources (e.g., psychological assessments, 360 assessment, peer feedback, performance ratings, etc.)	0.63
Challenge the Status Quo (α = .87)	
Challenge clients' ways of doing things.	0.75
Push them to work on different developmental areas that what they wanted to.	0.55
Challenge clients' perceptions of others.	0.75
Challenge clients' assumptions.	0.74
Help clients understand the negative consequences of some of their behaviors/ways of doing things (e.g., derailers)	0.66
Challenge to Stretch (α = .83)	
Expose them to different perspectives / ways of thinking about things.	0.63
Challenge them to stretch themselves.	0.75
Push clients to set difficult, stretch goals.	0.55
Encourage them to face situations requiring them to do things they normally would not do.	0.69

Constructive Confrontation (α = .74)	
I am willing to disagree with my clients.	.77
I am willing to tackle tough issues.	.64
Deliver "truth" constructively (i.e., are candid and straightforward when presenting feedback, but do so in a manner that maintains their self-esteem).	.52
Emotional Support (α = .85)	
I am someone my clients can confide in.	0.62
I provide my clients support and encouragement.	0.65
I am someone my clients can trust.	0.59
I provide a place for my clients to vent frustrations/difficulties	0.50
I provide my clients with emotional support	0.52
I exhibit good interpersonal skills when working with my clients.	0.51
I exhibit empathy towards my clients.	0.67
I convey feelings of respect for my clients as an individual	0.52
Tactical Support (α = .87)	
Guide clients' professional development.	0.60
Guide clients' personal development.	0.68
Suggest specific strategies for achieving career goals.	0.83
Suggest specific strategies for achieving work objectives.	0.71
Provide good action ideas or pointers.	0.62
Active Learning (α = .84)	
Promote active learning (e.g., practice, action learning, etc.)	0.64
Promote active experimentation to further their growth.	0.63
Help clients leverage a broad variety of development methods/experiences.	0.67
Encourage clients to try new ways of behaving in their jobs.	0.62
Encourage clients to reflect on successes and failures, to learn from their past performance.	0.59
Help clients leverage strengths to compensate for weaknesses.	0.41
Encourage them to identify and leverage learning partners/confidantes as a means for getting real-time feedback on attempts to change behavior.	0.54
Learning Orientation (α = .86)	
Help clients overcome fear of failing.	0.69
Give positive feedback to bolster clients' self confidence.	0.65
Communicate to clients that learning and growth are valuable.	0.59
Express your confidence in their ability to succeed.	0.65
Help clients learn a trial and error attitude.	0.63
Help clients learn from their failures and mistakes.	0.62
Encourage clients to see negative feedback or performance as an opportunity to learn and grow.	0.60

Motivational Reinforcement (α = .75)	
Help clients develop a longer term career or development plan.	0.39
Help clients set specific goals/objectives for their development.	0.55
Provide accountability for meeting clients' goals/objectives.	0.51
Follow up with clients regarding their progress	0.43
Compliment clients' progress towards their goals.	0.52
Try to motivate clients to work hard on their goals.	0.48
Encourage clients to regularly talk about their development with other people (besides you).	0.29

Table 5
Fit Indices for Nine Factor Model and Alternative Models

	Chi-Sq / df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Nine Factor Model	1.78	.93	.066	.055
Original Six Factor Model	3.15	.78	.110	.091
Eight Factor Model ◆ Original six factor model, modified by having the three challenge factors	2.59	.85	.095	.072
Seven Factor Model ◆ Original six factor model, modified by having the two tactical support factors	2.62	.84	.096	.086
Five Factor Model ◆ Original six factor model, modified by combining motivational reinforcement and learning orientation factors ◆ This was done because both factors were drawn from some of the same motivation literatures	2.21	.89	.083	.074
Eight Factor Model ◆ Nine factor model, modified by combining active learning and challenge to stretch ◆ This was done because of a similarity in the dimensions (stretch experiences are often on the job, active experiences which likely involve active learning)	2.14	.89	.080	.061
Eight Factor Model ◆ Nine factor model modified by combining constructive confrontation and motivational reinforcement ◆ This was done because of a similarity in the dimensions (motivational reinforcement involves providing accountability which could involve confronting the client)	1.97	.91	.074	.058
Eight Factor Model	2.67	.84	.097	.072

◆ Nine factor model modified by combining challenge to stretch and learning orientation ◆ This was done because both dimensions focus largely on improving executives' beliefs as they relate to development and performance are likely related in practice.				
Eight Factor Model	2.14	.89	.080	.061
◆ Nine factor model, modified by combining challenge to stretch and active learning ◆ This was done because of a similarity in the dimensions (stretch experiences are often on the job, active experiences which likely involve active learning)				
Eight Factor Model	2.27	.88	.085	.072
◆ Nine factor model, modified by combining challenge to stretch and challenge of status quo ◆ This was done because of the similarity of the two dimensions as part of the original challenge dimension. Both involve challenging executives to go outside their zone of comfort (though challenging the status quo focuses on ways of thinking about things in a different way, while challenge to stretch involves doing new things).				

Table 6
Coaching Activities Dimensions Intercorrelations and Average Intercorrelation
Reliabilities on Diagonal

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Average Correlation
1. Assessment	*.91*									.39
2. Challenge of Status Quo	.48**	*.87*								.47
3. Challenge to Stretch	.38**	.62**	*.83*							.49
4. Constructive Confrontation	.45**	.44**	.37**	*.74*						.40
5. Emotional Support	.22**	.23**	.40**	.51**	*.85*					.36
6. Tactical Support	.41**	.39**	.27**	.14	.15*	*.87*				.29
7. Active Learning	.44**	.51**	.61**	.38**	.33**	.37**	*.84*		.	.47
8. Learning Orientation	.29**	.57**	.66**	.43**	.54**	.22**	.57**	*.86*		.49
9. Motivational Reinforcement	.51**	.50**	.58**	.51**	.48**	.42**	.56**	.60**	*.75*	.52

N = 188
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7
Factor Loadings for Working Alliance Inventory
(Coach data)
and items' original dimensions

B = bond
T = task
G = goal

Orig Dimen	Item	Task-Goal	Bond
G	We agree on what is important for my clients to work on.	**.80**	.21
T	My clients and I agree about the things they will need to do in coaching to help improve.	**.77**	.08
G	We have established a good understanding of the kind of changes that would be good for them.	**.74**	.21
G	My clients and I work towards mutually agreed upon goals.	**.71**	.26
T	I believe the way we are working on my clients' development is correct.	**.70**	.23
T	What my clients do in coaching gives them new ways of looking at their development.	**.69**	.20
G	*My clients and I have different ideas on what their developmental needs are.**	*-.19*	*-.16*
B	I think highly of my clients.	.27	**.83**
B	I see my clients as being competent.	.30	**.82**
B	I am confident in my clients' ability to help themselves.	.34	**.70**
B	My clients and I trust one another.	.41	**.63**
T	*My clients do not understand what I am trying to accomplish in their coaching.***	*-.05*	*-.52*

* Loaded on more than one factor and was dropped
** Dropped to improve reliability

Table 8
Working Alliance Inventory
With scale and factor reliabilities, and item-total correlations
(coach data)

	Item/Scale r	*Item/Total r*
Bond (α = .84)		
I think highly of my clients.	.67	.61
I see my clients as being competent.	.64	.63
I am confident in my clients' ability to help themselves.	.51	.58
My clients and I trust one another.	.56	.61
*My clients do not understand what I am trying to accomplish in their coaching.**	-.31	-.24
Task-Goal (α = .83)		
We agree on what is important for my clients to work on.	.71	.68
My clients and I agree about the things they will need to do in coaching to help improve.	.61	.55
We have established a good understanding of the kind of changes that would be good for them.	.67	.61
My clients and I work towards mutually agreed upon goals.	.62	.60
I believe the way we are working on my clients' development is correct.	.66	.63
What my clients do in coaching gives them new ways of looking at their development.	.57	.58
Whole Scale (α = .88)		

* Dropped to improve reliability

Table 9
Coaching Relationship Dimensions Intercorrelations
Rated by executives unless noted otherwise

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Trust in Motivation	*.89*	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2. Trust in Expertise	.50**	*.94*	--	--	--	--	--	--
3. WAI	.81**	.62**	*.92*	--	--	--	--	--
4. WAI-Bond	.83**	.53**	*.94***	*.94*	--	--	--	--
5. WAI-Task/Goal	.73**	.64**	*.96***	*.82***	*.91*	--	--	--
6. WAI (Coach)	.08	.32†	.26	.24	.26	*.88*	--	--
7. WAI-Bond (Coach)	.26	.20	.44*	.50**	.34*	*.50***	*.84*	--
8. WAI-Task/Goal (Coach)	-.01	.29†	.12	.06	.15	*.93***	*.14*	*.83*

N = 32
The correlations amongst the WAI and its subscales rated by the same rater are shaded
† Correlation is significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 9
Reliabilities of Variables in Executive Sample

Variable	α
Assessment	.97
Challenge of Status Quo	.94
Challenge to Stretch	.92
Constructive Confrontation	.87
Emotional Support	.94
Tactical Support	.96
Active Learning	.89
Learning Orientation	.94
Motivational Reinforcement	.92
WAI	.92
WAI-Bond	.94
WAI-Task/Goal	.91
Trust in Motivation	.89
Trust in Expertise	.94
Feedback Acceptance	.94
Increases in Self Awareness	.92
Satisfaction with Coach	.90

N = 32

Table 10
Mean Differences on Coaching Dimensions by Credentials

- The mean that is **bolded** indicates the mean for the group that either reported engaging in the dimension more often, or rated it as more important.
- The rating scale was 1 – 7, with 1 indicating "never" and 7 indicating "always"
- Predicted findings are shaded

	PhD	Non-PhD	T	P <		Non-Certified	Certified	t	*p* <
Assessment	**5.90**	5.36	-3.70	.01		**5.72**	5.36	2.67	*.01*
Challenge of Status Quo	5.15	5.20	.29	NS		5.15	5.20	-.32	*NS*
Challenge to Stretch	5.57	**5.81**	1.65	*.10*		5.51	**5.92**	-3.13	*.01*
Constructive Confrontation	6.27	6.29	.20	NS		6.28	6.29	-.08	*NS*
Emotional Support	6.26	**6.52**	2.77	.05		6.28	**6.56**	-3.22	*.01*
Tactical Support	4.78	4.61	-.94	NS		**4.98**	4.56	2.13	*.05*
Active Learning	5.46	5.51	.33	NS		5.36	**5.60**	-1.79	*.10*
Learning Orientation	5.24	**5.89**	3.76	.01		5.43	**5.60**	-3.93	*.01*
Motivational Reinforcement	5.50	5.59	.73	NS		5.44	**5.66**	-1.79	*.10*
WAI	5.88	**6.17**	2.95	.01		5.90	**6.22**	-3.70	*.01*
WAI_Task-Goal	5.80	**6.00**	1.75	.10		5.79	**6.07**	-2.68	*.01*
WAI_Bond	5.97	**6.38**	3.80	.01		6.04	**6.43**	-4.09	*.01*
Trust in Motivation	6.50	6.67	.66	NS		6.50	6.59	-.38	*NS*
Trust in Expertise	*6.52*	*6.36*	*-.52*	*NS*		*6.39*	*6.56*	*-.62*	*NS*

Table 11
Coaching Activities Dimensions:
Expected and Found Convergent, Divergent and Criterion-Related Relationships

This table summarizes the examination of the convergent, divergent and criterion-related relationships that were expected to be found between the coaching activities dimensions and other variables.

All relationships listed are expected to be positive unless otherwise stated.

All dimensions are rated by the coach unless otherwise stated.

Executive rated (n = 32)
Coach rated (n = 188)

Assessment			
	Expected effect size	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Criterion-Related Relationships			
Feedback Acceptance *(rated by executives)*	Small	.23 / .05	No
Self Awareness *(rated by executives)*	Small	.01 / 0	No
Trust in Expertise	Small	.35* / .12	Yes
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Assessment *(rated by executives)*	Small	.40* / .16	Yes

Divergent Relationships			
Coach rated assessment would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of assessment (relative the average of the correlations with executive ratings of the other coaching functions)	Correlation of coach rated Assessment with exec rated Assessment:	.40	Yes
	Average correlation with of coach rated Assessment with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.32	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.91		

Emotional Support			
	Expected effect size	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Criterion-Related Relationships			
Satisfaction with the coach *(rated by executive)*	Small	.56** / .31	Yes
Personal relationship with the coach (WAI-Bond; *rated by executives)*	Small	.49** / .24	Yes
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Emotional Support *(by executives)*	Small	.55** / .30	Yes

Divergent Relationships			
Coach rated emotional support would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of emotional support (relative to the average of the correlations with executive ratings of the other coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Emotional Support with exec rated Emotional Support:	.55	Yes
	Average correlation of coach rated Emotional Support with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.45	
	Range of correlations with other dimension:	.34 - .62	
Coach rated Emotional Support will be most strongly intercorrelated with the coach ratings of Learning Orientation (relative to the average correlations wit the other coach rating coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Emotional Support with coach rated Learning Orientation:	.54	Yes
	Average correlation of coach rated Emotional Support with coach ratings of other dimensions:	.33	
	Range of correlations with other dimensions	.15 - .41	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.85		

Challenge of Status Quo			
Positive correlation expected with	*Expected effect size*	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Challenge Status Quo *(rated by executives)*	Small	*.13 / .02*	No

Divergent Relationship			
Coach rated Challenge of Status Quo would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of Challenge of Status Quo (relative to the average of the executive ratings of the other coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Challenge of Status Quo with exec rated Challenge of Status Quo:	.13	No
	Average of coach rated Challenge of Status Quo correlation with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.21	
	Range of correlations with other dimension:	.16 - .21	
Coach rated Challenge of Status Quo will be most strongly intercorrelated with the coach ratings of Learning Orientation (relative to the average correlations wit the other coach rating coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Challenge of Status Quo with coach rated Learning Orientation:	.57	Yes / No
	Average of coach rated Challenge of Status Quo correlation with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.45	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.87		

Challenge to Stretch			
Positive correlation expected with	*Expected effect size*	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Challenge to Stretch *(rated by executives)*	Small	.10 / .01	No

Divergent Relationships			
Coach rated Challenge to Stretch would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of Challenge to Stretch (relative to the average of the correlations with executive ratings of the other coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Challenge to Stretch with exec rated Challenge to Stretch:	.08	No
	Average correlation of coach rated Challenge to Stretch with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.09	
Coach rated Challenge to Stretch will be most strongly intercorrelated with the coach ratings of Active Learning (relative to the average correlations wit the other coach rating coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Challenge to Stretch with coach rated Active Learning:	.61	Yes / No
	Average correlation of coach rated Challenge to Stretch with coach ratings of other dimensions:	.47	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.83		

Constructive Confrontation			
Positive correlation expected with	*Expected effect size*	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Constructive Confrontation *(rated by executives)*	Small	.39* / .15	Yes

Divergent Relationships			
Coach rated Constructive Confrontation would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of Constructive Confrontation (relative to the average of the executive ratings of the correlations with other coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Constructive Confrontation with exec rated Constructive Confrontation:	.51	Yes
	Average correlation of coach rated Constructive Confrontation with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.39	
Coach rated Constructive Confrontation will be most strongly intercorrelated with the coach ratings of Motivational Reinforcement (relative to the average correlations wit the other coach rating coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Constructive Confrontation with coach rated Motivational Reinforcement:	.51	Yes
	Average correlation of coach rated Constructive Confrontation with coach ratings of other dimensions:	.39	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.74		

Tactical Support			
Positive correlation expected with	*Expected effect size*	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Tactical Support *(rated by executives)*	Small	*.07 / 0*	No

Divergent Relationships			
Coach rated tactical support would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of tactical support (relative to the average of the executive ratings of the other coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Tactical Support with exec rated Tactical Support:	.07	No
	Average correlation of coach rated Tactical Support with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.12	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.87		

Active Learning			
Positive correlation expected with	*Expected effect size*	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Active Learning *(rated by executives)*	Small	*.04 / 0*	No

Divergent Relationships			
Coach rated active learning would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of active learning (relative to the average of the correlations with executive ratings of the other coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Active Learning with exec rated Active Learning:	.04	Yes
	Average correlation of coach rated Active Learning with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	-.02	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.84		

Learning Orientation			
Positive correlation expected with	*Expected effect size*	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Learning Orientation *(rated by executives)*	Small	.26 / .07	No

Divergent Relationships			
Coach rated learning orientation would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of learning orientation (relative to the average of the correlations with executive ratings of the other coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Learning Orientation with exec rated Learning Orientation:	.26	No
	Average correlation of coach rated Learning Orientation with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.36	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.86		

Motivational Reinforcement			
	Expected effect size	*Actual findings r / r^2*	*Supported?*
Convergent Relationships			
Rating of Motivational Reinforcement *(rated by executives)*	Small	*.17 / .03*	No

Divergent Relationships			
Coach rated motivational reinforcement would be most strongly correlated with the executive ratings of motivational reinforcement (relative to the average of the executive ratings of the correlations with other coaching activities dimensions)	Correlation of coach rated Motivational Reinforcement with exec rated Motivational Reinforcement:	.17	No
	Average correlation of coach rated Motivational Reinforcement with execs' ratings of other dimensions:	.26	
Internal Consistency Reliability			
Alpha	.75		

* Correlation significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
† Correlation significant at the .10 level (2-tailed)

Table 13
Coaching Dimensions and Corresponding Effective Coaching Activities found in Poteet and Kudisch (2007)

Coaching Dimensions and Items	r of items related to effectiveness	Effective coach behaviors, from open ended comments (group – item)	Behaviors that would have been effective but weren't done by coach, from open ended comments
Assessment		*Generally, Context – "Investigated and incorporated coachees' issues, needs and goals" encompasses much of this dimension*	
Give feedback accompanied with strong supporting evidence and examples.	.41*		
Give feedback that includes performance-related incidence of clients' performance.			
Provide feedback which includes specific behavioral examples of clients' performance.			
Provide feedback about clients' strengths and weaknesses.			
Assess clients' managerial style.			
Gather data on clients' actual performance.			
Assess client's personality or motivation.			
Gather information from clients about their current job situation.		*Context – Investigated & incorporated coachees' issues, needs and goals into coaching*	
Gather information from clients about their job history.		*Context – Investigated & incorporated coachees' issues, needs and goals into coaching*	
Gather information about what their career goals/ambitions are.		*Context – Investigated & incorporated coachees' issues, needs and goals into coaching*	
Provide clients with honest feedback.		*Chart a Path – Provide direct, constructive, challenging feedback*	
Help clients interpret feedback that they have received.		*Context – Reviewed assessment data*	
Provide feedback that helps clients see what their primary development needs are.			
Ask probing questions to determine underlying needs and motivations.	.53**	*Context – Reviewed assessment data*	
Provide feedback based on your personal observations of your clients.			

Provide negative feedback when necessary.			
Help clients integrate feedback from various sources (e.g., psychological assessments, 360 assessment, peer feedback, performance ratings, etc.)	.38*	*Context – Reviewed assessment data*	
Emotional Support			
I am someone my clients can confide in.		*Connection – Listened and was available to discuss issues*	
I provide my clients support and encouragement.		*Connection – Provided encouragement*	*More encouragement*
I am someone my clients can trust.			
I provide a place for my clients to vent frustrations/difficulties	~ ~	*Connection – Listened and was available to discuss issues*	
Demonstrates empathy/concern towards needs, feelings, frustrations of client	.61**		
I provide my clients with emotional support		*Connection – Provided encouragement – Showed empathy and concern*	
I exhibit good interpersonal skills when working with my clients.			
I exhibit empathy towards my clients.	~	*Connection – Showed empathy and concern*	
Demonstrates empathy/concern towards needs, feelings, frustrations of client	.61**		
I convey feelings of respect for my clients as an individual			
Challenge the Status Quo			*Wanted to be challenged on their opinions more*
Challenge clients' ways of doing things.			
Push them to work on different developmental areas that what they wanted to.			
Challenge clients' perceptions of others.			
Challenge clients' assumptions.			
Help clients understand the negative consequences of some of their behaviors/ways of doing things (e.g., derailers)			
Challenge to Stretch			*Wanted to be pushed to do more*
Expose them to different perspectives / ways of thinking about things.		*Chart a Path – Provided fresh perspective and insight*	
Challenge them to stretch themselves.			
Push clients to set difficult, stretch goals.	.46*		
Encourage them to face situations requiring them to do things they normally			

would not do.			
Constructive Confrontation		*Generally, Chart a Path – "Provided direct, constructive, challenging feedback" encompasses much of this dimension*	*Challenge and confront more, be tougher*
I am willing to disagree with my clients.			
I am willing to tackle tough issues.			
Deliver "truth" constructively (i.e., are candid and straightforward when presenting feedback, but do so in a manner that maintains their self-esteem).			
Tactical Support		*Generally, Chart a Path – "Offered development actions & suggestions" encompasses much of this dimension*	
Guide clients' professional development.			
Guide clients' personal development.			
Suggest specific strategies for achieving career goals.			
Suggest specific strategies for achieving work objectives.			
Provide good action ideas or pointers.			
Active Learning		*Generally, Chart a Path – "Offered development actions & suggestions" encompasses much of this dimensions*	
Promote active learning (e.g., practice, action learning, etc.)			
Promote active experimentation to further their growth.			
Help clients leverage a broad variety of development methods/experiences.			
Encourage clients to try new ways of behaving in their jobs.	.54**		
Encourage clients to reflect on successes and failures, to learn from their past performance.			
Help clients leverage strengths to compensate for weaknesses.	.43*		
Encourage them to identify and leverage learning partners/confidantes as a means for getting real-time feedback on attempts to change behavior.	.39*		

Learning Orientation			
Help clients overcome fear of failing.			
Give positive feedback to bolster clients' self confidence.	.64**		
Communicate to clients that learning and growth are valuable.			
Express your confidence in their ability to succeed.			*Wanted belief in exec's abilities expressed*
Help clients learn a trial and error attitude.			
Help clients learn from their failures and mistakes.			
Encourage clients to see negative feedback or performance as an opportunity to learn and grow.			
Motivational Reinforcement			*More accountability and measure progress; be tougher*
Help clients develop a longer term career or development plan.		*Chart a Path -Help create development action plan*	
Help clients set specific goals/objectives for their development.	~	*Chart a Path -Help create development action plan*	
Establishes clear actions and expectations for meeting your goals/objectives	.46*		
Provide accountability for meeting clients' goals/objectives.		*Chart a Path -Review progress towards goals*	
Follow up with clients regarding their progress	.75**	*Chart a Path -Review progress towards goals*	
Compliment clients' progress towards their goals.	.64**	*Chart a Path -Review progress towards goals*	
Try to motivate clients to work hard on their goals.			
Encourage clients to regularly talk about their development with other people (besides you).	~		
Helps you to identify and leverage learning partners/confidants as a means for getting real-time feedback on attempts to change behavior	. 43*		

Table 14
ICF Core Competencies and the Nine Dimensions of Coaching

A = assessment
ES = emotional support
MR = motivational reinforcement
LO = learning orientation
TS = tactical support
AL = active learning
CSQ = challenge status quo
CS = challenge to stretch
CC = constructive confrontation

BOLD CAPITAL = strong fit to dimension
CAPITAL = good fit to dimension
lower case = some parallels to dimension

ICF's NOTE: Each competency listed on the following pages has a definition and related behaviors. Behaviors are classified as either those that should always be present and visible in any coaching interaction (in regular font), or those that are called for in certain coaching situations and, therefore, not always visible in any one coaching interaction *(in italics)*.	**COACHING ACTIVITY DIMENSION**
A. SETTING THE FOUNDATION	
1. Meeting Ethical Guidelines and Professional Standards – Understanding of coaching ethics and standards and ability to apply them appropriately in all coaching situations	
a. Understands and exhibits in own behaviors the ICF Standards of Conduct	
b. *Understands and follows all ICF Ethical Guidelines*	
c. *Clearly communicates the distinctions between coaching, consulting, psychotherapy and other support professions*	
d. *Refers client to another support professional as needed, knowing when this is needed and the available resources*	
2. Establishing the Coaching Agreement – Ability to understand what is required in the specific coaching interaction and to come to agreement with the prospective and new client about the coaching process and relationship	
a. *Understands and effectively discusses with the client the guidelines and specific parameters of the coaching relationship (e.g., logistics, fees, scheduling, inclusion of others if appropriate)*	
b. *Reaches agreement about what is appropriate in the relationship and what is not, what is and is not being offered, and about the client's and coach's responsibilities*	

c. *Determines whether there is an effective match between his/her coaching method and the needs of the prospective client*	
B. CO-CREATING THE RELATIONSHIP	
3. Establishing Trust and Intimacy with the Client – Ability to create a safe, supportive environment that produces ongoing mutual respect and trust	
a. Shows genuine concern for the client's welfare and future	**ES**
b. Continuously demonstrates personal integrity, honesty and sincerity	ES
c. Establishes clear agreements and keeps promises	
d. Demonstrates respect for client's perceptions, learning style, personal being	**ES**
e. Provides ongoing support for and champions new behaviors and actions, including those involving risk taking and fear of failure	AL **LO**
f. *Asks permission to coach client in sensitive, new areas*	**ES**
4. Coaching Presence – Ability to be fully conscious and create spontaneous relationship with the client, employing a style that is open, flexible and confident	
a. Is present and flexible during the coaching process, dancing in the moment	es
b. Accesses own intuition and trusts one's inner knowing – "goes with the gut"	
c. Is open to not knowing and takes risks	
d. Sees many ways to work with the client, and chooses in the moment what is most effective	
e. Uses humor effectively to create lightness and energy	es
f. *Confidently shifts perspectives and experiments with new possibilities for own action*	
g. *Demonstrates confidence in working with strong emotions, and can self-manage and not be overpowered or enmeshed by client's emotions*	
C. COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY	
5. Active Listening – Ability to focus completely on what the client is saying and is not saying, to understand the meaning of what is said in the context of the client's desires, and to support client self-expression	
a. Attends to the client and the client's agenda, and not to the coach's agenda for the client	es
b. Hears the client's concerns, goals, values and beliefs about what is and is not possible	es
c. Distinguishes between the words, the tone of voice, and the body language	

d. Summarizes, paraphrases, reiterates, mirrors back what client has said to ensure clarity and understanding	es
e. Encourages, accepts, explores and reinforces the client's expression of feelings, perceptions, concerns, beliefs, suggestions, etc.	**ES** A
f. Integrates and builds on client's ideas and suggestions	
g. *"Bottom-lines" or understands the essence of the client's communication and helps the client get there rather than engaging in long descriptive stories*	
h. *Allows the client to vent or "clear" the situation without judgment or attachment in order to move on to next steps*	**ES**
6. Powerful Questioning –Ability to ask questions that reveal the information needed for maximum benefit to the coaching relationship and the client	
a. Asks questions that reflect active listening and an understanding of the client's perspective	es a
b. Asks questions that evoke discovery, insight, commitment or action (e.g., those that challenge the client's assumptions)	**CSQ** A
c. Asks open-ended questions that create greater clarity, possibility or new learning	A CSQ
d. Asks questions that move the client towards what they desire, not questions that ask for the client to justify or look backwards	A
7. Direct Communication – Ability to communicate effectively during coaching sessions, and to use language that has the greatest positive impact on the client	
a. Is clear, articulate and direct in sharing and providing feedback	**A**
b. Reframes and articulates to help the client understand from another perspective what he/she wants or is uncertain about	**CSQ**
c. Clearly states coaching objectives, meeting agenda, purpose of techniques or exercises	
d. Uses language appropriate and respectful to the client (e.g., non-sexist, non-racist, non-technical, nonjargon)	**ES**
e. *Uses metaphor and analogy to help to illustrate a point or paint a verbal picture*	
D. FACILITATING LEARNING AND RESULTS	
8. Creating Awareness – Ability to integrate and accurately evaluate multiple sources of information, and to make interpretations that help the client to gain awareness and thereby achieve agreed-upon results	

a. Goes beyond what is said in assessing client's concerns, not getting hooked by the client's description	A
b. Invokes inquiry for greater understanding, awareness and clarity	A
c. Identifies for the client his/her underlying concerns, typical and fixed ways of perceiving himself/herself and the world, differences between the facts and the interpretation, disparities between thoughts, feelings and action	**CSQ** **CC**
d. Helps clients to discover for themselves the new thoughts, beliefs, perceptions, emotions, moods, etc. that strengthen their ability to take action and achieve what is important to them	al
e. Communicates broader perspectives to clients and inspires commitment to shift their viewpoints and find new possibilities for action	**CSQ**
f. Helps clients to see the different, interrelated factors that affect them and their behaviors (e.g., thoughts, emotions, body, background)	A CSQ
g. Expresses insights to clients in ways that are useful and meaningful for the client	
h. *Identifies major strengths vs. major areas for learning and growth, and what is most important to address during coaching*	**A**
i. *Asks the client to distinguish between trivial and significant issues, situational vs. recurring behaviors, when detecting a separation between what is being stated and what is being done*	csq a
9. Designing Actions – Ability to create with the client opportunities for ongoing learning, during coaching and in work/life situations, and for taking new actions that will most effectively lead to agreed-upon coaching results	
a. Brainstorms and assists the client to define actions that will enable the client to demonstrate, practice and deepen new learning	TS? AL
b. Helps the client to focus on and systematically explore specific concerns and opportunities that are central to agreed-upon coaching goals	a al
c. Engages the client to explore alternative ideas and solutions, to evaluate options, and to make related decisions	al csq
d. Promotes active experimentation and self-discovery, where the client applies what has been discussed and learned during sessions immediately afterwards in his/her work or life setting	**AL** LO
e. Celebrates client successes and capabilities for future growth	ES MR
f. *Challenges client's assumptions and perspectives to provoke new ideas and find new possibilities for action*	**CSQ**
g. *Advocates or brings forward points of view that are aligned with client goals and, without attachment, engages the client to consider them*	**CSQ**
h. *Helps the client "Do It Now" during the coaching session, providing immediate support*	**AL** ES

i. *Encourages stretches and challenges but also a comfortable pace of learning*	**CS** AL
10. Planning and Goal Setting – Ability to develop and maintain an effective coaching plan with the client	
a. Consolidates collected information and establishes a coaching plan and development goals with the client that address concerns and major areas for learning and development	**MR**
b. Creates a plan with results that are attainable, measurable, specific and have target dates	**MR**
c. Makes plan adjustments as warranted by the coaching process and by changes in the situation	MR
d. *Helps the client identify and access different resources for learning (e.g., books, other professionals)*	AL TS
e. *Identifies and targets early successes that are important to the client*	LO
11. Managing Progress and Accountability – Ability to hold attention on what is important for the client, and to leave responsibility with the client to take action	
a. Clearly requests of the client actions that will move the client toward their stated goals	MR
b. Demonstrates follow through by asking the client about those actions that the client committed to during the previous session(s)	MR
c. Acknowledges the client for what they have done, not done, learned or become aware of since the previous coaching session(s)	MR
d. Effectively prepares, organizes and reviews with client information obtained during sessions	A
e. *Keeps the client on track between sessions by holding attention on the coaching plan and outcomes, agreed-upon courses of action, and topics for future session(s)*	MR
f. *Focuses on the coaching plan but is also open to adjusting behaviors and actions based on the coaching process and shifts in direction during sessions*	
g. *Is able to move back and forth between the big picture of where the client is heading, setting a context for what is being discussed and where the client wishes to go*	
h. *Promotes client's self-discipline and holds the client accountable for what they say they are going to do, for the results of an intended action, or for a specific plan with related time frames*	**MR**
i. *Develops the client's ability to make decisions, address key concerns, and develop himself/herself (to get feedback, to determine priorities and set the pace of learning, to reflect on and learn from experiences)*	MR
j. *Positively confronts the client with the fact that he/she did not take agreed-upon actions*	**CC** **MR**

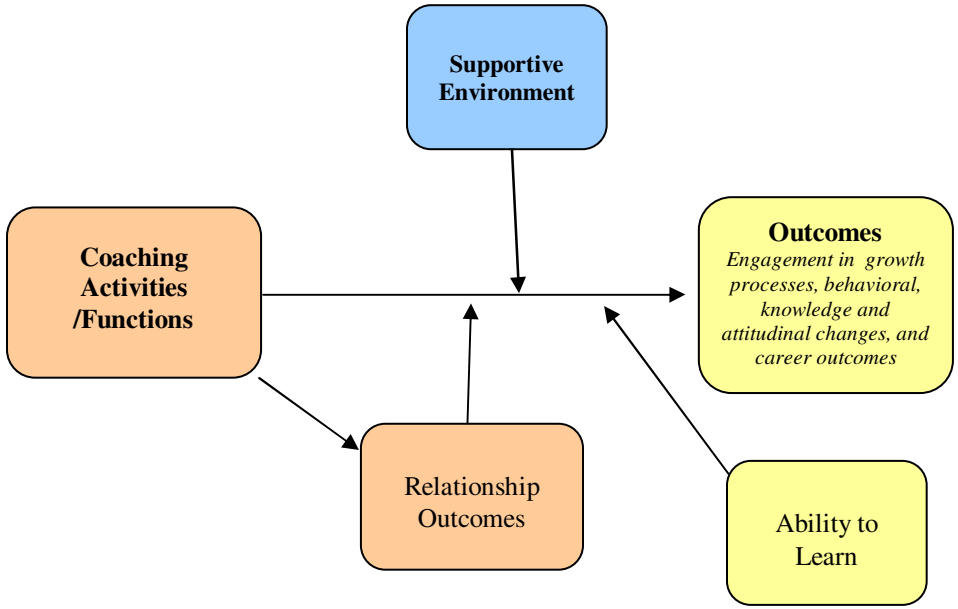
Table 12
Correlations Convergent and Divergent Analyses

Predicted relationships are shaded
Italicized = executive rated (n = 32)
Note, whenever one of the variables was executive rated, the n for that analysis was 32.

Variable	A	ES	CSQ	CS	CC	TS	AL	LO	MR
1. *Assessment*	.40*	.34*	.23	.17	.37*	.26	-.08	.36*	.18
2. *Emotional Support*	.21	.55**	.17	.03	.33†	-.08	.00	.33†	.27
3. *Challenge Status Quo*	.33†	.44*	.13	.10	.39*	.18	-.03	.40*	.27
4. *Challenge to Stretch*	.38*	.50**	.19	.08	.40*	.22	.03	.40*	.36*
5. *Constructive Confrontation*	.42*	.62**	.30†	.18	.51**	.13	.08	.50**	.41*
6. *Tactical Support*	.33†	.50**	.23	.03	.44**	.08	-.10	.33†	.26
7. *Active Learning*	.38*	.47**	.26	.15	.44**	.07	.12	.37*	.25
8. *Learning Orientation*	.23	.39*	.16	.00	.32†	.06	-.04	.26	.20
9. *Motivational Reinforcement*	.30†	.33†	.23	.09	.35*	.16	-.06	.31†	.17
10. *Trust in Motivation*	.08	.35*	.05	-.02	.25	-.10	-.14	.25	.07
11. *Trust in Expertise*	.35*	.54**	.24	.21	.43*	.24	.21	.53**	.42*
12. *WAI-B*	.19	.49**	.26	.09	.43*	-.09	-.02	.37*	.16
13. *WAI-TG*	.25	.48**	.24	.04	.43*	.05	-.08	.37*	.20
14. *Feedback Acceptance*	.23	.36*	.08	0	.24	.15	.04	.24	.26
15. *Self Awareness*	.01	.38*	-.03	-.09	.28	-.18	-.14	.22	.09
16. *Satisfaction*	.39*	.56**	.30†	.12	.44*	.09	.17	.38*	.37*

†Correlation is significant at the .10 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 1
Integrated Model of Executive Coaching



Appendix A
Coach Survey

Coaching Style & Methods

While recognizing that there is considerable overlap in any engagement, for the rest of these questions, as best as you can, please focus ONLY on *Coaching for Performance** [*] (helping clients function more effectively in current job) and *Coaching for Development** (focused on future job, long-term career development, strategically enhancing skills and capabilities) and NOT on Coaching for Clients' Agenda or Coaching for Skills.

Please answer based on what is *typical* of the coaching you do in these areas.

Different coaches provide value in different ways – each coach is unique. Therefore we expect that good coaches will vary significantly in their frequency of using different methods. Please answer in as honest and candid a fashion as you can, especially regarding methods or practices that sound positive, but that you honestly don't do very often. **The scale is positively skewed, so the middle point does not represent "half the time," but rather, "often." Please try to use as much of the answer scale variation as possible. Thank you!**

How often do you...	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always
Provide feedback about clients' strengths and weaknesses.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Assess clients' managerial style.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gather data on clients' actual performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[*] Note, these labels of these types of coaching were changed in the text of the dissertation to avoid semantic confusion with the terms "performance" and "development." The outcome of coaching for performance is not solely performance, and the outcome of coaching for development is not solely development. Both types of coaching have both performance and development as possible outcomes, and the original labels of the types of coaching might have confused or misled the reader, and therefore their labels were changed in the text to "coaching for current performance" and "coaching for advancement," respectively.

Give feedback accompanied with strong supporting evidence and examples.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Give feedback that includes performance-related incidence of clients' performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide feedback which includes specific behavioral examples of clients' performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Assess clients' personality or motivation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gather information form clients about their job history.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gather information from clients about their current job situation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide clients with frequent feedback	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Let them know that they will likely encounter some setbacks (e.g., discomfort, drop in performance, failure) when trying to learn new skills and build resiliency.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How often do you...	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always
Gather information about what their career goals/ambitions are.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide clients with honest feedback.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients interpret feedback that they have received.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide feedback that helps clients see what their primary development needs are.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ask probing questions to determine underlying needs and motivations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide feedback based on your personal observations of your clients	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide negative feedback when necessary	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Help clients integrate feedback from various sources (e.g., psychological assessments, 360 assessment, peer feedback, performance ratings, etc.).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Assess what clients' goals or aspirations are for coaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help them investigate discrepancies/inconsistency in assessments/feedback.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help them identify underlying factors that influence their performance (e.g., relate their personality/style to performance issues).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Deliver "truth" constructively (i.e., are candid and straightforward when presenting feedback, but do so in a manner that maintains their self-esteem).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

My practice is predominantly life coaching

Yes
No

Types of Coaching You Do

One of the commonly accepted categorizations of types/purposes of coaching was the following "continuum" put forth by Witherspoon & White (1996). The types are generally from the most simple coaching with more junior people (Skills), to the most complex coaching with very senior people (Executive's Agenda):

Coaching for Skills: Purpose is to learn or improve specific skills (which can include interpersonal skills): Typically focuses on a specific task or project; typically a shorter term engagement.

Coaching for Performance: Focuses on the client's present job; purpose is to function more effectively at work or to address a performance issue; typically a bit longer of an engagement (several months).

Coaching for Development: Focuses on the client's future job; Purpose is to heighten certain skills or change others, encourage long-term development for the purpose of advancing their career; often for high potentials' typically longer than several months (likely a year or more).

Coaching for the Executive's Agenda: Typically done with higher level executives; focuses on providing outsider insight & perspective, constructive feedback (which if often hard to get at higher levels), and a talking partner; time frame varies, but often "on call" for the executive.

Approximately what percentage of your coaching work falls into each of the categories below? (more than one type can go on in any given engagement, so if each of your engagements involved half coaching for performance and half for development, you would put 50% for each of those categories).

Coaching for Skills ___%
Coaching for Performance ___%
Coaching for Development ___%
Coaching for the Executive's Agenda ___%

How often do you...	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always
Provide clients with realtime feedback (e.g., feedback on what they are doing in the moment in the coaching session).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expose them to different perspectives/ways of thinking about things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Challenge them to stretch themselves.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encourage them to face situations requiring them to do things they normally would not do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Challenge their way of thinking about things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Push them to work on different developmental areas than what they wanted to.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Challenge clients' assumptions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Challenge clients' perception of others.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients understand the negative consequences of some of their behaviors/ways of doing things (e.g., derailers)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Challenge the clients' ways of doing things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Link their feedback to a payoff, align feedback with their interests and goals, and articulate the benefits of behavior change).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How often do you...	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always
Push clients to set difficult, stretch goals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encourage clients to see negative feedback or performance as an opportunity to learn and grow.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients overcome fear of failing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients learn a trial and error attitude.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Give positive feedback to bolster clients' self confidence.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Communicate to clients that learning and growth are valuable.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Express your confidence in their ability to succeed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients learn from their failures and mistakes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients frame negative feedback as being reflective of insufficient effort or inadequate strategy.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encourage clients to regularly talk about their development with other people (besides you).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Let clients "off the hook" when they haven't completed the work they agreed/planned to do with regard to their development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encourage them to identify and leverage learning partners/confidantes as a means for getting real-time feedback on attempts to change behavior.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How often do you...	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always

Serve as a sounding board for clients to develop and understand themselves.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Guide client's professional development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Suggest specific strategies for achieving work objectives.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promote active experimentation to further their growth.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide good action ideas or pointers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Guide clients' personal development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients determine external obstacles to their progress.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients overcome things that are hindering their progress.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Promote active learning (e.g., practice, action learning, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How often do you…	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always
Help clients leverage a broad variety of development methods/experiences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encourage clients to try new ways of behaving in their jobs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Encourage clients to reflect on successes and failures, to learn from their past performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients leverage strengths to compensate for weaknesses.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients develop a longer term career or development plan.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Help clients set specific goals/objectives for their development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Provide accountability for meeting clients' goals/objectives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Follow up with clients regarding their progress	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Compliment clients' progress towards their goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Try to motivate clients to work hard on their goals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Below is a list of statements about your relationship with your clients. Please indicate how often each item is true of your relationship with your clients.	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always
I am someone my clients can trust.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I provide a place form my clients to vent frustrations/difficulties.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I provide my clients with emotional support.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I exhibit good interpersonal skills when working with my clients.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I exhibit empathy towards my clients.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I encourage my clients to talk to me about personal things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My clients and I connect personally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I convey feelings of respect for my clients as an individual.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I encourage my clients to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from their work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My clients talk to me about their personal lives.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am someone my clients can confide in.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I provide my clients support and encouragement.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am willing to tackle tough issues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am willing to disagree with my clients.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I spontaneously reach out to clients during the coaching relationship (e.g., send unexpected emails to gauge progress, etc.) and remain accessible.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Below is a list of statements about your relationship with your clients. Please indicate how often each item is true of your relationship with your clients.	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always
My clients and I agree about the things they will need to do in coaching to help improve.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
What my clients do in coaching gives them new ways of looking at their development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My clients do not understand what I am trying to accomplish in their coaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am confident in my clients' ability to help themselves.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My clients and I work towards mutually agreed upon goals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
We agree on what is important for my client to work on.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My clients and I trust one another.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My clients and I have different ideas on what their developmental needs are.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
We have established a good understanding of the kind of changes that would be good for them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I accept my clients as competent professionals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I see my clients as being competent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I think highly of my clients.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate how often the following are made explicit at the outset of, or early on in, your coaching engagements.	Never	Seldom	Some times	Often	Very Often	Usually	Always
Parameters of the coaching relationship.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Objectives of the engagement (goals).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
A clear time frame.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expectations regarding confidentiality.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The cope of the engagement (content).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expectations of the commitment level on the part of the executive.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
What the process of coaching is like.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

To what extent are the following true of your coaching sessions?

	Not at all		**A moderate extent**		**A great extent**
I keep to an agenda in coaching sessions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I avoid tangential discussions in coaching sessions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I keep my clients focused on the task at hand during coaching sessions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Which of the following do you use regularly in you coaching engagements? (please choose all that apply)?

360 (written instrument)
360 (interviews)
MBTI
Structured interview
FIRO-B
CPI
DISC
Cognitive ability test (e.g. Watson-Glaser, Wonderlic, etc.)
Killman's conflict mode instrument
Situational leadership measure
Five Factor Model / Big Five
Assessment center
SDI
Others (please list)

Please rank the following in order of importance to coaching success. Even if you think they are all important, please distinguish which ones are more critical than others, with 1st = most important. Note, you can only use each ranking once.

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Providing assessment of clients (abilities, performance, personality, etc.).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Challenging the client.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Helping the client better handle their emotions (as they affect their work).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Helping the client have better motivation skills with regard to their development	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Providing them with tactical support (e.g., giving them suggestions or helping them think through ideas and strategies).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Being supportive of the client personally/emotionally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix B
Executive Survey – Measures not in Coach Survey

Your Coaching Experiences

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly
My coach seemed concerned about my development	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach appeared interested in my personal development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach cared about my individual growth.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach did not have ulterior motives in his/her work with me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach was committed to my success.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I trusted my coach to look out for my best interests.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I trust my coach's judgment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe my coach would keep what we discuss in the strictest confidence.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have confidence that my coach was thoroughly trained in the appropriate areas to be a coach.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe my coach is very competent in the fields of assessment and development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach is a skilled coach.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My coach has considerable expertise in helping people like me with their development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree that each of these words describes your coach:

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly
Friendly	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Experienced	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Likeable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sociable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expert	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Warm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Prepared	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Skillful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Honest	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reliable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sincere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trustworthy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding any feedback or assessments (about your personality, performance, skills, etc.) that your coach gave you or reviewed with you during coaching.

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

Correctly identified my core competencies.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reflected my true performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Were accurate.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Adequately captured my performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reflected who I am.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Will be (or has been) helpful in creating or revising my plan for development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly
Coaching improved my self-awareness.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I gained a much clearer understanding of my strengths because of coaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I gained a much clearer understanding of my developmental needs because of coaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I gained a better understanding of my own motivation through coaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Coaching increased my awareness of the effects of my own words and actions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
As a result of coaching, I increasingly assume responsibility for my impact on my work environment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I learned new concepts and ideas through the coaching process.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Coaching provided me with new skills.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I definitely learned new behaviors throughout coaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
As a result of coaching, others around me acknowledge a distinct change in my behavior, style or interactions with others.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I clearly see the impact of my enhanced performance (as the result of coaching) in the workplace.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel more confident about what I am doing on the job as it relates to areas addressed in coaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix C
ICC(1) and ICC(2)

Variable	ICC(1)	ICC(2)
Assessment	0.01	0.33
Emotional Support	0.02	0.34
Challenge Status Quo	0.01	0.22
Challenge to Stretch	0.02	0.31
Constructive Confrontation	0.01	0.17
Learning Orientation	0.00	-0.04
Motivational Reinforcement	0.00	0.02
Tactical Support	0.01	0.31
Active Learning	0.02	0.29
WAI	0.03	0.52
WAI_Bond	0.02	0.35
WAI_TaskGoal	0.04	0.61
S_CRF	0.01	0.17
CRF_Trust	0.00	-0.09
CRF_Expert	0.02	0.39
CRF_Attract	0.00	0.03
Satisfaction	0.04	0.61
Self Awareness	0.00	-0.20
Feedback Acceptance	-0.01	-0.21
Trust in Motivation	-0.01	-0.35

Trust in Expertise	0.01	0.27

Appendix D
ICF Professional Coaching Core Competencies
Copied directly from http://www.coachfederation.org/Downloads/Docs/Credentialing/ICF_Core_Competencies.pdf

The following eleven core coaching competencies were developed to support greater understanding about the skills and approaches used within today's coaching profession as defined by the ICF. They will also support you in calibrating the level of alignment between the coach specific training expected and the training you have experienced. Finally, these competencies were used as the foundation for the ICF Credentialing process examination.

The core competencies are grouped into four clusters according to those that fit together logically based on common ways of looking at the competencies in each group. The groupings and individual competencies are not weighted – they do not represent any kind of priority in that they are all core or critical for any competent coach to demonstrate.

NOTE: Each competency listed on the following pages has a definition and related behaviors. Behaviors are classified as either those that should always be present and visible in any coaching interaction (in regular font), or those that are called for in certain coaching situations and, herefore, not always visible in any one coaching interaction (in italics).

A. SETTING THE FOUNDATION
1. Meeting Ethical Guidelines and Professional Standards – Understanding of coaching ethics and standards and ability to apply them appropriately in all coaching situations
a. Understands and exhibits in own behaviors the ICF Standards of Conduct (see list)
b. *Understands and follows all ICF Ethical Guidelines (see list)*
c. *Clearly communicates the distinctions between coaching, consulting, psychotherapy and other support professions*
d. *Refers client to another support professional as needed, knowing when this is needed and the available resources*
2. Establishing the Coaching Agreement – Ability to understand what is required in the specific coaching interaction and to come to agreement with the prospective and new client about the coaching process and relationship
a. *Understands and effectively discusses with the client the guidelines and specific parameters of the coaching relationship (e.g., logistics, fees, scheduling, inclusion of others if appropriate)*

b. *Reaches agreement about what is appropriate in the relationship and what is not, what is and is not being offered, and about the client's and coach's responsibilities*
c. *Determines whether there is an effective match between his/her coaching method and the needs of the prospective client*
B. CO-CREATING THE RELATIONSHIP
3. Establishing Trust and Intimacy with the Client – Ability to create a safe, supportive environment that produces ongoing mutual respect and trust
a. Shows genuine concern for the client's welfare and future
b. Continuously demonstrates personal integrity, honesty and sincerity
c. Establishes clear agreements and keeps promises
d. Demonstrates respect for client's perceptions, learning style, personal being
e. Provides ongoing support for and champions new behaviors and actions, including those involving risk taking and fear of failure
f. *Asks permission to coach client in sensitive, new areas*
4. Coaching Presence – Ability to be fully conscious and create spontaneous relationship with the client, employing a style that is open, flexible and confident
a. Is present and flexible during the coaching process, dancing in the moment
b. Accesses own intuition and trusts one's inner knowing – "goes with the gut"
c. Is open to not knowing and takes risks
d. Sees many ways to work with the client, and chooses in the moment what is most effective
e. Uses humor effectively to create lightness and energy
f. *Confidently shifts perspectives and experiments with new possibilities for own action*
g. *Demonstrates confidence in working with strong emotions, and can self-manage and not be overpowered or enmeshed by client's emotions*
C. COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVELY
5. Active Listening – Ability to focus completely on what the client is saying and is not saying, to understand the meaning of what is said in the context of the client's desires, and to support client self-expression
a. Attends to the client and the client's agenda, and not to the coach's agenda for the client
b. Hears the client's concerns, goals, values and beliefs about what is and is not possible
c. Distinguishes between the words, the tone of voice, and the body language

d. Summarizes, paraphrases, reiterates, mirrors back what client has said to ensure clarity and understanding
e. Encourages, accepts, explores and reinforces the client's expression of feelings, perceptions, concerns, beliefs, suggestions, etc.
f. Integrates and builds on client's ideas and suggestions
g. *"Bottom-lines" or understands the essence of the client's communication and helps the client get there rather than engaging in long descriptive stories*
h. *Allows the client to vent or "clear" the situation without judgment or attachment in order to move on to next steps*
6. Powerful Questioning –Ability to ask questions that reveal the information needed for maximum benefit to the coaching relationship and the client
a. Asks questions that reflect active listening and an understanding of the client's perspective
b. Asks questions that evoke discovery, insight, commitment or action (e.g., those that challenge the client's assumptions)
c. Asks open-ended questions that create greater clarity, possibility or new learning
d. Asks questions that move the client towards what they desire, not questions that ask for the client to justify or look backwards
7. Direct Communication – Ability to communicate effectively during coaching sessions, and to use language that has the greatest positive impact on the client
a. Is clear, articulate and direct in sharing and providing feedback
b. Reframes and articulates to help the client understand from another perspective what he/she wants or is uncertain about
c. Clearly states coaching objectives, meeting agenda, purpose of techniques or exercises
d. Uses language appropriate and respectful to the client (e.g., non-sexist, non-racist, non-technical, nonjargon)
e. *Uses metaphor and analogy to help to illustrate a point or paint a verbal picture*
D. FACILITATING LEARNING AND RESULTS
8. Creating Awareness – Ability to integrate and accurately evaluate multiple sources of information, and to make interpretations that help the client to gain awareness and thereby achieve agreed-upon results
a. Goes beyond what is said in assessing client's concerns, not getting hooked by the client's description
b. Invokes inquiry for greater understanding, awareness and clarity

c. Identifies for the client his/her underlying concerns, typical and fixed ways of perceiving himself/herself and the world, differences between the facts and the interpretation, disparities between thoughts, feelings and action
d. Helps clients to discover for themselves the new thoughts, beliefs, perceptions, emotions, moods, etc. that strengthen their ability to take action and achieve what is important to them
e. Communicates broader perspectives to clients and inspires commitment to shift their viewpoints and find new possibilities for action
f. Helps clients to see the different, interrelated factors that affect them and their behaviors (e.g., thoughts, emotions, body, background)
g. Expresses insights to clients in ways that are useful and meaningful for the client
h. *Identifies major strengths vs. major areas for learning and growth, and what is most important to address during coaching*
i. *Asks the client to distinguish between trivial and significant issues, situational vs. recurring behaviors, when detecting a separation between what is being stated and what is being done*
9. Designing Actions – Ability to create with the client opportunities for ongoing learning, during coaching and in work/life situations, and for taking new actions that will most effectively lead to agreed-upon coaching results
a. Brainstorms and assists the client to define actions that will enable the client to demonstrate, practice and deepen new learning
b. Helps the client to focus on and systematically explore specific concerns and opportunities that are central to agreed-upon coaching goals
c. Engages the client to explore alternative ideas and solutions, to evaluate options, and to make related decisions
d. Promotes active experimentation and self-discovery, where the client applies what has been discussed and learned during sessions immediately afterwards in his/her work or life setting
e. Celebrates client successes and capabilities for future growth
f. *Challenges client's assumptions and perspectives to provoke new ideas and find new possibilities for action*
g. *Advocates or brings forward points of view that are aligned with client goals and, without attachment, engages the client to consider them*
h. *Helps the client "Do It Now" during the coaching session, providing immediate support*
i. *Encourages stretches and challenges but also a comfortable pace of learning*
10. Planning and Goal Setting – Ability to develop and maintain an effective coaching plan with the client
a. Consolidates collected information and establishes a coaching plan and development goals with the client that address concerns and major areas for learning and development

b. Creates a plan with results that are attainable, measurable, specific and have target dates
c. Makes plan adjustments as warranted by the coaching process and by changes in the situation
d. *Helps the client identify and access different resources for learning (e.g., books, other professionals)*
e. *Identifies and targets early successes that are important to the client*
11. Managing Progress and Accountability – Ability to hold attention on what is important for the client, and to leave responsibility with the client to take action
a. Clearly requests of the client actions that will move the client toward their stated goals
b. Demonstrates follow through by asking the client about those actions that the client committed to during the previous session(s)
c. Acknowledges the client for what they have done, not done, learned or become aware of since the previous coaching session(s)
d. Effectively prepares, organizes and reviews with client information obtained during sessions
e. *Keeps the client on track between sessions by holding attention on the coaching plan and outcomes, agreed-upon courses of action, and topics for future session(s)*
f. *Focuses on the coaching plan but is also open to adjusting behaviors and actions based on the coaching process and shifts in direction during sessions*
g. *Is able to move back and forth between the big picture of where the client is heading, setting a context for what is being discussed and where the client wishes to go*
h. *Promotes client's self-discipline and holds the client accountable for what they say they are going to do, for the results of an intended action, or for a specific plan with related time frames*
i. *Develops the client's ability to make decisions, address key concerns, and develop himself/ herself (to get feedback, to determine priorities and set the pace of learning, to reflect on and learn from experiences)*
j. *Positively confronts the client with the fact that he/she did not take agreed-upon actions*

References

"ICF Professional Coaching Core Competencies," (1999). Retrieved January 15, 2008 from http://www.coachfederation.org/Downloads/Docs/Credentialing/ICF_Core_Competencies.pdf

"The ICF Code of Ethics," (2005). Retrieved January 15, 2008 from http://www.coachfederation.org/NR/rdonlyres/98BE10A1-D918-408D-9808-98C4866DBD98/6423/ethics.pdf

"What is ICF?" (n.d.) Retrieved February 12, 2008, from http://www.coachfederation.org/ICF/For+Coaching+Clients/What+is+ICF/

Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T, Poteet, M. L., Lentz, E. & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, (89)1, 127-136.

Bandalos, D. L. (2002). The effects of item parceling on goodness-of-fit and parameter estimate bias in structural equation modeling. *Structural Equation Modeling, 9*(1), 78-102.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*, 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28*(2), 117-148.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The Exercise of Control.* New York: Freeman.

Barrick, M. R. & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 44*(1), 1-26

Berglas, S. (2002). The Very Real Dangers of Executive Coaching. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(6), 86-95.

Bluckert, P. (2005). Critical factors in executive coaching – the coaching relationship. Industrial & Commercial Training, 37(6/7), 336-340.

Bordin, E. S. (1976). The generalizability of the psychoanalytic concept of the working alliance. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 16, 252-260.

Brown, S. D., & Krane, N. E. R. (2000). Four (or five) sessions and a cloud of dust: Old assumptions and new observations about career counseling. In S. D. Brown & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Handbook of counseling psychology* (3rd ed., pp. 740-766). New York: John Wiley.

Brutus, S., London, M. & Martineau, J. (1999). The impact of 360-degree feedback on planning for career development. *Journal of Management Development, 18*(8), 676-694.

Burger, J. M. & Caldwell, D. F. (2000). Personality, social activities, job-search behavior and interview success: Distinguishing between PANAS trait positive affect and NEO extraversion. *Motivation and Emotion, 24*(1), 51-62.

Button, S. B., Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1996). Goal orientation in organizational research: A conceptual and empirical foundation. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes, 67*(1), 26-48.

Carr, R. A. (2004). A Guide to Coach Credentials. (copyright Peer Resources – a non-profit organization specializing in peer assistance, mentorship and coaching) downloaded from http://www.peer.ca/credentials05.html on October 20, 2007

Chao, G. T. (1997). Mentoring phases and outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 5, 15-28.*

Church, A. (1997). Managerial self-awareness in high performing individuals in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(2), 281-292.

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin, 112*, 155-159.

Cole, M. S., Harris, S. G., & Field, H. S. (2004). Stages of learning motivation: Development and validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34*(7), 1421-1456.

Collins, D. R. & Stukas, A. A. (2006). The effects of feedback self-consistency, therapist status, and attitude toward therapy on reaction to personality feedback. *Journal of Social Psychology, 146*(4), 463-483

Cook, T. D. & Campbell, D. T. (1979). Quasi-Experimentation: Design & Analysis Issues for Field Settings. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Crampton, S.M., & Wagner III, J.A. (1994). Percept-percept inflation in micro-organizational research: An investigation of prevalence and effect. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(1), 67-76.

Cron, W. L, Slocum, J. W., VandeWalle, D. & Fu, Q. (2005). The role of goal orientation on negative emotions and goal setting when initial performance falls short of one's performance goal. *Human Performance, 18*(1), 55-80.

Cron, W. L., Slocum, J. W., VandeWalle, D. & Fu, Q. (2005). The role of goal orientation on negative emotions and goal setting when initial performance falls short of one's performance goal. *Human Performance, 18*(1), 55-80.

Darlington, R.B. (2006). Factor Analysis. Website: http://comp9.psych.cornell.edu/Darlington/factor.htm (accessed December 17, 2006; publication year not listed, therefore the date of access between brackets)

Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development: A review in context. *Leadership Quarterly, 11*(4), 581-613.

Diedrich, R. C. (1996). An iterative approach to executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 48*(2), 61-66.

Dirks, K. T. & Ferrin D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(4), 611-628.

Dirks, K. T. (1999). The effects of interpersonal trust on work group performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 84(3), 445-455.

Doran, G. T. (1981). There's a S. M. A. R. T. way to write management goals and objectives, *Management Review*, November 1981, 35-36.

Doty, D. H. & Glick, W. H. (1998). Common methods bias: Does common methods variance really bias results? *Organizational Research Methods, 1*(4), 374-406.

Ducharme, M. J. (2004) .The cognitive-behavioral approach to executive coaching. Counseling Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 56(4), 214-224.

Dunlap, L., Norton, E. & Zarkin, G. A. (2006, June). *The Effect of Health Insurance Characteristics on Outpatient Mental Health Care and Substance Abuse Treatment Utilization among Privately-Insured Employees and their Dependents*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Economics of Population Health: Inaugural Conference of the American Society of Health Economists, Madison, WI, USA. Downloaded from http://www.peer.ca/credentials05.html on May 20, 2008.

Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. *American Psychologist, 41*(10), 1040-1048.

Dweck, C. S. (1999). *Self-Theories: Their Role in Motivation, Personality, and Development.* New York: Psychology Press.

Eddy, E. R., Tannenbaum, S. L., Lorenzet, S. J., Smith-Jentsch, K. A. (2005). The influence of a continuous learning environment on peer mentoring behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 17*(3), 383-395.

Farr, J. L., Hofmann, D. A., & Ringenbach, K. L. (1993). Goal orientation and action control theory: Implications for industrial and organizational psychology. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 8*, 193-232.

Feldman, D. C. & Lankau, M J. (2005). Executive coaching: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Management, 31*(6), 829-848.

Frisch, M. H. (2001). The emerging role of the internal coach. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 53*(4), 240-250.

Gelso, C. J. & Carter, J. A. (1994). Components of the psychotherapy relationship: Their interaction and unfolding during treatment. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 41*(3), 296-306.

Gelso, C. J. & Hayes, J. A. (1998). The Psychotherapy Relationship: Theory, Research, and Practice. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Georgetown CCPE. Certificate in Leadership Coaching website, retrieved from http://www12.georgetown.edu/scs/ccpe/ccpe_cert_coaching.html, October 17, 2007.

Gick, M. L. (1986). Problem solving strategies. *Educational Psychologist, 21*(1 & 2), 99-120.

Gist, M. E. & Stevens, C. K. (1998). Effects of practice conditions and supplemental training method on cognitive learning and interpersonal skill generalization. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 75(2), 142-169.

Gysbers, N. C., Heppner, M. J. & Johnston, J. A. (2003). *Career Counseling: Process, Issues, and Techniques* (2nd ed.). Allyn & Bacon: Needham Heights, MA, USA.

Gysbers, N.C. & Moore, E. J. (1987). *Career Counseling: Skills and Techniques for Practitioners.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Hall, D. T., Otazo, K. L., & Hollenbeck, G. P. (1999). Behind closed doors: What really happens in executive coaching. *Organizational Dynamics, 27*(3), 39-53.

Halperin, K., Snyder, C. R., Shenkel, R. J. & Houston, B. K. (1976). Effects of source status and message favorability on acceptance of personality feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 61*(1), 85-88.

Harman, J. S., Kelleher, K. J., Mulsant, B. H. & Reynolds C. F. (2001). Effect of age, race, and type of insurance on length of stay for inpatient depression. *Academy for Health Services Research and Health Policy Meeting Proceedings,* 18:54.

Heslin, P. A., Vandewalle, D. & Latham, G. P. (2006). Keen to help? Managers' implicit person theories and their subsequent employee coaching. *Personnel Psychology, 59*(4), 871-902.

Hicks, T. E. (1999). <i d= Coping with interpersonal conflict among alcohol abusers in outpatient treatment. (Doctoral Dissertation, Indiana U School of Nursing, 1999). *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 59*(8-B), 4016.

Hinkin, T. R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations. *Journal of Management, 21*(5), 967-988.

Hollenbeck, G. (2002). Coaching executives: Individual leader development. In Rob Silzer (Ed.) *The 21st Century Executive: Innovative Practices for Building Leadership at the Top*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 137-167.

Horvath, A. O. & Greenberg, L. S. (1989). Development and validation of the Working Alliance Inventory. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 36(2), 223-333.

Horvath, A. O. & Symonds, B. D. (1991). Relation between working alliance and outcome in psychotherapy: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38*(2), 139-149.

iCoachNY. Professional Coaching Program webpage on Baruch College's website. Retrieved from http://zicklin.baruch.cuny.edu/faculty/management/programs/coaching/icoachny.html, on October 17, 2007

Ilgen, D. R., Fisher, C. D., & Taylor, M. S. (1979). Consequences of individual feedback on behavior in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 64* (4), 349-371.

Joo, B. K. (2005). Executive coaching: A conceptual framework from an integrative review of practice and research. *Human Resource Development Review, 4*(4), 462-488.

Judge, W. Q. & Cowell, J. (1997). The brave new world of executive coaching. *Business Horizons, 40*(4), 7 – 9.

Kampa, S., & White, R. P. (2002). The effectiveness of executive coaching: What we know and what we still need to know. In R. L. Lowman (Ed.) *Handbook of organizational consulting psychology: A comprehensive guide to theory, skills, and techniques*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 139-158.

Kampa-Kokesch, S., & Anderson, M. Z. (2001). Executive coaching: A comprehensive review of the literature. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 53*(4), 205-228.

Kanfer, R. & Heggestad, E. D. (1997). Motivation traits and skills: A person-centered approach to work motivation. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 19*, 1-56.

Keith, N. & Frese, M. (2005). Self-regulation in error management training: Emotion control and metacognition as mediators of performance effects. Journal of Applied Psychology, 90(4), 677-691.

Khaw, L. & Hardesty, J. L. (2007). Theorizing the process of leaving: Turning points and trajectories in the stages of change. *Family Relations, 56*(4), 413-425.

Kidwell, R. E. & Robie, C. (2003). Withholding effort in organizations: Toward development and validation of a measure. Journal of Business and Psychology, 17(4), 537-562.

Kilburg, R. (2004a). Trudging toward Dodoville: Conceptual approaches and case studies in executive coaching. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 56(4),. 203-213.

Kilburg, R. (1996). Toward a conceptual understanding and definition of executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 48*, 134-144.

Kilburg, R. (1997). Coaching and executive character: Core problems and basic approaches. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 53(4), 251-267.

Kilburg, R. (2004b) When shadows fall: Using psychodynamic approaches in executive coaching. Counseling Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 56(4), 246-268.

Klein, H. J. (1989). An integrated control theory model of work motivation. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(2), 150-173.

Kluger, A. N. & DeNisi, A. (1996). Effects of feedback intervention on performance: A historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological Bulletin, 119*(2), 254-284.

Kluger, A. N. & DeNisi, A. (1998). Feedback interventions: Toward the understanding of a double-edged sword. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 7*(3), 67-72.

Kochman, M. (2003, July 13). Coach or couch, choose your therapy. *The New York Times.* Retrieved on February 20, 2008 from http://query.nytimes.com/gst/fullpage.html?res=9C00E7DE163CF930A25754C0A9659C8B63&sec=&spon=&partner=permalink&exprod=permalink

Koen, C. & Crow, S. (1995). Human relations and politic skills. *HR Focus, 72*(12), 10-12.

Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentor relationship. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*, 608-625.

Kram, K. E. (1985). Improving the mentoring process. *Training & Development Journal, 39*(4), 40-43.

Kudisch, J. D. & Ladd, R. T. (1997, April). *Factors Related to Participants' Acceptance of Developmental Assessment Center Feedback.* Paper presented at the 12th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology. St. Louis, MO.

Kudisch, J. D. (2007). Revised post-session evaluation. Internal document. College Park, MD: Robert H. Smith School of Business.

Kudisch, J. D., Lundquist, C. & Al-Bedah, E. A., (2004, October). Accepting and Applying Assessment Center Feedback: A View from the Middle East. Paper presented at the International Congress on Assessment Center Methods, Las Vegas, Nevada.

Kudisch, J. D., Lundquist, C. & Smith, A. F. R. (2001, October). *Reactions to "Dual-Purpose" Assessment Center Feedback: What Does it Take to Get Participants to Buy Into and Actually do Something with Their Feedback?* Paper presented at the 29th International Congress on Assessment Center Methods, Frankfurt, Germany.

LePine, J. A., Colquitt, J. A., & Erez, A. (2000). Adaptability to changing task contexts: Effects of general cognitive ability, conscientiousness and openness to experience. *Personnel Psychology, 53,* 563–593.

Levinson, H. (1996). Executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 48*(2), 115-123.

Locke, E. A. & Latham, G. P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation. *American Psychologist, 57*(9), 705-717.

London, M., Smither, J. W. & Adsit, D. J. (1997). Accountability: The Achilles' heel of multi-source feedback. *Group & Organization Management, 22*(2), 162-184.

Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1991). *Leadership and information processing: Linking perception and performance*. Boston: Unwin Hyman.

Luthans, F. & Peterson, S. J. (2003). 360-degree feedback with systematic coaching: Empirical analysis suggests a winning combination. *Human Resource Management, 42*(3), 243-256.

Mallinckrodt, B. (1996). Change in working alliance, social support, and psychological symptoms in brief therapy. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 43*(4), 448-455.

Marshall, M. K. (2007). The critical factors of coaching practice leading to successful coaching outcomes. (Doctoral Dissertation, Antioch University, 2007). *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 67*(7-B), 4092.

McCarthy, A. M., & Garavan, T. N. (1999). Developing self-awareness in the managerial career development process: the value of 360-degree feedback and the MBTI. Journal of European Industrial Training, 23(9), 437-447.

McCauley, C. D. & Douglas, C. A. (1998). Developmental relationships. In C.D. McCauley, R. S. Moxley & E. Van Velsor (Eds.) *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

McCauley, C. D. (2001). Leader training and development. In S. J. Zaccaro & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.) *The nature of organizational leadership: Understanding the performance imperatives confronting today's leaders*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, pp. 347-383.

McCauley, C.D., Moxley, R. S. & Van Velsor, E. (Eds.) (1998). *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development,* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mischel, W., Shoda, Y. & Mendoza-Denton, R. (2002). Situation-behavior profiles as a locus of consistency in personality. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 11*(2), 50-54.

Nasser, F. & Wisenbaker, J. (2003). A Monte Carlo study investigating the impact of item parceling on measure of fit in confirmatory factor analysis. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 63*, 729-757.

Noe, R. A. (1988). An investigation of the determinants of successful assigned mentoring relationships. *Personnel Psychology, 41*(3), 457-479.

Noe, R.& Wilk, S. (1993). Investigation of the factors that influence employees' participation in developmental activities. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(2), 291-302.

Olivero, G., Bane, K. D., & Kopelman, R. E. (1997). Executive coaching as a transfer of training tool: Effects on productivity in a public agency. *Public Personnel Management, 26*(4), 461-469.

Orenstein, R. L. (2002). Executive coaching: It's not just about the executive. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 38*(3), 355-374.

Patterson, C. H. (1984). Empathy, warmth, and genuineness in psychotherapy: A review of reviews. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, and Practice, 21,* 431-439.

Peterson, D. & Hicks, M. (1995). *Development First: Strategies for Development.* Personnel Decisions International, USA.

Peterson, D. B. (1996). Executive coaching at work: The art of one-on-one change. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 48*(2), 78-86.

Poteet, M. L. & Kudisch, J. D. (2007, April). *The Voice of the Coachee: What Makes for an Effective Coaching Relationship?* Paper presented at the 22nd Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology. New York.

Prochaska, J. O. & DiClemente, C. C. (1982). Transtheortical therapy: Toward a more integrative model of change. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice, 19*, 276-288.

Prochaska, J. O. & Norcross, J. C. (2001). Stages of change. *Psychotherapy, 38*(4), 443-448.

Raelin, J. (2006). Does action learning promote collaborative leadership? *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 5*(2), 152-168.

Ragins, B. R. & Cotton, J. L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: A comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(4), 529-550.

Ragins, B. R. & McFarlin, D. B. (1990). Perceptions of mentor roles in cross-gender mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 37*(3), 321-339.

Ragins, B. R. (1997). Diversified mentoring relationships in organizations: A power perspective. *The Academy of Management Review, 22*(2), 482-521.

Reisert, E. & Conte, J. M. (2004). Relationships between conscientiousness sub-factors and constructive and destructive behavioral intentions. *Journal of Business and Psychology,19*(1), 69-84.

Richard, J. T. (1999). Multimodal therapy: A useful model for the executive coach. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 51*(1), 24-30.

Robbins, T. L. & DeNisi, A. S. (1994). A closer look at interpersonal affect as a distinct influence on cognitive processing in performance evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(30), 341-353.

Rogers, C. R. (1975). Empathy: An unappreciated way of being. *The Counseling Psychologist, 5,* 2-10.

Rosen, C. S. (2000). Is the sequencing of change processes by stage consistent across health problems? A meta-analysis. *Health Psychology, 19*(6), 593-604.

Rouiller, J. Z. & Goldstein, I. L. (1993). The relationship between organizational transfer climate and positive transfer of training. *Human Resources Development Quarterly, 4*(4), 377-390.

Shaw, K. N. (2004). Changing the goal setting process at Microsoft. *Academy of Management Executive, 18*(4), 139-142.

Sherman, S. & Freas, A. (2004). The wild west of executive coaching. *Harvard Business Review, 82* (11), 82-90.

Shoda, Y., Mischel, W. & Wright, J. C. (1994). Intraindividual stability in the organization and patterning of behavior: Incorporating psychological situations into the idiographic analysis of personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 67*(4), 674-687.

Smither, J. W., London, M., Flautt, R., Vargas, Y., & Kucine, I. (2003). Can working with an executive coach improve multi-source feedback ratings over time? A quasi-experimental field study. *Personnel Psychology, 56*(1), 23-44.

Snijders, T. A. B. (2003) Multilevel analysis. In M. Lewis-Beck, A.E. Bryman, and T.F. Liao (Eds.) *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods,* Vol 2. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, pp. 673-677.

Sosik, J. J. & Lee, D. L. (2002). Mentoring in organizations: a social judgment perspective for developing tomorrow's leaders. *The Journal of Leadership Studies, 8*(4), retrieved January 14, 2008 from http://leadershipcenter.osu.edu/Publications/L_Discoveries/LD_2004/Mentoring%20in%20Organizations.doc

Spector, P.E. (1987). Method variance as an artifact in self-reported affect and perceptions at work: Myth or significant problem. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*, 438-443.

Sperry, L. (1993). Working with executives: Consulting, counseling, and coaching. *Individual Psychology, 49(2),* 257-266.

Strong, S. R. (1968). Counseling: A social influence process. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 15*, 215-224.

Tabernero, C., & Wood, R.E. (1999). Implicit theories versus the social construal of ability in self-regulation and performance on a complex task. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 78*(2), 104-127.

Taylor, K. L. & Dionne, J. P. (2000). Accessing problem-solving strategy knowledge: The complementary use of concurrent verbal protocols and retrospective debriefing. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*(3), 413-425.

Thach, L. & Heinselman, T. (1999). Executive coaching defined. *Training and Development, 53*(3), 34-39.

Tracey, J. B., Tannenbaum, S. I., & Kavanagh, M. J. (1995). Applying trained skills on the job: The importance of the work environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*(2), 239-252.

Tversky, A. & Kahneman, D. (1974). Judgment under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases. *Science, 185*(4157), 1124-1131.

Underhill, C. M. (2006). The effectiveness of mentoring programs in corporate settings: A meta-analytical review of the literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68*(2), 292-307

Van Velsor, E., McCauley, C. D. & Moxley, R. S. (1998). Introduction: Our view of leadership development. In C.D. McCauley, R. S. Moxley & E. Van Velsor (Eds.) *The Center for Creative Leadership Handbook of Leadership Development,* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, 1-25.

VandeWalle, D. (1997). Development and validation of a work domain goal orientation instrument. *Educational & Psychological Measurement, 57*(6), 995-1015.

VandeWalle, D., Ganesan, S., Challagalla, G. N. & Brown, S. P. (2000). An integrated model of feedback-seeking behavior: Disposition, context, and cognition. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(6) 996-1003.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and Motivation.* Oxford, England: Wiley.

Wall, S. J. (2005). The protean organization: Learning to love change. *Organizational Dynamics, 34*(1), 37-46.

Wasylyshyn, K. M. (2003). Executive coaching: An outcome study. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 55*(2), 94-106.

Wells, K. B. & Sturm, R. (1996). Informing the policy process: From efficacy to effectiveness data on pharmacotherapy. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 64*(4), 638-645.

Witherspoon, R., & White, R. P. (1996). Executive coaching: A continuum of roles. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 48*(2), 124-133.

Wright, T. A. & Staw, B. M. (1999). Affect and favorable work outcomes: Two longitudinal tests of the happy-productive worker thesis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(1), 1-23.

Zunker, V. G. (1986). *Career Counseling: Applied Concepts of Life Planning (2nd Ed.)* Monterey, CA: Brookes / Cole Publishing Company.