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The Role of Job Crafting in Work-Related Coaching

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Abstract

Despite the widespread use and continual growth of work-related coaching, research has not kept pace; there is a shortage of high quality, quantitative studies. Despite some evidence to date supporting coaching's effectiveness, less is known about how it works, what works, for whom it works, and under what circumstances it will be most effective.

In the present study, the relationships between work-related coaching, autonomy, job crafting (changes made to one's job demands and job resources), and outcomes (self-rated performance, engagement, intention to leave, and stress) were examined, as were predictors of coaching effectiveness, as rated by coachees. Data were collected by means of an online survey and 200 participants provided useable data.

Participants who had received work-related coaching were found to be more likely than non-coached participants to attempt one form of job crafting (*increasing challenging job demands*), report greater engagement, and have lower levels of stress. Coaching was not found to significantly relate to more attempts at the other three forms of job crafting (*increasing structural resources, decreasing hindering demands,* and *increasing social resources*), nor to self-reported job performance or intentions to leave the organisation. Attempts at *increasing challenging job demands* mediated the relationship between coaching and engagement. Autonomy, however, did not moderate the relationship between coaching and attempts at any of the forms of job crafting. The number of coaching sessions and coaching that was initiated by the individual, rather than by the individual's organisation, were both found to significantly predict coachee ratings of perceived effectiveness of the coaching. Coaching by peers/colleagues was perceived as the least effective arrangement.

Possible reasons for these findings are discussed and practical implications and potential areas for future research are proposed. The results suggest that coaching may be a useful tool for both organisations and individual clients, particularly to increase engagement.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my grandad, Eric Stanley Vaughan. You were always there for me for so many years of my life. I thought of you a lot while I wrote this thesis and I know you were with me during that time. You always will be.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Coaching is a global phenomenon. In the last four years alone, and despite the global financial crisis of 2008, the number of professional coaches worldwide has increased markedly from an estimated 30,000 to 47,500, with revenue/income generated by these coaches rising from an estimated US$1.5 billion to $2 billion (International Coach Federation, 2008, 2012). Further, coaching practitioners expect a significant amount of growth in the industry to continue in the years ahead (International Coach Federation, 2012).

Most coaching taking place within the UK is focused on business and management (Jenkins, Passmore, Palmer, & Short, 2012). Coaching is used by 77% of organisations in the UK (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2011) and is perceived by organisations as the most effective talent management activity, followed by in-house development programmes (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012). Managers are increasingly becoming involved in coaching; there has been a recent shift in responsibility for employee development, from human resource departments to management (Hagen, 2012).

Despite such widespread use and continual growth of coaching, research has not kept pace. Limited evidence exists to explain how and why coaching works, what works, for whom it works, and under what circumstances it will be most effective (Feldman & Lankau, 2005; Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2008). Research issues include a lack of quantitative and experimental designs with control groups. There has been little replication of studies, so it is difficult to compare findings. Even so, coaching has been linked to a range of individual- and organisational-level outcomes, although evidence to date for increased performance or return on investment is equivocal. Thus, there is a need for additional research into coaching, from antecedents and facilitating factors to processes and outcomes. Improving the evidence base of coaching will be of benefit to individual and organisational clients and to coaches themselves.

Surprisingly little research attention has been devoted to coachee behaviour change. Job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) is the shaping of one's job characteristics through proactive behaviour. It has more recently been defined as changes made by employees to their job demands and resources (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012). Job crafting has been linked with a number of outcomes that are valued in coaching interventions, particularly performance and engagement (Bakker et al., 2012; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou,

Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). Being a purposeful activity, it was considered compatible with the outcome-focused nature of coaching, and is thus utilised in this study as the framework for examining coachee behaviour change.

Coaching and job crafting are relatively new areas of research. While the majority of the literature for both is conceptual, theoretical, or qualitative in nature, they appear to be transitioning into a phase involving more quantitative studies. Thus, the evidence base is steadily developing.

The aim of this thesis research is to explore whether individuals who receive coaching are better able to engage in job crafting to gain more positive outcomes such as increased job performance and engagement, and reduced stress and intention to leave the organisation. The mediating role of job crafting in the relationship between coaching and outcome achievement will be examined, as will the moderating role of autonomy in the relationship between coaching and job crafting. Finally, predictors of perceived effectiveness of coaching are explored.

Definitions of coaching, as well as theory and research related to antecedents, facilitating factors, process, and outcomes of work-related coaching, will be discussed next, in Chapters two, three, and four. Chapter five will cover job crafting, particularly as it relates to ideas about job demands and resources, and, as with coaching, its evidence base will also be explored. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the objectives of the present research. The method section for this study is outlined in Chapter six, describing the participants, measures, procedure, and data analysis techniques used. Results are presented in Chapter seven and interpreted and discussed in Chapter eight. Chapter eight also identifies limitations of the study, potential areas for future research, and implications for practice.

Chapter 2: Coaching

This chapter first outlines definitions of coaching as found in the literature, the domains to which coaching has been applied, and how it is different from other related interventions, before arriving at a definition of work-related coaching for the present study. The forms which work-related coaching can take will also be examined. The second section covers goals and intended outcomes of coaching. The third and final section examines research support for the effectiveness of coaching at both the individual and organisational levels, and introduces some of the study's hypotheses regarding coaching's link with outcome variables.

2.1. Definitions of Coaching

Definitions from the literature. While coaching may lack a single definition (Palmer & Whybrow, 2005), most definitions are underpinned by a view of coaching as a "collaborative relationship formed between coach and coachee for the purpose of attaining professional or personal development outcomes which are valued by the coachee" (Grant, Passmore, Cavanagh, & Parker, 2010, p. 3). Further, a coaching arrangement is typically characterised as outcome-focused and goal-driven (Grant, Passmore, et al., 2010), where individualised support and reinforcement is provided (Swarbrick, Murphy, Zechner, Spagnolo, & Gill, 2011).

Downey (1999) has defined coaching as "the art of facilitating the performance, learning and development of another" (p. 15). This definition is fairly popular, likely due to its broad applicability, and is consistent with Witherspoon and White's (1996) delineation of skills coaching, performance coaching, and developmental coaching. In contrast, a number of earlier definitions have described coaching as primarily a management technique, emphasising the performance-enhancing objective and the needs of the organisation (e.g., Kalinauckas & King, 1994; Orth, Wilkinson, & Benfari, 1987). Dingman (2004) has identified six generic steps in coaching: formal contracting, relationship building, assessment, obtaining feedback and reflecting, goal setting, and implementing and evaluating.

Coaching psychology is coaching practice informed by psychological principles and theories (Palmer & Whybrow, 2005). As Grant (2008) points out, coaching psychology can make psychology more accessible to the public, where the focus is expanded from distress and

dysfunction to the well-being and goal attainment of 'normal' adults. The current study is based on coaching psychology.

Domains of coaching. Coaching has been applied to a wide range of domains, including life coaching, sports/athletic coaching, educational coaching, and health coaching. These, however, are beyond the scope of the current study, which focuses on work-related coaching.

Coaching versus related interventions. Before arriving at a definition for the purposes of this study, coaching will be compared and contrasted with other related yet distinct interventions. Coaching differs from clinical practice, counselling, therapy, training, mentoring, consulting, and (professional) supervision, in terms of its primary objectives, methods, philosophy, and outcomes, and, in some cases, the skills and background of the professional. Such interventions, however, do involve elements of coaching.

Unlike counsellors and clinical psychologists, coaches may come from a wide range of professional backgrounds and in New Zealand, no formal qualifications (or professional registration) are required. Additionally, the provision of mental health services is outside the scope of coaching (International Coach Federation & European Mentoring and Coaching Council, 2011) and coaching is future- rather than past-focused (Wright, 2005).

While training involves a relatively rigid process and structure (and a focus on a specific task), and mentoring involves the mentor sharing their greater (or even expert) knowledge, the recipient of coaching, in contrast, is able to set the agenda and the goals (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2006).

Consulting is business-focussed and uses an experiential approach, whereas coaching has a greater focus on the so-called soft skills of the individual or team and is more action-oriented (Berman & Bradt, 2006).

Supervision seeks to improve the professional functioning of the supervisee, and monitor and evaluate the quality of the work (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009). Although the supervisor typically holds a more senior position than the supervisee (Bernard & Goodyear, 2009), a more collegial relationship is possible in the case of professional supervision, which may be required by relevant professional registration boards (Davys & Beddoe, 2010). The role of monitoring, therefore, is somewhat more prominent in supervision than in coaching.

Finally, in contrast to many of the above professional roles or groups, a coaching engagement is characterised by an equal relationship/partnership (Grant & Stober, 2006) and relies less on domain-specific knowledge and the giving of advice; instead, the client is encouraged and helped to find his or her own solution by the coach's use of facilitative questions to stimulate self awareness (Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011; Swarbrick et al., 2011).

For the purpose of this thesis, work-related coaching is defined as a dynamic, future-focused, collaborative arrangement in which the coach challenges and encourages the coachee to identify his or her own issues, objectives, and solutions, and where the main focus is on work.

Formal versus informal coaching. Coaching may be conceptualised as being formal (as a structured arrangement, explicitly acknowledged as coaching, and delivered by a professional coach) or informal (a day-to-day activity and a tool, technique, and set of behaviours available to be utilised by a wide range of professionals at the appropriate time). For example, a leader within an organisation might be characterised as a coaching manager based on the way in which he or she typically interacts with subordinates. Indeed, it may be argued that coaching is ubiquitous in everyday life (Hackman & Wageman, 2005); for example, a parent teaching a child to ride a tricycle.

Frequently, coaching is implicitly discussed in the literature as a formal arrangement. Definitions of coaching typically do not explicitly address this distinction, and until a universally-accepted definition does, the term remains somewhat open to interpretation. Both formal and informal modes of coaching are therefore incorporated in this research.

Forms of work-related coaching. Work-related coaching can take many forms including business coaching, career coaching, executive coaching, workplace coaching, team coaching, external or internal coaching, and managerial coaching.

Business coaching combines business planning with facilitative techniques to help clients define their goals and identify solutions (Clegg, Rhodes, Kornberger, & Stilin, 2005). Career coaching focuses on personal development within the domain of work and career (Chung & Gfroerer, 2003), where clients are helped to identify their skills, improve their career decision making, and become more valuable workers (Hube, 1996). Executive coaching is the coaching of a client with managerial authority (Kilburg, 1996) and typically involves a coach who is not part of the coachee's organisation (Grant, Passmore, et al., 2010), otherwise

known as an external coach. Workplace coaching involves coaching both executive and non-executive employees in a workplace setting and may involve an internal or an external coach (Grant, Passmore, et al., 2010).

Team coaching is a modality of coaching occurring at the group level. Diedrich (2001) distinguishes team coaching from team building or team development in that the coach maintains an "ongoing, helping relationship" (p. 238) with both the team and the individuals concerned. He also notes that the team is encouraged to own both problems and solutions. A further point of differentiation between team coaching and other leadership behaviours is the extent to which actual coaching behaviours are used (Hackman & Wageman, 2005). However, according to Passmore & Fillery-Travis (2011), the difference between group or team coaching and action learning and group facilitation is yet to be adequately resolved. This mode of coaching is also beyond the scope of the present study.

Coaching taking place within an organisation can take the form of either external or internal coaching. When an external coach is commissioned, it is typically at the executive level (Grant, Passmore, et al., 2010). Generally, external coaching has one of two major objectives: to work to a wide potential agenda based on the client's choosing, or to coach managers following a training programme to enhance its effectiveness (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2008).

The agenda of internal coaching tends to be less free or open than in external coaching and more driven by the goals of the organisation (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2008). It is usually carried out by senior HR personnel (Jarvis, Lane, & Fillery-Travis, 2006), or by the individual's manager or supervisor in an arrangement referred to as managerial coaching (Hagen, 2012) or employee coaching (Gregory & Levy, 2011). Further forms of internal coaching, although relatively less commonly-used, are peer coaching and self-coaching (Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004).

The present study primarily refers to, and focuses on, work-related coaching. While this term is less commonly-used than managerial, executive, or workplace coaching, it was preferred for the purpose of the study as it is widely-encompassing and likely to be more readily understood by participants. For example, workplace coaching may imply that the coaching has to happen at the work premises, whereas the researcher was interested in all forms of coaching that were initiated in order to achieve any kind of positive work-related outcome, including individuals who commissioned a coach in their own time, outside of work.

2.2 Goals and Intended Outcomes of Coaching

The most common reason for organisations to use coaching is to improve performance (American Management Association, 2008; Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2011). Other significant areas are in leadership development, succession planning, increasing skills, and building employee engagement (American Management Association, 2008; Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2011). It has been noted, however, that an overlap between these areas is likely (American Management Association, 2008). While coaching was initially used to correct deficiencies (i.e., a remedial focus), it has increasingly focused on achieving peak performance (Hackman & Wageman, 2005; Sherpa Coaching, 2012).

Additional examples of the role of coaches in work-related contexts include: to improve organisational learning processes (Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2003), workplace communication (Spence & Oades, 2011), relationships between employees and managers (Lambert & Barley, 2001), and performance in job interviews (Hogan & Hogan, 1997), to reduce stress (Wright, 2007), to act as a sounding board, and to address derailing behaviours (Ahern, 2003).

Behaviour change has been examined as an outcome variable in a relatively small number of coaching studies (Augustijnen, Schnitzer, & Van Esbroeck, 2011). Organisations purchasing coaching services see behavioural change as a 'great outcome' (Dagley, 2010a), although coaches themselves appear to be somewhat divided as to whether behavioural change or personal change is the most valuable outcome, with behavioural changes somewhat more likely to be viewed as more important by psychologist coaches than non-psychologist coaches (Bono, Purvanova, Towler, & Peterson, 2009).

Personal change is less common in coaching research, according to Augustijnen et al. (2011), who identify self-reflection, self-awareness, and personal changes as important phases in executive coaching, in addition to behavioural changes. While coachees tend to place a high value on personal change as an outcome in its own right, organisations may be more likely to view it as a mechanism or explanation for the desired outcome of behavioural change (Dagley, 2010a). Wasylyshyn (2003) found that the development of self-insight was a key factor in positive coaching outcomes.

2.3 Evidence for Outcomes and Efficacy of Coaching

The coaching literature has grown and drawn from a range of disciplines including psychology (positive, sport, clinical, and industrial/organisational), counselling, business studies, human resource management, and adult education. While this cross-disciplinary base can, in many ways, be considered a strength, the research base of coaching is fragmented, lacking an integration of findings.

Most empirical research on work-related coaching has focused on the development of theories or models (Hagen, 2012), has been contextual or survey based focusing on coach and coachee characteristics or on how coaching is delivered (Grant, Passmore, et al., 2010), has tended to use "short-term affective reactions as outcomes" rather than "client learning, behavioural changes, and organisational outcomes" (Feldman & Lankau, 2005, p. 842), and has taken the form of case studies (Grant, Passmore, et al., 2010). Further research issues include a lack of quantitative and experimental designs with control groups. There has been little replication of studies, and so it is difficult to compare findings. This is further complicated by the lack of consensus as to which variables are most important to assess in coaching studies, and how they should be defined and measured. In short, there is a need for a greater number of well-designed quantitative outcome studies. Granted, there are few randomised controlled outcome studies due to the difficulties involved in implementing this type of design to evaluate 'real life' coaching interventions (Grant, Passmore, et al., 2010). Such difficulties include gaining access to participants and organisational data, rates of attrition, and questions of ethics and confidentiality.

Evidence for individual- and organisational-level outcomes of work-related coaching will now be outlined. It should be noted, however, that in many cases, outcomes at both levels are closely related. In other words, as the individual benefits, so does the organisation.

Individual-level outcomes. Coaching has been linked to a range of individual-level outcomes, including increased self-efficacy (Leonard-Cross, 2010), awareness, self-insight (Augustijnen et al., 2011; Dagley, 2010a; de Haan, Culpin, & Curd, 2011; Wasylyshyn, 2003), emotional competence (Wasylyshyn, 2003), engagement (Arakawa & Greenberg, 2007), job satisfaction (Ellinger et al., 2003), health, life satisfaction, resilience, well-being, and ability to deal with organisational change, and lower stress (Grant, Curtayne, & Burton, 2009; Grant,

Green, & Rynsaardt, 2010), anxiety (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005), and burnout (Duijts, Kant, van den Brandt, & Swaen, 2008).

Organisational-level outcomes. At the organisational level, coaching has been linked to increased employee learning and organisational commitment, and lower turnover intention (Park, McLean, & Yang, 2008), greater commitment to service quality (Elmadağ, Ellinger, & Franke, 2008), better workplace safety (Kines et al., 2010), more use of transformational leadership techniques (Cerni, Curtis, & Colmar, 2010), increased collaboration and consultation with subordinates (Kochanowski, Seifert, & Yukl, 2010), and improved employee-manager relationships (McLean, Yang, Kuo, Tolbert, & Larkin, 2005). However, in a survey of 104 coached executives, Dingman (2004) did not find support for changes in organizational commitment, job satisfaction, work/family conflict, and family/work conflict.

To date, coaching has not been convincingly linked to increased performance (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2008; Hagen, 2012) or return on investment (ROI; Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2008), although Grant (2012b) argues that ROI is unreliable and insufficient as a measure of coaching success.

Hagen (2010) found that managerial coaching expertise was associated with project management outcomes. Grant and colleagues reported that, compared to the control groups, 41 executives in a public health agency (Grant et al., 2009) and 44 teachers (Grant, Green, et al., 2010) who received cognitive-behavioural, solution-focused coaching had increased goal attainment.

In a large-scale, quasi-experimental study, Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine (2003) examined the impact of coaching using 360-degree feedback. Of the 1,361 senior managers, 404 received coaching. Compared with the control group, coached managers were found to set more specific goals, get better ideas for improvement from their supervisors, and perform better; however, the effect size for performance ratings was small. Bozer and Sarros (2012) utilised a quasi-experimental design and found that, although an increase in career satisfaction was found among coached executives, evidence for performance improvement was weak.

A qualitative study by Ellinger (1999) using the Critical Incident Technique (Flanagan, 1954) and semi-structured interviews provided some evidence for managerial coaching leading to increased performance, as well as cost-saving and subsequent organisation improvement. In a later quantitative survey-based study, Ellinger (2003) corroborated the positive

relationship between supervisory coaching behaviour and performance, as rated by supervisors. However, a limitation of both studies not noted by Ellinger is that the managers were the coaches who themselves appraised the performance of the employees they coached, potentially biasing the ratings.

The current state of the research regarding outcomes (including performance and ROI) is problematic for several main reasons: firstly, coaching is perceived by organisations as the most effective talent management activity (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2012); secondly, increasing performance is the most commonly-cited objective of organisations using coaching (American Management Association, 2008; Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2011); and thirdly, organisations will naturally expect a financial payoff from capital invested. There is a "clear consensus that clients enjoy being coached and believe it is enhancing their professional life" (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2008, p. 67). Thus, all clients of coaching, including those who commission a coach on a private basis, and coaches themselves, would benefit from an enhancement of the evidence base of the discipline.

Chapter 3: Factors Influencing Coaching Effectiveness

3.1 Overview

The factors contributing to effective work-related coaching remain an underdeveloped area in research. Questions which so far have not been adequately addressed include whether certain groups or types of individuals are more likely than others to benefit from coaching, and under what conditions is coaching most likely to be successful. This chapter outlines such contributing factors identified in the literature, grouped under the following headings: the relationship between the coach and the coachee, individual factors, and situational factors.

The majority of the relevant articles, which are survey-based or qualitative, have generally not examined contributing factors quantitatively, with fewer still testing variables as moderators or mediators. Thus, this section revisits the theme of a need for further quantitative research in coaching, this time at the facilitating level. The ability of various factors to predict the coachee's perceptions of the effectiveness of the coaching is introduced as a research question for the present study.

3.1 The Coaching Relationship

Considerable evidence from coaching research emphasises the importance of the relationship and qualities of the coach in leading to successful outcomes. Such findings are consistent with the counselling literature (Horvath, Del Re, Flückiger, & Symonds, 2011; McLeod, 2003). In fact, after comparing the two interventions, Griffiths & Campbell (2008) conclude that there is "more similarity than either coaches or counsellors may like to acknowledge" (p. 172). In appraising the relationship, factors likely to be considered by the coachee are individual consideration, empathy, trust, and the feedback environment (Gregory & Levy, 2011).

Dingman (2004) found that the quality of the coaching relationship was associated with greater self-efficacy and job satisfaction in coached executives. Baron and Morin (2009) analysed 31 executive coach-coachee dyads and found that the quality of the relationship mediated the link between coaching and self efficacy development. Wasylyshyn (2003)

found that executive coaches who had the ability to form a strong connection with clients were perceived by clients as particularly effective. In a qualitative analysis of coachee interview data, Augustijnen et al. (2011) found that trust between coach and coachee and the openness of both parties to coachee introspection were key factors in the development of the coaching process and the achievement of outcomes.

Further, recent evidence suggests that the relationship and the qualities of the coach may be even more important for coaching effectiveness than the particular method or approach used (Dagley, 2010a; de Haan et al., 2011). This idea is also consistent with the psychotherapy literature, where such factors "have been shown to correlate more highly with client outcome than specialized treatment interventions" (Lambert & Barley, 2001, p. 357). Thus, both Dagley (2010a) and de Haan, et al. (2011) argue that coaches should have a range of techniques at their disposal and the ability to utilise them well at the appropriate moment.

3.2 Individual Factors: Coach

The question of what kind of training, experience, and qualifications coaches should have has evidently been an enduring subject for debate within the literature. A recent survey by Jenkins (2012) reported that coaches in the UK are generally well educated, come from a wide range of academic disciplines, are likely to be a member of a professional body, and tend to have a business and management orientation. While domain-specific knowledge is generally not considered a requirement for a coach (Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011; Swarbrick et al., 2011), some researchers have highlighted the importance of a knowledge of, and ability to work in, the business world or context when working with executive-level clients (Ahern, 2003; Augustijnen et al., 2011; Dagley, 2010a; Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004).

Some authors have argued that coaches should have psychological training (Berglas, 2002). Indeed, coachees present with levels of psychopathology more frequently than is commonly believed (Grant, 2007). Nevertheless, psychologists have not been seen as uniquely capable and qualified to provide coaching (Garman, Whiston, & Zlatoper, 2000). Based on an analysis of data from over 400 executive coaches, Bono et al. (2009) reported that differences were small overall between psychologists and non-psychologists regarding methods and tools used, types of clients, and how the effectiveness of the coaching was evaluated. The authors concluded that a coach's educational background alone is a limited predictor of his or her practices, and instead suggested that, rather than ask whether

psychologist coaches are the most effective, a more useful endeavour is to examine the knowledge, skills, abilities, and behaviours most likely to lead to valued outcomes. Few studies, however, have compared the actual effectiveness of coaching by coaches of different professional backgrounds, based on the end result of the intervention.

There is ample evidence to conclude that strong interpersonal skills are important for a coach. While a range of coach attributes has been presented in the literature as advantageous, there is limited research evidence as to which are more important than others. According to Dingman (2004), coach attributes can be delineated as either interpersonal skills (e.g., empathy and encouragement); communication skills (e.g., tact, and listening/silence); or instrumental support (e.g., creativity and dealing with paradox).

Coach factors identified as important in research include empathy, respect, openness, credibility, commitment, flexibility, an appreciation of the value of teamwork, valuing people over the organisation, the ability to work well under personal or professional pressure, and being willing to accept ambiguity, tolerate tension, and challenge the coachee (Dagley, 2010a; de Haan et al., 2011; Glunk & Follini, 2011; Lambert & Barley, 2001; McLean et al., 2005). There is some evidence to suggest that people can be coached to coach others (Elmadağ et al., 2008; Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1994; Mukherjee, 2012), although in a study using interview data from coaches nominated as 'exceptional', few expressed the belief that most people could become excellent coaches (Dagley, 2010b).

3.3 Individual Factors: Coachee

As well as characteristics of the coach, the coachee has also been considered. A number of authors have proposed client factors which may have an impact on coaching effectiveness. Much of what has been written, however, is based on extrapolation of findings from therapeutic research and there have been few empirical studies using a coaching context. Surprisingly little is known about whether differences in outcomes exist even among basic demographic characteristics such as coachee gender and age.

Still, a number of recent qualitative coaching studies have identified client attitudes towards coaching which may influence the quality of outcomes, including bringing energy and a preparedness to engage with the process (Dagley, 2010a), and a willingness to take part in introspection (Augustijnen et al., 2011) and disclose personal information (Kilburg, 2000). In

the same vein, Stewart and Palmer (2009) posited that coachees motivated to develop would be more likely to show a transfer of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and other qualities gained during coaching to the workplace. Dagley (2010a) identified the need for executives to be able to make time for the process.

Evidence on personality is somewhat mixed. For example, Dawdy (2004) looked at managers in an engineering firm and found no differences in outcomes due to personality. The author cautions, however, that the sample was restricted and a lack of information regarding how managers were spread across personality types may have affected the findings. Stewart, Palmer, Wilkin, and Kerrin (2008), on the other hand, found that executives scoring high on the 'Big Five' measures of conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional stability, as well as general self-efficacy, were more likely to show a transfer of learning during coaching to the workplace. McCormick and Burch (2008) argued that, based on their review of the literature demonstrating the efficacy of the five-factor model in predicting work behaviours and performance, coaching objectives could be informed by how executives score on assessments derived from this model.

Gregory and Levy (2012) examined employee-supervisor coaching dyads and reported that coachee feedback orientation (i.e., the extent to which feedback is valued, sought, and used) predicted perceived quality of the coaching relationship, although the effect was small. Further, the perceived quality of the coaching relationship was found to predict subordinate ratings of supervisor coaching behaviours.

Other authors have focused on issues and personality characteristics that can derail coaching. For instance, Kilburg (2000) proposed lack of motivation, unrealistic expectations, lack of follow-through, psychopathology, and severe interpersonal problems as factors leading to unsuccessful engagements. Nelson and Hogan (2009) reviewed the literature on personality characteristics linked with reduced leader effectiveness and advised that a coach's greater awareness of such findings may facilitate sessions with executives. Characteristics and issues identified include insensitivity, abrasiveness, micromanagement, troubled interpersonal relationships, inability to build a team, lack of follow-through, and difficulty making strategic transitions. They further suggested that the Hogan Development Survey (HDS; Hogan & Hogan, 1997), which uses factors not covered by the five-factor model, could be used to identify dysfunctional characteristics that commonly appear in interpersonal relationships.

3.4 Situational Factors

Organisational factors. There is some general agreement that for workplace coaching to be successful, the support of senior management is critical (Augustijnen et al., 2011; Dagley, 2010a; Jarvis et al., 2006), as is an organisational culture supportive of coaching (Augustijnen et al., 2011; Dagley, 2010a; Kilburg, 2001). Similary, Stewart and Palmer (2009) posit that a pro-development organisational culture and psychosocial support are necessary for the benefits of coaching to transfer to the workplace and be sustained. In a case study, Wasylyshyn, Gronsky, and Hass (2006) reported that branding their coaching programme as a developmental resource appeared to relate to greater effectiveness. In addition, when external coaches are commissioned by an organisation, it may be important that they are granted sufficient scope to work (Dagley, 2007).

In situations where workers are receiving coaching from a coach who is not their manager, the manager's involvement is likely to affect the coaching (Dagley, 2010a; Ogilvy & Ellam-Dyson, 2012). For example, Ogilvy and Ellam-Dyson found that line managers who valued coaching and understood how it worked were seen as more likely to be involved in the process. Behaviours seen by the coachee as helpful included supporting, informing, collaborating, utilising a management style that reinforced the coaching sessions, and challenging. On the other hand, passive and restrictive behaviours were seen as unhelpful.

Type of coaching arrangement. According to Grant et al. (2010), the use of workplace and executive coaching will likely continue increasing, with an emphasis on developing internal coaches. Nonetheless, little research has investigated whether internal or external coaching is most effective, nor has there been much comparative evaluation of internal coaching arrangements; that is, whether coaching by managers, HR personnel, or peers is likely to achieve the best results. The majority of coaching outcome studies have focused on executive or managerial coaching, as opposed to non-executive employees coached by external coaches, including arrangements independent of their organisation, or by HR personnel or colleagues.

One of the few studies which has compared coaching arrangements was conducted by Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) using MBA programme participants receiving either external, peer, or self-coaching. In their first study, the participants, first-year students, coached by an external coach showed greater team-player behaviour. Participants in their second study,

experienced managers in an Executive MBA programme, who received external coaching or self-coaching received higher grades than did those coached by a peer. The authors noted that peers were not perceived as effective as they did not have greater experience in the work context than the coachee. The study provides some support for the efficacy of external coaches and the role and importance of coach credibility.

In addition, very little research has addressed whether coaching is more effective for coachees of different managerial levels. A final question concerns a possible interaction between the type of coaching arrangement and the coachee's managerial level on coaching effectiveness; in other words, whether certain coaching arrangements are more beneficial for coachees of certain managerial level. For example, is an external coach more likely to achieve better results working with self-employed individuals, executives, mid-level managers, or non-managerial employees, and for what reasons? To date, little is known about the differences associated with working with the various coachee types, who likely present with different assumptions and expectations, respond differently to techniques used by the coach, have to overcome different types of obstacles along the path to a successful outcome, and so forth.

There is therefore considerable need for research to examine work-related coaching arrangements. The present study encompasses a range of forms of work-related coaching and coachee managerial levels. Both forms of work-related coaching (coaching by external coach, manager, HR department representative, and peer) and coachee managerial level (self-employed, senior manager/executive, mid-level manager, and non-managerial employee) are explored as predictors of perceived coaching effectiveness, as rated by the coachee.

The use of perceived coaching effectiveness as the outcome variable offers a key advantage. Aims for a coaching engagement can vary considerably among workers, due to factors and circumstances, including managerial level. To illustrate, a key objective for executive coaching is improving leadership skills (American Management Association, 2008; Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2011), which would be less likely to be applicable to a non-managerial employee. On the other hand, perceived effectiveness of the coaching is applicable to any coaching engagement, regardless of its original purpose, and therefore permits comparisons of coaching successfulness to be made.

Characteristics of the arrangement and session. Other authors have discussed how various characteristics of the coaching agreement and sessions can affect the quality of

outcomes. For example, consideration should be given to the length of the coaching and how it is set up. At the outset, confidentiality should be negotiated, the reasons and objectives for the coaching should be clear, and the resources to be committed and any potential barriers should be identified (Dagley, 2007, 2010a; Kilburg, 2001). Coached executives interviewed by Augustijnen et al. (2011) believed that sessions should occur outside the premises of the organisation.

The impact of coaching frequency, duration, and number of sessions has been discussed, although the optimal configuration or combination of these variables has not been examined. While it is recognised that coaching is an individualised arrangement tailored to the particular needs of the coachee, it may be possible to eventually produce general guidelines to inform practice.

Some initial evidence for the utility of spaced coaching is provided by Kauffeld and Lehmann-Willenbrock (2010). In a sales training programme involving a coaching component, spaced rather than massed training was found to produce greater transfer quality, higher self reports of sales ability, and improved key figures. Spaced training was operationalised as six training sessions occurring every four to seven days, while massed training occurred daily for six days in row. However, as coaching played a relatively minor role in this intervention, caution should be exercised in extrapolating the findings to a coaching setting.

Coaching has been shown to achieve results after a single session when combined with 360-degree feedback (Luthans & Peterson, 2003) and training (Bright & Crockett, 2012). Similarly, in a study by Grant, Curtayne, and Burton (2009), executives underwent both 360-degree feedback and training, followed by four sessions of coaching over a period of eight to ten weeks, and this leadership development programme was found to be effective in enhancing goal attainment, increasing resilience and workplace well-being, and reducing depression and stress.

Thus, coaching may be most effective if sessions are deliberately spaced, perhaps allowing coachees the time to reflect and better absorb some of the benefits, although more research is needed for greater specificity regarding optimal frequency. Additionally, coaching may produce benefits in a relatively short period of time. Within the literature, however, outcome studies on coaching have tended to use relatively short timelines and thus it is unclear how long benefits tend to last, and how much coaching would be needed to see such benefits endure.

In sum, a range of factors potentially contributing to coaching effectiveness have been identified in the literature, and can be considered as pertaining to either the coaching relationship, the coach and coachee, or the situation and context within which the coaching occurs. Evidence exists regarding the consequence and efficacy of the coaching relationship. Certain coach and coachee characteristics and some situational factors have also been proposed and identified as important, although the relative importance of these factors remains untested. Situational factors are perhaps the least-explored area, and thus have much scope for future inquiry.

Relatively few of the outlined factors relating to coaching effectiveness have been examined quantitatively. In the present study, a number of variables were examined for their ability to predict coaching effectiveness as perceived by the coachee. The next chapter explores research to date on coaching at the process level and introduces additional foci for the study.

> *Research Question 1:* Can coaching effectiveness, as rated by coachees, be predicted by the coachee's gender, age, and managerial level, the type of coach/type of coaching arrangement (e.g., external coach), whether the arrangement was perceived by the coachee as formal versus informal, the number of sessions, the frequency of the coaching, and whether the coaching was initiated by the individual or by their organisation?

Chapter 4: The Coaching Process

Work-related coaching is used by organisations and individuals for diverse purposes. Further, coaching is an individualised activity wherein clients present with unique needs and issues to be addressed. Practitioners come from a wide range of backgrounds, and hold diverse qualifications (see, for example, Stewart & Palmer, 2009). Moreover, a lack of a universally accepted and empirically validated coaching model leads many practitioners to adopt commercially-developed approaches, which often lack theoretical support (Grant, Passmore, et al., 2010). Accordingly, a wide range of approaches/theoretical foundations and session structures are found in practice. These, as well as models of coaching and coach and coachee behaviours, and their corresponding research support, are outlined. The mechanisms potentially involved in outcome attainment are examined, and a set of proactive worker behaviours known as job crafting is introduced as a key variable for the present study.

4.1 Approaches/Theoretical Foundations, Session Structures, and Models

The coaching process and a number of coaching models were based on and developed from counselling (Augustijnen et al., 2011; Griffiths & Campbell, 2008). Hence, both coaches and counsellors use "similar processes of listening, questioning, providing a non-judgemental relationship and uncovering deeper levels of awareness" (Griffiths & Campbell, 2008, p. 172).

Approaches/theoretical foundations. While there is no consensus regarding approaches/theoretical foundations to inform coaching practice, the most commonly-used approaches are goal-setting, facilitation, cognitive/behavioural, and behaviour modification (Bono et al., 2009; McLeod, 2003; Stewart & Palmer, 2009). Other approaches include rational emotive behaviour therapy, psychodynamic, cognitive developmental, existential, gestalt, narrative, motivational interviewing, skills training, neuro-linguistic programming, solution-focused, strengths-focused, and mindfulness (Jenkins et al., 2012; Palmer & Whybrow, 2008b; Spence & Oades, 2011). While somewhat surprising, there appears to be little difference between psychologist and non-psychologist coaches regarding preferred methods (Bono et al., 2009; Palmer & Whybrow, 2008a).

The most empirically validated theoretical foundation for coaching, however, is cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), followed by a blended cognitive-behavioural and solution-focused model (Grant et al., 2010; Spence & Oades, 2011). Indeed, Dagley (2000) found that many of the coaches nominated as 'exceptional' by experienced HR practitioners reported using cognitive-behavioural and solution-focused approaches, although the most effective coaches are likely to be able to draw upon a range of techniques in order to select the one most appropriate to the situation (Dagley, 2010a; de Haan et al., 2011; Read, 2013).

There is still a paucity of studies that have made direct comparisons of the effectiveness of approaches, although two recent papers utilising an experimental design have emerged. The first (Sue-Chan, Wood, & Latham, 2012), found that a promotion coaching orientation (focusing on achievement and growth) led to better coachee performance than did a prevention coaching orientation (focusing on fulfilling obligations and responsibilities). The second paper (Grant, 2012a), compared problem-focused and solution-focused coaching and reported that while both were successful in enhancing goal approach, the solution-focused approach was most effective. In contrast with the problem-focused approach, the solution-focused questions lead to significantly increased positive affect, decreased negative affect, and increased self-efficacy.

Empirical support, albeit in a relatively small number of studies, has also been found for both motivational interviewing and mindfulness as approaches informing coaching practice (see Spence & Oades, 2011), and some recent support has been found for strengths-based coaching (Luthans & Peterson, 2003), suggesting the potential usefulness of these methods. Other methods, while sometimes used in related interventions such as counselling, have had fewer research studies evaluating their effectiveness in a coaching context, such as psychodynamic (Kilburg, 1996), Gestalt (Karp & Handlon, 2006), and narrative (Drake, 2009) approaches.

Session structures. Coaching session structures are models which offer the coach a framework to use during the session (Grant, 2011). As with theoretical foundations to inform coaching practice, various session structures exist. A well-known example is the GROW model (Goal, Reality, Options, Wrap-Up; see Whitmore, 1996), involving clarification of goals; building awareness of current reality; identification and assessment of options; and an identification of action steps. This model has a number of variants, including the T-GROW (Topic, Goal, Reality, Options, Wrap-up; Downey, 2003) and RE-GROW (the two additional steps are Review and Evaluate; Grant, 2011) models.

Other session structures include the OSKAR (Outcome; Scaling; Knowhow and resources; Affirm and action; Review; Jackson & McKergow, 2002) and PRACTICE models (Problem identification; Realistic, relevant goals developed; Alternative solutions generated; Consideration of consequences; Target most feasible solution(s); Implementation of Chosen solutions; Evaluation; Palmer, 2007). While noting the usefulness of session structures to the coach, Grant (2011) draws attention to the need for flexibility and adaptability, and recognition of the fact that not all sessions follow a linear sequence.

Models. Other authors have focused on the development of models of coaching which are generally more comprehensive than session structures (they can incorporate, for example, outcomes and environmental factors). There has been a greater focus, however, on executive coaching than on other forms, such as managerial or peer coaching.

Models of executive coaching typically comprise many of the following phases: build the relationship; clarify objectives; assess the current situation; develop goals; engage in reflection and awareness-building; personal and behavioural changes; and evaluation (see, for example, Augustijnen et al., 2011; Dagley, 2010a; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Passmore, 2007). Passmore's model introduces an additional unique dimension, the cultural context, and the resulting boundaries and codes imposed upon both coach and coachee. Augustijnen et al. include the attitudes of the organisation towards coaching and the location where the coaching occurs. Similarly, Newsom and Dent (2011) have identified the most frequent coaching behaviours in executive coaching: establishing trust, honesty, and respect; using open-ended questions; and clarifying and understanding client concerns and challenges.

In sum, while numerous coaching approaches/theoretical foundations and session structures have been proposed and discussed in the literature and used in practice, the majority lack empirical research. Thus, little is known about which are most effective, both overall and in particular situations. Likewise, few coaching models are theory based (exceptions include Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Passmore, 2007). Fewer still are empirically validated, although two recent examples are Augustijnen, et al. (2011) and Dagley (2010a). Although there is some published information available on what coaches do, in terms of the behaviours they engage in and what approaches and session structures they use, considerably less is known about coachee behaviours. Finally, an understanding of the mechanisms involved in outcome achievement in coaching is incomplete, with very little quantitative examination having occurred.

4.2 Coach and Coachee Behaviours

Based on a review of the literature, Hagen (2012) has identified the following managerial coaching behaviours: open communication; informing; advising; assessing/appraising; empowering; providing opportunities for learning and development; delegating; and soliciting and providing feedback. These findings suggest a number of differences in the process among the various forms of work-related coaching, in terms of the importance and significance of certain stages. For example, empowering, providing opportunities, and delegating are behaviours typically not incorporated in, or emphasised in, executive coaching models. Such behaviours are more likely to benefit lower-level employees, and apply to dyads wherein the coach is also the coachee's manager. Equally, the relationship building phase readily identifiable in models of executive coaching may be less significant in other forms of coaching where the relationship is already established, such as managerial coaching. Thus, while a useful starting point, models of executive coaching may be insufficient to apply to all work-related coaching contexts, and a validated generic model of work-related coaching is notably absent in the literature.

While behaviour change has been identified as a key outcome by buyers of coaching services (Dagley, 2010a), coaches (Bono et al., 2009), and coachees themselves (Wasylyshyn, 2003), the attention in the literature devoted to pinpointing specific coachee behaviours which change following coaching has not been commensurate. Such behaviours, along with those of the coach, "have been implied by past research but never accounted for empirically" (Newsom & Dent, 2011, p. 18).

Wasylyshyn (2003) found that the behaviour change most valued by coached executives was a greater emphasis on building relationships, better work-family integration, and sustained progress. Smither et al. (2003) demonstrated that coached executives set more specific goals and were more likely to solicit ideas from their supervisors, but not from peers or subordinates. Kochanowski, Seifert, and Yukl (2010) found that coaching, when combined with a feedback intervention, increased supermarket managers' use of collaboration and consultation with subordinates. Graham, Wedman, and Garvin-Kester (1994) reported an increase in coaching behaviours for managers who were trained to coach subordinates.

Passmore (2010), in a small-scale qualitative study on executive coaching, identified assigning and carrying out take-away tasks (i.e., tasks to be carried out outside of coaching)

as notable executive coach and coachee behaviours, respectively. Reflective tasks were generally considered by the coachee as more effective than action-oriented tasks, partly due to such tasks being seen by the coachees as better-aligned with the nature of an executive coaching engagement, and the status and power of the coachees. Passmore also identified problem-solving as a joint exercise between coach and coachee. An interesting avenue for future research, therefore, might focus on coached workers at a range of organisational levels to elucidate the specific nature of take-away tasks typically undertaken, and the kinds of problem-solving engaged in, both during and away from the session.

Thus, despite an incomplete knowledge as to which specific behaviours change during and following coaching, the research to date suggests that coachees are more likely to set effective goals, improve workplace relationships, coach others, continue to make progress ('progress', of course, is dependent on the objectives of the coaching), and engage in take-away tasks and problem-solving (Graham et al., 1994; Kochanowski et al., 2010; Passmore, 2010; Smither et al., 2003; Wasylyshyn, 2003). Less research attention has been devoted to determining whether any such behaviours serve as intermediary mechanisms to produce or consolidate positive outcomes.

The results of a number of qualitative studies involving interviews with coaches and/or coachees suggest the following as mechanisms for the achievement of outcomes: the coachee's gaining awareness and self-insight (Augustijnen, et al., 2011; Dagley, 2010a; De Haan, Bertie, Day, & Sills, 2010; Wasylyshyn, 2003), developing emotional competence (Wasylyshyn, 2003), experimenting with new behaviours, skill-building (Dagley, 2010b), utilising feedback (Gregory, Levy, & Jeffers, 2008), and goal setting (Dagley, 2010b; Gregory et al., 2008). Increased awareness and self-insight may be achieved as a result of engaging in deeper conversations, challenging the coachee, and engaging into tensions within the relationship (Dagley, 2010a; Karasek, 1979). On the other hand, Smither and London (2003) did not find goal specificity and sharing feedback/soliciting suggestions for improvement to mediate the (small) relationship reported between coaching and improvements in ratings of performance.

A logical next step in the research process, it would seem, would be to quantitatively test variables for mediation of the link between coaching received and outcomes. A starting point could be to consider the mechanisms identified above; other common coach and coachee behaviours identified in the literature could then be examined, as could each of the distinct phases outlined in models of the coaching process.

In conclusion, research to date on the coaching process, particularly coachee behaviours, is underdeveloped. It is suggested that a greater understanding of the interrelationships among coach and coachee behaviours and outcomes could lead to further development and validation of evidence-based models, including a much-needed model applicable to multiple forms of work-related coaching. Such models could then be used to produce session structures and re-examine approaches/theoretical foundations for coaching. Thus, further empirical research on coaching processes is a worthwhile objective. The following chapter outlines the potential role of job crafting in work-related coaching, both as a set of coachee behaviours likely to change and as a mechanism in outcome achievement.

Chapter 5: Job Crafting

This chapter outlines job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) as a central concept and variable for the present study. Job crafting is defined, and its research support to date and relationship with the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) is examined. Finally, the rationale for its inclusion in this coaching study is provided, as are the aims and hypotheses of the study.

5.1 Background and Definition

In contrast with job design and job re-design, which are generally conceptualised as top-down processes driven by the organisation or by supervisors, employees who engage in job crafting assume an active role in shaping their own jobs (Tims & Bakker, 2010). The term was first defined by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) as self-initiated physical and cognitive changes made by workers in their tasks and work relationships. The motivators driving job crafting were posited to be the need for greater control over the job and to derive meaning from it, to foster a positive self-image, and the need for human connection (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Most workers perform job crafting. For example, in two separate studies involving sales representatives, Lyons reported that 74% (Lyons, 2006) and 83% (Lyons, 2008) had engaged in job crating episodes within the past 12 months, with an average of 1.5 episodes per employee reported in both studies. Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, and Hetland (2012) conceptualised job crafting as occurring at the day level (i.e., a continuous process) as well as the general level (i.e., a single episode with lasting effects) and found still higher rates. The results from Lyons' studies suggest that most job crafting tends to happen without the knowledge of supervisors.

Other forms of job crafting such as personal skill development (Lyons, 2008) have subsequently been identified, beyond those first proposed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001; i.e., changes to work-related tasks, relationships, and how the individual sees the job). As a result, Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2012) have utilised the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001) as the theoretical framework for the concept in order to capture a greater range of job characteristics that may

be shaped. Job crafting has been recently defined as changes made by the employee to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs (Tims et al., 2012).

As a relatively recent area of inquiry, the majority of job crafting research to date has been either conceptual or qualitative. Tims et al. (2012), however, have offered an instrument with which to measure crafting, the Dutch Job Crafting Scale (JCS), and report good psychometric properties (concerning factor structure, reliability, and convergent validity). These authors identify four dimensions: *increasing structural job resources, increasing social job resources, increasing challenging job demands*, and *decreasing hindering job demands*.

The job crafting scale has been used in three other recent quantitative studies (Bakker et al., 2012; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou et al., 2012). Bakker et al. did not examine *decreasing hindering job demands*, but found support for the existence and distinctiveness of the remaining three dimensions. Nielsen and Abildgaard investigated job crafting among blue-collar workers. They identified five dimensions: *increasing challenging demands, decreasing social job demands, increasing social job resources, increasing quantitative demands, and decreasing hindering job demands*. There are three notable differences in dimensionality as compared with the original factor structure of the JCS (Tims et al., 2012). First, social interaction (with colleagues and customers) was found to be both a resource and a demand. Second, Nielsen and Abildgaard argue that *quantitative demands* are distinct from *challenging demands* in that the former refers to doing more of one's existing activities as opposed to initiating new activities. Lastly, they found no support for *increasing structural resources*, and argue that blue collar workers may have "fewer opportunities to influence work at higher levels, make full use of their skills at work, or affect the structural aspects of the job" (p. 380).

Petrou et al. (2012) examined job crafting as a day-to-day behaviour, using an adapted version of the JCS. Support for three dimensions, at both general level and day level, were found, namely *seeking resources*, *seeking challenges*, and *reducing demands*. Given the lack so far of a universal consensus regarding dimensionality, the factor structure of the JCS is examined in the present study.

5.2 Job Crafting and the JD-R Model

The JDR model. Job demands have been defined as aspects of the job requiring sustained physical or mental effort, and are therefore associated with subsequent physiological or psychological costs to the individual (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources are the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job which may facilitate the achievement of work goals, reduce job demands and associated costs, or stimulate personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). Thus, the JD-R is a comprehensive model of job characteristics that features two distinct processes: job demands initiating a health impairment process and job resources initiating a motivation process (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

The balance between job demands and resources is a core notion within the JD-R model, which emphasises that any work environment can be considered in terms of its job demands and job resources. Strain and motivation are predicted from a combination of demands and resources: job resources can buffer or reduce the impact of job demands on strain and a high level of engagement can be predicted from a high level of resources, even with a high level of demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

According to Bakker (2007), the JD-R model incorporates two prominent job stress models: the Demands-Control model (DCM; Karasek, 1979) and the Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI) model (Siegrist, 1996). The DCM predicts that strain (as well as job dissatisfaction) results from a combination of high job demands and low job control, while according to the ERI model, strain results when high effort (extrinsic job demands and intrinsic motivation to meet these demands) is met with low reward (e.g., salary). The JD-R model was developed to encompass a greater range of job characteristics (i.e. demands and resources) contributing to both well-being and strain. By considering two general types of job characteristics, it can be applied to a wide range of jobs and occupations (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The model has been extensively validated and used in a number of large-scale studies (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010).

Types of demands: Challenge and hindrance. According to the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), the process of primary appraisal, where a stressor is evaluated by the individual as either a challenge or a hindrance, plays a prominent role in whether an event is experienced as stressful. This distinction between challenge and hindrance stressors has been applied to the workplace by Cavanaugh,

Boswell, Roehling, and Boudreau (2000), who concluded that treating stress as unidimensional masks its relationship with outcome variables (job satisfaction, job search, and turnover). A meta-analysis by Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010) has provided further support for this differentiation, noting that while previous studies had shown that demands relate positively to health impairment, the relationship between demands and engagement had been less clear.

Challenge demands, although depleting energy, are seen by the individual as potentially rewarding experiences, leading to satisfaction of needs and attainment of goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Van den Broeck, De Cuyper, De Witte, & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Such demands are positively associated with both ill-health (burnout) and well-being, in the form of engagement (Crawford et al., 2010), job satisfaction, and reduced likelihood of job search (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Hindrance demands are seen as thwarting progress towards goals and are negatively associated with engagement and positively associated with burnout (Crawford et al., 2010), as well as being negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to job search (Cavanaugh et al., 2000).

Types of resources: Structural and social. Job resources promote engagement and are associated with lower levels of burnout (Crawford et al., 2010). In a longitudinal study, Schaufeli, Bakker, and Van Rhenen (2009) highlighted the dynamic nature of the JD-R model, where initial work engagement predicted an increase in resources, which lead to a further increase in engagement. Recent research on the development of the job crafting scale (Tims et al., 2012) has identified two separate forms of work resources that can be shaped: structural resources (consisting of variety, opportunity for development, and autonomy) and social resources (social support, supervisory coaching, and feedback).

Interactions between demands and resources. The main proposition of the JD-R model is that different combinations of job demands and job resources determine well-being. Support has been found for the buffer hypothesis, that resources mitigate the impact of job demands on strain (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Further, resources (socio-economic, individual, and work-related) have also been shown to accumulate over the life course and have a long-term protective effect from burnout (Hakanen, Bakker, & Jokisaari, 2011). Conversely, exposure to high demands together with low resources has been shown to predict burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2009), and it may also lead to negative organisational outcomes such as turnover (Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987). The coping hypothesis, that the effect of resources on engagement/motivation is highest when job demands are high, has also been supported (Halbesleben, 2010).

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5.3 Evidence of the Effectiveness of Job Crafting

Work conditions are of prime importance to both the individual and the organisation, given established relationships concerning demands (challenges and hindrances) and resources with burnout, engagement (Crawford et al., 2010), job satisfaction (Cavanaugh et al., 2000), and well-being (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). It would therefore be expected that the crafting of job characteristics (i.e., demands and resources) to better suit the individual would be associated with a range of benefits. Research findings regarding correlates and outcomes of job crafting will now be discussed.

Job crafting (conceptualized as *task*, *relational*, and *cognitive crafting*) has been shown to correlate positively with job satisfaction, commitment, and job effectiveness, and negatively with absenteeism (Ghitulescu, 2006). As conceptualized within the JD-R framework and measured using the job crafting scale, job crafting has been positively associated with engagement, performance, ratings of employability, and job satisfaction, and negatively with burnout (Bakker et al., 2012; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2012).

Findings concerning the relationships of specific dimensions of job crafting with outcome variables are as follows. Behaviours aimed at *increasing job demands* (i.e., *challenging demands* in the above four studies and *quantitative demands* in Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012) related positively to engagement (Bakker et al., 2012; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2012), performance (Bakker et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2012), and job satisfaction, and negatively to burnout (Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012). *Increasing social job resources* was linked with engagement (Bakker et al., 2012; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Tims et al., 2012), performance, employability (Tims et al., 2012), and job satisfaction (Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012). *Increasing structural resources* related to engagement, performance (Bakker et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2012), and employability (Tims et al., 2012). *Decreasing hindrance demands* was negatively associated with engagement (Petrou et al., 2012).

Thus, there is evidence that crafting behaviours aimed at increasing job demands and resources are important for workplace performance and engagement, and perhaps job satisfaction. To date, the motivational effects of job crafting have received more research

attention than have health outcomes. As such, the present study examines the two more established variables (engagement and performance) in relation to job crafting, as well as two further variables which have so far received less attention: stress and intention to leave the organisation. It is expected that carrying out job crafting may allow employees to feel they have greater control over their work environment, which may lessen stress and the desire to seek employment in a different organisation. A further reason for such an expectation is that, according to self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000), an individual's experience of the psychological needs of autonomy, competency, and relatedness relates not only to performance and engagement, but also to wellness. The job crafting dimensions *increasing challenging job demands*, *increasing social resources*, and *increasing structural resources* would appear to be purposeful behaviours aimed at fostering such psychological needs.

> *Hypothesis 1:* Attempts at *increasing challenging job demands*, *social resources*, and *structural resources* will be positively related to engagement and performance, and negatively to stress and intention to leave the organisation.

The fourth core dimension in the JCS, *decreasing hindering demands*, appears to have the least clear relationship with outcomes. It was not found to significantly relate to any of the outcome variables examined by Tims et al. (2012; i.e., engagement, performance, and employability), or by Nielsen and Abildgaard (2012; i.e., engagement, job satisfaction, and burnout), although it related negatively to burnout in Petrou et al. (2012). Such equivocal findings seem at odds with the predictions of the JD-R model concerning job demands (particularly hindrance demands) and their established relationships with such variables. Thus, it was considered deserving of further examination in the present study.

> *Hypothesis 2:* Attempts at *decreasing hindering job demands* will be positively related to engagement and performance, and negatively to stress and intention to leave the organisation.

5.4 Antecedents and Facilitators of Job Crafting

Some individuals are more likely than others to respond to work situations by shaping, or crafting, their job (Tims & Bakker, 2010). A person's skills (Ghitulescu, 2006), cognitive ability, self-image, perceived level of control, readiness to change (Lyons, 2008), and

competitiveness (Lyons, 2006) have been found to be predictors of the extent to which they engage in job crafting.

Further, three dimensions of job crafting (*increasing structural job resources, increasing social job resources*, and *increasing job demands/challenges*) have been shown to be positively related to proactive personality (Bakker et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2012) and personal initiative, and negatively related to cynicism (Tims et al., 2012). Tims et al. examined a further dimension of job crafting (*decreasing job hindering demands*) and found that it related negatively to personal initiative, and positively to proactive personality and cynicism. Self-efficacy and regulatory focus (either a promotion focus, striving for achievement and growth, or a prevention focus, concern for security, safety, and responsibility; Crowe & Higgins, 1997) have also been proposed as job crafting antecedents (Tims & Bakker, 2010), and await validation.

Job and organisational factors have also been considered. It has been posited that job crafting is more likely to occur when there is a lack of fit between the person and the job (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Tims & Bakker, 2010), low task interdependence (Tims & Bakker, 2010), and high uncertainty of the work environment (Parker & Griffin, 2011). Petrou (2012), examining mainly micro-level changes (as opposed to broad, structural changes) faced by organisations and their workers and found that "new clients" were associated with higher levels of *seeking resources* and *seeking challenges*, while "new products" were associated with lower levels of *seeking challenges*. Thus, organisational change may too be a contributing factor. Ghitulescu (2006) found that task complexity predicted the crafting of cognitions, and both task discretion and task complexity predicted crafting of relationships.

Concerning possible organisational interventions, Tims and Bakker (2010) argue that job crafting could be fostered by providing employees with web-based individualised feedback on their existing demands and resources, and their degree of person-job fit (i.e., the extent to which one's personal abilities meet the requirements of the job and the extent to which the job can satisfy one's needs).

There is evidence to suggest that autonomy and managerial level influence job crafting. For example, Petrou et al. (2012), examining day-level crafting, found that the combination of work pressure and autonomy, termed an active job (Karasek & Theorell, 1990), was linked with job crafting, namely a greater level of *seeking resources* and a lower level of *reducing demands*.

While crafting may occur at all levels within an organisation, workers of different ranks are likely to face difference challenges in initiating it (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010). Berg et al. found that for higher-ranked employees, the challenges they perceived in job crafting were primarily determined by their own expectations of how they should spend their time, and they adapted by settling for readily-available opportunities for job crafting. Lower-ranked employees, on the other hand, viewed challenges in job crafting as relating to others' expectations of them, and thus attempted to gain others' support in order to create opportunities for job crafting.

Nielsen and Abildgaard (2012) examined a blue-collar sample using the job crafting scale, and found that an adapted factor structure was more applicable to this population than the dimensions supported by Tims et al. (2012), Bakker et al. (2012), and Petrou et al. (2012), whose samples comprised mostly white-collar, university-educated participants. This, therefore, lends further support to the notion that the forms and extent of job crafting may depend, at least in part, on the nature of the job itself – with particular reference to managerial status and autonomy.

In sum, a number of individual and job/organisational factors has been proposed as influencing job crafting, though a relatively small number have so far been empirically tested. Such testing has been facilitated by the recent introduction of Tims et al.'s (2012) quantitative measure of job crafting. In the following section, the reasoning for positing the relationship between work-related coaching and job crafting is provided. As a corollary, it is hypothesised that, in a coaching context, autonomy will influence (i.e., moderate) the amount of job crafting that does occur.

5.5 Coaching and Job Crafting

Job crafting is incorporated into this study for the following reasons. First, coachee behaviour change is an under-developed area in coaching research. Job crafting delineates four types of work behaviours, thereby providing a potentially useful framework within which to examine behaviour change in coaching. Second, job crafting has been linked to a number of outcomes in the work domain, especially performance and engagement, which are considered particularly valuable outcomes for a coaching intervention. Third, coaching has been shown to also relate to such outcomes. In the literature, the possibility has been raised

of some coachee behaviours being mechanisms for outcome attainment; for example, the coachee's experimenting with new behaviours (Dagley, 2010b) and carrying out take-away tasks (Passmore, 2010). Finally, as job crafting behaviours are purposeful and proactive in nature, they would seem compatible with the above behaviours as well as the outcome-focused philosophy of coaching. They are thus expected to increase following work-related coaching, and act as a mediating mechanism leading to positive outcomes.

In sum, by proposing job crafting as a mediator for outcome achievement, a possible answer to the questions of "how coaching works, what works, and why" is provided. Likewise, the role of autonomy as a moderating factor provides one possible answer to the questions "for whom does it work and under what circumstances will it most be effective". The present study is the first attempt, to the researcher's knowledge, at integrating the two literatures of work-related coaching and job crafting. It is a quantitative, empirical study, emphasised by researchers as much-needed for both coaching (e.g., Feldman & Lankau, 2005; Hagen, 2012) and job crafting research (e.g., Tims et al., 2012).

> *Hypothesis 3:* Work-related coaching is positively associated with engagement and self-rated job performance, and negatively associated with stress and intention to leave the organisation.

> *Hypothesis 4:* Participants who have received work-related coaching will be more likely to attempt job crafting than those who have not.

> *Hypothesis 5*: The relationship between coaching and job crafting will be moderated by autonomy.

> *Hypothesis 6*: Job crafting will mediate the relationship between coaching and outcomes.

5.6 The Present Study

In this study, job crafting is proposed and investigated as a set of worker behaviours likely to change following coaching. Job crafting is also examined as a potential mediator of the relationship between the number of coaching sessions received and hypothesised outcomes (performance, engagement, intention to leave, and stress). Next, autonomy is proposed as a

possible moderator of the link between coaching and job crafting. Finally, a number of factors (coachee, coach, and situational) are examined for their ability to predict coaching effectiveness, as rated by the coachee.
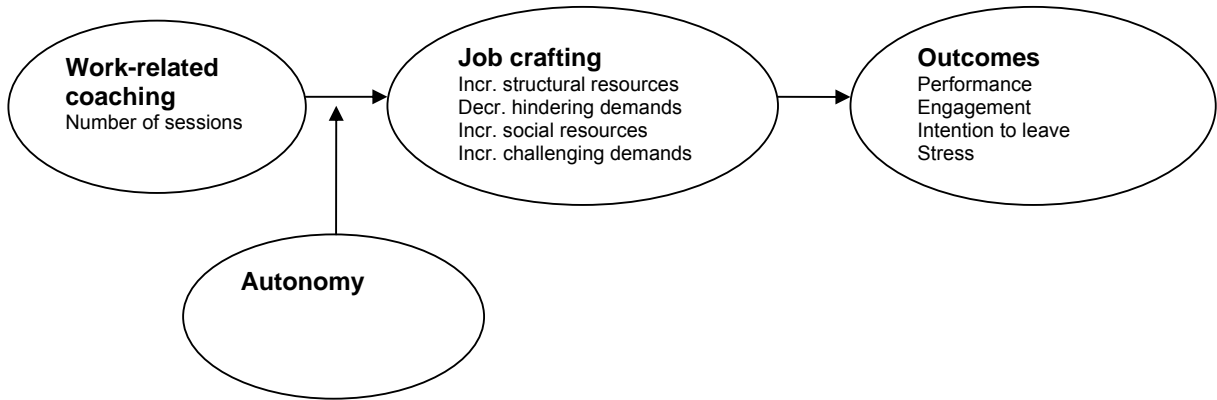
Work-related coaching
Number of sessions

Job crafting
Incr. structural resources
Decr. hindering demands
Incr. social resources
Incr. challenging demands

Outcomes
Performance
Engagement
Intention to leave
Stress

Autonomy

Figure 1: Proposed relationships among coaching, autonomy, job crafting, and outcomes (performance, engagement, stress, and intentions to leave the organisation).

Chapter 6: Method

Data for this cross-sectional study were collected by means of an online self-report questionnaire, comprising 47 Likert-type questions and 2 open-ended questions. The research was recorded as a Low Risk Notification with Massey University's Human Ethics Committee.

An initial pilot testing phase was carried out using a small number of participants (n = 5). Feedback was requested regarding the construction and wording of the questionnaire, whether the items were easily understood, and the time taken to complete the questionnaire. A number of minor changes were identified and made before the final version of the questionnaire was circulated.

6.1 Procedure

Emails with an outline of the study and invitation to participate (see Appendix A) were sent to members of the Human Resources Institute of New Zealand; New Zealand Association of Training and Development; Coaching Psychology Special Interest Group; I/O Net; New Zealand Coaching and Mentoring Centre; postgraduate students and staff of Massey University's Psychology Department; as well as friends and personal contacts of the researcher. The email contained a link to the online questionnaire (see Appendix B). Participation was voluntary and anonymous. The email included a request that the link be forwarded to any other interested parties, such as friends, colleagues, and clients. A reminder email was sent approximately two weeks later. Qualtrics software (www.qualtrics.com) was used to collect, store, and retrieve the data.

6.2 Participants

Two hundred and sixty-five participants accessed the survey and of these, 200 participants provided usable data. The response rate for the present study is not known as members of several email groups were invited to participate and the relative contribution from each group could not be determined.

Forty-four participants (22.0%) were receiving work-related coaching at the time of completing the questionnaire; 62 (31.0%) were not currently being coached but had been during the last five years and the remaining 93 (46.5%) had either never received coaching or had done so more than five years ago. This last group was coded as having had no coaching sessions in the last five years. Data on coaching experience were not available for 1 participant (0.5%). Thirty-five participants (17.5%) had received between 1 and 4 coaching sessions, 37 (18.5%) had received between 5 and 10 sessions, and 31 (15.5%) had received 11 or more. Data on number of sessions received were not available for 4 participants (2%). Further information on participant characteristics can be found in Table 1.

Table 1

Participant demographics and employment and coaching characteristics

Variable	Frequency	Percentage of total
Gender (*n* = 191)		
Female	131	65.5
Male	60	30.0
Missing	9	4.5
Age (*n* = 192)		
Under 20	0	0.0
20 to 29	50	25.0
30 to 39	36	18.0
40 to 49	46	23.0
50 to 59	43	21.5
60 and over	17	8.5
Missing	8	4.0
Managerial level (*n* =192)		
Self-employed	24	12.0
Senior manager / executive	31	15.5
Mid-level manager / first line supervisor	57	28.5
Non-managerial employee	80	40.0
Missing	8	4.0
Frequency of coaching (*n* = 106)		
At least once per week	18	17.0
Once every two weeks	14	13.2
Once every month	35	33.0
Once every two months	20	18.9
Once every three months, or less frequently	19	17.9
Initiator of the coaching (*n* = 100)		
Organisation	47	47.0
Individual	53	53.0
Formalness of the coaching (*n* = 101)		
Formal	41	40.6
Informal	60	59.4
Type of coaching arrangement (*n* = 103)		
Managerial coaching	42	40.8
Coaching from colleague/peer	10	9.7
Coaching from HR personnel	6	5.8
Coaching from an external coach	45	43.7

6.3 Measures

The questionnaire consisted of sections on work-related coaching, job crafting, autonomy, job performance, intention to leave, stress, and demographic information and employment characteristics. Participants who had not received coaching, or had received coaching more than five years ago, were not asked the remaining coaching questions.

Coaching. Ten questions asked about respondents' experience of coaching and were created for the present study.

Respondents were asked: "Which option most accurately describes your experience with work-related coaching?" with answer categories "I am currently receiving work-related coaching"; "I am not currently receiving work-related coaching, but have done in the past 5 years"; "I have never received work-related coaching (or the coaching was more than 5 years ago)". This last group was coded as having had no coaching sessions in the last five years. Participants who had not received coaching, or who had received it more than 5 years ago, were then directed to the questions regarding autonomy. Other participants were asked "How many work-related coaching sessions have you received?" (0; 1; 2; 3-5; 5-10; 11+). These categories were collapsed for the analyses (0; 1-4; 5-10; 11+).

Coaching frequency was assessed with one question, "How frequently do you receive (or did you receive) work-related coaching?" ("several times per week"; "once every week"; "once every two weeks"; "once every month"; "once every two months"; "once every three months"; "once every six months"; "once every year"). These categories were subsequently collapsed ("at least once every week"; "once every two weeks"; "once every month"; "once every two months"; "once every three months, or less frequently").

Perceived effectiveness of the coaching was measured with one question, "Overall, I think the work-related coaching I have received has been effective". This item was rated on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree".

Two questions on coaching arrangements were "Who is (or was) your coach?" ("my manager / supervisor"; "a colleague / peer at work"; "a staff member from the human resources department"; "a coach external to the organisation"; "a friend away from work") and "Who arranged for the coaching to happen?" ("initiated by the organisation"; "initiated

myself"). An additional question asked "How would you describe the coaching?" ("formal"; "informal").

Job crafting. Job crafting was measured using the Job Crafting Scale (Tims et al., 2012). Items were rated on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 = "never" to 5 = "very often". Based on findings from factor analysis (see Results), Tims et al.'s. four-factor solution was used, and 19 out of 21 items were retained. *Increasing structural job resources* comprised five items (e.g., "I try to develop my capabilities"; α = .76). *Decreasing hindering job demands* comprised six items (e.g., "I make sure that my work is mentally less intense"; α = .77). *Increasing social job resources* comprised three items (e.g., "I ask my supervisor to coach me"), as an increase in scale reliability, from α = .70 to .78, was achieved by deleting two items. *Increasing challenging job demands* comprised five items (e.g., "When an interesting project comes along, I offer myself proactively as project co-worker"; α = .77).

Autonomy. Autonomy was measured with the decision latitude scale from the Job Contents Questionnaire (Karasek, 1985). The measure consists of nine items (e.g., "My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own"; α = .83) rated on a 4-point scale, ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 4 = "strongly agree".

Job performance. Job performance was measured with a single item, a modified version of the self-report global rating scale from the World Health Organisation Health and Work Performance Questionnaire (HPQ; Kessler et al., 2003). The item ("Please rate your overall work performance during the past four weeks. Consider the quantity and quality of the work you did, how well you got along with others, special work successes and failures, and accidents or injuries") was rated on an 11-point scale, ranging from 0 = "worst possible performance a person could have on this job" to 10 = "top work performance".

Engagement. Engagement was measured with the nine-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Items (e.g., "At my work, I feel bursting with energy"; α = .91) were rated on a seven-point scale, ranging from 0 = "never" to 6 = "always"), with each point accompanied by a descriptor (e.g., "always" is defined as "every day").

Intention to leave. Intention to leave was measured by a single item from O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994): "How likely is it that, over the next year, you will actively look for a new job

outside of this organisation?". Items were rated on a six-point scale, ranging from 1 = "very unlikely" to 6 = "very likely".

Stress. Stress was measured with the 12-item version of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12; Goldberg, 1972). A sample item is "[Have you recently] been able to concentrate on what you're doing?" (α = .90). Responses on the four-point scale ranged from 0 = "better/healthier than normal" to 3 = "much worse/more than usual".

Demographic information and employment characteristics. Participants were also asked to indicate their gender, age, and position level in their organisation.

6.4 Data Analysis

PASW Statistics version 18 was used to perform the analyses. A considerable percentage of data (46.0%) was missing for autonomy as, due to technical difficulties, autonomy data were only available for those who had received work-related coaching. Of the remaining study variables, none were missing more than 4.5% data, and data were missing at random.

While outliers were detected on self-rated job performance, perceived effectiveness of the coaching, and stress, a comparison of trimmed mean and mean values indicated that it was unlikely that the outliers would have a substantial effect on the analyses; thus, the cases were retained in the data.

Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were assessed using visual inspection rather than statistical testing, due to the relatively large sample size (*N* = 200). All variables met assumptions for parametric testing except self-rated job performance, *increasing structural job resources*, autonomy, and perceived effectiveness of the coaching (all negatively skewed). These variables underwent a reflection and square root transformation; however, this did not affect the results and so analyses using untransformed variables are reported (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Intention to leave had a bimodal distribution and was recoded as a dichotomous variable.

As the Job Crafting Scale is relatively less established than the other measures used in the present study, principal components analysis was carried out on its 21 items in order to confirm the four-factor solution proposed by the instrument's authors. Before

commencement of this procedure, the factorability of the data was tested. With an overall sample size of 200 for 21 items, Nunnally's (1978) recommended ratio of 10:1 was approximated. Further, the correlation matrix was inspected, showing many coefficients above .3. Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was significant (p = .000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index (KMO; Kaiser, 1974) was .722, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .6 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The decision to proceed was therefore supported (see Results).

Bivariate correlations were examined using Pearson product-moment correlation, Spearman rank order correlation, or point biserial correlation. Between-group comparisons were carried out using t-tests and ANOVA. Mediation and moderation were tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures based on regression, with mediation analyses supplemented by the Sobel test.

To select pathways suitable to be examined in mediation analysis, Baron and Kenny's (1986) preliminary assumptions were verified. These assumptions are that first, the predictor is associated with the outcome; second, the predictor is associated with the mediator; and third, the mediator is associated with the outcome.

To test for moderation, both linear and interaction (moderation) relationships were examined. Firstly, the moderator and the independent variable were centred to reduce the impact of multicollinearity (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Secondly, the interaction term was computed by multiplying the centred moderator and predictor variables. Finally, the centred moderator, centred predictor, and interaction term were entered in the same step to test their relationship with the outcome variable. Regression was also used to evaluate the predictive ability of various factors on criterion variables. In regression analyses, dichotomous variables were dummy coded.

While a number of regression analyses were performed, each had a cases:predictor ratio of at least 17.7:1, which was sufficient for a reliable model (Field, 2005). No correlations were above .63, and no variance inflation indices exceeded 1.15, indicating that multicollinearity did not present a problem (Field, 2005; Myers, 1990).

Chapter 7: Results

7.1 Factor Analysis

Principal components analysis was performed on the scales used in the study, and the results concerning each scale are reported below.

Job crafting. For the job crafting questionnaire items, principal components analysis revealed six components with eigenvalues above 1, accounting for 21.1%, 13.1%, 10.0%, 7.6%, 5.9%, and 4.8% of the variance, respectively. Next, visual inspection of the screeplot and parallel analysis was carried out. A simulation using Monte Carlo PCA (Watkins, 2000), based on 21 variables and 200 participants, revealed that the eigenvalues of only four components obtained from PCA were found to exceed the randomly generated eigenvalues. Thus, a four-component solution was preferred.

The four-component solution explained 51.8% of the variance, with Components 1 to 4 contributing 21.1%, 13.1%, 10.0%, and 7.6%, respectively. A Varimax rotation provided the best-defined factor structure. All items had primary loadings above .3, with no cross-loading of items.

Autonomy. Although Karasek (1985) identified two subscales (skill discretion and decision authority) in the decision latitude scale from the Job Contents Questionnaire, PCA of the current data identified a single factor accounting for 45.3 percent of the variance. Therefore a single scale comprising the mean of all 9 items was used as the measure of autonomy.

Engagement. A single factor accounting for 59.0 percent of the variance was identified. Therefore, a single scale comprising the mean of all nine items from the UWES-9 was used

Stress. According to Goldberg (1972), the short version of the GHQ yields a unidimensional measure; this was confirmed by analysis of the current data which identified a single factor accounting for 47.2% of the variance. All 12 items were retained.

7.2 Demographic Information

There were no significant gender differences in the number of coaching sessions received. Women were more likely than men to engage in two aspects of job crafting: attempts to *increase social job resources*, (t (186) = -2.32, p <.05, eta squared = .028) and to *increase challenging job demands*, (t (188) = -2.12, p< .05, eta squared = .023). Women also reported higher levels of engagement (t (189) = -2.61, p<.05, eta squared = .035). No other gender differences were found.

Older workers reported more autonomy and engagement, and lower levels of intention to leave and stress than younger workers (Table 2). Older workers also reported more attempts at *decreasing hindering job demands* and *increasing social job resources*, but not at *increasing structural job resources* or *challenging job demands*. There were no significant age differences on number of coaching sessions received or self-rated job performance.

Participants who engaged in *increasing structural job resources* were less likely to *decrease* their *hindering job demands* but more likely to *increase challenging job demands. Increasing structural job resources* was not related to *increasing social job resources* (Table 2). Respondents who attempted to *decrease hindering job demands* were less likely to attempt to *increase challenging job demands*. *Decreasing hindering job demands* was not related to *increasing social job resources*. *Increasing social job resources* did not relate significantly to any of the other job crafting scales.

Finally, participants with higher autonomy received more coaching sessions, reported greater engagement, self-rated performance, and more attempts at *increasing structural resources* and *increasing challenging demands,* but fewer attempts at *decreasing hindering demands.*

Table 2 presents the intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations for all study variables.

Table 2

Bivariate correlations, means, and standard deviations of study variables

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	-										
2. Number of coaching sessions [a]	-.01	-									
3. Job crafting: Increasing structural job resources	.12	.10	-								
4. Job crafting: Decreasing hindering job demands	-.18*	-.08	-.21**	-							
5. Job crafting: Increasing social job resources	-.26**	.12	.06	.07	-						
6. Job crafting: Increasing challenging job demands	.02	.23**	.43**	-.24**	.07	-					
7. Autonomy	.22*	.22*	.63**	-.32**	-.07	.51**	-				
8. Self-rated work performance	.03	.06	.32**	-.18*	-.05	.17*	.22*	-			
9. Engagement	.24**	.17*	.41**	-.20**	.01	.33**	.49**	.42**	-		
10. Intention to leave [b]	-.23*	.10	-.03	.08	.04	-.03	-.09	-.14	-.51**	-	
11. Stress	-.22**	-.14*	.01	.01	-.02	.05	.01	-.31**	-.32**	.44**	-
Mean	-	-	4.25	2.45	2.83	3.73	3.29	7.53	4.46	3.91	1.01
Standard Deviation	-	-	.49	.62	.86	.65	.46	1.26	.85	2.32	.45

Note. Intention to leave was coded as 0 = low, 1 = high

*p < 0.05 (2-tailed)   **p < 0.01 (2-tailed)

[a] Spearman rank order correlation; [b] point biserial correlation; all other correlations are Pearson product-moment

7.3 Hypothesis Testing

Partial support was found for Hypothesis 1, that attempts at *increasing challenging job demands*, *social resources*, and *structural resources* would be positively related to engagement and performance, and negatively to stress and intention to leave the organisation. Participants who made attempts at *increasing challenging demands* and *increasing structural resources* had higher self-rated job performance and engagement (Table 2). However, attempts to *increase social job resources* were unrelated to performance and engagement. Moreover, attempts at these three forms of job crafting were not associated with lower levels of stress or intentions to leave.

Hypothesis 2 posited that attempts at *decreasing hindering job demands* would be positively related to engagement and performance, and negatively to stress and intention to leave the organisation. Although attempts at *decreasing hindering job demands* did significantly relate to engagement and performance, this relationship was not in the expected direction. Accordingly, the hypothesis was not supported.

Hypothesis 3, that coaching would be positively related to self-rated job performance and engagement, and negatively related to stress and intention to leave, was partially supported. The number of coaching sessions received was positively related to engagement and negatively to stress, but not to self-rated job performance or intention to leave.

Partial support was also found for Hypothesis 4, that participants who had received work-related coaching would be more likely to attempt job crafting than those who had not. The number of coaching sessions received was positively related to *increasing challenging job demands* but not to the other job crafting scales.

In order to test Hypothesis 5, that an individual's level of autonomy at work would moderate the relationship between coaching and each of the four job crafting dimensions, moderated regression analyses were performed. Due to technical difficulties, a relatively small number of cases for the autonomy variable were available (n = 108). However, with 3 predictors there were 36 cases per predictor, sufficient to proceed with regression analyses. Following Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommendations, both linear and interaction (moderation) relationships were examined. None of the interaction terms reached significance, however, and so there was no evidence of moderation. Hypothesis 4 was therefore not supported.

Hypothesis 6, that job crafting would mediate the relationship between coaching and outcomes, was partially supported. One dimension of job crafting, *increasing challenging job demands*, was examined as a mediator as it met Baron and Kenny's (1986) preliminary assumptions. *Increasing challenging job demands* fully mediated the relationship between number of coaching sessions and engagement. The significant relationship between coaching and engagement at Step 1 was reduced to non-significance with the introduction of the mediator in Step 3 (Table 3).

Table 3

Increasing challenging job demands as the mediator between number of coaching sessions and engagement

	DV	IV	B	SE B	β	Adj. R²	Sobel test
Hypothesis 3							
Step 1	Engagement	Number of coaching sessions	.13	.05	.17*	.02	
Step 2	Challenging job demands	Number of coaching sessions	.11	.04	.20**	.03	
Step 3	Engagement	Number of coaching sessions	.08	.05	.11	.11	2.38*
		Challenging job demands	.41	.09	.31***		

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < .001

7.4 Exploratory Analyses

Research Question 1 sought to identify factors that could predict perceived coachee ratings of coaching effectiveness. In total, eight variables were considered. The number of coaching sessions received, the coachee's age, and the frequency of the coaching were entered as continuous variables, while dummy coded variables were the initiator of the coaching (organisation = 0, individual = 1), formalness of coaching (formal = 0, informal = 1), and gender (male = 0, women = 1). These variables were examined using standard multiple regression. The type of coaching arrangement (managerial coaching, external coaching, coaching by HR personnel, colleague/peer coaching) and the coachee's managerial level (self-employed, senior manager/executive, mid-level manager/frontline supervisor, and non-managerial employee) were not able to be entered into the regression model as they both consisted of several non-continuous categories without an appropriate level for a baseline,

and a comparison among all categories was desired. Consequently, ANOVA was used to examine these two variables.

Regression analyses. A standard multiple regression was conducted predicting the coachee's perceived effectiveness of the coaching (Table 4). There were six predictors, entered in a single block. The model as a whole explained a total of 24.1% of the variance in the outcome, F (6, 86) = 4.56, p < .001.

When controlling for the other predictors, the effect of the number of coaching sessions (β = .41, p < .001) and initiator of the coaching (β = .24, p < .05) were the only significant predictors accounting for unique variance in the outcome. The number of coaching sessions was the stronger predictor of the two, given its higher standardised beta value. The frequency of the coaching, whether it was considered formal or informal by the coachee, and the coachee's gender and age were not found to predict perceived effectiveness of the coaching.

Table 4

Relationships of factors to perceived effectiveness of coaching

Predictor	B	SE (B)	β	t	sr^2
Constant	2.63	.50		5.29***	
Number of sessions	.53	.13	.41	4.22***	.16
Frequency of coaching	-.05	.08	-.06	-.64	.00
Initiator of coaching	.50	.20	.24	2.46*	.05
Formalness of coaching	-.05	.20	-.03	-.26	.00
Gender	.29	.22	.13	1.35	.13
Age	.01	.09	.01	.06	.02

Note. Initiator of the coaching was dummy coded as organisation= 0, individual = 1; formalness of coaching was coded as formal = 0, informal = 1; and gender was coded as male = 0, women = 1

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < .001

ANOVA. Separate one-way between group ANOVAs were conducted that examined the impact of type of coaching arrangement *(*managerial coaching, external coaching,

coaching by HR personnel, coaching by colleague/peer) and the coachee's managerial level (self-employed, senior manager/executive, mid-level manager/frontline supervisor, and non-managerial employee) on coachee ratings of perceived effectiveness of the coaching. Regrettably, a two-way ANOVA, which would have permitted a possible interaction effect to be tested (examining whether the effect of type of coaching arrangement on perceived effectiveness depended on the coachee's managerial level) was not able to be performed due to the presence of a number of small and uneven group sizes.

A statistically significant difference in scores on perceived effectiveness was evident only for type of coaching arrangement: F (3, 98) = 5.29, p = .002. The effect size for this result was small: eta squared = .14. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test revealed that the mean score for coaching by colleagues/peers (M = 2.90, SD = 1.37) was significantly lower than the score for the managerial coaching (M = 4.10, SD = .81) and external coaching groups (M = 4.19, SD = .97), but not the coaching by HR personnel group (M = 4.20, SD = .84). No significant differences were found between the managerial coaching, coaching by HR personnel, or external coaching groups. Thus, coaching by colleagues/peers was perceived as the least effective arrangement.

Chapter 8: Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to examine work-related coaching within a framework of job crafting in order to see if job crafting could explain how outcomes are attained in coaching – that is, whether it played a mediating role. The moderating role of autonomy in the relationship between coaching and job crafting was also investigated. Finally, a number of factors were examined for their ability to predict coaching effectiveness, as perceived and rated by coachees.

8.1 Main Findings

Coaching and its relationship with job crafting and outcomes. Participants who had received work-related coaching were found to be significantly more likely to *increase challenging job demands*, report greater engagement, and have lower levels of stress. While these findings need to be confirmed, it appears that coaching may be related to attempts to increase the positive, stimulating aspects of work. It did not appear to be related to attempts at reducing job stressors or to building structural and social resources, which in many organisations are likely to be limited. Given that, to the author's knowledge, the relationship between coaching and job crafting has not previously been explored in the literature, the study has made a small contribution by providing some initial evidence as to the types of coachee behaviours which may and may not be associated with coaching interventions. Further research is needed, however. Moreover, the key correlations discussed above, while significant, were in fact small. Specifically, the strength of the relationship between coaching and *increasing challenging demands* was .23, between coaching and engagement it was .17, and between coaching and stress it was -.14.

The finding that coaching was positively related to engagement and negatively to stress is consistent with previous research (Arakawa & Greenberg, 2007; Grant et al., 2009; Grant, Green, et al., 2010). That coaching was not significantly related to performance is perhaps not altogether surprising given the mixed research findings discussed previously concerning these two variables. However, it is not known whether participants in fact intended that their coaching would be aimed at improving job performance. An analysis focusing on those who had this aim for their coaching may have produced a different conclusion. Coaching did not relate significantly to lower intention to leave, in contrast with the findings of Park (2008).

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This relationship appears to have been explored in few other studies, part of the wider issue of a noticeable lack of replication of findings within the coaching literature. This highlights the need for further coaching outcome studies, particularly on performance.

Job crafting and its relationship with outcomes. Those who reported attempts at both *increasing structural resources* and *increasing challenging demands* had higher performance and engagement, while those who reported attempts at *decreasing hindering demands* had lower performance and engagement. *Increasing social resources* did not significantly relate to any of the outcomes. Thus, of the four outcome variables examined (performance, engagement, stress, intention to leave), job crafting, as a whole, was most consistently linked with performance and engagement. This is consistent with previous research findings (Bakker et al., 2012; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2012). However, *increasing social resources* was expected to relate to engagement, and perhaps to performance, but it did not. None of the job crafting dimensions were found to relate to intention to leave or to stress. Few job crafting studies have investigated these particular outcome variables, however, and so it is difficult to compare findings.

A possible interpretation of the findings of this study is that job crafting may be more immediately applicable to motivation and performance rather than health-related and turnover-related outcomes. However, more job crafting research is needed that focuses on the latter set of outcomes in order to confidently make this conclusion.

In previous research, *decreasing hindering demands* has been found to be related to few outcomes (see Chapter five), and in the present study it was expected to relate positively with performance and engagement. Surprisingly, the reverse was found: participants who reported *decreasing hindering demands* also reported lower levels of performance and engagement. *Decreasing hindering job demands*, thought to occur as a coping strategy when demands are perceived to be overwhelming, is conceptually distinct, and independent, from the other three dimensions (Petrou et al., 2012; Tims et al., 2012). Still, intuitively it would be expected that minimising hindrances would result in a better working environment for the individual, thereby resulting in outcomes such as more engagement and better performance and less stress and intention to leave. On the other hand, Petrou et al. (2012) suggests that *reducing demands* results in a less stimulating environment because some challenges are also inevitably reduced.

Further possible ways of interpreting *decreasing hindering job demands* may be as an indicator of low motivation (Petrou, 2012) or an overly negative work environment. That is, if

an individual does perform this type of job crafting, it may be that they are aiming to restore the so-called 'hygiene factors' to an acceptable level. According to Herzberg's two-factor theory of work motivation, job attitudes are affected by motivation factors and hygiene factors (Herzberg, Mausner, & Synderman, 1959). Hygiene factors are termed as such since a basic level is required to prevent dissatisfaction, but they are not sufficient to alone provide satisfaction. In much the same way, perhaps addressing hindrance demands cannot be expected to promote engagement and performance and other positive outcomes beyond a level that the individual is accustomed to.

The way in which a number of the items in the *decreasing hindering job demands* subscale of the Job Crafting Scale are phrased indicates that these behaviours could, in some cases, even be counterproductive work behaviours, and not positively-intended job crafting/coping behaviours. An illustration is "I try to ensure that I do not have to make many difficult decisions at work". Petrou et al. (2012) suggest that if there is a dysfunctional side to job crafting, as has been proposed (Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), *decreasing hindering job demands* would be the dimension that illuminates this.

It is plausible, therefore, that any expected positive gains resulting from *decreasing hindering job demands* to improve working conditions may be counterbalanced, or even overridden, by the fact that some challenges are lost, that the work environment may have been unacceptable to the individual and is now either merely acceptable or is just less negative, that the employee is de-motivated, and/or is engaging in counterproductive work behaviours. That *decreasing hindering demands* was negatively associated with performance and engagement in the present study provides support for this view.

More research is clearly needed, on both *decreasing hindering job demands* and the dysfunctional side of job crafting. For example, Oldham and Hackman (2010) have suggested that the effects of job crafting on co-workers' job satisfaction and productivity are examined. Perhaps considering a broader range of outcome variables in job crafting studies might allow the JCS's *decreasing hindering demands* to be better-understood as a concept, revealing more of its antecedents and outcomes, and to be modified if necessary.

Job crafting as a mediator of the coaching-outcomes relationship. Coachee behaviour change is a little-understood aspect of coaching. On the one hand, it is valued by organisational buyers of coaching services (Dagley, 2010a), coaches (Bono et al., 2009), and coachees (Wasylyshyn, 2003). However, little has been written about which specific

behaviours are believed to change, and which would constitute a successful outcome, particularly from the perspective of the organisation.

Coaching research has so far taken something of a 'black box' approach – that while there is some evidence to suggest that it *does* work, little is understood as to *how* it works. As a number of possible mechanisms (relating to both behavioural and personal change) for outcome attainment in coaching have been identified in qualitative studies, the present study sought to extend this idea by examining job crafting.

A finding of particular interest in this study is that one form of job crafting, *increasing challenging job demands,* fully mediated the relationship between number of coaching sessions and engagement. This suggests that coaching may help coachees to experience more engagement with their job by promoting deliberate efforts to make the work environment more rich and stimulating; that is, by going 'over and above' formal job requirements. In many ways, this finding is in line with, and lends support to, the goal-focused and action-oriented approach that characterises coaching.

With four job crafting dimensions and four outcomes, there were theoretically 16 potential pathways which could have been mediated regarding the coaching–job crafting–outcomes sequence. Thus, it is recognised that this finding concerning only one aspect of job crafting and one outcome is not particularly robust.

It is possible that, while it may be the case that some intermediary behaviours are more important than others for the attainment of outcomes, in some situations a whole set of behaviours may need to happen to produce a synergistic effect. Indeed, Dagley (2010b) noted the interdependency of the coaching mechanisms he identified, and the considerable difficulty in treating them as separate. Regarding job crafting, examining each job crafting dimension in isolation may potentially be the reason for a lack of strong relationships with outcomes. Future research could analyse all dimensions together to link job crafting to a range of outcomes, perhaps using structural equation modelling. It is considered that further quantitative research at the process level of coaching has considerable merit as there are substantial gaps within the literature to fill.

Autonomy as a moderator of the coaching-job crafting relationship. Autonomy was not found to moderate the relationship between coaching and attempts at any of the four forms of job crafting. This lack of moderation may be due to the following reasons. First, the sample for these analyses was restricted due to technical difficulties in that there were

no autonomy data available for participants who had not received coaching. Second, professionals, who likely have higher levels of autonomy than the rest of the working population, were overrepresented in the sample. Many of those professionals were at a high level in their organisation (27.5% were senior managers/executives or self-employed and a further 28.5% were mid-level managers/supervisors). The mean autonomy score, as rated on a scale ranging from 1 to 4, was 3.29; the standard deviation was .46. Taken together, the above points suggest that the participants in the sample generally had high autonomy and this may have affected the results.

It would seem almost self-evident, however, that an individual's autonomy affects the degree to which they can make changes in their job, and the findings of previous job crafting studies suggest that this is the case (Bakker et al., 2012; Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Petrou et al., 2012). It is suggested that the investigation of the role of autonomy in job crafting be replicated again in future research. Indeed, that autonomy showed medium-to-strong correlations with three of the four job crafting dimensions in this study indicates that it is an important factor.

It is also possible that age affects job crafting. That older workers were less likely to attempt to *increase social job resources* may relate to either their greater experience in the world of work, or their greater seniority in the organisation and therefore reflect either less need to approach others for support and feedback or an inhibition to do so based on norms and expectations on the appropriateness of doing so. Older workers were also less likely to *decrease hindering job demands,* although it is unclear why this was the case. Age, therefore, is a factor that likely impacts job crafting and, given that this has not yet been identified, it should be further investigated, and perhaps controlled for, in future research.

Predictors of perceived effectiveness, as rated by coachees. A number of factors were examined for their ability to predict ratings of effectiveness of the coaching. The study also examined whether certain types of coaching arrangements (e.g., external coaching) were perceived as more effective than others, and whether coachees from different managerial levels perceive coaching's effectiveness differently. The use of perceived effectiveness of the coaching has the advantage of being able to suggest factors that are important for successful coaching, regardless of the original purpose of the coaching.

The number of coaching sessions and initiation of the coaching by the coachee (rather than the organisation) were significant predictors of coaching effectiveness, as rated by coachees. The frequency of the coaching, whether it was formal or informal, and the coachee's gender

and age did not predict perceived effectiveness of the coaching. That coachees were more likely to view coaching as effective when they themselves initiated it is consistent with self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000), which has shown that exercising one's autonomy fosters motivation for and engagement with activities. While it is possible that certain characteristics such as the frequency of the coaching and whether it is formal or informal have a negligible impact on effectiveness, the non-significant difference found in this study may have been partly because participants, on the whole, received coaching that was appropriately tailored (namely, in terms of frequency and type) to their own unique needs and objectives. Research involving random assignment to different conditions of coaching may be needed to draw stronger conclusions regarding factors which contribute to effectiveness. Further, it is possible that men and women, and individuals of a range of ages may benefit to a similar extent from coaching, although differences involved in coaching different types of clients almost certainly exist. Future studies could examine how coaches adjust their approach from client to client.

Coaching from peers/colleagues was rated as the least effective arrangement, while managers, external coaches, and HR personnel were perceived as equally effective as coaches. This is in line with findings of Sue-Chan and Latham (2004) who examined experienced managers in an Executive MBA programme. Those who received external coaching or self-coaching received higher grades than did those coached by a peer. Peers were reportedly not perceived as effective because they did not have greater experience in the work context than the coachee. The results from the present study as well as those from Sue-Chan and Latham suggest that coach experience and credibility are likely to be very important attributes.

It is plausible that managers and external coaches were seen as equally effective because, on the one hand, an external coach may have more experience coaching others due to their specialisation, but a manager likely has a stronger relationship with the person (a crucial factor in the successfulness of coaching) and better understands their job and the organisation and the people within it.

Coachees of differing managerial levels were not found to perceive coaching as any more or any less effective, suggesting that coaching for self-employed individuals, senior managers/executives, mid-level managers/supervisors, and non-managerial employees may be equally effective (the mean level of perceived effectiveness was 4.01, as rated on a scale ranging from 1-5).

More replication in future research is needed to confirm the above findings. There were unequal group sizes in the ANOVAs and this may have affected the analyses. For example, there were only six participants who had received coaching by HR personnel, and this may have masked significant differences between other groups.

8.2 Limitations and Implications for Future Research

First, due to the timeframe involved in the study, it was necessary to settle for a cross-sectional rather than a repeated measures research design. Since a cross-sectional design examines relationships between variables at a single point in time, causation can be implied but it cannot be conclusively demonstrated. To illustrate, three of the four job crafting dimensions were found to be related to engagement and performance (positively in the case of *increasing structural resources* and *increasing challenging demands*, and negatively for *decreasing hindering demands*). One possible interpretation is that crafting job characteristics may enable individuals to experience more engagement and perform better. However, engagement may, at the same time, also promote job crafting. Indeed, there is recent evidence to support both possibilities; that is, that the relationship between job crafting and engagement might be dynamic (Bakker, 2011). Similarly, while job crafting may increase performance, job crafting might just be one type of behaviour that characterises high-performing workers. Further, mediation implies a causal sequence. Therefore, the idea that job crafting (namely, *increasing challenging demands*) mediates the relationship between coaching and outcomes (namely, engagement) might be investigated in further studies that utilise a design that allows causality to be more conclusively tested.

Second, the sample used in this study is unlikely to be representative of the workforce in terms of gender, age, industry type, position/level in the organisation, and so forth. Further, professionals are over-represented. It is therefore treated as a convenience, self-selected, non-random sample, and caution needs to be exercised when generalising these findings to other samples.

Third, many of the participants who identified themselves as coachees would also have had experience in coaching others. This is made more likely because coaching interest groups were targeted by the researcher. It is possible that this type of participant would have a different experience of coaching than those who are not themselves coaching practitioners, either current or past. For example, it is conceivable that a coach may be the type of person

more likely to engage in outcome-focused, proactive behaviours, such as job crafting. How, specifically, the coaching aims, process, and outcomes differ between coach and non-coach coachees remains unexplored in research and would be an interesting area for further investigation.

Similarly, the link between coaching and *increasing challenging demands* might be partly explained by the suggestion that people who received coaching may be more likely to be the type of person to engage in crafting; that is, a person with a proactive personality, interested in setting goals and in their personal and professional development. Some of the participants, especially the self-employed and senior managers, likely had the choice of whether they had coaching or not. In studies involving interventions that are expected to foster job crafting (e.g., coaching), proactive personality should be a factor that is measured and controlled for.

A fourth potential limitation of the study may be due to individuals' understanding and perception of what coaching is. As discussed, there appears to be no consensus in the literature whether coaching is best considered a formal arrangement or an informal, day-to-day set of behaviours, or whether both conceptualisations are equally valid. Accordingly, participants were given a degree of latitude to decide whether what they had received was, in fact, coaching. As a result, individuals who had received training, mentoring, or professional development may have considered themselves as coachees. Conversely, potential participants who received coaching which was not explicitly acknowledged as such (e.g., managerial coaching) may have considered themselves ineligible to complete the questionnaire. Thus, coaching may, to an extent, be a matter of interpretation.

A number of coaching studies have focused on coaching interventions occurring within particular organisations and/or have used experimental designs. However, research examining informal coaching arrangements and/or targeting a more diverse audience, such as this study, could incorporate a coaching scale (e.g., McLean et al., 2005). In doing so, this may allow coaching to be further operationalised, not only as the number of sessions, but also the degree to which coaching behaviours are used – and thus, the extent to which coaching can truly be said to be occurring.

The future research agenda of work-related coaching should prioritise a focus on coachee behaviour change, particularly in quantitative outcome studies. Whether certain coaching arrangements are more beneficial for coachees of certain managerial levels is a further question deserving attention.

8.3 Implications for Practice

The findings from this study suggest that workers can be 'taught' (i.e., coached) to perform at least one form of job crafting. Job crafting is a concept of importance to organisations due to its links with outcomes, particularly engagement and performance, which are evident in the present study as well as in previous research. Bakker et al. (2012) have argued that because managers are not always available for their employees, employees should shape their own job demands and resources through proactive job crafting behaviour.

Job crafting (namely, *increasing challenging demands*) represents a set of behaviours associated with coaching interventions. Not only that, *increasing challenging job demands*, was found to be the mechanism by which coached participants increased their engagement at work. This has implications for the focus of the coaching and the types of changes to encourage employees to make in their job when the desired outcome is increased engagement. To achieve that end, coachees could be encouraged to take on new challenges and stretch their capabilities (provided that core job functions are not negatively affected).

Coaches also who are interested in their own professional development, the professionalisation of the field, and in justifying the effectiveness of what they do, are likely to also benefit from more outcome studies such as this one.

More coaching sessions were associated with greater perceived effectiveness. This provides further support for the idea that coaching does in fact work, giving purchasers and recipients more confidence with the process. Because self-initiated coaching was perceived as more effective, this is likely to be well-received by professional/external coaches, whose clients are likely be mostly self-referred. An implication for organisations with an interest in using coaching is that a coaching culture should be encouraged, where workers are encouraged to approach their manager for coaching, and requests to work with an external coach should be considered. However, organisations should be aware that coaching from peers/colleagues may be perceived as the least effective arrangement. Thus, an organisation wanting to implement this type of coaching should either reconsider, or provide training to the would-be-coach in how to coach others.

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that coaching may be a useful tool for individual and organisational clients, particularly to increase engagement and decrease stress.

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Appendix A: Invitation to Participate, Sent via Email

School of Psychology
Massey University
Albany
Auckland 0745
New Zealand

Hello everyone,

My name is Andrew Lunt and I am working on my Master's thesis in Industrial/Organisational psychology at Massey University. My research supervisor is Dianne Gardner.

My study aims to explore the relationship between work-related coaching and job crafting (changing aspects of the job). **I would like participants who have received work-related coaching as well as those who have not.**

I would appreciate it very much if you would complete the survey and forward this invitation to others who would be interested, such as email groups, colleagues, friends or clients.

The survey is quick to complete (less than 10 minutes) and mainly consists of multiple-choice answers. All information is anonymous.

The link to the survey is
https://qasiasingleuser.asia.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_eYidCxHTjY1qyCU

Once the study is complete I will provide a summary of the findings. If you would like to receive this there is a link at the end of the survey. I am also happy to give a presentation on my research later in the year.

I realise that many people will be members of more than one email group so I apologise for any cross-posting.

If you would like more information please let me know (andrew.idco@xtra.co.nz) or contact my supervisor (D.H.Gardner@massey.ac.nz).

Many thanks,

Andrew Lunt

Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet and Questionnaire

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES
AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
TE KURA PŪKENGA TANGATA

Work-related coaching, job crafting and outcomes

My name is Andrew Lunt and I am working on my Master's thesis in Industrial / Organisational Psychology.

My study aims to explore the relationship between work-related coaching and job crafting (changing aspects of the job). I would like participants who have received work-related coaching as well as those who have not.

> *Coaching is the process of equipping people with the tools, knowledge, and opportunities they need to develop themselves and become more effective*.

I would be very grateful if you would take part in my study. Your participation is, of course, voluntary. All information you provide is anonymous, collected through a secure online survey provider. If you do not want to answer a particular question, just leave that question blank.

I would like to offer a summary report of the findings (once the data have been analysed).

At the end of the survey, you can click on a link that sends me an email, letting me know that you would like this summary report.

The questionnaire will take less than 10 minutes to complete. If you would like to take part please click through to the next page.

If you have any questions about this project, please contact me or my research supervisor, Dr. Dianne Gardner.

Thank you,
Andrew Lunt

Researcher	**Supervisor**
Andrew Lunt	Dr Dianne Gardner
School of Psychology	School of Psychology
Massey University	Massey University
Albany	Albany
Auckland 0745	Auckland 0745
New Zealand	New Zealand
027 415-3265	+64 9 414-0800 ext 41225
andrew.idco@xtra.co.nz	D.H.Gardner@massey.ac.nz

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees.
The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor John O'Neill, Director, Research Ethics, telephone 06 350 5249, email humanethics@massey.ac.nz.

Respondent Consent

I have read and understood the information sheet for this study and consent to collection of my responses

- O Yes
- O No

Section 1

Statements about work

Which option most accurately describes your experience with work- related coaching?

- O I am currently receiving work-related coaching
- O I am not currently receiving work-related coaching, but have done in the past 5 years
- O I have never received work-related coaching (or the coaching was more than 5 years ago)

For the next four questions on this page, please think of your **most recent** experience with work-related coaching.

How many work-related coaching sessions have you received?

0	1	2	3-5	5-10	11+
O	O	O	O	O	O

How frequently do you receive (or did you receive) work-related coaching?

○ several times per week

○ once every week

○ once every two weeks

○ once every month

○ once every two months

○ once every three months

○ once every six months

○ once every year

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Overall, I am satisfied with the work-related coaching I have received.	○	○	○	○	○
Overall, I think the work-related coaching I have received has been effective.	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
My job requires that I learn new things	O	O	O	O	O
My job involves a lot of repetitive work	O	O	O	O	O
My job requires me to be creative	O	O	O	O	O
My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own	O	O	O	O	O
My job requires a high level of skill	O	O	O	O	O
On my job, I am given a lot of freedom to decide how I do my work	O	O	O	O	O
I get to do a variety of things on my job	O	O	O	O	O
I have a lot to say about what happens on my job	O	O	O	O	O
I have an opportunity to develop my own special abilities	O	O	O	O	O

Thinking about your job and your work, please rate the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I try to develop my capabilities	O	O	O	O	O
I try to develop myself professionally	O	O	O	O	O
I try to learn new things at work	O	O	O	O	O
I make sure that I use my capacities to the fullest	O	O	O	O	O
I decide on my own how I do things	O	O	O	O	O
I make sure that my work is mentally less intense	O	O	O	O	O
I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense	O	O	O	O	O
I manage my work so that I try to minimize contact with people whose problems affect me emotionally	O	O	O	O	O
I organize my work so as to minimize contact with people whose expectations are unrealistic	O	O	O	O	O
I try to ensure that I do not have to make many difficult decisions at work	O	O	O	O	O

Thinking about your job and your work, please rate the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I organize my work in such a way to make sure that I do not have to concentrate	O	O	O	O	O
I ask my supervisor to coach me	O	O	O	O	O
I ask whether my supervisor is satisfied with my work	O	O	O	O	O
I look to my supervisor for inspiration	O	O	O	O	O
I ask others for feedback on my job performance	O	O	O	O	O
I ask colleagues for advice	O	O	O	O	O
When an interesting project comes along, I offer myself proactively as project co-worker	O	O	O	O	O
If there are new developments, I am one of the first to learn about them and try them out	O	O	O	O	O
When there is not much to do at work, I see it as a chance to start new projects	O	O	O	O	O
I regularly take on extra tasks even though I do not receive extra salary for them	O	O	O	O	O
I try to make my work more challenging by examining the underlying relationships between aspects of my job	O	O	O	O	O

Please rate your overall work performance during the past four weeks. Consider the quantity and quality of the work you did, how well you got along with others, special work successes and failures, and accidents or injuries.

Worst possible performance a person could have on this job

Top work performance

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Overall work performance											

The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and select the option that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Never (never)	Almost never (a few times a year or less)	Rarely (once a month or less)	Sometimes (a few times a month)	Often (once a week)	Very often (a few times a week)	Always (every day)
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
I am enthusiastic about my job.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
My job inspires me.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
I am proud of the work that I do	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
I am immersed in my work.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
I get carried away while I am working.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Please rate the following statements.

Thoughts about quitting this job cross my mind
- O Never
- O Rarely
- O Sometimes
- O Often
- O Very often
- O All the time

I plan to look for a new job within the next 12 months.
- O Strongly disagree
- O Moderately disagree
- O Slightly disagree
- O Neither agree nor disagree
- O Slightly agree
- O Moderately agree
- O Strongly agree

How likely is it that, over the next year, you will actively look for a new job outside of this organisation?
- O Very unlikely
- O Moderately unlikely
- O Somewhat unlikely
- O Somewhat likely
- O Moderately likely
- O Very likely

Have you recently:

	Better/healthier than normal	Same as usual	Worse/more than usual	Much worse/more than usual
been able to concentrate on what you're doing?	O	O	O	O
lost much sleep over worry?	O	O	O	O
felt that you are playing a useful part in things?	O	O	O	O
felt capable of making decisions about things?	O	O	O	O
felt constantly under strain?	O	O	O	O
felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?	O	O	O	O
been able to enjoy your normal day to day activities?	O	O	O	O
been able to face up to your problems?	O	O	O	O
been feeling unhappy or depressed?	O	O	O	O
been losing confidence in yourself?	O	O	O	O
been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?	O	O	O	O
been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?	O	O	O	O

Demographics

Demographic Information

We are interested in gathering some demographic information. Please tick the relevant boxes

What is your gender?

O   Male

O   Female

What is your current age?

O   Under 20

O   20 to 29

O   30 to 39

O   40 to 49

O   50 to 59

O   60 or over

Please indicate your level in the organisation.

O   Senior manager / executive

O   Mid-level manager

O   First line supervisor

O   Non-managerial employee

O   Self-employed

O   Other

Work-related Coaching

Some questions about your **most recent** experience of work coaching.

In what way has coaching helped you to change your job or to make changes in your job?

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What was the focus or objective of the coaching you received?

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Who is (or was) your coach?
- O My manager / supervisor
- O A colleague / peer at work
- O A staff member from the human resources department
- O A coach external to the organisation
- O A friend away from work

Who arranged for the coaching to happen?
- O Initiated by the organisation
- O Initiated myself

How would you describe the coaching?
- O Formal
- O Informal