

California State University Northridge

Effectiveness of Coach Specific Training on Senior Level Leaders;
With an Emphasis on Transformational Leadership.

A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

By

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December 2019

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Acknowledgements

My academic journey began when I dropped out of high school and my father's unwavering commitment to see me receive a college education. He was not satisfied until I received a doctorate. If it were not for his love, encouragement and sacrifice I would not be here today. My loving husband William, I can't express how much your love, support, patience, generosity, work-ethic, and sense of humor have inspired me to be a better woman. To my mother who taught me how to be a strong woman, who doesn't take no for an answer, who prevails regardless of the challenge's life throws her way. Thank you for teaching me fortitude, modeling tenacity, and sharing your mad shopping skills with me. To Coco and Roxy who would pull me away from my work to play and remind me it was time to go to bed. To Joel for all of your generosity, guidance, insight, and patience. We spent endless hours discussing my research, your guidance and recommendations were pivotal in my successful completion of this process. You went above and beyond to help me throughout this project, and I look forward to our continued collaboration. In addition, thank you to my supportive dissertation committee. Erika for your commitment to academic integrity. Rick for being a sounding board, for challenging my ideas, and helping me to narrow my focus. To Harry for your flexibility, support, and calming demeanor. To Pete, I am grateful for the countless hours you spent with me navigating this process. You are a patient, kind and generous person. No matter how many times I became confused or overwhelmed you were steadfast in assuring me that it was simply part of the process and it would all work out. Thank you!

Dedication

This academic work is dedicated to my loving family. Thank you for your love, support, patience, and understanding I couldn't have done it without you.

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Abstract

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Training, employee development, and leadership are integral to organizational success. Coach specific training (CST) has been shown to positively impact leadership effectiveness and employee development. Previous study of CST has not been attempted to quantify the impact of CST on coaching knowledge or leadership style. The current study seeks to fill this gap by utilizing a quasi-experimental design to empirically test the effectiveness of a CST professional development program, emphasizing transformational leadership, on senior level leaders. This study pre and post-tests the level of senior level leader's knowledge of coaching and their propensity towards three styles of leadership: transformational; transactional; and, laissez-faire. The intervention for this study consisted of a twenty-one-hour CST leadership program with an emphasis on transformational leadership provided to twelve leaders who agreed to participate

and who completed two assessments, International Coach Federation's (ICF) Coach Knowledge Assessment (CKA) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), pre and post training.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Leadership is critical for organizational survival as it impacts every facet of the organization from the development of new products and services, employee satisfaction, employee productivity, to the level of customer satisfaction. Leadership is about so much more than making decisions and giving directions. It is through leadership that an organization establishes a culture of achievement, supports a willingness to pursue excellence, and encourages the mental rigor necessary to eliminate mediocrity. (Fibuch, 2011; Morales et al., 2011)

Organizations consistently seek to improve performance and strengthen competitive advantage through leadership development. Central to the success of development initiatives is fostering a culture of independent individuals and organizational members who are able to reinvent business as required. (Ledgerwood, 2003; Morales, Jimenze-Barrionuevo, & Gutierrez-Gutierrez, 2011) Such capabilities are not nurtured in high compliance systems that frown upon out-of-the-box thinking. These entrepreneurial capabilities rely, in particular, on coaching and leadership skills that emphasize one-to-one dialoguing, subordinate empowerment, and mutually agreed targeting. (Ledgerwood, 2003) Transformational leadership can play a key role in influencing leadership development and performance positively through promotion of intellectual stimulation and encouraging out-of-the-box thinking, thus supporting an innovative approach to problem solving and solutions. In addition, it is suggested that follow-up coaching, is a central mode of successful implementation of leadership development initiatives into the workplace. (Ledgerwood, 2003; Morales et al., 2011; Beer, Finnstorm, & Schrader, 2016).

Senior executives and human resources managers struggle as they continuously look for effective ways to implement organizational change. (Conger, & Fulmer, 2006) (Beer et al., 2016)

Rapid advances in technology, demanding customers, globalization, and fierce competition increase the learning demands for leaders. In 1988 Baldwin and Ford report, although close to a \$100 billion was spent in America annually on leadership training and development not more than 10% of these expenditures resulted in increased job performance. Fast forward to in 2016 and Beer et al., report similar findings of training transfer with an increase of annual spending on training and development to \$165 billion annually, with no increase reported in the percentage of training transfer for leadership development. Thus, demonstrating that much of the traditional methods of leadership development and training have failed to transfer into the workplace. (Baldwin et al., 1988) (Conger, & Fulmer, 2006) (Beer et al., 2016)

The shift within the organizational design and managerial processes required for leadership training and development success lies within the authority of the senior level leaders. (Blumenthal, Bernard, Bohnen, & Bohmer, 2012) (Beer et al., 2016) Leadership development and training initiatives gain the most traction when championed by senior level leaders. In addition to the support of the senior leadership, the implementation of follow-up coaching with leadership training and development combined with leaders who utilize transformational leadership techniques increases the likelihood of the leadership training and development to transfer into the workplace. (Higgs & Rowland, 2010) (Beer et al., 2016; Bass, 1999)

Although there is no universal definition of leadership that is widely accepted, effective leaders across diverse settings demonstrate; the ability to articulate organizational vision and departmental goals, communicate this vision to others while building employee engagement and willing support, demonstrate high levels of understanding for self and others, and actively empower others toward a shared vision through passion and teamwork (Blumenthal, Bernard, Bohnen, and Bohmer, 2012). In turn, transformational leaders connect with their followers,

identify their individual needs, stimulate their intellect through encouraging innovative and creative thinking, and inspire through shared vision and organizational purpose to motivate, engage, and support change within their organizations (Bass, 2000; Morales et al., 2011)

Potentially, the most effective way for leaders and managers to provide this to their employees is through ongoing coaching and performance feedback (Longenecker, 2010). Coaching has emerged as one of the five top leadership development tools to respond to an ever-changing global workplace. (Maltbia, Marsick,, & Ghosh, 2016) Historically, individuals most likely to experience coaching within organizations were senior level leaders. (Grant, Linley, and Geraldine, 2009) However, organizations are increasingly expressing an expectation for managers and leaders to coach their employees, with research identifying the positive correlations between coaching and employee satisfaction, individual performance and organizational goals. (McCarthy, Miller, 2013) (Longenecker, 2010) (Grant et al., 2009)

McCarthy et al., 2013, discuss recent writings on leadership which suggest coaching is linked to effective leadership and management behaviors such as setting clear performance expectations, listening skills and communication to involve others, and an increase in leaders and managers overall self-awareness. In addition, leaders with coaching skills promote reflection and learning, encourage employees to take ownership, and increase employee engagement. (McCarthy, Miller, 2013) (Longenecker, 2010) (Grant et al., 2009) Passmore and Jastrzebska 2011, identify the growing demand for leaders and managers to implement informal coaching on a daily basis and provide more formal coaching when conducting employee development sessions. Passmore et al., (2011) continue to discuss the importance for leaders and managers to be trained in basic coaching skills, including rapport building, managing a learning conversations, using silence to encourage individuals to come up with their own ideas, and

holding an employee in a place of discomfort to provoke critical thinking and personal reflection to facilitate increased self-awareness. Although there is strong demand for leaders and managers to demonstrate coaching skills, they may be reluctant or skeptical if they themselves have not experienced coaching. (Lonenecker, 2010; Passmore et al., 2011; McCarthy et al., 2013) For the most part, many managers and leaders have never been trained in effective or formal coach specific training (CST) and few managers or leaders have coaches to help coach them in effective coaching practices therefore formal coach training is highly recommended for senior level leaders and managers alike (Lonenecker, 2010; Passmore et al., 2011; McCarthy et al., 2013).

In order to address the need of providing CST to senior level leaders, this study tests the level of change in the senior level leaders' coaching knowledge and their propensity toward three styles of leadership; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire pre and post training. Twelve senior level leaders attended a twenty-one hour CST leadership intervention with an emphasis on increasing transformational leadership tendencies. A quasi-experimental design with multiple pretest-posttest measures were used to identify an increase in coaching knowledge and a shift in leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership. The remainder of this document is used to support the research study, present the results and discuss the implication of the results. This study examined the impact of attending a coach specific training (CST) with an emphasis on transformational leadership skills has on the leaders' coaching knowledge and leadership tendencies through examining the literature, practice, methods, outcomes, and empirical studies. This dissertation also elucidates the appropriateness of the research design as well as the outcome measures selected.

Background

Leadership effectiveness has been tied to training, professional development, and leadership style. For leaders to experience successful outcomes of training and development initiatives, the training and development must transfer into the workplace. Key factors of transfer of training are support from senior levels of leadership, the training in question must be relevant to the leaders' day-to-day work environment, and follow-up coaching needs to be in place to support the implementation of the new learning into the workplace. (Longenecker, 2010) (Morales et al., 2011) (Beer et al., 2016)

The CST intervention used within this study has been designed to address these key factors. The selection of senior leaders was made due to the nature of their position being an integral component to organizational wide transfer of training. (Beer et al., 2016) Leaders with coaching knowledge and skills support organizational effectiveness and successful implementation of new learning into the workplace. (Longenecker, 2012) And transformational leadership style adds workplace relevance to the CST leadership intervention. In addition, transformational leadership promotes intellectual stimulation, encourages out-of-the-box thinking, and increases employee motivation which are tied to the successful transfer of training initiatives within the workplace. (Longenecker, 2012) (Morales et al., 2011) (Beer et al., 2016) (Bass, 2000)

Vesso and Alas (2016), examine the complexity of coaching as a discipline that is consistently evolving. Coaching within organizations ranges from external professional coaches, multiple forms of coaching used as a development tool inside the organization, managers using a coaching-based leadership style, to internal coaching provided via in-house coaches. Formal coach training provides techniques and skills that support participation, consistency and responsibility from the employees which can lead to organizational success. (Longenecker,

2012) Coaching core competencies as defined by the Internal Coach Federation (ICF) (see Appendix A) mirror many attributes of effective leadership; active listening, planning and goal setting, managing accountability structure, direct communication, establishing trust, and designing actions for short and long-term organizational success. The use of coaching skills by leaders and managers has become increasingly popular within organizations over the past decade, often referred to as managerial coaching (DiGirolamo & Tkach, 2019). It has become common place to hear senior level leaders tell operational managers to coach their followers without having any formal coach training or understanding about the nature of formal coaching or the intricacies of the coaching relationship giving rise to the urgency for leaders and managers to undergo CST. (DiGirolamo et al., 2019) (Morales et al., 2011) (Beer et al., 2016) (Wasylyshyn, 2003)

The outcomes of effective coaching lie in behavioral changes which can be difficult to facilitate for a leader or manager who lacks formal CST. The most common behavioral changes leaders seek through coaching are; personal behavior change to support professional development, enhancing leadership effectiveness, and strengthening relationships. (Wasylyshyn, 2003) For managers and leaders to effectively implement managerial coaching or provide more formal coaching during employee development sessions they first need to undergo formal coach training. (Vesso et al., 2016) (McCarthy et al., 2013) (Moen et al., 2012) Therefore, CST was chosen as the leadership intervention for senior level leaders with an emphasis on transformational leadership. The purpose of the emphasis on transformational leadership was to add additional workplace relevance to the CST. Having the transformational leadership component within the CST provided a specific leadership topic for coaching breakout sessions within the training event, the intervention assessments provide feedback for the participant to

become more self-aware of their current leadership tendencies, and encouraged planning and goal setting for future development of transformational leadership tendencies to support the overall transfer of the CST into participants workplace. (Beer et al., 2016) (McCarthy et al., 2013) (Moen et al., 2012)

Having a coach has become a sought-after employee benefit in many companies. Having a coach can keep employees focused and connected to their desired outcomes. (Williams and Davis, 2002) Coaches come from myriad of professional backgrounds education levels, and training experience; human resources, organizational consultants, business and professional consultants, clinical psychology, organizational psychology, entrepreneurs, sales and marketing professionals to name a few. (Williams et al, p.11, 2002). There is no agreed upon definition of coaching for the field of personal and professional coaching. There are, however, a variety of definitions provided for coaching, which is the focus of this study.

The International Coach Federation (ICF), which is the largest professional association in the world for the field of personal and professional coaching, defines coaching as: a coach partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximize their personal and professional potential (<https://coachfederation.org/core-competencies>, 2019). Upon reviewing various perspectives and definitions of coaching, for the purposes of this study I define coaching as: a one-on-one person-centered intervention with a coach for the purpose of improving or enhancing interpersonal and professional skills, increasing emotional intelligence, improving social engagement, and providing the coachee with a thought partner throughout the coaching relationship. (Orenstein, 2002) (Bozer, Israel, Sarros, and Santora, 2014) (Bozer, Joo, Santora, 2015) (<https://coachfederation.org/core-competencies>, 2019).

Although the focus of this study is on professional coaching, the field of coaching is not limited to professional or executive coaching. The practice of coaching also includes health and wellness coaches, life or personal coaches, and internal coaches. According to Mettler, Preston, Jenkins, Lackore, Werneburg, Larson, and Vickers (2014), having a health and wellness coach is currently considered to be “best practice” in most wellness programs. Wellness coaches work with clients through the process of lifestyle and behavioral change with an emphasis on relationship development. They partner with their clients encouraging personal growth toward the successful completion of person-selected goals related to health and wellness. A major tool used by wellness coaches is guiding the client in developing social support around the intended change to support long-term sustainability. An ever-growing number of companies are currently offering wellness coaching to their employees. (Mettler et. al, 2014)

The role of the internal coach has emerged from the growing demand for flexible, targeted development options and the acceptance of executive coaching (the executive coach is traditionally an external coach hired to work with senior leaders within the organization). The internal coach is a professional within an organization who, as a recognized part of his/her job establishes a formal coaching relationship with executives and managers. As coaching has become a mainstream offering for managers and executive’s development functions, having an internal coach is a natural progression for organizations to keep up with the demand for leadership development. (Frisch 2001)

History of Coaching. The emergence of coaching occurred from the 1950’s through the 1970’s with the formalization of leadership training and development programs (Kilburg, 2016). Coaching began as a method to deal with struggling managers, however in the 1980’s there was a shift to enhance high performing leader’s skills and abilities (Kilburg, 1996). Prior to the shift

toward working with highly skilled leaders there was no formal training for the individuals who provided coaching, instead the coaching was performed by the manager or supervisor of the struggling direct-report, like mentoring or consulting there was no formal form of change methodology, no evidence-based training or theory to support the work done (Witherspoon & White, 1996). Although it was called coaching, there was no CST involved and, more often than not, would not be considered coaching by today's ICF's standards of coaching competencies (see Appendix A) and code of ethics (see Appendix B). The 1980's was the beginning of viewing the use of a coach as a reward and in some instances as a status symbol, as well as a tool for recruitment into the organization. In the 1980's there was more movement toward the mainstreaming of a formalized definition of the field of coaching (Kilburg, 2016). It wasn't until the 1990's with the formation of ICF that the beginning of a standardized measure of coaching competencies was introduced into the field of coaching.

Although there has been minimal research giving a detailed account of the birth of coaching, the most detailed account coming from Napoli's book originally published in 1941 and again in 1981. Although Napoli's most recent publication is 35 years old it provides a detailed report of the beginnings of the field of coaching. The roots of coaching are steeped in the history of applied psychology. Napoli (1981), provides a comprehensive historical study of the development and professionalization of applied psychology. From the mid 1920's to the late 1940's psychology was one of the first disciplines to evolve and create a public understanding of itself as a profession that began from a foundation of higher education. The field of psychology was broken into three applications; clinical, industrial, and educational. Although all three share; common scientific foundation, set of practice aims and methods, and commitments to the public, clinical, and industrial fell into the category of applied psychology. The practical application of

applied psychology is designed to utilize the methods and findings of scientific psychology to solve interpersonal problems and navigate life experiences. (Napoli, 1981)

Not only does Napoli give a colorful detailed account of how coaching formed from the field of applied psychology he also provides an uncanny prediction of the challenges the practice of coaching is currently facing. As he discusses, the “[e]vents of the post war era... gave little indication that applied psychologist had any coherent vision of the role they might play in American society. They seem to pursue professional status without much understanding of what they would do if they got it” (p. 152). He goes on to say, “...the demand for applied psychologist would expand, but would probably be met not only by a single profession but by the jumble of conflicting groups” (p.152).

Emergence of Professional Associations. Fast forward thirty-five years and the field of coaching, the child of applied psychology, is still struggling to identify itself as a single profession with recognized professional status. The field of coaching is following the footsteps of the field of psychology in their efforts to gain credibility and professional recognition.

Thus, a movement toward professionalization began with the formation of professional associations, beginning in 1994 with the International Association for Professional and Personal Coaches (APPC). In 1995 APPC became the International Coach Federation (ICF), currently the largest professional coach association in the world operating in over 100 countries. ICF has over 20,000 members. The European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) founded in 1992, is the second largest association operating in over 20 countries, with 5,000 members. The third coaching association, Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (WABC) was established in 2002 after assuming full rights to and ownership of the National Association of Business Coaches. WABC is the first coaching association dedicated exclusively to business coaching

with 1,000 members in 30 countries. (Maltbia et. al, 2014) Finally, in 2001 the International Consortium for Health and Wellness Coaching (ICHWC) was formed to identify the knowledge, skills and abilities to successfully function as a health and wellness coach. In May of 2016 ICHWC partnered with the United States National Board of Medical Examiners (NBME) to launch a National Board Certification for Health & Wellness Coaches in 2017. (Jordan, Wolever, Lawson, & Moore, 2015).

Even with the movement toward professionalization these professional associations don't agree on the competencies required for coaching as their competency models vary from 8 -15 identified coaching competencies. The field of coaching is struggling to come to a consensus of a description of what coaching is and the necessary competencies or knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA) to perform as a coach.

Coaching training standards. Despite its importance and growing popularity, coaching remains unregulated and lacking clear definition of the field. With no state or national regulatory board providing licensing, credentialing, or professional designation both consumers and coaches lack structure and guidelines for the practice of coaching and for the consumer to make an informed decision when selecting a coach (Brotman, Liberi, & Wasylyshyn, 1998). What is clear from the developments in the sector is a need for robust evidence-based training and the maintenance of ethical practice (Spence, 2007). Currently becoming a coach is as easy as saying, "I'm a coach."

There are no standards or licensing arrangements in the United States, the UK or Australia. While national or state-managed licensing is some way off, accreditation and training through professional bodies are continuing to grow. The challenge, however, with such a voluntary process is ensuring that coaches participate in credible accredited training and that the

public understand the need for retaining a coach that has some level of certification and/or CST.
(Passmore, 2006)

The issue is still not settled and there is an ongoing debate about the benefits and value of accreditation, training, and licensing. Such debate mirrors much of what has gone before in other professions, such as counselling and psychotherapy, as they moved towards standards in the 1980s (Mowbray, 1995). While the debate continues, the professional bodies have responded through establishing accreditation schemes. Such schemes will help coaches and help clients identify the ‘good’ from the ‘less good’ in the market. (Passmore, 2006)

ICF has established the most rigorous standards to date related to CST through accrediting educational and training programs to offer ICF approved training. ICF developed a Program Accreditation Code of Conduct manual that requires a director of training to provide full oversight of the ICF accredited program. ICF accredits three levels of training programs; Accredited Coach Training Program (ACTP), Approved Coach Specific Training Hours (ACSTH), and Continuing Coach Education (CCE). (<https://coachfederation.org/accredit-a-program>, 2019)

The Center for Credentialing Education (CCE) provides educational and training institutions a Board Certified Coaching (BCC) accreditation for their CST programs. Unlike ICF BCC offers one level of accreditation in programs that provide a 60-hour contact structure. Once a student has completed a BCC approved program, they may apply for coach certification through their organization. (<https://www.cce-global.org/credentialing/bcc>, 2019) ICHWC has also developed an educational and training program accreditation for health and wellness coaches. Like BCC they offer one option for their training program accreditation and once a student has completed an approved accredited program and met additional requirements, they

may apply for certification through all three agencies. (<https://nbhwc.org/become-an-nbc-hwc/>, 2019) (<https://www.cce-global.org/credentialing/bcc>, 2019) (<https://coachfederation.org/icf-credential>, 2019).

Leadership Style. Transformational leadership is intellectually stimulating, individually considerate, and is known for engaging staff in supporting the mission and vision of an organization while promoting a climate of innovation that is open and flexible toward change. (Aarons, Green, Trott, Willging, Torres, Ehrhart, and Roesch, 2016) Leaders who are described as more satisfying to their followers and who are considered to be more effective leaders are more transformational and less transactional (Bass, 1999).

Transactional leaders often cater to the self-interest of their followers by means of contingent reinforcement and positive constructive rewards such as promotion, praise, financial rewards, or other organizational perks. Transactional leaders also provide adverse reinforcement to correct unwanted follower behavior such as demotion, negative feedback or disciplinary action (Bass, 2000). Transactional leadership itself can be somewhat satisfying and effective but transformational leadership adds substantially to the impact of transactional leadership (Bass, 1999). Leadership behaviors that can derail an organization; failure to develop an awareness of self or others, becoming prideful or arrogant, refusal to acknowledge or address negative feedback about declining performance or projects, rationalizing decisions while placing blame on outside influences or others, and finally the organization performance and morale begins to suffer leading to the eventual termination of the leader (Fibuch, 2001). Additional leadership problems arise with passive leadership which has been identified as leaders waiting for problems to surface such as managing-by-exceptions or laissez-faire leadership that abdicates the leadership role (Bass, 2000).

For business leaders to produce sustainable high-performance teams they need to develop themselves and their teams. For employees to actively improve their performance they must know where the need for improvement lies, what knowledge, skills, and abilities they need to acquire for this development, and they need the proper support to implement what they are learning for success to occur. Trust in leadership is required to foster the willingness of the followers to identify with the organization and in turn to internalize its values and the emergence of transcendental organizational citizenship behavior such as; courtesy, sportsmanship, altruism, and civic virtues. For this transformational leadership is needed along with corresponding changes in training and development within the organization (Bass, 1999; Morales et al., 2011).

Problem Statement

Although many authors argue the importance of evidence-based coaching to further the field of coaching as a personal and professional development methodology, exploring the importance of the field of coaching to be informed by a knowledge base that has been constructed from relevant theory, research and practice (Spence, 2006) until now there has not been a call to develop evidence-based CST programs. Of the thousands of CST programs that are accredited by one of the three main professional associations for the field of coaching (ICF, BCC, ICHWC) there is a shortage of evidence-based CST programs. As training relevance is a critical factor in the transfer of learning into the workplace, I have added a focus of transformational leadership to support workplace relevance to the CST leadership intervention to evaluate for substantive impact within this study. (Nafukho, Alfred, Chakraborty, Johnson, Cherrstrom, 2017; Bass, 2000).

Business around the world spend an enormous amount of money on employee training, education, and leadership development programs, in the United States alone businesses spent

\$165 billion and close to \$365 billion globally in 2015. But businesses are not experiencing a high return on their investment, for the most part, this learning has not led to improved organizational outcomes as the training is not transferring to tangible results in the workplace. As a change strategy training is more likely to work when the senior level leaders champion the change efforts through their ability to share the organizational vision and through the implementation of effective coaching techniques to provide as a follow-up intervention of the training and development initiatives. (Beer et al., 2016) Numerous factors have identified what influences the transfer of training to the workplace. There is considerable evidence to support a critical factor of influencing the transfer of learning is to provide one-on-one coaching. (Oilvero, Bane, and Koplman, 1997) It then follows, that senior level leaders in turn may benefit from having CST to provide them the solid coaching knowledge they need to support the transfer of learning for the training initiatives provided within their organizations.

Purpose Statement

There is little empirical research to address the effectiveness or mechanisms of CST and minimal empirical research to identify the impact of adding an emphasis of transformational leadership to training or development programs. (Strober et al, 2006) (Nafukho et al, 2017) The purpose of the study is to determine the effectiveness of CST as a specific intervention for senior level leaders to acquire an understanding of the principles of formal coaching as defined by ICF, referred to as coaching knowledge and increase their propensity toward transformational leadership. In addition, this study's purpose is to advance the field of coaching toward the professionalization of coaching through the development of an evidence-based coach specific training program. The study tested the level of improvement of senior level leader's knowledge of ICF's coaching core competencies (see Appendix A) and code of ethics (see Appendix B), and

their propensity of three styles of leadership; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire pre and post training.

Significance of Study

This study contributes to the field of coaching by; creating an evidence-based CST, furthering the study of the field of coaching, adding empirical research to test the validity of coaching as a reliable change methodology, and emphasizing the importance of CST for senior level leadership. In addition, this study contributes to; the field of training and development through the creation of an evidence-based training program. Finally, this study furthers the professionalization of the field of coaching through the development of standardized CST.

Research Question

The purpose of the study is to determine the effectiveness of CST as a specific intervention for senior level leaders to acquire an understanding of the principles of formal coaching as defined by ICF, referred to as coaching knowledge and increase their propensity toward transformational leadership tendencies. The use of two different measurement instruments support convergent evidence for valid claims that the use of CST as a leadership intervention for senior level leaders promotes an increased coaching knowledge and leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership. The first measurement instrument is the Coaching Knowledge Assessment (CKA) (<https://coachfederation.org/coach-knowledge-assessment>, 2019). The research question and hypotheses were put forth for the CKA:

R₁: Do leaders demonstrate increased coaching knowledge based on ICF core competencies and code of ethics after three days of CST intervention?

H₀: There will be no significant increase in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership intervention.

H₁: There will be a significant increase in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership intervention.

The second measurement instrument was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (<https://www.mindgarden.com/content/27-researcher-established#horizontalTab4>, 2019). The second research question and hypotheses were put forth for the MLQ:

R₂: Do leaders demonstrate increased tendency toward transformational leadership over transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles after three days of CST leadership intervention?

H₀: There will be no significant increase in the participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention.

H₂: There will be a significant increase in the participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention.

Overview of Methodology

The intervention for this study participants (senior level leaders) attended a twenty-one-hour CST program, over a period of three days, with an emphasis on transformational leadership. The intervention tests the level of increased improvement of senior level leader's knowledge and understanding of coaching competencies and their propensity toward three styles of leadership; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire pretest and posttest training. A quasi-experimental design with multiple pretest-posttest measures provided to identify the shift in; leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership and coaching knowledge was administered.

Limitations and Delimitations

Leaders at various organizational levels, years of experience, and prior exposure to coaching are included in the study. Generalizing the results of an evidence-based CST for professional coaching to all levels of coaching will require additional research. The training, educational background, level of motivation, and years of experience for a senior level leader may vary from that of a participant attending a CST for life or health and wellness coach training. An additional limitation is the sample size of participants, having a larger number of participants would provide greater power with which to test statistical significance and allow greater generalization of results.

The two outcome measurement assessments used in the study have been used with various populations around the world. Although the MLQ has been found to be reliable in its ability to significantly predict work unit effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership (Lowe, Kroeck, Sivasubramaniam, 1996) a comprehensive literature review has not found any prior use of the MLQ to identify outcomes of a CST leadership training program. Although thousands of people have taken the CKA from ICF, this assessment has not been given as a pre and post assessment. Prior to this study the CKA is traditionally administered after the participant has taken sixty hours of ICF approved CST and completed one hundred hours of coaching clients. This study intervention only provided the participants with twenty-one hours of CST which puts the participants at a disadvantage when taking the assessment. And finally, the resources to follow-up and examine the level of transfer of training into the participants performance as a leader or identify the long-term effectiveness of the evidence-based CST with an emphasis on transformational leadership skills is beyond the scope and capacity of this study.

The scope of the study is limited to professional coaching and limited in the leadership style to transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and does not take into consideration life or health and wellness coaching or other forms of leadership styles. Limiting the scope specifically to professional coach CST and transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership provides clear linkage between the model and the outcome data. Such specific linkage is lacking in the professional and executive-coaching literature (Olivero, Bane, and Kopelman, 2001). Results from the study supports further dialog between researchers, practitioners, and leaders regarding the value of empirical research for CST and leadership development programs.

Organization of Dissertation

This chapter introduces the studies intervention: a CST with an emphasis on transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership that will test the level of increased improvement of senior level leaders coaching knowledge and their propensity toward three styles of leadership; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire pre and post training. The first chapter also provides a statement of the problem and the purpose of the proposed study, gives a brief overview of the methodology, and discusses the limitations and delimitations.

The second chapter examines the relevant literature to the study intervention; coaching, the history of coaching, professional association for coaching, accrediting CST programs, coaching and psychology, executive coaching, training, adult learning theory, training transfer to workplace, leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, MLQ, leadership outcomes, coaching outcomes, CST outcomes. The third chapter provides methods utilized to conduct the study and collect the data. The fourth chapter examines the collected data and provides an explanation of the results. Finally, chapter five discusses the

implications and limitations of the study and concludes with recommendations for future research and potential policy to advance the field of coaching.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Training and employee development are integral to organizational success. In the United States and around the world, organizations are challenged to find, develop, and keep a highly skilled, knowledgeable, and adaptable workforce which is essential for the success of their organization (Johnson, and Cherrstron, 2017) (Blumenthal, Bernard, Bohnen, & Bohmer, 2012). Although the current research on the transfer of training has exploded over the past 30 years, and much has been learned, too little of the science of transfer has been used to inform professionals in the design and execution of their training initiatives, despite the recent demands for more evidence-based practice training initiatives (Baldwin, Ford, & Blume, 2017).

As companies continually invest in employee training and development programs a gap exists between what is learned and what is transferred into the workplace (Beer et al., 2017). The purpose of this study is to test whether the level of senior level leader's knowledge of coaching and their propensity of three styles of leadership; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire is impacted by CST leadership training. This literature review will identify the evidence of the critical components of transfer of training for a CST leadership program which include but are not limited to the importance of senior level leaders; support of the implementation of the training initiates (Beer et al., 2017), ability to effectively communicate to their direct reports the vision and mission of the organization (Johnson et al, 2017) (Stiehl, Felfe, Elprana, & Gatzka, 2015)(Bass, 1999), the relevance of the training to the trainees work (Beer et al., 2017), and the use of effective coaching techniques by the leaders, and when appropriate an external coach to support - as a follow up to the training - the transfer to training into the organization (Beer et al, 2017).

The premise of this study is to inform the practice of coaching by identifying the importance of evidence-based CST. The literature review in this chapter examines the extant literature for evidence-based CST while unpacking the importance and suggested impact of CST and leadership style on the potential for transfer of learning as assessed by the CKA and MLQ. This chapter provides a brief history of the field of coaching, its beginnings in applied psychology, the emergence of professional associations, the current state of coaching, and the importance of CST. In addition, a discussion of the literature addressing best practices for the transfer of learning, leadership with subcategories of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership the impact of leadership on the transfer of learning, and adult learning theory. Lastly, a summary of the identified gaps in the literature leading to the proposed study and its design.

History of Coaching

The roots of coaching are steeped in the history of applied psychology. Napoli (1981), provides a comprehensive historical study of the development and professionalization of applied psychology. Napoli's insights are relevant to the field of coaching as coaching is not only the child of applied psychology but is undergoing similar challenges as the field of coaching struggles to establish professional credibility mirroring the challenges faced by the field of psychology (1981).

Napoli (1981) discusses, from the mid 1920's to the late 1940's psychology was one of the first disciplines to evolve and create a public understanding of itself as a profession that began from a foundation of higher education. The field of psychology was broken into three applications; clinical, industrial, and educational. Although all three share common scientific foundation, set of practice aims and methods, and commitments to the public, clinical and industrial fell into the category of applied psychology. The practical application of applied

psychology is designed to utilize the methods and findings of scientific psychology to solve interpersonal problems and navigate life experiences. Clinical and industrial psychology are designed to utilize the methods and findings of scientific psychology to solve practical behavioral issues. In the early years, there were few if any, conflicts between the three branches of psychology. As the years progressed tension developed between the academic branch and the clinical and industrial branches of psychology which lead to the formation of the American Psychological Association (APA) in 1919. In the 1930's the Association of Consulting Psychologist (ACP) was formed to support the “mutual benefit of consulting psychologists in all fields of applied psychology, the promotion of high standards in consulting work, the education of the public about psychological services, and the stimulation of research in consulting psychology” (Napoli, 1981, p.149). (Napoli, 1981) In 1936 the America Association for Applied Psychology (AAAP) was founded and in 1938 launched the Journal of Consulting Psychology to promote the practice and research of applied psychology (Kilburg, 2016).

Not only does Napoli give a colorful detailed account of how coaching forms from the field of applied psychology he also provides an uncanny prediction of the challenges the practice of coaching is currently facing. As he discusses, the “[e]vents of the post war era... gave little indication that applied psychologist had any coherent vision of the role they might play in American society. They seem to pursue professional status without much understanding of what they would do if they got it” (p. 152). He goes on to say, “...the demand for applied psychologist would expand, but would probably be met not only by a single profession but by the jumble of conflicting groups” (p.152).

Emergence of Professional Associations. Fast forward thirty-five years and the field of coaching, the child of applied psychology, is still struggling to identify itself as a single

profession with recognized professional status. Thus, a movement toward professionalization began with the formation of professional associations, beginning in 1994 with the International Association for Professional and Personal Coaches (APPC). In 1995 APPC became the International Coach Federation (ICF), currently the largest professional coach association in the world operating in over 100 countries. ICF has over 20,000 members. The European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) founded in 1992, is the second largest association operating in over 20 countries, with 5,000 members. The third coaching association, Worldwide Association of Business Coaches (WABC) was established in 2002 after assuming full rights to and ownership of the National Association of Business Coaches. WABC is the first coaching association dedicated exclusively to business coaching with 1,000 members in 30 countries. (Maltbia et. al, 2014) Finally, in 2001 the International Consortium for Health and Wellness Coaching (ICHWC) was formed to identify the knowledge, skills and abilities to successfully function as a health and wellness coach. In May of 2016 ICHWC partnered with the United States National Board of Medical Examiners (NBME) to launch a National Board Certification for Health & Wellness Coaches in 2017. (Jordan, Wolever, Lawson, & Moore, 2015).

Even with the movement toward professionalization these professional associations don't agree on the competencies required for coaching as their competency models vary from 8 -15 identified coaching competencies. The only competency listed by all these organizations is the establishment of the relationship between client and coach and the importance for coach-coachee client confidentiality. The field of coaching is struggling to come to a consensus of a description of what coaching is and the necessary competencies or skills, knowledge, and abilities (SKA) to perform as a coach.

Current State of Coaching

Coaching and Psychology. Coaching is still a close cousin to psychology. De Haan, Duckworth, Birch, Jones, & Lowman (2013) compare the process of conducting research to study the effectiveness of the coaching outcomes as described by the coach and client relationship to the previous practice demonstrated in rigorous psychotherapy outcome research. Their argument is based on an accepted assumption of the “general effectiveness” of coaching paired with their premise that “coaching and psychotherapy” both belong to the general class of personal intervention, which are based on the helping relationships. De Haan et al, (2013) argues, the importance of the coaching field learning from the more established and older field of psychology and the profession of psychotherapy as they have rigorously studied the same questions of effectiveness. This outcome study examined the working alliance between client and coach, self-efficacy of the client, personality of the client, and personality match of client and coach through a quantitative study of 156 clients and 34 coaches. The study results showed a significant correlation between the client perceptions of their working alliance with the coach and the coaching outcomes. Although De Hann et al, did not provide a clear definition of the field of coaching they do identify the definition of coaching as being a form of leadership development which takes place within a series of contracted one-on-one conversation with a qualified coach (2013). Unfortunately, they fail to give their definition of a “qualified” coach. They continue to discuss, currently, coaches come from a wide range of backgrounds with varying levels of training and education. And these individual professionals practice coaching in vastly different ways (2013).

De haan et al, (2013) state that coaching outcome studies are weak by the traditional standards of medicine and psychology. And they emphasize the importance for researchers and

coaches to come to an agreement on the choice of independent variables across studies as well as the research design. While suggesting they pool their resources to increase the sample sizes involved in the studies gaining more statistical power within the data analysis. Kilburg (2016) disagrees. He expresses the belief that this type of research described by De haan et al., (2013) is too complex and expensive to conduct and counters that the actions of individual leaders in their varying positions in multiple industries are far too dynamic to for conventional sampling and research design approaches. Kilburg suggest a paradigm shift in the way we conceptualize and conduct research on coaching and the natural emphasis of its work, which is leadership development (2016). Thus, supporting the leadership emphasis within this studies CST program.

Smither like De Haan et al. (2013) explores the disparity of coaching research in comparison to the field of psychotherapy which has an extensive meta-analysis that has been conducted over a period of 30 years (2011). Smither believes “[t]he voluminous history of psychotherapy research points to the important questions and methodical issues that... guide future research about the impact and practice of executive coaching.” (p.135) In his research Smither presents 8 questions to guide his research of executive coaching and for each of these questions he presents the results of psychotherapy meta-analysis and discusses the implications for executive coaching research and practice (2011). The results of his study show the differences between coaching and therapy outweigh the similarities; executive coaching is conducted with high functioning executives vs psychotherapy which deals with lower functioning patients with adjustment problems, executive coaching is directed at helping build or enhance skills often in the absence of any problems while psychotherapy is more often directed at overcoming problems, and for the most part executive coaching is helping a talented high-potential executive build new skills (2011). Smither (2011), also discusses the fact that,

coaching is currently an unregulated field, allowing anyone to call herself or himself a coach, increasing the need for further research to examine the efficacy of coaching related to the coach's training and experience, in turn, supporting the need for evidence-based CST programs.

As the literature identifies the importance of the coaching relationship between the coach and the client/coachee, how the field of psychology is connected to the field of coaching, and how the history of extensive research in the field of psychology can be applied to the study of coaching. Kilburg, Kaiser, Vandaveer, & Palmer, (2016) explore executive or leadership coaching in the broad context of the history of general applied psychology. A significant gap in the literature on the appropriate education, training, and career history required to develop expertise or even if expertise or work experience is necessary to be an effective coach. Kilburg et al., calls for the development of systems of coaching methodology that can be studied, applied, and promulgated allowing anyone wishing to become an expert coach the necessary teaching and training (2016) supporting the need for evidence-based CST programs.

Coach Training. Maltbia, Marsick, & Ghosh (2014) address the impact of differing perceptions of what constitutes coaching core competencies by academic and coach preparation programs, credentialing associations, and practitioners. They address the impact of how this lack of clarity of an agreed upon definition, roles, and implementation of coaching can confuse practitioners and slow the progress in theory-building, research, and coach development. Bozer, Sarros, & Santora, (2014) are looking to examine coaching outcomes, through providing a preliminary empirical examination by identifying and testing the relationship between a coach having an academic background in psychology and credibility with the coaching effectiveness as reflected in outcomes of coaching success (2014).

Rosenbaum, & Rosenbaum, (2013) argue that growing demand for high school students seeking a college education and the diminished capacity for public state institutions to service the growing demand is not only sending students to private institutions, but more and more students are seeking out occupational colleges instead of the traditional 4 year degrees (2013). This study provides important information for the field of coaching as most individuals who seek out coach specific training are only looking to acquire a certification not a degree in the field. The authors suggest, "...nontraditional colleges and nontraditional credentials... deserve much closer attention from researchers, policymakers, and students" (155).

Beets, & Goodman, (2012) examine a coach training program (CTP) to evaluate the extent the trainees were using the intended proximal outcomes to enhance or develop their coaching practice. They used a mixed methods approach. A sample of success and non-success cases were selected by means of a quantitative questionnaire and then interviews were conducted to find the reasons for the success or lack of success and the interview findings were reported as qualitative data. Out of 80 participants who received the questionnaire 8 were interviewed (2012). Out of the 8 participants interviewed 6 were considered success cases and 2 low success cases. The reported barriers to the successful implementation of training program proximal outcomes included unfulfilled expectations of the program content and personal circumstances of the participants. One of the low success participants reported they thought they would receive more business training than the course offered based on the description of the course. It was recommended that the language on the website be altered to clarify the expectation that the trainees come to the course with a foundation of business training (Beets et al., 2012). This article supports the proposed research interest in identifying the impact of training on the knowledge base of the coach.

Grant, & Zackon (2004) argue that there is a growing knowledge base of coach-specific research detailing theories, techniques, and outcomes of coaching yet there is little known about the coaches themselves. Their research reports on a large-scale survey of 2,529 ICF members conducted in 2003. The authors were interested in credentialing, prior professional background, and current coach practice (2004). The results of their survey showed, the participants of the study overwhelmingly graduated from or had been enrolled in a CST program and virtually all of the participants had professional background prior to becoming a professional coach. One of the limitations of this study was all the coaches were active members of ICF, which is a professional association that credentials coaches. Therefore, it is highly likely, their membership bodes value and appreciate professional training and continued certification. The results showed that over half were either already certified by ICF or were pursuing ICF certification and the coaches that were not certified by ICF had taken some formal training and held some form of certification. As there is still very little known about the training and experience of the coaches themselves the authors recommend, further research to identify the characteristic of successful coaches and attempt to determine if these characteristics can be developed through a CST program. Which supports the proposed research topic to develop and implement evidence-based CST leadership intervention.

Coaching Specialization

Life Coach. The general public has demonstrated a growing interest in techniques and processes that enhance life experience and facilitate personal development with a shift away from clinical psychology, toward mental wellness causing an increased interest in life coaching (Grant, 2003). As the coaching industry in particular, life coaching, has grown substantially since the late 1990's there has been a greater focus on the description of what life coaching is and how

it impacts the coachee. Grant (2003) provides a broad definition of life coaching, as a collaborative one-on-one solution-focused relationship between the coach and coachee that is result-oriented, providing a systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of life experience and goal attainment in the personal and/or professional life of the client/coachee. Grant (2003) emphasizes the life coaching is conducted with a normal, nonclinical client.

Williams & Davis (2002) explore the benefits of therapist adding coaching to their existing practices and provide a step by step guide to transition out of the field of psychotherapy into the field of coaching. They also suggest the use of coaching techniques can be used with high functioning clinical patients to enhance their therapeutic work. Williams et al., (2002) discuss the shortage of a comprehensive historical account of the life coaching and the need for further empirical research in the effectiveness of life coaching, its roots in modern psychology and the impact of counseling theories on the field.

Having a coach has become a sought-after employee benefit in many companies and for individuals who are self-employed, having a coach can keep them focused and connected to their desired outcomes, while living a life of “purpose.” As life can be filled with varying social pressures, lack of stability and predictability a coach becomes someone who can assist the client in being a change master. (Williams et al., 2002) Coaches come from a myriad of professional backgrounds, education levels, and training experience; human resources, organizational consultants, business and professional consultants, clinical psychology, organizational psychology, entrepreneurs, sales and marketing professionals to name a few. In the early part of the twentieth century, psychological theorists set the framework for life coaching’s “whole and healthy person” view. Life coaches focus on personal fulfillment, help clients discover their

untapped potential, improve relationships, and identify meaning or purpose and direction to live a conscious and purposeful life (Williams et al, p.11, 2002).

Wellness Coaching. Jordan, Wolever, Lawson, and Moore (2015) due to the overwhelming popularity of Health and Wellness coaching a National Consortium for Credentialing Health and Wellness Coaches (NCCHWC) was formed in 2010 to conduct a job task analysis to develop national training and education standards for health and wellness coaching (HWC) (2015). “The rapid proliferation of individuals and organizations using the terms of health and/or wellness coaches and the propagation of private industry and academic coach training and education programs endeavoring to prepare these coaches has created an urgent and pressing need for national standards for use of the term health and wellness coach, as well as minimal requirements for training, education and certification.” (p. 46) The results of the consortium requirements to become a NCCHWC approved coach training program the potential coach needs to hold a preferred BA or higher in a health related field, hold a clinical license within the past 5 years, 60 hours related to coach specific training and developing coaching competencies, and a myriad of other requirements that far exceed any standing requirements for the field of coaching in any country. This article brings up the prospect for state and/or federal regulation which can potentially lend credibility to the field as discussed with Napoli, however their recommendations for coach certification is specific to health and wellness coaching omitting the other branches or specializations of coaching.

Mettler et al, (2014) explores the increasing popularity of wellness coaching worldwide. The researchers used a before and after wellness questionnaire with 177 participants. The follow-up questionnaire was administered three months later, after receiving 12 in-person coaching sessions. The study identified weight management and successful reduction of BMI. The overall

finding of this research documented the effectiveness of wellness coaching programs, however it did not identify the SKA's of the coaches or provide a clear definition of wellness coaching.

Executive coaching. The emergence of executive coaching occurred from the 1950's through the 1970's with the formalization of leadership training and development programs (Kilburg, 2016). Beginning in the mid 1980's consultation activities with a focus on senior leaders and managers in organizations had increasingly been referred to as executive coaching (Kilburg, 1996) Executive coaching began as a method to deal with struggling managers, however in the mid 1980's there was a shift toward enhancing high performing senior level leader's skills and abilities (Kilburg, 1996). The 1980's was also the beginning of viewing the use of an executive coach as a reward and in some instances as a status symbol, as well as a tool for recruitment into the organization (Kilburg, 2016).

As executive coaching became a popular term in the field of organizational development the area of practice suffered from a lack of professional literature. In Kilburg's (1996) work on conceptual understanding and defining of executive coaching he identified a 17-factor model of systems and psychodynamics as a conceptual approach to executive coaching. Breaking his model into subcomponents he identified six systems factors (structure, process, content input, output, and throughput), four psychological structures (instinctual self, idealized self, rational self, and conscience), four internal components of individual function (cognition, emotion, defense, and conflict) and three types of relationship (past, present, and focal) (1996). Kilburg argued, using his model, made it possible for individuals providing executive coaching to navigate through the complex world of their clients. His rationale was that a consultant working with an individual can focus on any of the seventeen factors and/or their subcomponents allowing them to rationally call the work that they were doing coaching (1996). In order to help

clarify the complexity and differentiate executive coaching from other aspects of consulting strategies Kilburg offered a modified version of his 17-factor model utilizing five components; establishing an intervention agreement, building a coaching relationship, creating and maintaining expectations of success, providing experiences of mastery and cognitive control, and evaluating and attributing coaching successes and failures. Kilburg felt, narrowing the focus of the coaching relationship to these five processes would provide a framework of where the true work of the coaching takes place (1996).

Feldman & Lanku (2005) note the conceptual differences and overlap with mentoring, advising, and therapy with executive coaching. A mentor is often a senior more experienced employee who provides guidance to a less experienced employee to assist them in becoming more proficient in his or her role within the organization. Mentoring relationships tend to be initiated informally and often last years, as these relationships refine into collegial relationship once the protégé becomes successful within their position. In contrast, an executive coaching relationship traditionally spans 6-18 months (Feldman et al., 2005). An advisor would be an individual who shares her business acumen and functional experience with an executive to assist them in planning and executing specific organizational actions. A licensed mental health professional conducts therapy to clinically treat executives for behavioral or emotional problems. Executive coaching is a short to medium term one-on-one relationship between the coach and coachee to improve the executive's performance (Feldman et al., 2005).

Baron & Morin (2009) identify the nuances of the coach/coachee relationship. Executive coaching has fallen into the trap of frequently being confused with other workplace interventions, particularly supervisory coaching and mentoring. It is essential to differentiate the variances between supervisory coaching, which refers to the use of coaching behaviors by

managers as a method of supervising subordinates (Baron et al, 2009). Whereas mentoring has been traditionally defined as a senior more experienced employee who provides guidance to a less experienced employee to assist them in becoming more proficient in this or her role within the organization (Feldman et al., 2005). In terms of time, mentoring is traditionally open-ended, and the mentor generally works in the same industry as their protégé. (Feldman et al., 2005; Barron et al.,2009)

It is quite common, for the boundary with executive coaching to become blurred, as it can be with other developmental interventions (Barron et al, 2009). Supervisory coaching is an informal form of on the job coaching. Supervisory coaching may take place during the employee review, weekly goal setting, or impromptu opportunities during the day-to-day process within the workplace (Witherspoon & White, 1996). Formal coaching on the other hand begins with a clear contract or coaching agreement with specific expectations, is entered into with mutual consent, there is an expectation of confidentiality, the coachee not the coach set the goals and agenda of the coaching, and there is an agreed upon timeline for the coaching relationship (Witherspoon et al., 1996). Supervisory coaching is what is most commonly referred to when an executive tells the frontend manager to “coach” their direct report to improve performance (Barron et al., 2009). Although similar techniques that are used in formal coaching might be implemented within “informal coaching” there is no expectation of confidentiality, the relationship is not mutually agreed upon, and the supervisor often chooses the agenda and the goals for the direct report. It’s important to note, for the purpose of this study, when using the term coaching, I am referencing a formal coaching relationship. CST is specifically designed to teach the SKA’s for formal coaching.

Internal Coach. Frisch (2001), introduces internal coaching as a role derived from the longer history of external executive coaching with a few important differences. The internal coach is a fellow employee of the same organization as the coworkers being coached. Frisch (2001), continues to define internal coaching as a one-on-one developmental intervention which is supported by the organization and in most cases provided by a colleague of the coached. As with other definitions of executive coaching, the internal coach is trusted to develop and deliver a program yielding individual professional growth (Frisch, 2001).

Because there are many activities within an organization that are similar to coaching it is helpful to highlight the differences (Frisch, 2001). The general advisory roles of human resources (HR) and other internal consultants are often confused with internal coaching. Even though advising, consulting, and coaching involve discussing sensitive topics, considering alternatives, and making recommendations the goals are very different (Firsch, 2001). Advising and consulting focus on the best interest of the company. Internal coaching is focused on the individual, internal coaches often have insights about the organization, but those insights are utilized for the betterment of the individual's professional development. Although many internal coaches maintain supplemental duties within the organization in addition to their formal coaching relationships, they maintain a clear distinction between these roles (Firsch, 2001).

There are many benefits of having an internal coach for the organization which are fueling the growth and popularity of internal coaching. It is more cost effective to have an internal coach compared with the fees for external coaching programs allowing the coaching to have a greater impact as internal coaching resources can be applied more widely within the organization. Internal coaches have the advantage of using their insights about the organization allowing their interventions to show results in a shorter time frame, they can see the impact of

the coaching interventions and use practical examples in helping the coachee's improvement, and they can model new behaviors within the organization. (Frisch, 2001)

Frisch (2001) finishes with the key challenges of shaping an internal coaching program lies within the lack of definitive guidelines about how to design and implement an internal coach program. Although the benefits of internal coaches are compelling, external coaching does not require any additional staff or in-house resources. Traditionally, external coaches come with a broad range of experiences, impressive degrees and can be more likely to engender immediate credibility with employees than the internal coach. (Frisch, 2001) Having an internal coach and when appropriate seeking external coaching for strategic reasons can be beneficial for an organization. (Frisch, 2001)

Managerial Coach. Managerial coaching has been growing in popularity over the past two decades with organizations increasingly expressing an expectation for operational managers to coach their employees. (Gilley A., Gilley J., & Kouider, 2010) (Beattie, Kim, Hagen, Egan, Ellinger, & Hamlin, 2014) (Anderson, 2013) (McCarthy et al., 2013) (DiGirolamo et al., 2019) Managerial coaching differs significantly from external executive coaching and internal coaching, discussed earlier, as the function and context of management and leadership is distinct from formal coaching. (Anderson, 2013) The formal coaching performed by an external executive coach or inhouse internal coach are more likely to be sit-down sessions with an established agreement of the coach to coachee relationship as collaborative versus hierarchal, providing confidentiality, and structured coaching sessions with a focus on individual goals. (Anderson, 2013) (McCarthy et al., 2013) (Beattie et al., 2014) (DiGirolamo et al., 2019) Operational or line managers hold different expectations of the content and form of their workplace interactions than individuals providing formal coaching. (Anderson, 2013) (McCarthy

et al., 2013) (Beattie et al., 2014) (DiGirolamo et al., 2019) Operational managers exchanges with their employees are more likely to be opportunistic, informal, infrequent, lack confidentiality, and are less structured with a focus on boosting performance toward organizational outcomes. (Anderson, 2013) (Beattie et al., 2014) (DiGirolamo et al., 2019) (McCarthy et al., 2013)

Managerial coaching challenges the traditional models of management (Anderson, 2013) where managerial roles were perceived as a tool to correct deficiencies in employee's performance (Gilley et al., 2010), viewed in some instances as autocratic, directive, hierarchical, and demanding. (Anderson, 2013) (Beattie et al., 2014) (Gilley et al., 2010) In contrast, the coaching manager promotes learning and reflection, encourages problem solving, and establishes positive working relationships that build commitment and enthusiasm leading to improved performance toward organizational goals. (Anderson, 2013) (Beattie et al., 2014) (Gilley et al., 2010) The behaviors necessary for successful implementation of managerial coaching mirror the knowledge and skills of a formally trained coach such as; effective listening, giving and receiving feedback, communication skills, rapport building, and planning and goal setting. (Anderson, 2013) (Beattie et al., 2014) (Gilley et al., 2010) Unfortunately, too often managers are struggling to be "good managers" and do not possess the knowledge, skills or abilities to perform effective managerial coaching. (Beattie et al., 2014) (DiGirolamo et al., 2019) (Gilley et al., 2010)

The challenges organizations face with the implementation of managerial coaching include a lack of support from senior level leaders, inadequate coaching skills of operational managers, managers not having experienced formal coaching firsthand, and not feeling confident with their coaching abilities. (Beattie et al., 2014) (Gilley et al., 2010) Despite the challenges,

managerial coaching provides many potential benefits for organizations; retention, team cohesion, motivation, conflict resolution (Beattie et al., 2014), improved communication, creativity, and improved manager-employee relationships contributing to organizational performance, effectiveness, and efficiency (Gilley et al., 2010). Providing CST to senior level leaders has the potential to support the implementation of managerial coaching within the organization as well as foster the development of a coaching culture within the organization.

Coaching Culture. Over the last three decades coaching has been one of the most significant interventions in management practices and leadership development. (Vesso et al., 2016) (Passmore et al., 2011) In the past decade the establishment of a coaching culture has become a pivotal focus for many organizations. (McCarthy et al., 2013) (Anderson, 2013) A coaching culture encourages out of the box thinking, focuses on learning and development, identifies and celebrates individual differences, while emphasizing accountability and personal responsibility, action planning and goal setting. (Vesso et al., 2016) There are three key components that support the successful implementation of a coaching culture; ownership, acknowledgement, and a blame free culture. Ownership allows for individual responsibility of decisions, actions, and outcomes. Acknowledgement supports individual consideration and celebrates accomplishments. And a blame free cultures utilizes purposed mistakes as learning opportunities for both the employees and management. (Wilson, 2004)

Successful implementation of a coaching culture can be difficult to achieve. (McCarthy et al., 2013) (Anderson, 2013) (Passmore et al., 2011) One of the main challenges of implementing a coaching culture involves transitioning managers away from providing directive solutions, instead moving toward empowering others to find their own solutions. (Vesso et al., 2016) To establish and maintain a coaching culture organizations need to provide coach training and skill

development to the management team to support them in managerial coaching (McCarthy et al., 2013). Support from senior levels of management play a crucial role in the successful implementation of managerial coaching and establishing a coaching culture. (McCarthy et al., 2013) (Passmore et al., 2011) (Vesso et al., 2016) Frequently organizations invest money, time, and effort into developing the coaching skills of their mid-level leaders and managers only to find that, despite overall high levels of enthusiasm and initial support of the new practices, over time they fail to adopt the taught coaching skills in the workplace reverting to command and control leadership patterns (Vesso et al., 2016). One potential way to increase the adaption of managerial coaching and establishment of a coaching culture is to provide senior level leaders with CST. When the senior leadership has CST they are more likely to champion and support the implementation of coaching techniques throughout the organizational systems. (McCarthy et al., 2013) (Passmore et al., 2011) (Vesso et al., 2016)

Training and Development

In 1998 Baldwin & Ford (1998) estimated American companies spent \$100 billion dollars annually on training and development. Fast forward almost two decades and the amount American companies spend annually on training and investment has risen to \$160 billion, an increase of \$60 billion in two decades (Beer et al., 2016). Baldwin et al., (1998) estimated only 10% of that training and professional development was transferred to the workplace and little has change two decades later. Baldwin et al., (1998) define transfer of training as the degree to which trainees effectively apply the SKA's gained in the training context to the job. The underlying premise being the transfer of training is more than a function of original learning within a training setting, but it includes the learner's ability to then apply what they learned in their day-to-day duties within the workplace. Due to the lack of transfer, businesses are not experiencing a

high return on their investment as, for the most part, the trainings do not lead to improved organizational outcomes (Beer et al., 2016). The main difficulty companies are facing is partially due to people soon reverting to their pre-training ways of behaving, thinking, and performing because the company's organizational culture does not support the change learned within the training or development programs. This lack in culture and organizational support is contributing to participants reverting to their prior behavior upon returning to their day-to-day functioning within the organization (Beer et al., 2016) (Gatzka, 2015).

Senior executives and human resources managers continuously look for effective ways to implement organizational change. The standard go to method is through the utilization of training programs and staff development to support the long term change the company requires to maintain a competitive edge in the marketplace. (Conger & Fulmer, 2006) (Beer et al., 2016) The problem lies in the failure of these training program to produce the long-term outcomes the organization seeks. (Beer et al, 2016)

The vast majority of participants in corporate education programs report finding great value and inspiration in their training, however upon return it is difficult to implement what they have learned because the current systems and culture of the organization do not support the change. The shift that needs to take place for the training to be successful is within the organizational design and the managerial process. (Blumenthal, Bernard, Bohnen, & Bohmer, 2012) (Beer et al., 2016) Fundamentally, the only way companies are going to experience the successful changes they seek is if they first start with the senior level leaders. In 2011 the Corporate Leadership Council interviewed three-quarters of the senior managers at 50 organizations, nearly 1,500 leaders, who reported being dissatisfied with their companies' learning and development function. And only a small percentage of leaders reported the learning

and development programs as being critical to achieving the anticipated business outcomes, only one in four leaders. (Beer et al, 2016) The first negative reports of training programs ability to provide effective outcomes were noted in the 1950's during the seminal Ohio State leadership studies. This study found that even after changing the frontline supervisor's attitudes, upon follow-up, most supervisors had regressed to their pre-training behavior and views (Beer et al., 2016). The only exceptions were experienced when the senior leaders of the organization also practiced and believed in the new leadership style the program was designed to teach. We've learned that education and training gain the most traction when championed by senior leaders who provide highly visible organizational change and development efforts. (Higgs, & Rowland, 2010) (Beer et al., 2016) This higher return on investment comes in part, because bringing in the senior leaders not only motivates people to learn and change but because the organization systems, structure, and leadership changes as well to create the conditions for the training program participants to apply what they've learned. (Beer et al., 2016)

In addition to the support of the leaders, organizational culture, and the systems in the implementation of change initiatives through professional development and training programs, the leaders and frontend managers also need to follow-up the training through coaching their employees to ensure the transfer of learning into the workplace. (Longenecker, 2010) (Beer et al, 2016) The research shows a large percentage of leaders and frontend managers are not effective at coaching their direct reports, have never had formal coach specific training (CST), and actively admit they struggle in identifying opportunities to develop their direct reports. (Longenecker, 2010) (Groves, 2007)

Historically the adoption of organizational training programs and leadership development initiatives has been driven more by ideology, fads, politics, and marketing than by evidence of

program effectiveness. Organizations often adopt training programs, because they are the current trend, regardless of any evidence to support the likelihood of the program effectiveness. (Slavin, 2008) (Rousseau, 2006) This has not been the case in the field of medicine where evidence-based practice (EBP) is considered a standard operating procedure to ensure the effectiveness of an intervention. Identifying a clear definition of what EBP is; begins with assessing and defining a problem and formulating a specific question, searching for - finding and evaluating appropriate evidence, planning and implementing an intervention, evaluating the process and the results of the intervention, and finally integrating the evidence into practice (Pravikoff, Tanner, & Pierce, 2005) as is being done within this study and research design. EBP needs to be used as a systematic approach to problem solving for training and development processes to provide empirical evidence for leadership development as well as for CST. (Stober, Wildflower, and Drake, 2006) (Grant et al, 2007) (Pravikoff et al, 2005)

CST are traditionally created for and presented to individuals that want to enter into coaching as a career or individuals who want to become an internal coach however this intervention has been developed specifically for c-suite professionals to improve; their leadership, communication of organizational vision, and ability to motivate their direct reports through coaching interventions verses for them to become the organizations internal coach. The intervention examined in this study also contains an underlying objective of sharing with the subject participants the importance of transfer of knowledge for organizational training programs and the correlation of formal coaching to enhance potential transfer. The premise of senior leaders participating in a CST leadership program has the potential to deliver formal coaching SKA's and leadership growth while providing training relevance to participants which is known to increase trainee engagement and workplace transfer (Johnson & Cherrstorm, 2017). To my

knowledge, this is the first CST with a specific focus to provide both leadership development and formal coach training to c-suite leaders.

Evidence Based Coach Specific Training

Scholarly coaching literature has advanced over the past few decades; however, the research and practices continue to remain somewhat uninformed in comparison to psychological theory (Spence & Oades, 2011). The field of coaching continues to mature as an emerging profession, requiring practitioners to begin integrating evidence from the coaching-specific research, related disciplines, and their own expertise for coach specific training and the practical application of formal coaching (Stober et al., 2006). In developing an evidence-based approach to CST it is helpful to look at how evidence-based practice (EBP) have been discussed and developed in other related industries. Beginning within the field of medicine, and transferring to the field of psychology, there has been significant controversy, which goes to the heart of identifying where research and theory relate to practice and where “scientific” evidence and “artful” practice meet (Stober et al., 2006).

Although the field of coaching is in the process of building a body of specific knowledge, there is a wealth of evidence form fields such as psychology, adult learning and others that has a bearing on the practice of formal coaching. Adding an EBP approach has the potential to raise the standards of practice and training, increase credibility of coaching as an intervention, and aid in the professionalization of the field (Grant & Zacon, 2004) while expanding the current thinking of the field and practice of formal coaching (Stober et al., 2006).

Adult Learning

For the greater part of the 20th century adult learning was viewed under the lens of a cognitive process, where the mind takes in facts and information thus converting it to knowledge,

which then has the potential to be observed as subsequent behavior change. Currently evidence is pointing to a more holistic approach to learning viewing learning as a multidimensional process known as transformative learning which suggests learning is strengthened by emotive, sensory, and kinesthetic experiences (Merriam, 2008). Although historically adult learning theory in North America has focused on individual learner and how they process information and how learning enables the individual to become more empowered and independent.

The 1980's began the conceptualization of transformational learning which began to attend to the context in which the learning was taking place. Today the sociocultural context of adult learning is recognized as an essential component in understanding the nature of adult learning (Merriam, 2008). Therefore, the focus has shifted from understanding adult learning from the individual learner's perspective to the learning in context (Merriam, 2008). Recognizing adult learning is far more than merely a cognitive process, accepting that it is in fact a multidimensional phenomenon taking place in various context has enhanced our understanding of how adults learn and expanded our thinking as to which instructional strategies to employ to foster learning (Merriam, 2008).

Transformative adult learning includes but is not limited to; acquiring and using information, identifying and organizing resources, interpreting information, understanding complex interrelationships as essential components and skills, and working with people (Mezirow, 1997). Key competencies within transformative adult learning include but are not limited to; analyzing information, communicating ideas, planning and organizing activities, using mathematical ideas and technologies, working in teams, solving problems and using cultural understanding (Mezirow, 1997). Transformational adult learning intends to; empower individual to think as an autonomous agent in a collaborative context while become socially

responsible thinkers. It is important within transformative learning theory for adult learners to be able to adapt to changing conditions, exercise critical judgement, and flexibly engage in more effective collaborative decision making (Mezirow, 1997). Transformational adult learners view learning to think as an autonomous responsible person as an important educational objective. Transformational adult learners tend to focus on practical, short-term objectives and long-term goals. It is recommended for transformational adult educators to recognize both the learner's objectives and goal. It's the educator's responsibility to help learners reach their objectives in such a way they will function as more autonomous, socially responsible thinkers (Mezirow, 1997). When assisting adult learners in achieving their goal requires communicative learning and learning to achieve a specific short-term objective may involve instrumental learning (Mezirow, 1997).

The rationale for examining adult learning and transformative learning theory is to utilize aspects of the conceptual framework to identify key elements of the transfer of learning process for this studies CST leadership program eventually turning the CST leadership program into an evidence-based CST leadership program. Adult learning theory challenges researchers to reconsider how training design, motivation, and learner characteristics and work environment impact training transfer (Nafukho, Alfred, Chakraborty & Johnson, 2017). For the purpose of this study intervention we will look at the aspect of training design, to do so one must provide a grounded examination of transfer concerns, understand what is transferred and the three elements of training that impact transfer of learning to the workplace (Nafukho et al., 2017).

Although this study is not following the participants into the workplace to quantify the transfer of training the design is based on the empirical evidence that supports transfer of training allowing for future research to investigate long-term outcomes of the current study. The three

elements of training that impact knowledge transfer; training design, trainee characteristics, and work environment (Nafukho et al., 2017). As stated, this study is focusing on training design (measured by training efficiency and relevance to participant work/life implementation) to support future transfer (Baldwin et al., 1988; Nafukho et al., 2017). Conditions of training design; generalization of material happens when presenting learning material in the training in such a way to be relevant to learner's job, thus providing the basis for practical application of knowledge learned into daily work activities which increases retention of learning and transfer of knowledge (Baldwin et al., 1988; Nafukho et al., 2017). An additional condition of training design is practice/maintenance of the learned material over time comes with the ability and understanding of transferring knowledge into skills and abilities (Baldwin et al., 1988; Nafukho et al., 2017). The current study design is structured in such a way to allow for coaching practice session for the participants as both coach and coachee to assist in the transfer of knowledge while providing practice to aid in the development of skill of and abilities to support effectiveness of the CST leadership intervention.

The third relevant type of training factors that contribute to transfer of learning is work environment more specifically impact of leadership within the workplace (Baldwin et al., 1988; Nafukho et al., 2017). While this study is not going into the workplace to gather transfer data the study design addresses the struggle between knowledge updates from professional training versus practice improvement and the impact of leadership on this process by adding leadership training component (Baldwin et al., 1988; Nafukho et al., 2017) to the CST leadership intervention. Adding the transformational leadership component has the potential to address the second element of adult learning; trainee characteristics and motivation. As one of the training subjects within the leadership intervention (Baldwin et al., 1988; Nafukho et al., 2017) is

transformational leadership which in and of itself is designed to inspire and motivate (Bass, 1990). Once again, this current study is not gathering this information however this intervention is designed for future research to look at how transformational leadership training may impact motivation of participant transfer of training.

Leadership. Leadership style plays a crucial role in a leader's ability to develop and sustain highly visible organizational change and development efforts. (Bass, 1990) It is a common assumption that extraordinary leaders are born, and this level of leadership simply can't be taught. This is a myth; quality leadership can be developed as leadership is a skill that can improve with time. In fact, research has shown that leaders at all levels can not only improve their fundamental leadership skills they can be trained to be charismatic in both verbal and nonverbal communication. (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) (Bass, 1990).

Although there is a myriad of leadership styles, and with practical application within any leaders' daily function they will use a variety of techniques and styles this study CST leadership intervention has within it a training component to increase the participants tendency toward transformational leadership style. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) will be administered pre and post intervention. MLQ, developed by Bass in 1985, to identify the degree to which the leader's tendency is toward transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership.

Over the past 40 years, a substantial body of research has accumulated around transformational–transactional leadership theory. First introduced by Burns (1978) within his treatment of political leadership, Burns noted the differences between transformational and transactional leadership in terms of how leaders and followers interact and what they offer one another. Burns proposed transformational leaders offer higher order intrinsic needs through

providing followers with a purpose that transcends short-term goals (1978). He continued describing transactional leaders, in contrast, place their focus on the proper exchange of resources. Transformational leadership is described as resulting in the followers identifying with the needs of the leader, where the transactional leader provides the followers something they want in exchange for something the leader wants (Den Hartog, Muijen, & Koopman, 1997). Burns, identified transactional leadership to be a far more common form of leadership than transformational leadership, although less dramatic in its ability to produce results. (Den Hartog et al., 1997; Burns, 1978).

In 1985, Bass based his theory of transformational leadership on Burns's initial conceptualization, with significant modifications (Den Hartog et al., 1997). Bass did not agree with Burns conceptualization of transformational and transactional leadership represent opposite ends of a single continuum. Instead Bass argued, that transformational and transactional leadership are separate concepts, and further maintained that the best leaders utilize both transformational and transactional tendencies (Den Hartog et al., 1997). Additionally, Bass elaborated considerably on the context and behaviors that manifest transformational and transactional leadership. Both the theory and the MLQ has undergone several revisions, within the most recent version there are currently four dimensions of transformational leadership; charisma or idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, three dimensions of transactional leadership; contingent reward and management by exception, and a non-leadership dimensions identified as laissez-fair leadership (Den Hartog et al., 1997)

Transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are described as charismatic leaders who have the ability to effectively and passionately articulate a vision of the future that

can be shared with peers and subordinates, intellectually stimulate subordinates, and identify, support, and embrace individual differences among people. (Bass, 1990; Bass, 2008)

Transformational leadership style in particular supports creating readiness for change, encouraging innovation values to fit organizational needs, while developing plans, practices, and structures to support leadership development and training program implementation. (Aarons et al, 2016)

Transformational leadership is composed of four unique but interrelated behavioral components; inspirational motivation (an ability to articulate an appealing and/or emotionally evocative vision), intellectual stimulation (the leader arouses followers to think in new or novel ways and emphasizes problem solving and the use of reasoning before taking action promoting creativity and innovation), idealized influence (the leader instills pride, faith, and respect, has a gift for seeing what is really important, and transmits a sense of mission), and individualized consideration (the leader delegates projects to stimulate learning experiences, provides coaching and teaching, and treats each follower as an individual) (Bass, 1991; Hater et al., 1988). Several empirical and theoretical studies have found that leaders who display these four behaviors are able to realign their followers' values and norms, promote both personal and organizational changes, and help followers to exceed their initial performance expectations (Aarons et al, 2016; Hartog et al., 1997)

There are multiple reasons that support the expectation of transformational leadership would enhancing employee innovation and creativity. Transformational leaders actively engage followers and their personal value system to go beyond exchanging contractual agreements to reach for desired performance. (Bass, 1995; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Aarons et al., 2016)

Transformational leaders share ideological explanations that help followers to link their personal

identities to the collective identity of their organization, thereby increasing intrinsic motivation for job performance (Bass, 1995; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Aarons et al., 2016). Through their ability to articulate organizational vision and mission with passion and enthusiasm, transformational leaders draw a connection to the followers individual interest to the values within the organization tying the values of the organization to the values of the follower with desired outcomes, raising their performance expectations, and increasing the tendency for followers to prefer novel approaches to problem solving (Bass, 1995; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Aarons et al., 2016). There has been a link to heightened levels of motivation toward higher levels of performance when followers identify with the organization's vision, mission, and culture (Bass, 1995; Den Hartog et al., 1997; Aarons et al., 2016). Second, by providing intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 1997), transformational leaders encourage followers to think “out of the box” and to adopt generative and exploratory thinking processes.

Transactional leadership. Hater and Bass believed the contrasting of transactional leadership with transformational leadership should not be construed to mean the models are unrelated or that they are simply opposite leadership styles (1988). Instead, transformational leadership should be viewed as a special case of transactional leadership, inasmuch as both approaches are linked to the achievement of a specific objective or goal (Hater et al., 1988). Although the models differ with regard to how each respective leader motivates their direct reports as well as in the types of goals set, they are similar in that they both seek similar outcomes (Hater et al., 1988). In fact, if the leaders utilized both transformational and transactional approaches at the appropriate times, they could significantly increase their overall success at motivating their direct reports and achieving the organizational goals.

There are two characteristics that constitute transactional leadership; contingent reward which focuses on work for pay influencing arrangement where there is an agreement on the goals to be reached in order to obtain the desired rewards, and management-by-exception which characterizes how leaders monitor negative direct reports deviations from the agreed upon goals and exert corrective action only when they fail to meet the objectives (Hater et al., 1988; Bass, 1999). Taking this process one step further, Den Hartog et al., 1997, identify the difference between management by exception—active and management by exception—passive is based on the intervention used when correcting direct reports behaviors. Transactional leaders that take an active role will monitor follower behavior, anticipate problems, and take corrective actions before the behavior creates serious difficulties. Whereas, the passive transactional leaders wait until the behavior has created problems before taking action (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

Laissez-faire leadership. Laissez faire leaders are reluctant to influence or give direction to their direct reports. They have low levels of participation in individual or group decision making, while for the most part, abdicating their leadership role. Laissez-faire leaders tend to grant their direct reports considerable freedom of action in-turn allowing them the potential to maximize their power and influence. (Deluga, 1990) The actions or inactions of the laissez-faire leader often leaves their direct reports feeling isolated, unsupported, and lacking motivation or direction (Bass, 2000).

It's important to note that leaders who score high on laissez-faire leadership tend to avoid making decisions, hesitate prior to taking action, and are often absent when needed (Den Hartog et al., 1997; Hater et al., 1988). Although laissez-faire leadership may share some similarities to management by exception passive leadership, researchers have argued that laissez-faire leadership, because it represents the absence of any leadership (transformational or

transactional), should be treated separately and not considered to be a form of transactional leadership (Den Hartog et al., 1997; Hater et al., 1988).

Talent management. In 2005 Ready & Conger conducted a survey of human resources executives from 40 companies around the world and their findings showed, even though 97% of the company's surveyed had talent management process in place to identify and develop their next generation of leaders they are falling short in their ability to fill key positions (2007). Despite all that is known about the importance of developing employees and the enormous amounts of money dedicated to systems and process that support professional development, to develop talent within an organization, also known as talent management, these systems fail without deep-seated commitment from senior executives. (Ready et al., 2007) The passion for building talent must start at the top, Ready et al., (2007) found that although many executives may attest to their commitment to obtain and keep the best people, they often fail to act on their words. One of the most common problems arise when looking for ways to save money employee development is often the first thing to go (Ready et al., 2007; Beer et al., 2016). The minor saving of cutting employee training and development can cost companies millions in potential new revenue from not having the leaders to take on expansion projects often causing companies to turn down new bids hindering growth and expansion of the organization due to a lack of qualified and talented leaders to run the new projects (Ready et al., 2007). In contrast some companies face the future with confidence because they don't just manage talent, they build talent in what Ready et al., call "talent factories" (2007).

According to Ready et al, (2007) talent factories are companies that do not simply manage talent, they build talent through marrying functionality with vitality. Functionality refers to the process themselves, the systems and tools that allow the company to identify, track, and

develop their people. While vitality is the emotional commitment by leadership that is reflected in daily actions of the leader and their ability to communicate the importance of developing internal talent as part of the mission and vision of the organization providing support and creating commitment to the process (Ready et al., 2007). This process places the company in a unique position to retain key employees and fill positions quickly to meet the evolving needs of the business (Ready et al., 2007). Although Ready et al., (2007) does not identify it as such, a strong argument can be made to compare functionality to transactional leadership and vitality to transformational leadership providing additional support for this study's focus on assessing leaders' tendencies toward transformational and transactional leadership.

Summary

The coaching literature includes many examples identifying the importance of evidence-based research to inform theory, practice, and training within the field of coaching. A review of the coaching and leadership literature also shows the importance of adult learning theory, formal coach training, and transformational leadership in identifying the impact of transfer of training for change initiatives within organizations as well as identifying the gap in the areas where empirical support for these models is sparse or does not exist (Den Hartog et al., 1997; Hater et al., 1988; Bass, 2000).

Although the goal of the study was to gather empirical data in support of developing an evidence-based CST leadership program the bigger accomplishment is adding an empirical study to inform practice and training for the field of coaching toward professionalization of coaching, in addition the CST leadership (Stober et al., 2006). This contributes to the body of knowledge in a way that provides practical utility and scientific integrity (Stober et al., 2006). The next chapter proposes the methods to conduct the study.

Chapter 3: Methods

Introduction

The intervention for this study consists of a twenty-one-hour CST leadership program with an emphasis on transformational leadership. The subjects complete two assessments, ICF's CKA and the MLQ, pre and post training. The evaluation of the intervention tests the level of improvement of senior level leader's coaching knowledge and change in their propensity toward three styles of leadership; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire pretest and posttest training intervention. A quasi-experimental design with two pretest-posttest measures identify the shift in leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership and increase in coaching knowledge were administered. This chapter details the appropriateness of the research method and design including the rationale for the research method as well as for the intervention design. Additionally, Chapter 3 includes a discussion of why the method and design were chosen to accomplish the goals of the study.

Conceptual Framework

The proposed model for CST leadership program presented in this study is based upon a clear set of assumptions and beliefs about the importance of establishing evidence based CST to contribute to the professionalization of the field of coaching with an emphasis on senior level leaders having formal coach specific training, and increased transformational leadership skills to support transfer of training for organizational effectiveness and institutional change. This conceptual framework draws upon the evidence garnered through adult learning theory, evidence-based practice, transformational leadership, and formal coach specific training. It also utilizes the scholarly literature pertaining to transformational leadership and adult learning theory has on professional development.

The following statements are not presented in a sequence of priority. First, when experts from around the world were invited to comment on the emerging discipline of coaching psychology and commercial coaching industry several key themes arose; including but not limited to the potential for formal coaching to contribute to social change, health promotion, and organizational development (Grant & Cavanach, 2007). Creating an unequivocal consensus for the need for an evidence-based approach to coaching and CST (Grant et al., 2007). For coaching to flourish as a highly respected professional field practitioners and researchers must identify opportunities to remain clearly differentiated from frequently sensationalistic and pseudoscientific facets of the personal development industry while engaging in the development of evidence-based practice for the wider coaching industry (Grant et al., 2007). One of the most effective ways to do this is through rigorous efforts to develop strong empirical evidence for the practice and training of formal coaching as currently, most formal coach training tends to use non-theoretical, proprietary models of coaching supporting the need for more evidence-based CST (Grant et al., 2007).

Second, one of the primary purposes of leadership is to facilitate the development of an innovative and creative organizational culture that supports employee development and employee support (Bass, 1990). The transformational leader has been characterized as a leader who; articulates the organizational mission and vision in such a way to engage and motivate peers and direct reports, intellectually stimulates direct reports, while attending to the individual differences among the people within the organization (Lowe et al., 1996). Transformational leadership lends itself to creating readiness for change, encouraging innovation-values to fit organizational needs, while developing plans, practices, and structures to support leadership development and training program implementation. (Aarons et al, 2016)

Third, it is important within transformative learning theory for adult learners to be able to adapt to changing conditions, exercise critical judgement, and flexibly engage in more effective collaborative decision making (Mezirow, 1997). Transformative adult learners view learning as a tool to think as an autonomous responsible person as an important educational objective. Transformative adult learners tend to focus on practical, short-term objectives and long-term goals. Transformative adult learning theory supports knowledge retention and transfer of training through leadership characteristics thus supporting the conceptualization of transformational leadership (Mezirow, 1997) making it a complementary tool to utilize within the CST leadership program.

Fourth, it is clear from the research literature that successful transfer of training is increased with the implementation of follow-up leadership coaching to improve and support process during system and organizational change improving critical leadership knowledge and skills (Aarons et al., 2016). Coaching is fundamentally concerned with the enhancement of human functioning, achieved through improvement of behavioral self-regulation and coaching is a goal directed activity; insofar as it focuses on the attainment of professional outcomes valued by the coachee (Spence et al, 2011). Irrespective of whether these goals are focused on the acquisition of skills, improved performance, or developmental in nature, the success of the coachee will depend on how well they can manage their thoughts, feelings and actions in support of their desired goal attainment (Spence et al, 2011). Positive and lasting change or transfer of training results most likely occur when the participant become actively engaged and personally invested in the change (Spence et al, 2011). This study has clearly identified two essential components to support transfer of training within the CST leadership intervention transformational leadership paired with formal coach training for the senior level leaders (Spence

et al, 2011). Thus, supporting the premise of this study is to inform the practice of coaching by identifying the importance of evidence-based CST.

Research Methods

A quasi-experimental design with two pretest-posttest measures was used to identify the shift in leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership and improved coaching knowledge. A one group pre-and post-assessments was conducted. Tests for statistical significance on paired data using paired t-test were conducted. Paired t-test are appropriate for small pre-post samples and robust to deviations from normality that often plague small samples. (Maxwell, 2013; Merriam et al., 2002)

Research design. To assess the effectiveness of the curriculum in teaching the fundamental practices of coaching and transformational leadership, I have designed a one group pre-post test study, where subjects serve as their own controls. This implies that subject leadership CKA and MLQ outcomes are presumed to have changed due to the intervention rather than other potential rival causes. Given the contiguous nature of the program and the time proportion of each day spent in the program it is unlikely that other factors could have significantly contributed to the changes in subject outcomes. The sampling procedure may affect inferences, and this is discussed in more detail in the Research Sample section below. I administered the ICF's CKA knowledge test and the MLQ pre and post participation in the twenty-one hours of CST leadership training conducted over a span of three days. Data collected by means of two specific outcome assessments used to measure the effects of coaching knowledge and leadership tendencies toward transformational transactional, and laissez-faire leadership were used in the study (Koopman, 1997; Avolio et al., 1999). The use of two

different assessments support convergent validity for use of CST and leadership intervention for senior level leaders (Babbie, 2013; Salkind, 2014).

Instruments

CKA. The first assessment was ICF's Coach Knowledge Assessment (CKA). There has been extensive research conducted to gain an understanding of the knowledge and skills important in the practice of coaching used by ICF (Griffen et al., 2008; Moen et al., 2011; <https://coachfederation.org/search?swpquery=core+competencies&swpengine=default>). The results of the study showed that coaches rely heavily on the ICF definition of coaching, core competencies and code of ethics, in their professional practice (these items were taught in the intervention for this study) (see Appendix A and B). A broad team of ICF coaches serving as subject-matter experts contributed to the creation of the ICF's CKA, an assessment that is used by ICF to measure the understanding of the core competencies and code of ethics. (<https://coachfederation.org/coach-knowledge-assessment>, 2017).

The CKA is made up of 155 multiple choice questions with a maximum possible score of 155 with 70% correct answers required for a passing score. The assessment takes approximately 90-120 minutes to complete. There were 14 questions directed at setting the foundation, 22 for co-creating the coaching relationship, 41 for communicating effectively, 44 for facilitating learning and results, and 34 questions that were directed at the overall coaching foundation and knowledge base.

The CKA assesses the participants understanding of the core competencies and code of ethics. The core competencies consist of four main categories and eleven sub-categories as shown in table 3.1. The first category is setting the foundation, which addresses the process of establishing the coaching agreement and understanding and meeting the ethical guidelines and

professional standards of ICF code of ethics as shown in table 3.1. The second category co-creating the relationship, explores ways to establish trust and intimacy within the coaching relationship as well as offer recommendations and guidelines for grooming the coach to provide a professional coaching presence within this relationship. The third category communicating effectively, explores techniques for active listening, powerful questioning, and direct communication between the coach and the coachee. The fourth category facilitating learning and results, supports designing actions, planning and goal setting, and managing progress and accountability all while providing an environment that supports the client in creating awareness. For a more detailed description of the categories, sub-categories, descriptions, and standards see appendix A and appendix B. (<https://coachfederation.org/core-competencies>, 2019)

Table 3.1

ICF Core Competencies

Main Category	Sub-Categories
Setting the Foundation	Meeting Ethical Guidelines and Professional Standards Establishing the Coaching Agreement
Co-Creating the Relationship	Establishing Trust and Intimacy with the Client Coaching Presence
Communicating Effectively	Active Listening Powerful Questioning Direct Communication
Facilitating Learning and Results	Creating Awareness Designing Actions Planning and Goal Setting Managing Progress and Accountability

ICF Code of Ethics

Definitions	The ICF Standards of Ethical Conduct
Coaching	Professional Conduct at Large
ICF Coach	Conflicts of Interest
Professional Coaching Relationship	Professional Conduct with Clients
Roles within the Coaching Relationship	Confidentiality/Privacy
Client	Continuing Development
Sponsor	
Student	
Conflict of Interest	

MLQ. The second assessment was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). This assessment measures leadership tendencies toward the use of three leadership styles; transformational, transactional, and passive or laissez-faire (<https://www.mindgarden.com/16-multifactor-leadership-questionnaire>, 2019). The MQL is used to identify which of the three leadership types the tester has a propensity to use and is suggested to be used pre and post leadership development to identify shifts in leadership tendencies (MLQ Manual, 2017). The MLQ consists of 45 questions with a five point scale for rating the frequency of perceived leader behaviors is used and bears a magnitude estimation based ratio of 4:3:2:1:0, according to a tested list of anchors provided by Bass, Cascio, and O'Connor (1974). The anchors used to evaluate the MLQ factors are presented as follows: Rating Scale for Leadership Items: 0 = Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often, 4 = Frequently, if not always. (see Appendix C to view sample questionnaire) For this study the MLQ self-assessment was administered pre and post participation in the CST leadership training intervention to assess for a shift in leadership tendencies pre and post.

Research sample. Eligible participants for this study include senior level executives, chief executive officers, chief financial officers, chief operating officers, directors, and the leadership support team. The 12 leaders that participated were a self-selected convenience sample developed through professional associations and referral. There were 7 female and 5 male participants, gender and age ranges: 2 females and 1 male ages 30-39; 4 females and 1 male ages 40-49; 3 males ages 50-59; 1 female age 60-69. The reported leadership positions consisted of 6 directors, 3 clinical supervisors, 2 vice presidents, and 1 chief executive officer. The education of participants; 1 no college, 2 some college, 2 associate degree, 3 bachelor degree, 3 graduate degree, 1 doctoral degree. Time in leadership position; 6 participants 5 years and 6

participants more than 10 years. There were 5 additional participants that completed the pre assessments and the entire intervention, however they did not complete the post assessments and were not included within the results. None of the participants had prior ICF approved CST.

A key issue with respect to purposive sampling is the amenability to generalization of results. Given the self-selected nature of the sample, results would only generalize to self-selected senior level managers. This is the intended population of interest for the tested intervention and is distinct from employees being sent to receiving coaching (an important future research topic discussed in chapter 5) to whom this study's results would not apply. The metrics of effect size and statistical significance provide complementary information: the effect size indicates the magnitude of the observed effect or relationship between variables, whereas the significance test indicates the likelihood that the effect or relationship is due to chance (Ibbs, 1997).

Research setting. The training was conducted in a rented meeting room. The participants attended the training over a span of three days. Each day the participant experienced seven hours of training with two fifteen-minute breaks and one hour for lunch. Participants received their first invitation to take the assessments upon agreement to participate within the training program through an email communication. The assessments were conducted using online resources hosted through the perspective organizations; ICF hosted, administered and provided results for the CKA and Mind Garden hosted, administered and provided the results for the MLQ. The researcher was giving the results post participants taking the assessments on secure online servers maintained by ICF and Mind Garden. The CKA was administered and results provided to researcher through an ICF representative. The MLQ was administered through the Mind Garden website. The invitation to complete the second round of assessments was sent through an email

communication once the participants completed the intervention of the CST leadership training intervention. The administration post of assessments was conducted in the same manner as the pre assessments.

Intervention and procedures. Development of educational interventions; the coaching component of the curriculum was based on the accreditation standard for CST of ICF. The program curriculum was based on the core coaching competencies and code of ethics from ICF and was approved as a continuing coach education program by ICF (<https://coachfederation.org/accredit-a-program/continuing-coach-education>, 2019). The transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership was based on the MLQ Manual Full Range of Leadership purchased from Mind Garden (see Appendix D). The MLQ Manual is a resource tool designed to aid in developing a leadership intervention for teaching the Full Range Leadership model and a guide in using the MLQ assessments to create positive behavioral change. (<https://www.mindgarden.com/16-multifactor-leadership-questionnaire>, 2019)

The twenty-one-hour CST leadership intervention was presented over a span of three days (see Appendix E). On day one the participants were introduced to the ICF coaching competencies and code of ethics through lecture and discussion (see Appendix A and B). Day two participants were introduced to the MLQ's Manual's Full Range of Leadership through lecture and discussion (see Appendix D). On days one and two participants participated in peer-to-peer coaching sessions as both coach and coachee. These peer-to-peer coaching sessions ranged from five to ten minutes in length and were conducted in dyads. In addition, they experienced peer-to-peer feedback and instructor feedback on their developing coaching skills and techniques. Day three was dedicated to peer-to-peer coaching and feedback. Each participant was both coach and coachee for a twenty-minute coaching session that was performed in front of

the entire group, referred to as the fishbowl. Each participant received peer-to-peer verbal feedback from the entire group and verbal and written feedback from the instructor.

Implementation of intervention. The CST leadership program was presented four times. The first administration of the intervention was an operational pilot to allow for potential adjustments to the CST leadership program, however no adjustments were made. The implementation of the twenty one hour CST leadership intervention lasted three days and consisted of delivery of coaching and leadership theory, discussion of coaching and leadership theory, practice peer-to-peer coaching, and participation in peer-to-peer and instructor led feedback of coaching practice sessions (see Appendix E).

Data Collection. Evaluation of the educational intervention; participants were given the ICF CKA and the MLQ pretest and posttest training administered online. ICF administered the assessment for the CKA and provided the participant results for study analysis. ICF provided the individual participant scores that include the domain level as well as overall scores used for analysis. Mind Garden administered the assessment for the MLQ and provided the results of participants for study analysis. Mind Garden provided the individual participant scores that include the domain level as well as overall scores used for analysis.

Statistical methods. I conducted pretest and posttest assessments. I conducted tests for statistical significance on paired data using paired t-test. As the purpose of the study is to determine the effectiveness of CST as a specific intervention for senior level leaders to acquire coaching knowledge and increase their propensity toward transformational leadership. The use of two instruments are potentially useful because they can support convergent validity for use of CST and leadership intervention for senior level leaders.

The following research question and hypotheses were put forth for the CKA study instrument:

R₁: Do leaders demonstrate increased coaching knowledge based on ICF core competencies after three days of CST intervention?

H₀: There will be no significant increase in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership intervention.

H₁: There will be a significant increase in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership intervention.

I conducted a comparative analysis of pretest and posttest assessments. I conducted tests for statistical significance on paired data using paired t - test.

The second study instrument was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the following research question and hypotheses were put forth:

R₂: Do leaders demonstrate increased tendency toward transformational leadership over transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles after three days of CST leadership intervention?

H₀: There will be no significant increase in the leader/participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention.

H₂: There will be a significant increase in the leader/participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention.

I conducted pretest and posttest assessments. I conducted tests for statistical significance on paired data using paired t-test.

Faculty training. Core faculty had a master's degree in clinical psychology, completed 200 hours of approved ICF CST, 18 year's experience as a formally trained professional coach, 13 years providing formal professional coach training, and is a National Board Certified Health and Wellness Coach.

Summary

The executive-coaching literature lacks quantitative research studies examining the effectiveness of evidence-based CST leadership programs. The current study seeks to fill this gap by using a quantitative method in a quasi-experimental design to gather empirical data to test the use of CST leadership programs for the professional development of senior level leaders. This small scale one-group pre-post design is an initial effort to not only test CST as an intervention but also to promote the notion of collecting and analyzing data that allow for meaningful analyses of program impact. Chapter 3 examined the research design, method, data collection, research setting, and population. Chapter 4 will provide an in-depth analysis of the data gathered from the research study.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of the study is to determine the effectiveness of CST leadership program as a specific intervention for senior level leaders to increase their coaching knowledge and propensity toward transformational leadership. A quasi-experimental study was used because random assignment to experimental and control groups was not possible. The use of two different assessments support convergent validity for use of CST and leadership intervention for senior level leaders. Chapter 4 contains data analysis methods, results of the analysis, and a summary of findings.

Results

Impact of CKA. The primary research question was whether CST based on ICF core competencies taught within the twenty-one-hour three-day intervention significantly and substantively impacted coaching knowledge therefore the following hypotheses were put forth:

H₀: There will be no significant increase in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership intervention.

H₁: There will be a significant increase in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership intervention.

The data were analyzed using one group pre and post design. A paired t – test was used to identify whether there was statistical significance. Table 4.1 presents the means for the CKA. Each of the domains do not contribute equally to the total as can be seen by the total possible for each domain. The overall score is weighted by the number of items in each domain. Overall the average score is 92.3 which is 60% of the total, with 70% required for passing. On the pretest participants seem to have the most difficulty with the coaching foundations and knowledge base

as demonstrated by the lowest proportion of correct responses, 49% correct on average. Prior to this study the CKA is has not been administered as a pre-post assessment therefore there is no benchmark for pretest scores for comparison. There is a fairly substantial range between subjects. Table 4.1 also presents results of post test which demonstrated increase which is discussed more fully in the discussion of table 4.3.

Table 4.1
CKA Descriptives

	Overall	Setting the Foundation	Co-Creating the Relationship	Communicating Effectively	Facilitating Learning and Results	Coaching Foundations & Knowledge Base
Possible Pre test	155	14	22	41	44	34
mean	92.3	8.9	15.4	23.3	27.3	16.8
median	104.5	9.0	16.5	26.0	28.0	17.0
min	53.0	5.0	8.0	10.0	11.0	7.0
max	122.0	12.0	20.0	33.0	36.0	24.0
SD	23.7	2.2	3.6	7.1	8.5	5.6
Post test						
mean	102.1	9.8	16.6	25.8	28.9	20.4
median	108.5	9.0	17.0	28.5	30.5	21.5
min	53.0	7.0	13.0	14.0	11.0	6.0
max	130.0	13.0	21.0	35.0	38.0	27.0
SD	19.8	1.8	2.5	6.2	7.0	5.2

N=12

Table 4.2 illustrates the overall percentage correct for the CKA for each participant.

Three participants achieved the passing score of 70% on the pretest and six participants achieved the passing score of 70% on the post test.

Table 4.2

Overall		CKA			
155		Questions			
Correct		Correct		Δ	
Pre-	Post-	Pre- %	Post- %	No. Correct	% Correct
107	113	69.0%	72.9%	6	3.9%
116	111	74.8%	71.6%	-5	-3.2%
108	114	69.7%	73.5%	6	3.9%
64	92	41.3%	59.4%	28	18.1%
110	116	71.0%	74.8%	6	3.9%
105	114	67.7%	73.5%	9	5.8%
122	130	78.7%	83.9%	8	5.2%
71	89	45.8%	57.4%	18	11.6%
82	97	52.9%	62.6%	15	9.7%
104	106	67.1%	68.4%	2	1.3%
65	90	41.9%	58.1%	25	16.1%
53	53	34.2%	34.2%	0	0.0%

N=12

The results of the CKA omnibus paired t-test demonstrate an Overall (Composite) Domain pre-post difference that has substantively meaningful effect size of $d = 0.50$ ($p < 0.05$), indicating the subjects significantly improved pretest to posttest in overall coaching knowledge. These results are presented in table 4.3. Auxiliary t-test were conducted for each domain as a means of describing elements that contributed to the overall improvement of CKA. Results from multiple t-tests should be interpreted with caution given the inflated type I error rate and are presented to assist in understanding the overall change in CKA.

Table 4.3

Pre - Post results of CKA

Domain	Pre Mean	Post Mean	Difference	p-value	Effect size
Overall	92.3	102.1	9.8	0.01	0.50
Setting the Foundation	8.9	9.8	0.9	0.14	0.51
Co-Creating the Relationship	15.4	16.6	1.2	0.15	0.46
Communicating Effectively	23.3	25.8	2.5	0.04	0.40

Facilitating Learning and Results	27.3	28.9	1.7	0.35	0.24
Coaching Foundations & Knowledge Base	16.8	20.4	3.6	0.03	0.68

N=12

Table 4.3 illustrates communicating effectively ($p < .05$) and coaching foundation and knowledge base ($p < .05$) are suggestive of the components contributing to the overall improvement. There was however no significant shift in facilitating learning and results. Table 4.3 illustrates the overall results support rejecting H_0 and accepting H_1 : There was a significant difference in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership program intervention. Rationale and substance impact of these results are presented in chapter 5.

Impact of MLQ. The primary research question was whether leaders demonstrate increased tendency toward transformational leadership over transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles after three days of CST leadership intervention therefore the following hypotheses were put forth:

H_0 : There will be no significant increase in the leader/participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention.

H_2 : There will be a significant increase in the leader/participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention.

For the MLQ the results of the paired t-test did not demonstrate statistical significance as demonstrated in table 4.4, therefore the results support the null H_0 : There was no significant difference in the leader/participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention.

Table 4.4

Pre post results for MLQ					
	Pre Mean	Post Mean	Difference	P-value	Effect size
Overall Domain					
Transformational	15.71	16.24	0.53	0.29	0.17
Transactional	4.98	4.78	-0.20	0.68	-0.14
Passive Avoidant	1.23	0.73	-0.51	0.35	-0.56
Outcomes of Leadership	9.56	10.23	0.67	0.03	0.35
Transformational 5 I's	3.15	3.26	0.11	0.29	0.18

N=12

Disaggregated results. To further review the disaggregated results of the MLQ impact of the intervention, taking into consideration there was no statistical difference in effect for the MLQ and again noting the caution when interpreting results using multiple t-test, I did see a substantively meaningful pre-post differences in the areas of monitors deviations and mistakes, fights fires, and avoids involvement as seen in table 4.5. Further there is a slight shift in the leadership outcomes section of the MLQ results with an increase in is productive and generates satisfaction as seen in table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Descriptive MLQ results by sub domain	Pre Mean	Post Mean	Effect size
Transformational			
Builds Trust (IIA)	2.85	2.99	0.15
Acts with Integrity (IIB)	2.98	3.13	0.15
Encourages Others (IM)	3.21	3.42	0.29
Encourages Innovative Thinking (IS)	3.21	3.15	-0.14
Coaches & Develops People (IC)	3.38	3.48	0.19
Transactional			
Rewards Achievement (CR)	3.10	3.25	0.24
Monitors Deviations & Mistakes (MBEA)	1.82	1.48	-0.39
Passive Avoidant			
Fights Fires (MBEP)	0.85	0.48	-0.65
Avoids Involvement (LF)	0.33	0.23	-0.23
Outcomes of Leadership			

Generates Extra Effort (EE)	3.00	3.19	0.82
Is Productive (EFF)	3.25	3.58	0.56
Generates Satisfaction (SAT)	3.29	3.42	0.54
Transformational			
Five I's of Transformational Leadership	3.14	3.25	0.17

N=12

Substantive interpretation and discussion of the implications of the results are presented in chapter 5.

Summary

Chapter 4 presented the results of a quasi-experimental study designed to empirically test whether CST as a specific intervention for senior level leaders to acquire coaching knowledge and increase their propensity toward transformational leadership. Two outcome measures the CKA and the MLQ facilitate the collection of empirical data. The results of the paired t-test illustrated in table 4.3 suggest there was a significant increase in overall domain for the CKA as demonstrated ($p < 0.05$) supporting the H_1 : There was a significant difference in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership program intervention. In contrast the results of the paired t-test illustrated in table 4.4 did not demonstrate statistical significance suggesting that the null H_0 : There was no significant difference in the leader/participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention cannot be rejected. With further examination of the sub-categories of the MLQ the disaggregated results of the MLQ impact of the intervention, taking into consideration there was no statistical difference in the effect size for the MLQ, we did see a reduction in the area of monitors deviations and mistakes, fights fires, and avoids involvement as seen in table 4.3.

Further there is a slight shift in the leadership outcomes section of the MLQ results with an increased in is productive and generates satisfaction as seen in table 4.5. Chapter 5 contains an overview of the study and a closer look at the research outcomes with an examination of the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and overall conclusion of findings.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

Trust in leadership is required to foster the willingness of the followers to identify with the organization and in turn to internalize its values and the emergence of transcendental organizational citizenship behavior such as; courtesy, sportsmanship, altruism, and civic virtues. For this trust transformational leadership is needed along with corresponding changes in training and development within the organization (Bass, 1999). An effective way for leaders and managers to provide this to their employees is through ongoing coaching and performance feedback (Longenecker, 2012). Because many managers and leaders have never been trained in effective or formal coach specific training and few managers or leaders have coaches to help coach them in effective coaching practices formal coach training is highly recommended for senior level leaders and managers alike (Longenecker, 2012). The balance of the chapter contains an overview of the CST leadership training study and a closer look at the research outcomes with an examination at the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and overall conclusion of findings.

Overview of Study

The focus of this study is to examine whether CST with an emphasis on leadership results in increase in senior level leaders coaching knowledge and their propensity toward three styles of leadership; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire pre and post training. Given that coaching knowledge and transformational leadership are more likely to create an organizational environment of trust fostering an environment for managerial coaching and the development of a coaching culture it is important to identify interventions such as CST that can effectively and

efficiently impact leader's knowledge, skills, and leadership style. (Bass, 1999; Longenecker, 2012; Moen et al., 2011; McCarty et al., 2013; Beattie et al., 2014)

The second chapter examined the array of relevant literature with previous research on the study intervention; coaching, the history of coaching, professional association for coaching, accrediting CST programs, coaching and psychology, professional coaching, managerial coaching, coaching culture, training, adult learning theory, training transfer to work, leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership. The research hypothesis was addressed by developing CST, administering to the sample of senior level leaders, assessing pre post for change in coaching knowledge and leadership tendencies toward three leadership styles; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The results indicate significant improvement in coaching knowledge with no significant improvement in leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership. The results and analysis are summarized next.

Summary of findings

Two outcome measures the CKA and the MLQ provide evidence for the impact of the CST on leaders' coaching knowledge. The results of the paired t-test illustrated in table 4.3 suggest there was a significant increase in the overall domain for the CKA as demonstrated ($p < 0.05$) allowing for acceptance of H1: There was a significant increase in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST leader/participants pre and post attendance of the CST leadership intervention. In contrast the results of the MLQ paired t-test illustrated in table 4.4 did not demonstrate statistical significance, thus allowing the null H0: There was no significant increase in the leader/participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership pre and post the CST leadership intervention, to be

rejected. With further examination of the sub-categories of the MLQ the disaggregated results of the MLQ impact of the intervention, taking into consideration there was no statistical difference in the effect size for the MLQ, there appears to be suggestive evidence that a reduction in the area of monitors deviations and mistakes, fights fires, and avoids involvement as seen in table 4.5. Further there is a slight shift in the leadership outcomes section of the MLQ results with an increased in is productive and generates satisfaction as seen in table 4.4.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Sample. The two most significant limitations of this study are the selective nature of the subjects and the sample size of 12 participants for a quantitative study. These two issues are addressed in turn. Statistically speaking it is challenging to get a representative effect with such a small research sample. (Creswell, 2015; Ibbs, 1997) Generalizing the results of an evidence-based CST to all levels of coaching will require additional research. The training, educational background, level of motivation, and years of experience for a senior level leader may vary from that of a participant attending a CST for life or health and wellness coach training. The sample size of 12 is not amenable to analyses that include potential moderating factors. A larger sample size would also have more power to detect effects and it would be possible to more formally test whether specific domain scores improved pre to post-test.

Although the study showed statistical significance in the results of the CKA, to glean a more in depth understanding of the effectiveness of the CST leadership intervention for future research I suggest a mixed method study. When working with a small sample interpretations derived from statistical significance testing alone can be inconclusive as was seen with the results of the MLQ that did not demonstrate statistical significance, however did show potential for change within the subcategories and leadership outcomes; Monitors Deviations and Mistakes,

Fights Fires, and Avoids Involvement, Is Productive and Generates Satisfaction as seen in table 4.3. (Creswell, 2015; Ibbs, 1997)

To better understand if research findings are practically meaningful as well as informing the field of study, a mixed methods approach is recommended. In addition to addressing a small sample size, a mixed method research approach can integrate both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study with a focus on research questions that call for real-life contextual understandings and multilevel perspectives. The use of a rigorous mixed methods approach that frames scientific inquiry within a philosophical and theoretical framework could provide an in depth understanding of the impact of the CST while providing essential information for future program improvements. (Ibbs, 2019)

The lack of random assignment of the selected participants does not allow for generalization of study results. Although a randomized study is preferred, the financial resources to carry out a randomized control study with C-level leaders is substantial and a small-scale study such as this lacks the resources for carrying out such a design. Therefore, the participants were self-selected into the study. (Creswell, 2015) The population for the study was selected based on the recommendations and outcome results uncovered in the literature review. I chose to sample senior level executives, chief executive officers, chief financial officers, chief operating officers, directors, and the leadership support team for this study. While this sampling frame is not representative of all leaders, the literature revealed the struggle senior executives and human resources managers undergo as they continuously look for effective ways to implement organizational change; which makes them ideal candidates for the study. The standard go to method is through the utilization of training programs and staff development to support the long term change the company requires to maintain a competitive edge in the marketplace. (Conger,

& Fulmer, 2006) (Beer et al., 2016) The problem lies in the failure of these training program to produce the long-term outcomes the organization seeks. (Beer et al, 2016) The shift that needs to take place for the training to be successful is within the organizational design and the managerial process lies with authority of the senior level leaders. (Blumenthal, Bernard, Bohnen, & Bohmer, 2012) (Beer et al., 2016) Fundamentally, the only way companies are going to experience the successful changes they seek is if they first start with the senior level leaders. Education and training gain the most traction when championed by senior leaders who provide highly visible organizational change and development efforts. (Higgs, & Rowland, 2010) (Beer et al., 2016) This higher return on investment comes in part, because bringing in the senior leaders not only motivates people to learn and change but because the organization systems, structure, and culture are maintained through the senior levels of leadership. (Beer et al., 2016) For mid-level leaders to adopt managerial coaching practices and for organizations to develop a coaching culture it is suggested senior level leaders need to undergo CST. (McCarthy et al.,2013; Passmore et al., 2011; Beattie et al., 2014; Anderson, 2013)

In my attempt to recruit senior level leaders to participate in my research, anecdotally, I found two main stumbling blocks; senior leaders reported the three-day time frame was too long for them to be away from the office and they felt they were already successfully “coaching” their followers. The CST leadership program intervention was structured over a period of three days to allow the necessary time for participants to be introduced to ICF core competencies, code of ethics, and the three forms of leadership assessed by the CKA and MLQ in addition to facilitating the opportunity to experience formal coaching from the perspective of both coach and coachee. The research design of this study required the three-day time frame for learning to take place and the opportunity for the leader to have a shift in leadership tendencies. As practical

application unfolds the theoretical constructs and real-world applications do not always work as envisioned, therefore I recommend future research design explore ways to break the CST leadership intervention into multiple segments over longer periods of time when assessing the effectiveness of CST. Allowing for more time between interventions has the potential to allow for the leader to practice their coaching abilities and increase their likelihood of shifting their leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership. Breaking the intervention into shorter trainings over longer period would address the leaders request to shorten the time away for their workplace while still providing the leadership development opportunity. In addition, researchers conducting future research of CST may have more success obtaining participants with more informed public awareness of the field of professional coaching and its potential benefits for the effectiveness of senior level leadership.

Informed organizational awareness. Although many of the senior level leaders I approached to participate in my study reported they didn't have a need for formal coaching training the research shows a large percentage of leaders and frontend managers are not effective at coaching their direct reports, have never had formal coach specific training (CST), and actively admit they struggle in identifying opportunities to develop their direct reports. (Longenecker, 2010) (Anderson, 2013) (Groves, 2007) Begging the question were these leaders actually experiencing the Dunning Kruger effect? The Dunning–Kruger framework asserts that the expertise required to judge the quality of performance is the same level of expertise necessary to produce quality performance. Thus, those failing to achieve quality performance are also those the least able to judge when it has been attained therefore, they will fail to recognize the incompetence of their own performance. Leading to what is referred to as the double curse, because of their imperfect expertise, they are simply unable to recognize the depths of their

deficiencies. In addition, poor performers have a tendency to think they have outperformed a majority of their peers when, in fact, their performance puts them among the bottom 25% of performers. In turn, higher performers are more accurate in identifying when they performed well and when their performance requires improvements. (Schlosser et al., 2013)

The lack of informed public understanding of what coaching is and is not leaves the leaders vulnerable to experiencing the Dunning-Kruger effect in relation to their leadership effectiveness and coaching abilities. Although ICF applies rigorous efforts in educating the public on the importance and effectiveness of CST and the use of certified coaches for leadership development future research and community outreach is required to address the challenge of senior level leaders understanding of the importance of CST.

In addition, further education of the misuse of the term “coaching” is essential. The term coaching is continually used in reference to actions that are not coaching as defined by ICF, instead, what most managers and leaders are doing would fall under the category of managerial coaching. DiGiralamo et al. (2019), discuss the growing number of organizations that are using what is often referred to as a coaching approach and managerial coaching without any formal coach training or understanding of the nuances of the coaching relationship or skills of a formally trained coach. More effort needs to be made to education the public of what coaching is and is not and the knowledge and skills required to successfully conduct formal coaching sessions and impromptu managerial coaching. Formal coaching provides support by the facilitation of activities or intervention, it is collaborative and egalitarian. Coaching is not based on an authoritarian relationship nor is it directive or punitive. There is a distinct difference between a coaching engagement and the use of coaching skills while managing and leading subordinates which is more in alignment with managerial coaching. (DiGiralamo et al., 2019)

Further research brings the potential to impart a greater understanding of these differences and demonstrate the positive impact of CST leadership programs for the senior level leader. In addition, the resources to follow-up and examine the level of transfer of training into the participants performance as a leader or identify the long-term effectiveness of the evidence-based CST with an emphasis on transformational leadership skills is beyond the scope and capacity of this study.

Finally, the scope of the study is limited to professional coaching and limited in the leadership style to transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and does not take into consideration life or health and wellness coaching or other forms of leadership styles. Limiting the scope specifically to CST and transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership provides clear linkage between the model and the outcome data. Such specific linkage is lacking in the executive-coaching literature (Olivero, Bane, and Kopelman, 2001). Results from the study supports further dialog between researchers, practitioners, and leaders regarding the value of empirical research for CST and leadership development programs.

Instruments the MLQ and CKA. The fields of professional coaching and leadership development would both benefit from additional and improved assessments to identify skills, knowledge, and abilities for coaching or leadership preferences and tendencies. The MLQ was the only leadership assessment I found to assess the leader's tendencies toward transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leadership. The MLQ is available to the public through the company that administers the assessments, Mind Garden. The MLQ comes in two formats the self-rater and the multi-rater. The Multi-rater provides the leaders self-assessment combined with the results of a minimum of three and a maximum of fifty other individuals. The multi-rater tool uses a combination of direct reports, leadership peers and at least one supervisor of the leader for

whom the assessment is given. The multi-rater assessment provides a more comprehensive look at the leader than the self-rater. The multi-rater requires a minimum six-month span between administrations to allow time for the leader to develop and implement new behaviors that can be reported through observation and experience of the leader's coworkers. The scope of this study did not allow the time frame necessary to successfully administer the MLQ in the form of the multi-rater. I recommend future studies break the twenty one hour CST leadership intervention into one day segments presented over a longer time span allowing for the leader to minimize their time away from the workplace, have more time to practice their coaching techniques, assimilate their coaching knowledge, and utilize the MLQ multi rater to provide a more detailed analysis of their leadership tendencies. Providing this recommended process also has the potential to increase the instance and likelihood of the CST leadership intervention to transfer into the workplace.

The only coaching assessment I was able to find was ICF's CKA. This assessment is not open to the general public. It is used by ICF as one aspect of assessment for coaches who are applying to the professional association for certification. When the candidate is applying for certification, they have attended a minimum of sixty hours of ICF accredited CST and conducted a minimum of one hundred hours of coaching. The 155 item CKA can seem daunting to subjects and takes approximately 90-120 minutes to complete. I recommend that future research be conducted to develop coaching assessments that provide the same level comprehensive assessment of coaching knowledge in a shorter assessment. Taking a long assessment can present fatigue toward the end of the assessment which could potentially impact the overall outcomes of the assessment results.

In addition, it would be beneficial to have access to statistical analysis of the assessment being used in future research to provide benchmarks for comparisons within the study, identify norms, and allow for a more comprehensive analysis of study outcomes. Having the assessment presented in categories and subcategories is highly beneficial for educational institutions' when designing CST interventions, assessing participant learning and skill development and the potential levels of workplace transfer. This would not only aid in program design it would support future improvement of overall program structure, implementation and design. Finally, I recommend that future research be conducted to develop a comprehensive assessment tools for coaching skills and abilities as a companion to coaching knowledge assessments with the same recommendations for this assessment as for future coaching knowledge assessments. Future research could be conducted to assess the impact of training transfer, coaching abilities, and return on investment for both the company who sends the leaders to the training and the individual attending the intervention. Looking at the impact for future career success with the new skills and abilities as well as improved organizational outcomes.

Conclusion

The current study tested the level of improvement of the senior level leaders coaching knowledge and their propensity toward three styles of leadership; transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire pre and post training. The senior level leaders attended a three-day coach specific training (CST) with an emphasis on increasing transformational leadership tendencies. A quasi-experimental design with multiple pretest-posttest measures provided to identify an increase in coaching knowledge and a shift in leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership.

Two outcome measures the CKA and the MLQ resulted in collection of empirical data. The results of the paired t -test illustrated in table 4.3 indicates there was a significant increase in the level of coaching knowledge for the CST participants due to attendance in the CST leadership intervention. In contrast the results of the MLQ paired t-test illustrated in table 4.4 did not demonstrate statistical significance suggesting no significant increase in the participants leadership tendencies toward transformational leadership with a diminished use of laissez-faire leadership due to attending the CST leadership intervention.

Limitations within the study included a small sample size of 12 participants, a self-selected group of participants hindering generalization of the study, the implementation of the intervention being too long for the sample, and a limited availability of assessments for coaching knowledge and leadership tendencies. Recommendations for future research were made; use of a mixed methods study to account for the small sample size, divide the intervention into small modules to address the potential time constraints of senior level leaders, develop organizational awareness of the ICF definition of coaching and the benefits of working with formally trained coaches, and lastly to develop more assessment tools for the field of professional coaching and leadership.

Although the goal of the study is to gather empirical data in support of developing an evidence-based CST leadership program with an emphasis on transformational leadership the bigger accomplishment is adding an empirical study to inform practice and training for the field of coaching toward professionalization of coaching, in addition to the CST leadership (Stober et al., 2006). More studies providing practical utility (Stober et al., 2006) will move the field of coaching forward and this study contributes to the body of knowledge in a way that provides practical utility and scientific integrity. This study contributes to the field of coaching by:

creating an evidence-based CST; furthering the study of the field of coaching; and, emphasizing the importance of CST for senior level leadership. In addition, this study contributes to; the field of training and development through the creation of an evidenced-based training program. Finally, this study furthers the professionalization of the field of coaching through the development of standardized training and education.

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Appendix A: ICF Core Competencies

The following eleven core coaching competencies were developed to support greater understanding about the skills and approaches used within today's coaching profession as defined by the International Coach Federation. They will also support you in calibrating the level of alignment between the coach-specific training expected and the training you have experienced.

Finally, these competencies and the ICF definition were used as the foundation for the ICF Coach Knowledge Assessment (CKA). The ICF defines coaching as partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximize their personal and professional potential. The Core Competencies are grouped into four clusters according to those that fit together logically based on common ways of looking at the competencies in each group. The groupings and individual competencies are not weighted—they do not represent any kind of priority in that they are all core or critical for any competent coach to demonstrate.

A. Setting the Foundation

1. Meeting Ethical Guidelines and Professional Standards
2. Establishing the Coaching Agreement

B. Co-creating the Relationship

3. Establishing Trust and Intimacy with the Client
4. Coaching Presence

C. Communicating Effectively

5. Active Listening
6. Powerful Questioning
7. Direct Communication

D. Facilitating Learning and Results

8. Creating Awareness
9. Designing Actions
10. Planning and Goal Setting
11. Managing Progress and Accountability

A. Setting the Foundation

1. Meeting Ethical Guidelines and Professional Standards—Understanding of coaching ethics and standards and ability to apply them appropriately in all coaching situations.

Understands and exhibits in own behaviors the ICF Code of Ethics (see Code, Part III of ICF Code of Ethics).

Understands and follows all ICF Ethical Guidelines.

Clearly communicates the distinctions between coaching, consulting, psychotherapy and other support professions.

Refers client to another support professional as needed, knowing when this is needed and the available resources.

2. Establishing the Coaching Agreement—Ability to understand what is required in the specific coaching interaction and to come to agreement with the prospective and new client about the coaching process and relationship.

Understands and effectively discusses with the client the guidelines and specific parameters of the coaching relationship (e.g., logistics, fees, scheduling, inclusion of others if appropriate).

Reaches agreement about what is appropriate in the relationship and what is not, what is and is not being offered, and about the client's and coach's responsibilities.

Determines whether there is an effective match between his/her coaching method and the needs of the prospective client.

B. Co-Creating the Relationship

3. Establishing Trust and Intimacy with the Client—Ability to create a safe, supportive environment that produces ongoing mutual respect and trust.

1. Shows genuine concern for the client's welfare and future.
2. Continuously demonstrates personal integrity, honesty and sincerity.
3. Establishes clear agreements and keeps promises.
4. Demonstrates respect for client's perceptions, learning style, personal being.
5. Provides ongoing support for and champions new behaviors and actions, including those involving risk-taking and fear of failure.
6. Asks permission to coach client in sensitive, new areas.

4. Coaching Presence—Ability to be fully conscious and create spontaneous relationship with the client, employing a style that is open, flexible and confident.

1. Is present and flexible during the coaching process, dancing in the moment.
2. Accesses own intuition and trusts one's inner knowing—"goes with the gut."

3. Is open to not knowing and takes risks.
4. Sees many ways to work with the client and chooses in the moment what is most effective.
5. Uses humor effectively to create lightness and energy.
6. Confidently shifts perspectives and experiments with new possibilities for own action.
7. Demonstrates confidence in working with strong emotions and can self-manage and not be overpowered or enmeshed by client's emotions.

C. Communicating Effectively

5. Active Listening—Ability to focus completely on what the client is saying and is not saying, to understand the meaning of what is said in the context of the client's desires, and to support client self-expression.

1. Attends to the client and the client's agenda and not to the coach's agenda for the client.
2. Hears the client's concerns, goals, values and beliefs about what is and is not possible.
3. Distinguishes between the words, the tone of voice, and the body language.
4. Summarizes, paraphrases, reiterates, and mirrors back what client has said to ensure clarity and understanding.
5. Encourages, accepts, explores and reinforces the client's expression of feelings, perceptions, concerns, beliefs, suggestions, etc.
6. Integrates and builds on client's ideas and suggestions.
7. "Bottom-lines" or understands the essence of the client's communication and helps the client get there rather than engaging in long, descriptive stories.
8. Allows the client to vent or "clear" the situation without judgment or attachment in order to move on to next steps.

6. Powerful Questioning—Ability to ask questions that reveal the information needed for maximum benefit to the coaching relationship and the client.

1. Asks questions that reflect active listening and an understanding of the client's perspective.

2. Asks questions that evoke discovery, insight, commitment or action (e.g., those that challenge the client's assumptions).
3. Asks open-ended questions that create greater clarity, possibility or new learning.
4. Asks questions that move the client toward what they desire, not questions that ask for the client to justify or look backward.

7. Direct Communication—Ability to communicate effectively during coaching sessions, and to use language that has the greatest positive impact on the client.

1. Is clear, articulate and direct in sharing and providing feedback.
2. Reframes and articulates to help the client understand from another perspective what he/she wants or is uncertain about.
3. Clearly states coaching objectives, meeting agenda, and purpose of techniques or exercises.
4. Uses language appropriate and respectful to the client (e.g., non-sexist, non-racist, non-technical, non-jargon).
5. Uses metaphor and analogy to help to illustrate a point or paint a verbal picture.

D. Facilitating Learning and Results

8. Creating Awareness—Ability to integrate and accurately evaluate multiple sources of information and to make interpretations that help the client to gain awareness and thereby achieve agreed-upon results.

1. Goes beyond what is said in assessing client's concerns, not getting hooked by the client's description.
2. Invokes inquiry for greater understanding, awareness, and clarity.
3. Identifies for the client his/her underlying concerns; typical and fixed ways of perceiving himself/herself and the world; differences between the facts and the interpretation; and disparities between thoughts, feelings, and action.
4. Helps clients to discover for themselves the new thoughts, beliefs, perceptions, emotions, moods, etc. that strengthen their ability to take action and achieve what is important to them.
5. Communicates broader perspectives to clients and inspires commitment to shift their viewpoints and find new possibilities for action.

6. Helps clients to see the different, interrelated factors that affect them and their behaviors (e.g., thoughts, emotions, body, and background).
 7. Expresses insights to clients in ways that are useful and meaningful for the client.
 8. Identifies major strengths vs. major areas for learning and growth, and what is most important to address during coaching.
 9. Asks the client to distinguish between trivial and significant issues, situational vs. recurring behaviors, when detecting a separation between what is being stated and what is being done.
9. Designing Actions—Ability to create with the client opportunities for ongoing learning, during coaching and in work/life situations, and for taking new actions that will most effectively lead to agreed-upon coaching results.
1. Brainstorms and assists the client to define actions that will enable the client to demonstrate, practice, and deepen new learning.
 2. Helps the client to focus on and systematically explore specific concerns and opportunities that are central to agreed-upon coaching goals.
 3. Engages the client to explore alternative ideas and solutions, to evaluate options, and to make related decisions.
 4. Promotes active experimentation and self-discovery, where the client applies what has been discussed and learned during sessions immediately afterward in his/her work or life setting.
 5. Celebrates client successes and capabilities for future growth.
 6. Challenges client’s assumptions and perspectives to provoke new ideas and find new possibilities for action.
 7. Advocates or brings forward points of view that are aligned with client goals and, without attachment, engages the client to consider them.
 8. Helps the client “Do It Now” during the coaching session, providing immediate support.
 9. Encourages stretches and challenges but also a comfortable pace of learning.
10. Planning and Goal Setting—Ability to develop and maintain an effective coaching plan with the client.

1. Consolidates collected information and establishes a coaching plan and development goals with the client that address concerns and major areas for learning and development.
2. Creates a plan with results that are attainable, measurable, specific, and have target dates.
3. Makes plan adjustments as warranted by the coaching process and by changes in the situation.
4. Helps the client identify and access different resources for learning (e.g., books, other professionals).
5. Identifies and targets early successes that are important to the client.

11. Managing Progress and Accountability—Ability to hold attention on what is important for the client, and to leave responsibility with the client to take action.

1. Clearly requests of the client actions that will move the client toward his/her stated goals.
2. Demonstrates follow-through by asking the client about those actions that the client committed to during the previous session(s).
3. Acknowledges the client for what they have done, not done, learned or become aware of since the previous coaching session(s).
4. Effectively prepares, organizes, and reviews with client information obtained during sessions.
5. Keeps the client on track between sessions by holding attention on the coaching plan and outcomes, agreed-upon courses of action, and topics for future session(s).
6. Focuses on the coaching plan but is also open to adjusting behaviors and actions based on the coaching process and shifts in direction during sessions.
7. Is able to move back and forth between the big picture of where the client is heading, setting a context for what is being discussed and where the client wishes to go.
8. Promotes client's self-discipline and holds the client accountable for what they say they are going to do, for the results of an intended action, or for a specific plan with related time frames.
9. Develops the client's ability to make decisions, address key concerns, and develop himself/herself (to get feedback, to determine priorities and set the pace of learning, to reflect on and learn from experiences).

10. Positively confronts the client with the fact that he/she did not take agreed-upon actions.

Appendix B: ICF Code of Ethics

ICF is committed to maintaining and promoting excellence in coaching. Therefore, ICF expects all members and credentialed coaches (coaches, coach mentors, coaching supervisors, coach trainers or students), to adhere to the elements and principles of ethical conduct: to be competent and integrate ICF Core Competencies effectively in their work.

In line with the ICF core values and ICF definition of coaching, the Code of Ethics is designed to provide appropriate guidelines, accountability and enforceable standards of conduct for all ICF Members and ICF Credential-holders, who commit to abiding by the following ICF Code of Ethics:

Part One: Definitions

- **Coaching:** Coaching is partnering with clients in a thought-provoking and creative process that inspires them to maximize their personal and professional potential.
- **ICF Coach:** An ICF coach agrees to practice the ICF Core Competencies and pledges accountability to the ICF Code of Ethics.
- **Professional Coaching Relationship:** A professional coaching relationship exists when coaching includes an agreement (including contracts) that defines the responsibilities of each party.
- **Roles in the Coaching Relationship:** In order to clarify roles in the coaching relationship it is often necessary to distinguish between the client and the sponsor. In most cases, the client and sponsor are the same person and are therefore jointly referred to as the client. For purposes of identification, however, the ICF defines these roles as follows:
 - **Client:** The “Client/Coachee” is the person(s) being coached.
 - **Sponsor:** The “sponsor” is the entity (including its representatives) paying for and/or arranging for coaching services to be provided. In all cases, coaching engagement agreements should clearly establish the rights, roles and responsibilities for both the client and sponsor if the client and sponsor are different people.
 - **Student:** The “student” is someone enrolled in a coach training program or working with a coaching supervisor or coach mentor in order to learn the coaching process or enhance and develop their coaching skills.
- **Conflict of Interest:** A situation in which a coach has a private or personal interest sufficient to appear to influence the objective of his or her official duties as a coach and a professional.

Part Two: The ICF Standards of Ethical Conduct

Section 1: Professional Conduct at Large

As a coach, I:

- 1) Conduct myself in accordance with the ICF Code of Ethics in all interactions, including coach training, coach mentoring and coach supervisory activities.
- 2) Commit to take the appropriate action with the coach, trainer, or coach mentor and/or will contact ICF to address any ethics violation or possible breach as soon as I become aware, whether it involves me or others.
- 3) Communicate and create awareness in others, including organizations, employees, sponsors, coaches and others, who might need to be informed of the responsibilities established by this Code.
- 4) Refrain from unlawful discrimination in occupational activities, including age, race, gender orientation, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religion, national origin or disability.
- 5) Make verbal and written statements that are true and accurate about what I offer as a coach, the coaching profession or ICF.
- 6) Accurately identify my coaching qualifications, expertise, experience, training, certifications and ICF Credentials.
- 7) Recognize and honor the efforts and contributions of others and only claim ownership of my own material. I understand that violating this standard may leave me subject to legal remedy by a third party.
- 8) Strive at all times to recognize my personal issues that may impair, conflict with or interfere with my coaching performance or my professional coaching relationships. I will promptly seek the relevant professional assistance and determine the action to be taken, including whether it is appropriate to suspend or terminate my coaching relationship(s) whenever the facts and circumstances necessitate.
- 9) Recognize that the Code of Ethics applies to my relationship with coaching clients, coachees, students, mentees and supervisees.
- 10) Conduct and report research with competence, honesty and within recognized scientific standards and applicable subject guidelines. My research will be carried out

with the necessary consent and approval of those involved, and with an approach that will protect participants from any potential harm. All research efforts will be performed in a manner that complies with all the applicable laws of the country in which the research is conducted.

11) Maintain, store and dispose of any records, including electronic files and communications, created during my coaching engagements in a manner that promotes confidentiality, security and privacy and complies with any applicable laws and agreements.

12) Use ICF Member contact information (email addresses, telephone numbers, and so on) only in the manner and to the extent authorized by the ICF.

Section 2: Conflicts of Interest

As a coach, I:

13) Seek to be conscious of any conflict or potential conflict of interest, openly disclose any such conflict and offer to remove myself when a conflict arises.

14) Clarify roles for internal coaches, set boundaries and review with stakeholders conflicts of interest that may emerge between coaching and other role functions.

15) Disclose to my client and the sponsor(s) all anticipated compensation from third parties that I may receive for referrals of clients or pay to receive clients.

16) Honor an equitable coach/client relationship, regardless of the form of compensation.

Section 3: Professional Conduct with Clients

As a coach, I:

17) Ethically speak what I know to be true to clients, prospective clients or sponsors about the potential value of the coaching process or of me as a coach.

18) Carefully explain and strive to ensure that, prior to or at the initial meeting, my coaching client and sponsor(s) understand the nature of coaching, the nature and limits of confidentiality, financial arrangements, and any other terms of the coaching agreement.

19) Have a clear coaching service agreement with my clients and sponsor(s) before beginning the coaching relationship and honor this agreement. The agreement shall include the roles, responsibilities and rights of all parties involved.

20) Hold responsibility for being aware of and setting clear, appropriate and culturally sensitive boundaries that govern interactions, physical or otherwise, I may have with my clients or sponsor(s).

21) Avoid any sexual or romantic relationship with current clients or sponsor(s) or students, mentees or supervisees. Further, I will be alert to the possibility of any potential sexual intimacy among the parties including my support staff and/or assistants and will take the appropriate action to address the issue or cancel the engagement in order to provide a safe environment overall.

22) Respect the client's right to terminate the coaching relationship at any point during the process, subject to the provisions of the agreement. I shall remain alert to indications that there is a shift in the value received from the coaching relationship.

23) Encourage the client or sponsor to make a change if I believe the client or sponsor would be better served by another coach or by another resource and suggest my client seek the services of other professionals when deemed necessary or appropriate.

Section 4: Confidentiality/Privacy

As a coach, I:

24) Maintain the strictest levels of confidentiality with all client and sponsor information unless release is required by law.

25) Have a clear agreement about how coaching information will be exchanged among coach, client and sponsor.

26) Have a clear agreement when acting as a coach, coach mentor, coaching supervisor or trainer, with both client and sponsor, student, mentee, or supervisee about the conditions under which confidentiality may not be maintained (e.g., illegal activity, pursuant to valid court order or subpoena; imminent or likely risk of danger to self or to others; etc) and make sure both client and sponsor, student, mentee, or supervisee voluntarily and knowingly agree in writing to that limit of confidentiality. Where I reasonably believe that because one of the above circumstances is applicable, I may need to inform appropriate authorities.

27) Require all those who work with me in support of my clients to adhere to the ICF Code of Ethics, Number 26, Section 4, Confidentiality and Privacy Standards, and any other sections of the Code of Ethics that might be applicable.

Section 5: Continuing Development

As a coach, I:

28) Commit to the need for continued and ongoing development of my professional skills.

Part Three: The ICF Pledge of Ethics

As an ICF coach, I acknowledge and agree to honor my ethical and legal obligations to my coaching clients and sponsors, colleagues, and to the public at large. I pledge to comply with the ICF Code of Ethics and to practice these standards with those whom I coach, teach, mentor or supervise.

If I breach this Pledge of Ethics or any part of the ICF Code of Ethics, I agree that the ICF in its sole discretion may hold me accountable for so doing. I further agree that my accountability to the ICF for any breach may include sanctions, such as loss of my ICF Membership and/or my ICF Credentials.

Adopted by the ICF Global Board of Directors June 2015.

Appendix C: Sample MLQ Self-Rater

For use by Janine Elias only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on December 1, 2017

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Leader Form

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
	0	1	2	3	4
1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7. I am absent when needed	0	1	2	3	4
8. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9. I talk optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
10. I instill pride in others for being associated with me	0	1	2	3	4
11. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
14. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
15. I spend time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4

Continued →

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	
0	1	2	3	4	
16. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
17. I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	0	1	2	3	4
18. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.....	0	1	2	3	4
19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group	0	1	2	3	4
20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.....	0	1	2	3	4
21. I act in ways that build others' respect for me	0	1	2	3	4
22. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0	1	2	3	4
23. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
24. I keep track of all mistakes.....	0	1	2	3	4
25. I display a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
26. I articulate a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
27. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.....	0	1	2	3	4
28. I avoid making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.....	1	2	3	4	0
30. I get others to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
31. I help others to develop their strengths	0	1	2	3	4
32. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
33. I delay responding to urgent questions.....	0	1	2	3	4
34. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
35. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
36. I express confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
37. I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.....	0	1	2	3	4
38. I use methods of leadership that are satisfying	0	1	2	3	4
39. I get others to do more than they expected to do.....	0	1	2	3	4
40. I am effective in representing others to higher authority	0	1	2	3	4
41. I work with others in a satisfactory way	0	1	2	3	4
42. I heighten others' desire to succeed.....	0	1	2	3	4
43. I am effective in meeting organizational requirements	0	1	2	3	4
44. I increase others' willingness to try harder	0	1	2	3	4
45. I lead a group that is effective	0	1	2	3	4

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Appendix D: MLQ Manual's Full Range Leadership

I. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP (THE "5 I'S")

Transformational leadership is a process of influencing in which leaders change their associates' awareness of what is important and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way. Transformational leaders are proactive: they seek to optimize individual, group and organizational development and innovation, not just achieve performance "at expectations." They convince their associates to strive for higher levels of potential as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards.

A. Idealized Influence (Attributes and Behaviors)

These leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with and want to emulate their leaders. Among the things the leader does to earn credit with followers is to consider followers' needs over his or her own needs. The leader shares risks with followers and is consistent in conduct with underlying ethics, principles, and values.

1. Idealized Attributes (IA)

- Instill pride in others for being associated with me
- Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group
- Act in ways that build others' respect for me
- Display a sense of power and confidence

2. Idealized Behaviors (IB)

- Talk about my most important values and beliefs
- Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose
- Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions
- Emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission

B. Inspirational Motivation (IM)

These leaders behave in ways that motivate those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Individual and team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. The leader encourages followers to envision attractive future states, which they can ultimately envision for themselves.

- Talk optimistically about the future
- Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished
- Articulate a compelling vision of the future
- Express confidence that goals will be achieved

C. Intellectual Stimulation (IS)

These leaders stimulate their followers' effort to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. There is no ridicule or public criticism of individual members' mistakes. New ideas and creative solutions to problems are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions.

- Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate
- Seek differing perspectives when solving problems □ Get others to look at problems from many different angles
- Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments

D. Individual Consideration (IC)

These leaders pay attention to each individual's need for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor. Followers are developed to successively higher levels of potential. New learning opportunities are created along with a supportive climate in which to grow. Individual differences in terms of needs and desires are recognized.

- Spend time teaching and coaching
- Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of the group
- Consider each individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others
- Help others to develop their strengths

II. TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transactional leaders display behaviors associated with constructive and corrective transactions. The constructive style is labeled contingent reward and the corrective style is labeled management-by-exception. Transactional leadership defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Contingent reward and management-by-exception are two core behaviors associated with 'management' functions in organizations. Full range leaders do this and more.

A. Contingent Reward (CR)

Transactional contingent reward leadership clarifies expectations and offers recognition when goals are achieved. The clarification of goals and objectives and providing of recognition once goals are achieved should result in individuals and groups achieving expected levels of performance.

- Provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts
 - Discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets
 - Make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved
 - Express satisfaction when others meet expectations
- #### B. Management-by-Exception: Active (MBEA)

The leader specifies the standards for compliance, as well as what constitutes ineffective performance, and may punish followers for being out of compliance with those standards. This style of leadership implies closely monitoring for deviances, mistakes, and errors and then taking corrective action as quickly as possible when they occur.

- Focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.
- Concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures
- Keep track of all mistakes
- Direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.

III. PASSIVE/AVOIDANT BEHAVIOR

Another form of management-by-exception leadership is more passive and "reactive": it does not respond to situations and problems systematically. Passive leaders avoid specifying agreements, clarifying expectations, and providing goals and standards to be achieved by followers. This style has a negative effect on desired outcomes—opposite to what is intended by the leader-manager. In this regard it is similar to laissez-faire styles—or "no leadership." both types of behavior have negative impacts on followers and associates. Accordingly, both styles can be grouped together as 'passive-avoidant leadership'.

A. Management-by-Exception: Passive (MBEP)

- Fail to interfere until problems become serious
- Wait for things to go wrong before taking action
- Show a firm belief in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it."
- Demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action

B. Laissez-Faire (LF)

- Avoid getting involved when important issues arise
- Am absent when needed
- Avoid making decisions
- Delay responding to urgent questions IV.

OUTCOMES OF LEADERSHIP Transformational and transactional leadership are both related to the success of the group. Success is measured with the MLQ by how often the raters perceive their leader to be motivating, how effective raters perceive their leader to be at interacting at different levels of the organization, and how satisfied raters are with their leader's methods of working with others.

A. Extra Effort

- Get others to do more than they expected to do
- Heighten others' desire to succeed
- Increase others' willingness to try harder

B. Effectiveness

- Am effective in meeting others' job-related needs
- Am effective in representing their group to higher authority
- Am effective in meeting organizational requirements
- Lead a group that is effective

C. Satisfaction with the Leadership

- Use methods of leadership that are satisfying
- Work with others in a satisfactory way

Appendix E: CST Leadership Program Intervention Course Syllabus

Day 1

Coaching Fundamentals: skills, techniques, and practices of formal executive coaching. (This course is a prerequisite for all other courses)

8:30 am – 5:30 pm

Conducted by Janine Elias

7 hours CE | CAMFT you must attend all 7 hours to receive credit

Module 1 ~ In-person Intensive

Level of Learning: Introductory to Intermediate

SHRM Body of Competencies: Communication, relationship management and ethic practices

Educational Objectives: This course provides foundational skills to implement executive coaching tools, techniques, and practices for all levels of executive coaching with an emphasis on advancing leadership abilities of C-suite leaders and their support team. (CEO, CFO, COO, vice presidents, directors, deans, and senior level management). Can be enhanced to meet the needs of the developing leader in preparation for career advancement.

Student Learning Outcomes – Upon completion of this course participants will be able to:

- Establish the coaching relationship, identifying the coaching agenda, and provide client/employee structured accountability.
- List distinctions between therapy, consulting, mentoring, impromptu coaching, and formal coaching.
- Explain the ethics of executive coaching and internal coaching.
- Apply the core competencies based on ICF standards of practice.
- Identify opportunities to coach leaders to foster leadership development through leaders developing leaders.
- Discuss the development of coaching contract and coach agreement
- Execute Coaching Session

Day 2

Transformational Leadership and Coaching: develop the 4 tendencies of a transformational leader, what was once considered the “white unicorn” of leadership, through formal coaching and leadership development techniques.

8:30 am – 5:30 pm

Conducted by Janine Elias

7 hours CE | CAMFT you must attend all 7 hours to receive credit

Module 1 ~ In-person Intensive

Level of Learning: Introductory to Intermediate

SHRM Body of competencies: Communication, relationship management and leadership & navigation

Educational Objectives: This course explores the benefits of transactional leadership and the importance of developing transformational leadership tendencies to effectively lead teams,

change initiatives, foster innovation and new product development, engage, inspire and motivate followers.

Student Learning Outcomes - Upon completion of this course participants will be able to:

- Differentiate the three most common leadership styles when coaching emerging leaders.
- Explain the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Report to coachee.
- Identify the four fundamental principles of transformational leadership.
- Establish a short and long-term coaching plan for continued leadership development with a focus on transformational leadership.
- Apply the four principles of transformational leadership in executive coaching.

Day 3

Transformational Leadership Coaching Competency Practicum & Feedback: *(this course is a prerequisite for certification)* entire day spent practicing coaching skills with detailed feedback

8:30 am – 5:30 pm

Conducted by Janine Elias

7 hours CE | CAMFT you must attend all 7 hours to receive credit

Module 1~ In-person Intensive

Level of Learning: Introductory to Intermediate

SHRM Body of competencies: Communication, relationship management and leadership & navigation

Educational Objectives: This course facilitates the development of mastery in the techniques and practice of formal coaching. Participants have the opportunity to coach and be coached by their peers while receiving real-time extensive feedback in a safe and supportive environment.

Student Learning Outcomes - Upon completion of this course participants will be able to:

- Practice coaching skills and techniques with real time feedback from student peers and faculty.
- Watch others practice coaching skills and techniques, gather insights to hone coaching skills and techniques.
- Practice giving effective and supportive feedback that motivates and inspires others.