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Exploring Executive Coaching: Its role in Leadership Development

by

Claire Elizabeth Collins

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Warwick
Warwick Business School

April 2012

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my husband Pete, for all that he is.

And to my Dad.

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Finally, I would like to acknowledge all of the willing coaches and coachees who took part in this research, giving of their time and expertise simply for the knowledge of their contribution to the growth of coaching for developing leaders.

Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is entirely my original work and has not been submitted for a higher degree at any other university.

Signed

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'C Collins', written in a cursive style.

Date

30 April 2012

Exploring Executive Coaching: Its role in Leadership Development

Abstract

This thesis concerns an exploration of Executive Coaching in the leadership development context. The topic is selected for study given the recent rapid increase in uptake and spend on the intervention in the organizational and individual development settings (CIPD, 2011) and that, being a relatively recent intervention, research in this area is required. The context of the coaching process is set in the literature of adult learning and is critically evaluated alongside other dyadic intervention paradigms. The study examines the coaching relationship as a tenet of central importance in the effectiveness of the intervention (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 2001) and explores two areas: whether the coaching relationship exhibits phases of development, and whether individual coaching relationships fit distinct patterns or types. These areas are explored through an empirical qualitative study from the viewpoint of the participants within the relationship using a range of established and novel research methods (Eastwick and Finkel, 2008) in an overall case study based setting.

The findings indicate a number of distinctions between the Executive Coaching relationship and that experienced in other dyadic development activities. The research makes a number of contributions to the existing body of theory on Executive Coaching and, in particular, its role as a leadership development activity. Two frameworks are offered to build up the understanding of the coaching relationship. The first model describes the phases of the coaching relationship, the practical and psychological process that takes place, how each phase evolves to the next and how these phases compare with other dyadic processes. Secondly, a typology of coaching relationships is offered which demonstrates clear attributes distinguishing one relationship from another through two main dimensions-pace and partnership. Both of these models offer clear contributions to the practice of Executive Coaching, generating greater performance through establishment of more effective coaching relationships.

List of Abbreviations

AE	Active experimentation
AoC	Association of Coaching
APECS	Association for Professional and Executive Coaching and Supervision
CAQDAS	Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
EI	Emotional intelligence
EQ	Emotional quotient
EMCC	European Mentoring and Coaching Council
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
GROW	Goal, Reality, Options, Will (coaching model of Whitmore (2002))
HBS	Harvard Business School
ICF	International Coaching Federation
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MBTI®®	Myers Briggs Type Indicator
MLQ	Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire
NLP	Neurolinguistic Programming
RODI	Return on Development Investment
SME	Small to medium sized enterprise
WBS	Warwick Business School

Glossary of Terms

Biography	Biographical information from coaches
Coach	Trained and accredited Executive Coach
Coachee	Individual receiving Executive Coaching
Coaching pair	A matched coach and coachee
CV	Curriculum Vitae from coach
Speed-chemistry meeting	Adaption of Finkel and Eastwick's (2007) speed-dating method where pairs spend a very short time period in assessing a possible matching partner
T1, T2, T3	The three sets of data collection groups in the selection and matching process

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Chapter 1 Introduction

You cannot teach a man anything. You can only help him discover it within himself.

Galileo Galilei 1564– 1642

1.1 The research focus

This chapter presents the context of the research undertaken setting out the environment of the study and the complexities of the chosen topic of interest. It demonstrates the widening interest in the selected field of Executive Coaching for leadership development and the reasons why this research is needed. The aims and objectives of the research are then presented so as to identify the boundaries within which the study has been conducted. The chapter concludes with a summary of the overall structure of the thesis.

The original drive for undertaking this research arose from the realisation that Executive Coaching is an activity which is growing rapidly, but is little understood outside the practitioner domain and the theoretical and empirical evidence underpinning the intervention has not caught up with its growth. The number of practitioners calling themselves Executive Coaches and the numbers of individuals and organizations availing themselves of their services is increasing year on year. Furthermore, Executive Coaching is becoming a widely used intervention to develop leaders and leadership skills. In an environment of rapid organizational change and the understanding that leadership is increasingly developed in experienced situations, the further understanding of how this is manifested would likely bring benefits to its application and the effectiveness of leadership enactment. As an Executive Coach, the author experienced a number of situations which suggested that undertaking research in this area would be both interesting and fruitful.

As part of an MBA dissertation the author had completed a study of setting up a coaching programme for barristers and realised that there was little evidence to support the relationships and processes being enacted. Later, as part of further coaching training, it became clear that there was a poor understanding of the experience of the coaching relationship, though it was widely acknowledged to be a very important aspect of the perceived success of Executive Coaching interventions. Initial examination of the literature on Executive Coaching revealed that although some aspects were beginning to come under research scrutiny, the relational issues of coaching were still largely unresearched. This led to the commencement of this study and the long-standing interest in the experience of the Executive Coaching relationship and how it contributes to the development of leaders and leadership.

1.2 The context of the research

It can be argued that the environment of the leader is becoming ever more complex as the dilemmas of business and society are subject to rapid change on many fronts (Ladkin, 2010). Those in leadership positions, therefore, seek to understand what skills, competencies and behaviours will support them in carrying out these demanding roles, both for the benefit of their own aspirations and those of the organizations in which they operate. It is essential, therefore, to understand what and how leadership development processes might be deployed for best results.

Increasingly organizations are turning to individual development techniques to supplement or replace traditional training methods. Of these development methods, Executive Coaching has emerged over recent year as a popular and valuable tool in many types of organization (CIPD, 2011). The intervention is used variably by organizations, some developing internal coaches, others engaging the services of external individuals or firms to provide professional coaching. Some organizations offer coaching at all levels of management; others reserve the

‘privilege’ for only the most senior of their staff. In any case, Executive Coaching is being utilized as a short-term development intervention that can improve performance, assist in identifying development needs, build skill and competency bases and catalyse behaviour change to enable the leader to operate in a more effective way.

Given that Executive Coaching is a relatively new process for leadership development, it has not yet received the scrutiny of academic research that has been afforded to other processes such as mentoring (Kauffman and Scoular, 2004). Largely the evolution of the intervention has been informed by practitioners contributing experience from a variety of backgrounds. Executive coaches are commonly drawn from business or psychology backgrounds or are development consultants who have observed the need to add this service to their portfolios. Practice has developed through a combination of academic and experience based incremental development with unregulated coach training being offered by many organizations and accreditation delivered through a variety of independent bodies. There is, therefore, a need for empirical research to validate the emerging theories and propositions, and for consolidation of the profession of coaching to deliver greater consistency and more robust standards. Organizations and individuals also need to be able to demonstrate the positive outcomes of coaching in order to validate their investment in the intervention (Passmore and Fillery-Travis, 2011). Further research into Executive Coaching is required to build the knowledge base and enhance the potential for better understanding for practitioners, purchasers and participants.

This research study aims to add to the theoretical understanding by empirically exploring an aspect of Executive Coaching which is felt by many scholars to be of central importance to the effectiveness of the intervention, namely the coaching relationship (Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson, 2001; Jones and Spooner, 2006; Bachkirova, 2007; Gyllensten and Palmer, 2007). This exploration is done in the context of the growing adoption of Executive

Coaching as an intervention in leadership development (Yukl, 2002; McCall, 2010). Since leadership development is essential to the proper and effective performance of organizations, the emphasis on Executive Coaching as a tool for skills and behaviour development needs to be better understood and more effectively applied. These scholars engaged in its study all suggest that relationship is vital in the coaching process. However, there is little understanding of why this is the case and particularly which relationship facets impact upon the effectiveness of coaching interventions.

This study seeks to examine the coaching relationship over time using a longitudinal approach. By doing so it was intended that the specific elements that shape the relationship and the impact that they have on whether the coaching is deemed successful or not could be explored with the benefit of direct feedback from those who most closely experienced the relationship; the coach and their client (coachee). The complexity of each relationship could be described, as could the progress and changes experienced over time by each party.

By examining the coaching relationship in such depth, this study sought to understand some of the emerging observations around its formation, continuation and eventual completion, and to build on existing theory to suggest a model of the types of coaching relationship. The enquiry, therefore, aimed to add to the theoretical understanding of coaching and its effectiveness in developing leadership capacity.

1.3 The theoretical background of the study

The context of this research is set in understanding the theory of adult learning. How do leaders who are adult participants in the learning process best accumulate the skills and behaviours required to carry out their roles and develop further? By demonstrating the development of adult learning theory through a progression of theoretical positions commencing in the behavioural and cognitive traditions (Piaget, 1929; Skinner, 1976; Vygotsky, 1978; 1986), it is shown that the use of Executive Coaching for leadership

development is rooted in strong theoretical foundations. This is illustrated by Kotter (1988), who identified a range of different interventions that may contribute to adult, and therefore leadership, development. These include traditional teaching, job-based enrichment and planned one-to-one processes such as coaching and mentoring.

The concepts of how adults learn progressed through a number of theoretical positions which build on the concepts of learning through experience (Kolb, 1984), Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991) and self-motivated learning in a one-to-one, or dyadic transformative relationship (Mezirow, 1991). This transformative learning theory situates learning in a context where the teacher acts in a dyadic relationship as a ‘facilitator of learning’ and encourages the learner’s reflexive resources to transform themselves (Brockbank et al., 2002). These theories are further supplemented by the understanding that individuals have preferred learning styles (Kolb, 1976; Honey and Mumford, 1982). This transition to an emphasis on the use of dyadic relationship-based development suggests the usefulness of one-to-one interventions such as coaching, mentoring and personal consultancy.

In this research the context of adult learning was applied to leaders as a specific group and, therefore, it was also essential to understand the leadership context and how best to develop and enable leaders to undertake their remit effectively. The field of leadership and leadership development is vast and complex, with many empirical studies, journal articles and books produced by both academics and practitioners. It is a phenomenon that many attempt to define, but for which there is no real agreement on definition (Ladkin, 2010). This thesis set out to add to the body of literature in the final category by exploring a particular leadership development intervention namely Executive Coaching. Widely adopted of recent years, the effectiveness of Executive Coaching is largely assumed but little evidence is available to support that assumption.

It is argued that leaders work in an increasingly complex and ambiguous environment (Turnbull James and Ladkin, 2008) and that the need for effective development interventions to support those in leadership positions to achieve their complex objectives is clear. These interventions are now available in a wide range of approaches and from numerous providers. There has been response to demand from clients for programmes to become more sophisticated and more strongly evidence based. Rather than simply updating existing development programmes by improving materials, reordering sessions or adopting the latest teaching technique, new interventions are increasingly being developed and delivered with a focus at both group and individual levels, including mentoring, facilitated learning groups, personal consultancy and coaching.

Much of the literature over the last sixty years has focused on leadership from an individual perspective (Stogdill, 1948; Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1958; Fiedler, 1967; Greenleaf, 1970; Bass, 1985; Hersey and Blanchard, 1988; Avolio et al., 2005), and the development of leaders has, similarly, focused on the individual's needs and how to address them. There has been a concentration on the deficits of the leader and how to create opportunities and processes to meet them: included in this are personal competences, leader behaviour, leadership style, personal insight, etc. (Turnbull James and Ladkin, 2008). The aim of this approach is to achieve a normative state where the deficits are addressed and overcome. More recent development programmes take into account emerging leadership theories and also psychological research with a greater emphasis on building strengths and being goal and future orientated.

Executive (or Business) Coaching is now a widely used tool for developing leaders. In their evaluation of the coaching climate, the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) (CIPD, 2011) surveyed 322 organizations and found that 71% of these UK employers used coaching in their organizations; 53% of the organizations believed that

coaching by line managers was the most effective learning and development practice when used in combination with other management tools. The use of external coaching had risen from 14% in 2009 to 20% in the 2011 survey. In addition, expenditure on coaching was the same or rising, despite recessionary times, in 70% of the respondent organizations.

Executive Coaching is expressed as a work-based development paradigm based on the learning requirements of the participant, which may be in relation to the development of skills, competencies, attributes or behaviours. It is a relatively recent intervention in the context of leadership development. Use of Executive Coaching has risen markedly over the last two decades (Jarvis, 2004) and is increasingly adopted by individuals and organizations as a means of benefiting from a tailored, individual development approach. As the use of coaching has increased so has its presence in the literature (Grant, 2009). By far the vast majority of writing about coaching is in the practitioner field, but more and more empirical research is being focused on this area. Many authors suggest that coaching lacks a clear framework and the rationale for its use is not clearly specified (Kilburg, 2000; Feldman and Lankau, 2005; Passmore and Gibbes, 2007). Within the coaching literature the main elements for scrutiny have been:

- The coaching process and different approaches to coaching
- Measurement of the benefits of coaching, including outcomes for the individual and organizations
- The attributes of the coach
- The attributes of the client (or coachee)
- The coaching relationship.

In the mainstream literature on coaching, the importance of the relationship between the coach and their coachee has been frequently cited (Kampa-Kokesch, 2002; Hardingham, 2006; Jones and Spooner, 2006; Bachkirova, 2007; Bachkirova and Cox, 2007; Gyllensten and Palmer, 2007; De Haan, 2008; O'Broin and Palmer, 2009). This suggests that the coaching relationship is a phenomenon requiring increased understanding and the

undertaking of research to conceptualize and situate the issue in the body of theory on individual development processes.

1.4 The research design

As the body of knowledge in respect of Executive Coaching is limited, it offered the opportunity to make a contribution by carrying out original research in this area, and particularly by concentrating on an issue which has been identified as being of such high importance (Kampa-Kokesch, 2002; Hardingham, 2006; Jones and Spooner, 2006; Bachkirova, 2007; Bachkirova and Cox, 2007; Gyllensten and Palmer, 2007; De Haan, 2008; O'Broin and Palmer, 2009).

The aims of this thesis were therefore:

1. To understand the stages of the coaching relationship from pre-formation to conclusion
2. To explore the characteristics of different coaching relationships and identify patterns or themes
3. To develop a typology of coaching relationships which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for coaching professionals.

In order to deliver these aims an exploratory research approach was taken (Hair et al., 2007). Research undertaken to date has concentrated on the areas of process, approach or style, and outcomes. The coaching relationship has only recently begun to be explored and therefore the opportunity exists to develop a better understanding of the phenomenon in question. The research undertaken concentrated on understanding the coaching relationship from the viewpoint of the participants. The only measure used to assess the outcome of the encounters was whether the relationship had been successful (a positive or negative reflection) from the point of view of the dyadic actors. For these reasons taking an exploratory stance when researching this phenomenon would provide the most fertile ground

to generate data which would, in turn, enable formation of new proposals for the shape and nature of coaching relationships.

An established research design was used based on case study methodology. This approach was intended to support the rigour of the research so that its findings could be held as trustworthy and valid. The data collection stage employed a number of different processes. These processes were all consistent in the nature of narrative data collection methods. In order to obtain real-time reflections from each participant, the process simply used a number of different devices to access these reflections. Each of these narrative data sources was subjected to exactly the same analytical framework and was treated with appropriate consistency and rigour.

1.5 Other dyadic interventions

Despite a growing interest in Executive Coaching, to date there has been little empirical research that has explored the dynamics of the process or explained ways in which executives and coaches form effective relationships (Kilburg, 2000; Kampa-Kokesch, 2002; Alvey and Barclay, 2007). Given their longer history and more thorough investigation, mentoring and psychological one-to-one interventions were used as proxies for the current gaps in research of Executive Coaching as a development process (Kram, 1988; Wampold, 2001). This research presented an empirical study into the nature and dynamics of the coaching relationship within Executive Coaching for the purpose of developing leaders, and offered a contribution to knowledge in building theory from established adult learning, leadership development and other dyadic interventions to apply specifically to the coaching discipline. A diagrammatic summary of the key contributing areas of literature and locating the literature on Executive Coaching is shown in Figure 1.1 below.

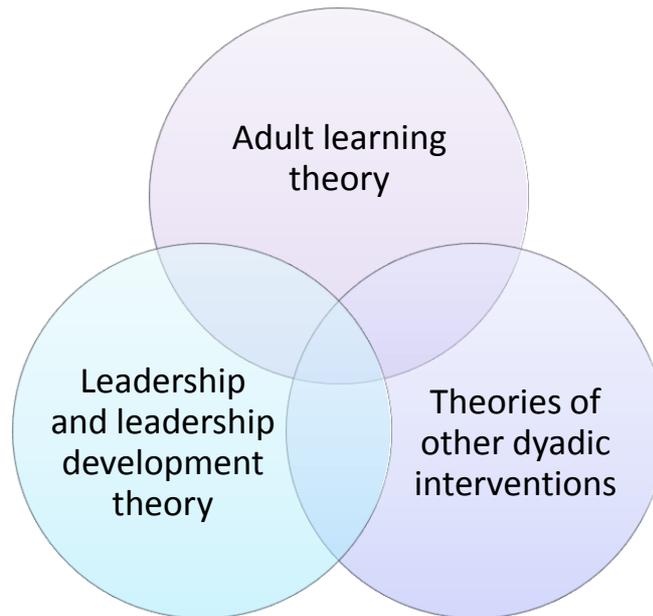


Figure 1.1 Synthesis of literature concepts to uncover research focus

1.6 Summary

In summary, the research aimed to contribute to the present body of knowledge on leaders and leadership and how development takes place in a dyadic context. The route to achieving this was through the examination of the Executive Coaching intervention which is a relatively recently developed process and whose adoption within organizations and by individuals is growing rapidly. Research in this area is important in order that our knowledge of this type of intervention can keep pace with its application by organizations.

The agenda for this research has been set out by a number of scholars in the field (Kauffman and Scoular, 2004; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). Grant and Cavanagh (2004) note that the coaching industry has reached a key point in its maturation, driven by the accumulation of coaching experience, the growth in the number of practitioners from different backgrounds and the requirements of HR professionals and management for leadership development.

In order to make the required contribution to both theory and practice, this study was concerned with:

- Providing an overview of the theoretical position on how adults learn, and the mechanisms for developing post-experience individuals in executive settings
- Linking this to the literature on developing leaders, how it is currently undertaken and the views of the most effective methods for influencing leadership behaviour
- Exploring the various dyadic interventions which are employed to achieve task, skill or behaviour related change, whether for therapeutic or business reasons, and to explore the similarities and differences between these processes
- Exploring the nature of Executive Coaching and identifying the key components of the intervention and why these are useful foci for empirical research
- Emphasizing the importance within the intervention of the dyadic relationship and the need for further exploration of the nature of that relationship both holistically and in its component elements.

As part of this the research would study:

- The process of forming the ‘ideal’ coaching dyad and the factors that influence the choices of coaches and coachees in selecting their preferred partner
- The dynamics of the coaching relationship from formation to conclusion, exploring the factors contributing to the relationship by the coach, the coachee and the interaction between them
- The search for patterns and trends within the coaching relationship which may suggest that there are a limited number of general types to describe the dyadic nature of the intervention.

1.7 Structure of the thesis

This thesis comprises six chapters which broadly follow a recognized process in social science research of setting out a review of the current thinking around the subject under study (Figure 1.1 above) in order to frame a number of relevant research questions. This led to a research design which was appropriate for gathering the data required to answer these research questions. The data was then collected and analysed and the findings were presented and discussed. The thesis ends by drawing together conclusions and making

recommendations. The contribution to knowledge, methodological contribution and practitioner impact were demonstrated and the limitations of the study and opportunities for further research were discussed.

Chapter 1 sets out the context, theoretical background and overview of the research.

Chapter 2 reviews the current thinking on the subject under study. The literature review shows in a progressive way the established theory on adult learning, leadership, leadership development, the context of other dyadic relationships and of Executive Coaching. This chapter concludes with the setting out of the research questions derived from the gaps in the current literature.

Chapter 3 describes the research strategy chosen . It sets out the overall research design and the philosophical underpinning of this choice. The most suitable methodology is discussed and, based on this, a number of data gathering methods are set out. Finally, it sets out the detailed data collection process

Chapter 4 presents the data and describes the analysis process undertaken in order to answer the research questions.

Chapter 5 presents the analysis and discussion of the data. This chapter reflects on the data as presented and derives meaning from the results so as to offer some emergent themes and patterns. This chapter looks at within-case and cross-case comparisons so as to build a comprehensive picture giving further strength to the findings of the research.

Chapter 6 offers some conclusions and recommendations from the data analysis phase. In this chapter it is suggested that the data provide sufficient evidence to form a conceptual model of the stages involved in the Executive Coaching process and a typology of Executive Coaching relationships.

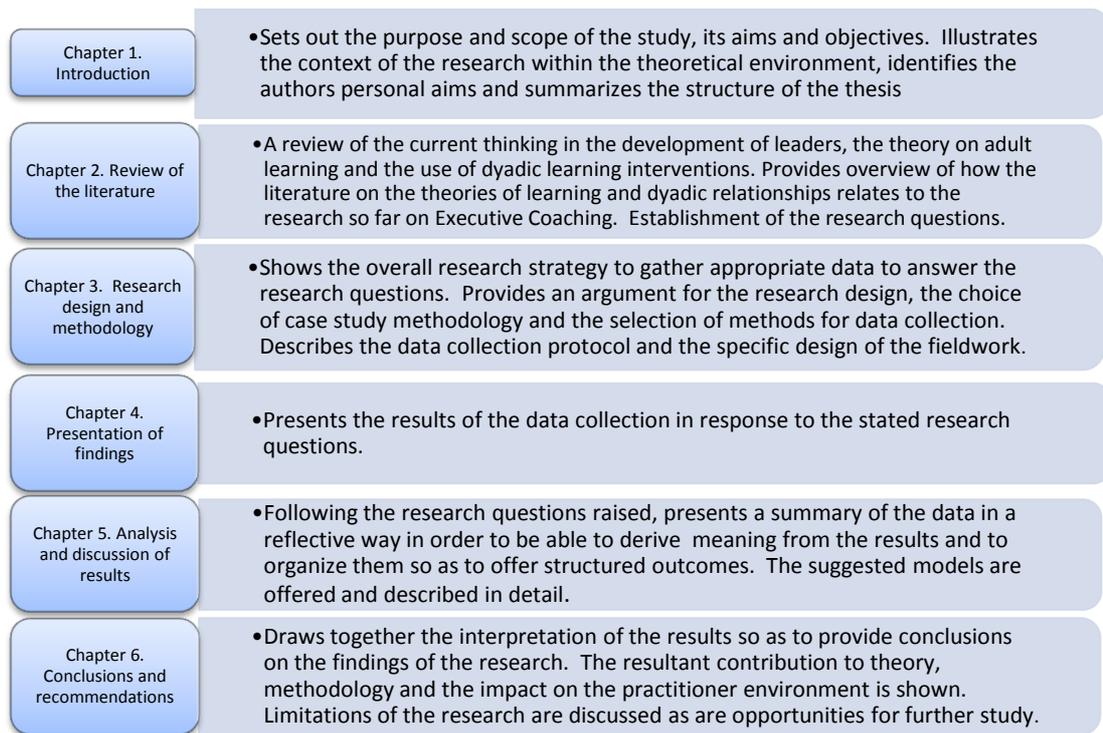


Figure 1.2 Structure of the thesis

Chapter 2 Review of the Literature

2.1 Introduction

Leaders are those who 'by word and/or personal example, markedly influence the behavio[u]rs, thoughts and/or feelings of a significant number of their fellow human beings'.

Howard Gardner (1995:8)

2.1.1 Objectives of the literature review

The objective of the literature review is to give a context of the theory on the subject areas relevant to this study in order to establish the current level of knowledge in this field. It also seeks to establish what theories already exist, what concepts are presently discussed and what methodological approaches have been applied to date. By undertaking this level of examination it is possible to identify areas of agreement or inconsistency and to engage in the debate on the area of study so as to discover gaps in the existing field of knowledge. The literature review aims to set out the current territory and identify areas so far unaddressed so as to propose research and ultimately to offer new theoretical ideas.

The subject of the thesis is the exploration of the Executive Coaching relationship so as to build new theories on this development intervention which is of relatively recent development. Before setting out the current level of understanding on Executive Coaching, the literature review presents some of the areas of theory that form the landscape for coaching to take place.

Firstly, the literature on adult learning is discussed. The context of the study is to explore specific aspects of the development of the coachees who are adults in leadership positions and, therefore, the underlying theories of how adults effect personal developmental change is an essential foundation to understanding the overall context. This section

demonstrates the progression of thinking through the origins of behavioural learning to experiential learning theories (Kolb and Fry, 1975; Kolb, 1984) and on to transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 1991), in which the learner is assumed to guide and direct their own learning. It introduces the concept that much of effective adult learning takes place in a one-to-one relationship with a teacher acting as a personal facilitator of learning.

The next section defines and discusses leadership and leadership development, focusing on leadership behaviours and attributes. It acknowledges that leadership and leadership development continue to attract growing attention and that the behavioural attributes of leaders and the impact they have on followers and organizational success are of increasing interest in the mainstream academic literature (Smith and Foti, 1998).

A view of dyadic development relationships is provided including description of a number of types of intervention all focused on developing the skills or changing the behaviours of the participant. These cover personal interventions for change such as psychological therapies and personal consultancy, as well as dyadic interventions recognized more widely in organizational settings for the development of senior executives such as mentoring and Executive Coaching.

The adoption of Executive Coaching is growing rapidly and there is an increasing body of literature examining its characteristics and outcomes (Fisher Turesky and Gallagher, 2011). In considering all of the different dimensions of coaching practice, much work has been or is being carried out on the process of coaching, the attributes of the coach and coachee, and on coaching outcomes (Kauffman and Scoular, 2004). In looking at other behavioural change or one-to-one interventions, some research has been conducted on the importance of the dyadic relationship itself and this work will be discussed in order to draw some reliable parallels for the coaching process (O'Broin and Palmer, 2009).

Within the element of the dyadic relationship more specifically there is little study of the phases of the relationship from formation to conclusion. At the organizational level there may be a view forming of how matching and selection processes are carried out (Wycherley and Cox, 2008), but the majority of this work is anecdotal with little empirical evidence being available. Moreover, the intuitive factor of chemistry (or rapport) and its role in the matching process appear to be under-researched. The literature on the substance of the relationship has only recently begun to emerge (De Haan, 2008). The peer-reviewed papers and academic books available tend to focus on specific aspects such as reflection or assessment, or are process-focused according to a style of coaching based on different psychological approaches (Palmer and Whybrow, 2007). Still, there is little scrutiny of why the coaching relationship is important and what form such a relationship takes. These were the issues that form the focus of this study. The following diagram (Figure 2.1) summarizes the approach to the literature review described above.

2.1.2 How the literature search was conducted

The literature review was constructed from a variety of sources comprising primarily peer-reviewed journal articles and academic books on the various topics covered by the chapter. These sources were gathered using various standard search techniques which included academic databases such as ABI/Inform Global, PsychInfo and PubMed. Due to the inter-disciplinary nature of the research, databases covering business topics and psychology were interrogated. The electronic resources of the University of Warwick were primarily used for this purpose.

The literature on Executive Coaching is expanding rapidly and during the period of this research, a number of dedicated peer-reviewed journals have emerged (see Appendix I). The entire database of these journals was interrogated for relevant resources.



Figure 2.1 Summary of approach to the review of literature

2.2 Adult learning

Personally, I am always ready to learn, although I do not always like being taught.

Winston Churchill 1874–1965

2.2.1 Adult learning: Rationale in connection with this research

This section begins the overall literature review by exploring the relevant work to date on adult learning. The coaching intervention under investigation is often used for its efficacy in generating behaviour changes in the learner; therefore, the literature related to behaviour change will also be introduced. The section will then explore the more recent work looking at the relationship of psychological processes and leadership development. Some of the main models of adult learning will be identified, described and contrasted to

demonstrate their relevance to the constituency of learners included in the research. A summary of these theories and models is shown in Table 2.1 below.

Theory	Main authors
Behaviourist theory	Watson (1913), Watson and Rayner (1920), Pavlov (1927), Skinner (1976)
Cognitive theory	Piaget (1929), Vygotsky (1978, 1986)
Androgogy	Knowles (1975)
Experiential learning	Dewey (1938), Kolb and Fry (1975), Kolb (1984)
Social learning theory	Bandura (1977)
Learning styles	Honey and Mumford (1982, 1992)
Situated learning	Bandura (1977), Lave and Wenger (1991) Reynolds et al. (2002)
Transformative learning	Mezirow (1996), Gray (2006)
Reflective learning	Argyris (1960), Argyris and Schön (1996)

Table 2.1 Key theoretical positions in adult learning

2.2.2 Theories of adult learning

Handy (1992:11) suggests that leadership skills cannot be taught *'but they can be learnt, or rather, discovered, fostered and allowed to grow'*.

The earliest theories of adult learning were based on behaviourist approaches (Watson, 1913; Watson and Rayner, 1920; Pavlov, 1927; Skinner, 1976). These were widely adopted as they were regarded as being scientific and functional, the main premise being that learning is a change in behaviour as a result of experience (Jarvis et al., 1998).

Behaviourism was followed by the cognitive theorists (Piaget, 1929; Vygotsky, 1978; 1986) concerned with human development. Again these writers have a contribution to make to adult learning theory, for example Piaget (1969) through his stage theories of development, and Vygotsky (1978; 1986) in the 'zone of proximal development' or the gap between actual achievement and realization of potential under individual or group supervision. However, much of this work was based on child development and often on very small samples yielding rich data. Many of the theories have formed the foundation

for further research into adult learning (see below) and have provided the platform for the development of later theories and models described in this section.

Kotter (1988), when writing on developing leaders, identified a number of potential leadership development practices which have theoretical foundations. These development practices cover a wide range of interventions ranging from traditional teaching situations and job-based progression or enrichment, to planned one-to-one processes. Each will be valid in some situations and contexts.

Adult learners, in contrast to younger students, may have control of and responsibility for their own learning in some circumstances and, therefore, may be considered to have more inclination toward self-directed learning. Knowles (1975) coined the term 'andragogy' to describe this self-motivated form of development, in contrast to 'pedagogy' which describes the processes of teaching others.

When considering adult learning, Reynolds, Caley et al. (2002) wrote that learning is 'the process by which a person constructs new skills, knowledge and capabilities' and that 'training is but one method in which to promote learning'. These authors go on to suggest that the association between learning and change is fundamental to the structure of learning in organizations and that greater self-direction in learning is an essential element. In support of this argument they put forward the following three points:

1. Learning is more or less continuous and anchored in work
2. The person best able to define and act upon their learning requirements is the learner him or herself
3. Self-driven achievement is a powerful, if not the most powerful, motivator of learning.

Using these parameters, Reynolds, Caley et al. (2002) suggest that the journey from novice to expert culminates in intrinsic action, that is action which is internally motivated by the learner. These points on the individual's motivation to learn are linked with the

views of Dewey (1969) and Schön (1983) regarding the need to evaluate one's own development by 'implicit monitoring'.

In order to explore further how the dynamic for these types of learning partnership is to work it is necessary to understand the experiential learning models and the developments in learning styles which resulted from them.

2.2.3 Models of experiential learning

The experiential model of learning was originally proposed by Dewey in 1938 (Gray, 2006) when he argued that learning was not just an accumulation of abstract knowledge. Jarvis, Holford et al. (1998) argue that learning is the process of transforming present experience into knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and emotions which, in turn, change the learner's story. The learning is both primary, by direct experience, and secondary, through story-telling by another. The ability and likelihood of learning through reflection is described in one of the earliest major models (Kolb and Fry, 1975), later developed further by Kolb (1984).

The classical experiential model for adult learning was fully described by Kolb (1984) in his seminal work *Experiential Learning*. In this model Kolb suggested that 'learning is a continuous process grounded in experience'. He postulated that all learning is re-learning and that the job of the educator is not only to implant new ideas but also to dispose of or modify old ones. The model of experiential learning developed by Kolb is shown in Figure 2.2 below.

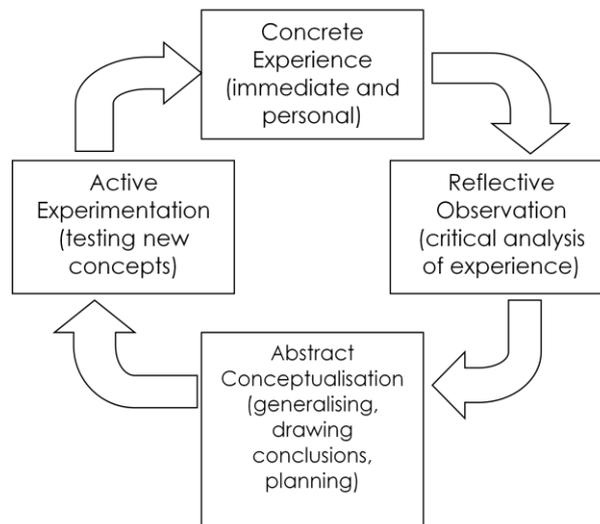


Figure 2.2 Experiential Learning Cycle adapted from Kolb (1984)

The concept of learning by experience was also discussed by Bandura (1977) who noted that experiential learning is likely to involve social interaction through co-operative activities. These include observation of the behaviours of others which allows the individual to model these desired behaviours. Bandura made the point that: ‘Except for elementary reflexes, people are not equipped with inborn repertoires of behaviour, they must learn them. New response patterns may be acquired either by direct experience or by observation.’ (Bandura, 1977). Honey and Mumford (1982) adapted Kolb’s model to make it more relevant for the managerial and business world, giving each stage new terminology.

2.2.4 Learning Styles

When Kotter (1988) identified his framework of learning practices, he suggested that for the individual one or more of these practices would be more appropriate than others. The choice of which may depend on the learning preferences or style of the individual. A number of models of learning styles have been developed, most notably Kolb’s *Learning*

Style Inventory (Kolb and Fry, 1975; Kolb, 1976; 1984) and Honey and Mumford's *Manual of Learning Styles* (Honey and Mumford, 1982).

Kolb's inventory is based on his learning cycle described above and other earlier work (Kolb and Fry, 1975) which argued that there will always be a tension between the polarities of two dimensions. The first dimension has the concrete here-and-now experience at one pole and abstract conceptualization at the other. The second dimension has practical action and experimentation at one pole and detached reflective observation at the other. The 'ideal' learner has the capacity to operate at either pole in both dimensions. This leads on to the ideal learner requiring four different abilities:

- Concrete experience (CE)
- Reflective observation (RO)
- Abstract conceptualization (AC)
- Active experimentation (AE).

The reality is that there are very few ideal learners and most people develop a preference for learning in one of the poles of each dimension. From this, the Learning Style Inventory was developed to measure these preferences. In developing the model Kolb and Fry (1975) challenged the idea that learning takes place in only one dimension e.g. intelligence. In terms of adult learning and Kotter's (1988) inventory of methods, understanding of the individual's preferences for learning style helps them channel their efforts into particular activities and, therefore, leverage the benefits from those activities.

In the 1970s, Honey and Mumford adapted Kolb's experiential learning model to be more suitable to the business and managerial population. They developed the work further into their *Manual of Learning Styles* (Honey and Mumford, 1982; 1992). Two adaptations were made to Kolb's original experiential model. Firstly, the stages in the cycle were renamed to accord with managerial experiences of decision making/problem solving. The Honey and Mumford stages are:

- Having an experience
- Reviewing the experience
- Concluding from the experience
- Planning the next steps.

They then designed their learning styles to fit with the stages of the experiential learning model which became: activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist (Figure 2.3 below).

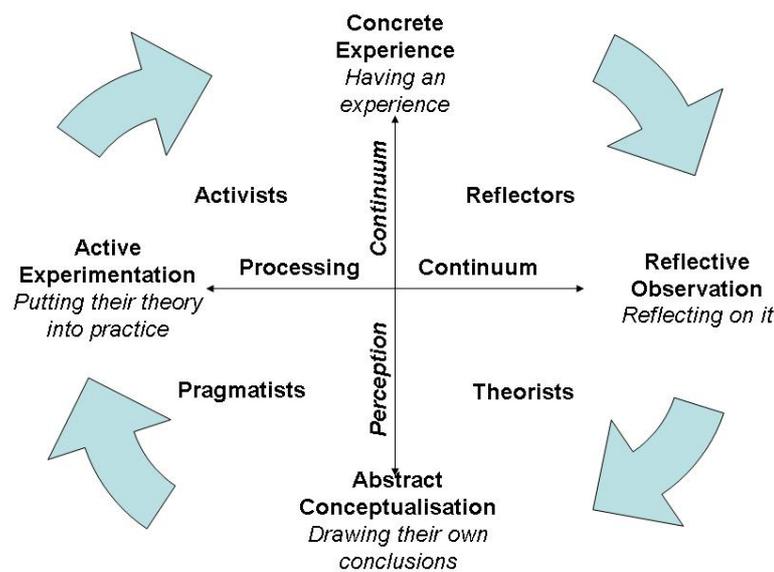


Figure 2.3 Honey & Mumford typology of learners (1982)

These styles are assumed to be preferences which are adaptable and can be learnt or modified. Honey and Mumford (1992), whilst offering the development of the Kolb (1984) model, note that the similarities between the two models are greater than the differences.

2.2.5 Further development of experiential learning theory

The theory of experiential learning is also further developed by Juch in his work *Personal Development: theory and practice in management training* (Juch, 1983). Juch agreed in principle with Kolb's model (Kolb and Fry, 1975; Kolb, 1976), but he examined and challenged the model for its lack of flexibility applied to different working

groups. More emphasis of responsibility for learning was put onto the learner as well as the teacher or facilitator. His studies included empirical research with groups of mixed nationality and used Kolb's Learning Styles Inventory test (Kolb and Fry, 1975) to raise the awareness of the learner's strengths and preferences for learning. However, Juch's investigations uncovered beliefs that Kolb's terminology was open to misinterpretation and misuse and that it seemed inadequate for the development of senior managers, as it did not account for variance in learning styles in individuals. He also raised the question of how to allow for the psychological factors which influence the human 'self's' capacity to learn.

At a similar time Schön (1991) was also studying the nature of professional knowledge development. He distinguished between 'technical rationality', which is taught didactically in formal settings, and 'theories-in-use' which are unique to the individual and the situation and are achieved through professional practice. A different term used similarly is 'reflection-in-action' and Schön describes three approaches to this process:

1. Joint experimentation – a process by which the student and coach work together, often through a process of discussion, debate and dialogue. Some experiments might be purely exploratory, with actions taken only to see what follows.
2. Move testing – performed in order to initiate a change.
3. Hypothesis testing experiments – where a hypothesis is either confirmed or disconfirmed as a result of action.

In this description, Schön is bringing out some similar themes to Juch in terms of the responsibility for learning being with the learner and the opportunity to do so coming from within professional practice.

2.2.6 Other theories of learning

When dealing with the theory of learning, Reynolds, Caley et al. (2002) propose four clusters of learning theory: learning as behaviour, understanding, knowledge construction, and social practice.

Learning as behaviour: this element of Reynolds, Caley et al.'s (2002) typology is based on the work of B. F. Skinner (1976) who suggested in some of the early theoretical work that changes in behaviour are the result of an individual's response to events (stimuli) and the consequences that ensue (rewards or punishments), resulting in conditioning which is strengthened by reinforcement (positive or negative).

Learning as understanding (Reynolds et al., 2002): cognitive learning with active involvement of the mind.

Learning as knowledge construction (Reynolds et al., 2002): people are agents of their own learning and knowledge is a personal construction of meaning through experience (a constructivist epistemological view). Knowledge is a subjective view rather than the Platonic view of knowledge being 'out there', independent of the knower. Dialogue is recognized to be one of the primary modes of knowledge construction, a view supported by the work of Rogers (1996), who believed that 'tell and listen' forms of instruction damage the learner by denying them opportunities to construct knowledge for themselves.

Learning as social practice: which complements the three theories described above and argues that learning requires a social setting to occur and be applied (Reynolds et al., 2002).

In the context of the theoretical positions described above, Executive Coaching meets with the criteria of 'learning as knowledge construction' and 'learning as social practice'. It serves to provide the learner with a setting where they are 'active agents of their own

learning' and are able to construct knowledge with the support of a teacher who fulfils Jarvis, Holford et al.'s (1998) criteria for a facilitative framework. It also provides a social setting as context for such learning, usually in the form of organizational involvement combined with a self-directed, intrinsic desire to make some form of change.

2.2.7 Situated Learning

When looking at learning as a social practice (Bandura, 1977; Reynolds et al., 2002) the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) may be used to illustrate the role of situated learning particularly in the adult and executive learning space. Their work offered a departure from the traditional ways of learning and the development of knowledge and was based on their concept of communities of practice. This theory suggests that an individual firstly participates in the learning through 'legitimate peripheral participation', but that involvement and engagement gradually increase so that the 'newcomer' becomes the 'old timer'. The development of this theory is based on five studies of apprenticeship and is an example of 'novice to expert' development.

By experiencing learning this way there is an indication of learning by doing, reflection on experience and a distancing from the teacher to the learner. However, Lave and Wenger stress in their writing that their concept of learning is an 'integral and inseparable aspect of social practice' and that 'situated' means being engaged fully as a participant in the community.

Lave and Wenger's theory follows on from the experiential process of learning and begins to draw a stronger connection to the organizational setting of leadership development. This is developed further by some of the work of John Adair (1989; 2006).

2.2.8 John Adair's holistic approach to learning

The picture of learning in adults done primarily through individual experience is not a universally held belief. A view which challenged this overall pattern of thinking about leadership development is that put forward by Adair (2006). He suggested seven principles for leadership development based on his own experience originally gained in a military setting. He took a holistic approach to leadership development as part of an organizational strategy as follows:

1. A strategy for leadership development
2. Selection – the right person for the right job
3. Training for leadership – do not put someone in the role of leader without preparation
4. A career development policy
5. Line managers as leadership mentors
6. Self-development
7. The strategic leader.

In contrast to the theories offered above, Adair concentrated on the concept of training rather than learning, but does refer to the idea that 'leadership is always learnt on the job'(Adair, 2006). He noted that in the development of a leader of stature, one or more mentors have often played a significant part. In his three-circle model (Figure 2.4 below), within the segment 'developing the individual', he suggested that mentoring or coaching can play their part with the appropriate fit and cited the example of Thomas A. Scott mentoring Andrew Carnegie. Adair acknowledged that mentoring or coaching as a 'professional management consultancy service' is well established. In the military setting, in which Adair had much experience, he describes learning as a three stage process:

1. Presentation – a cognitive process
2. Discussion – in syndicates, based on applying ideas and reflecting on the experience – a reflective process
3. Testing out – using simulations, exercises etc. – experiential

This does not necessarily contradict the entirety of the propositions made regarding the effectiveness of individually-led, experiential learning, but Adair does perhaps place more emphasis on the organizational setting of the learning and suggests providing a more strategic context for development. This is congruent with the ideas put forward by Thomas and Carnall (2008) who suggest that fully integrated leadership development is required to address the complex situations and dynamic levels of change experienced by organizational leaders in modern times. The specific leadership attributes of judgement, decision capability and visioning are particularly relevant to the need for sophisticated and appropriate learning mechanisms.

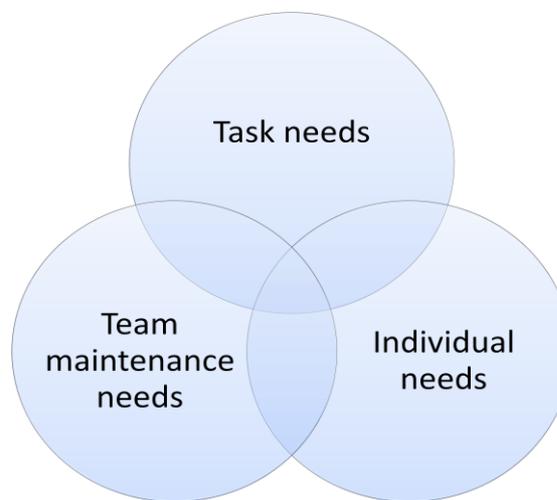


Figure 2.4 John Adair's three-circle model for developing the individual (2006)

2.2.9 Transformative learning

As theories of adult learning have developed and matured, new models are being proposed. One of these, Mezirow's theory of transformative learning, has come to prominence (Gray, 2006) supposedly taking adult learning theory beyond andragogy (Knowles, 1975). This theory sees the educator taking responsibility for fostering critical self-reflection in the learner and then assisting them to take action. He terms this the

‘empathetic provocateur’. Instead of knowing the learner’s experiences and using them as a source of discussion, the educator encourages a critical examination of these experiences and the assumptions that underlie them, aimed at transforming the learner’s meaning perspectives. Transformation is only complete on the learner acting on these new insights. It is this very emphasis that makes transformative learning a powerful guide and premise for Executive Coaching.

Mezirow himself says (1996) that the most significant transformations occur when we are able to critique the premises we hold about ourselves. This provides the link to one-to-one dialogue by exposing our ideas to rational and reflective discourse, which in itself is a form of validity testing. In addition he notes that educators can facilitate reflective action by helping their clients overcome situational, knowledge, or emotional constraints to participate fully in rational dialogue and to achieve a ‘broader, more discriminating, permeable and integrative understanding of his/her experience as a guide to action’.

2.2.10 Towards a dynamic model for adult learning

The review of current literature suggests that many development professionals come from a psychological background as psychoanalysts, therapists or professional counsellors. The evidence shows that these skills can be useful in adult development, however, in some circumstances, particularly in business settings, they may be less appropriate (Gray, 2006). Reasons for this may include the fact that some counselling or therapy models necessitate long-term relationships (the therapeutic alliance), whereas organizations often prefer shorter-term relationships with more specifically designed goals and outcomes. The organization must also make careful decisions when choosing whether to use therapeutic input to ensure that it is necessary and/or appropriate to the situation. The argument against using non-psychologically trained individuals may lead to so-called ‘red flag’ dangers, that they are professionally unskilled or unable to handle some issues

raised by the learner (Gray, 2006), though these educators may be able to draw on the significant benefits that are delivered through a transformative approach to adult learning.

The question arises as to whether it is possible to combine the strengths of each approach whilst mitigating some of the drawbacks. Megginson and Whitaker (2003) suggest the mutual learning of all groups of educators through continuing professional development (CPD), which in this scenario involves taking time for personal reflection and review.

Such an approach can be suitable for coaches working in groups trying to achieve similar aims where some are psychologically trained and others have a business educational approach. Other advantages of forming such groups include the support that can be offered in terms of ethical guidance and supervision of personal practice (Peltier, 2001). Supervision is a requirement of many professional psychological bodies. It involves the practitioner taking part in supervision groups, or one-to-one supervision, in order to ensure that their professional practice is meeting ethical guidelines and to provide support in managing therapeutic situations. Such groups or relationships are now becoming commonplace within coaching communities and many accrediting bodies such as the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) and the Association for Professional and Executive Coaching and Supervision (APECS) now have this as a mandatory requirement to practise.

By forming a dynamic network, coaches from different backgrounds are able to join together in mutual regulation and support and to share knowledge, thus benefitting the learner by fostering a robust understanding of effective and appropriate tools and techniques and ensuring that the psychological welfare of the learner is protected.

2.2.11 Reflective learning

Reflective learning may be defined as: ‘An intentional process, where social context and experience are acknowledged, in which learners are active individuals, wholly present,

engaging with another, open to challenge, and the outcome involves transformation as well as improvement for both individuals and their organizations' (Brockbank et al., 2002). The idea of reflection as an individual activity belongs to the rational model of learning which suggests that the cognitive mind alone can solve any problem (Brockbank and McGill, 2006). However, though intrapersonal reflection may be partially effective in offering opportunities for learning, it is unlikely to be sufficient to promote transformational learning in the individual. Brockbank and McGill suggest that for transformational learning to take place the individual must take part in a reflective dialogue with another in a dyadic development relationship. By doing so they suggest that learners are sufficiently challenged that double-loop learning (Argyris, 1960), and beyond to reflective learning about learning (Argyris and Schön, 1996), can take place. These theories build support for the adoption of dyadic development processes as effective drivers of leadership development.

2.3 Changing behaviour

As you think, so shall you be.

William James

The process of behaviour change in the individual is one of the essential elements of leadership development. In order to bring about changes in behaviour, Senge cited the importance of mental models, which he defined as being 'deeply held internal images of how the world works' (Senge, 1990). He suggested that in order to change mental models, the learner must unlearn old ones and learn new ones. He noted that the process requires self-awareness and awareness of the components of the old behaviours.

The processes of changing behaviour are seated in the early work described above through conditioning and social learning theory (Pavlov, 1927; Skinner, 1976; Bandura, 1977). In essence, the process of any behaviour change consists of three components;

antecedents, behaviour and consequences (Skiffington and Zeus, 2003). Behaviour change in a learning setting is designed to change from established behaviour states to desired future behaviour states and requires identification of that desired future and the adoption of a suitable strategy to achieve it. In the context of facilitating behavioural change, there may be a series of catalysts for change and obstacles to that change.

Catalysts for change may include (Skiffington and Zeus, 2003):

- Career promotion
- The need to redefine oneself, professionally or personally
- Feedback from others suggesting that change is necessary
- Critical incidents, such as physical or psychological trauma.

It is also important for the learner to understand what an achievable change is and what may be immutable. Some issues which may hinder change, even if falsely, include:

- The belief that our behaviour is inevitable
- Slowness of results
- Low frustration tolerance
- Fear of failure or success
- Imposed goals (not belonging to the individual)
- The cost of change being too high
- Sabotage from self or others.

The ability to expedite behavioural change has been explored and a number of models are used by professionals in supporting the learner. These include the Transtheoretical Model of Change as developed by Prochaska, Norcross, DiClemente and Velicer (Prochaska et al., 1994). Many change models are focused simply on the action required to execute the behaviour change. An example of this would be the ‘awareness – choice – execution’ cycle of change in Stober, Wildflower et al. (2006). By contrast, the Transtheoretical Model evaluates the change process from the precursors of change, through action, to the methods of maintenance of that change. The Transtheoretical Model consists of six stages:

1. Pre-contemplation
2. Contemplation
3. Preparation
4. Action
5. Maintenance
6. Termination.

Sometimes, leaders will become aware of the need to go beyond the obvious developmental requirements of gaining additional knowledge and insights into the effective operation of business. Kets de Vries (2007) wrote that in his work he noticed that executives often started to look for transformational programmes when they became aware of their own dysfunctional behaviour patterns, leading to a search for the way to deal with them. Sometimes these were noted as derailment factors and the individual, or the organization on their behalf, sought participation in an executive programme or coaching to deal with them. He also notes that sometimes those looking for behavioural transformation are those who have grown too comfortable with the present situation and have lost the capacity for out-of-the-box thinking. Kets de Vries (2007: 142) writes that; ‘The programs and coaching interventions are viewed as a chance for self-renewal and opportunities to prepare for the future’.

2.3.1 Creating the individual’s capacity for behaviour change

An essential ingredient for the development of any individual is the willingness to be developed (van Velsor et al., 2010; Avolio, 2011). In his studies of born vs. made, Avolio (2005) noted the requirements for having the potential for leadership are a propensity for moderate rule breaking and a challenging early childhood. Having the right background and genetics, according to Jackson and Parry (2008) is not sufficient foundation alone to become an effective leader. The willingness to learn and grow is essential for the skills, attributes and capability of leadership to be realized.

The importance of having the right attitude to learning is described very fully by Dweck (2006) in her book *Mindset*. She differentiates great leaders by those with a ‘fixed mindset’ and those with a ‘growth mindset’, giving numerous case examples of each type, including Lee Iacocca of Chrysler (fixed mindset) and Jack Welch of GE (growth mindset), and compares the fortunes of their organizations directly as a result of their leadership and mindset. Dweck (2006) very clearly emphasizes the importance of development in success and that the willingness and ability to develop is key to leadership effectiveness.

Change to leadership behaviours has been described, alongside technical development, as the two main drivers of leadership development at the present time. This section demonstrates, therefore, that there are clear processes which can effect behaviour change. These processes are often most effective when enacted in a one-to-one relationship, such as with a professional coach (Skiffington and Zeus, 2003), and this supports the case to examine the coaching intervention so as to build a body of evidence around its execution. Two overall key theoretical positions; the psychological perspective and the situated learning perspective are described below with regard to the long-term internalization of change in individual high-potential professionals (Norcross and Newman, 1992; Hubble et al., 1999; Peltier, 2001).

An examination from the psychological perspective shows that change can be achieved using a number of intervention types and that this is effective in modifying behaviour on a long-term basis, though it concentrates very much on problem solving or remedial issues (Peltier, 2001).

The theory surrounding situated learning for the development of groups or individuals in organizations espouses a number of models which are mainly concerned with communities of practice or are at the organizational level (Rogers, 1961; Bandura, 1969,

1977; Hung, 1998; 1999). There is still little theory in this area to show how such interventions enable change which is measurable and lasting to the individual participants.

In taking these two areas of theory it would seem that there is a potential gap in knowledge which can be explored. This gap raises questions as to whether the situated learning approach is adequate when working to develop high-potential individuals and whether elements of the psychodynamic approach should be combined with it to improve the effectiveness of behavioural or goal-centred long-term change. The potential for researching this gap in knowledge is supported by some of the apparent weaknesses of the two approaches when taken alone. The theory on situated learning focuses on the acquisition and improvement in technical skills within communities of practice. It looks at models of knowledge transfer within organizational settings and categorization of learning types (Kolb, 1984; Honey and Mumford, 1992) so as to identify standardized thresholds of skill or process. The theory on psychodynamic interventions is very persuasive when identifying the elements and processes which embed long-term change in the behaviour of individuals. However, this body of theory concentrates on remedial interventions performed by 'therapists' in a clinical or pseudo-clinical setting.

In this study, which focuses on developing the behaviours of individuals in the leadership arena, the objective is to determine a more effective method for how highly individualized and self-determined development takes place (Deci and Ryan, 1995). The potential outcomes for each individual participant are likely to be specific to their existing skill set, personality characteristics and desired model of behaviour. Therefore this study is not concerned with categorization of performance outcomes; rather, it is concerned in general with the articulation of desired outcomes, the process of undertaking such change, and the examination of whether that change is achieved and observable over time.

In summary, when looking at a defined group of individuals in their organizational settings, the bodies of theory which examine psychodynamic interventions and situated learning both, apparently, provide elements for long-term behavioural or goal-centred change. However, each deals with either sets of processes or groups of actors, which are not associated closely enough with the chosen group for this research.

2.3.2 Summary

From the evidence above there is an established body of theory on executive (adult) learning which covers the processes by which people learn in the organizational leadership setting. These theories and their relevance to this study are given in Table 2.2 below.

Theory	Main authors	Relevance to this study
Behaviourist theory	Watson (1913), Watson and Rayner (1920), Pavlov (1927), Skinner (1976)	Gives the fundament of human behaviour towards learning
Cognitive theory	Piaget (1929), Vygotsky (1978, 1986)	Explores learning towards given objectives
Androgogy	Knowles (1975)	Recognizes adult learning as a different paradigm from childhood development
Experiential learning	Dewey (1938), Kolb and Fry (1975), Kolb (1984)	Situates learning in a real world setting
Social learning theory	Bandura (1977)	Sets out learning as a social activity undertaken in a mutually beneficial environment
Learning styles	Honey and Mumford (1982, 1992)	Recognizes that each person has a preferred learning style and that some forms of learning suit people more than others
Situated learning	Bandura (1977), Reynolds et al. (2002), Lave and Wenger (1991)	Looks at learning in the organizational and group setting
Transformative learning	Mezirow (1996), Gray (2006)	Learning with a tutor acting as a facilitator and the student undertaking self-directed learning
Reflective learning	Argyris (1960), Argyris and Schön (1996)	Introduces the reflective process of learning and personal change

Table 2.2 Relevance of theories of adult learning to this research

Some of these learning processes are group based, but many that are now gaining credence are based on dyadic, experiential, relationship-based interventions. The theory and evidence for efficacy for some of these can be witnessed over a period of time, namely mentoring and psychological interventions.

However, coaching as a leadership development intervention is not supported by a body of peer reviewed academic research (Grant, 2003). The adoption of coaching, as with other interventions, appears to be driven as much by heuristics as by empirical support; there is a wealth of practitioner literature but little established theory (Mabey and Finch-Lees, 2008).

The next section will set out a summary of the relevant literature on leadership and leadership development, which is important for this research as it sets the context of the form of adult learning being investigated, namely Executive Coaching. The intervention is regularly used as a leadership development intervention, and its proliferation has been well documented (CIPD, 2011). Executive Coaching is widely used to enable leaders to build their skills base, develop greater self-awareness and to change behaviours so as to be more effective both personally and for the organizations for whom they work. It is, therefore, important to understand more about the current landscape of leadership, the emerging trends in desired leadership ability and the ways in which the necessary attributes are developed.

2.4 The nature of leadership

Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth.

James MacGregor Burns (1978:2)

Put another way, Jackson and Parry (2008) suggest that leadership, like beauty, is difficult to define but we know it when we see it. Leadership is one of the most widely studied concepts in academic business circles. It is so comprehensively adopted that the word 'leadership' is often added to propositions and development programmes that have only the most tenuous link to the core understanding of the field as studied by scholars and practitioners. Stogdill (1974:259) noted that 'there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define it'

Most of those attempting this seemingly impossible feat recognize that leadership is a relational issue (Rost, 1993; Grint, 2005) and that leaders operate through their relationships with others. The scope of leadership is wide and, it can be argued, influences every part of an organization and all of the people employed there. Leaders are engaged in the oversight of many different aspects of the organization's current and future wellbeing such as the planning of resources, development of strategy, motivating and engaging staff or satisfying multiple stakeholders. Grint (1997) suggests that leadership is an 'essentially contested concept' and describes these different facets of leadership as:

- Leadership as person
- Leadership as process
- Leadership as results
- Leadership as position.

The relational nature of leadership is further explored by Rost (1993) as he described the co-production of leadership by leaders and followers together. He defines leadership as:

‘An influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes’ (Rost, 1993:102).

Whilst the effectiveness of leadership may depend on this collaborative relationship, Rost notes that the relationship, whilst having the nature of a partnership, is unequal. This point is also supported by Burns as he notes:

The key distinctive role of leadership at the outset is that leaders take the initiative. They address their creative insights to potential followers, seize their attention, spark further interaction. The first act is decisive because it breaks up a static situation and establishes a relationship. It is, in every sense, a creative act. (Burns, 2003: 172)

2.4.1 What makes an effective leader?

Leadership is described as being a relational construct between leaders and followers and that this relationship, though mutually beneficial, is not equal. The leader is the driving force of the organization’s welfare and in order to conduct this role effectively it is suggested that leaders will possess a range of abilities or characteristics that set them on this path. Five factors of leadership are mentioned by Jackson and Parry (2008):

1. Confidence – self-worth, self-efficacy to put oneself forward
2. Integrity – consistency, what the leader stands for, what they believe in
3. Connection – authentic and genuine links with followers
4. Resilience – ability to withstand emotional and physiological stress, setbacks and conflict
5. Aspiration – if a leader does not aspire to change something, with a good reason to change it, they should not be in a leadership position.

Major research programmes have attempted to identify predictors of leadership effectiveness and one of these, conducted by Yukl (2002), suggests five further predictors of leadership effectiveness:

1. High internal locus of control – events are due to their actions rather than luck or destiny
2. High degree of emotional maturity and stability – this has been extensively studied within the concept of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995)
3. High socialized power motivation – the leader derives fulfilment from motivating people through their influence
4. Moderate (not high) achievement orientation – they will need to work with others less capable than themselves
5. Low need for affiliation – being liked is not a strong motivator.

2.4.2 The background to leadership theory

Leadership as a concept for discussion has been apparent since the ancients; indeed Plato wrote extensively on leadership (Takala, 1998). More recently, the literature and theoretical debate on leadership has expanded. It is not intended in this section to give a comprehensive history of leaders and leadership as the subject has been more than adequately covered by many authors (Gill, 2006; Jackson and Parry, 2008; Northouse, 2009). A brief summary will be provided as it relates to this research.

Leadership it may be argued is sub-divided into different elements. These may be about the leader themselves, as distinct from the followers who are just as essential in the equation. A substantial amount of leadership research concentrates on the leader and their identity. The style of the leader might be examined and within that is the concept of behavioural leadership.

Firstly, considering the issues around leadership identity, Judge et al. (2002) quote from the Victorian historian Thomas Carlyle who commented that ‘the history of the world was but the biography of great men’. This hypothesis suggests that history is shaped by the forces of extraordinary leadership through individual ‘great men’. From this came the ‘trait’ theory of leadership which assumed that leadership depended on the personal qualities and characteristics of the leader but did not assume, like ‘Great Man’ theory,

that leadership rested with a few highly visible individuals. In both cases, a strong argument was made that certain attributes separated distinguished leaders from non-leaders. Unfortunately, there has been no consensus on the list of traits that define the effective leader (Stogdill, 1948), evidenced by large systematic reviews of empirical studies in this field which led to a reconceptualization of leadership as the relationship between people in an organizational situation. Interest in trait theory has been revived and others have found that personality is linked to perceptions of leadership (Lord et al., 1986; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). This renewed interest is also seen in the emphasis given to visionary and charismatic leadership (Zaleznik, 1977; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Bass, 1990).

A key theory of leadership effectiveness and one which has influenced later models is the Leadership Grid[®] of Blake and Mouton (1964). This separated how leaders support organizations into two dimensions; concern for production and concern for people—mirroring the task and relationship factors described above. The model is represented on two axes as seen in Figure 2.5 below.

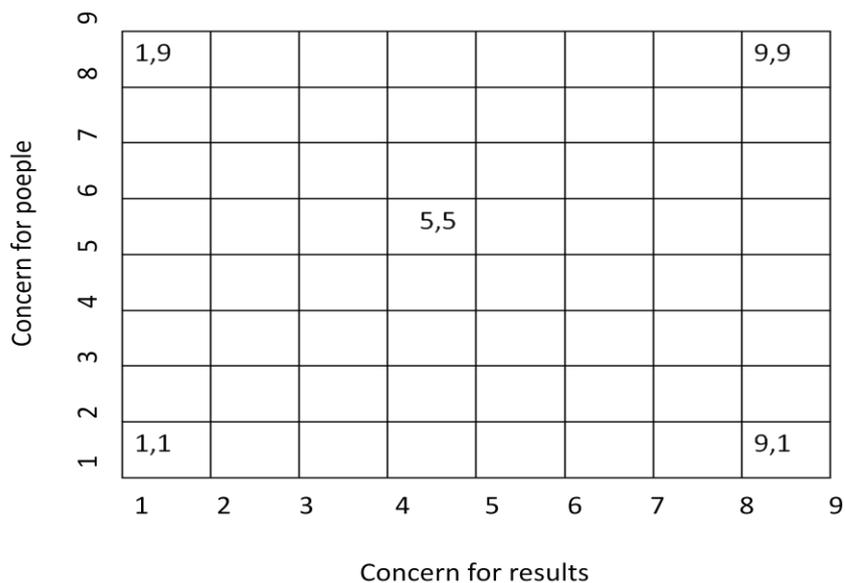


Figure 2.5 The Leadership Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964)

The various positions are:

- 9,1 Authority compliance: heavy emphasis on task and job requirements rather than on people.
- 1,9 Country Club management: low concern for task and high concern for interpersonal relationships. Personal and social needs are met at the expense of getting the job done.
- 1,1 Impoverished management: a leader acting uninvolved and withdrawn.
- 5,5 Middle-of-the-road management: describes compromisers who find a balance between achieving a goal and working with the people to get there.
- 9,9 Team management: strong emphasis on task and people. High participation and teamwork and employees who feel satisfied and engaged with their work.

This was the foundation for the Situational Leadership approach (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977), which focused on leadership situations where the type of leadership required was dependent on the underlying situation to be addressed and the maturity of the follower population. The two dimensions defining this theory are; level of direction (task) and level of support (people). The most mature position being low direction/low support and known as the 'delegating' style, suggesting a level of maturity of followers not needing active involvement from the leader.

One way in which the leader establishes and maintains relationships with followers over time can be explained by the theory of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). Whereas in situational leadership the followers are treated as a more or less homogenous group, in LMX there is consideration for the differences between individual leader-follower relationships (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). The early work on LMX described how leaders and followers negotiate this relationship in work groups. Two forms of relationship or 'linkage' were described; (a) in-group, based on individually negotiated roles and responsibilities and characterised by trust, respect and liking and (b) out-group, based on formally agreed employment contracts and characterised by lack of trust, respect and liking (Bolden et al., 2011). Those leaders and followers in the 'in-groups' typically

do more for each other, whereas the 'out-group' members experienced a more impoverished relationship. Further work (Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001) demonstrated that the higher quality relationships resulted in better performance and more satisfied workers, therefore, any opportunity that the leader has to develop their relational skills would suggest that a more fruitful and therefore more productive relationship with their followers is possible.

Another key dialectics in leadership studies is that between transformational and transactional leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Transactional leadership is concerned with the exchange between the leaders and follower which depends on the leader offering rewards in exchange for compliance and performance. Transformational leadership operates at a level which works on the attitudes and motivations and, therefore, the behaviours of the followers. Avolio et al. (1999) identify the following factors as the essence of transformational leadership:

- Inspirational and visionary – developing a vision, engendering pride, respect and trust; creating high expectations, modelling appropriate behaviour.
- Intellectual stimulation – continually challenging followers with new ideas and approaches; using symbols to focus efforts.

The literature shows that, as with the behavioural theories of leadership, both transactional and transformational leadership are required for most effect. This is characterized by 'developmental exchange':

- Individualized consideration – giving personal attention to followers, giving them respect and responsibility, always developing them
- Contingent reward – rewarding followers for conformity with performance targets
- Management by exception – looking for mistakes or exceptions to expected behaviour and then taking corrective action
- Passive avoidant – waiting for mistakes to occur before intervening, abdicating leadership responsibility.

The selection and training of leaders is often supported by assessment questionnaires based on these transformational leadership attributes. Avolio et al. (1999) and Alimo-Metcalfe et al. (2001) have produced such questionnaires which use a combination of factors and multi-rating methodologies to arrive at the leadership profile of the individual.

Related to, and possibly a sub-set of, transformational leadership is charismatic leadership (Zaleznik, 1977; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). This is more usually found in social and political environments, examples of which are Hitler, Mandela, Gandhi and Tony Blair. Such a style may operate at the level of the motivation of followers so that it is able to tap into and is a behavioural approach to leadership.

Differences in leadership style are evident in gender leadership studies. Trait theory suggested that men were universally better leaders than women; however, behavioural approaches to leadership suggest that women provide better leadership than men. Unfortunately the literature does not seem to provide a clear view of whether this is so, but it may be shown that the style and approach of women leaders offers a different contribution from that of male leaders. A meta-analysis of organizational, laboratory and assessment centre studies conducted by Eagly and Johnson (1990) reported a small but reliable gender difference in leadership style. Women in leadership emphasized both interpersonal relations and task accomplishment more than men. However, this difference was only apparent at the higher levels of management. It has been termed the 'feminization' of leaders and since the 1990s these attributes have been suggested as being a beneficial for both women and men.

Table 2.3 below gives a summary of the main leadership themes in the leadership literature.

2.4.3 Leadership and personality

The influence of the personality of the leader, in psychological terms, is the subject of much research. Many studies have been conducted into what personality factors are relevant to leadership (Smith and Foti, 1998), how these manifest, how they influence leadership performance and, probably most recently, what happens when it all goes wrong.

Main theoretical theme	Description	Key authors/dates
Great Man theory	A few high profile individuals emerge as leaders	Thomas Carlyle 1840s
Trait theory	Focus on the individual leader. Looks entirely at leaders having particular traits. The leader's personality is central to the process	Bass (1990), Stogdill (1948), Lord, deVader and Alliger (1986), Bryman (1996).
Transformational leadership	'New leadership'	1980s: (Tichy and Devanna, 1986; Bass, 1990; Avolio and Bass, 1995; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2001)
Charismatic leadership	Concentrated in social or political leadership e.g. Hitler, Gandhi, Mandela, Tony Blair. May be very transient	(House, 1977; Conger, 1989)
Situational leadership	Adaption of leadership style according to the maturity of the follower	(Hersey and Blanchard, 1977)
Contingency model of leadership	Balance concern for task with concern for people	(Northouse, 2009)
Sense-making in leadership	Leaders as managers of meaning	(Smircich and Morgan, 1982; Weick, 1995; Pye, 2005)
Authentic leadership	Leading through culture and values. Humility and will are key attributes	(Collins, 2001; Goffee and Jones, 2006)

Table 2.3 Summary of key leadership theories

Yukl (1999) has been critical of transformational leadership theories as he believes there is a lack of clarity on leadership behaviours and insufficient identification of the negative effects of transformational leadership. These issues have been partly addressed by

scholars who have looked at the role of personality in leadership and at some of the problems that may manifest (Kets de Vries, 1994; Maccoby, 2000; Judge et al., 2002; Furnham, 2003).

To investigate this association a qualitative meta-analysis of the role of personality in leadership was conducted by Judge et al. (2002). This was based on the five-factor personality model, which developed as a consensus of the basic factors that we believe make up personality, originally developed by Norman (1963) and Tupes and Christal (1961) cited by Judge et al. (2002) and compared with the trait theory of leadership. The study shows links between personality and leadership by these parameters. The highest correlating factor was 'extraversion' (0.31), followed by 'conscientiousness' (0.28), 'neuroticism and openness to experience' (0.24) and finally 'agreeableness' (0.08). It was shown also, however, that individuals with the opposite personality factors can present, through learnt behaviour, with the behaviours of effective leaders.

A connection has also been made between leadership abilities and emotional intelligence (EQ) (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1995; 2004). Salovey and Mayer first introduced this concept and defined it as 'the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions'. Goleman identifies five characteristics as constituents of EQ: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill. He maintains that these attributes distinguish great leaders from merely good ones and bases these findings on large samples of empirical evidence. However, Edwin Locke (2005) offers his argument that emotional intelligence (EI) is an invalid concept, based on the premise that EI is not a form of intelligence and because 'it is defined so broadly and inclusively that it has no intelligible meaning'. He separates EI from cognitive intelligence and rationality suggesting a different connection between reason and emotion. Goleman (2004),

however, suggest that cognitive measures (IQ) alone are insufficient to explain or predict leadership success. Whatever the weight of opinion about EQ/EI, it remains an issue of debate in academic and practitioner circles; leaders are widely expected to possess such attributes and are subjected to development interventions to ensure that these characteristics are matured.

Further study has been conducted on leaders with personality disorders such narcissism or psychopathy (Maccoby, 2000; Furnham, 2003). Sometimes the appearance of these personality manifestations has been termed 'strengths in overdrive'. For example, the narcissistic leader may show a huge talent for energizing followers and possess a great vision for the organization; however, these attributes may also be accompanied by over-sensitivity to criticism, poor listening skills, lack of empathy, intense competitiveness and poor mentoring skills. Such individuals are also socially very adept and persuasive. It is, therefore, very difficult to identify the narcissistic or psychopathic leader at first meeting, which is perhaps at interview. It will only be later, for example when that person is put under pressure, that these negative attributes may arise. The issues can be addressed and individual development can be a mechanism for raising awareness of such characteristics and making plans to address them.

A more recent theory of leadership has emerged which might be regarded as the 'anti-narcissistic leader'. Studies by Jim Collins (2001) of leaders of organizations with continually superior performance over a 15-year period showed that in each case this was clearly due to the quality of the top management. The leadership attributes that set these top people in their positions were humility and the will to go forward. Collins (2001) termed this 'Level 5 leadership' and it is characterized by quiet, calm, determination, inspiring standards, humility and the 'look in the mirror' when apportioning responsibility.

Finally, a major project has been underway since 2006 to try to find a ‘unified theory of leadership’ (Goethals and Sorenson, 2006). However, the lack of progress on this quest seemed to have been foretold by Stogdill (1974), who noted that, ‘the endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of leadership’ (1974:vii).

2.4.4 The future of leadership

In 2010, a Harvard Business School (HBS) Professor Scott Snook, with his colleagues Nitin Nohria and Rakesh Khurana (Peebles, 2010), held an on-line conversation with their colleagues on the nature of leadership and how traditional assumptions and practices would hold up in a new era shaped by modern warfare, severe economic pressure, natural disasters, rapidly changing technology and ‘some eye-brow raising’ ethical choices. Some of the main themes to emerge from this conversation were:

- Challenging the ‘Great Man’ model, HBS Professor Bill George felt that the hierarchical model ‘simply doesn’t work anymore’. Barbara Kellerman from the John F Kennedy School of Government argued strongly against the dominant paradigm of the ‘male dominated leadership model’. She noted that women have made little progress in occupying major leadership positions.
- Leadership development was the subject of another series of comments: Trina Soske and Jay Conger argued that classroom-based leadership development has been demonstrated to be ineffective in giving leaders the experiential exposure to work-related dilemmas that they need and they stated that ‘development projects should be focused squarely on real business problems’.

Whatever we believe to be the nature of leadership, there is broad agreement that leadership is important (Hogan et al., 1994) and that research into leadership and its development is very active (Thomas and Carnall, 2008).

2.4.5 Are leaders born or made?

There has been much debate over whether leadership ability is genetic or can be developed with the appropriate support. Jackson and Parry (2008) suggest that it is very limiting to think that leadership cannot be learnt in order for individuals to reach their potential. In a longitudinal study of identical twins in Sweden, Avolio (2005) concluded that the 'born side' accounts for about 30 per cent of leadership effectiveness and that therefore the 'made' side is responsible for 70 per cent. He noted that:

Leadership and wisdom are both made, even if both are built on the genetic abilities people are endowed with at birth like cognitive abilities, energy levels and how attractive we are to others. (Avolio, 2005:25)

He observed that maximization of the 'made' side may be a result of a combination of authoritative parenting and a proclivity towards modest (but not serious) rule breaking and that these are strong predictors of leadership emergence. Kets de Vries (in Coutu, 2004) argues (in agreement with the Franciscan order of monks) that the experience gained in the first five years of life shapes our future desire to lead. He gives as an example the fiery relationship between King Philip and Queen Olympias which seemed to engender the intense ambition of their son Alexander the Great.

On the other hand, there are many individuals (Jackson and Parry, 2008) who, seemingly, have the right genetic profile and background and yet do not become leaders at all; some may go in a completely different direction 'going off the rails', or they attempt leadership positions and fail dismally because they were unable or unwilling to learn. The opposite can also occur, where people at first seem suited to followership and yet take on leadership roles and succeed. The key then seems to come from the desire and aspiration to lead and the willingness to learn and develop.

The question remains unresolved; can leadership be taught? In a series of interviews with top leadership academics, Doh (2003) investigated their views on this topic and, in

addition, what processes they advocated utilizing. He notes that the dual aspect of leadership as a skill and leadership as a set of behaviours has generated disagreement on whether leadership can be taught. All of his interviewees indicated belief that leadership could be learnt, although each offered caveats or reservations on how this might be achieved. Steve Stumpf, Professor of Business Leadership at Vilanova University, for example, suggested that ‘every person cannot ‘learn’ how to be an effective leader, but we could say the same about learning chess. Everyone does not have the potential to be a master chess player’. Jay Conger, Professor of Organizational Behaviour at London Business School, used a sporting analogy and suggested that ‘not everyone can become an outstanding player despite coaching, yet most will benefit and improve their game’. Most agreed that some aspects of leadership could be taught, though the efficacy of formal courses was subject to doubt. Many of the interviewees, however, agreed with other scholars quoted in this section by suggesting that the ability to teach leadership is as contingent on the student as on the teacher. Several of the respondents believed that some of the more effective methods for development included coaching and mentoring and other ‘fine-grained’ skills that include the ability to communicate.

2.4.6 Summary

From the arguments above it is clear that there is scope to address the development of leaders. The main scholars believe that individuals can acquire the skills and attributes of leadership. Some may have prior advantage due to genetics or background, but anyone can model themselves to act as effective leaders with appropriate support from relevant interventions. This has relevance to this research as it sets out to explore a specific model of leadership development, Executive Coaching, which is one of a number of dyadic leadership development interventions that utilize the learner’s experiences to support building skills and changing behaviours for increased personal and organizational

effectiveness. Having established that the development of leaders is achievable, the next section will begin to explore how this transition takes place.

2.5 The development of leaders

It's never too late to be what you might have been.

George Eliot

The George Eliot quote above is sublimely optimistic; that no matter what someone's age or position they can still develop themselves to achieve their dream, or in more work-related terms, their goals. Leadership development in the 21st century seems, according to Jackson and Parry (2008), to engender blind faith in its efficacy. This point was previously suggested by Storey (2004) and he claimed that it is due to four reasons:

1. Increased complexity and rapid pace of contemporary society demanding higher and more creative levels of leadership
2. Pressure on individuals to emulate others to maintain credibility
3. The role that leadership can play in legitimizing the authority of elites
4. Leadership is an intangible asset contributing to competitive advantage.

What is it that needs to be developed in leaders? The suggestion from the leadership theories described above gives emphasis to the behavioural attributes of the leader. The organizational requirement is to develop leaders who possess the capabilities to have vision, exercise judgement and make effective decisions.

Models of leadership development, argue Thomas and Carnall (2008), focus on either engagement of others, or on limited competence frameworks. They suggest that fully integrated leadership development is required in order to address the complex dilemmas that are faced by organizational leaders in the current climate. Thomas and Carnall distinguish between the development of 'leaders' and the development of 'leadership' as it is practised in the organization. The achievement of this aim, they say, is through

partnership between the senior leaders of the organization and the leadership development profession.

When considering the development of leadership in the individual leader, task, skills and the relational issues around personality and behaviours are all important. A number of models of leadership style aim to identify the behaviours desired in leaders and are attractive as a way of understanding leadership development owing to the assumption that unlike traits, behaviours and styles can be learnt (Bolden et al., 2011). The balance of these concerns, tasks and people may vary depending on both circumstances and on the people in question. In some circumstances, for example in military leadership, the task may be pre-eminent. In organizational life the achievement of a vision, especially in emergent situations, may overarch the nature of interpersonal relationships at that time. Within this, the important leadership skill of decision making becomes apparent. The ability of leaders to evaluate options, make choices and implement their decisions is a key strategic skill required to lead effectively. Leaders, therefore, must develop their ability to lead both people and tasks and the approaches to achieving this may be very different. Thomas and Carnall (2008) note that, 'the more senior the 'target audience' for leadership development, the more important is the context' and that at this level development should include a 'decision and choice' perspective, the impact of which will inevitably affect the follower population. One model of learning developed for a client organization (Figure 2.6 below) suggested a collaborative system of learning balanced between the organization, the participants and the learning and development specialists.

This view of the need for integrated leadership development was one of the points made by the Harvard scholars Soske and Conger (Peebles, 2010), who stated in the 'blog' conversation that 'development projects should be focused squarely on real business problems' and this was further supported by Conger (1992) who suggested that

‘leadership is learned mainly through experience and there are no short cuts to experience’. This remark may have two parallel meanings; that leadership is learned through gaining experience in the real world setting and that it is the repetition of this learning, the establishment of experience, that embeds the learning. Grint (2007), cited in

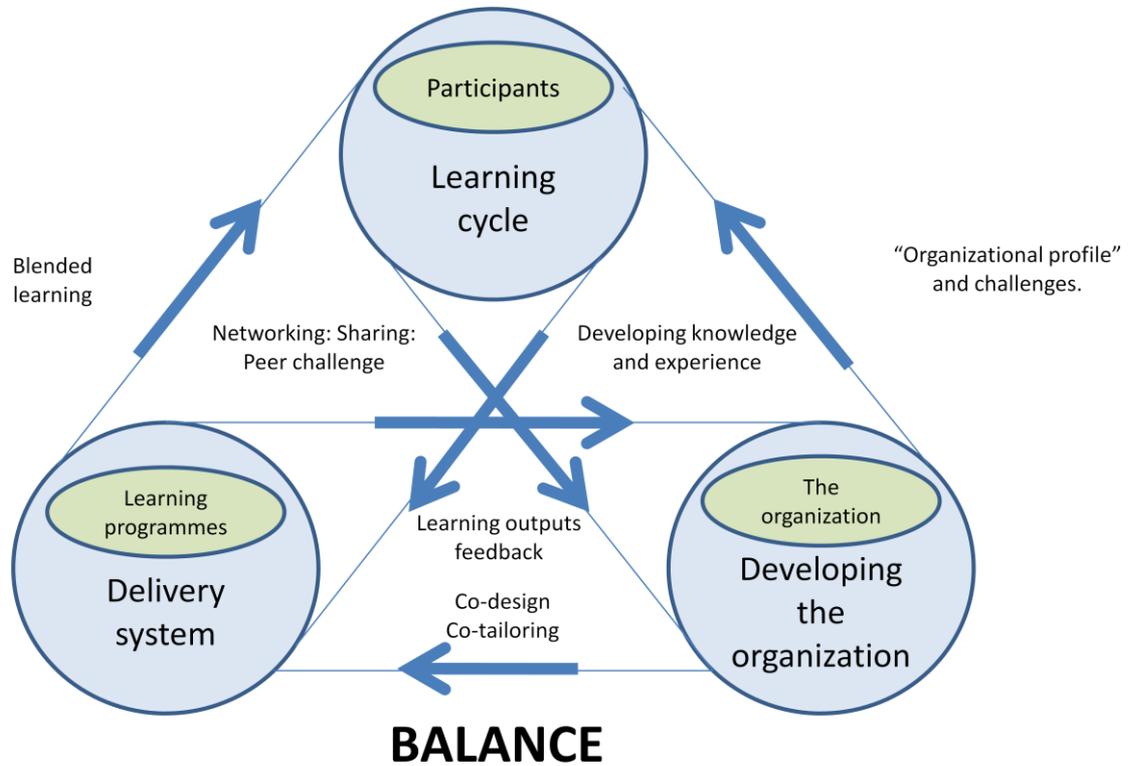


Figure 2.6 Designing the learning experience (Thomas and Carnall, 2008)

Jackson and Parry (2008), suggested a return to Aristotle’s division between ‘Techné (skills), Episteme (knowledge) and Phronesis (wisdom)’ so as to understand whether or not leadership can be taught and, if so, why some aspects are so difficult to teach. He believes that skills can be taught, but that wisdom can only come from experience. And again, through his empirical research, Avolio (2005) revealed that exemplary leadership is typically developed in natural learning contexts such as at home, school or work.

The issue of experience being key to the development of leaders is expanded upon in a review paper by McCall (2010) in which he claims: 'Experience – not genetics, not training programmes, not business schools – is the primary source of learning to lead'. McCall notes that learning through experience may be too difficult for most human resource departments to embrace because of its messiness and lack of control, so the tendency is to stick with competency-based programmes despite the fact that leaders themselves understand that the best learning is that done on the job. This competency-based approach is, in fact, inherently dangerous as it stifles the dynamism required in a modern, volatile organizational environment. McCall claims, however, that it is intuitive to executives to learn experientially and that anything that facilitates this kind of learning is beneficial. Executive Coaching is given as an example of one such process.

The leadership development industry certainly suggests that considerable store is put upon developing structured programmes. Grint (2007) cited in Jackson and Parry (2008) suggested a global spend on leadership development of between \$5 and \$50 billion; a range of amounts that demonstrates how unclear the information is and yet, even at the modest end represents a considerable sum.

There seems to be a level of consensus on what activities are generally undertaken by organizations to develop their senior staff. These include:

- Selection methods, such as assessment centres (Yukl, 2002; McCall, 2010)
- Performance management (McCall, 2010)
- 360° feedback (Yukl, 2002; McCall, 2010)
- Development assignments (Yukl, 2002)
- Succession planning (McCall, 2010)
- Action learning (Yukl, 2002)
- Training and development programmes (McCall, 2010)
- Mentoring (Yukl, 2002)
- Executive Coaching (Yukl, 2002)
- Outdoor challenge programmes (Yukl, 2002)

In a discussion of formal leadership training, Yukl (2002) notes that these programmes are:

Designed to increase generic skills and behaviours relevant to leadership effectiveness and advancement. The old pattern of ‘sheep-dipping’ to fast-track managers with one or two training interventions has been replaced by a series of leadership training opportunities at appropriate career points. (Yukl, 2002: 371)

Without providing a list of specific interventions, Avolio (2011) suggests some guiding parameters for leadership development programmes. He strongly advocates the use of well-validated models and proven interventions and that these should have had demonstrable success in the past, as shown tangibly through financial or other return parameters. He also recommends the use of proven theoretical frameworks for interventions and shies away from the ‘talking heads’ type of leadership development which occupies a lot of popular publishing and many well-publicized seminar series. Interestingly, for this research, he notes the wide adoption of Executive Coaching as an intervention which has become popular due to organizations being dissatisfied with prior leadership development efforts. He offers his view that unless executive coaches can demonstrate their impact of their efforts such intervention will go the way of other leadership development attempts.

The conclusion from the above may be that ‘training’ leaders through classroom-based learning or technical skill-building is no longer sufficient on its own and that it is more effective to facilitate their learning through experiential opportunities and suitable supporting interventions. Effective leadership development may uncover new and challenging ways to conceptualize and learn from experience. Some suggestions for the future are provided by Avolio (2011). He postulates that ‘natural learning’ which triggers and sustains development may become more widely recognized and may form a basis for individual coaching. The readiness of the participant will play a significant role in

optimizing the timing of natural learning opportunities. He suggests the use of more mobile learning technologies that will enable the timing of this learning readiness to be exploited and, finally, he suggests the adaption of established models and frameworks for learning so as to create a structure upon which accelerated development can occur.

In a qualitative setting, the Center for Creative Leadership (Van Velsor et al., 2010), suggest that a leadership development intervention, whatever its nature, will be more effective if it contains three essential elements: assessment, challenge and support (figure 2.7).

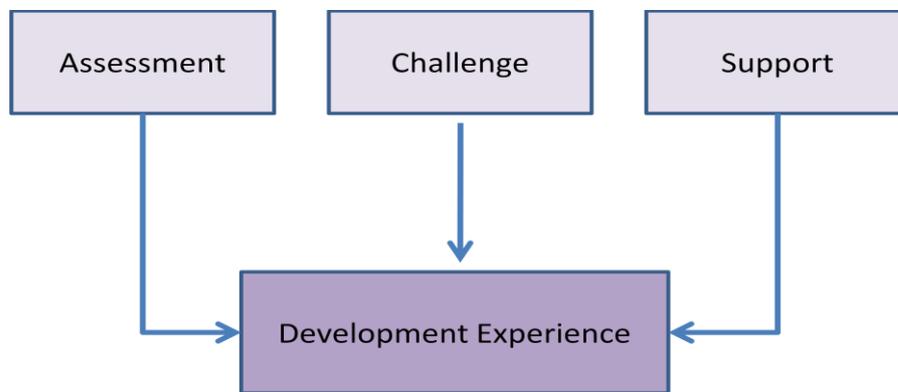


Figure 2.7 The essential elements of leadership development interventions (Van Velsor et al., 2010)

They also support Avolio's (2011) assertion that in order for a leadership development intervention to be effective there must be a willingness or ability to learn (figure 2.8).

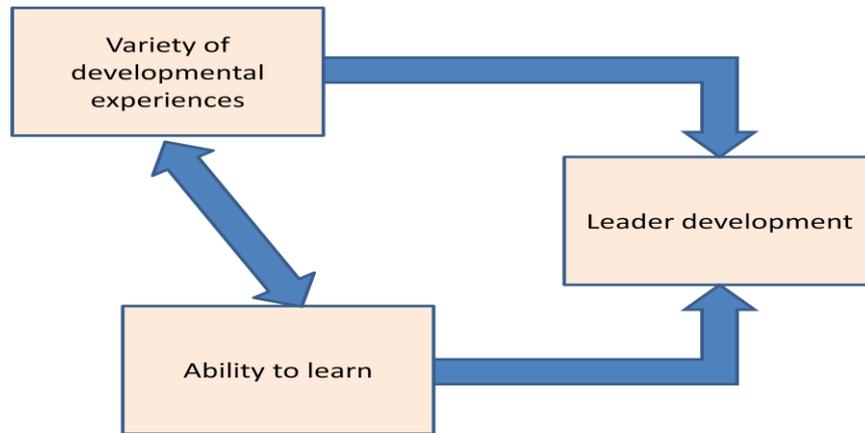


Figure 2.8 Leader development as a process (Van Velsor et al., 2010)

Systematic assessment of leadership development interventions are rare and notoriously difficult to calculate. Some qualitative studies have shown that leadership development interventions can have a positive effect on the attitudes, behaviours and performance of leaders and their followers. In a meta-analysis of eighty-three intervention studies published between 1982 and 2001, Collins and Holton (2004) provided apparent evidence showing that managerial training produced positive outcomes with effect sizes from moderate ($d=0.35$) to strong ($d=1.37$). In their paper, Avolio et al. (2010) present a methodology for estimating the Return on Development Investment (RODI) of development interventions. The demonstrable effects are wide ranging for different interventions and cover negative to highly positive. The methodology, however, claims to provide organizations with a tool to estimate the effect of a proposed leadership intervention before proceeding.

There is growing recognition that there is a need to maximize return on investment, therefore robust methodologies for evaluation are required which can, in turn, be used to facilitate learning and improve the design and delivery of leadership development programmes (Collins and Denyer, 2008).

2.5.1 Summary

This section has looked at the concept of whether leadership can be taught, or at least learned, and what is the current leadership development landscape. It examines the environment for developing leaders and the present lack of ability to evaluate the many interventions that exist to ensure that they are effective in achieving their objectives and bring about a return for the organization.

The relevance therefore to this research is that in order to develop effective leaders in the application of judgement, decision making and visioning that are required, one-to-one interventions such as Executive Coaching are now widely recognized for their efficacy. Given the level of risk involved in applying development as effectively as possible to those steering organizations and groups, it is essential to understand better how these learning interventions work and, therefore, the purpose of this research is to build up the body of theory around Executive Coaching so that it can be applied effectively and efficiently.

The next section will explore the literature on dyadic development relationships so as to understand the context of Executive Coaching. It will set out some of the key theories and models associated with a number of one-to-one development or helping interventions to identify their similarity and difference from Executive Coaching. In addition, given that many of these interventions have a much longer history of being used and studied than does Executive Coaching, they will be scrutinized to ascertain whether they can be offered as proxies in any sense to inform the study of Executive Coaching.

2.6 Dyadic interventions

2.6.1 Comparing therapeutic interventions

Within this study the ability to use other one-to-one interventions as proxies for the coaching intervention, particularly with regard to the dyadic relationship, is of key importance given the current paucity of direct empirical research. The parallels between coaching and other one-to-one interventions is the subject of some debate and is supported or refuted by different parties. In a survey conducted by Harvard University of 140 experienced professional coaches (Coutu and Kauffman, 2009), results indicated the overlaps between consulting, coaching and therapy (figure 2.9)

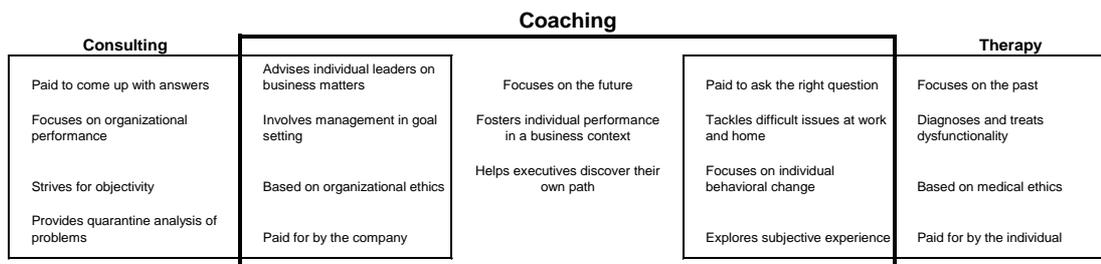


Figure 2.9 Coaching borrows from both consulting and therapy (Coutu and Kauffman, 2009)

There are clear areas where consulting and therapy have their own distinct characteristics at the extremes in that consulting is aimed at a more objective, quantitative, organizational context and, in contrast, therapy is past-orientated with an expectation of diagnosis based on medical terms. However, all three have common ground and each has some stronger similarities to coaching.

Some differences between coaching and traditional psychotherapy have also been suggested by Judge and Cowell (1997). They believe that coaching:

- Has less time to develop a therapeutic alliance
- Is more like a developmental partnership

- Takes a more systems orientated approach, which impacts on the coach–client relationship with regard to issues such as ethics and confidentiality.

Similarities	Differences
Both generate behavioural change and help the client understand how their cognitive and emotional reactions can interfere with personal effectiveness.	Coaching focuses on the present and is goal orientated. Therapy is past-focused, designed to address painful, unresolved issues.
Both are conducted by skilled practitioners who establish strong relation-hips of trust with their clients. The core skills of listening and insightful questioning are common to both fields.	Coaching is geared toward highly functioning, successful people who want to do even better, whereas therapy is geared towards troubled people possibly exhibiting pathology.
Psychotherapists are required to be trained and accredited by a professional body. However, both counsellors and coaches can practice without any formal training or accreditation. In counselling, it is usually recommended to use qualified and accredited individuals and this study of coaching specifically refers to professional coaches who have attained a recognised qualification.	Coaching is linked to work-related effectiveness and is often aligned with organizational strategy. Therapy also addresses non-work aspects and may include deeply personal and emotional issues.
They share some underlying philosophies, such as the client-centred, collaborative partnership that encourages the client to find their own unique solutions.	Therapists require intensive highly professionalised training in order to take on the emotional facets of the work. This training can take many years and often involves regular personal therapy. Formal coach training is less intensive and does not include these additional professional elements.
	Coaching is more action focused than therapy, mostly due to its brief-based format.
	Coaching may encourage greater involvement from other stakeholders, such as reports, peers, bosses, whereas therapy is usually intensely private.
	Fee rates also differ, with executive coaches often charging many multiples of what a therapist may charge!!

Table 2.4The similarities and differences between coaching and psychotherapy (Bluckert, 2005)

The similarities and differences between coaching and the therapies have been investigated further by Bluckert. (2005). A summary is given in Table 2.4 above.

A model which expresses the influences of all of these different disciplines on the coaching intervention is offered by Greene and Grant (2003) (Figure 2.10 below). This model is similar to those of other authors who support the idea of the overlaps between coaching and other disciplines such as consulting and counselling (West and Milan, 2001), who describe the coach as a 'personal management consultant', using both business/strategy and psychology/human behaviour to facilitate 'improvement'. They quote a key author on organizational development, Edgar Schein:

The coach should have the ability to move easily among the roles of process consultant, content expert and diagnostician/prescriber. The ultimate skill of the coach, then, is to assess the moment-to-moment reality that will enable him to be in the appropriate role. (Schein, 2000:72)

Clearly, from the above it can be seen that coaching and the therapies do share some common ground but also have some significant differences (Sperry, 2004). Whilst some of the processes may share a common underlying philosophy, the main dividing line centres around two principal aspects: the business related nature of coaching, compared with the personal focus of therapy; and the boundaries of expertise of the Executive Coach and the psychologically trained therapist, giving rise to the important issue of recognition for the coach as to when the professional boundary has been reached and onward referral becomes appropriate.

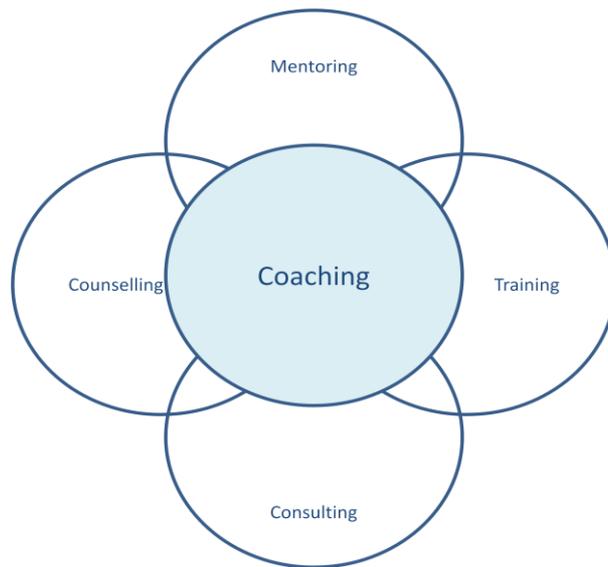


Figure 2.10 Model of the interface dyadic interventions (Greene and Grant, 2003)

A number of different dyadic development relationships, including the main categories of therapeutic interventions and mentoring, will be discussed below and comparisons will be drawn with that of the Executive Coaching intervention. The particular characteristics of these interventions and the points that may be relevant to coaching will be drawn out, particularly if they do not appear to have supporting literature and are relevant for study within the Executive Coaching domain.

2.6.2 Therapeutic interventions

Therapeutic interventions generally involve one-to-one relationships, which are largely confidential, between a paid worker (therapist) and customer (client) and employ a series of techniques to help a person achieve a goal set at the start of the relationship.

As a one-to-one working relationship, counselling's hundred year history has provided evidence from thousands of studies. There is a good understanding of what works, shared assumptions about why it works and evidence-based practice, which has emerged as a result of this history of research. Fillery-Travis and Lane (2006) asked of coaching; does

it work? Research on counselling suggests that it works and the evidence for coaching is following a similar indicative path. In psychotherapy and counselling a meta-analysis of 375 controlled outcome studies concluded that at the end of the treatment the average client was 75 per cent better off than a similar untreated client (Smith et al., 1980). This meta-analysis compared studies of similar interventions in psychotherapy or counselling with a control group of no intervention and the self-report outcomes are based on measures linked to the appropriate area of mental health or psychological functioning such as a depression scale. Other meta-studies have reached similar conclusions for the impact of counselling (Howard et al., 1986; Lambert et al., 1996) although with different rates of gain for treated over untreated clients. The trend is clear – counselling as an intervention produces beneficial results as evidenced in multiple control group studies.

Psychotherapy outcome research has demonstrated the importance of developing a positive relationship between practitioner and client termed ‘the working alliance’ or ‘the therapeutic alliance’ (Horvath and Symonds, 1991), encompassing the collaboration between therapist and client and also the capacities of both to negotiate an appropriate contract for the relationship. As described, it is common to draw on a theoretical framework for coaching in psychological principles and processes (Judge and Cowell, 1997), as within this dimension clients with issues presenting as problems or personal difficulties can gain new insights and perspectives. Indeed, many coaching programmes are preceded by a psychological assessment or ‘diagnostic’ such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® an instrument based on Jungian psychodynamic models. The links to psychology also provide practitioners with a commitment to confidentiality, a code of ethics, provision of feedback and personal supervision of practice.

Judge and Cowell (1997) indicate that there are differences between Executive Coaching and traditional psychotherapy. They note that the coaching contract is usually pre-defined

and relatively short-term, meaning that there is usually insufficient time to develop the 'therapeutic alliance'. They use the term 'developmental partnership' to describe the coaching relationship. Coaching, they assert, contains more of a systems approach than psychotherapeutic interventions usually do. In coaching, there is likely to be involvement, clearly from the coach and coachee, but also from other stakeholders within the organization. In addition, they maintain that coaching has a much more specific focus relating to the management or leadership context, whereas psychotherapy is less context-specific. Their views are supported by Sperry (1993) who argues that, unlike coaching, psychotherapy involves the individual in a close, collaborative relationship which may require longer-term therapy, a situation which 'time-poor' executives may find inappropriate. A further dimension separating coaching from psychotherapy is the focus on business rather than personal issues (Saporito, 1996).

It is an error, however, always to associate psychotherapeutic processes with long-term relationships. Solution-focused or brief therapy as described by O'Connell (2003) gives an emphasis to the agreement and setting of achievable goals linked to the client's preferred outcomes. It is a structured approach in which objective stages are progressed through, based on goals, competencies, resources and strengths. Therefore, some literature aims clearly to differentiate coaching from psychotherapeutic interventions whilst other specific therapies work in a similar way to coaching to achieve similar things. Sometimes the term 'psychotherapy for the well' has been used to describe the crossover area, though the use of this term openly with a senior organizational executive is likely to be unacceptable.

Change studies in therapy outcome research have consistently shown that factors such as conducting the relationship in an empathetic way; attempting to facilitate a degree of collaboration with clients; caring, warmth and acceptance of the therapist; congruence or

authenticity of therapist, to be demonstrably effective in producing positive psychotherapy outcomes (Lambert and Barley, 2001; Castonguay and Beutler, 2006). Also, in line with findings in therapy outcomes, Jowett and Cockerill (2003) suggest that the basic ingredients of the 'helping relationship', such as empathic understanding, honesty, support, acceptance, co-operation, caring, respect and positive regard, are also present in effective coach-athlete relationships.

The similarity of coach - athlete, coach - client and therapist - client is further suggested by Frank and Frank (1991) and through Common Factor research by Lampropoulos (2001). It is argued that psychotherapy change processes can be understood more clearly by comparing them with other social change processes such as parenting, educational relationships, mentoring and coaching of any kind. This approach makes two assumptions about the commonalities among such change-inducing relationships:

- They are educational, helping and change processes
- There exists a problem, need, difficulty, demand or lack of product or service.

Speaking specifically about the therapeutic relationship and its progression from transference to alliance, Horvath states that, 'Most therapists believe that the quality of the relationship between themselves and their clients has an impact on how successful the therapy will be' (Horvath, 2000:163). He goes on to say that:

Freud believed that a positive attachment between the patient and the analyst provided the latter with a cloak of authority, strengthened the patient's belief in the analyst's interpretations and gave the patient the personal strength and confidence to deal with the painful experience of facing the freshly exposed traumatic material. (2000:163)

The therapeutic alliance, the relationship in psychological interventions, is open to interpretation due to transference, the process where the relationship is influenced by the

projection by the client of influences of past unrelated relationships. Freudian theorists (Horvath, 2000; Crits-Cristoph, 2003) believe that the therapeutic process is one which moves between reality-based attachment and positive transference. For coaching the relationship is, as has been said, much shorter in time than the therapeutic relationship.

Behavioural theorists focused more on process and technique within the therapeutic relationship. They rejected concepts of attachment or emotional bond, concentrating rather on observable behaviours. The client/therapist relationship was seen, in their understanding, as a function of the effectiveness of the therapist. In coaching terms this puts the weight of responsibility onto the coach. Again, it would be appropriate to observe in coaching relationships whether the dynamic puts the weight of responsibility for the effectiveness of the relationships and for delivery of outcomes onto the coach or whether, as espoused in the various definitions of coaching, there is a co-created partnership striving towards established and agreed goals.

The therapeutic relationship was the centre of the therapeutic process according to Carl Rogers (1961). He coined the notion of 'unconditional positive regard' and through this suggested that the most important contribution of the therapist to the client's progress is an interpersonal one rather than a cognitive or skills-based one. He believed that it is paramount to serving the client regardless of the theoretical stance or style of the therapist. He termed this the 'client-centred' approach and it is widely adopted in therapies and in coaching today. Rogers went on to suggest that it is the therapist's responsibility to create these relationship conditions, thus agreeing with the behaviourist approach, putting the onus firmly on the therapist to craft the relationship for the benefit of the client whose contribution is not taken into account.

For the therapeutic intervention and perhaps also for coaching, Roger's empirical work showed that the biggest impact on the therapeutic outcome is the client's perception of

the relationship. For this research the result is a very strong indicator of the direction of study. What are the coachee's perceptions of the relationship and is this all that matters in assessing whether coaching is effective or not?

The therapeutic alliance has undergone further study in more recent years. By the 1970s there emerged the 'pan-theoretical' concept of the alliance, which postulated that there was little evidence to suggest that any one therapeutic approach was superior to any other. This engendered a search for the 'pan-theoretical' model of therapeutic relationships. Bordin (1976) claimed that the therapeutic alliance was a common denominator in all therapeutic intervention types regardless of theoretical stance. However, he contradicted Rogers by suggesting that collaboration and agreement with the client was essential to the alliance.

These different ideologies have resonant factors for the research of the coaching relationship. What can be observed regarding the dynamics and relative responsibilities or contributions between the coach and the coachee? Does the coach take responsibility for the relationship, or is there a co-creation between the two parties? Is unconditional positive regard an element of a successful coaching relationship? In the pan-theoretical model, would coaching join the long list of therapies to which the conditions and importance of the therapeutic alliance apply?

2.6.3 Mentoring

Mentoring has at least 25 years of solid research and practice to draw on to establish some theoretical basis for its use. One of the foundation texts of mentoring was *Mentoring at Work* by Kram (1985) which chronicled the state of the field at that time and identified new directions for research and practice. The research landscape of mentoring since that time has been enriched by the cross-fertilization from other disciplines. Ragins and Kram, in their updated handbook (2007), noted that the origin of

mentoring in fact is in ancient Greek mythology, Mentor being a wise and faithful advisor in Homer's *Odyssey*. And Kram believed that mentoring, at its best, can be a 'life-altering relationship that inspires mutual growth, learning and development' (Ragins and Kram, 2007: 3). Mentoring relationships, they claimed, have the capacity to transform individuals, groups, organizations and communities.

In terms of who is a mentor, the usual assumption (Taylor and Furnham, 2005; Ragins and Kram, 2007) is that he or she may or may not be employed in the same organization as the protégé, or even be in the protégé's chain of command or profession. The mentor may use different aspects of their own skill to support their protégé, using their own experience and connections to support the protégé's advancement in the company and their own interpersonal strengths to form a strongly bonded relationship and develop the behavioural maturity of the protégé (Ragins and Kram, 2007).

Mentoring differs from coaching in the key sense that in a mentoring interaction there is generally a hierarchical relationship which also includes advanced relevant experience on behalf of the mentor towards the mentee. Megginson and Clutterbuck define mentoring as:

Off-line help by one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work or thinking. (Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1995: 4)

A further definition is offered by Grant and Cavanagh (2004: 5): 'the transfer of domain specific personalized knowledge from a more experienced mentor to a less experienced protégé'.

An examination of more detailed definitions of mentorship is given by Woodd (1997).

Coaching, on the other hand, is generally described as not expecting a hierarchical arrangement and coaching models are knowledge or content free, that is the coach is not

obliged to possess expert knowledge in the professional field of the coachee. However, in a later text, Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) criticize a number of authors, including themselves, for this type of definition. They suggest that both coaching and mentoring practitioners try to claim the facilitative end of the spectrum, rather than a directive approach. They offer a wide range of comments from a variety of authors on both coaching and mentoring and finally draw the conclusion that the key distinctions are that:

- Coaching is normally, but not always, associated with some form of performance change, while mentoring is more concerned with career self-management.
- Mentoring may involve the giving of practical advice (but not as a first option), whereas coaching can (in its more managerialist manifestations) involve coachees having priorities and actions set for them.
- Mentoring may involve assistance in enlarging the learner's networks, whereas coaching may focus on the immediate work context.

In an attempt to explain the boundaries between different employee development interactions, D'Abate et al. (2005) conducted a systematic review of the literature in order to clarify the constructs in common use. In this review 227 construct descriptions were extracted from 182 sources and were systematically analysed for the characteristics that help to explain the construct meanings. The main component interventions included in this review were coaching, mentoring, apprenticeship and action learning. Particularly it was noted that there was confusion between the definition and description of mentoring versus coaching. The review noted that some authors consider mentoring and coaching to be the same (Sperry, 1996) and this is supported by later work (Law et al., 2007), though the majority of authors identify clear differences between these two constructs (Gray, 1988; Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1995). Law et al. conclude that mentoring, coaching and psychological learning are three interwoven constructs and that mentoring and coaching are, in fact, an interchangeable continuum depending on the context. They note

the diversity in both disciplines and the existence of separate organizing groups such as the Association for Coaching, the British Psychological Society's Special Group in Coaching Psychology, and the International Coach Federation, though there is also the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) amongst other bodies. In the examination of these constructs there is appropriate reference to the underpinning epistemology concerned with how this knowledge is constructed and how it is distinguished from thoughts and beliefs on these topics.

So there is still no clear picture of whether and how mentoring and coaching are similar to or different from each other. Law et al. (2007) used the metaphor of the journey to describe the mentoring process. They described mentors as, 'being regarded as trusted guides who understand the theory of personal development and are experienced in translating it into practice'. However, they 'do not simply provide their mentees with a road map and travel tips, but also walk some of the journey with them' (Law et al., 2007: 13).

A realistic distinction between the two disciplines which builds on but does not overtly contradict it is given by Taylor and Furnham (2005) who put mentoring in the same 'zone' as coaching, but note that it is further away from 'relationships of greater intensity' such as in an interpersonal or therapeutic counselling context. They say that mentoring used to be quite easy to define:

It represents help given to an individual by someone usually more senior and the conversations were more about beliefs and values than actual skills. The essential quality, however, was that the mentor was not in the line of command for the individual concerned. (Taylor and Furnham, 2005: 108)

A clear link is made by several scholars between mentoring and career structure. Ragins and Kram (2007) write that mentoring relationships are unique in that the primary focus of the relationship is on career development and growth. They divide this into two

categories; career functions, where mentors help their protégés to ‘learn the ropes’ and prepare for organizational advancement, and psychosocial functions which build on trust, intimacy and interpersonal bonds in the relationship and include behaviours that build on the protégé’s professional growth, identity, self-worth and self-efficacy. Ragins and Kram believe that the roots of these two functions are different and operate in different ways, but that both contribute to predicting the protégé’s job and career satisfaction.

Taylor and Furnham (2005) suggest that another key difference from coaching is that the mentoring relationship can go on for a much longer period of time, perhaps even years, compared with the brief and usually well-defined scope of the coaching intervention.

However, the definitions and concepts may collide and there is a sizeable body of work devoted to the mentoring intervention with some scholars being authorities and specialists in the subject (Kram, 1985; Megginson and Clutterbuck, 1995; Megginson and Whitaker, 2003; Engstrom, 2004; Ragins and Kram, 2007).

Of particular relevance to this research is the work that has been carried out on studying the mentoring relationship and, more specifically, the possible phases of that relationship (Kram, 1983). Kram draws from work on adult development theory which suggests that the primary task of early adulthood is ‘initiation’ and that of middle adulthood is ‘reappraisal’. She presents a conceptual model derived from an empirical study of eighteen developmental relationships to demonstrate that the mentoring relationship, ‘has great potential to facilitate career advancement and psychosocial development in both early and middle adulthood by providing a vehicle for accomplishing these primary developmental tasks’ (Kram, 1983: 608). The study used the mentoring pair as its unit of reference and identified different phases within such relationships.

Phase	Description
Initiation	The relationship is started. This may last for 6– 12 months. The senior manager embodies an object for positive identification, is admired and is viewed as someone who will support the protégé in their progression through the organization. The protégé begins to feel cared for, supported and respected by someone they admire and who can provide important career and psychosocial functions. To the senior manager the protégé represents someone with potential who is ‘coachable’ and enjoyable to work with. There is a balance of initiative on both sides. This phase sets the relationship in motion and provides the foundation to move on.
Cultivation	The range of functions provided expands to maximum. This phase lasts two to five years. The positive expectations established in the initiation phase are tested against reality. The real value of the relationship is uncovered and the range of career and psychosocial functions reaches a peak, with the career functions usually emerging first as the senior manager provides advice, work challenges, work exposure and sponsorship. The interpersonal bond strengthens and allows the psychosocial element to emerge, extending to counselling and friendship. The protégé reports that they become more able to negotiate the organizational world and the senior manager reports substantial satisfaction in the relationship, knowing that they have positively influenced the protégé’s development.
Separation	The established relationship changes significantly due to organizational or psychological changes within one or both individuals. After two to five years the mentoring relationship changes, marked by significant changes in the functions being fulfilled and by the affective experiences of both parties. There may be turmoil, anxiety or loss, or the protégé may experience new feelings of autonomy and independence. The relationship becomes less central to each party’s life and is reassessed. Separation occurs both structurally and psychologically. If the structural separation is well timed it enables the protégé to test their abilities without support, but if separation occurs prematurely it may trigger substantial anxiety for the protégé.
Redefinition	The relationship evolves to a new form or ends entirely. For all of the pairs that reached this phase, the relationship becomes one of friendship. Both individuals continue to have contact on an informal basis in order to re-create the mutual support established in the early phases. Sponsorship, occasional counselling, coaching and ongoing friendship continue. However, if the two individuals reach peer status there can be a level of discomfort as the relationship must be renegotiated. It is even possible for the relationship in redefinition to become hostile, especially if there has been a degree of emotional intensity between the parties. In work for her doctoral dissertation Kram demonstrated that, under certain circumstances, a mentor relationship can become destructive for one or both individuals where the protégé may have feelings of being held back or the senior manager may feel threatened in their position. She noted that additional difficulty was suggested in cross-gender relationships and that this would lend itself to further research.

Table 2.5 Phases of the mentoring relationship (Kram, 1983)

When drawing comparisons between Kram’s work and this doctoral research into phases of the coaching relationship it should be noted that the mentoring relationships endured much longer than the usual coaching relationship. The mentoring relationships lasted

years (average five years) compared with a number of months in the most typical coaching relationship.

Examination of the phases of the mentoring relationship illustrated the different organizational and psychological factors influencing which career and psychosocial functions were provided by the mentor and how the protégé experienced them at any point in time. The mentoring relationship seemed to proceed in four predictable, but not necessarily distinct phases (see Table 2.5 above).

In concluding her paper on the mentoring relationship, Kram notes:

It would be fruitful, therefore, to investigate the patterns of relationship that individuals have at successive career stages in order to illuminate other developmental relationships as alternatives to the primary mentor relationship. (Kram, 1983:623)

Attribute	Mentoring	Coaching
Rapport	Frequent review of the quality of relationship. Builds over time.	Frequent review of the quality of relationship. Necessary to establish quickly.
Behaviour of mentor/coach	Client focused. May be expert in field. Passes on knowledge, expertise and connections. No qualification required and no formal requirement for supervision or training.	Client focused. No necessary expertise in field. Works with the knowledge and expertise of the client. Usually hold a qualification and is in supervision.
Relationship	Important dyadic relationship. May develop into friendship/colleague relationship. Social/emotional attachment can develop.	Important dyadic relationship. Usually on a professional only level. No social/emotional attachment other than positive regard.
Timescales	Relationship may last a number of years and separation can be problematic.	Relationship likely to be short-form. Separation should be amicable, but more formal.

Table 2.6 Similarities and differences between mentoring and coaching

The discussion on mentoring, perhaps even more than of the therapies, offers much food for thought in researching the coaching relationship. A summary of the main similarities and differences between the two interventions is given in Table 2.6.

There is clearly much support in the literature for the similarities between mentoring and coaching, even suggestions that they are one and the same thing. There are also some clear distinctions between mentoring and coaching, namely:

- The level of direction within the conversations; mentoring may contain considerable direction from mentor to protégé, whereas coaching operates through the coachee generating options and evaluating solutions for themselves.
- The content laden background of the mentor versus the possible independence of the coach. Mentors have knowledge by definition of the intervention, of the world of work experienced by the protégé, whereas the coach may possess this background, but could be from a very different background.
- The clear focus in mentoring on career progression compared with the wide ranging scope of the coaching intervention.
- The length of the relationship, the mentoring relationship potentially lasting many years, where the coaching relationship typically endures for a fixed number of sessions, usually over a number of months.

Given the level of similarity between the two interventions as demonstrated in Table 2.6 above, it is reasonable to suggest that mentoring could be used as a proxy to indicate likely characteristics found within the coaching relationship, and specifically Kram's work (Kram, 1983) on the phases of the mentoring relationship offers a basis for examination of the likely phases stages that might exist within the coaching relationship.

2.6.4 Other dyadic interventions

The range of psychological therapies and mentoring do not present the complete picture when constructing a comparison of coaching with other one-to-one development relationships. Individuals enter into a variety of other relationships on an individual basis to achieve particular outcomes. These may be more specific to the goals of the contract and may not necessarily be governed by the same professional ethics and boundaries as those required of psychological practitioners and which are becoming the requirement for

executive coaches. Some of these additional interventions may include personal consulting, career counselling or personal counselling (Hawkins and Smith, 2006). There is less rigour around these types of intervention; indeed anyone who offers any kind of consultancy might be engaged on a one-to-one basis to support a senior executive. The subject of this type of consultancy is likely to be predominantly business-based, for example to support development of a business plan or feasibility proposal for a new project, to advise on investment plans and opportunities, to consult on board appointments or succession planning. The relationship between consultant and client in these circumstances is likely to mirror that of the same consultant having been engaged to work at an organizational level (Nikolova et al., 2009). There will be a greater sense of detachment and little personal engagement in the relationship or the process of achieving the desired outcomes. The relationship here has been described previously as a client-expert relationship (Schein, 1987; 1988) or as a symbolic interaction (Alvesson, 2001). In both of these cases the consultant has the primary, directing role. Nikolova et al. (2009) describe the client-consultant relationship as a social learning model where the relationship is more evenly balanced. Such a classification has the most resonance for this research as it gives consultancy a commonality with other dyadic development relationships and resonates with Bandura's Social Learning theory (1977). This third type of relationship is viewed as a participative learning process where both parties offer knowledge and ideas to the process.

Other dyadic relationships aimed at achieving specific results do, however, accord more closely with the therapeutic environment. Examples of these are career counselling and personal counselling (Bedi, 2004). It is argued that career counselling belongs firmly within the realm of mainstream counselling psychology and, therefore, that the theories surrounding the therapeutic alliance also apply to this intervention (Bordin, 1979). One of the drawbacks to this point of view is that career counselling which has a specific remit

may become forced into personal counselling and lose its educational and goal-driven purpose. Bedi (2004) further asserts that there are many subtle yet distinguishing shades within this branch of personal counselling and that career counselling and vocational guidance are two distinct, though closely related, interventions. As an example of the pan-theoretical stance, the parameters of the therapeutic alliance would apply in these examples (Bedi, 2004).

2.7 Coaching as a method of leadership development

2.7.1 Introduction

This section will focus on the specific intervention which is the focus of this research. It has been shown above that coaching is recognized as a process for developing leaders, particularly when concentrating on changing behavioural issues. The case for leadership coaching is a strong one as it is evident that 21st century businesses need competent leaders and leadership (Clutterbuck and Megginson, 2005; Jarvis et al., 2006; Clutterbuck, 2007). The theory that underpins its efficacy as a development process is described within the adult learning literature which suggests that self-focused, experiential, reflexive learning with a teacher who facilitates the learning rather than dictating it, is an appropriate process for the development of the executive learner. Following on from that, it is seen that other processes which are based on dyadic relationships, such as mentoring and psychological therapies, have been researched much more fully than the coaching process and can be used as proxies for the intervention being studied. There are many similarities in form between coaching and these other interventions; however, the research for such processes is more comprehensive in describing all stages of the cycle involved. An examination of the coaching literature will show that whilst there is research being carried out on the outcomes of coaching, on the processes involved and on the various archetypes that might benefit, there is little

evidence on the phases of the intervention or the patterns that the coaching relationship may form. Such evidence has been identified in other dyadic development interventions with mentoring offering the closest parallel, though both coaching and mentoring share some characteristics of therapeutic interventions.

The aim of this thesis, therefore, is to add to the theory on leadership development using Executive Coaching by making use of the research in other dyadic interventions where the characteristics of the relationship have already been studied and applying this to the coaching dyad. In order to complete the picture, the context of the coaching literature will be explored.

2.7.2 Coaching as a process of leadership development

There are many definitions of coaching from a range of authors, researchers and practitioners (Douglas and McCauley, 1999; Grant, 1999; Parsloe, 1999; Gallwey, 2000; Kilburg, 2000; Wilkins, 2000; Peltier, 2001; Downey, 2002; Skiffington and Zeus, 2003). One of those often used is that of Whitmore (2002) who describes coaching as, ‘unlocking a person’s potential to maximize their own performance. It is helping them to learn, rather than teaching them’. He goes on to say, ‘Coaching is the essential management style or tool for optimizing peoples’ potential and performance’. Grant (2001) defines coaching as, ‘a solution-focused, result-orientated systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of work performance and the self-directed learning and personal growth of the coachee’.

In addition, one of the key coaching accreditation bodies uses the definition:

Executive Coaching – A collaborative, solution-focused, results-orientated and systematic process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of work performance ... specifically focused at senior management level where there is an expectation for the coach to feel as comfortable exploring business related topics

with the client in order to improve their personal performance. (Association for Coaching)

As this research particularly concentrates on coaching for the senior or executive employee, the definition by Kilburg is most appropriate. He suggests that:

Executive Coaching is a helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organisation and a consultant ... to achieve a mutually identified set of goals, to improve his or her professional performance and personal satisfaction, and consequently to improve the effectiveness of the client's organisation. (Kilburg, 2000)

2.7.3 The origins of coaching

A number of scholars (O'Connor and Lages, 2007; Garvey et al., 2009) suggest that the origins of coaching lie in ancient Greece and that the Socratic form of questioning was an early forerunner of the coaching conversation. In the late nineteenth century the term also emerges in connection with the development of sporting expertise, particularly in boating and rowing, but also linked to cricket. The first use of the term 'coachee' appears to have been in 1866 in the London Review where both coach and coachee are deemed to be satisfied with their 'reflection', so this is also an early indication of the mutuality rather than directive nature of the coaching relationship (Garvey et al., 2009). The first notable instance of coaching being used in a business context is noted by Gorby (1937) in a study of industrial workers and their productivity. The beginning of the real growth in the development of coaching and of the writing about coaching began with the influential 'The Inner Game of Tennis' by Tim Gallwey (1975) where the issues of personal development are linked with a particular process of non-directive dyadic support.

There has been a wealth of literature written more recently in the field of coaching and the subject is expanding very rapidly. Much of this writing as noted by Eggers and Clark (2000) is in the popular journals and press, though some is beginning to emerge in the academic arena. And considerable amounts concentrate on the development of models or

methods of coaching, such as the GROW model (Whitmore, 2002); co-active coaching (Whitworth et al., 1998); cross-cultural issues (Rosinski, 2003); ‘transformational’ coaching (Hargrove, 1995); fierce conversations (Scott, 2002). Other writing is concerned with the application and results of programmes of coaching. Most of the general literature remains ‘atheoretical’ (Peltier, 2001). There is the suggestion therefore that, rather than using specific theoretical models to underpin practice, some executive coaches at least may only do this at a subconscious or tacit level (Gray, 2006). In the empirical space, Anthony Grant regularly updates his paper giving an exhaustive bibliography of research papers, theses and documents on coaching of all forms taken from the behavioural science and business literature (Grant, 2009).

Agreement on the definition and goals of coaching is varied. Sir John Whitmore describes coaching as ‘optimizing people’s potential and performance (2002). Eric Parsloe suggests that coaching is:

A process that enables learning and development to occur and thus performance to improve. To be a successful coach requires a knowledge and understanding of process as well as the variety of styles, skills and techniques that are appropriate to the context in which the coaching takes place. (Parsloe, 1999:8)

A key difference between coaching and other forms of management training is the locus of control. In training, the agendas are often predetermined by the trainer, are not normally very flexible and are designed to impart specific competencies to the trainee. In general the trainee will be expected to fit in with the defined structure (Grant, 2001). In coaching, the power is more shared as the goals will be set and the programme will be shaped and driven by the coachee; the coach will simply manage the process (Hudson, 1999; Downey, 2002; Whitmore, 2002). This posture is in accordance with the adult learning theory on transformative learning espoused by Mezirow (1991).

2.7.4 The nature of coaching

That coaching is now emerging as one of the most significant approaches to the professional development of senior managers and executives is a well established notion (Gray, 2006). There is also much written that coaching practice should be underpinned by a humanistic psychological model, and particularly a psychotherapeutic perspective (Judge and Cowell, 1997), and it is noted that the way in which a coach performs their role will depend, in some part, on the theoretical perspective underpinning their practice. Gray suggests (2006) that there are a number of models from adult learning theory which may also be applied and which see the manager less as a patient or client and more, at least potentially, as a problem-solving professional practitioner (Mezirow, 1991).

2.7.5 The role of the coach

In terms of role and relationship the coach is not necessarily an ‘expert’ or ‘authority’, but someone who relates to the client in a spirit of partnership and collaboration (Gray, 2006). In addition, the coach may be a change agent, guiding someone through a transient culture, helping people to become more confident and committed and able to retain their drive and enthusiasm. Kegan (1994) posits that at work we must be self-initiating, self-correcting and self-evaluating, and the inventors of our own work.

Witherspoon and White (1996) propose four types of coaching role:

1. Coaching for skills, with a focus on specific skills required for a current job
2. Coaching for performance, with a focus more broadly on a present job
3. Coaching for development, focused on learning for a future job
4. Coaching for the executive’s agenda, directed on learning related broadly to the executive’s own interests.

2.7.6 Process and outcomes issues in coaching

Of the extant literature which includes empirical research on coaching, the majority is focused on outcome measures. Unsurprisingly, organizations focus their evaluation of

value for money in coaching on what returns might be available to them. There are a number of examples of such outcome research.

In 2002, Kampa-Kokesch undertook a study using the multi-factor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) to assess the impact of coaching on leadership behaviour. The results suggested that coaching had an impact on leadership behaviour with increased ratings on charismatic behaviour, impact on followers and inspiration action. Other studies have either attempted to demonstrate the impact of coaching quantitatively, or in qualitative terms. The study by Wang and Wentling (2001) found that training, supported by on-line coaching, enhanced skills transfer and also improved relationships, problem solving and enhanced motivation. A longitudinal study of over four hundred managers (Smither and London, 2003) found that executives who worked with a coach showed an improvement in performance in terms of direct report and supervisor ratings using a multi-rater feedback instrument. The research undertaken by Evers et al. (2006) involved a pre- and post-test measurement of individuals and used a control group drawing on a group of sixty managers in a public service organization split between the control and experimental conditions. Participants in the control group benefited from a behavioural coaching intervention based on the co-coaching model (Whitworth et al., 1998). The results found significant difference between the two groups and in favour of coaching on two of six variables measured; outcome expectations with respect to acting in a balanced way and self-efficacy beliefs with respect to setting one's own goals. The authors concluded that coaching had a positive effect, but noted that the self-report nature of the study limited the conclusions which could be drawn from the results.

Some studies have focused specifically on the attributes that executive coaches have which contribute to outcomes. Hall et al. (1999) describe a study that consisted of interviews with seventy-five executives who had received coaching. The result of the

study was a list of coaching behaviours which coachees found helpful and less helpful, and a comparison with executive coaches' perceptions of coaching behaviours. Aspects such as listening and questioning skills are present, alongside integrity, caring and the ability to challenge constructively. A 2004 study (Gonzales, 2004) reviewed coachees' perceptions of what contributed towards the coaching process. Twelve coachees (6 male, 6 female) who had received coaching using a collaborative coaching style were interviewed through a semi-structured interview methodology and the data was analysed using thematic analysis to reduce and cluster the data. The findings highlighted that, for positive progress to be made, the coach needed to command respect, work collaboratively, use a discursive rather than instructional approach and act authentically. The research identified the need for a combination of action and reflection using gentle probing for transformation learning to occur.

Some research in Executive Coaching has begun to identify common coach behaviours, which may be most beneficial: these include using a collaborative approach with the coachee (Gonzales, 2004; Luebbe, 2005; Jones and Spooner, 2006), an organizational culture which is open about the reasons for coaching and offers wider support to the coachee (Bush, 2005; Luebbe, 2005), being authentic or congruent in the work with the coachee (Gonzales, 2004) and being seen by the coachee as experienced or credible (Bush, 2005; Jones and Spooner, 2006). In the UK the EMCC, using the Delphi technique of an expert panel, has developed a set of coaching competencies which are believed to contribute to positive outcomes (Willis, 2005).

There are many sources which qualitatively connect coaching with improved performance and leadership potential. Goleman (2004) found direct ties between emotional intelligence, which may be developed by coaching, and measurable business results. A study carried out by Wales (2003) created the 'Inner and Outer Model of

Development' that describes how the internally perceived competencies of self-awareness and confidence enable and stimulate five externally manifested competencies, such as management and assertiveness, and how coaching substantially increases the effectiveness of these links. Whilst these may be important additional attributes resulting from the coaching intervention they lie outside the scope of this study.

An area for future study suggested by Passmore and Gibbes (2007) is on the behaviours that executive coaches use. At the root of this is the desire to begin to understand what behaviours make a difference in coaching. The experiences from counselling suggest that it is a complex and difficult question and it might be hypothesized that similar conclusions could be drawn for coaching. Also it may be hypothesized that more experienced coaches intuitively discover what works over time and unconsciously incorporate this into their behaviour (Roth and Fonagy, 2005). A number of links have been made between other learning techniques and coaching so as to enhance coaching outcomes by underpinning the technique with supplementary theoretical rigour. An example of this is provided by Fisher Turesky and Gallagher (2011) who suggest that the use of Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory can enhance the coach's understanding of self through their own learning style, making them more aware of the learning style of their clients, and thus enabling more fruitful coaching outcomes.

There are a number of links between and comparison of coaching with other therapeutic techniques and management interventions. Peltier's (2001) book on the psychology of Executive Coaching was an early work clearly connecting coaching with a general psychological approach, and Greene and Grant (2003) integrate psychology theory into an accessible introduction to coaching for managers. A study of coaching from a psychodynamic perspective has been undertaken by Kilburg (2000). There is little formal theoretical or empirical work to date to connect Executive Coaching and positive

psychology. This was highlighted by Kauffman and Scoular (2004) in a preliminary survey of the field. Since then some considerable research has been conducted and, as noted by Linley et al. (2009), Executive Coaching and positive psychology share a common heritage, being grounded in an abundance-based, solution-focused paradigm, driven typically by the assumption that people generally want to grow and develop their potential and when their environment supports them in doing so, they thrive (Linley and Harrington, 2005).

2.7.7 Parallels in the mentoring/coaching learning relationship

In their work *Making Coaching Work*, Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) draw parallels between the importance of rapport in both mentoring and coaching relationships. They cite the recommendation of the International Standards for Mentoring Programmes in Employment which say that all pairs should undertake frequent reviews of the quality of their relationship. This recommendation suggests beginning the process after ‘a couple of meetings’ and that the review should look at the degree of rapport each person feels they have with the other. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) note that ‘without rapport, the relationship will typically deliver very little by way of positive results’. They go on to say that the same importance exists in coaching. They suggest that the mentoring or coaching relationship should be measured in two dimensions, the quality of the relationship and the behaviour of the mentor or coach. Within a major study that they conducted in a number of large organizations using case study based research, Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) developed a set of questions to gather data on both of these dimensions. Focusing particularly on the quality dimension, they gathered data using two parameters; the perceived qualities of the relationship and the centrality of each of the qualities required for a successful coaching relationship. The same data gathering process is used in this study to capture data from the coach/coachee pairs in a dynamic picture of the development of the coaching relationship. The questions form a useful basis for

understanding the importance that a coach or coachee places on each of these qualities and, once a coaching relationship has been experienced, how present these qualities were within the relationship.

2.7.8 Summary

In summary, some main themes emerge from the literature about the models for coaching delivery, the benefits, measurable or qualitative, of coaching and the regulation of the professionals who deliver this service. It is a management development tool in the rapid development stage of its lifecycle and may, by its own efforts, develop into an indispensable method for achieving potential, or into a downgraded form of lifestyle management ignored by serious-minded high-potential professionals. These potential futures are of importance to this research: large amounts of time, effort and money are being applied to Executive Coaching in organizations (CIPD, 2011) and therefore, purchasers of coaching need to be assured that there is a sound theoretical foundation for the intervention to justify such investment. This research builds on the existing theory to establish the mechanisms of coaching efficacy, specifically through the investigation of the trajectory of the coaching relationship and an understanding of the patterns of coaching relationships that develop.

2.8 The coaching relationship

2.8.1 Choice or coercion – permission to coach

In her book *The Coach's Coach*, Hardingham (2004) suggests that 'the most important thing to understand when someone decides to receive coaching is whether she feels she is doing it freely, because she has chosen to, or whether she feels she has to some extent been "forced" into it'. Therefore Hardingham believes that an important part in the establishment of the relationship between coach and coachee is for the coach to ensure

that permission is present, that it continues and that both parties welcome the formation of the coaching relationship.

The choice spectrum spans those who have had coaching recommended, or who seek coaching themselves as a means to personal transformation, to those who have been told to have coaching as part of an appraisal or disciplinary process. It can also encompass other factors such as the general knowledge about what coaching is, from experience or learning and knowledge about a specific coach, from personal contact in another context or from referral by a trusted other.

2.8.2 The unique nature of a coaching relationship

The relationship between coach and coachee, given that two human beings are involved, is by definition unique. This facet is described by White (2006) when he notes, ‘to facilitate the leader’s development, the leader and coach need to develop a unique relationship, one that is truly different’. The relationship offers the opportunity to engage with someone who has their own worldview. It can include discussion of behaviours and their antecedents and can take into account the coach’s emotional reaction to the client. From the outset it is an information gathering process. By using language, observation and listening, the development of mutual understanding serves to deepen rapport between the coach and coachee. The development of rapport then leads towards a trusting relationship and this, in turn, allows the coach to challenge the coachee, and the coachee to challenge themselves.

Feldman and Lankau (2005) describe the coaching literature as treating the coaching relationship like a ‘black box’; a view supported by O’Broin and Palmer (2006) who agree that little is known about the coaching relationship and its effect on outcomes. From the current literature some suggestions exist for the different characteristics and phases of the coaching relationship. Set out in Table 2.7 below are three examples of how the

coaching relationship might be constructed (Hudson, 1999; West and Milan, 2001; Starr, 2003).

The Process	West and Milan (2001) p. 58	Hudson (1999) pp. 26 -31	Starr (2003) p. 58
The beginning	Contracting and relationship management	Establish the coach-client relationship - form trust	Establish the context for coaching
		Formulate a coaching agreement - establish what is inside and outside the agreement	
The middle	The work	Move from problem orientation to a vision orientation - the future the client would prefer	Create understanding and direction
	Ongoing review and evaluation	Construct a change scenario- develop a future-oriented personal or organizational strategic plan	
		Resist resistance - the focus is on resistance	
		Challenge, probe, confront - connecting a sense of purpose with a vision of a coaching 'result'	
		Coach the new scenario while deepening the relationship-details, timing, priorities, training, integration, revision	Review/confirm learning
The end	Ending and managing feedback to the organization	Conclude the formal relationship, begin follow-up coaching	Completion

Table 2.7 Contextual views of the coaching relationship

Each of these is matched to a contextual view of a stage in the coaching process and makes a comparison with the main features observed by the author. The comparison demonstrates a degree of similarity between the views of the authors, but also exhibits subtle differences. For example West and Milan (2001) seem to take a more pragmatic and task focused view of the process of the relationship than do Hudson (1999) or Starr (2003) who are both more reflective, but Hudson also relates a high degree of granularity to his observations of the relationship.

2.8.3 The coaching relationship in other dimensions

Imagine a high performing sports person like Tiger Woods without a coach.

Prof. Mike Pedler

The coach-client relationship is argued to be a potentially important change agent in the coaching process. Aspects of theory and research of coach-athlete relationships suggest high relevance to coach-client relationship and its impact on the coaching outcome:

- Increasing recognition of the importance of the coach-athlete relationship to the athlete's success and development
- The intentional nature of the coach-athlete relationship
- Exploring effective relationships
- The interpersonal context of relationships.

The foundational importance of the coach-athlete relationship on coaching outcome is discussed by Jowett (2005) who notes that both the coach and athlete intentionally develop a relationship so that growth and progress can be achieved. O'Broin and Palmer (2006), in a discussion of the coach - client relationship, assert that in working trans-theoretically and using the basis of principles of change found in the therapy literature, the coach can adopt intentional 'stances' in the coach - client relationship. The coach works at intentionally creating a relationship individually tailored for the client to optimize the positive effect of the relationship to improve the coaching outcome.

2.8.4 Creating the coaching relationship

In a study conducted for Harvard Business Review, Coutu and Kauffman (2009) carried out research amongst 140 professional coaches asking the question ‘What can coaches do for you?’ A number of aspects of the coaching relationship were evaluated. Amongst these respondents were asked what qualifications they looked for in a coach. The need for certification, or formal qualification, attracted an almost even yes/no response (29.2% to 28.5%), however only 13.2 per cent of respondents felt that psychological training was important compared with 45.9 per cent feeling that it was not. The same study revealed that the main reason for engaging a coach ten years ago was to fix a toxic behaviour in top management, whereas currently most coaching is about developing the capabilities of high-potential performers. This has produced a less defined approach to scoping out coaching engagements, how coaching is measured and reported and, most importantly for this study, the credentials an organization might use in selecting a coach.

2.8.5 Matching and selection

There is recognition (Atkinson, 2005; Joo, 2005; Hall, 2006), that selection and matching of executive coaches with coachees is a vital component in the ultimate success of the coaching relationship. This process may be a two- or three-way contracting exercise depending on the organizational systems and preferences as described by Jarvis (2004). She goes on to describe some of the difficulties encountered by organizations in carrying out these activities around a profession that currently lacks definitive qualifications and accreditations mechanisms.

In a commentary paper accompanying a 2009 study on ‘What can coaches do for you?’ (Coutu and Kauffman, 2009), it is suggested that there are two basic rules for hiring a coach; first that the executive is ready and willing to be coached, and second that the executive should be allowed to choose the coach they want to work with, regardless of

who in the organization initiated the engagement. The survey data supported this, with willingness and good chemistry being the most frequently cited ingredients of a successful coaching relationship. A further differentiating factor is that the coach should have a clear methodology. Personal recommendation was also offered as an essential ingredient by half of the respondents (n=140).

Wycherley and Cox (2008) suggest that organizations should learn about developing these processes from the experience of other interventions such as mentoring (Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004; Feldman and Lankau, 2005). With respect to relating this to the coaching intervention, in their theoretical paper they raise an awareness of the dangers of executives and other stakeholders making ill-informed matching decisions based only on factors such as the rapport between coach and potential coachee, which they suggest are factors not to be relied upon. They propose a model of the selection and matching process taking all stakeholder priorities into account (Figure 2.11 below).

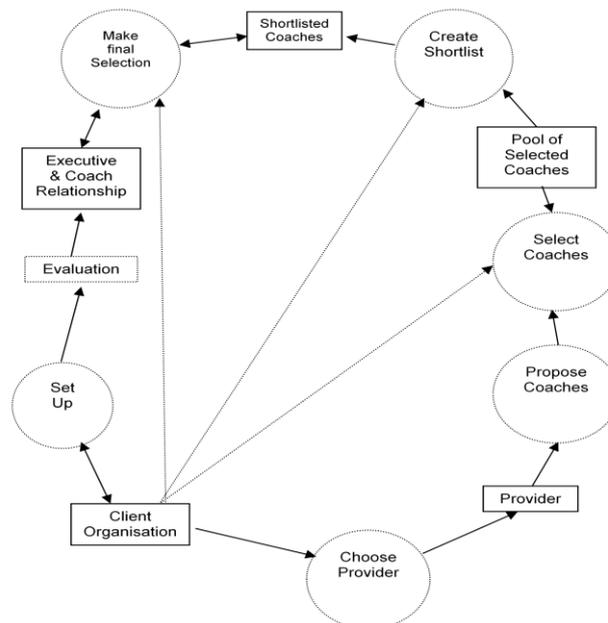


Figure 2.11 Context of selection and matching in Executive Coaching (Wycherley and Cox, 2008)

Work is emerging on the criteria and processes regarding matching and selection of executive coaches with their coachees. Hodgetts (2002) proposes three criteria for selecting the right coach, which he describes as a 'high art and a critical one' and claims that most errors in executive coach selection involve an absence of one or more of these factors. The three criteria are:

1. Interpersonal skills that include self-awareness, listening and empathy, ability to deliver difficult feedback, etc.
2. Perception by the client as 'competent and trustworthy
3. Sufficient understanding of business and organizational politics.

Gray (2010) explored the matching selection process by focusing on the influence of gender in forming coaching pairs. He found that there was no strong predictor of effective outcome based on the genders of the participants, but male coachees seemed to prefer female coaches. Female coachees did not exert any real preference. Yet another perspective was taken by Scoular and Linley (2006) who focused on the influence of similarity or difference of MBTI® type on the selection of executive coaches and on the development of goals and outcomes of coaching. Again, the evidence was weak that similarity or difference exerted an influence on choice or outcomes.

Rather than focus on a single dimension of preference, this research takes a holistic view of the coaching relationship. The results of the above studies do not provide clear evidence of a single influential factor on the selection and matching of coaching pairs, or the nature of the coaching relationship that is formed. This leads therefore to the possibility that there is not one overriding influential factor, but that there may be a complex set of dynamics which influence the matching process. It is possible that the participants cannot themselves identify or describe precisely what is directing their choice of coach or coachee. Therefore, by taking a view of the relationship from the perspective of the participants, the research may reveal

what combination of factors influence the formation and progression of coaching relationships.

2.8.6 Organizational factors

When coaching is being set up in an organizational context, the matching and selection process can be complex and may vary considerably (Jarvis, 2004). A number of stakeholders may become involved and typically there is a three-way matching process between coach, executive (prospective coachee) and an organizational representative. However, where a provider of coaching services is involved, that provider may occupy one of the seats at the table of this three-way process. In this case, the organization may also need to ensure that the coach provider has attended to the issues of coach development, supervision and accreditation. A study by Coutu and Kauffman (2009) of 140 professional coaches indicated that the coaching relationship was typically initiated by the organization's Human Resources department (29.5%), followed closely by the coachee themselves (28.8%). The line manager initiates a coaching intervention in slightly fewer instances (23%), and others in the organization factor less in the equation but are still clearly influential (18%).

Within the organizational setting, the process of engaging a coach is seen as being a very prescribed process. White's description of the process is as follows:

A member of management, often the human resources manager, contacts a coach to discuss the situation. In this initial meeting, the coach may meet with the HR manager, the client's manager, the client or all three ... Sometimes the management team interviews several coaches in order to select the one who best fits the situation, if all goes well, the coach accepts and is accepted for the assignment. (2006)

2.8.7 Ingredients of a successful coaching relationship

According to the survey described above, carried out by Coutu and Kauffman (2009), there were some clear views on a number of questions regarding the factors which contribute to a successful coaching relationship:

- Motivation to change - executives who get the most out of coaching have a fierce desire to learn and grow.
- Good chemistry between coach and coachee - the right match is absolutely key to the success of a coaching experience. Without it, the trust required for optimal executive performance will not develop.
- Commitment from top management - the firm must have a true desire to retain and develop the coached executive.

Another interesting finding from the Coutu and Kauffman research (2009) is that almost 90 per cent of respondents reported that the focus of the coaching engagement shifts over time from what they were originally hired to do. This might suggest that, as the relationship matures, the ability to uncover essential issues is enhanced.

2.8.8 Role of initial chemistry (rapport) building

In comparing attributes which executives may use as ‘chemistry’ differentiators in the matching process, surface- and deep-level diversity factors are one process for assessing the potential match. Surface diversity factors would include issues such as culture, gender, ethnicity, race and age, whilst deep-level diversity includes factors such as values, beliefs and attitudes (Wycherley and Cox, 2008). Surface-level factors are deemed, over time, to have less impact than deep-level factors, as surface-level factors are influential in the initial establishment of rapport, but further knowledge of each party introduces the influence of deep-level factors.

2.8.9 Surface-level diversity

Surface-level diversity issues include race, gender, age and ethnicity (Harrison et al., 1998); those attributes which are immediately apparent to someone when they encounter

another individual for the first time. In fact, these factors can begin to influence a relationship from the first exchange of any information about the other party. This could manifest as reading a description of the person, seeing a photograph of them or hearing their voice. A number of studies have taken place in the mentoring matching processes to try to identify whether similarity or difference in these issues is beneficial to the mentoring relationship (Johnson-Bailey and Cervero, 2004; Blake-Beard et al., 2006). Each focused on race and culture and suggested that difference in the relationship creates additional challenges to be managed. Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2004), in describing their own cross-cultural mentoring relationship, highlighted the issue of trust between the parties and stressed the need for honest and open discussion of race between them. They felt that it was important to create a relationship that shares a similar world-view. By contrast, Ragins, Cotton et al. (2000) suggest that difference in a key surface dimension such as culture, may lead to beneficial outcomes by exploring a wider range of contexts than when these factors are more similar.

Similarly, the issue of gender matching is also contested. Using the proxy of the mentoring relationship, Cozza (2006) asserts that the same gender is a 'pre-requisite for a necessary mutual understanding between mentor and mentee'. Though supporting the benefits of difference in surface-level diversity factors, Ragins, Cotton et al. (2000) also believe that gender is an important factor to take into overall account, particularly where embedded organizational gender stereotypes are at play and may also be related to perceived power relationships. Conversely, a study by Scandura and Williams (2001) found that gender did not play a part in the quality of mentoring received. Some specific examples of preferred dimensions in mentoring relationships have been described: for example, Armstrong et al. (2002) suggest that the female mentor/male mentee relationship is most problematic, probably due to historical power positions.

Clearly, the research to date on this issue can be contradictory, certainly in terms of establishing mentoring relationships (Hurley, 1996). However, the weight of opinion suggests that similarity in surface-level diversity factors in the field of mentoring does enable rapport to be achieved more quickly. This is also supported by the findings of a large-scale study which was conducted in the United States, looking at ethnic and gender matching between therapist and client (Fujino et al., 1994). These findings suggest that ethnic and/or gender matching were significantly associated with several aspects of the longevity of relationships.

In response to these arguments, Cox (2005) argues that well-trained mentors should be able to overcome these issues to create a beneficial relationship. Clearly, for this study, the question turns to whether these same tendencies apply in establishing the coaching relationship. What is the coachee's reaction to surface-level diversity match or mismatch? Are they willing to experiment and learn with a coach who is different in some way from themselves?

The previous work on mentoring and the limited work to date on coaching offer no clear picture of the parameters that influence the formation of a coaching pair and the progression of the coaching relationship thereafter. The parameters of surface-level diversity (Wycherley and Cox, 2008), gender (Gray, 2010) and personality type (Scouler and Linley, 2006) have not demonstrated any clear factor that dictates the choices of coaching participants. This opens the question as to whether there is a single factor involved in forging a preferred coaching partnership or whether, in fact, there are a number of factors operating in combination. The participants may not even be aware of what these factors are, or it could be that it is some combination of parameters unique to each pair that engenders their match and creates a beneficial coaching relationship. If this is a possibility, it would be useful to study the development of the coaching relationship

and the nature of the relationship for different coaching pairs to ascertain what these influencing factors might be.

2.8.10 Deep-level diversity

Deep-level diversity factors are those that emerge when two people have been interacting for some time and are beginning to get to know one another beyond the level of the initial encounter. Within this category of characteristics lie issues such as values, beliefs and personality. There currently appears to be little in the literature exploring the role that these aspects have on the coaching relationship. In addition, how this fits into the role of 'chemistry' as part of building rapport has been suggested to be an unreliable indicator of a successful coaching relationship (Wycherley and Cox, 2008). Some exploration of the literature to date on rapport building and the role of values, trust and beliefs in this process is applicable here. An absence of evidence or previous research suggests that this is an area for further study.

2.8.11 Trust

A number of authors believe that the issue of trust is an important factor in the selection process and that good initial rapport is one of the building blocks for developing trust in the relationship, though inadequate for the true understanding of trust levels gained over time. This stance is argued by Bluckert (2005) who believes that trust is related to the coach's integrity and competence and that rapport-building skills underpin the formation of trust in the relationship. Research by Cox (2005) supports the idea of trust being built over time and therefore suggests that initial conclusions about a coach's trustworthiness may be unreliable. A specific, qualitative study on trust was conducted by Alvey and Barclay (2007) in which twenty-seven high-level executives were interviewed as part of a leadership development programme. The study found that there were three main groups of influencing factors on the development of trust, which were:

1. Relational – trust was highest when the coachee was willing to disclose honest feelings which were met with a supportive, non-judgemental reaction
2. Situational – the organization was supportive of the leadership development value of Executive Coaching and when the coach and client were clear about the expectations of confidentiality and outcomes
3. Behavioural – the coach supportively confirmed the client’s development needs and challenged the client’s leadership behaviours.

Only one factor, confidentiality, had the power to create or prevent the development of trust. Overall, an integrated, sequential list of interdependent trust factors emerged. Alvey and Barclay (2007) summarized the full list of factors that either positively or negatively influenced the establishment of trust in the following Table 2.8.

Positively influencing factors	Negatively influencing factors
Essential Factors for Trust Development	
Confidentiality	Breach of confidentiality
Strong Factors for Trust Development	
Client readiness	Client unreadiness
Organizational support	Organizational stigma
Coach experience	Lack of goal clarity
Supportive behaviours	
Clarity of goals	
Confirming behaviours	
Challenging behaviours	
Perception of value	
Low Factors of Trust Development	
Gender	Wrong gender
Location/forum	
Coaching frequency	

Table 2.8 Essential factors of trust development (Alvey and Barclay, 2007)

The data in this study also suggests a chronological order for trust impacting factors to influence trust formation. Each subsequent step can reinforce and enhance or reduce the trust built in the previous step, thus allowing trust levels to change over time. This chronology is shown in Figure 2.12 below.

2.8.12 Personality

Evidence as to whether personality in coaching should be matched or different in some dimension appears limited. There are many personality parameters which have been studied for this type of matching and selection comparator. Personality types, styles and levels of development are termed ‘heuristics’ by Wycherley and Cox (2008) as they argue that they are simply mental shortcuts that help us to classify people quickly by some parameter and, if used judiciously, provide an organizing principle upon which to base decisions.

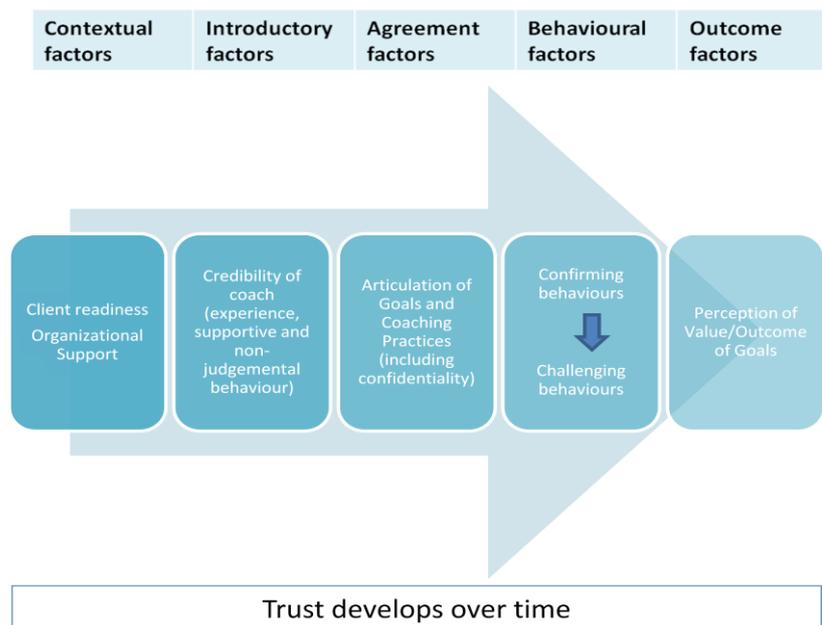


Figure 2.12 Trust develops over time (Alvey, S. and Barclay, K., 2007)

Scoular and Linley (2006) found that, from a sample of 117 single session coaching interventions, evidence was uncovered that learning is enabled where the MBTI® profile is unmatched. However, a number of other studies of the mentoring process, here being used as a proxy for coaching, (Armstrong et al., 2002; Engstrom, 2004; Luecke, 2004); maintain that matching on some dimension of personality studied aided the mentoring relationship to build. Clearly, personality as it relates to the matching and selection

process is very complex and the assessment processes are not an absolute measure of personality characteristics.

2.8.13 Experience

Unlike mentoring where relevant expertise and/or experience is necessary, if not a pre-requisite (Kram, 1988; Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004), in coaching direct experience is not necessary (Whitmore, 2002; Jarvis, 2004). Hodgetts (2002) further claims that a level of business knowledge, skill and understanding are more important than specific experience or knowledge of a profession or role. This is supported by Hall et al.(1999) who suggest that coaches who have held positions of authority are helpful, but that this is useful for the maturity and general empathy of the person rather than some technical knowledge. This may work in large organizations, however Gray and Goregaokar (2007) and Clutterbuck and Megginson (1999) have conducted research with SME owner managers who do not readily accept being coached by a middle manager from a larger organization, even if that person has, ostensibly, more experience. The danger in this scenario, they say, is that the coach can slip into the role of consultant and the sessions become content driven. A possible route through this dimension is for coaching providers to map their coaches' business and coaching competencies so that organizations may match them appropriately to their executives (Ahern, 2003).

The review paper by Wycherley and Cox (2008) questions the role of 'chemistry' in coach matching and selection and looks at a number of dimensions which may play a part in affecting establishment of a beneficial coaching relationship. The argument is also made (Feldman and Lankau, 2005) that good executive coaches should be able to adapt their style and process to accord with the situation. Research evidence in relation to coach/coachee matching is partial and mixed. Two studies (Thach, 2002; Dagley, 2006)

have suggested that whilst the coaching relationship was pivotal to outcomes, poor chemistry was reported in very few cases (9 out of 114) (Thach, 2002).

Wycherley and Cox (2008) suggest that ‘it would be useful to perform further studies on the effectiveness of matching decisions and the effects of surface- and deep-level diversity factors on Executive Coaching relationships’. Furthermore, these authors suggest that the contextual model in Figure 2.11 could form the basis for research into other aspects of the process at play. There is opportunity, therefore, to examine this model in more detail and understand some of its suggested mechanisms more thoroughly. In considering one particular stage of the coaching relationship, the formation stage, Wycherley and Cox (2008) conclude their paper by re-stating their belief that coach matching and selection is better supported by objective and robust standards and criteria, rather than the ill-understood surface and deep diversity factors: they do state that further research in this area would shed light on matching and selection processes overall.

2.8.14 What are the characteristics of these relationships?

In a fairly early paper in coaching terms, White (1999) conducted research on the coaching relationship that suggested that the following elements were essential:

- Trust, rapport and mutual respect
- Ability and willingness to listen to even the minutest details
- Ability to give feedback on those observations in a way that is useful and productive
- A really high level of focus on the outcomes, both short- and long-term, and on the strategy and process for achieving these
- A good deal of flexibility when it comes to how these outcomes are achieved
- A real understanding of the relationship, the shared values and vision
- Clarity about the roles and who is responsible for what.

Empathy is stressed as the key component in the coaching relationship by O’Broin and Palmer (2009). They describe ‘building, establishing and maintaining an optimal

coaching alliance for a specific coachee, through negotiation and re-negotiation epitomises the “collaborative relationship”. These authors draw strong comparisons between the coaching relationship and that in the therapies, specifically Cognitive Behavioural Therapy, which emphasizes working collaboratively with the client in the process of working towards agreed goals. They base their evaluation on the work of Bordin (1979), whose ‘working alliance’ had three interrelated features; goals, tasks and bonds, to which Dryden (2008) added a fourth factor, that of views (of the coaching process: venue, cost, frequency, length, cancellation, content and access policy). In forming the coaching alliance these views require explicit discussion, negotiation and agreement. Ting and Hart (2004) consider the essential components of the coaching relationship to be rapport, collaboration and commitment. To these, Ely et al. (2010) add trust and confidentiality, dimensions also studied by Alvey and Barclay (2007), who suggested that confidentiality was the unique delimiter of trust in the coaching relationship. The importance of mutual creation of the coaching relationship is stressed by Stober and Grant (2006). Ely et al. (2010) and O’Broin and Palmer (2010) concur that responsibility for creation of the coaching relationship is shared equally between coach and coachee. Table 2.9 below summarizes the characteristics that have been suggested as being components of the coaching relationship.

Other elements that have been posited as influential in the coaching relationship are:

- Listening, understanding and encouragement are valued more than particular interventions or coach behaviours (De Haan, 2008)
- The incidence of ‘critical moments’ or ‘critical incidents’ in the course of coaching, such as those that produce important insights for the coachee, or that change the quality of the relationship or the outcomes of the coaching (Day et al., 2008)
- The level of constructiveness and challenge impacts on the quality of the coaching relationship (O’Broin and Palmer, 2010).

An obvious difficulty in conceptualizing the characteristics of the coaching relationship is that these authors relate different definitions to the individual characteristics. They also subordinate characteristics within a header characteristic in different ways. The full list is relatively consistent, but the sub-classifications vary.

Attribute	Description	Author(s)
Trust	Confidentiality is a unique condition (Alvey and Barclay, 2007). Linked to openness and transparency (Gyllensten and Palmer, 2007). Linked with confidentiality (Ely et al., 2010); provides mutual security to manage expectations, provide boundaries and develop honest dialogue	(White, 1999; Luebbe, 2005; Jones and Spooner, 2006; Alvey and Barclay, 2007; Gyllensten and Palmer, 2007; Ely et al., 2010)
Goals, tasks, bond	The ‘work supporting bond’ (Bordin, 1979) links with goals and tasks to collaborative, purposeful work in the coaching alliance. Bond is conceptualized by Dryden (2008) with the core conditions of empathy, genuineness and unconditional acceptance (Beck et al., 1979). Empathy is key component of bond and a key factor in promoting therapeutic change. O’Broin and Palmer (2010) identify characteristics of bond: drama and role, dependent on client view, connection and understanding. Goals: consensus about and commitment to the goals of coaching Tasks: cognitive aspects relating to the work of coaching Bonds: trust, liking and respect	(Beck et al., 1979; Bordin, 1979; Hatcher and Barends, 2006; Horvath, 2006; Stober, D., 2006; Dryden, 2008)
Rapport	Mutual understanding, agreement and liking between coach and coachee that allows each to appreciate, recognize and respect each other as individuals	(White, 1999; Ting and Hart, 2004)
Mutual respect	Rather than one-sided	(White, 1999; O’Broin and Palmer, 2010)
Support	May be seen as guidance or motivation. Support outside the coaching sessions	(O’Broin and Palmer, 2010)
Collaboration	Co-operation that occurs between the coach and coachee that permits and requires both to contribute in developing the coaching experience. Three sub-themes: two-way relationship, respect and support (O’Broin and Palmer, 2010)	(Ting and Hart, 2004; O’Broin and Palmer, 2010)
Commitment	The dedication of both coach and coachee to perform the work of the development experience	(Ting and Hart, 2004)
Shared vision and values	A common understanding of beliefs and ideals. Shared values form the foundation of building productive and genuine working relationships	(White, 1999; Kouzes and Posner, 2010)
Client readiness	Readiness for coaching, previous experience	(Ely et al., 2010)
Coach’s ability	Qualifications, experience, approach, credibility	(Ely et al., 2010)

Table 2.9 Attributes of the coaching relationship

2.9 Summary

The above review of the literature relates to the concept of adult learning and development and its relationship with the development of leaders and leadership. The theories and processes of adult development conclude that the most effective androgogy for the development of adults in the learning environment is a transformative process where the individual learns from experience and that the teacher acts as a facilitator of learning, rather than by telling and showing. The review goes on to discuss leadership, its importance to organizations and how this leadership might be developed for individuals. The inference is made that senior executives and others in leadership positions will be mature individuals and, therefore, the theory of adult learning and development will be relevant to this organizational archetype.

A number of different learning processes are available to the organization and to the learner to facilitate this development. These include mentoring, personal consultancy and Executive Coaching. For this research, the Executive Coaching process is of interest. As a concept Executive Coaching is relatively new and the body of theory relating to it is less well developed than other interventions (Passmore and Fillery-Travis, 2011). However, it is a widely adopted process in organizations and its use is growing rapidly with considerable spend being dedicated to coaching from the training and development budgets of organizations. For mainly that reason, study of the coaching intervention has multiplied in recent years. The background and development of coaching has been described. The different approaches to coaching and a number of its attributes are set out in order to understand the mechanism of the process and the assumptions of its mode of efficacy.

Two areas where there appears to have been less activity in the academic research field are the attributes of the coachee and the nature and dynamics of the coaching relationship.

The importance of the coaching relationship in the delivery of outcomes has been identified by a number of scholars, for example (Kampa-Kokesch, 2002; Hardingham, 2006; Jones and Spooner, 2006; Bachkirova, 2007; Gyllensten and Palmer, 2007; De Haan, 2008) and the requirement for research in this area has been noted, e.g. (Kauffman and Scoular, 2004; Feldman and Lankau, 2005; Bennett, 2006).

Given the recognition of the role and importance that the relationship takes in the success of a coaching intervention, it has been identified as the subject of study in this research. Although there is little research or theory to rely on to date, it is possible to draw on the substantial literature from suitable proxies such as mentoring, therapeutic interventions and personal consultancy. There are some forty years of research evidence and theory from these fields to rely on to serve as likely indicators of patterns or configurations and dynamics or sequences within the coaching relationship. To support this, a number of authors, e.g. Sperry (2004) have identified similarities and differences between Executive Coaching and one or more of the other interventions, such that a reliable picture can be drawn of where comparisons can be made. Based on substantial work on the therapeutic relationship, a parallel may be drawn with the coaching relationship. The term 'therapeutic, working or coaching alliance' has been used by a number of authors in describing the nature of this dyadic relationship between either a therapist and client or coach and coachee (Bordin, 1979; Hatcher and Barends, 2006; Horvath, 2006; Stober, D., 2006; Dryden, 2008; O'Broin and Palmer, 2010). Whilst these authors describe the conceptual attributes that contribute towards a fruitful coaching relationship, none of them describe the actual processes taking place in the formation, maturation and completion of the therapeutic or coaching dyad. Kram (1983) in a seminal paper, described through empirical study the phases of the mentoring relationship. Whilst clear differences can be identified between the coaching intervention and that of mentoring, they provides a useful basis for understanding the mentoring counterpart in terms of

describing different stages of progress. This, therefore, sets the platform for undertaking research into understanding the dynamics of the Executive Coaching dyad.

2.10 Research questions

The aim of this research is to critically examine the concepts of developing leaders through the lens of a single intervention, Executive Coaching. More specifically, it is the nature and characteristics of the Executive Coaching relationship that will be scrutinized as the literature on this subject is sparse and most relevant inference is gained by using other interventions as suitable proxies. It is clear that the dyadic relationship is crucial to the achievement of coaching outcomes and that a better understanding of the underlying patterns and processes that are taking place, as well as an exploration of the perceptions of the coaches and coachees within such pairings. Therefore, this research aims to:

1. Understand the stages of the coaching relationship from pre-formation to conclusion
2. Explore the characteristics of different coaching relationships and identify patterns or themes
3. Develop a typology of coaching relationships which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for coaching professionals.

In order to carry out such research specific questions should be raised which can generate appropriate data and from these derive meaningful, trustworthy and valid results, conclusions and recommendations. The impact of the research should be two-fold; generating a contribution to the body of knowledge on leadership development and specifically on an element of Executive Coaching which is hitherto sparsely covered. In the sense that there is little so far written about the nature and form of the Executive Coaching relationship, it would be applicable to commence with some exploratory investigation into its nature.

From the formulation of suitable research questions an appropriate research framework can be derived. Well-formed questions will lead to an understanding of what data are required and from that the best research design can be developed. Given the open and so far little understood nature of the field of Executive Coaching relationships, the following two main research questions evolved:

1. Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?
2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?

Within these main questions, a number of sub-questions exist:

1. Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?
 - a. Which precursor factors contribute to the formation of the Executive Coaching relationship?
 - b. Once a dyadic relationship has been initiated, how does it evolve in the process of a normal Executive Coaching programme of sessions?
 - c. What knowledge can be derived towards developing a process for identifying ideal Executive Coaching dyads?
2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?
 - a. Is it possible to develop a new theoretical proposition for a conceptual framework of coaching relationships, which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for future coaching professionals?

By generating the appropriate data to answer the above research questions it is expected that analysis will produce a picture of the phenomenon of the Executive Coaching relationship which can be challenged, researched further and adapted, refuted, generalized or improved upon so that over time a fuller understanding of the Executive Coaching relationship can be presented.

2.11 Developing the process to answer the research questions

The next stage of the research process is to develop a research design which is appropriate to generate data in response to the stated research questions. The process of producing data which will provide evidence for analysis and discussion is set out in the following section which comprehensively addresses a consistent path through the ontology and epistemology underpinning the research design. This is followed by the rationale for the overall research design and methodology and a detailed explanation of the data collection methods to be employed.

Chapter 3 Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the way in which the theoretical position presented in the literature review links to appropriate and relevant research methods to investigate the phenomenon that has been identified (Bryman, 2001). It describes the research strategy for the study and discusses the ontological and epistemological position adopted from the body of theory. It sets out the research methodology and choice of methods which have been used in order to demonstrate a continuity of thought between existing theory on Executive Coaching as a process for leadership development. The analytical framework for deriving meaning from the data is described.

The gap in the current literature indicates the opportunity to study the Executive Coaching relationship as a form of leadership development and explore the characteristics of the relationship in order to identify whether phases of development can be identified and whether these relationships fit into certain patterns or types. The study drew on theory from the adult learning literature to set the context for the development of leaders as self-determined individuals and then looked at other one-to-one relationships to identify similarities and differences which might offer insights on how to view the phenomenon being studied. The coaching literature then identified the extent of research to date examining the construct of the relationship and revealed issues as yet unexplored.

The literature review suggested that the available theory on the coaching relationship from the perspective of the participants is under-developed. From the current position a number of research questions have been formulated which are designed to uncover data and add to the body of work on leadership development intervention (see below). The purpose of this

section was to clearly articulate the research questions that this study seeks to answer and to show how the relevant data can be collected and analysed in order to address the theoretical deficit.

In order to enhance the trustworthiness of the research, Marshall and Rossman (2006:7) note that 'it is by linking research questions to the larger theoretical constructs or to important policy questions [that] the writer show that the particulars of a study serve to illuminate larger issues and, therefore hold potential significance for that field'. The generation of research questions has been described by Mason (2002) as one of a number of 'intellectual puzzles', in this case a developmental puzzle, where one looks at how and why a position develops and where it draws the researcher to develop a number of questions to be researched. Mason also goes on to note that research questions are suited to a qualitative research methodology and fit a wider range of ontological and epistemological positions than would the development of hypothesis or propositions to be tested. Such a proposition suits this research as it seeks to uncover meaning from respondents about their perceptions of relationships with a partner; therefore, it suggests an interpretive strategy which is supported by a qualitative approach. Research questions express the essence of the enquiry and must, therefore, fit with the theoretical contribution (intellectual puzzle) and the ontological and epistemological stance to be taken. The questions put forward should be sensible, coherent, clearly formulated, intellectually worthwhile and researchable.

Having reiterated the research questions the section will go on to demonstrate the strategy most suitable to generating, gathering and analysing data to answer them. As noted by Berg (2009:7), 'the purpose of research is to discover answers to questions through the application of systematic procedures'.

The above requirements led to the establishment of the overall rationale for a suitable methodology for this investigation into the dynamics of the coaching relationship, whether it

follows clear phases and whether coaching relationships can be identified into patterns or types. This research rationale should fulfil a number of objectives:

- Enable the study of the coaching relationship from the perspective of the participants
- Take a longitudinal view of the relationship from before the first encounter to after its conclusion
- Collect data that is most appropriate to the moment of the relationship but does not intrude into the relationship itself and that allows the participants to ‘speak’ in a real-time, reflexive manner
- Take into account the complexity of Executive Coaching as a dyadic intervention and allow data collection in an appropriate setting which may at times be quasi-experimental or in as naturalistic environment as possible.

The literature review explored adult learning theory in the context of leadership development, it then further examined dyadic development relationships overall, and then specifically the coaching intervention and the coaching relationship. These investigations highlighted areas of the territory which have not yet been researched. Gaps in the literature are apparent when considering the characteristics of the coaching relationship, how it evolves and the types of coaching relationship which might develop. In order to address some of the absence of theoretical knowledge, the following research questions have been formulated:

1. Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?
2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?

Within these main questions, a number of sub-questions exist:

1. Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?
 - a. Which precursor factors contribute to the formation of the Executive Coaching relationship?
 - b. Once a dyadic relationship has been initiated, how does it evolve in the process of a normal Executive Coaching programme of sessions?

- c. What knowledge can be derived towards developing a process for identifying ideal Executive Coaching dyads?
2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?
 - a. Is it possible to develop a new theoretical proposition for a conceptual framework of coaching relationships, which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for future coaching professionals?

The remainder of this chapter will address the following aspects of the research design and methodology:

- The overall research strategy
- The ontological and epistemological approach to the research
- The influence of the researcher on this type of research
- The research design, specifically looking at case study research
- The requirements to ensure the robustness of the research approach
- Methods for data collection
- Plan of the fieldwork undertaken
- Risk constraints and ethics of the study
- The data analysis protocol
- Summary of the chapter.

3.2 Research strategy

The proposed strategy for this research, which would be conducted to reply to the questions set out above, is an empirical investigation using a case study research design and a qualitative approach. The rationale behind these choices is discussed below.

In order to provide the information that would answer the research questions posed in this thesis it was important to be clear about what kind of data was required and how it might be analysed. The issues being investigated were concerned with the subjective views of individual actors in a dyadic relationship. Furthermore, it was important for the study to explore the changes in the feedback over time on the phenomena under investigation. This

feedback would vary according to the individual actor's perceptions and it was essential to capture, in their own words, the values, characteristics, thoughts and feelings that are generated at the different stages of the dyadic relationship. A research strategy needed to be selected which would be appropriate to the research questions and the research evidence required to answer them. Methods of data collection would be chosen which allowed the participants to capture their reflections in as unintrusive a way as possible. This might entail use of a number of different devices, but they would all be consistent in the narrative nature of the data collected. Furthermore, the analysis of these data sources would be applied consistently using the same framework and approach. A longitudinal and qualitative approach was selected and the reasons for doing this will be set out below.

3.2.1 Qualitative vs. quantitative methodologies

Scholars and researchers differ in regard to the efficacy of qualitative and quantitative strategies for conducting research. Each strategy comprises a number of approaches deemed appropriate in different circumstances and contexts of investigation. Silverman (2001) suggests that there exists significant variation in both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, which makes straightforward comparison between them inadequate. Crotty (2003) suggests that whilst the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research occurs at the level of methods, it does not necessarily occur at the level of epistemology or theoretical perspective. Silverman (2001) argues that quantitative research designs cannot readily deal with the social and cultural construction of its own 'variables', inferring that one of the aspects of qualitative research is to try to understand reality as a social construction, produced and interpreted through cultural meaning. Qualitative approaches are concerned therefore with interpretation and understanding, whereas quantitative methodologies seek to predict outcomes.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices turn the world into a series of representations including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. Taking this view, it is legitimate to collect data using different tools in order to capture output consistent with the overall parameters of narrative data. In this study, that means adopting the most appropriate devices at each stage of the process in order to access the reflections of the participants.

Qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. This view is supported by Flick (2007), who argues that qualitative research is aimed at understanding, describing and explaining social phenomena ‘from the inside’. She suggests that a common feature of the methods that qualitative research tends to apply is that they seek to ‘unpick’ how people construct the world around them and allow the researcher to develop models, typologies and theories as ways of describing and explaining social issues. Again the relevance of Flick’s stance to this research is that this study seeks to understand the Executive Coaching relationship from the inside viewpoint of the participants and, as a consequence, develop theories of the evolution of the coaching relationship and the patterns of coaching relationships so as to address some of the gaps in current understanding.

The apparent lack of depth of research in the area of the coaching relationship may be appropriately addressed using a qualitative approach. Ghauri and Grønhaug, (2005) in a text predominantly about quantitative research, wrote:

Qualitative research is particularly relevant when prior insights about a phenomenon under scrutiny are modest, implying that qualitative research tends to be exploratory and flexible because of ‘unstructured’ problems. (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005:202)

Further, Marshall and Rossman wrote that qualitative research:

Entails immersion in the everyday life of the setting chosen for study, values and seeks to discover participants' perspectives on their worlds, views inquiry as an interactive process between the researcher and the participants, is both descriptive and analytic, and relies on people's words and observable behaviour as the primary data. (Marshall and Rossman, 1999:7)

3.2.2 The ontological stance of qualitative research

There have been many attempts to define qualitative research in the social sciences (Mason, 2002) and to try to differentiate it from quantitative research (Hammersley, 1995; Bryman, 2001; Silverman, 2001). One of the difficulties, according to Mason, is that qualitative research is not a unified set of techniques and philosophies but has grown out of a wide range of intellectual and disciplinary traditions. She suggests that one of the most compelling strengths of qualitative research is to discover '*how things work in particular contexts*' [her emphasis]. Qualitative research approaches are related to philosophical thinking through their theoretical ideas and attachments. The research position of this study which is to explore a set of phenomena and to generate theory around these issues, assumes an ontological view that reality is subjective, that is, based upon perceptions and experiences that may differ between individuals and change over time and in context (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). The social nature of reality so expressed is termed 'constructionism' and assumes that social actors produce social reality through social interaction. Blaikie (1993) wrote that the focal point of the social constructionist view is that reality does not exist outside individuals. Guba and Lincoln (1994) suggest that constructivism is one of the four main paradigms which frame research in the social sciences, using an adaptation of the term 'paradigm' as originally described by Thomas Kuhn (1970) in his text *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*.

For clarification of the use of terms in this research, Constructionism and Constructivism are ontological positions which assert that social phenomena and their meanings are continually

being constructed and revised by social actors. Constructivism has its roots in psychology, and especially social and educational psychology, where students constructed their own unique systems of knowing, whereas the origins of Constructionism lie more generally in the discipline of sociology (Wright-Mills, 1959; Berger and Luckmann, 1966) and the postmodern world of Foucault (1998; 2003) and Derrida (2001). Constructionism is the processing of a concept or practice that is the construct of a particular individual or group where we focus on the construct's dependence on the worldview of our social selves rather than any inherent quality that it possesses in itself. This position is described fluently by Burr (2003) though its most significant writer in social psychology is probably Gergen (1999; 2001). Gergen argued that the approach embodied four separate elements: the role of language, the social nature of knowledge, the political aspects of knowledge, and the centrality of the relational aspects of life. Social Constructionism also has a parallel history in the social studies of science and technology (Grint and Woolgar, 1997). The positioning of constructionism as the way in which actors or participants socially construct a phenomenon and interpret this according to their own worldview is consistent with the aim of seeking to understand the Executive Coaching relationship as the phenomenon of interest from the perspective of the members of that relationship and, therefore, a constructionist approach is appropriate to adopt in this research.

There is a fundamental contrast which should be made between a positivist enquiry and a social constructionist enquiry which will help to illustrate the appropriateness of the approach being suggested in this research. Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) suggest a summary comparison between a positivistic approach and one of social constructionism as follows (table 3.1):

	Positivism	Social Constructionism
The observer	must be independent	is part of what is being observed
Human interests	should be irrelevant	is the main driver of science
Explanations	must demonstrate causality	aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Concepts	need to be defined so that they can be measured	should incorporate stakeholder perspective
Units of analysis	should be reduced to simplest terms	may include the complexity of 'whole' situations
Generalization through	statistical probability	theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	large numbers selected randomly	small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Table 3.1 Contrasting positivism and social constructionism (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008)

The origins of qualitative research may be traced back to the writings of Immanuel Kant's 1781 publication *Critique of Pure Reason* (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). Kant argued that there are ways of knowing about the world other than through direct observation.

The contribution of Wilhelm Dilthey in the 1860s and 70s to interpretivist thought and the qualitative tradition was to emphasize the importance of understanding, or '*verstehen*', and of studying people's life experiences. He also argued that self-determination and human creativity play very important roles in guiding our actions, which is particularly relevant to this research as it explores certain processes of individual understanding and self-determination in a relationship of forward directed action. Max Weber (1949) further developed these ideas, and rather than be strictly interpretivist he tried to build a bridge between the purely interpretivist and purely positivist approaches. He emphasized that the researcher must understand the meaning of social actions within the context of the material conditions in which people live, thus stressing the importance of interpretation as well as observation in understanding the social world.

3.3 Epistemology

The epistemological view, in relation to how knowledge about the social world is uncovered, is that it is derived from our own observations and interpretations. Johnson and Duberley (2000) stressed that researchers understand their own approach to epistemology as they engage with management and organizations in undertaking empirical research. In a subjective ontology knowledge is generated from the position of interpretivism. Crotty (2003) further supported this by acknowledging that constructionism is the epistemology claimed in most qualitative approaches today.

The organizing principle for generating knowledge through an epistemological philosophy is demonstrated in the choice of research methodology. Silverman (2005) notes that methodologies can be defined broadly and schematically, e.g. qualitative and quantitative, or narrowly and precisely; grounded theory, case study or ethnography. A methodology is an overall framework of appropriate methods employed to gather data which is meaningful in answering the posited research questions and is consistent with the ontological underpinning of the research and the epistemological approach to developing this knowledge (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008).

As the study being undertaken was predominantly concerned with the construction of meaning through the observations of a number of individuals or groups, the overall epistemological stance drew on a constructivist context. The interest was in how people interpreted and understood social events and settings.

Ensuring clarity on the philosophical debates and the methodological developments arising from them is important in order to secure the quality of the research produced, as is the degree to which the findings are accepted and by whom (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). There has over time, been divergence in how quality is achieved in qualitative research. According to Morse et al. (2001), researchers should maintain consistency between the philosophical

starting point and the selected methodology in order to produce 'valid' findings. However Seale (1999) believes that methods associated with a range of philosophical positions each have something to offer. In spite of these differences, there is a shared view that understanding of the issues of methodological choice will contribute to better quality research.

3.3.1 The contribution of research to academic and practitioner knowledge

This thesis aims to make a contribution to knowledge by developing theory in an area as yet under-explored. This theory will inform the academic setting of Executive Coaching for leadership development and build knowledge of how this process manifests the necessary changes in skill or behaviour in the individual that are being sought. The research also has the potential for making an impact in the practitioner environment. Considerable investment is made in the Executive Coaching industry (CIPD, 2011) and organizations who commission this work seek to understand the process better so as to achieve optimum results and the best return on investment, against whatever parameters they measure it.

This research is, therefore, set in a business context. Gibbons et al. (1994) in Bryman & Bell (2003) offer a view on business research by looking at the way that scientific knowledge is produced. They suggest that contemporary knowledge development fits into two types:

Mode 1: Knowledge produced is driven primarily by an academic agenda.

Discoveries build on existing knowledge and there is a distinction between pure and applied knowledge. Output is primarily aimed at the academic community and, therefore, makes limited use of practical knowledge.

Mode 2: Research is trans-disciplinary where the boundaries of single disciplinary research are exceeded. Findings are closely related to context and may be difficult to reproduce. Production of knowledge is likely to involve several actors who offer a number of skills and experiences.

The intention is that Mode 2 research exists alongside Mode 1 research, rather than replacing it.

Such an approach was appropriate for this research study as the questions being posed require identification of behaviours, both self-reported and observable, and the perceptions of the participants would be central to the data collected. Therefore the research strategy was designed to capture the perceptions of a number of actors in the dyadic relationship process. The coaches and coachees would be observing elements of the relationships and would report on their own behaviours and those of others. By capturing data via a number of methods, including written reflections, interviews and reflexive diary keeping, the modes of observation would be varied and the opportunity for improved validity and generalisability would be increased.

3.4 Influence of the researcher on the research

According to Morley and Walsh:

Reflexivity demands a type of emotional literacy on the part of the researcher, who can sensitively engage with the research study while/because s/he is aware of her/his own responses, values, beliefs and prejudices. (Morley, 1996:139)

This view is also supported by Blaxter et al. (2001) who noted that the influence of the researcher's own values, demography or characteristics can affect the external validity or generalizability of the study and stated that there is no easy way in which the effect of the researcher on the research can be minimized.

Another aspect of the same issue concerns the choice of data collection methods. When collecting naturally occurring data the researcher's interpretation is used of what is observed or read, whereas with generated data the participant has a direct and explicit opportunity to convey their own meanings and interpretations through the explanations they provide.

Therefore, the more data that is collected through the researcher as the collection instrument, the more the risk of bias in interpreting what is relevant and what is not. However, if the participants themselves supply the data, they are using their own judgement as to what is relevant to the task.

3.5 Validity in constructionist research designs

One of the issues of contention in qualitative research is the establishment of validity.

Golden-Biddle and Locke (2007) suggested three key criteria which qualitative data should establish in order to fulfil a test for validity. These are:

1. Authenticity - convinces the reader that the researcher has deep knowledge of what is taking place
2. Plausibility - the research links to other concerns being investigated by researchers
3. Criticality - the research encourages readers to question their taken-for-granted assumptions.

Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) claimed that the results of constructionist research should be believable and that they should be reached by methods which are open and transparent.

Primary and secondary validity criteria are described by Whitemore et al (2001): Primary criteria being credibility, authenticity, criticality and integrity, and secondary criteria being explicitness, vividness, creativity, thoroughness, congruence and sensitivity. However it is phrased or named, this research takes an approach to the investigation which is grounded in a solid exploration of the related locations of the literature and explores concepts that have been described and recognized by other scholars, which is in line with Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) and Whitemore et al. (2001). Furthermore, it seeks to uncover a rich picture of the relationship between coach and coachee and explore the dyadic links between them in accordance with the approach taken by Stake (1995). Validity in this research is interpreted as ensuring that the phenomenon being researched is defined and can be recognized by

others and that the research design has a level of rigour which leads to the collection of data answering the research questions in a rich and meaningful manner.

3.6 Research design

Qualitative research does not usually follow a tightly woven plan (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008) and in this study some flexibility was to be retained so as to ensure the most appropriate data was collected in order to answer the research questions. Due to the nature of their philosophical and methodological variations, qualitative research allows for such diversity in the process of data collection. The nature of this study, particularly with regard to the desire to study the coaching relationship from the participants' viewpoint and the potential for researcher influence, made the collection of naturally occurring data less appropriate (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). Generated methods of data collection involve 'reconstruction' (Bryman, 2001) and involve the participants in re-processing and re-telling their experiences. The experience, thought, event, behaviour etc., is mentally re-processed and verbally recounted by participants. Generated data give insight into participants' own perspectives on and interpretations of their beliefs and behaviours and, most crucially, an understanding of the meaning that they attach to them. Generated data methods may include; biographical methods, individual interviews, paired interviews or focus groups (group discussions) (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003).

3.7 Case study research

The case study is the method of choice when the phenomenon under study is not readily distinguishable from its context.

(Yin, 1993:4)

Case study research has a long history across a number of academic disciplines including business, psychology and science (David, 2006). A central feature of all of these is 'the case' or several 'cases' (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008) to which the research questions relate. Methodologically, case study research is linked to the interpretive, ethnographic and field-

research traditions (Dyer and Wilkins, 1991; David, 2006) and is different from experimental or purely deductive research traditions (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005).

However, case study research can contain quantitative elements within a mixed method design (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). A key critic of case study research, Gummerrsson (2000), argued that exploratory case study research is afforded low status and viewed as ancillary to other methods. Following Yin (2003), he noted the argument that case studies can be used for descriptive study, but as the 'simplest form of science' such explanatory case studies are looked at with scepticism. A summary of the criticisms of case studies as a form of scientific method concludes that the results:

- Lack statistical reliability and validity
- Can be used to generate hypotheses but not to test them
- Cannot be used to make generalizations.

To overcome these criticisms, Yin (2003) believed that a case study should have a clear design produced before any data is collected, covering and linking to the main research questions or propositions. He continued by saying that 'the case study allows an investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events such as ... organisational and managerial processes' (Yin, 2003:2). Furthermore, case study research is presented as a research strategy when addressing complex, organizational, managerial and other business issues which are considered difficult to study with quantitative methodologies (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). The analysis of the case, therefore, should take on a detailed and holistic search for knowledge which is rich in context (Tellis, 1997). Strong case studies, in the view of Eisenhardt (1989), are those 'which present interesting or frame-breaking theories which meet the tests of good theory or concept development (e.g. parsimony, testability, logical influence) and are grounded in convincing evidence'.

Stake (1995) adopted a constructionist approach to the appropriate uses of the case study method and articulated that he was less concerned with validity and more concerned with

providing a rich picture of life and behaviour in organizations or groups. He distinguished between instrumental and expressive studies, where instrumental studies look at specific cases in order to develop general principles, and expressive studies investigate cases for unique features which may or may not be generalizable to other contexts. This research fell more comfortably into the first category as it sought to identify general principles in the coaching relationship which might be used to guide organizations in making robust decisions of increased reliability.

Yin (2003) defines a case study as an empirical inquiry that ‘investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context’ when:

- The boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident, and in which
- Multiple sources of evidence are used.

The term ‘case study’ also has a number of variants in that a number of authors consider whether a single case study or multiple cases are more relevant. Yin (2003) argued that where possible multiple, collective or embedded case studies should be used as a preference; a view shared by Eisenhardt (1989).

An important aspect in utilizing the case study methodology is the ability to define the case or to give it boundaries. Yin (2003) counselled against using issues where the clarity of the case cannot be defined, whilst Stake (1995) argued that defining appropriate research questions is one of the most important skills of case study research. In this research, the case is clearly defined as the coaching pair.

The picture is further enriched by the work of Eisenhardt (1989) who took a relativist stance, drawing from both positivist and constructionist views. Her work supported Yin’s view (2003) that rigour is established by creating the research design at the outset, but she adds that this design should be flexible to later adaption. She also recommended data collection

through multiple methods and the application of within-case and cross-case analysis.

Eisenhardt believed that case-based research is appropriate for building theory. A summary of the three main positions of case study research is shown in Table 3.2 (taken from Easterby-Smith, Thorpe et al. (2008):

	Realist (Yin)	Relativist (Eisenhardt)	Constructionist (Stake)
Design	Prior	Flexible	Emergent
Sample	Up to 30	4 - 10	1 or more
Analysis	Across	Both	Within-case
Theory	Testing	Generation	Action

Table 3.2 Three main positions of case study research

Based on these designations of the varying attributes of case study method, this research followed most closely the interpretations offered by Yin (2003) and Eisenhardt (1989). The study was seeking to develop the theoretical work concerned with leadership development and dyadic interventions and, as is demonstrated in this chapter, had a clear predetermined methodological design, though one which may be refined as data is generated in order to ensure collection is conducted appropriately. Yin (2003) has produced a useful typology of the sort of research for which case study is an appropriate strategy. This is based on two dimensions of complexity and aims of discovery as shown in Table 3.3. Using the table to aid situating this research more specifically, the approach taken was one of exploratory research conducted on multiple cases. And, in Eisenhardt’s (1989) context, where analysis was conducted both within and across cases, data would be examined longitudinally within each case and also across dyads.

	Single case	Multiple cases
Exploratory		
Descriptive		
Explanatory		

Table 3.3 Typology of case study research, adapted from Yin (2003)

On a more general issue, and based on the experience of assessing many theses, Dopson (2003) gives a general caution that to derive the best value from using a case study

methodology certain practical issues should be attended to. She asserts that a good case study should:

- Document the research design, data collection and analysis strategy to be used
- Have clarity on how the case(s) is/are selected and the boundaries of the case(s)
- Use a range of methods to ensure triangulation (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994) and to improve the validity of the findings
- Ensure clarity on the unit of analysis
- Set out the context in which the research is carried out.

3.8 Researcher involvement in case study research

The literature on case study research addresses the issue of researcher involvement in the case study and the effect this has on the data generated (Dopson, 2003). She suggests three areas for vigilance:

1. How you translate 'raw material' into recognizable descriptions and concepts
2. How you avoid 'going native'
3. The reliance on self-recorded material.

In this research, attention was required mainly to the first point which will also be addressed when considering the analysis of findings. It was an area for consideration in how the data gathered would be translated into findings which were free of bias and were robust and reliable. The other two points were of less relevance as the cases themselves were well bounded, being clearly set around the dyadic relationship, and the only phase in which the researcher would record material was in taking additional notes during the in-depth interview and focus group stages. Complete detachment, on the other hand, was also unhelpful as the research, being concerned with human relationships, required a level of understanding and connection with the processes being researched. Dopson (2003) asserts that the real problem is how to strike an appropriate balance between these positions.

3.9 Triangulation of methods

Triangulation of methods is generally applied where two or more different methods of data collection are used to try to validate the information being collected (Punch, 1998). Or, as Ritchie and Lewis (2003: 46) express it, ‘triangulation involves the use of different methods and sources to check the integrity of, or extend, inferences drawn from the data’.

It is seen as one of the central ways of ‘validating’ qualitative research evidence and is a means of investigating the ‘convergence’ of both the data and the conclusions derived from them (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). There is, however, some challenge as to the extent that triangulation achieves such verification of findings. Two key points are made: that ontologically there is no single reality or conception of the social world to gain and that, therefore attempting to do so through the use of multiple sources of information is futile; and, on epistemological grounds, all methods have a specificity in terms of the type of data they yield and therefore are unlikely to generate results in perfect agreement (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). An alternative view may be that triangulation allows us to extend our understanding of the phenomena being studied by adding to the breadth and depth of our analysis through the use of multiple perspectives. More specifically, for a study such as this research thesis, a combination of qualitative methods could be used to explore factors underlying broad relationships.

3.10 Research setting, selection of cases and access

Selecting the research setting and population involves identifying those which, by virtue of their relationship with the research questions, are able to provide the most relevant, comprehensive and rich information (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). In terms of research design using the case study methodology, early understanding of the context of the research is important for decisions around the criteria on which cases are selected for study. Cresswell (1998) states that ‘the researcher must identify his or her case and which bounded system to study’. The need to choose a site, setting, population or phenomenon of interest is

fundamental to the design of the study and serves as guide for the researcher. This early, significant decision, according to Marshall and Rossman (2006), shapes all subsequent ones and should be clearly described and justified. Dopson (2003) asserts that the literature on case studies does not address the issue of negotiating access sufficiently. This may be in the way that the research is being conducted, how agreement is reached regarding the reporting of findings, or how anonymity is maintained.

3.11 Longitudinal research

Longitudinal studies involve more than one episode of data collection over time (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003) and are becoming more established in the qualitative research tradition.

Longitudinal research takes two broad forms; panel studies in which the same people are interviewed more than once, and repeat cross-sectional studies in which subsequent samples of new participants are interviewed. This research design encompassed the former structure within the case study methodology, where a limited number of cases have data collected from them at various points over time. Panel studies are generally used to explore micro-level change, where the focus of change is the individual and particularly where the intervention being studied in itself is likely to prompt change. This is a suitable description of the multi-stage process which was undertaken from the gathering of data via documents, through the speed-coaching (chemistry meeting) sessions, and to the full series of coaching sessions to interview. During this process, the research sought to identify the changes that occurred in the coaching relationship.

3.12 Methods for data collection

3.12.1 Selection and management of participants

In this research, all participants signed informed consent forms and were assured anonymity in the reporting phase. This was achieved by assigning each participant a unique code; coaches had the prefix FZC and coachees the prefix UUC and were numbered sequentially

starting at a random number. This was to build in a further layer of security so that when analysing the results it was not possible to work out by numbering the identity of any individual. During the initial matching sessions and in the coaching sessions participants were able to share their real identity with each other, but outside that their outputs could not be attributed back to them except through a master code list kept only by the researcher. It was particularly important that, once evaluation of the CV/biographical data was done, these forms were collected and stored and the next phase of sessions were approached as the next separate exercise. Account could not be completely taken for participant memory of the codes, but steps were taken as far as possible to keep these stages separated.

The study sample was selected using a combination of purposive and voluntary selection (Blaxter et al., 2001). Coaches and coachees were selected according to a number of parameters as follows:

Coaches – all coaches possessed a formal qualification or accreditation. The majority had attained the Henley Business School Certificate in Coaching, while others were accredited by the APECS and/or the EMCC. The participating coaches were volunteers gained from the database of coaches on the Henley Coaching Register and from the author's network of professionally qualified coaches.

Coachees – the groups of coachees were selected according to particular parameters. In order for them to represent the population being studied they had to be senior employees in medium to large organizations. In order to gain access to a suitable representative sample, two groups of potential participants were approached; firstly, the organizational members of the Henley Partnership and secondly, senior staff at Henley Business School. The Henley Partnership is an organizational member based programme at Henley Business School. All members are medium to large organizations either UK or internationally based. Volunteers were sought from the senior cadre of their organizations. At Henley Business School, volunteers were sought from the senior staff including managerial and academic staff.

3.12.2 Choice of methods

In order to decide which methods were appropriate for data collection it was important to articulate what data were required in order to answer the research questions of the study.

Figure 3.1 below sets out the strategy for data collection and shows the rationale for selecting particular data collection methods. A full description of the data collection process can be found in Appendices II and III.

3.12.3 Collecting CV and biographical data

The very first phase of data collection in this study involved the recording, exchanging and evaluation of personal information in written format in the form of a brief CV for the coaches and a short biography for the coachees. The purpose of this was to allow exchange of basic information from the individual to assist decision making in choosing a coach or coachee. Each individual received the written information from all of the participants in the opposite group. They were asked to read and evaluate them, making notes as to their impressions, thoughts and feelings on each and then finally to rank them (1 being the most preferred).

As part of this specific element of data collection, all participants were asked to record their MBTI® type if they knew it. One of the few studies into coach/coachee matching, conducted by Scoular and Linley (2006) was based on MBTI® type and found little evidence of preference. This exploration included this in order to observe whether, in fact, this parameter is identified as important by participants. These observations were recorded in later chapters.

The actual mechanism for collecting this type of data does not readily fall into any single methodological category. Bryman and Bell (2003) suggest that a number of documents might be analysed as an approach to social research. These include diaries, letters and autobiographies and may be used as primary data sources and as adjuncts to other methods.

They are used more commonly by historians, but there is scope for application of these methods to business and a number of examples are given in Bryman and Bell’s text. Most of these examples, however, use historic data as the substance for analysis, whereas this study used contemporary data collected and evaluated during the same data collection exercise. Furthermore, this part of the study was not only concerned with the acquisition of the biographical details of the participants, but also with the interpretation, evaluation, feedback and classification of the output by their opposite numbers.

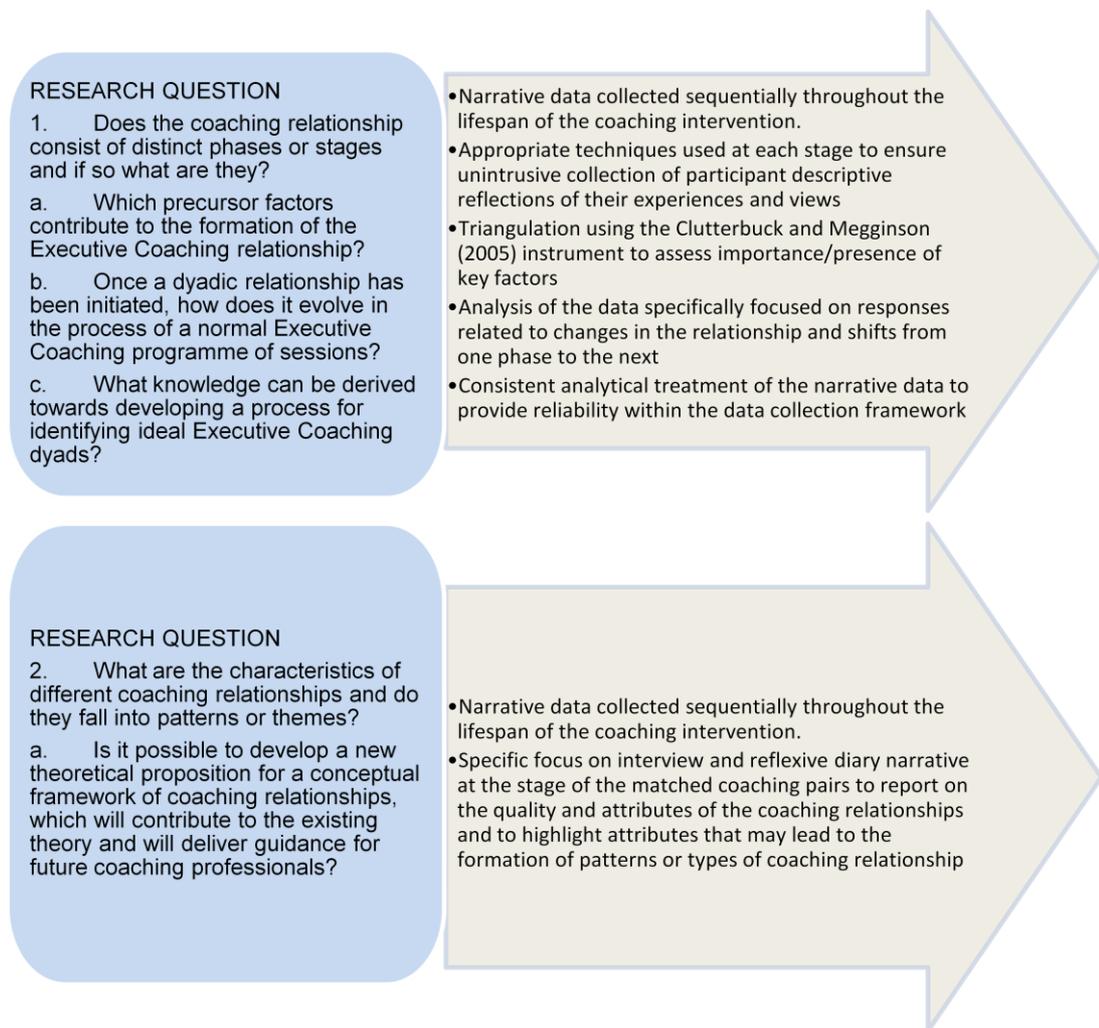


Figure 3.1 Choice of methods to generate appropriate data to answer research questions

In relation to the constructivist approach to the collection of data, the use of this type of method is consistent with in-depth interviewing, in that it endeavours to capture rich

descriptive output which is faithful to the experiences and views of the researched (Roberts, 2002). Bryman and Bell (2003) describe the collection of life history, or oral history data, as a form of interview. Bryman and Bell (2003) also suggest that an 'oral history' interview is usually more specific in tone in that the subject is asked to reflect on specific events or periods in the past; therefore, such a term probably more accurately reflects the data being collected in this phase of the study. One of the difficulties in any or all of this group of biographical or life/oral history testimonies was the possibility of bias introduced by memory lapses and distortions. However, in this particular study it was felt to be a minimal issue, as the data being recorded was probably recalled on a regular basis and was regularly accessed by the participant.

In the second part of this phase of the data collection the documents were copied and passed to the opposite numbers of participants i.e. coaches' CVs passed to coachees and coachees' biographies passed to coaches. Each individual then evaluated the group of documents put before them. They were asked to record any kind of feedback that occurred to them onto the document relating to each individual. Such feedback might be expressed as thoughts, feelings, opinions, facts, insights and any other category which the respondent felt was appropriate. It was important to gather the instinctive, intuitive feedback that occurred to each respondent as they reacted to the information put before them. This data was required to show how the individual would make the decision of which coach or coachee to choose if the only information they possessed in the organizational setting was in this written format.

Finally, each individual was asked to rank the three (6 in the pilot phase, T1) opposite numbers in order of preference to coach or be coached. They were asked to rank them as (1) most preferred or (3), least preferred (1 to 6 in the pilot phase, T1) so that the qualitative responses could be given weight and meaning.

3.12.4 Use of importance/presence questionnaire

In their guide *Making Coaching Work*, Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) suggest that, in the context of developmental relationships, it is important at various stages to measure the quality of the relationship. This premise provided a methodological platform with which to add richness to the evaluation of the creation of the dyadic coaching relationship. The research questions sought to uncover information from participants on what relational aspects are important in the coaching dyad; Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) addressed this by incorporating an instrument which could be used for assessment within the learning relationship, in the context of the working group, or to assess the organizational impact of the coaching intervention. The questionnaire they used is shown in Appendix VII. They followed the International Standards for Mentoring Programmes in Employment suggesting that all pairs should undertake periodic reviews of the quality of the relationship where one of the key topics is the level of rapport they have with each other. The two halves of the questionnaire were designed to look at the actual quality of the coaching relationship (Part A) and the centrality of these aspects for each party (Part B).

By completing Part B, 'How important are these factors in your coaching relationship?' in the initial stage of the data collection, the coaches and coachees were able to express how important each of the given factors was in the case of an ideal coaching relationship. Completion before even seeing the CV or biographical information strove to collect the data at a stage where there was no bias from their potential matches. Clutterbuck and Megginson commend this questionnaire as being equally helpful to both coach and coachee and suggest it can be used as a constructive measure of the relationship's different dimensions.

Part A of the questionnaire was used at the end of the three coaching sessions, alongside the in-depth interview and, at that stage, could capture the coach and coachee's feedback on the strength of presence of each attribute in the actual coaching relationship.

3.12.5 Speed-chemistry meetings

Following on from the collection of data from the CV and biographical data exchanged by the coaches and coachees, the next phase of data generation concerned the responses of each party to the other within a 'chemistry session' type intervention. It is common within organizations for it to be arranged that each coachee has a short conversation with one or more potential coaches in order to ascertain best fit. The purpose of these conversations is to establish whether a coach is personally acceptable to the coachee, or which coach is preferred above the others. The organization may have previously undertaken some kind of short-listing process, either by selecting a list of approved suppliers or by seeking out a range of coaches to offer their candidate. Occasionally, the candidate may be given the opportunity to seek a coach for themselves.

For the purpose of this research, the next stage of data collection was to move from the coach and coachee impressions of each other from the narrative documentary information, to gathering impressions from a first face-to-face encounter. In order to gather this data, an appropriate method to use was adapted from speed-dating. This is a technique where individuals meet an opposite number for a limited period of time in order to identify a suitable partner for further enquiry. Originally developed to help Jewish singles in Los Angeles meet one another (Finkel et al., 2007), it has rapidly spread in popularity, serving diverse populations and has been adapted as a research tool in relationship-based studies (Finkel and Eastwick, 2008). The original notion of the speed-dating paradigm was to enable potential pairs to meet in a setting that was not as intimidating as a blind date and where it was known that each side was willingly present and open to meeting a potential match. In addition, there is the ability to give each partner unambiguous acceptance or rejection feedback without having to do so face to face. The particular benefit of speed-dating, and one of the key reasons for its selection as an appropriate vehicle for reaching the required data in this research, was that it offered the possibility of instant comparison between a

number of potential partners. The arrangement of separate chemistry sessions, possibly over a period of time, had the potential to introduce extraneous factors into the choice process.

The brevity of the interactions used in speed-dating, and which also were used in this research, stem from work by Ambady and Rosenthal (1992) who suggested that individuals can make accurate and differentiated social judgements based on strikingly brief social observations or interactions. It might be assumed that individuals would only be able to learn shallow or surface information about a potential (romantic) partner in just a few short minutes (Ambady et al., 2000). However, there is much evidence to demonstrate that individuals can make remarkably sophisticated social judgements based on thin slices of social behaviour lasting five minutes or less. In fact, in a number of quantitative studies conducted by Ambady and Rosenthal (1993) where the exposure time to visual data was cut down to even 6-15 seconds, it was shown that ‘our consensual impression of others, even when based on very brief observations of nonverbal behavior, can sometimes be unexpectedly accurate’.

Finkel and Eastwick argued, therefore, that these findings situate speed-dating procedures firmly in the mainstream of social psychological theory and methodology. Speed-dating incorporates the ‘speed’ aspect of the ‘thin slices’ and ‘zero acquaintance’ literature to allow researchers to examine the opening moments of attraction with supercharged efficiency (Finkel and Eastwick, 2008). The process also allows for the study of both members of a given dyad, which allows for the position that both individuals are simultaneously perceiving and being perceived.

The application of speed-dating as a research methodology has been further examined by Ambady and Rosenthal (1993) who conducted a number of experiments involving assessment in the educational setting. They examined consensual judgements of college teachers’ non-verbal behaviour to predict end of semester student evaluations and similar

judgements to predict principals' ratings of high school teachers. Their work showed that the 'thin slices of behaviour' could range from a few minutes down to some seconds and still produce the same level of confidence in the judgement outcome.

A potential limitation to speed-dating validity is that it cannot necessarily be shown that for all people speed-dating is the best way to meet a partner who may be a potential mate (Finkel and Eastwick, 2008). In the same way, it cannot be claimed that holding speed-chemistry meetings is the only way to meet the most appropriate coach or coachee. However, the method can be used with sufficient confidence that it allows the potential coach or coachee to meet a number of potential matches and evaluate them in a conflict-free and rapidly assessed environment. In summary, researchers can harness the power of speed-dating to do high quality, high impact research while at the same time providing a rewarding and enjoyable experience for participants.

The basic structure recommended for a speed-dating session may be adapted to be appropriate for the speed-chemistry sessions (Finkel et al., 2007). The speed-dating session would normally comprise the following:

- Individuals sign-up, the researcher gathers some background info.
- The event (actual speed-dating is conducted with a number of participants). Researchers may want to restrict numbers of participants, (a) some evidence suggests that the experience is 'better' when a moderate number of 'dates' are undertaken; (b) by managing time through fewer dates, researchers can administer a questionnaire (or gather feedback) at the end of the each date to assess participant's impressions and experience; (c) researchers can follow-up with participants.

Within this research the same essential steps were taken. Initial CV/biographical data were collected from the participants (see above). Following this, and without having this data to hand, groups of coaches and coachees were introduced to each other and sessions of five minutes each were conducted. Between each session every participant was asked to capture

their thoughts and feelings on an openly worded template so as to feed back narrative instantly and in a confidential way.

During the pilot phase, the group consisted of six coaches and six coachees. At the end of the session the participants were asked to give feedback and their observations on the method and process. All of the participants felt that six was too many for this particular style of research. As the meetings were test chemistry sessions, after the third session the conversation usually had become rehearsed and no longer natural or an appropriately open conversation with a new prospective partner. Thereafter, in the data gathering sessions, groups of three coaches/coachees were used. Subsequent feedback was that this was suitable and adequate for the purpose of the research. In addition, it was noted anecdotally that where organizations offered a choice of coach to their potential coachees it was usual for there to be a choice of three. These sessions proceeded smoothly and the process was efficient and enjoyable for all participants.

Following the feedback from these speed-chemistry sessions, coaching pairs were formed and conducted three coaching sessions.

3.12.6 In-depth interviews

At the end of the series of coaching sessions, each coach and coachee of the pair was asked to take part in an in-depth interview about the coaching relationship. This might include data on:

- The formation of the relationship
- Changes which took place as the coaching sessions progressed
- Between session reflections
- Use of the reflexive journal
- Whether the original decision was deemed to be a sound one.

The interview of each coach and coachee in the pair was conducted separately, so as to allow complete confidentiality and freedom of expression for the individual.

Simply put, an in-depth interview is a conversation with a purpose between two people in which one has the role of researcher and where the interviewer's aim is to obtain collaborative knowledge about the respondent's world (Gray, 2004; Thorpe and Holt, 2008). Interviewing will generally pose challenges because of the human interaction between the interviewer and respondent, where the interviewer must ask some questions, listen to responses and capture data. This challenge is further exposed the less structure there is in the interview, as the researcher will be constructing questions as they go along. The interview, unstructured or semi-structured, is one of the most widely used methods in qualitative research and is a very flexible method for capturing rich, descriptive research data (Bryman and Bell, 2003).

The in-depth interview is a useful technique where the objective of the research is, as in this case, largely exploratory (Gray, 2004). The key feature of conducting these interviews is to achieve a deep level of focus on the individual participant within the context of the research. Such interviews provide great detail of coverage of the phenomena being investigated (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). In-depth interviews can be conducted in a variety of ways: They range from completely open-ended interviews, such as used in ethnographic studies, to those which are highly structured, for example in market research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Bryman and Bell (2003) discuss the differences generated by varying the granularity of questioning in an in-depth interview. They suggest that in an unstructured interview, the researcher uses, at most, an 'aide-mémoire' as a brief set of prompts to cover the desired range of topics. This may be at the extreme a single question from which point the interviewee answers freely. By contrast, in a semi-structured interview, the researcher will have a list of questions on fairly specific topics, often referred to as an 'interview guide', where the interviewee still has a great deal of leeway in how to reply. Usually, all the questions or topics on the interviewer's list will be covered and a similar form of words might be used from interviewer to interviewee. The semi-structured interview allows for

probing of views and opinions where the respondent can expand on their initial answers.

This is of particular benefit in a qualitative study where the object is to explore subjective meanings. In addition it is possible to divert into new pathways which, though not originally planned in the interview, can still add to knowledge around the research questions. In both levels of structure, a common feature is that the interview process can still be flexible.

Another issue to be considered in conducting the in-depth interviews required in this study was the matching of interviewer to participants. In some research, the selection of the interviewer may have considerable bearing on the nature of the research, such as when conducting feminist research, the gender of the interviewer may need clear consideration (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). In this particular research project, there was no single criterion or group of criteria which influenced the choice of interviewer. The interview population was mixed in terms of gender and background and were not from a specialist environment which required specific management. Therefore, the researcher was the sole interviewer in the data collection process.

Within the process of interviewing, the interviewer (researcher) played a key role which brought with it some points to note. The influence of the interviewer on the interview environment and tone, atmosphere etc. should be noted. The level of experience and skill of the interviewer may have some impact on the flow of the interview and the rapport created between the pair. Some less experienced, or less skilled interviewers may have concern for losing control of the interview (Thorpe and Holt, 2008). This challenge will manifest itself differentially depending on the type of interview being conducted. Unstructured interviews, by their nature, are more fluid and the ability of the interviewer, therefore, to remain relaxed whilst still leaving the agenda open becomes more significant.

A further potential obstacle for the interview is the concern for contamination of data by the interviewer's influence. This may be exacerbated when the interview is designed to

resemble a conversation and is completely non-directive (Bryman and Bell, 2003). The danger is that the more open the interview in these terms, the more scope there is for interpretation of what is said and researcher bias can creep in. Furthermore, the interviewee, in this situation, may simply try to guess what the interviewer seeks from the conversation and respond accordingly. Interview data emanates from the relationship between the two parties and the data should be seen as the product of this relationship, not as having been produced by either party solely (Thorpe and Holt, 2008). On the other side of the process, the interviewees are active human beings who are likely to have their own agenda for the conversation with points they wish to make and an impression they wish to create (Thorpe and Holt, 2008).

In order to collect data specifically to answer the research questions, some level of structure and topic specificity was required; therefore in this study the interviews conducted were semi-structured in nature. The topics to be answered are given above and cover a number of different aspects of the coaching sessions completed and the nature of the coaching relationship. Having selected this approach, the benefits and pitfalls were understood and the interview schedule and plan were drawn up accordingly. Although there were clear topics to be covered and specific questions relating to these topics were formulated, it was still important that the interviewee was enabled to express their responses freely and expansively. So as to achieve this, the interviewer should be competent in the techniques of interviewing and employ appropriate competencies to achieve the desired content and outcomes.

A number of good practice criteria for interviewing have been suggested by Kvale (1996), these suggest that the interviewer should be:

- Knowledgeable: is thoroughly familiar with the focus of the interview
- Structuring: gives purpose for the interview; rounds it off; asks whether interviewee has questions
- Clear: asks simple, easy, short questions; no jargon

- Gentle: lets people finish, gives them time to think, tolerates pauses
- Sensitive: listens attentively to what is said and how it is said; is empathetic in dealing with the interviewee
- Open: responds to what is important to interviewee and is flexible
- Steering: knows what he or she wants to find out
- Critical: is prepared to challenge what is said, for example, dealing with inconsistencies in interviewee's replies
- Remembering: relates what is said to what has previously been said
- Interpreting: clarifies and extends meanings of interviewee's statements, but without imposing meaning on them.

To this list, Bryman and Bell (2003) add a further two criteria:

- Balanced: does not talk too much, which may make the interviewee passive, and does not talk too little, which may result in the interviewee feeling he or she is not talking along the right lines
- Ethically sensitive: is sensitive to the ethical dimension of interviewing, ensuring the interviewee appreciates what the research is about, its purposes, and that his or her answers will be treated confidentially.

In conducting the interviews themselves, a number of different approaches can be used to structure questions in order to elicit the desired levels of response. Generally speaking, open questions will generate full responses; where a yes/no response is required, a closed question is used. When the main question on a particular topic has been asked and answered further follow-up questions may be asked in order to drill down more deeply into the interviewee's response. These supplementary questions may be direct (to find out specific information) or probing (to delve more deeply). In addition, to check the understanding of an interviewee's response, the interviewer may use 'reflection' to rephrase the response and check for meaning and accuracy.

In line with suggested practice (Bryman and Bell, 2003) a number of steps were taken in preparation for the interviews, including:

- Consideration of what information was being sought. This stage fitted into the overall data collection to answer the research questions, therefore it should be clear what information was being sought in order to complete this process appropriately
- Developed a logical order for topics to be covered, so that the interview flowed well
- Formulated questions which covered the desired topics and which would uncover data to answer the research questions specifically
- Used language which was appropriate, technically aligned, comprehensible and relevant to the people being interviewed
- Avoided asking leading questions.

In practical terms, it was important to set up the interview appropriately, taking into account timing, venue, environment and privacy; ensure that the interviewee was comfortable before commencing and that the interview outputs would be adequately recorded. Best practice suggested the use of a good microphone and recording equipment as well as supplementary (and back-up) notebook and pen. This process was important to allow for accurate capture of interviewee responses and ensured the ability to transcribe answers in the interviewee's own terms for later analysis.

3.12.7 Reflexive journaling or diary keeping

When carefully managed, and with suitable co-operation from informants, the diary can be used to record data that might not be forthcoming in face-to-face interview or other data collection encounters.

(Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995:164)

The literature on the use of diaries for social research is growing, but does not yet match that on other commonly used social research methodologies (Alaszewski, 2006). In this study the purpose of asking the participants in the coaching pairs to keep a reflexive journal or diary was so that they could capture their thoughts on the relationship issues which were evolving as they occurred. The diaries were specifically created so that each of the coaches and coachees could write down their anticipated or reflective thoughts around their organized

coaching sessions. Such thoughts and observations might occur at any time and so the participants were provided with the means to capture their output as easily as possible and to transmit that output by confidential means. Alaszewski (2006) outlines the key issues a researcher should consider when designing a diary and these points were taken into account when setting up this part of the data collection process. The main elements of the design include:

- Diary structure
 - What data is to be collected?
 - What instrument is to be used (established or self-developed)?
- Instructions
 - What overall instructions should be given to the participants?
 - Structured or free text entries?
- Contact with diarists
 - How will the diary be given to the participants?
 - When and where will training be given?
 - What are the mechanisms for answering queries and giving support?
- Checking the quality of the data
 - Can the data be checked?
 - What sort of feedback will be provided?

The process of recording information using a diary method is widespread in psychological, medical and social research (O'Connor and Ferguson, 2008) and allows for *in situ* assessments of behaviour. Because of the real-time nature of data capture, diaries can reduce retrospective reporting bias and give the ability to examine research questions within the context of fluctuating situational processes. The process of recording data contributing towards research in a diary or reflexive journal is considered by Berg (2009) to be a 'solicited document'. The example he gives is of a daily work journal kept by nurses in an intensive care unit at the request of researchers for the purpose of assessing staff and task

effectiveness. Alaszewski (2006) notes that naturalistic researchers try to access knowledge about social reality in a way that is not contaminated by the research process. Such a process is in accord with the purpose of the reflexive journal in this research which sought to capture the thoughts and feelings of the participants regarding the evolution and changes around the coaching relationship. These were examples of private documents which allowed the researcher to draw out complete pictures of their subjects' perceptions. Berg notes (2009) that the use of such material is appropriate as part of a triangulated methodological framework in a case study design. The multiple value of the use of diaries in qualitative research is also supported by Gray (2004) who describes their usefulness as:

- A detailed portrait of events to provide a 'thick description' for analysis
- A reflective account through which the researcher makes tentative interpretations of events
- An analytical tool that could contain a framing of the research focus.

O'Connor and Ferguson (2008) identify three different diary method protocols:

Interval contingent – the participant completes the diary at specified intervals e.g. end of each day. This type of protocol is especially useful for frequent behaviours without a definitive start and end.

Event contingent – the participant completes the diary each time a specific event happens. This type of protocol is especially useful to estimate event prevalence.

Signal contingent – the participant completes the diary in response to random 'alarms' or 'beeps' from some sort of device. This type of protocol is especially useful for recording data on the distribution, frequency and duration of events.

For the purpose of this research, the most applicable protocol to use was the *event contingent* protocol. The coach and coachee would be asked to record in a diary notes about the coaching relationship after each session had been completed. Making further entries at other opportunities was very much encouraged, however, the requirement to do so would not be formally stimulated by the process.

The duration of diary keeping should also be considered. At the outset of this study it was anticipated that the diary would be kept following each of three coaching sessions and for a short period before and afterwards, up to the point of the review interview with the researcher.

In order to enhance compliance and the avoidance of lagged reporting (O'Connor and Ferguson, 2008), participants would be offered the opportunity to email in their entries following each session. These would be recorded, confidentially, against the individual case concerned. The choice between collection of diary reflections via paper or electronic means has been examined by Green et al. (2006) and neither method has been found to produce significantly better compliance results. With that in mind the participants in this research were given a choice. Each was provided with a bespoke reflexive paper diary in which to record their reflections. This would be returned to the researcher at the end of their coaching relationship when all sessions had been completed and when they were happy that they had concluded their input by this method. Alternately, or perhaps in addition to this, a confidential email address was created so that participants could send their reflections to the researcher in a real-time way. In order to preserve confidentiality access to the email address was available only to the researcher.

3.13 Fieldwork plan

The overall plan for the collection of data is shown in Figure 3.2 below.

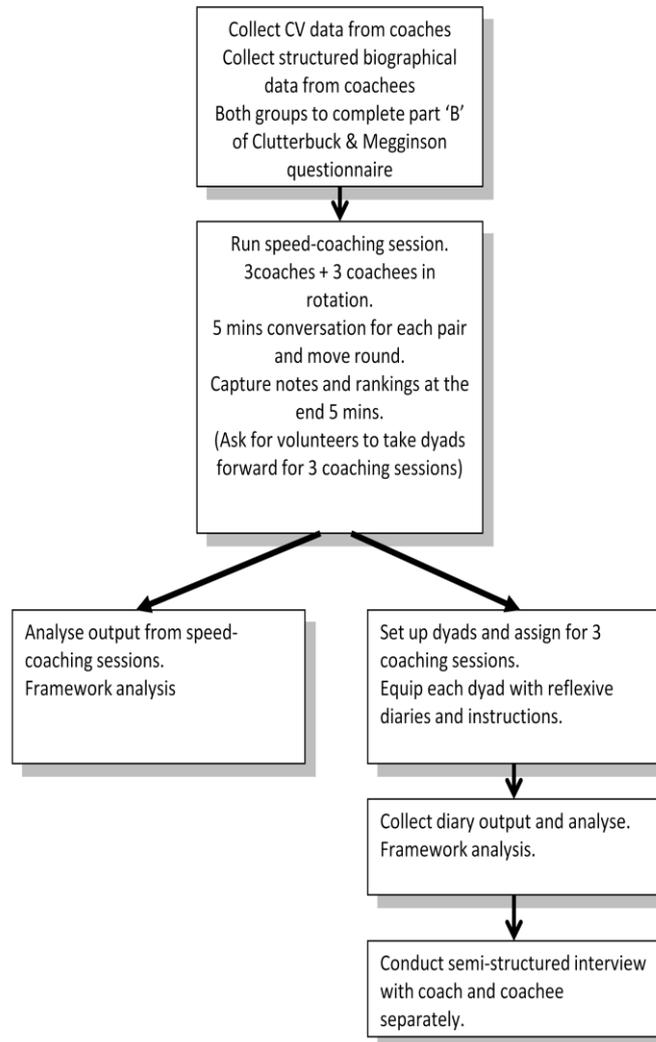


Figure 3.2 Diagrammatic representation of data collection plan

3.14 Narrative account of data collection

3.14.1 Sequence

The process of collecting data was designed to uncover the necessary information in order to answer the research questions. Based on case study methodology (Yin, 2003) the unit of study in the research was the coaching pair (see above). The overall process worked by sequentially revealing layers of narrative feedback from the coach and coachee about each

other so as to identify critical relationship factors and how these evolved based on increasing levels of information and personal interaction.

The first level of data generation was to share information about the coaches with the coachees and vice versa, based on written information and to generate feedback based on such information. In organizations coach/coachee matches are often formed using CV or biographical data. The individual manager in an organization tasked with selecting a coach for a particular executive may use a process using only written information. In this field-work, the type of information was reproduced for each coach and coachee who was asked to review the three possible partners, provide feedback on what they read, and then rank the three in order of preference.

The next level of interaction was through the speed-chemistry meeting process. Often in organizational settings the coachee might be offered chemistry sessions with a number of coaches, typically from a choice of three. Therefore, for this stage of the data collection, three coaches and three coachees would conduct chemistry sessions to gather information on which of the three they would like to coach or be coached by. This was based on Finkel and Eastwick's work (2007) in speed-dating. They started the process in coach/coachee pairs, conducted a speed-chemistry meeting for five minutes and then each participant completed a feedback form on that brief session. The coachees then moved on to the next coach in the group, repeated the five minute meeting/five minute feedback process with each other and then moved again to the final pairing. At the end of the three speed-chemistry meetings they completed their feedback forms and, again, ranked the coaches or coachees according to preference.

The ranking outcomes then allowed for the formation of some 'ideal' coaching pairs. The aim was to form one ideal coaching pair from each set of three speed-chemistry meeting groups. In order to do this and to represent real practice as closely as possible the primary

consideration was the first choice of the coachees. Where it was possible to match a coachee's first choice with a coach's first choice this was deemed an 'ideal match'. Where this 'first with first' match could not be made, a coachee's first choice was prioritised. These coaching pairs were asked to conduct three 'real' coaching sessions within the following three months. The first of the coaching sessions should be face to face, but thereafter if it was more convenient the session could be conducted by telephone (or other virtual option).

During the course of conducting these coaching sessions each party in the pair was asked to keep a reflexive diary. The purpose of the diary was to capture feedback on factors relating to the coaching relationship only. In order to preserve confidentiality and attend to other ethical considerations of the research, the content of the coaching sessions was not to be examined except where it was germane to issues of the relationship and in agreement with both sides of the coaching pair. Entries to the diaries were made either into a physical notebook diary or electronically to a confidential email address.

Finally, once the three coaching sessions of each pair had been completed each participant was subjected to a semi-structured in-depth interview, again concentrating on the elements concerning the coaching relationship only. This was to uncover as much richly descriptive data as possible as to the factors involved during the formation of the relationship, the evolution of the relationship and the view of each participant as to whether they felt that their original decision would be upheld.

The above sequence took place in three main sets called T1, T2 and T3. T1, the first of all the sets, differed from the others only in that it was conducted in a group of six coaches and six coachees. This was felt by the participants to be too many 'rounds' to be effective as, by the fourth and subsequent pairings, there had been an element of rehearsal and the conversations from there on became unlike a real situation. Sets T2 and T3 were all carried out in groups of three. In T2, over a period of six working days, seven groups of three

pairings were conducted and in T3, five groups of three pairings took place. From T1 two coaching pairs were formed, from T2, seven pairs were formed (one from each group of three), and from T3, five pairs were formed (one from each group of three).

3.15 Risks, constraints and ethics

3.15.1 Risks

Risk in this research might be viewed from two perspectives: risk to the individuals involved and risks surrounding the ability to conduct the study itself (Flick, 2006).

In terms of the risks to the individuals involved in the process, the research was conducted within a professional, work-related setting, gathering data which were relatively easy to uncover from willing, adult participants. The environment for the data collection was office-based and therefore the general physical conditions were comfortable and unlikely to put the participants at risk.

As for the risks to the researcher's ability to conduct the study, a number of risk factors were present, including:

- Ability to secure time and resources to carry out doctoral level research
- Competence of the researcher to work at this level
- Ability to secure the willingness of participants for the data collection phases
- The possibility that, when collected, the data did not reveal meaningful outcomes related to the research questions posed.

These risks were mitigated by setting out the objectives of undertaking the research and by negotiating appropriate allocations of time to carry out the necessary tasks. In terms of access to participants, good relationships with several key people enabled access to groups of potential participants, all of whom willingly gave their time and expertise to this project. In terms of the risk of data not revealing meaningful outcomes, there were two possibilities

a) it was the wrong data and therefore further work was required or b) that the data did actually reveal the outcome to these research questions.

3.15.2 Constraints

A number of constraints were identified which might have limited the ability to conduct this research and affect the outcomes in some capacity. These might include:

- Time availability when combining a senior work position with part-time research. Some support from the employing organization was sought and given.
- Availability of study participants – through the identified sampling strategy, only a certain number of study participants were eligible to take part in the research and, therefore, contacting those who fit the criteria was a limiting factor.
- Part-time study necessitated conducting research at distance from the qualifying institution resulting in considerable obstacles when trying to access written materials not available electronically.

These constraints are typical for a part-time doctoral student (Deem and Brehony, 2000; Gatrell, 2003). They would be overcome by utilizing strategies which may or may not be in common with full-time students. Time available for additional research would be used instead for study time with permission from the employer. The distance from the qualifying institution was not satisfactorily addressed and the lack of community was felt. However, in terms of accessing participants, particular groups of potential coaches were targeted, ensuring that they all met the necessary criteria. For coaches, an appropriate client network was accessed and willing participants meeting these criteria came forward in sufficient numbers for the research to be viable.

3.15.3 Ethics

The reality of conducting any research study is the availability of the sources of required data. In a qualitative enquiry, and therefore in this study, the sources of data were the human individuals taking part in the data collection. In order for the data to be available a number of aspects of research good practice needed to be in place, one of which was that the ethical

considerations of collecting the data from the individual participants were met and that their permission to do so was freely given. Although the study was in the realm of professional expertise and the evaluation was of a professional relationship, the research was still asking for the respondents to provide their personal insights into the various phenomena being investigated. Therefore, they needed to be reassured that the information given would be treated within a framework of ethical best practice. Ritchie and Lewis (2003) note that any research study raises ethical considerations and many aspects of ethics will apply to all research designs. However, the in-depth, unstructured nature of qualitative research and the fact that it can raise unanticipated issues means that ethical considerations have particular resonance. In support of this, there are three main conclusions regarding research ethics, according to Blaxter et al. (2001), which are:

- That a consideration of possible or actual ethical issues is an essential part of any research project
- That such a consideration is likely to need to take place throughout the research project, from initial planning, through data collection to writing up and dissemination
- That in many cases there will be no easy answers to the ethical questions which may have to be faced.

The main ethical considerations for this type of research are: harm, consent, deception, privacy and the confidentiality of data (Punch, 2005). Punch notes that ethical issues are to be attended to throughout the process of the study, from the research design stage onwards. Miles and Huberman (1994) use an expanded list of eleven areas of interest based on the different stages of the research. These are (table 3.4):

Worthiness of the project	Is the contribution worthy of such research?
Competence boundaries	Does the researcher have the competence to carry out work of good quality?
Informed consent	Do the participants have full information about the research and is their participation freely given?
Benefits, costs, reciprocity	What will each party gain by taking part? Is there a balance?

Harm and risk	Is harm minimized or negated?
Honesty and trust	Does a trusting relationship exist between researcher and the participants?
Privacy, confidentiality and anonymity	Have all possible steps been taken to guard the data that is generated?
Intervention and advocacy	What steps would be taken if harm of any kind was identified?
Research integrity and quality	Is the research conducted carefully, according to a recognized set of standards?
Ownership of data and conclusions	Who owns the data generated and, once the research is concluded, who controls its dissemination?
Use and misuse of results	The obligation to ensure that results are used appropriately.

Table 3.4 Factors for consideration when carrying out research (Miles and Huberman, 1994)

Some of the above merit particular mention as they have specific guidelines not necessarily articulated elsewhere and in this research have been addressed as described below.

Informed consent: Issues around informed consent grow from the concern to avoid risks and harm to the participants (Berg, 2009). Informed consent means that the individual can participate in the research freely without coercion, fraud, deceit, duress or unfair inducement and with full understanding of what the study involves. It is preferred that this consent is given in writing and, as Sin (2005) notes, the responsibility for gaining informed consent rests with the researcher. In this research, all of the participants were adults in professional or executive positions and were free to give their consent to the research without the necessity to consult another individual or authorizing body. A consent form was prepared and given to each participant as part of their initial instructions (Appendix V). There were no consent difficulties or issues at any time during the data collection.

Research integrity and quality: The recommendation specifically notes that the research should follow a recognized set of standards. There are a number of ethics' frameworks which might apply to this type of social research. In this study particular attention was given

to the ESRC Research Ethics Framework (REF) (ESRC, 2005) which has general commonalities with other sets of guidelines on social research ethics. An overall evaluation of nine sets of guidelines from associations in the social sciences was carried out by Bell and Bryman (2007). Their evaluation generated ten principles of ethical practice which were identified by at least half of these associations. They are shown below and can be seen to share principles in common with the ESRC REF and the eleven issues highlighted by Miles and Huberman (1994) above. These are given below (Table 3.5) and the actions taken in this research to meet them are shown. Following all of the above guidelines and procedures, it is believed that this research paid attention to and met the requirements for ethical consideration of a social science research study.

Principle	Action taken
Ensuring that <i>no harm</i> comes to participants	In the initial phases, participants were invited to Henley Business School which is a professional working environment. Thereafter, those in coaching pairs made their own meeting arrangements which were mainly at the place of work of the coachee or the premises of the coach.
Respecting the <i>dignity</i> of research participants	At no time were participants asked to enact anything that would compromise their dignity.
Ensuring a fully <i>informed consent</i> of research participants	Informed consent was attained from each participant. See Appendix V.
Protecting the <i>privacy</i> of research subjects	When participating, all individuals were given privacy both in their coaching pairs and when providing feedback.
Ensuring the <i>confidentiality</i> of research data	All data was treated confidentially. This covers all written narrative data and interview recordings and transcripts. Furthermore, due to the nature of this research the interest was in the perceptions of the coaching relationship, no material on the content of the coaching sessions was collected or revealed.
Protecting the <i>anonymity</i> of research individuals or organizations	All participants were given a code during the data collection and analysis. Only the researcher had access to the list of names and codes.

<i>Avoiding deception</i> about the nature or aims of the research	The nature of the research was set out on the informed consent form and a full briefing was given to all participants in advance and at the first meeting.
Declaration of affiliations, funding sources and <i>conflicts of interest</i>	No conflicts of interest arose.
<i>Honesty and transparency</i> in communicating about the research	All communication with participants was open and honest and as comprehensive as possible.
Avoidance of any <i>misleading</i> , or false reporting of research findings [their emphasis throughout]	Research findings are as true to the raw data as the researcher's interpretation allows. No misleading or false representation has been used.

Table 3.5 Principles of ethical practice as identified by Bell and Bryman (2007)

3.16 Data analysis

3.16.1 Overview

Just as there are a number of different methods to be used to generate data in a qualitative enquiry, the analysis of qualitative data can be approached in a variety of ways. As this research is concerned with the exploration of phenomena in a naturalistic setting, the richness and complexity of the data generated deserve analysis which can bring out the layers of meaning and interpretation. As Punch (2005) notes, different analysis techniques can be interconnected, overlapping and complementary. They can also be mutually exclusive or, using a term from Miles and Huberman (1994), 'irreconcilable couples'. The diversity of analytical tools allows for different types of data and also that each study might be treated in a way that would allow the data generated to be viewed in a way to answer the research questions most appropriately. Whatever approaches or methods selected any analysis is always required to maintain scholarly rigour and discipline (Punch, 2005). Gray (2004:319) supports this, noting that, 'qualitative analysis is (or should be) a rigorous and logical process through which data are given meaning'. Methods for data analysis must be systematic, consistent and transparent and must be the linking process which shows how the conclusions of the thesis can be drawn from the data which has been generated. By ensuring

that this connection and logic is clear there can be greater confidence in the trustworthiness of the findings.

In qualitative empirical research the criterion of reproducibility is a matter of debate (Punch, 2005) although there has been progress in the analysis of qualitative data and the 'audit trail' is now much more realistic. Miles and Huberman (1994) note that qualitative studies have an 'undeniability' because words have more 'concrete and vivid flavour' that is more convincing to the reader than pages of numbers. However, qualitative data analysis is also criticized for lacking methodological rigour, being prone to researcher subjectivity and being based on a small number of cases or limited evidence (Gray, 2004).

As noted by Spencer et al. (2003) there are no clearly agreed rules or procedures for analysing qualitative data. Approaches vary in terms of the epistemological stance, the nature of the enquiry and between different traditions in terms of the focus and aims of the analytical process. The characteristics of a qualitative research design are fundamental to this particular research thesis as the aim was to explore concepts which were highly contextual, being collected in a naturalistic setting and over different stages of a longitudinal process. One of the characteristics of analysing such data is that it is often conducted whilst other parts of the thesis are being developed and not necessarily in a simple sequence at the end of data collection which is more usual in quantitative methodologies (Stake, 1995; Ritchie et al., 2003; Gray, 2004; Silverman, 2005). In addition, the case study design using the principles espoused by Eisenhardt (1989) allows for flexibility of the research design if the data suggest that this would be beneficial to the study, though Yin (2009) also stresses the importance of considering the analytical approaches when developing the case study protocol. The principle of giving early consideration to the proposed modes of analysis is given some guidelines by Kvale (1996) when he suggests planning how to conduct data collection methods such as interviews. Having some preliminary ideas about how the data

can provide meaning, generate knowledge and give the desired insights will pave the way to a more productive analysis at the appropriate time.

One of the most important considerations for the analysis of the data is to be faithful to generating interpretations, discussion and conclusions which answer, as clearly as possible, the research questions previously posed (Flick, 1998). In addition to this being the case, Flick proposed that the researcher should also remain open to new and perhaps unexpected results. Miles and Huberman (1994) discussed the structure of a research process being formulated as a 'conceptual framework' which describes in narrative, but perhaps also in graphical form (see Figure 3.6 below) the key factors, constructs and variables being studied from which the research questions evolve. Where this is clearly in place, the collection of data and appropriate analysis has a much greater probability of generating meaningful and trustworthy conclusions (Gray, 2004).

3.17 The process of data analysis

In accepting the points made above that the process of data analysis is to be considered from the early stages of the research design, at the time of beginning to work with real data, especially in the form of qualitative outputs, some structure and process is to be followed. Describing the complexity of analysing qualitative data Tesch (1990) lists 46 types of approach. From this she reduces the list to four overall areas of interest:

1. The characteristics of language
2. The discovery of irregularities
3. The comprehension of the meaning of text or action
4. Reflection.

An alternative lens is offered by Kvale (1996) who identifies three contexts of interpretation:

1. Self-understanding - where the researcher attempts to formulate in condensed form what the participants themselves mean and understand
2. Critical common sense understanding – where the researcher uses general knowledge about the context of statements to place them in a wider arena

3. Theoretical understanding-where the interpretation is placed in a broader theoretical perspective.

In either of these overviews of approach the theme is that the researcher conducts the analysis in different stages and may use a number of lenses through which to view the data.

A more practical, process-based strategy for analysing qualitative data, proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) includes four stages (Table 3.6 and Figure 3.3 below):

Data collection: the collection and preparation of the data	See Fieldwork plan section 3.13
Data reduction: the process of selecting and focusing the raw data	Chapter 4 Presentation of findings
Data display: the display of data in such a way as to help the researcher draw conclusions	Chapter 5 Analysis and Discussion of results
Drawing and verifying conclusions	Chapter 6 Conclusions and recommendations

Table 3.6 Strategy for analysing qualitative data based on Miles and Huberman (1994)

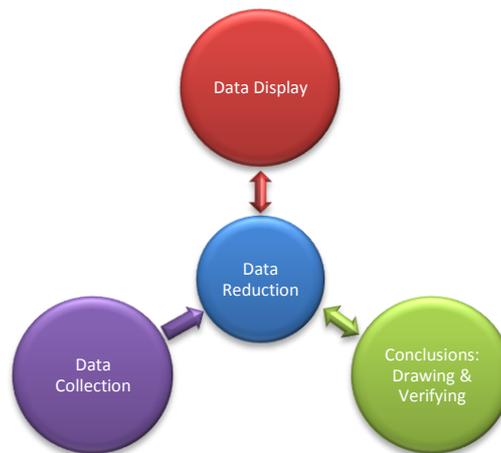


Figure 3.3 A model of data analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994)

It is likely that this overall process will be iterative where preliminary conclusions, for example, might indicate the need for further data collection, which may in turn lead to such conclusions being modified. This accords with Eisenhardt’s views on the flexibility of case study research (1989), which states that although a clear predetermined research design is advised, some flexibility might be afforded in order to collect data which is addressing the

research questions. The data collection phase has been described earlier in this chapter (section 3.13). The remaining stages will be further described below.

Data reduction: The raw data generated by the methods employed in a qualitative design, and indeed in this study, are voluminous. They consist of documentary feedback, field notes, interview transcripts, reflexive journal output and focus group transcripts. Reducing this data to a manageable and meaningful form is the first activity in the analytical process (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Spencer et al., 2003). The way in which this is executed will vary according to the type of method and the data produced: the process will be described below for each method employed. The processes for data display are also shown below and the drawing and verifying of conclusions is specifically covered in a later chapter of this thesis. Radnor (2002) (see Figure 3.4 below) has developed a similar model for the management and analysis of qualitative data.

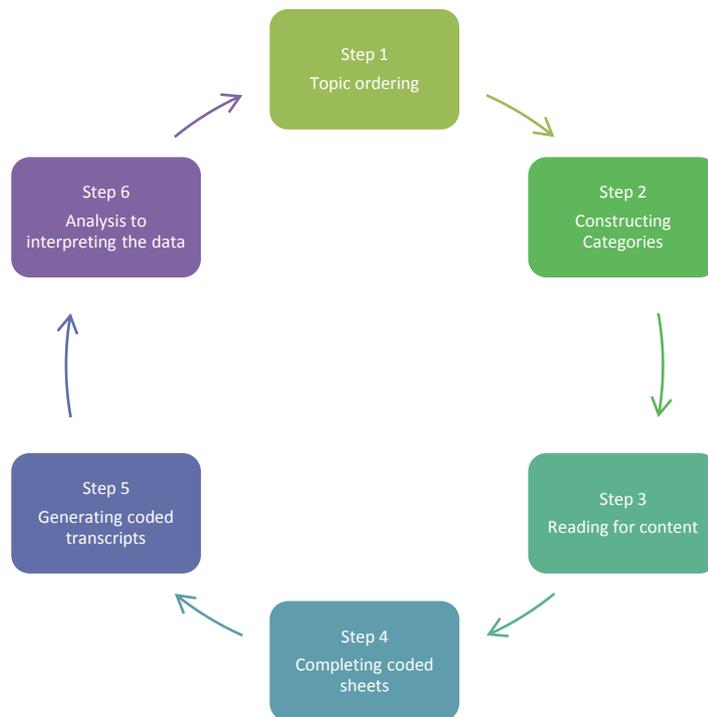


Figure 3.4 Data analysis process (Radnor, 2002)

3.18 Analysing case studies

Whilst each of the data collection methods has been described individually and the approach to their analysis is given below, it is worth remembering that these are carried out within an overall case study methodology and the perspective of analysing the research as part of a case study is to be noted. According to Yin (2009), the analysis of case study evidence is one of the least developed aspects of conducting this type of research.

An opportunity that may be missed in examining a case study is that of synthesis rather than solely analysis of the data. Where the individual components are examined in isolation, argues Dopson (2003), some richness is lost where a view of the composite of the component parts might have added these extra dimensions. In addition, there is the risk of viewing the cases themselves as isolated from their environment, the reductionist or ‘homo clausus’ approach, that is seeing man or woman as isolated individuals rather than being profoundly affected by the complex figuration of relationships of which they are part.

In order to maintain the overall perspective of the case study rather than looking only at the individual parts, Yin (2009) suggests looking at the questions in the case study protocol i.e. the research questions, to step back and take an overall perspective of what the data might reveal and, therefore, how it might be analysed based on the original theoretical propositions. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested ‘playing’ with the data by manipulating it in a number of different ways so as to form various pictures of the outputs.

In terms of analysing cases, Yin (2009) recommends striving for pattern matching between cases, which is a more explicit way of demonstrating the inter-case comparisons than the simple extraction of themes and categories from the data. Stake (1995) notes that there are two strategic ways for researchers to reach new meanings about cases; direct interpretation of the individual instance (case) and through the aggregation of instances (cases) until something can be said about them as a class. He also notes that the search for meaning is a search

for patterns, or consistency, which he calls ‘correspondence’ (Stake, 1995). All of these authors stress the importance of carrying out appropriate analysis on the constituent linked parts of the case study research and, in addition, being mindful of the inter-case comparisons and the observation and interpretation of patterns between them.

3.19 Using computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software

The general term computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) refers to software packages that are used to analyse qualitative data. The capabilities of these systems can range from simple aids to thematic analysis to powerful systems storing large quantities of data. CAQDAS programs facilitate this process and make it much more manageable by allowing indexing, coding and categorization of data. Seale (2000) notes that these packages have a number of advantages over manual data manipulation including speed and rigour. It is important to note that the strength of any analysis depends on the judgement of the researcher and that a computer system is no substitute for it, therefore some manual or personal evaluation of the data will ensure that the most appropriate interpretations are made. The researcher, even when using CAQDAS to support working through a volume of data, should always be close to the data so as to extract the full meaning from them. In this research NVivo™ was used.

3.20 Transcription and analysis

3.20.1 Transcription

The first task of analysis is to prepare the data through transcription, the process through which a valid written record is produced from oral (or other) materials (Gillham, 2005). According to the overall model suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) this is part of the data collection and preparation phase and its importance is noted by Gray (2004). He notes: ‘There should be no shortcuts when it comes to recording data. The analysis stage is made superfluous if the data have not been collected carefully’ (Gray, 2004: 227). Whilst it might

be assumed that transcription is an absolute process of capturing every element of the data from the original source, even this stage may be open to interpretation and involves an element of translation in the process (Gillham, 2005). Such interpretation is due to the human ability to nuance tone, pace, emphasis etc., from the original materials. It is important therefore to retain these original sources throughout the period of the research in order to maintain an audit trail to the source data. It is recommended that transcription is carried out as soon as possible after the interview (or other data collection process) takes place. Gillham (2005:123-4, 140) provides a number of practical guides for ensuring transcription is carried out in a robust way and for proceeding with the analysis process.

All of the data from this research was transcribed verbatim into word documents and then later imported into the NVivo™ program. The interviews were recorded using a portable recorder and were transcribed as soon as possible after the interviews took place so that there was a recent recollection of the live interview and any difficulties in hearing words or sections could be readily recalled. Notes were also taken during the interviews with the permission of the interviewee. These notes acted as a support mechanism and were not transcribed.

3.20.2. Narrative overview of the data

The overall sequence of events in taking on analysis of qualitative data might be considered to be an ‘analytical hierarchy’ (Spencer et al., 2003) where the process of examining, interpreting and sense-making of the data is approached as a number of unfolding layers, each developing in the level of detail uncovered. The analysis of data from open-ended enquiry techniques benefits from taking both a narrative- and content-based view of the data. In the initial stages of looking at the data it can be beneficial to form an overall picture of the ‘story’ that they are trying to tell before examining the content in detail (Gillham, 2005). By taking an overview of the material before breaking it down into its constituent detail, the major themes of the investigation can begin to appear and give further guidance to the

proceeding stages. This preliminary stage can give better structure to later reduction of the data and begin to build up trustworthiness which can lead on to robust discussion and conclusions. When this process is properly undertaken it is appropriate to proceed with the more detailed content analysis of each of the method outputs. In conducting the subsequent content analysis the researcher would interrogate the data for constructs and ideas that have been decided in advance (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). After the identification of major themes in the narrative stage the data can be broken down into constituent parts in order to interpret, understand and explain (Gray, 2004).

The analysis of all of the data was undertaken as if in layers. Firstly the various elements were transcribed so that a more homogenous data set of narrative feedback was created; this narrative was then read through in order to get a general sense of what it contained; when an overall picture had been formed, a more detailed approach was taken which involved coding and the generation of themes. At this point, every piece of data was studied in itself and in context with the other data in order to extract meaning from it and to establish patterns which would answer the two main research questions and the sub-questions.

3.20.3 Coding

At the detailed stage of analysis of all of the data types, each element was subject to a coding process. This involved reading the raw, transcribed, data in fine detail and deciding ‘what is this about?’ in order to determine which parts of the coding structure to apply (Spencer et al., 2003). This process can be carried out manually or with the assistance of a CAQDAS program such as the one used in this research, NVivo™. The indexing or coding system should be applied systematically throughout the whole set of data in order to build up a body of material for cross-sectional analysis. Flick (2006) suggests a process of ‘thematic coding’ to be used in comparative studies in which the phenomena being studied are derived from the research questions and thus defined a priori. This is also particularly suited to the examination of case study material where firstly the cases are given an overall description

before subjecting them to a deepening analysis. It is likely that the first attempt to undertake this thematic framework will require refinement, potentially adding categories or subdividing those already identified. It is important when proceeding along such an iterative line always to go back and examine already coded material to ensure that it still fits the new coding structures. This allows for a robust consistency which can be applied with confidence across all cases in the study.

In the next step the data are sorted by theme or concept so that material with similar statements or descriptions can be grouped together which produces clustering of themes for later evaluation. Such clustering should pay attention to the theoretical position of the enquiry and the research questions being posed so that the data are being assembled to comprehensively and appropriately respond to the research questions in the study and, therefore, make an informed contribution to the theoretical opportunity being examined.

3.20.4 Using Framework Analysis

Based on the nature of the data collection and the case study approach to this research, Framework Analysis (Ritchie et al., 2003) was felt to be an appropriate approach to the analysis of the different forms of data collected. Framework is a matrix-based method for ordering and synthesizing data which ‘facilitates rigorous and transparent data management such that all stages in the “analytical hierarchy” can be systematically conducted’. A thematic framework is used to classify and organize data according to key themes, concepts and emergent categories. This approach worked well with the data collected in the study as it was possible to relate the findings both to the literature on the subject and to emergent findings from the respondents’ perspectives.

Framework uses a matrix approach. Initially the main themes are identified, or ‘charted’ on a master grid and then each main theme occupies its own grid upon which sub-themes are drawn out. Each case is allocated a pair of rows allowing the coach and coachee responses to

be seen and also easily compared for within-case issues. An example is shown in table 3.7.

This process can be used in conjunction with NVivo™ being used as the system for coding the data and capturing the themes from the various sources.

Relationship at start/ Respondent	Sub-theme 1 Personality	Sub-theme 2 Similarity/Difference	Sub-theme 3 Coaching style
Coach 1	Coachee was warm, friendly	Similar background	Very open, willing to learn
Coachee 1	Coach professional, experienced	Similar MBTI®, ? problematic	Empathetic, not challenging
Coach 2	Etc.		
Coachee 2			
Coach 3			
Coachee 3			

Table 3.7 Example of sub-themes in Framework Analysis

3.21 Summarizing and synthesizing the data

The final stage of data management is to summarize and synthesize the original data. This has the purposes of reducing the data to a more manageable level to begin the process of extracting meaning and providing the evidence for later discussion and development of conclusions. Spencer and Ritchie et al. (2003) suggest three requirements in order to maintain the essence of the material:

1. Key terms, phrases or expressions should be retained as much as possible from the participant’s own language
2. Interpretation should be kept to a minimum at this stage so that refined levels of analysis can occur
3. Material should not be dismissed as irrelevant just because its inclusion is not immediately clear.

It is at this stage that data display (Miles and Huberman, 1994) is being addressed. The use of thematic charts or hierarchies of concepts can be used in order to graphically represent the groupings of issues emanating from the data. This was carried out using the Framework approach.

3.22 Description of the data and its analysis

3.22.1 Scope and nature of the data collected

Data was collected using a structured protocol in order to answer the research questions in a systematic and comprehensive way (see section 3.20). The data set that was achieved consisted of the following (table 3.8):

Type of data collected	Number of participants
Coach CVs	40
Coachee biographies	37
Clutterbuck & Megginson (2005) questionnaire Part B	40 + 37 = 77
Feedback from coaches on coachees	120
Feedback from coachees on coaches	111
Reflexive diaries	28 (14 coaches and 14 coachees)
Semi-structured interviews	28 (14 coaches and 14 coachees)
Clutterbuck & Megginson (2005) questionnaire Part A	28 (14 coaches and 14 coachees)

Table 3.8 Types of data collected

The data was analysed using Miles and Huberman's (1994) suggested process (see section 3.23) using the Framework Analysis protocol (Ritchie et al., 2003). The overall approach broadly followed the analytical hierarchy as described by Spencer et al. (2003) and as illustrated in Figure 3.5 below. For some of the thematic coding of narrative data, the computerized data management system NVivo™ was used. Other forms of data were managed and analysed manually. The choice of when to use either process was made based on the researcher's judgement of practicality of data management and the relative sense-making that could be derived from it. For example, the Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaires were manually analysed using basic frequency and mean statistics, whilst the interview transcripts were coded using NVivo™.

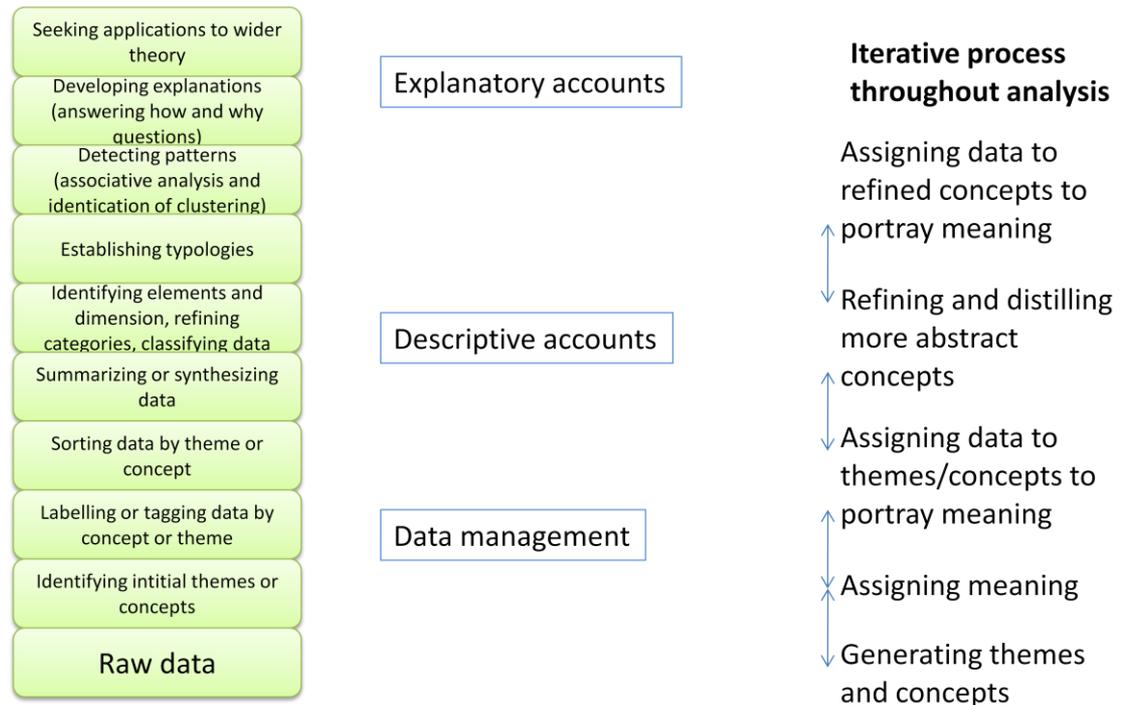


Figure 3.5 The Analytical Hierarchy (Spencer et al., 2003)

3.22.2 Collection of data

The process of collecting data was designed to uncover the necessary information in order to answer the research questions. Based on case study methodology (Yin, 2003) the unit of study in this research was the coaching pair. The overall process worked by sequentially revealing layers of feedback from the coach and coachee about each other so as to identify critical relationship-forming factors and how the relationship evolved based on increasing levels of information and personal interaction. The full sequence of data collection has been described in section 3.13 above and is shown in Appendices II and III.

All of these sequences of the ‘matching’ process were conducted at Henley Business School. This venue was chosen as it offered the correct configurations of accommodation to allow the participants to experience the right environment. When the very first stage of information exchange (of CVs and biographies) took place, it was essential that the coaches and coachees did not come into contact. Therefore, two separate rooms were required that

had the facilities for each group to study their counterparts' information and make their preference evaluations. Henley provided sufficient conference rooms for this to be carried out. Once this stage was completed the coaches were first taken to a large conference room furnished with three coaching 'stations', i.e. desks and chairs, sufficiently distant from the other two stations, so that a coaching pair could conduct their speed-chemistry session out of earshot of the other two. Once the coaches were established at their stations, which were equipped with the required paperwork, the coachees were then brought into the room and instructions for the speed-chemistry session were given. The researcher was present at all times and was the time-keeper for the sessions. After each speed-chemistry session, the feedback forms were completed and the coachees were asked to move on to the next station.

This part of the data collection was conducted under quasi-experimental circumstances so as to provide, as far as possible, similar conditions for the formation of all of the coaching pairs, the unit of analysis in the case study element of this research. By following the same process for each speed-coaching group it was possible to compare more directly the factors influencing the formation of the coaching pairs. An alternative approach would have been to ask coaches and coachees to create matches in more naturalistic environments, such as within organizations, as part of a highly differentiated process. However, by doing this it would have been more difficult to compare the factors contributing to the match as there would have been numerous additional variables e.g. number of coaches seen, over what period of time, length of time (if any) spent in a chemistry session etc. By undertaking the matching process in a more uniform way, it was possible to make more direct comparisons of the factors influencing the decision-making process.

The data collection took place in three main sets called T1, T2 and T3 which are illustrated in figure 3.6 below.

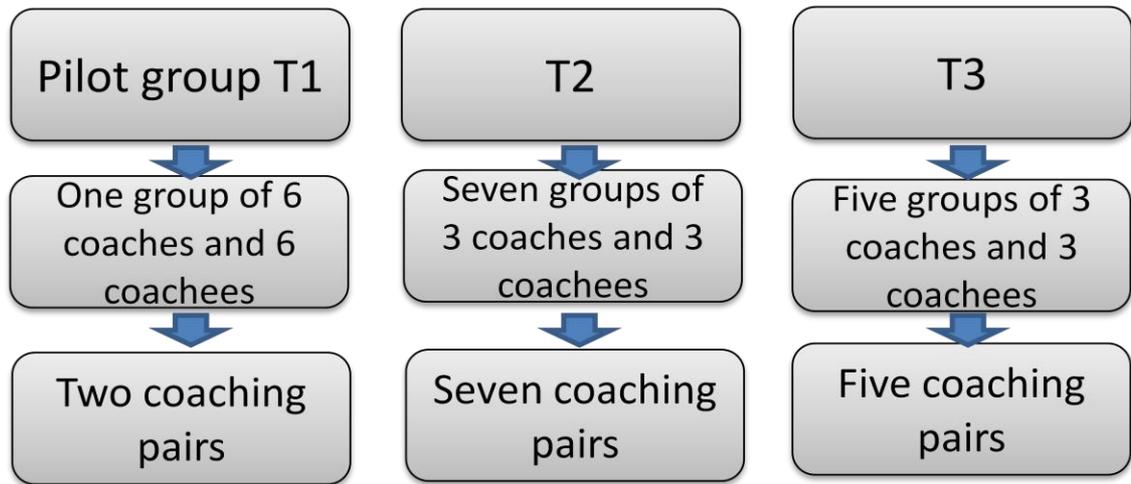


Figure 3.6 Data collection sets

3.23 Data management

The raw data that resulted from the above sequences of events for this study was as follows:

Coach CVs/coachee biographies	Structured narratives, responses in consistent formats
Clutterbuck & Megginson (2005) questionnaire, Parts B & A	Likert scale questionnaire responses
Coach/coachee feedback forms	Structured narratives, responses in consistent formats
Semi-structured interviews	Verbatim transcripts
Reflexive diaries	Verbatim transcripts

Table 3.9 Format of raw data

The management of this data took different forms based on the nature of the outputs, as shown in Table 3.10 below.

In order to undertake the initial stages of data analysis a thorough understanding of the data was required (Ritchie et al., 2003). So as to gain familiarity with the data all of the inputs were handled by the researcher. Some transcriptions of interviews were undertaken by a third party, however, the recordings and transcriptions were examined by the researcher several times each, in order to ensure familiarity with the detail and nuances of the material. All other transcription was carried out by the author.

Type of data	Format	Process for management
Coach CVs/coachee biographies	Each respondent completed a standard pro forma (see Appendix V).	Each area of response was summarized to show the characteristics of the sample groups. Basic demographic statistics and narrative comments were extracted.
Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaires Parts B & A	Each participant in the speed-coaching sessions completed Part B and each participant in coaching pairs completed Part A. Responses to 17 questions based on Likert scale.	Responses were analysed for frequency overall and comparisons made by male/female and coach/coachee. Results presented by chart and with accompanying narrative.
Coach/coachee feedback forms	Feedback forms from speed-coaching sessions. Presented on standard pro formas. Preferences were ranked.	Each question was analysed using NVivo™ to bring out themes. Results presented using narrative to illustrate patterns. Resulting preferences and matching criteria were summarized.
Semi-structured interviews/reflexive diaries	Both transcribed verbatim.	Framework analysis used via NVivo™ to generate coding index. Main- and sub-themes produced to identify patterns and illustrate dynamics in the coaching pair relationships.

Table 3.10 Process used to manage raw data

The speed-chemistry feedback forms and reflexive interviews were transcribed with the aid of Dragon voice recognition software and this enhanced the familiarity with the data as the process of reading and speaking the data was a more real-life experience than copy typing. All of the data, with the exception of the Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaires were imported into NVivo™ for coding and data manipulation. This overall process enabled the start of formation of a ‘conceptual scaffolding’ (Ritchie et al., 2003) on which to build a foundation for the structure of the data and help to form initial ideas of the patterns that were emerging.

3.24 Profile of participants

A full profile of the participants is given in Appendix IV. A summary of the key areas is given here.

	Coaches	Coachees
Total number	40	37 (For some sessions either a coach or coachee did not attend. However, it was felt that the session was still viable to have a choice from two and therefore, these sessions went ahead)
Gender	23 (57%) female:18 (43%) male	20 (54%) female:19 (46%) male
Coaching pairs	9 (64%) female: 5 (36%) male	7 (50%) female: 7 (50%) male
	Of the fourteen sessions held, twelve pairs were matched with both first choices. Two pairs were matched with the first choice of the coachee and the second choice of the coach	

Table 3.11 Profile of participants

Coach information from CVs

Information from coaches is provided below. Firstly a summary of their length of coaching experience is given in table 3.12, followed by a summary of their CV content (table 3.13)

Range	Frequency
<1 yr	2
1-3 yrs	13
4 -5 yrs	7
6 – 10 yrs	6
11 – 20 yrs	8
>20 yrs	2

Table 3.12 Frequency of experience ranges in coaching

Qualifications	Of the 40 coaches, 34 held the Henley Postgraduate Certificate in Coaching. Of the other six, five held equivalent qualifications, such as Lane 4 training, Meyler Campbell Business Coach, University of Surrey Coaching Certificate or University of Middlesex Coaching Certificate. One coach had no formal coaching qualification but was an accredited psychometric test practitioner and had many years experience in coaching.
Experience	Within the coaches group, the range of experience of coaching was from four months to over twenty years. The mean experience was 7.7 years. The mode occurred in a range of 1– 3 years with 13 of the 40 coaches having experience in this range. Eight coaches had experience of between 11 and 20 years. The breakdown is given in Table 3.13.
Description of coaching style	The words most frequently used by coaches to describe their own coaching style were ‘challenging’ (17 occurrences) and ‘supportive’ (14 occurrences). Two coaches specifically stated that they adopted a ‘time to think’ approach as espoused by Nancy Kline (1999). One used a Cognitive Behavioural Therapy approach.
Frequently used descriptive words	Empathetic (3), relaxed (3), probing, emphatic, informal, professional (2), facilitative (3), creative, resourceful, solution-focused (2), open (3), collaborative (2), conversational, goal-driven, inspiring, non-directive (4), transparent, empowering (2), effective, flexible, safe (2), non-judgemental, client-centred (2), stretching, pragmatic (4), measured, assured, real world, encouraging (2), reflective, humour, potential, purposeful, dynamic, friendly, informal, business-focused, liberating, energizing, eye-opening, eclectic, positive, developmental, transformational, listening, direct, gentle, warm, natural, honest, intuitive, courageous, human.
Experience outside coaching	Ten coaches had previous experience in professional HR roles, either as generalists or as learning and development specialists. Two coaches were business psychologists. Twelve of the group were, or had been in the past, involved in running their own businesses mostly as consultants. Others had specialist or technical roles in organizations or in the professions, such as law, engineering, finance, sales and marketing or in general line management.
MBTI®™ type	The most frequently occurring was ENFP with ten occurrences (26%). This was followed by INTP (7, 18%), INFJ (5, 13%), ENFJ (4, 10%), ENTP and INTJ (3 each, 8%), ESTJ, ENTJ and ESFJ (2 each, 5%), INFP (1, 3%).
Accreditation	Two of the major accrediting bodies, APECS and AoC, were noted eight and nine times respectively. EMCC was noted once. Ten coaches did not note any accreditation attachments. Interestingly twelve participants gave the Henley Register as their form of accreditation. This is not in fact an accrediting body, but simply a database of approved coaches run by Henley Business School. Other attachments were given to CIPD, BPS and NLP, none of which are accrediting bodies for coaching.
Supervision	Ten of the coaches responded that they were not currently in regular supervision, thirty were receiving regular supervision at varying frequencies and in different forms either individually or as part of a group supervision process.

Table 3.13 Profile of coaches

Coachee information from biographies

Information provided by the coachees on their biographies is shown in table 3.14 below.

Current role	Nine were presently working in human resources/learning and development/organizational development roles, all in a senior capacity as directors or HR business partners in large organizations. Five participants held senior academic appointments such as assistant professor or programme director. Six were in senior positions in other educational institutions, e.g. sixth form college principal and deputy principal and head of HR in a college. Five participants held business development roles within their organizations, which included account and client management. Eight of the coachees were students on the Henley full-time MBA programme. These individuals met the sampling criteria for the research as the admission criteria for the Henley programme require that all students have held senior positions in organizations for at least three years. Of the remainder there was one each in consultancy, finance, law, general management/administration and IT.
Previous experience	Eight had spent the majority or all of their careers in the human resources learning and development/organizational development arena. Four of the participants were qualified business psychologists. The most common background area was sales and marketing with nine participants having come from this background. Finance was the origin of six of the coachees and four came from secondary education. The remaining areas with one or two participants only were: higher education (2), engineering (2), professional services (2) and ‘industry’, procurement, general management, IT, law, science and project management all with one participant each.
MBTI®™ type	Only five of the 37 coachees did not know their MBTI® type profile. This suggests that the MBTI® instrument is widely used and that most of the participants have encountered it at some point in their careers. The spread of different types was wider (twelve different profiles compared with ten for the coaches) and there was less clustering on individual profiles. Three profiles, ENFP, ENTJ and ENFJ were represented by four participants each. ENTP, INTP and ISTJ had three participants, ESFJ, ESTJ and ISTP, two and ESTP, INFJ and INTJ had one each. Twenty of the 32 (62.5%) who indicated an MBTI® type were E (Extrovert) preferences. Twenty had N (iNtuitive) preference, 19 (59%) were T (Thinking) type and 17 (53%) were J (Judging) type. These figures indicated that the dominant element of MBTI® type in the coachee group was extroversion. This may be an indicator of the characteristics of people who come to coaching. However, it may be an indicator of the type of people who volunteered to take part in the research.

Table 3.14 Profile of coachees

The biographies of the coachees included a question on what was the challenge that they were bringing to their coaching. This question was included for two reasons a) it aimed to begin a thought process in the coachees to contemplate what they wanted to achieve from the coaching process, and b) it provided information for the coaches on what types of issue the coachees wanted to tackle and then, taken with other elements of their profiles, what effect this would have on the coaches’ preferences. In order to

retain anonymity these challenges have been generalized and have been split into categories with the breakdown given in Table 3.15 below:

Category of challenge	Frequency of response
Life changes e.g. work/life balance	7
Career general e.g. next job	15
Work specific change e.g. better sales	10
Behavioural change e.g. assertiveness	3
Other e.g. achieve qualification	2

Table 3.15 Categories of coaching challenge on coachee biographies

This indicates that the most common reason for coming to coaching was for general career advancement such as creating a career plan, getting the next job, changing direction. The next most common category was to work on specific work goals. These included achievement of more business or achieving greater strategic influence. Life goals included work/life balance issues, identity issues and making key decisions around family needs.

The biographies also sought to understand how much coaching the prospective coachees had been exposed to themselves in the past. It was not known how this might influence the nature of the coaching relationship and whether this issue would return later when the speed-chemistry sessions and coaching sessions took place. Table 3.16 below summarizes these findings.

These figures show that some coachees have multiple experiences, that is they may have received coaching as well as acted as coaches themselves, or even taught coaching to others.

Previous coaching experience	Frequency
Has received coaching	18
Has coached others	11
Has trained coaches	5
No experience	9

Table 3.16 Coachees' previous experience of coaching

The coachee biographies showed that the group of participants were from varied backgrounds and had a variety of different experiences. This was useful for the research being

undertaken as it demonstrated the wide appeal of Executive Coaching amongst senior staff. However, the sample was still relatively small and provided limited evidence for generalization of the study, offering the opportunity for further research to test out some of the conclusions on a larger sample or on specific groups of executives, perhaps from industry/professional groups or with particular issues being addressed.

This section provides a comprehensive overview of the participant sample in this research. It looks at a variety of characteristics of both the coaches and coachees and highlights any patterns or dominant attributes that might have influenced the results of the later stages of research.

3.25 Data analysis

3.25.1 Overall management of the data

The data comprised a number of different forms, which all contributed to answering the research questions, and required different kinds of management. Each type of data will be examined in discrete sections below so as to bring out the major themes or critical points which contributed to the research outcomes. The section discusses the rationale of coding or indexing the narrative data so that the main and sub-themes within the data will be identified for later discussion. It then proceeds to examine each data source and extract the key findings to contribute to the research outcomes.

3.25.2 Coding (indexing) process used

A process of coding for thematic analysis was carried out on the majority of the data collected. Using the appropriate Framework terminology (Ritchie et al., 2003) this is termed 'indexing'. The data sources included in this process would be the coaching feedback forms, reflexive diaries and semi-structured interviews. A mixture of paper-based and computer-based processes were used, the latter employing a CAQDAS program, NVivo™. The

decision on which approach to take in terms of manual or automated indexing was based on the type of data being processed and the manageability of the volume of that data. For example, when looking at the interview transcripts alone NVivo™ was felt to be a useful way of indexing the data as ‘nodes’ could be set up that reflected the main and sub-themes within each interview. A sample of these nodes is shown in Figure 3.7 below.

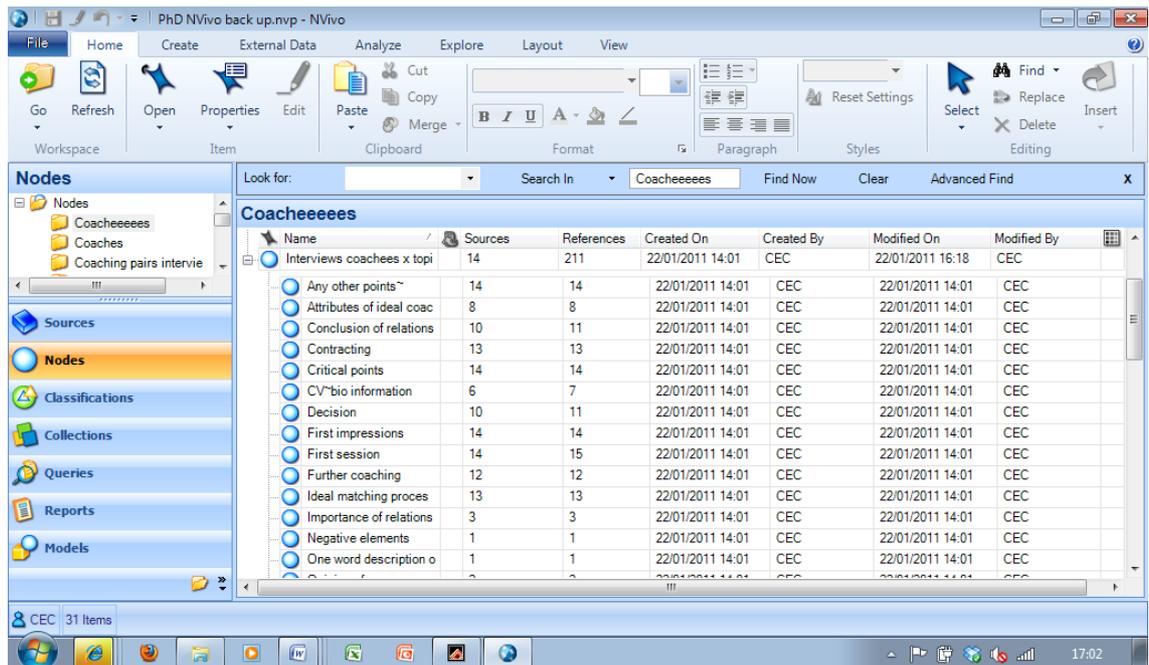


Figure 3.7 Sample of index nodes in NVivo™ for coachee interviews

By contrast, when analysing the interviews and reflexive diaries from each coaching pair, within the pair a manual process was used comprising A3 paper divided in half so as to facilitate direct comparison of responses from one side to the other.

The data were coded so as to index or categorize the texts to establish a framework of thematic ideas (Gibbs, 2007), to enable retrieval of texts similarly indexed and to use the index list when developed into a hierarchy to examine further levels of analysis such as relationships between index themes and, especially in this case, to enable case-by-case and inter-case analysis.

The system of developing the index themes consisted of three main types:

1. Descriptive – allowing simple comparison of stated concepts using respondent's terms
2. Categorical – where similar concepts were combined within relevant categories
3. Analytical – allowed texts based on similar concepts to be compared. This might require inference or interpretation of meaning within these terms, but would form coherence when taken in group as a whole.

The different data sources were analysed in a sequential and systematic way in order to extract the most appropriate meanings and interpretations from them. Two main approaches were used:

- Concept driven coding (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003): an array of codes or themes was developed before extensive examination of the data. A list of thematic constructs were developed from a number of sources such as the literature, previous research and by superficially reading through some of the transcript material. The Framework Analysis index is shown in Appendix X. This resulted in a deductive process where existing themes were derived from previous sources and the data was examined for evidence of agreement or disagreement with these themes.
- Data driven coding: an approach derived from work on Grounded Theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987; Glaser, 1992; Strauss and Corbin, 1997; Charmaz, 2003) where coding is taken from the data with no preconceptions attached from the literature or other sources. The key idea is to inductively generate novel theoretical ideas or hypotheses from the data as opposed to testing the theories specified beforehand. These theories are said to be 'grounded' as they arise out of the data and are supported by the data. Later in the analysis process these new ideas were related back to existing theory, research or experience.

3.25.3 Data preparation and coding

The different data sources were handled as follows:

- Each item of data with the exception of the questionnaire data was imported into the CAQDAS software NVivo™. This allowed for the data to be thematically coded for comparison and analysis.

- CV/biographical data
- Feedback from speed-chemistry sessions
- Reflexive diaries and semi-structured interviews: these were analysed in NVivo™ as part of the overall data set and then were subjected to paper-based analysis of coaching pairs as part of the inter-case analysis. From the overall index a number of theoretically driven concepts were used to do an initial analysis of the full set of diaries and interviews using NVivo™. The first sift was to index according to the main themes of the interview questions. The second step was to examine the transcripts for references based on the index, building up hierarchical relationships. Finally, these two sets of data were explored for additional data driven items within the indexed hierarchies.

The chapter continues with an examination of each of the data types at the various stages of the coaching process and identifies points of significance and patterns and themes that emerge. This sequential analysis will then lead to synthesis of the data in the following chapter, leading to the drawing of conclusions and establishment of overall outcomes from the research.

3.26 Summary

This chapter comprehensively explores the way in which the research questions which are derived from the body of theory in Chapters 1 and 2 can be answered by the generation of relevant data which is collected, viewed, interpreted, analysed and discussed using robust, trustworthy and accepted traditions. It seeks to build a clear linking thread from the proposition of the deficit in the theoretical position to date, through to exploration of empirical evidence to build upon this theory in an area of academic and practitioner relevance. By utilizing sound concepts in research design, methodology and data generation methods, this research seeks to produce findings which can fulfil the criteria proposed for qualitative enquiry of validity, trustworthiness and generalizability.

Chapter 4 Presentation of Findings

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this section is to introduce the detailed findings of the research in a logical and systematic way based on the theoretical landscape introduced earlier so that the whole of the study can be set out ready for analysis and interpretation. The process of data analysis begins with the management of a large volume of data as generated in the fieldwork stage of the research and then its reduction into meaningful sections. This process is undertaken so as to answer the research questions, to propose a method for communicating the essence of what the data revealed and to propose a number of overall outcomes of the study.

This chapter shows how the data revealed indicators of the development of the coaching relationship from its inception to its conclusion and provided evidence for the demonstration of patterns within the coaching relationships which may lead to the establishment of a number of types of relationship.

4.2 Overview of the data

4.2.1 Response to research questions

There are a number of key findings in this section relating to the research questions that have been derived from the review of the literature. The research questions are once again set out below:

1. Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?
 - a. Which precursor factors contribute to the formation of the executive coaching relationship?
 - b. Once a dyadic relationship has been initiated, how does it evolve in the process of a normal executive coaching programme of sessions?

- c. What knowledge can be derived towards developing a process for identifying ideal executive coaching dyads?
2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?
 - a. Is it possible to develop a new theoretical proposition for a typology of coaching relationships which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for future coaching professionals?

These findings suggested firstly that there are clear phases within the coaching relationship. The phases demonstrate some commonality with those in other dyadic development relationships, but there are also some clear differences which suggest a development of the theory on Executive Coaching as a leadership development intervention. These differences concern the earliest phase of the establishment of the coaching relationship. Secondly, the data provided sufficient evidence to suggest that coaching relationships exhibit certain patterns and that they may be formed into a number of types with identifying characteristics. Both of these main outcomes have a number of subsidiary outcomes which are explored in the presentation of the data below.

The data are presented based on the evolution of the coaching process as carried out in the fieldwork and their relevance to the research questions is discussed in each main section.

4.2.2 Initial stages

The first stages of the data collection concerned the first and third sub-questions of the research:

- 1a. Which precursor factors contribute to the formation of the executive coaching relationship?
- 1c. What knowledge can be derived towards developing a process for identifying ideal executive coaching dyads

To answer these questions, the study looked at the relationship from a point before the potential participants had even met through to the formation of the coaching pairs. They first

exchanged written information about themselves and were then involved in speed-chemistry sessions to establish preferred partners. All participants also completed the Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire (Part B) which asks about the importance of a number of attributes to the coaching relationship. The findings to these elements are set out below.

4.2.3 Matching and selection process – data from coach CVs and coachee biographies

At the very first stage of the data collection each coach was asked to complete a CV and each coachee, a biography (see Appendix V), which was then exchanged with the participants of the opposite group. At this stage, without having met or even seen their opposite numbers, each participant was asked to review and rank their potential matches in order of preference to coach or be coached.

The main themes that emerged from the data of the coach CVs and the coachee biographies were concerned with the ‘fit’ between coach and coachee. Appendix VI shows the comments made by each side during the paper information exchange phase and the rankings that were given in the sessions conducted after the ‘pilot’ phase. In the Appendix these rankings are compared with those given following the speed-chemistry sessions. A summary table is given below (table4.1):

	Coaches about coachees	Coachees about coaches
No. agreeing to coach/be coached	94%	64%
Main topic where comments made	Background, experience, level of interest	Positive: Experience, expressed coaching style, personality compatibility Negative: Experience, CV information insufficient, lack of warmth, absence of accreditation

Table 4.1 Main findings from CV and biography exchange

The comments made by the coaches were mainly concerned with background, experience and the level of interest in the challenge presented by the coaching candidate. In only 6% of responses did a coach say that they were unsure or would not coach a given candidate (see

Appendix VI). The coaches appeared to be willing to coach almost any of the potential coachees, with one coach repeatedly summing this up with the comment that he/she would coach the candidate because *'there was no reason not to'* (FZC61). Where the coach indicated an unwillingness to coach a candidate, the comments seemed to refer to a mismatch in personality; one comment directly saying this and another quoting, *'Detail conscious. Too many challenges'*, as though the coach might not connect with this coachee. The comments from the coaches seemed to suggest that their preferred coachees would be those who would bring a level of either interest or challenge to the coaching relationship. Feedback included comments such as: *'Qualities engage my interest and "fit" with my coaching style.'*; *'Professional fit and would like to work on challenges'* and *'Interesting challenge, even if different type'*. Comments from coaches about the coachees in the group often fell into a theme, i.e. one coach might provide comments always about the coachee's experience (FZC57).

By contrast, the coachees were much more discriminating when it came to deciding whether to be coached by an individual or not. In 36% of potential matches the coachee said that he/she was either unsure or would not want to be coached by the individual concerned. In fact, each coachee gave a 'no' or 'unsure' response to at least one of the potential coaches.

Reasons for this were given as follows (not ranked in any order):

- Couldn't read CV
- Coach not accredited or in supervision
- Not enough experience at executive level
- Coach seemed to lack preparation for this event
- Coach does not know his/her own MBTI® type
- Mismatch of MBTI® type would make it difficult to work with this coach
- Lack of 'warmth' coming across in CV
- Coach too specialized in a single discipline
- Insufficient data in CV to decide.

For those coaches who were potential matches for the coachees, the following attributes were offered as positive indicators (not ranked in any order):

- Level of business experience
- Business experience in right sectors or right spread of sectors
- Coaching style would be good
- MBTI® type compatibility
- NLP qualification
- Amount of executive level coaching experience
- CV looked professional. Thought and care had been put into answers/information provided
- Coach is accredited and/or in supervision.

The level or range of business experience possessed by the coach was mentioned in 47% of possible occurrences. This emerged as the most frequently identified attribute that was seen as positive by the coachee group. The level of coaching experience at executive level was the next most frequently identified reason for potentially choosing a coach. As with the coaches there was a pattern that each particular coachee would respond to the CVs in a particular style; so a coachee was likely to mention MBTI® type for several or all of their potential coaches (UUC08), or MBTI® would not be mentioned at all (UUC06, UUC09). It might be assumed, therefore, that the style of response equated to the priority given by that coachee to a particular attribute or combination of attributes.

4.2.4 Clutterbuck and Megginson Questionnaire Part B

The Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire has been used in many organizations by the authors as a diagnostic tool for identifying important attributes of the potential coaching environment (Part B) and the actual experience of coaching (Part A). It was felt, therefore, that Part B of this instrument would be suitable to use to evaluate the priority of factors identified by the group of participants before any form of coaching had taken place. It is acknowledged that some of the coachees had prior experience of coaching in some form

(see above). Part B of the questionnaire was applied to all of the participants in advance of any matching and selection process. The questionnaire was completed at the same time as the participants' CV or biography depending on which group they were in. The questionnaire is based on a Likert scale from 1 to 5, where 1 is 'very true' and 5 is 'not true'. All of the coaches (n=40) and coachees (n=37) in the study responded to Part B of the questionnaire. The key findings are given in Appendix VIII and are summarized in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1 below and in the following narrative:

Question	Coaches	Coachees
1. We are relaxed and able to speak openly	Second most important factor	Most important factor
3. We are both learning from the coaching relationship		Second least important factor.
5. I value the opportunity to obtain a different perspective	Second least important factor	
10. We trust each other	Most important factor	Second most important factor
17. It is important that the coach knows my business or industry sector	Least important factor	Least important factor

Table 4.2 Summary of findings from Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire

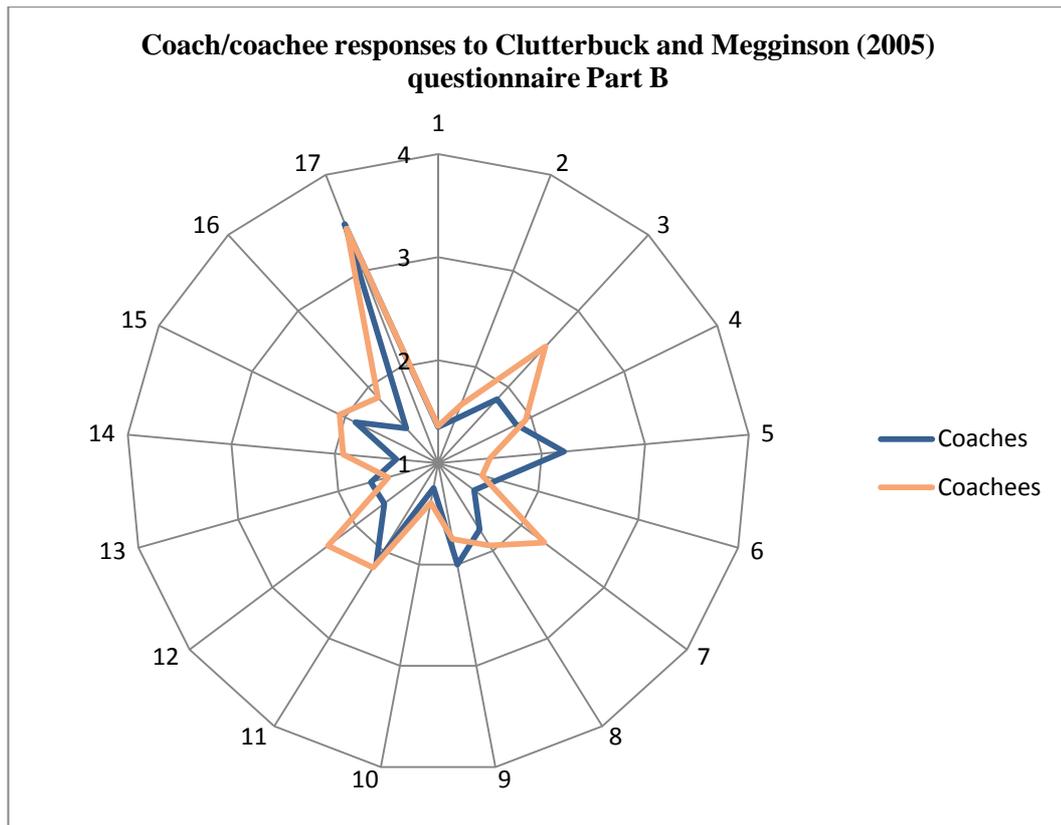


Figure 4.1 Display of relative importance of factors – Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire Part B

The most important factor reported by the coaches was in statement no. 10: ‘We trust each other’. This received an average score of 1.24 (n=40). No coach scored more than 2 for this question indicating that it was unanimously held in high importance by the whole group. Trust, therefore, appeared to be the most important attribute in the coaching relationship to the cohort of coaches.

The issue of second highest priority for coaches was in statement no. 1: ‘We are relaxed and able to speak openly’. This suggested that open communication was deemed to be an important ingredient in developing and maintaining a fruitful coaching relationship. Only one participant scored this as a 3, all others were either 1 or 2. The average score was 1.35 where 1 would suggest a high level of openness and 5 would suggest a high level of withholding information or emotion.

For the coachee group, these two issues also ranked highest with scores of 1.39 for trust and 1.36 for 'speak openly'. One coachee in this group scored 5 for 'speak openly'. Most of this coachee's scores were high numbers and, therefore, it might be supposed that they read the instructions incorrectly and interpreted the scoring as 5=very true and 1=not true. This same coachee scored 3 for trust. There were no other scores above 2 for either of these two statements.

The least important factor reported by the coaches' group was in the final statement: 'It is important that the coach knows my business or industry', which had an average score of 3.49 out of 5, a high score indicating this factor was of low importance. This response would agree with the coaching theory that a coach does not need to possess subject knowledge in order to be able to coach effectively; therefore, previous knowledge of the coachee's business or profession would be a very low priority for the coach. This result was again mirrored by the coachees who gave an average score of 3.44. Despite responses in the paper-based exercise which clearly stated that industry experience was a factor for preferring a particular coach, the coachees responded on the questionnaire that it was of low importance that the coach knew their business or industry sector.

For the coaches' group, the second highest score (least important) was to statement no. 5: 'I value the opportunity to obtain a different perspective'. This question received a relatively low score (high importance) of 1.50 in the coachee group. The possible explanation for this was that coaches would not necessarily expect to want to take a different perspective on any issues if they were the ones doing the coaching. They are in that position so as to serve the coachee's needs and not to have their own developmental needs met. It is understandable that it would be a matter of higher importance for coachees who might be seeking to take a different perspective on matters which might have been challenging them for some time.

Interestingly, the second highest score (low importance) for coachees was to statement no. 3: 'We are both learning from the coaching relationship'. This had an average score of 2.53. There was a wide spread of responses to this statement ranging from 1 to 4. It might be inferred that the coachee did not expect to learn from the coaching relationship itself. Coaches gave this statement an average score of 1.84, indicating that, on the whole, they felt this to be a more important factor.

Another contrasting response was given to statement no. 7: 'I am confident in initiating coaching discussions'. The coachee group gave this an average score of 2.28 with a wide spread of scores from 1 to 5. This was an understandable picture in that the coachee would not necessarily expect to be initiating the coaching conversation. The group of coaches, on the other hand, gave this statement an average score of 1.43, their fourth lowest score. Clearly it would be expected that a coach would be in the position of initiating a coaching conversation as the de facto facilitator of the coaching session.

There were two other categories where the coaches gave average scores of over 2. These were no. 9: 'Our discussions are creative and reflective', and no. 11: 'We are both well prepared for planned coaching sessions'.

Coachees on the other hand scored three other categories over 2. These were no 11: 'We are both well prepared for planned coaching sessions', no. 12: 'We review the coaching relationship regularly and discuss how to improve it', and no. 15: 'I enjoy and look forward to coaching sessions'.

The preparedness issue (Q11) was common to both groups implying that coaching is not an intervention that is associated with preparation. It is common for coaching to have no formal documentation associated with it, outside perhaps the contractual stages. Some coaching can involve the coachee undertaking elements of 'homework' and some coaches like to request

that coaches undertake some form of diagnostic work before a first session. However, the majority of coaching sessions take place in the ‘here and now’ and are based on outcomes achieved in the space of the session itself rather than work done before a session takes place.

4.2.5 Feedback from speed-chemistry sessions

At the end of the paper-based exercise, the 5-minute speed-chemistry sessions took place. The data from this stage of data collection comprised three completed pro formas (occasionally two where a group was absent one participant) from each of the 40 coaches and 37 coachees. This resulted in 120 speed-chemistry sessions. The pro forma for collecting the feedback information is given in Appendix V.

The findings for this element of the data collection comprise:

- Comparison of ranking data from paper exercise to speed-chemistry stage
- Thematic analysis of feedback from coaches on coachees and from coachees on coaches
- Analysis of word descriptions provided on feedback forms
- Comparison of word analysis, descriptive analysis and ranking data to identify what attributes were being used to decide preferences in choosing a coach or coachee.

Ranking data

Tables 4.3 and 4.4 below show the raw data of the rankings provided from the paper-based exercise and from the speed-chemistry sessions. The rankings from the speed-chemistry sessions were used to determine the matches for the coaching pairs. However, it was interesting to observe whether and how much the preferences changed from the paper-based exercise to the speed-chemistry sessions.

In the initial group (T1, six coaches and six coachees) when the speed-chemistry sessions were carried out there were twelve negative responses (of 36) from the coachees to the question: ‘Would you want to be coached by this person?’ compared with twelve negative or

tentative responses out of a possible 36 during the paper-based exercise. Of these, eight opinions remained the same (negative) when moving to the speed-coaching sessions, five changed from ‘no’ to ‘yes’ and three changed from ‘yes’ to ‘no’. The ‘no’ responses in the speed-chemistry sessions were consistent with these coaches being given low rankings.

Explanation of table:

The example below shows the responses given by a set of coachees on the coach named, i.e. coach FZC63. Between the paper based exercise and the speed-chemistry sessions, the first coachee ranked this coach 1st, then 2nd; the second coachee ranked the coach 2nd then 3rd and the third coachee ranked the coach 1st on both occasions.

FZC63	1 st , 2 nd , 1 st	2 nd , 3 rd , 1 st	Third coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
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Coach code	Ranking in paper-based exercise by coachee 1, 2, & 3	Ranking in speed-chemistry session by coachee 1, 2 & 3	Agree/disagree
FZC63	1, 2, 1	2, 3, 1	Third coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC64	3, 3, 2	1, 1, 2	Only second placing agreed
FZC65	2, 1, 3	3, 2, 3	Only third placing agreed
FZC69	1, 3, 2	1, 3, 3	First coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC70	3, 2, 3	3, 2, 1	Only third placing agreed
FZC71	2, 1, 1	2, 1, 2	Second coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions. Second placing also agreed
FZC72	3, 2, 2	1, 1, 3	None agreed
FZC73	2, 3, 1	3, 2, 1	Third coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC74	1, 1, 3	2, 3, 2	None agreed
FZC75	?, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	Both agreed
FZC76	?, 3, 1	2, 3, 1	Latter two agreed
FZC77	?, 1, 2	3, 1, 2	Latter two agreed
FZC78	1, 2	3, 1	None agreed
FZC79	2, 3	1, 3	Only third placing agreed
FZC80	3, 1	2, 2	None agreed
FZC81	1, ?		Not agreed
FZC82			Not agreed
FZC83	2, ?		
FZC87	2, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	Second and third placings agreed
FZC88	1, 1, 1	3, 3, 2	None agreed
FZC89	3, 3, 2	2, 1, 1	None agreed

FZC90	3, 3, 3	3, 2, 3	Only two third placings agreed
FZC91	1, 1, 1	1, 3, 2	First coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC92	2, 2, 2	2, 1, 1	Only second placing agreed
FZC93	1, 2, 1	1, 2, 1	First and third coachees ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC94	2, 1, 2	2, 1, 2	All placings agree
FZC95			
FZC96	2, x, 2	3, x, 2	Only second placing agrees
FZC97	1, x, 1	2, x, 1	Third coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC98	3, x, 3	1, x, 3	Only third placing agreed
FZC99	1, x, 2	1, x, 1	First coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC100	3, x, 3	3, x, 3	Both placings agree
FZC101	2, x, 1	2, x, 2	Only second placing agrees
FZC102	3, 2, x	2, 2, x	Only second placing agrees
FZC103	1, 1, x	1, 1, x	First and second coachees ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC104	2, 3, x	3, 3, x	Only third placing agrees

Table 4.3 Rankings of coaches by coachees in CV/biography and speed-chemistry sessions

Coachee code	Ranking in paper-based exercise by coach 1, 2 & 3	Ranking in speed-chemistry sessions by coach 1, 2 & 3	Agree/disagree
UUC12	1, 2, 1	1, 2, 1	All placings agree
UUC13	3, 3, 3	2, 1, 2	None agreed
UUC14	2, 1, 2	3, 3, 3	None agreed
UUC18	1, 1, 3	2, 2, 2	None agreed
UUC19	2, 2, 1	1, 3, 3	None agreed
UUC20	3, 3, 2	3, 1, 1	Only third placing agrees
UUC21	2, 1, 2	1, 3, 2	Only second placing agrees
UUC22	1, 2, 1	3, 1, 1	Third coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC23	3, 3, 3	2, 2, 3	Only third placing agrees
UUC24	3, 2, 1	2, 3, 2	None agreed
UUC25	2, 1, 2	1, 1, 3	Second coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC26	1, 3, 3	3, 2, 1	None agreed
UUC27	1, 2, 2	1, 1, 2	Only second placing agrees
UUC28	2, 1, 1	2, 2, 1	Third coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC29	Did not attend		
UUC30	1, x, ?	1, x, 2	None agreed
UUC31	2, x, ?	2, x, 1	None agreed
UUC32	Did not attend		
UUC37	3, 3, 2	1, 1, 1	None agreed
UUC38	1, 2, 1	2, 3, 2	None agreed
UUC39	2, 1, 3	3, 2, 3	Only third placing agreed

UUC40	1, 2, 2	3, 3, 3	None agreed
UUC41	3, 1, 1	1, 1, 2	Second coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC42	2, 3, 3	2, 2, 1	None agreed
UUC43	3, 1	3, 2	Only third placing agreed
UUC44	2, 3	1, 1	None agreed
UUC45	1, 2	2, 3	None agreed
UUC46	2, 1, 2	2, 1, 1	Second coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC47	Did not attend		
UUC48	1, 2, 1	1, 2, 2	Only second placing agreed
UUC49	1, 1, 1	1, 1, 2	First and second coaches ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC50	Did not attend		
UUC51	2, 2, 2	2, 2, 1	Two second placings agree
UUC52	2, 1, 2	2, 1, 1	Second coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC53	3, 2, 1	3, 2, 2	Second and third placings agree
UUC54	Did not attend		

Table 4.4 Ranking of coachees by coaches in CV/biography and speed-chemistry sessions

When the coaches responded to the question: ‘Would you want to coach this person’, there had been two negative responses at the paper-based information stage, both from the same coach. There were no negative responses at the speed-chemistry stage. Again, this might suggest that coaches are more willing to be flexible and coach anyone who seeks their help.

There were ninety-seven rankings by each side overall. Only one coachee and one coach were ranked the same by each of their counterparts between the two phases and in each case they were ranked first by two of their counterparts. Ten coachees and seven coaches also ranked the same counterpart as first choice. This suggests that 10% of coaches and 7% of coachees were consistent in their first choice between the paper-based information exchange and the speed-chemistry sessions. Sixteen coachees (16.5%) and nine coaches (9%) were consistent in their ranking in the lower orders. The data suggest then that 27 out of 97 (28%) coachee rankings of coaches and only 17 of 97 (17%) coach rankings of coachees were consistent between the paper-based phase and the speed-chemistry session phase.

With the data from the initial session it could be concluded that the majority of participants changed their minds regarding the preference they assigned to their potential counterparts

between these two early phases of the matching process. In up to 83% of cases the experience of meeting the opposite number in person changed the views of the participants towards their prospective coaches or coachees. There may a number of reasons for this such as:

- Having personal contact with your prospective coach or coachee is essential before making a decision on who to be matched with
- The information captured and shared in the coach CVs and coachee biographies was insufficient or of the wrong nature to give the participants an accurate view of the person they were being offered
- The passage of time between the two phases of the process allowed for changes in the thoughts and conclusions drawn by the participants
- Five minutes of a speed-chemistry session was insufficient time to make a reliable choice.

Some of these reasons were explored during the coaching pairs phase of the data collection taking a progressive, longitudinal opportunity to examine the data and test them for underlying meaning and sense-making.

Descriptive words

As part of the feedback from the speed-chemistry sessions each coach and each coachee was asked to provide five words to describe the person that they had experienced. This section examines the range of words that were used by each group and looks at the most commonly used words and clusters of similar-meaning words to try to draw out the perceptions of each group towards their opposite numbers.

The coachees used a total of 218 different terms in their 120 speed-chemistry sessions. By contrast, the group of coaches used 237 different terms to describe their coachee counterparts. The top twenty words most frequently used terms are given in Table 4.5 below.

Words used by coachees	Frequency	Words used by coaches	Frequency
Friendly	39	Open	30
Experienced	20	Friendly	20
Open style	18	Honest	12
Professional	15	Likeable	12
Interested	14	Pleasant	12
Thoughtful	14	Thoughtful	12
Warm	12	Interesting	10
Calm	11	Interested	9
Focused	10	Learning	9
Knowledgeable	10	Energetic	8
Empathetic	8	Engaging	8
Intelligent	8	Enthusiastic	8
Listened	8	Nervous	8
Personable	8	Focused	7
Understanding	7	Intelligent	7
Approachable	6	Self-aware	7
Challenging	6	Curious	6
Confident	6	Introvert	6
Direct	6	Positive	6
Kind	6	Talker (good)	6

Table 4.5 Frequency of descriptor words used in speed-chemistry sessions

The first thing that stood out from these lists was that the term ‘friendly’ was used very regularly by both coaches and coachees. It was the most frequently used word by coachees about their coaches (39 occurrences) and the second most frequently used word by coaches about their coachees (20 occurrences). Similarly, ‘open’ or ‘open style’ ranked highly on both lists; third for coachees (18 occurrences) and first for coaches (30 occurrences). This descriptor may be interpreted as a positive indicator for a coaching relationship as openness is a key factor in establishing and maintaining effective communications. Other common terms between the two lists were: ‘thoughtful’, ranking sixth on both lists with fourteen occurrences for coachees and twelve for coaches; ‘interested’ which gathered fourteen occurrences from coachees and nine from coaches; ‘focused’ was used ten times by coachees and seven times by coaches; ‘intelligent’ occurred eight times in the coachee group and seven times in the coach group.

There are some terms which were unique to only one of the lists. The coachees used the term 'professional' to describe their prospective coaches fifteen times, the fourth ranking descriptor. The use of this term might be expected as the coachees were effectively accessing a professional service from the coach. In the real world they or their organizations would be buying this service and so a level of professionalism might be expected. The term did not occur on the coaches' list. Similarly, the term 'experienced' was used in the same way. It ranked second on the list of terms used by the coachees but not in the top twenty of terms used by coaches.

Other descriptors used by the coachees to describe their potential coaches which did not occur in the coach list were: warm, calm, knowledgeable, empathetic, listened, personable, understanding, approachable, challenging, confident, direct and kind. All of these terms were apparently applicable to the provider of a supportive, developmental intervention. Although the term 'knowledgeable' was used, it was not clear whether this related to the coach's knowledge of coaching, or to some knowledge of the content or subject of the coachee's issues. Thinking of the theoretical descriptions of coaching, subject knowledge is not a requirement of a coach and indeed, one of the characteristics of the attributes of coaching might be that it is not content-dependent.

Equally the coach group used a number of terms to describe their potential coachee's which were not on the opposite list. These were: likeable, pleasant, interesting, learning, energetic, engaging, enthusiastic, nervous, self-aware, curious, introvert, positive and good talker. All of these terms are much more related to personality issues than work-related ones. Most, one might assume were positive descriptors. The terms 'nervous' and 'introvert' might be interpreted as being more pragmatic descriptions of the coachee's attributes. An interesting frequently used term was 'learning'. This may be interpreted as relating to the coachee's willingness to learn from the coaching intervention.

Outside the top twenty terms used by both groups there were some interesting descriptions to note. Again these terms might be grouped into those relating to professional and those relating to personal attributes.

The coachees used the following more professionally related terms (in decreasing order of frequency): direct, positive, structured, academic, flexible, reflective, capable, goal-focused, good questions, insightful, rapport-builder, client-centred, analysing, authoritative. And those that were more personality based included: kind, likeable, inquisitive, keen, quiet, caring, easy-going, relaxed, soft, closed, curious, enthusiastic, hesitant, nice, pleasant, polite, bright, chatty, fun, mature, modest, and amusing.

In the coaches' list it was more difficult to differentiate the more professionally linked words from those describing personality attributes. Some terms that might be interpreted as describing professional, work or career-related attributes included: driven, smart, knowledgeable, professional, experienced, ambitious and competent. The vast majority of the terms, however, seemed to relate to personality attributes of the coachees. The coaching intervention is for senior executive level individuals and yet very few of the terms seemed to relate to their professional dimension. Much more focus was given to the attributes of the coachees as people. These terms included: challenging, confused, intense, affable, confident, determined, enquiring, extrovert, genuine, humorous, keen, nice, outgoing, quiet, reflective, relaxed, willing, anxious, balanced, bubbly, considered, controlled, creative etc.

On both lists there were some more unusual or esoteric terms used, these include (from coaches): clumsy, crossroads, family, foreign, January, large, mechanistic, official, prickly, pushy, sparkle, sparky and tiger. And from the coachees; leery, signposted, smelly, storyteller and warrior. Clearly these were words that resonated with the individuals!

The overall impressions described in narrative

Each coach and coachee was asked the following question as part of the feedback from the speed-chemistry sessions: ‘What were your impressions of this coach (coachee), (you may include any relevant comment in this feedback. These may include views on gender, age, experience, qualifications, education, behaviours, personality, likeability, ethnicity, philosophy, etc.)?’ The responses to this question formed a key element of the analysis with regard to the matching of coaches with coachees a sample of which is shown in Table 4.6 below and the full analysis is given in Appendix X.

Feedback from coaches on coachee no.	Personality	Energy/ enthusiasm	Goal	Commonality with coach	Background	Openness	Trust	Rapport	Other
UUC06	Open/receptive. Keen to know more. Friendly. Nervous. Scared. Nice. Pleasant, congenial. Balanced. Likeable.	High energy/enthusiasm. Ripe for development.	Clear about goal.	Shared philosophy and vocabulary	Good HR experience. Promoted on merit.	Very open.			Vague. Specific.
07	Serious. Engaging. Invaded coach's space. Guarded, defensive. Reserved.	Appeared to interview the coach. Pushy.	Issue causing concern at work. May have to change goal. Juicy issue.			Good eye contact.			Values important.

Table 4.6 Sample of framework analysis of speed-chemistry feedback

Analysis of the speed-chemistry session feedback was carried out using the Framework Analysis method (Ritchie et al., 2003) (see section 3.20.4). Key themes from the feedback were identified by summarizing the feedback on each coach and coachee. That is, the three (or six in the initial set) coachees' responses on coach FZC57 were summarized and themes extracted. Likewise the three (or six) coaches' responses on coachee UUC06 were summarized and themes extracted, and so on.

Feedback from coaches on coachees

Nine constructs from the data were derived for the feedback by the coaches on coachees.

These were: personality, energy/enthusiasm, goal, commonalities with coach, background, openness, trust, rapport, other. Evaluation of feedback based on these constructs is set out below:

Personality – the feedback on personality seemed to mirror very closely the outcomes from the analysis of key descriptive words. All of the coaches provided some feedback that was interpreted as being included in this construct. There were many words used that expressed positive affect towards their opposite number. Words such as friendly, pleasant, bright, bubbly, likeable, congenial, affable etc. were used frequently by the majority of the coaches to describe their potential coachees. The language contained in these answers conveyed a connection based on personable attributes of the coachee. Given that the comments were made up of the feedback from the three opposite numbers that were encountered, some contained consistent descriptions of the coachee, for example coachee UUC08 was described as 'gregarious, bright, bubbly, friendly, likeable, warm, positive, forthright'. By contrast some descriptions contained less consistent word types suggesting that the coaches encountered this coachee in very different ways. An example of such differences is demonstrated in the description for coachee UUC28 who was described as 'structured, nervous, comfortable, tentative, smiley and sparkling'. The term 'nervous' gives a different suggestion of this person compared with the terms 'comfortable, smiley and sparkling'.

These quite different descriptions suggest that the three coaches experienced this coachee in different ways. The contrast was carried forward for this coachee into the construct for 'rapport' as the descriptions here were respectively for the three coaches: 'not immediate chemistry', 'thin veil between us' and 'reasonable rapport'. The order of the comments showed that the coach describing this person as 'smiley and sparkling' also felt that there was 'reasonable rapport'. Such comparison helped to demonstrate the individualistic experiences of the potential pairs during the matching process.

Energy/enthusiasm – a further set of comments centred on the construct of energy or enthusiasm. They described such attributes as high energy, enthusiasm (or lack of) for the coaching process, willingness to learn, level of interest and level of motivation. Not all coaches provided comments that would fit into this construct. The level of energy or enthusiasm expressed varied between coachees: At one end of the scale there was high energy with one coachee described as 'pushy' and that they 'appeared to interview the coach' and another coachee observed as 'could dominate the conversation'. Many coachees were attributed with high energy in a positive sense. Words used to express this were 'high energy, enthusiastic, fast pace, speaks quickly, keen to learn/know more, motivated, hungry, curious, passion, determined and driven'. By contrast, a number of coachees were described as being 'reflective' or 'reflexive' and coachee UUC21 was described as having 'lovely energy'. Further down the scale of energy/enthusiasm levels, and including a smaller group of coachees, words such as 'guarded', and 'may have doubts about coaching' describe a lower energy state of the coachee.

Goal – again not all coaches provided comments that fitted within this construct. Whilst some comments specifically mentioned goal as an item, others were interpreted as belonging with this construct as they talked about issues to do with clarity of issue to be discussed or that the coachee wished to achieve. The coachees' comments on goal fell into two main

categories; simple expressions of the presence or absence of a goal or coaching issue and their reaction to the issue. For example many comments (coachees numbered UUC06, 08, 09, 10, 19, 22, 23, 28, 40, 42, 43, 46 and 52) reflected that a clear goal was present, whereas coachees UUC18, 23, 37, 41 and 48 were unclear about their goal or issue. In the comments provided on coachees UUC07, 28, 49 and 51 there was some element of the coach expressing their interest in the goal, illustrated by comments such as ‘juicy issue’ (UUC07) or ‘issue something we could work on’ (UUC 28).

Commonalities with coachee – this construct emerged from feedback that expressed attributes the coach felt they had in common with or different from the coachee. Several of these comments simply stated ‘similar background’ (UUC08, 09, 12, 24, 48). Equally, some comments were about ‘different background’ (UUC14, 24). Variations on this were observed such as ‘shared philosophy and vocabulary’ (UUC06), or ‘shared understanding of coaching process’ (UUC08). One comment (UUC12) was noted to be ‘similar in terms of gender, age, background and outlook’, another (UUC26) stated ‘similar age, demeanour’ and a third (UUC48) ‘similar ethnic background and personality’ thus introducing surface-level diversity factors (Wycherley and Cox, 2008) into the feedback.

Background – only a few comments were made on this construct but they were deemed to be specific enough to bring them out under a separate heading. Most of the comments were around the coachee’s level of experience (UUC06, 19, 26, 27, 37, 38, 51 and 52). The comments expressed that the coachee had strong experience in some area.

Openness – this construct was brought out separately from the personality type descriptors as it was used frequently and appeared to be a term that had specific resonance to the coaches. Included within this term were other expressions such as ‘good eye contact’ (UUC07), or ‘lack of eye contact’ (UUC11). Also the ability of the coach to ‘connect’ with the coachee was interpreted as a variation on openness (UUC14). Specifically openness was

expressed for coachees UUC06, 09, 10, 11, 12, 13, 18, 26, 27, 41, 42, 45 and 49.

Interestingly UUC45 was described as being both ‘open’ and ‘not open’ by two different coaches in the group.

Trust – being one of the three dimensions of the therapeutic alliance (Bordin, 1979), trust was treated as a separate construct. However, it was only specifically mentioned regarding two of the coachees, UUC08 and 27, both in a positive sense.

Rapport – this term was used very commonly by coaches to describe the connection between coach and coachee, therefore it was felt that it was a specific construct in the feedback from the speed-chemistry sessions. It was used frequently in the feedback for UUC08, 11, 12, 13, 21, 24, 25 and 26. The level of rapport was not always seen to be positive (UUC28, 39, 44). Similar terms were also used, for example, reference to ‘chemistry’ (UUC13, 25, 28 and 46). Again this could be positive or negative.

Other– the following comments did not appear to fit into any of the above specific constructs. These comments were, it was felt, worth noting as feedback on the potentiality of the coaching relationship. The further comments are presented in tabular form (Table 4.7 below) so as to bring out some comparisons, particularly where contra comments occurred for the same coachee, e.g. UUC06 is described as both ‘vague’ and ‘specific’!

It can be seen that a number of these comments can be grouped into the area of ‘surface-level diversity factors’ (Wycherley and Cox, 2008) including references to physical appearance, gender, age and ethnicity. Some spoke of values but did not expand on this further, so it was not known for some whether it was a match of values with the coach or a mismatch.

Coachee	Comment
UUC07	Vague Specific
07	Values important
08	Process driven Physical presence
09	Young
10	Smiled a lot
11	Felt empathy with situation ? wants formal relationship
14	Strong views
18	Very busy Noted age Likely to work hard
19	Noticed physical appearance
20	Noticed physical attributes Beautiful blue eyes
21	Noticed physical factors Noted social status
22	Young
24	Good values
26	Quickly established coaching parameters
28	Values, experience and track record
30	Enjoyable experience
37	Rewarding experience
40	Noted physical factors, gender and ethnicity
41	Noted surface-level factors
42	Very desirable, repeatable experience
44	Huge potential
46	Focused on MBA Sloppy appearance Ideal candidate
48	Young Warmed to him
49	Importance of first impressions CV not good, meeting him very different
51	Young, challenging
52	Young, a budding star Out of normal cultural environment

Table 4.7 Other comments noted by coachees

Feedback from coachees on coaches

The feedback by the coachees on the coaches included the same nine constructs as for the coach feedback on coachees with the addition of a tenth construct, ‘the coaching context’.

The coachees gave quite fulsome feedback on the style or process of coaching that was being offered by the coaches. As before the constructs are taken in order below:

Personality – once again there was a wealth of feedback on attributes that were concerned with personality factors and every coachee gave feedback that fitted into this construct. A wide range of descriptive words was used of a very similar nature to those used by the coaches to describe the coachees. Many described positive personality traits such as being: friendly, warm, approachable, calm, relaxed, pleasant, welcoming, confident, interested, intelligent, engaging, forthright, thoughtful, positive, sympathetic, humorous, empathetic, supportive, mellow etc. Only two coaches at this stage were described as ‘professional’ (FZC94 and 99). The vast majority of coaches were described in very positive language. In only two cases was there a suggestion of negative attributes; these were FZC96, who was described as ‘hesitant, unsure’ and FZC103, who was described as ‘nervous at start’.

Energy/enthusiasm – some feedback was given specifically relating to this construct. The two main descriptive phrases that occurred were a ‘passion’ for coaching, for example FZC59 and 60, and ‘engagement’ with coaching, FZC73, 75, 76 and 93. A variation from this was experience with FZC89 where the coachee’s comment was that the coach was, ‘Really trying to get me to think things through and energize me’. Some other comments were made that were interpreted as belonging to this construct, such as ‘believes coaching is the answer to everything’ (FZC65), ‘alert’ (FZC69) and ‘totally absorbed and absorbing.’

Goal – only seven comments were interpreted as belonging in this construct. The coachees seemed to comment less specifically on goal related issues than did the coaches. Perhaps this was because of the professional training and ‘tuning-in’ of the coaches to specific coaching-related components such as ‘goal’. The responses were positive in the majority, with feedback such as, ‘quickly moved to issue’ (FZC60), ‘liked framing of issue’ (FZC69) and ‘got me to actually state a development issue’ (FZC89). There were two negative reflections; one simply stated ‘didn’t discuss my goals’(FZC61), but the other coach received

contradictory feedback from their coachees with the comments ‘didn’t get my issues’ and ‘really asking back to understand my issue’, (FZC70).

Commonalities with coach-the feedback that was interpreted as fitting with this construct varied somewhat. A number of responses were concerned with approach or style being similar (FZC57 and 58). Another group reflected that there was similarity of values, beliefs or that they were ‘on the same wavelength’ (FZC60, 69, 79, 99 and 103). Surface-level diversity factors also featured as a theme in this construct, for example, ‘both non-UK, made me like her from the start (FZC63), ‘similar age, same gender’ (FZC93 and 94), ‘both left-handed and have common genealogical background’ (FZC96). Some coachees noted that they were different from their potential coach and that this might be a good thing (FZC64 and 80); yet another (FZC77) reported that they felt their similarity was a negative point. This construct seems to have had quite a lot of variation in the way participants reported whether they felt similarity or difference was positive or negative and on the different types of similarity and difference that were quoted, such as approach or physical factors.

Background – there were more responses given that related to this construct, in itself indicating that the coachees were interested in the background and experience of their potential coach. There were a number of responses that reflected that the coachee felt the coach had relevant/good background and experience (FZC57, 60, 64, 71, 74, 76, 77, 87, 91, 96, 100 and 101). One specific quote from the feedback was ‘oozes experience, but in a nice way’! FZC65 was especially noted as being ‘very professional’. There were some more negative comments, such as; ‘prefer someone without business psychology background’ (FZC78) or ‘lacks operational experience’ (FZC79). Finally, there were some responses (FZC58, 59, 62, 69 and 70) where the coachee noted that they did not find out anything about the coach’s experience or background, or that they would have liked to have known more than they were given.

Openness – there were twelve comments relating to openness regarding the coaches' approach. With only one exception (FZC101) these were either clearly positive or simply stated 'open' as an attribute. FZC101 received the reflection 'open, but didn't seem to want to listen to me'. There were a number of positive comments made to indicate that this construct would be beneficial, for example; 'very open, made me feel relaxed' (FZC60), 'open. Good eye contact and positive body language' (FZC75). The 'open' construct was linked with 'honesty' by one coachee to their coach (FZC79). And one coachee reflected that they felt that they 'could open up to this person' (FZC80).

Trust – five specific comments were made on the construct of trust. Four of these were positive, for example: 'think I can trust her' (FZC63) and 'would trust him' (FZC64). Only one comment had a questioning response on this construct, which was 'not enough personal info [sic] to know if I could trust' (FZC88).

Rapport – this construct attracted much more fulsome comment from many more participants. The word 'rapport' was used in most cases indicating that this was a word that potential coachees identified with coaching and that they saw it as being a strong indicator of the potential of the matching or relationship. Other words linked to this construct were 'chemistry', 'fit', 'eye contact', 'connection', 'empathy', 'body language' and 'first impression'. All but four of these comments reflected that a good level of rapport (or other descriptive word) was present. For a few coaches the feedback was somewhat contradictory. For example, FZC57 received the feedback, 'keen to build rapport', 'set comfort quickly' and 'structured opening jeopardised rapport building'. An interesting variation on the mechanism of rapport building was reflected for FZC58 with the comment 'didn't build rapport verbally, but very engaging in body language and eye contact'. A specific variation on the theme of rapport was made for FZC59 with the phrase 'something clicked',

suggesting an undefined factor at work, one that the coachee perhaps did not identify with a recognized description but that was a positive indication all the same.

Coaching context – this construct was an addition to the framework for the feedback by the coachees on the group of coaches. In the speed-chemistry session feedback there was substantial comment that did not fit into the other framework of constructs and clearly concerned the coach's approach to the coaching engagement. Therefore the weight of this comment was deemed sufficient to discuss it as a separate construct.

There were a number of sub-constructs within this overall category that attracted comments based on a particular theme.

Level of challenge – a number of comments were made regarding the level of challenge that the coachees felt they would experience with a particular coach, e.g. FZC58, 'not sure how challenging she would be'. One coachee commented of coach FZC62 that there was 'little sense of challenge'.

Advice vs. Coaching – FZC57 noted that there was a good balance between advice and coaching. One coachee of FZC60 noted good balance between 'advice and facilitation' and that they were 'collaborative'.

Balance of conversation – of coach FZC62, one coachee commented that they 'were allowed to talk for too long' suggesting that the balance of the conversation was not felt to be even and that the coachee did not hear sufficiently what the coach had to say.

Style or process of coaching – a number of comments fitted into the area of the coaching process or style of the coach. For example FZC58 noted that they 'like description of coaching'. One coachee assessing coach FZC60 'enjoyed her philosophy on coaching'.

Within this category was included a comment relating to coach FZC62 which stated that the session 'felt like a chat with a friend'.

Questioning – comments were noted on the level or quality of the questioning by the coach. FZC57 ‘asked good questions’. On the other hand, coach FZC78 was thought to have asked too many questions.

Pace – regarding coach FZC63, one coachee remarked that they ‘forced the pace a bit fast’. By contrast coach FZC94 had ‘pace too slow and direction meandering’.

Client focus – FZC59 was observed as ‘didn’t seem client orientated. Maybe used to pushy senior executives’. By contrast one coachee of FZC60 noted that the coach was ‘interested in me!’ Coach FZC75 was felt to have a ‘coachee-centred philosophy’ which made the coachee feel comfortable and that they would ‘listen and not collude’.

Relationship – one coachee who met with coach FZC65 reported that the ‘relationship felt forced’ and that they ‘didn’t feel that they would be themselves in the relationship’. There were other descriptions which appeared to describe the overall relationship such as the one for coach FZC72 who ‘made me feel relaxed and comfortable’ and for FZC73 ‘felt comfortable in his space’, though this was also contrasted with ‘I didn’t like being told I couldn’t do what I wanted’. Regarding coach FZC77, one coachee stated that they felt they ‘would have to work hard to make this relationship work’. On the other hand the other coachees in this coach’s group commented ‘philosophy, experience and manner would lead to a good relationship’.

Other – this category was used for comments that did not appear to fit into any of the more specific main constructs. One group of comments that were included here were those concerning surface-level diversity factors (Wycherley and Cox, 2008). For example, of coach FZC57, the comments were made, ‘visually looked approachable and confident. Respect but not like her’, and of FZC58, ‘attracted by looks, demeanour, body language’. A number of comments were made regarding various attributes; ‘noticed negative physical factors’ (FZC61), ‘well dressed’ (FZC92), ‘younger than I expected’ (FZC63), or ‘age gap too large’ (FZC78), ‘warm, deep voice’ (FZC72 and 74), ‘I prefer male coaches’ (FZC79).

An additional further level of comparison was made between the preferences made in the paper-based phase of the selection and the speed-chemistry session phase; for example, ‘initially my preferred coach from CV, but now second’, and ‘was my blind top rank. Much more impressive in person’ (FZC98).

Summary

Overall there was a rich quantity of information to take from the feedback stage of the speed-chemistry sessions. The feedback covered a number of constructs that were mostly consistent between the coaches and coachees, with the addition of one construct, ‘coaching context’, when the coachees gave feedback on the coaches. The construct that attracted most instances of feedback was the ‘personality’ category in which every participant received some feedback. A number of constructs relating to elements of the relationship such as ‘trust’ and ‘rapport’ were identified. ‘Rapport’ was a word used very frequently by both coaches and coachees and was seen to be a descriptor that is commonly used in the coaching context.

This section has described the data referring to the creation of the coaching relationship and provides the some of the evidence to address the first and third sub-questions of the research questions:

- 1a. Which precursor factors contribute to the formation of the executive coaching relationship?
- 1c. What knowledge can be derived towards developing a process for identifying ideal executive coaching dyads?

The section sets out the narrative feedback from the overall group of coaches and coachees as they undertook the selection and matching process. This process spanned the stages from before the participants had encountered each other until the matching process took place.

Further evidence addressing these sub-questions is provided in the analysis of the feedback from the coaching pairs and will be addressed, alongside other research questions, below.

4.3 The coaching pairs

4.3.1 Introduction

This section addresses the data that was collected once the coaching pairs had been formed.

The process for the formation of the coaching pairs is set out in section 3.14. Both of the main research questions are addressed in this section. They are:

1. Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?
2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or categories?

The specific sub-questions are addressed in different sections below, as summarized in Table 4.8 below.

	Research question	Addressed under...
1.Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?	1a. Which precursor factors contribute to the formation of the executive coaching relationship?	4.8.1 First impressions 4.8.4 Surface- and deep-level diversity factors 4.8.13 Contracting 4.8.14 CV/bio information vs importance of speed-chemistry sessions
	1b. Once a dyadic relationship has been initiated, how does it evolve in the process of a normal executive coaching programme of sessions?	4.8.3 First session 4.8.5 Relationship in the first session 4.8.6 Second and third sessions 4.8.7 Conclusion of relationship 4.8.11 Critical points 4.8.12 Further coaching 4.8.16 Attributes of the ideal coach
	1c. What knowledge can be derived towards developing a process for identifying ideal executive coaching dyads?	4.8.1 First impressions 4.8.2 Decision 4.8.4 Surface- and deep-level diversity factors 4.8.14 CV/bio information vs importance of speed-chemistry sessions

		4.8.15 Validity of choice of coach/coachee 4.8.17 Opinion of process used and ideal matching process
2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?	2a. Is it possible to develop a new theoretical proposition for a typology of coaching relationships which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for future coaching professionals?	4.8.3 First session 4.8.5 Relationship in the first session 4.8.6 Second and third sessions 4.8.7 Conclusion of relationship 4.8.8 Overall impression of relationship 4.8.9 Trust 4.8.10 Words and phrases to describe the overall coaching relationship

Table 4.8 Sections answering the research questions and sub-questions

4.3.2 Overall approach

Each coaching pair formed the unit of analysis in this case study based exploration of the coaching relationship. The interaction between each coach and their coachee was at the heart of the search for similarities, differences or patterns within the relationships. In order to undertake the search the reflexive diaries and interview transcripts for each coaching pair were examined in detail. This part of the data analysis was concerned with discovering the presence of constructs from existing literature; emergent constructs which were driven by the data and, most importantly, the similarity or difference of response and patterns of response between each party.

The data were treated both as within-case and between-case analysis so as to identify overall constructs for comparison and issues that occurred specifically within a case that might suggest characteristics for the creation of a potential conceptual framework of coaching relationships. Data from between-case comparisons were used to uncover patterns that might suggest how the dyadic relationship progressed and identify potential phases within the coaching process. This analysis also uncovered characteristics of the nature of the coaching relationship between the pairs and these observations are also reflected in this section and summarised in the following conclusions chapter.

4.4 Between-case comparison

The data from all of the interview and reflexive diary transcripts were used to examine different constructs. These fell into two groups; constructs emerging from the literature and those suggested from the data set. Framework Analysis (Ritchie et al., 2003) (see section 3.20.4) was used to identify the constructs and to break them down into useful sub-constructs to facilitate comparison. The transcripts were initially imported into NVivo™ and coding was carried out using the CAQDAS system (see Appendix XII). The data from the interviews and the reflexive diaries were coded within the system and subsequently these were formed into Frameworks for analysis (see Appendix XIV). From examination of the transcripts, nineteen constructs or themes were identified (see Appendix XV) and each one was subjected to the analysis process described. Each of the constructs will be examined below.

4.4.1 First impressions

The first impressions of the coaches and coachees of their potential counterparts were further divided into the sub-themes of; enthusiasm, rapport, interest in coaching, similarity/difference, surface-/deep-level diversity and comparison with other coaches/coachees. The responses, where given, were almost all expressed in positive terms suggesting that they approached their eventual coaching partner with an optimistic attitude.

When describing the level of enthusiasm, a variety of expressions were used: ‘fresh, young, dynamic’ (about UUC18) and ‘she was pretty switched on’ (about UUC25). The responses from coachees about their coaches focused more on terms such as ‘good and active listener’ (about FZC69), ‘very calm’ (about FZC72, 76 and 81), and ‘laid-back’ (about FZC76 and 80), suggesting that the general attributes being identified by coaches and coachees varied somewhat and that energy levels played a part in the positive selection by each side.

Both groups reported fulsomely on the issue of rapport. Twenty of the twenty-eight participants responded in this area, all noting that the rapport between them and their future partner was positive. The word ‘rapport’ was not always used but terms that reflected the same context were grouped within this sub-theme. These included descriptions such as ‘body language told me she was facing me and facing into what I saying and engaging with it’ (UUC21 about FZC72). Coaches tended to use the actual word ‘rapport’ more frequently than coachees suggesting that it is an adopted word in the vocabulary of coaches but not necessarily of coachees, especially those who have not had exposure to the coaching process before. Many comments reflected that a connection between the two was established very quickly, for example, ‘rapport straight-away’ (FZC80).

When considering the level of interest in coaching in this initial meeting, it was primarily the coaches who noted this about their prospective coachees. Only one coachee commented in this context ‘acknowledged the thing I wanted to be coached on’ (UUC44). Several coaches noted this interest: ‘clear goal’, (FZC69), ‘really keen to do something with the coaching process’ (FZC76) and ‘recognised a need, and that he would get benefit’ (FZC99).

On the issue of similarity and difference, these were occasionally noted by each side. Two participants, who became a coaching pair, cited their cultural similarity as a positive attribute (FZC103 and UUC52). One coach and one coachee picked up on similar personality types, though for the coach in question (FZC72) this was deemed to be a positive point while for the coachee (UUC08), it was a negative.

Surface- and deep-level diversity factors were mentioned in this construct though they are also addressed specifically below.

Finally, in comparing their chosen partner with the other participants in the panel, a variety of points were noted. Most common was that the participant could not recall the other two

opposite numbers in the group (FZC72, 76, 87) or, from the coaches, that they would have been happy to coach all three coachees (FZC69 and 80). One coach noted that the coachee that attracted them most in the speed-coaching had been their least favourite at the CV stage of the process (FZC92).

4.4.2 Decision

This construct aimed to identify whether there were any specific issues that supported or led to the decision to prioritise the coaches/coachees in any particular way and what directed the participant to 'choose' a specific preferred opposite number. A number of sub-constructs emerged around intellectual matching (FZC81), demeanour of the coach/coachee, similarity (FZC76, 98), difference (UUC27), natural rapport or empathy (FZC64, 87, UUC10, 27, 37), intuition (FZC87), probability of benefiting from coaching (FZC98) and ability to be open (UUC25).

4.4.3 First session

This construct comprised several sub-constructs: the environment of the coachee, the level of formality between the pair, the nature of the coaching issue, the scope of the first session and the level of exchange of personal information.

Firstly, particular facets of the chosen environment of the coaching session were influential in some relationships. In one coaching pair specifically (FZC103 and UUC52) the first coaching session was held at the coach's home and partly because of this was problematic from the start. This is in contrast with the relationship between coach FZC72 and coachee UUC21 which also took place at the coach's home, but where environment did not inhibit the relationship. In fact, it is regular practice for coaching sessions to be conducted at the coach's home if this is their place of office. Many of the coaching sessions were held at the coachee's place of work which was usually much appreciated by the coachee as it was seen to be less disruptive to their working day. Others took place at a neutral venue such as

Henley Business School, an environment that also seems to have been appreciated by the coachees concerned.

Another sub-construct of this theme was the level of formality, or professional tone, of the first session. Some examples were described as 'professional' (coach no. FZC80), and noted that there was an apparent lack of 'warmth' which was normally present in his coaching relationships. This assessment was also made by coach FZC81 who noted that her coachee did not seem to want to engage in 'chit chat' before or after the session and that the normal 'settling in' of the relationship through light conversation was missing. However, by contrast with the first example, the second relationship was felt to be more 'engaged' throughout the actual session. Two coaching pairs noted that before their session it was quite awkward to engage in 'small talk' (FZC81/UUC30 and FZC69/UUC18), but once the coaching had commenced the relationship was good and the session progressed well.

A third theme was the nature of the coaching issue. This appeared to be linked to the implicit knowledge that the coaching was part of a research project. A number of coaching pairs noted that they were able to identify and work on real coaching issues and that the research element was usefully put to one side.

The scope of the first coaching session was also a point of note. Coach FZC92 noted that her coachee seemed to need the first session to have a 'verbal outpouring of stuff' which the coachee (UUC42) found 'very useful'. A similar pattern was noted by coach FZC76 who said 'part of the first session was talking through that and trying to be clear that she was clear about what the sessions could offer her'. Another coachee (UUC37), who had no previous experience of coaching, seemed keen to grasp the concept quickly and move directly into the process with little preamble. He is described by his coach (FZC87) as 'fairly cut and dried'; he came prepared with various issues and spent the first session exploring these issues.

A level of exchange of personal information was seen to be a helpful facet in the first session. Coachee UUC10 gave an example of the coach offering some personal insights in order to build early rapport with the coachee and said that these anecdotes helped to identify similarities between them and areas in which the coach would have empathy with the coachee.

4.4.4 Surface-level and deep-level diversity factors

Surface-level and deep-level diversity factors covered a range of observations in the following categories: physical attributes, gender, age, cultural background, professional appearance. One coach noted her initial reaction, 'Height! She was younger than I remembered as well'. (FZC62)

Age was also linked to experience, so older coaches were seen to be more experienced, but the coachees could be of any age. Sometimes an age gap was observed (FZC62/UUC08). General descriptions citing a number of attributes were made with observations such as 'a mature woman' (about UUC21), 'not dissimilar in age to me'. One coach (FZC69) noted that she had had a speed-coaching session with a male who was quite a bit younger than her and wondered if he would feel he was being coached by 'his mother' if they were matched together.

Professional appearance was cited as being a positive factor, that is where the coach appeared professionally dressed and a negative when the coachee appeared less professional by the nature of his/her appearance. One coach noted that she usually liked to coach people who were of a similarly 'professional' type to him/herself and that if his/her coachees were all gathered in a room the similarities would be obvious.

There were attributes other than the more 'outwardly' obvious ones that were noted. One coach decided against a coachee candidate because they did not smile and were very 'self-contained'. Another coach (FZC94) noticed that her coachee seemed possibly nervous and a

bit unsure of himself which made her consider the choice, but once they began coaching these impressions changed for the positive. Voice tone was also noted by coachee UUC21 regarding her coach, FZC72. There were also observations of more ‘under the surface’ issues, such as being non-judgemental and supportive.

A final category for identifying with another participant was their cultural background. Two coaching pairs were formed based on empathy with each other’s geographical origins (FZC98/UUC46 and FZC103/UUC52).

A number of participants stated that they tried to set aside issues relating to surface-level factors or instant impressions (for example, FZC80). Others noted that there were no particular attributes that attracted them to their coaches/coachees or had put them off other coaches/coachees.

4.4.5 Relationship in the first session

The main words used at this stage of the coaching process were ‘friendly’ (FZC72, 103), ‘open/honest’ (UUC46) and ‘professional’ (FZC72). There were limited reflections on this point but they were generally positive. One coachee (UUC27) noted that the relationship at the end of the first session was somewhat ‘unstructured’ reflecting the fact that there was much work to be done in subsequent sessions and that she felt ‘optimistic’ that this would be accomplished. There was also a positive report from coachee UUC18 who noted that the first real session felt like a continuation from the speed-chemistry session and that the relationship went ‘up and up’. The productivity of the first session was noted by coach FZC92, yet she also observed that they had ‘only just touched the surface’ and that there was ‘a lot more to go through’. Her coachee (UUC42) described the relationship at this stage as ‘relaxed, open, trusting and insightful’ and that there was an element of ‘mutual sharing’.

Commonality of interest or content was noted by coach FZC69 which led to the first session feeling that it ‘galloped along’. She felt that there was a lot of empathy and common ground.

This sense of urgency to reach a productive relationship was also experienced by coach FZC76. There was a feeling in both reflections of building on a relationship that had been started in the speed-chemistry sessions, and both noted that they naturally developed relationships that they felt were going to be very positive.

A more cautious approach was described by coachee UUC30 who noted that she and her coach (FZC81) were both 'a bit careful', as they did not know each other well. One of the attributes of their relationship that she particularly noted was her coach's willingness to give her time to think about things and not push her or rush her into answers. As an introvert this coachee appreciated that understanding so early in the relationship.

4.4.6 Second and third sessions

A similar set of reflections were elicited to describe the two remaining coaching sessions that the pairs had agreed to undertake.

One relationship (coach FZC103 and coachee UUC52) experienced a particular set of circumstances that did not seem to have been the case for any of the other pairs. This relationship did not seem to follow any conventional pattern of coaching and could only be described as 'volatile'. The coach tried repeatedly to use her coaching skills and techniques to bring the sessions back to the core goals or themes, but seems to have had little success.

A second pairing also experienced some problems during the latter sessions, however these problems stemmed from the coachee repeatedly cancelling sessions with little notice. Such behaviour clearly affected the coaching relationship. The coach (FZC72) noted that had the coachee (UUC21) been a paying client a different course of action would have been taken. In this case the issue of the research had an effect on the relationship by keeping it going when otherwise it might have ended.

Another version of frustration in the relationship was expressed by coach FZC92 with regard to coachee UUC42. The frustrations occurred around action agreed on between sessions which the coachee did not complete and the fact that there were large gaps between sessions where he would 'drop off the radar'.

Other coaching pairs reflected more on the nature of their relationship: coach FZC80 noted that he felt that he was 'holding back' in relationship terms, which he felt was unhelpful to the coachee and so endeavoured to shift to a different stance. The relationship remained 'functional', which he felt was driven by the coachee and the goal they were working on. The coachee in turn found the relationship 'a bit frustrating'. A more positive relationship was that between coach FZC69 and coachee UUC18. They seemed to progress from speed-chemistry session to session 1 and then through to sessions 2 and 3 naturally, and were highly engaged in challenging issues with much common ground in terms of interests and content between them. Similar dynamic positivity was experienced by coach FZC76 and coachee UUC25. Their relationship underwent a transition or critical point with the adoption of the 'time to think' methodology (Kline, 1999) which seemed to energize them both and deepen the relationship even further.

4.4.7 Conclusion of relationship

The majority of participants reflected that the relationship was concluded in a professional and courteous way (FZC72, 81, 94, 98 and 99), though one seemed to end abruptly (UUC49) and another amicably (FZC98, UUC46). The conclusions often included reviews of what was carried out or achieved and in some cases a request for feedback, usually by the coach from the coachee (FZC80, 92). Satisfaction with the relationship, the coaching process and the outcomes was often expressed (FZC94, UUC30).

Once the coaching sessions had been concluded, some coaching pairs had further contact and some appeared not to or did not mention this. Coach FZC81 and her coachee UUC30

both expressed the wish to carry on coaching and to stay in touch, however, practical issues have prevented this happening. The promise or desire to stay in touch was expressed by other pairs, for example FZC92 and UUC42, who did in fact continue with their coaching relationship beyond the research stage. Other participants also expressed a desire or willingness for further contact (FZC64, 98, UUC52), though it is not known whether this actually took place.

4.4.8 Overall impression of relationship

Most of the feedback on this construct was provided by the coachees. The only real comment from a coach was that the relationship was ‘solid’, ‘good’, ‘sound’ (FZC76). Coachee UUC27 described the overall relationship as ‘open and honest’ and that she felt ‘supported’. The level of personal connection was also important to coachee UUC10. She noted that it was ‘personal, but professional enough’ and that it came to a ‘positive close’. One coaching relationship (FZC103/UUC52) seemed to have different characteristics from most (see other constructs) and coachee reflected that their relationship ‘was not professional enough’.

4.4.9 Trust

One coach experienced particular issues with trust regarding her coachee (FZC72). She noted her value set which rated trust very highly and which was based in part on reliability. That the coachee was consistently unreliable led to damage of the trust in the relationship. By contrast, coachee UUC10 was keen to note that very high levels of trust had existed between her and her coach (FZC58). She reflected that she felt highly confident that anything spoken of within the coaching session would be treated with the utmost confidentiality and, not only that, would be respected and not judged in any way.

4.4.10 Words and phrases to describe the overall coaching relationship

All participants were asked to use some words and/or phrases to summarize the coaching relationship that they experienced. The following is the feedback that was given (in no particular order):

Coaches: rapport, trust, empathy, openness, supportive, closeness, distance, flaky, transactional, integrity (presence and absence of), familiarity, honesty, exploratory, sister, protective, relaxed, (relationship was) too short!, useful, continually developing, challenging, clean, objective.

Coachees: rapport, empathy, openness, trust, professional, functional, task focused, supportive, mutual respect, integrity, challenging, mutual, objective, engaged, concerned, similarity, friendly, gentle (too much), mentory [sic], generous, cynical, negative, optimistic, searching, reflective, two-way, laughter, observing, listening, business-like, not warm, flexible, balanced, congruent, productive, easy, mutually beneficial.

4.4.11 Critical points

The issue of critical points in coaching has been discussed at length by de Haan et al. (2010) when studying a number of former clients who reflected that critical moments were not obviously essential to good coaching, but that they tended to be positive and linked with important outcomes and often involved new realizations. The reflections from the participants in this research were as follows:

- Critical moments were reported by some participants both positively and negatively. Coach FZC72 cited the way in which sessions were cancelled as being pivotal to the nature of the relationship in a detrimental way, as it destroyed trust and was, ‘thoughtless ... irresponsible and disrespectful’.
- For one coach the so-called ‘aha’ moment was a point of self-discovery in that she realized she did not need to be ‘intimidated by a CV’. This allowed her to get into

the coaching conversation much more as an equal partner and made her feel ‘much more empowered’.

- Generally speaking the critical moments were points of movement made by the coachee that affected the dynamics of the relationship. This could be around issues of self-disclosure (FZC81/UUC30, FZC80/UUC27, and FZC103/UUC52), or self-awareness (UUC46, UUC10), clarification of goal (UUC42), finding what the coachee really enjoyed and setting a practical course of action (UUC18), identifying a process to work on together (FZC76 and UUC25 with Nancy Kline’s *Time to Think* (1999)).

What was most noticeable in this set of feedback constructs was the level of consistency with what the coaches and coachees reported as being their critical moments and how it affected their relationships. There was clear congruence in the attention paid to these and also how they were reported by each side.

4.4.12 Further coaching

There were some quite contrasting responses to this issue. The coaching pair FZC103/UUC52 expressed a clear wish to continue with their coaching relationship, though the coach noted that she felt the relationship needed ‘a re-boot’. Whereas, coach FZC72 stated that she would undertake further coaching, but that ‘the contracting would be on my terms’. Coaches FZC69, 76, 87, 92, 94, 98 and 99 were clear that they would be very willing to coach their coachees further. Likewise coachees UUC13, 25, 27, 30, 42, 44, 46 and 49 were very positive about further coaching.

4.4.13 Contracting

Contracting was carried out in all coaching pairs. It was seen to be a key element or even essential in establishing an early relationship. Contracting mainly covered areas such as; confidentiality, arranging appointments, ethics and clarification of the definitions of

coaching. The level of conversation around contracting seemed to vary in depth: coach FZC72 felt that it had not been covered sufficiently and that this affected the developing relationship. The coachee in this pair also reflected that it was ‘not terribly formal’, but was ‘completely at ease’. Coach FZC76 also felt that it could have been more vigorous and his coachee (UUC25) expected more guidance than was given, a deficit that was addressed later.

Some coaches provided a written ‘contract’ or guidance for their coachees (FZC69, 81), while others provided this information orally in discussion with their coachee. Most coaches carried out the contracting conversation at the start of the first session only, but some, FZC92 for example, reviewed this agreement at the start of each session.

Another aspect of contracting seemed to be the issue of the coaching being part of a research project and that this altered the parameters of the coaching compared with a commercial arrangement. Since fees were not being charged the issue of missed or changed appointments was, in some cases (e.g. FZC72), problematic. By contrast, contracting was seen by one coachee (UUC27) as beneficial in establishing that the coaching would be ‘more than part of just a little project’.

4.4.14 CV/bio information vs. importance of speed-chemistry sessions

Most of the participants who gave responses to this construct felt that the CV/biographical material was a supplement to, but not a replacement for, the face-to-face meeting. Coach FZC62 noted that, ‘the written stuff doesn’t tell you what it’s going to feel like, does it, but what it does do is to reassure you in a way that this is someone you should get on with ... it helps you with ticking through the processes’. Another participant (coachee UUC10) reflected that, ‘Chemistry sessions were a lot more important than choosing on paper’. In those three minutes you can just see from somebody’s body language, their tone, their

demeanour, and you kind of think “yes, this is going to work”, or “no this is not going to work””.

A stated use for the paper-based information was a tool for eliminating some coaches if there were attributes or elements in their background which the coachee could immediately identify as unsuitable to their needs (UUC21). There were varied reflections on whether the choice of coach or coachee would have remained the same after the speed-chemistry sessions without the paper-based information. This seemed to be coupled with the issue of this stage being conducted anonymously and whether it would have been more useful had the identity of the participants been known. One coachee clearly recalled that had he only had the paper-based information his choice would have been different (UUC42) and that he was very glad to have been able to meet the coaches and make the ‘right’ decision for him.

4.4.15 Validity of choice of coach/coachee

All participants were asked if they would choose the same opposite number again. In other words did they feel that they had made a valid decision at the beginning to choose their given coach or coachee. This was a difficult question and the answers must be flawed to a certain extent, since none of them had had coaching sessions with their not preferred choice in order to make a proper comparison. However, the level of information that could be gathered by asking this question was whether they felt that their choice had benefited them and whether they felt a good choice had been made.

All of the coaches answered that they felt that they had made a good choice. And all but one of the coachees answered that they felt that they had chosen the right coach for them.

4.4.16 Attributes of the ideal coach

A number of sub-constructs emerged to group together the suggested attributes of the ideal coach: level of empathy, flexibility, process, confidence and self-belief, type of approach,

coaching skills, confidentiality, genuine interest in the coachee, authenticity, desire to make a difference and emotional intelligence.

The above factors were identified by several participants. Coaches FZC72 and 76 noted that the core skills of the coach and particularly the skill of active listening were very important, a view shared by coachee UUC27 who added that the coach should be non-judgemental too. This could be linked to the level of interest shown in the coachee and the presence of ‘unconditional positive regard’ as suggested by Carl Rogers (1961) and a genuine desire to make a difference (FZC80). Coachee UUC21 noted that the levels of integrity, empathy and worldly experience of the coach were key to the level of comfort that the coachee felt, a point supported by coachee UUC25 who looked for ‘someone who can guide’ and ‘who I could trust’.

Providing the coachee with a safe environment in which confidentiality was assured was seen as vital to establish and develop the best possible relationship (FZC72). The confidence of the coach ‘to be there in the moment, with authenticity’ (FZC80) also spoke to the creation of an environment in which the coachee could get the best out of the interaction. Coachee UUC30 suggested that there was a required balance between the coach being challenging and supportive and that the ideal coach would be sensitive to this point and adjust their approach to suit each individual coachee.

The acknowledgement of the uniqueness of the individual led to several comments regarding the requirement of the coach to be flexible and agile (FZC62 and 72), specifically being adaptable to what the coachee needed and ‘understanding the complexities’ of the situation were deemed necessary attributes. The closeness or distance from the coachee might be an aspect of this flexibility (UUC30) in that the coach should be sensitive to the level of intimacy desired by the coachee according to their personality type.

By contrast some feedback was given on the attributes of the ideal coachee. Coach FZC72 felt that genuinely being able to ‘get along with’ the coachee was a very positive factor.

4.4.17 Opinion of process used and ideal matching process

The participants were asked to reflect on the process used during the research data collection to carry out the matching of coaches and coachees. They were also asked for their views on what they felt would be an ideal process for selection and matching of coaching pairs. Their responses are given below:

Opinion of process used: Not much feedback was given on this (some is given on ideal process below). The coaches’ feedback varied between the speed-chemistry session process being ‘fascinating and fun’ to it ‘creating more anxiety’ by being in an open space (private rooms for each coach would have alleviated this issue).

By contrast, the feedback from the coachees was much more positive. Most felt that the individual timed sessions were too short and that possibly ten-minute sessions would be more useful. One person (UUC37) felt that the time was adequate.

Ideal matching process: A requirement to be able to create deep and trusting relationships was seen to be a vital element of the matching process (FZC103). For this to exist there needed to be openness and honesty and the coachee must ‘want to be coached’.

A number of coaches and coachees felt that the general ‘speed-chemistry’ session process worked well (FZC62, 72 and 99, UUC13), though some suggested variations in the time used from five minutes up to twenty minutes per pair. One coach used a much longer initial interview of about an hour which was a two-way process of agreement. To supplement this, coach FZC76 suggested the addition of paper-based information so as to have some knowledge of each other in advance on background, experience, interests, philosophy to allow an ‘instant assessment’ of likely fit. However, he felt that the most vital element of

matching was the ‘chemistry’ between the two parties. The coachees also generally supported the paper-based information exchange plus face-to-face session.

One coachee (FZC10) suggested the use of an intermediary or pre-chemistry session to identify the topic or type of issue to be coached on and the type of coach (supportive/challenging, similar/different) required.

One coach (FZC80) suggested that matching should be based on ‘issue vs. skill’ and that it was not about personalities. This conflicted with much of the reflection in other responses where the role of the face-to-face meeting and intuition was felt to be strong. He went on to say that he does not believe in matching at all and that, ‘I think any coach who has the ability to demonstrate empathy, to work to truly work to a coachee’s agenda and not be knocked off course by their own issues can work effectively with any coachee’. In less vehement terms this was broadly echoed by coach FZC64 who reflected that in ‘real life’ often a choice was not given and also selection was made based on previous experience, for example, when choosing board level coaches previous experience was essential.

As a different strategy one coachee (UUC30) suggested that they would contact ‘a good “body” in the coaching world’ and get their advice on finding the right coach. Another (UUC08) felt that a personal introduction was a good way to meet the right coach as a recommendation by someone you trusted was likely to be helpful.

4.4.18 Any other points?

A few points were made that were not captured in the constructs identified above, however, these were useful comments on the nature and patterns of coaching relationships and so have been captured here.

One coach noted that the formation of the coaching relationship was not linear (FZC103); that it required an ‘accelerated movement past the social surface ... creating instability at the

beginning of the relationship'. Another (FZC92) questioned how we could be sure about 'chemistry' and that you were doing the best for your coachee, given that different profiles brought up different challenges. Coach FZC64 stated that he felt the more we could know about the coaching relationship the better. He noted that, 'Too often coaches and coachees are pushed together for whatever reason and sometimes it works and sometimes it doesn't' and that 'if there are some identifiable, or best methods or best practices that might work better than others perhaps, then to me that's great, the more the merrier'.

A possible variable to the process was highlighted by coachees UUC10 and 30 who noted that differences in perception might occur between coachees who had or had not experienced coaching previously. Those with prior experience being familiar with the language and process of coaching and possibly more aware of what they were seeking and what to observe in making their choice of coach. This issue had arisen as a sub-text in other places in the data and was a potential issue for generalizability of this research and could be an issue for future research.

Finally, several participants noted that the coaching process that was undertaken as part of the research was a useful and interesting experience. The majority of relationships worked out well (inferring positive outcomes) and they were happy with their matching with their opposite number.

4.5 Within-case comparison

4.5.1 Introduction

This section presents the data given by each coaching pair in turn through their semi-structured interviews and reflexive diaries. These results are presented sequentially coaching pair by coaching pair so as to emphasise the importance of each individual relationship and to compare the responses between the two participants in each case. The main thematic

analysis is covered in the between-case presentation given above. The results presented below primarily answer the second main research question and sub-question:

2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?
 - a. Is it possible to develop a new theoretical proposition for a typology of coaching relationships which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for future coaching professionals?

The exploration of the discourse of each pair is presented below. The details of the outcomes for the first coaching pair are presented in full with a summary narrative and a table giving key findings, and example of which is shown in Table 4.9 below. Thereafter, for each pair, the summary narrative and outcome table is provided, showing the main points presented by that pair. The full account for each coaching pair can be found in Appendix XV. For each pair, the overall perceived outcome is given as positive, equivocal or negative. Some key words are also provided which have been extracted from the transcripts as either common or contrasting perceptions of the two participants. Finally, two main dimensions emerged from taking an overview of all of the coaching pair transcripts. These were; Pace and Partnership. Each pair gave feedback that related to the level of energy or pace that existed between them and the level of collaboration or partnership.

Pace can be further described as a level of dynamic state operating between the coach and coachee: Were they highly motivated or more relaxed? Were they energized or more laid-back? Were they action orientated or more reflective?

Partnership might be described as the level of equality between the coach and coachee. This might be equality of time of speaking, of perceived status, of mutual appreciation or concern or of shared desire for outcomes. Partnership may also be used as a metaphor for conflict.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive
Key words	Empathy, politeness, courtesy, modesty, similarity
	Need for challenge
Level of Partnership	High Both parties were equal partners in the relationship. Trust and rapport were strong
Level of Pace	Low The coach took a reflective stance in the relationship, allowing the coachee to 'have her voice'. This was a low activity partnership, albeit a very positive one.

Table 4.9 Example of summary box following detailed presentation of each coaching pair

The interview and reflexive diary transcripts for each coaching pair were subject to detailed analysis. The transcript for the coach and coachee were examined side by side using a manual coding process (see Appendix XV). Key constructs were identified in each participant's responses and these were compared so as to bring out similarities, differences and, most importantly, specific themes, that suggested the overall characteristics of that coaching relationship. Summaries of this analysis are presented below for each individual coaching pair. The narrative describes the specific points highlighted by each participant and identifies where these were shared by their opposite number or contradicted by them. Any points of distinction are drawn out and verbatim comments made by the participants to illustrate a particular mechanism or belief are included. At the conclusion of the narrative description of the outcomes of each coaching pair there is a summary box that highlights any points felt to be of significance and which are used to identify patterns amongst the different pairs.

4.5.2 Coaching pair 1

The dynamics within the coaching relationship in pair no. 1 were very positive. As this pair was formed during the pilot phase of the data collection there had been a choice of six coaches and coachees. The coach in this case was not the coachee's first choice (she was

second). In her interview this gave rise to comments that she had remembered her first choice of coach as being '*rational and professional*', where the others were 'nice'. She felt that the information on the CV/biography forms did not give much help and that she did not deliberately choose or select out based on MBTI® type personality profile. She reflected at several points in her interview that she was not looking for a coach that was 'nice' but rather for someone who would challenge her.

The coach's experience of the speed-chemistry session at a surface level was that this coachee had a '*sweet way*' of excusing her nervousness and that she displayed shyness as if she was '*not quite used to this type of encounter*'. The coach was frustrated by the speed sessions as she felt pressure to make progress and left the session feeling that she would have liked to progress to 'building up' the coachee had time allowed. In her interview the coach ruminated on whether surface-level factors played a part in making a matching choice and felt that unconsciously they probably did but cognitively they should not be an influence, especially for the coach who should be prepared to coach any client. She noted that she had 'clocked' the gender mix of the group, thought that her coachee 'looked tired' and wondered if she might be under pressure, was stressed or unwell, or whether this was her normal demeanour. This was noted in a compassionate way and showed further interest in working with her.

The coach reported extended preparation periods of at least one hour before each coaching session. This was so that she was relaxed and ready for the coaching sessions. She noted that this enabled her to feel 'fully present' in the sessions.

Initially the coach felt that the coachee was shy, introverted and uncomfortable with small talk and with new people. When they met the coach described the coachee as appearing to be 'animated, highly-strung, very smiley with little eye contact'. Both coach and coachee noted the benefit of sharing initial personal details and anecdotes. This resulted in the

conversation settling quickly and the coachee became more relaxed. It was clearly a 'rapport-building' process. The coachee commented that she was impressed that the coach asked permission to 'go out' of coaching mode to share a story and that these stories were usually relevant and helpful-one producing an 'aha' moment for the coachee in enabling her to look at the situation at hand from a completely different point of view – *'that's what I am doing, so I should stop doing that'*. The coach also noted this point and stated that she felt that it increased the level of intimacy between the pair.

A key element for the coaching relationship was the balance of input from each side. The coach allowed the coachee to do the majority of the talking, giving her much space and allowing silences. About the coachee, the coach noted: *'With only the gentlest of prompts and interventions from me, she dissected the issue beautifully and got to some clear insights'*.

The final coaching session was conducted by telephone. Whilst the coach had wondered if this might be problematic both reported that the relationship having been established, it actually worked very well with no detriment to the quality of the session. In fact they each made observations to demonstrate the familiarity that they had established. They felt that they could fill in the 'visual blanks'.

The coachee described the conclusion of the relationship as *'a positive close'*, that there had been a personal connection which was 'professional enough'. The coach felt that the relationship 'drew to a natural conclusion'. The coachee noted, *'really, really strong levels of trust'* between the pair.

In some general questions the coachee went into some detail about the importance of the relationship in terms of the level of challenge. Her second point was that she felt it important to match up with a coach based on the issue to be discussed and that this would guide her on

the level of similarity or difference, empathy or challenge that would be appropriate. She also had some clear suggestions for the matching process in that she felt that a ‘*pre-coaching coaching diagnostic*’ session would be helpful with someone asking the question: ‘*What do you think a good coach would look like for you?*’ She also believed that knowledge of previous coaching experience was important as you then knew what worked for you and what did not.

Summary

Coaching Pair 1 experienced a positive relationship. The coach had not been the coachee’s first choice and the coachee felt that she might have appreciated more challenge. They both appreciated a ‘rapport-building’ stage in the development of the relationship. The relationship appeared to be close though rather polite. Once established, the coaching relationship remained solid throughout the three sessions.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive
Key words	Empathy, politeness, courtesy, modesty, similarity
	Need for challenge
Level of collaboration	High Both parties were equal partners in the relationship. Trust and rapport were strong
Level of Pace	Low The coach took a reflective stance in the relationship, allowing the coachee to ‘have her voice’. This was a low activity partnership, albeit a very positive one.

Table 4.10 Summary for Coaching Pair 1

4.5.3 Coaching pair 2

The energy levels between this coach and coachee differed quite markedly, with the coach being enthused and positive about the pairing and the coachee being more ambivalent. They were of the same MBTI® type which pleased the coach, but left the coachee wondering if it would work for or against a successful relationship. Trust, respect and rapport were all present between the participants. Both felt that they had rapport which was ‘*clear and*

enjoyable'. The coach's flexibility and understanding were, however, much appreciated by the coachee. The coachee reflected that she would have like to have 'driven' the relationship more and had more challenge. The relationship concluded amicably.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive overall.
Keywords	Empathetic rather than challenging, committed, clear and enjoyable rapport.
Level of Partnership	Low. The coachee wanted more challenge, though was appreciative of many aspects of the coach. The coach enjoyed the similarities more than did the coachee.
Level of Pace	Medium/low. 'An easy conversation between friends' (Coach). Empathetic rather than challenging (coachee).

Table 4.11 Summary for Coaching Pair 2

4.5.4 Coaching pair 3

Both participants in this relationship used similar words to describe the pairing, such as 'comfortable' and 'honest'. The energy between them was always positive, but increased noticeably after a critical moment which changed the dynamic. The energy level diminished slightly in session 3 compared with session 2 which was seen as a high point. They resolved some initial difficulties in the coaching environment. The relationship was very even and equally balanced. It was brought to an amicable close with both parties saying that they would be happy to work together again.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive (Coachee <i>'Good experience. Glad I did it'</i>).
Descriptions	Balanced, mutual, partnership. Comfortable. Honest. Empathetic.
Level of Partnership	High. Very evenly balanced. Though the coachee wondered if this was because the experience was part of the research and might have been different had he been paying for the coaching.
Level of Pace	Medium to high. Increased after critical moment.

Table 4.12 Summary for Coaching Pair 3

4.5.5 Coaching pair 4

This relationship had the overall semblance of a very professional partnership – a coachee who was 'fresh and young and dynamic' with a senior, experienced coach. Each was attracted to working with the other. The interactions remained professional without straying

into small talk, although the coachee felt that it was valuable that the coach revealed some information about herself. Environment was again an important factor. Both participants noted concern beforehand that the second session was by telephone, but that it had, after all, been successful. The relationship ended on a frustrating note with the both being conscious of the time constraint. However, overall, both reported that it had been very positive with good energy and a number of critical moments.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive.
Descriptions	Natural, professional, empathetic with challenging moments, <i>'Something that worked'</i> . <i>'A welcome synchronicity'</i> .
Level of Partnership	High. The contrasting experience levels were complementary and each derived satisfaction from working with the other.
Level of Pace	High. Both participants were motivated and keen to rise to the challenge.

Table 4.13 Summary for Coaching Pair 4

4.5.6 Coaching pair 5

The coach was very impressed with the coachee who had stood out at the matching stage. The coachee was also positive about the coach who was sufficiently senior and experienced for her needs. The relationship at the start was described as 'very mutual'. However, due to some appointment issues, the coach began to be irritated by the coachee and regretted not making the contracting process more formal. The coachee was satisfied overall with the relationship and outcomes; she felt that it had high integrity and did not allude to the scheduling difficulties. For the coach, the relationship became 'transactional'. The coaching was concluded 'courteously'.

Summary	
Outcome	Mixed.
Descriptions	Mutual, professional, friendly (coachee). Productive (coach). Clear dichotomy between within coaching sessions and contracting arrangements. Plainly affects coaching relationship for coach.
Level of Partnership	Low/medium. Almost toxic from the coach's point of view.
Level of Pace	Medium/high.

Table 4.14 Summary for Coaching Pair 5

4.5.7 Coaching pair 6

Both participants agreed that this was a beneficial partnership. The coachee had not had coaching previously and the coach had not coached for a while. They reported a ‘growing understanding’ during the first session. There was a distinct critical moment in the third session when they chose to follow Kline’s time to think’ methodology (Kline, 1999). Moderate challenge was reported and there were high levels of rapport, honesty, openness and trust. The final session was described as ‘intense’ and helped them to form a real bond. Both coaches reported being very satisfied with the choice that they had made to work together.

Summary	
Outcome	(Very) Positive.
Descriptions	Comfortable at first, synergy, exciting, continually developing, willingness to try, bond. Last session ‘intense’.
Level of Partnership	High. Each took the opportunity to lead the other in a positive way.
Level of Pace	High. Although a comfortable relationship, much was tried in a short space of time.

Table 4.15 Summary for Coaching Pair 6

4.5.8 Coaching pair 7

This was a contradictory pairing. The coach gives a low-key account of the relationship and seemed concerned that his own performance was satisfactory. The coachee had been attracted to the coach because of his laid-back approach and active listening skills. The coach continued to be subdued about the relationship and his reports indicate a lack of energy towards the coachee who, on the other hand, reports enjoying the sessions and the use of various coaching tools. The coachee was very respectful of the coach. The coach felt that there had been ‘*superficial rapport*’ and ‘*trust up to a point*’. The conclusion of the relationship was one of unfinished business.

Summary	
Outcome	Mixed
	Mis-matched
Descriptions	Warmth/lack of warmth. Respect, mutual trust, building relationship (coachee). Formal, professional, ‘going through the motions’ (coach)
Level of Partnership	Low
Level of Pace	Low

Table 4.16 Summary for Coaching Pair 7

4.5.9 Coaching pair 8

The matching of this pair was a success from start to finish. Each described the other as ‘professional’ throughout. There was good rapport from the start. It was important for the coach that she worked with people who were her intellectual equivalent and she felt that she had found that with this coachee. The coachee noted the effective questioning of the coach. The coach’s overall summary of the relationship was that it was an, *‘even, equal, respectful relationship from my point of view. It feels like a solid and calm base – appreciative of each other’*.

Both felt that there were high levels of rapport, openness, integrity, empathy and trust. In terms of bond the coachee felt that this was present *‘to a certain extent’*, but this was stated in a positive sense, ‘someone I can relate to, but not too close’. As an overall impression of coaching, the coachee noted that the sessions had ‘high impact’ and that, *‘it seems such a soft thing, but it can make such a difference in your life’*.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive
Descriptions	Professional, trust, respect, rapport, warmth, ‘close but not chummy’, ‘calm and together’
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	High

Table 4.17 Summary for Coaching Pair 8

4.5.10 Coaching pair 9

The pair was highly satisfied with their match and pursued their coaching relationship with high energy and strong outputs. There was a natural rapport, but the overall relationship was ‘business-like’. The sessions were ‘matter of fact’ and the relationship developed naturally with a high level of mutual trust. The coachee took ownership of agreed tasks and was focused and action orientated towards them. All the words used to describe the relationship were positive on both sides. Both would be more than happy to work together again.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive.
Descriptions	Empathetic (coachee). Solid, clear-minded, mutual trust, matter of fact, clear-cut.
Level of Partnership	High.
Level of Pace	High.

Table 4.18 Summary for Coaching Pair 9

4.5.11 Coaching pair 10

Following a strong impression from the written stage of information, the coach was surprised at the choice of coachee and reflected that matching on MBTI® type was not necessarily a good indicator. The coachee made the choice on perception and they both felt that they struck up an immediate rapport and that there was a genuine connection. Coaching sessions were all productive with positive outcomes. The professionalism of the coach was noted and the coach noted that the coachee was encouraged to drive the agenda. There was a mutuality between them. The relationship was described as empathetic with the right amount of challenge. Coaching has continued beyond the three research sessions.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive
Descriptions	Mutual support, empathy, affinity, listening, energizing, balance of professional and soft, high impact, very productive
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	High

Table 4.19 Summary for Coaching Pair 10

4.5.12 Coaching pair 11

This was described as an ‘easy’ relationship. The coach chose the coachee as he was interesting and articulate and the coachee was impressed, almost awestruck by the coach’s experience and qualifications. The coachee was nervous at first and was conscious of taking the time of such an experienced coach. The relationship quickly settled and became relaxed and there was a gradual development of trust. Over time, the relationship moved to become a much more equal one, which the coach described as comfortable. Trust was strengthened when the coach disclosed some personal information. Overall the relationship was constructive with both challenge and empathy.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive
Descriptions	Comfortable, mutual respect, trust, constructive, relaxed, warm, friendly, energized
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	Medium/Low

Table 4.20 Summary for Coaching Pair 11

4.5.13 Coaching pair 12

A matching of two similar cultures gave this pairing an ‘easiness’ and affinity. The relationship worked well with a good level of balance. Both participants give very similar reflections in both their interviews and diaries. From the beginning, the relationship was very open with clear, easy communication. Descriptions of the coachee by the coach include *‘tenacious, goal-focused and open to suggestions’*. The relationship ranged between challenging and reflective. It was described as *‘professional, but not hierarchical’*.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive
Descriptions	Clean, open, honest, direct, a good functioning relationship, mutually beneficial, easy, useful
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	High

Table 4.21 Summary for Coaching Pair 12

4.5.14 Coaching pair 13

A recognition of need was what drew the coach to the coachee in this pairing and the coachee chose the coach for her professionalism. He noted his preference to work with a female coach. They both referred to their sessions as relaxed with high rapport. Both use the word ‘comfortable’ to describe the relationship. A good structure to the sessions was reported and the coach was felt to be good at listening and reflecting. There was a slightly abrupt ending to the relationship, but the coachee felt that they had reached a natural conclusion anyway and so this didn’t present a problem. Both trust and openness developed gradually and the relationship was described as equal with each willing to work together. For the coachee, trust was a key issue and that this was present, as was a helpful closeness which was beyond coach/coachee level. The choice of venue made the sessions relaxed and informal and gave the relationship warmth.

Summary	Very positive
Outcome	
Descriptions	Comfortable, no awkwardness (coach), professional, trust, rapport (coachee)
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	Medium

Table 4.22 Summary for Coaching Pair 13

4.5.15 Coaching pair 14

Overall this pairing was volatile and inconsistent. It is characterized by the inequality between the two and the driven manner in which the coachee controlled every aspect of the relationship like a runaway train. There was a cultural match between the participants which was the main factor in bringing them together at the speed-chemistry sessions. However, from the first session the arrangement was inappropriate with the session taking place at the coach’s home and the coachee staying overnight. Subsequent sessions improved only marginally. Some progress was made, but this was masked by the strength of the emotional dominance of the coachee. The coach noted that rapport was hard to build. Even with this

context, both stated that they would coach together again and that they felt that the relationship would go forward.

Summary	
Outcome	Unknown
Descriptions	Rollercoaster, unbalanced, not a formal coaching relationship, unstructured, very different accounts from each participant
Level of Partnership	Very low
Level of Pace	Very high, but dysfunctional

Table 4.23 Summary for Coaching Pair 14

4.6 Analysis of Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire for coaching pairs

4.6.1 Introduction

As part of the feedback from the coaching pairs, as well as semi-structured interviews and reflexive diaries, each participant was asked to complete Part A of the Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire which asked the same 17 questions as before, but this time in terms of to what extent the attributes were present in their coaching relationship. The results are taken on a pair by pair basis and discussed in terms of the individual coaching relationships. This contributes to answering research question 2:

2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?
 - a. Is it possible to develop a new theoretical proposition for a typology of coaching relationships which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for future coaching professionals?

4.6.2 Coaching pair 1

Coachee UUC08 rated a number of factors with a much lower importance than did coach FZC58. These included: the degree of respect (Q2), learning from the coaching relationship (Q3), having clear goals (Q4), having creative and reflective discussions (Q9), being well prepared (Q11), high priority of coaching (Q14), enjoyment and anticipation of coaching (Q15), performance contribution of coaching (Q16) and the requirement for the coach to

know their business (Q17). This may have indicated some reticence on the part of the coachee in undertaking the coaching programme. There were no factors where the coach rated a factor as less important than did the coachee.

After the coaching programme the responses of both coach and coachee indicated a high presence of almost all factors. Slightly higher scores (lower presence) was reported for learning (Q3, coachee) and discussion of relationship, priority of coaching and performance contribution (Qs 12, 14 and 16, coach).

The implication of this may be that the relationship manifested itself very positively and exceeded the expectations of both parties, but particularly that of the coachee.

4.6.3 Coaching pair 2

This pair exhibited a more complex pattern. Most scores for both parties were 1 or 2. In terms of importance, lower importance was given by the coach (FZC62) for: Q4, learning goals; Q8, reflection during sessions; Q9, creative and reflective discussions; Q11, preparation; Q14, priority of coaching and Q16, performance contribution. And by the coachee (UUC10) for: Q3, learning from the relationship and Q12, review of the relationship. In line with the overall results, both parties rated Q17, knowledge of the coachee's business, as being of low relevance.

The coach reported that a number of factors were present to a lower degree than they had indicated their importance. These were: Q6, open discussion; Q7, confidence in initiating discussion; Q8, ability to reflect and Q13, discussion with colleagues. The coachee reported a fall in presence of factors: Q7, confidence in initiating discussions; Q10, trust and Q14, priority of coaching. Generally, however, the pattern was of most factors being present to a higher degree than was originally felt to be important.

The reality of the coaching sessions manifested different attributes than were felt to be important to each participant before the commencement of the coaching programme.

4.6.4 Coaching pair 3

In several areas coachee UUC13 reported that their experience in the coaching sessions was less than the importance that they had attached to these factors. For example: Q3, learning from the relationship; Q4, clear goals; Q5 valuing different perspectives and Q11, preparation. Coach FZC64 reported the same pattern for factors: Q5, valuing different perspectives; Q8, ability to reflect during sessions and Q15, enjoyment and anticipation of sessions. In all other areas importance was matched or exceeded in the coaching sessions.

Though there was some fall off of factors thought of as important before the coaching sessions, the general picture was of exceeding expectations

4.6.5 Coaching pair 4

This coaching pair exhibited a much closer match of importance and presence of each factor. There were some exceptions to this: coach (FZC69) reported reduced scores in Q7, ability to reflect; Q9, creative discussions and Q13, discussing relationship with colleagues, whilst coachee (UUC18) reported lower presence scores in Q2, respect; Q3, learning; Q4, learning goals and Q13, ability to discuss with colleagues (in common with the coach).

The coach indicated low importance (score 4) for having clear goals in the preparation work, but after the coaching sessions reported this to be highly present (score 1). The coachee was one of few who rated knowledge of the coachee's business as important (score 1), but after the sessions gave it a score of 3, being less relevant.

This pair appeared to be well matched in terms of both expectations and reality of the coaching sessions. Knowledge of the business area fell in priority after the coaching sessions.

4.6.6 Coaching pair 5

Coachee (UUC21) rated the following areas as being less present than they had deemed important: Q3, learning; Q7, initiating discussions and Q11, preparation. The coach (FZC72) rated only one factor, Q15, enjoyment and anticipation of sessions, as less present than the level of importance given. In all other areas the manifestation of each factor was the same, or better than the importance rating.

This coaching pair seemed to have a well matched anticipation and manifestation of their coaching relationship. It was interesting that the coach's enjoyment and anticipation decreased.

4.6.7 Coaching pair 6

The difference between importance and presence changed in a number of factors for this coaching pair. For the coach (FZC76) presence had a higher score (reduced experience) than importance in factors Q7, confidence in initiating discussions; Q11, preparation and Q15, enjoyment and anticipation of sessions. Coachee UUC25 gave higher scores for the following factors: Q2, respect; Q3, learning; Q9, creative discussions; Q12, review of the coaching relationship and Q17, knowledge of coachee's business.

A number of attributes were felt to be lower in score for presence than for importance. This may indicate an underperforming relationship which does not meet the participants' expectations.

4.6.8 Coaching pair 7

Coachee UUC27 reported higher scores (reduced experience) for the majority of factors. The only questions where a lower presence score was given were Q12, regular review of the relationship, and Q17, knowledge of the coachee's business. The coach (FZC80) gave a very different picture, reporting better scores for presence on all but the following factors: Q2,

respect; Q5, different perspective; Q13, discussing the relationship; Q14, priority of coaching and Q17, knowledge of coachee's business.

There appeared to be a mismatch in this coaching pair between the importance of the various questionnaire factors and their presence in the relationship. It will be important to see if this is borne out in the other data areas.

4.6.9 Coaching pair 8

This coaching pair differed in their importance and presence scores very little with the vast majority of scores the same or improving in the coaching relationship. The only factors reported as being less in the actual coaching were for the coach (FZC81) Q5, obtaining different perspective, and for the coachee (UUC30) Q7, initiating discussions and Q9, creative discussions.

This seemed to be a well matched pair who achieved some balance with their priorities in the different questionnaire factors.

4.6.10 Coaching pair 9

Both the coach and coachee reported a number of questionnaire factors that were rated less in the relationship than were important. However, the scores were only one point different in every case but one (coach, FZC87, Q17, knowledge of coachee's business). The differing factors were: for the coach, Q5, differing perspective; Q9, creative discussions and Q17, and for the coachee (UUC37), Q1, relaxed and able to speak openly; Q2, respect; Q7, initiating discussions; Q10, trust and Q13, discussion with colleagues.

Whilst this pair exhibited no greater difference than other pairs, it was interesting that both coach and coachee reported a lower level of respect than they felt important and that the coachee reported a lower level of trust than felt important.

4.6.11 Coaching pair 10

Only one factor is reported by each party as being weaker in the sessions than they felt important. The coach (FZC92) identified this in Q10, trust, and the coachee (UUC42), in Q3, learning. All other factors were reported as the same or better in the relationship than the level felt to be important.

Like pair number 8, this appeared to be a coaching pair who experienced the different questionnaire factors to the same level that they felt was important.

4.6.12 Coaching pair 11

Coachee UC44 appeared to experience all but two of the factors (Q7, initiating discussions and Q15, enjoyment and anticipation) as the same or better than they rated as important. However, the coach (FZC94) reported a number of factors as less present than their importance rating. These were: Q2, respect; Q4, clear goals; Q5, different perspective; Q6, difficult issues; Q9, creative discussions; Q10, trust; Q11, preparation; Q13, discussion with colleagues; Q14, priority; Q15, enjoyment and anticipation and Q17, knowledge of coachee's business.

Somehow these results indicated a satisfied coachee, but perhaps not a satisfied coach. This will need to be observed in other data areas.

4.6.13 Coaching pair 12

Again, in this coaching pair, a number of factors on each side were less present than rated as important. For the coach (FZC98) these were: Q1, relaxed; Q2, respect; Q3, learning; Q5, different perspective; Q6, difficult issues; Q8, ability to reflect in sessions; Q9, creativity in sessions; and Q17, knowledge of coachee's business. For the coachee (UUC46), the factors were: Q2, respect; Q3, learning; Q5, different perspective; Q10, trust; Q13, discussion with colleagues; Q14, priority of coaching and Q15, enjoyment and anticipation.

This pair may have experienced a less than favourable coaching programme which did not meet the expectations that they expressed in their initial questionnaires.

4.6.14 Coaching pair 13

Coach FZC99 reported no factors at all that were less present than they deemed level of importance. Their coachee, however, reported six factors where presence gained a higher (reduced level) score. These were: Q3, learning; Q4, clear goals; Q7, initiating discussion; Q8, reflection during sessions; Q15, enjoyment and anticipation of coaching and Q16, contribution to performance.

A level of mismatch seemed to characterize this pair, with the coach reporting consistent scores between importance and presence, but the coachee having a suppressed level of performance compared with expectation.

4.6.15 Coaching pair 14

Each participant reported some quite high scores (negative evaluation) for both importance and presence of the questionnaire factors. The coach (FZC103) identified two areas which reported presence levels below importance levels. These were Q3, learning and Q15, enjoyment and anticipation of coaching. The coachee (UUC52) showed only one more area of variance as follows: Q3, learning; Q7, initiating discussions and Q11, preparation.

A reasonable level of consistency was reported by both participants. Marginally, the reality of the coaching programme was less favourable than the expectation expressed in the initial questionnaires.

4.6.16 Summary

This chapter sets out the full range of findings from the data collection process and presents them so as to show how they answer the research questions. The different elements of data

collection were amassed to give a body of results which describe the coaching relationship from 'before the beginning to after the end' and from the perspective of the participants.

The results are presented as a chronological sequence so as to set out the different elements of the process and at each stage it is shown how the data were relevant to the research questions. This goes from the first exchange of information between the participants, through the matching and selection process to the formation of the coaching pairs and the participation in coaching sessions. At each stage, narrative data was collected using a method deemed appropriate so as to obtain the participant's reflections in the moment. This provided triangulation of the data to develop reliability and to further support this factor the questionnaire instrument was included. Following a consistent method of analysis of these data, they were presented above to demonstrate a full picture of the coaching relationship.

These findings are analysed and discussed in the next chapter where the implications of the data will be critically evaluated so as to offer some outcomes of the research and to be able to draw conclusions and make recommendations.

Chapter 5 Analysis and Discussion of Results

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the findings presented previously in respect of the research questions and the theoretical view presented in the literature review. By scrutinizing and synthesizing the data it will propose new theoretical contributions as a result of the research which will lead to conclusions and recommendations based on those new theories.

The objective of this multiple case study based research was to explore the dynamics of Executive Coaching relationships with the aim of better understanding this form of leadership development. Using the proxies of other dyadic interventions which had the benefit of greater bodies of established theory, the coaching relationship was studied to identify similarities and differences between the different development processes. The study followed a quasi-experimental and then naturalistic inquiry to collect qualitative data through various methods appropriate to the different parts of the study. As the research took a longitudinal view of the coaching relationship from 'before the beginning to after the end', different data collection devices were employed to ensure that consistent narrative feedback could be attained. These included paper-based feedback at the documentary and speed-chemistry session phase and interviews and reflexive diaries for the coaching pairs. The use of speed-dating as speed-chemistry sessions for the selection and matching stage was an innovative application of this well-researched data collection method.

The data were organized and analysed by stage of the process using the Framework method (Ritchie et al., 2003). This chapter provides analysis and interpretation of the findings

presented in Chapter 4 and addresses the research questions and sub-questions that are central to this study:

1. Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?
 - a. Which precursor factors contribute to the formation of the executive coaching relationship?
 - b. Once a dyadic relationship has been initiated, how does it evolve in the process of a normal executive coaching programme of sessions?
 - c. What knowledge can be derived towards developing a process for identifying ideal executive coaching dyads?
2. What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?
 - a. Is it possible to develop a new theoretical proposition for a typology of coaching relationships, which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for future coaching professionals?

The aim of the chapter is to proceed systematically through the data that has been presented, drawing out emerging themes from the analysis of the different methodological results. This interpretation is supported by reference to previous theoretical literature and research studies to support the arguments put forward. The chapter is organized as shown in figure 5.1 below:

Firstly, the key overall themes are considered and summarized. Secondly, the dynamics of the Executive Coaching relationship is explored. This addresses the first research question and seeks to understand whether the development of the relationship can be organized into phases, what these phases might be and what the characteristics of each phase are. Thirdly, the attributes of the coaching relationships in each of the case study pairs is discussed. This addresses the second main research question and shows the emerging patterns exhibited by the coaching pairs. The defining dimensions are articulated and each case is discussed in terms of how it meets these dimensions and which type of coaching relationship it fits.

Finally, there is a summary of the discussion, synthesizing the main issues and drawing together the findings of the study.

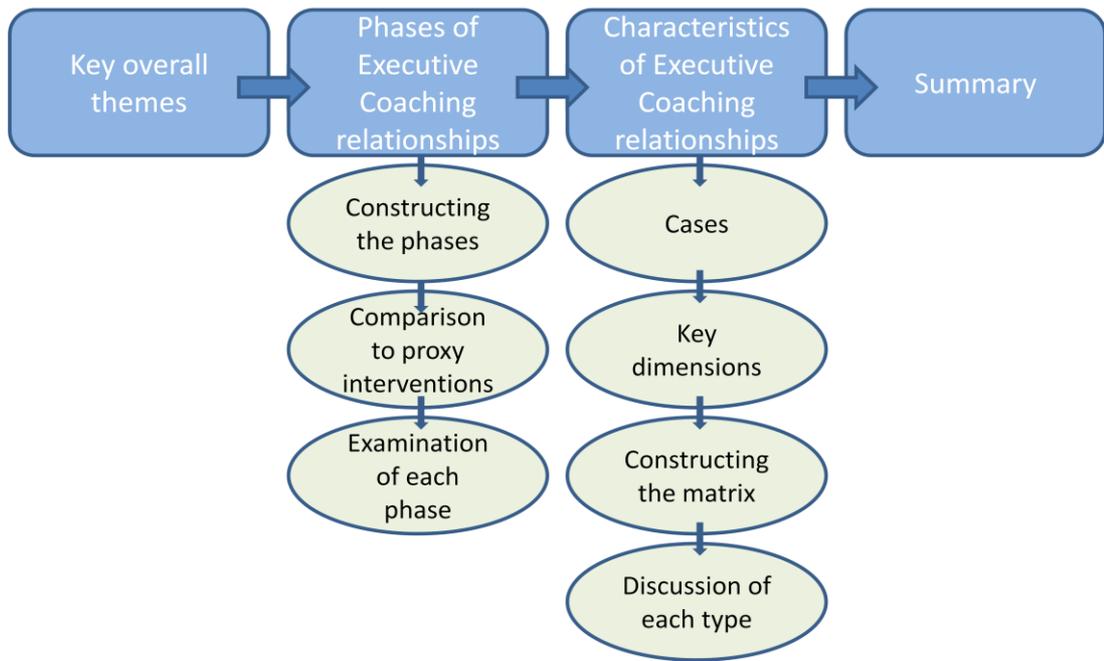


Figure 5.1 Structure of the discussion chapter

5.2 Key overall themes

The overall findings in this research revealed contributions in two main areas:

1. Development of a model of understanding of the phases of the coaching relationship
2. A typology of coaching relationships.

Both of these models are examples of emergent theories built through exploratory, interpretive, qualitative research. The first will be evidenced from all of the stages of the data collection; from the document analysis of the CVs/biographies, through to the interviews and reflective diaries. It is necessary to draw on the data from the whole study to build up the model answering the first research question. This evidence is shown below. It demonstrates; how the coaching relationship is formed, what influences the matching

process, how the relationship develops from the first meeting to the first coaching session, how it matures and then how it concludes.

The second model, the typology of coaching relationships, is drawn mainly from the interview and reflexive diary data. These twenty-eight sets of reflections provide a picture of their fourteen coaching relationships from the perspective of the participants and allows patterns to be observed and drawn out so as to identify some commonalities and differences between them. It identifies two key parameters that seem to exert an influence in all of the coaching relationships - pace and partnership. By using these parameters, each coaching relationship can be classified into one of the types.

The sections below will address each of these main contributions in turn and will draw upon the data described in Chapter 4 to demonstrate the rationale for building up these theoretical proposals.

5.3 The phases of the Executive Coaching relationship

This part of the discussion seeks to respond to the first research question:

1. Does the coaching relationship consist of distinct phases and if so what are they?
 - a. Which precursor factors contribute to the formation of the executive coaching relationship?
 - b. Once a dyadic relationship has been initiated, how does it evolve in the process of a normal executive coaching programme of sessions?
 - c. What knowledge can be derived towards developing a process for identifying ideal executive coaching dyads?

5.3.1 Discussion of the data

The results from all of the stages of the data collection are relevant to this model as the data collection tracks the relationship from its first inception until it has concluded. Specifically,

questions were included in the semi-structured interviews that particularly addressed the different phases of the relationship.

Initiation

It was important to collect data in this study from the very first moment that the participants had any form of knowledge about each other (or as near as possible), which in this case was the exchange of written information before the potential coaches and coachees had even met. This was the initiation of the relationship and sets the scene for describing the stages of the relationship that emerged.

The results from the interviews suggest that most of the participants felt that the exchange of written material about each other was an overall beneficial process, but with some limitations. From the point of view of the coach the documentary information had some value, but intuition on meeting the coachee was much more valuable (FZC72). Responses also suggested that the coach expected that an organization would act as the contractor with the coach as supplier and would have operated some kind of filter to select suitable candidates.

It was useful for the coachee to have the CV information on the coach before the first meeting. This is suggesting that there are activities to be undertaken before the coach and coachee meet and that these might be beneficial to the coaching in the long term. The coachee's point of view on this may be represented by the comments of coachee UUC21 who noted that the paper-based information was a good tool for eliminating unsuitable coaches. Again, these comments suggest a pre-coaching screening process that saves time and effort in meeting the wrong kind of potential coach.

The data based on the exchange of CV and biography information provided indicators of how relevant this stage was. The coaches stated that in almost all cases (94%) they would

have accepted the coachees, whereas in 36% of cases the coachees stated that they would have eliminated a particular coach.

This section of the data suggests that there is a use for the written information stage, but that it has limitations and would be used as a preliminary step. It is perhaps most relevant to the coachees in being able to eliminate unsuitable coaches or to gain facts about their potential coaches. Coaches themselves felt that this information was of little or no value to them. The data also suggests that this stage of information exchange would be carried out in advance of the main selection and matching process. This evidence provides the suggestion that there is a stage before the real matching of coaching pairs takes place. This may be termed the pre-formation stage.

First encounter

The next event in the sequence was where the prospective coaches and coachees met in the speed-chemistry sessions. The results relevant to this stage are given in the interviews, reflexive diaries and in the feedback collected at the time of the sessions.

One point of note relates to the lack of congruence between the rankings of potential partners at the paper information stage compared with that done after the speed-chemistry sessions. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 show the level of inconsistency between the two stages and indicate that in very few instances (only one per group) was the ranking of the three possible candidates the same in both stages. The data show that in 83% of cases the ranking of the participants changed between the paper information stage and the speed-coaching session stage.

These findings suggest that although the written information has some use, the participants made their matching decisions based on different criteria between the two stages. For example, when looking at the results of the Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire

(Part B) (see Table 4.2) both groups scored the need for experience and knowledge of the coachee's industry (Question 17) as being of the least priority. However, when analysing the feedback from the paper information stage and the speed-chemistry sessions, experience was a very frequently cited positive attribute.

The highest ranking attributes from the questionnaires were trust and openness. In the feedback from the speed-chemistry sessions, openness was a frequently used term. It ranked first in the key words offered by the coaches (see Table 4.5) and third for coachees. Within the narrative feedback from these sessions, openness emerged as one of the main constructs used (see Appendix XIII). On the other hand, trust was rarely mentioned specifically. These results further indicate the lack of consistency in general between the views expressed at the initiation stage with the paper information and those provided when the coaches and coachees encountered each other for the first time in person.

Table 4.5 illustrates the top twenty most common descriptive words used by each group about the other. These results highlighted that both groups exhibited some similarities and some differences in these descriptors. Both groups used the term 'friendly' very frequently (most common word for coachees and second most common for coaches). Also, 'open style' or 'openness' was very highly ranked by both groups as previously mentioned. However, in general, the words used by the coachees to describe the coaches were grouped around professionalism and experience, whereas the words used by coaches to describe coachees were more concerned with their personality type factors, such as likeability, warmth, honesty and thoughtfulness.

From the descriptive narrative on the speed-coaching sessions, a number of consistent constructs emerged. These were: personality, energy/enthusiasm, goal, commonalities with coach/coachee, background, openness, trust and rapport for both groups, and for the coachee feedback, the additional construct of 'coaching context' was included, suggesting that they

were scrutinizing the coaches for their approach to the coaching. The most commonly reported construct was that of personality where in both groups almost every participant made a comment in this category. This suggests that at this stage of undertaking the matching process one of the main areas of interest for both sides was their potential opposite number's personality attributes indicating that it was an important factor that both sides were seeking in their potential coaching relationship.

Selection and matching

As has already been described, (Tables 4.3 and 4.4), each participant ranked their potential opposite number at the speed-chemistry stage of the process. These rankings were used to construct the coaching pairs. The interview data provided further insights into the way in which the matching of coaches and coachees was proposed. Comments regarding the speed-coaching outcomes described the decision point for choosing a preferred coach or coachee. The key decisions for coaches were around intellectual matching (coach FZC81, demeanour of the coachee (FZC76) and rapport (FZC64, 87) and for coachees were on similarity/difference (UUC27), openness (UUC25) and rapport (UUC10, 27, 37). The strong overall indication was that the choice is an instinctive one and not based on any specific factors. This supports the equivocal results that have been achieved in previous studies on matching and selection by Scoular and Linley (2006) and Gray (2010).

Influence of surface- level diversity factors

Also within the speed-chemistry sessions, the influence of surface- and deep-level diversity issues was explored. These data were gathered primarily from the semi-structured interview material. The main observations occurred around the attributes of age, gender, physical appearance or physical attributes, voice, culture and level of introversion/extraversion. Many participants stated that they did not make note of any particular attributes in their counterparts.

For example, regarding age, an older coach was seen positively as experienced (FZC69). And with another pair, the age gap between them was observed (FZC62/UUC08) and this led to a matched pair.

Professional appearance was noted by several participants as a positive factor (e.g. UUC49). This was interpreted as being an indicator of how seriously the coach regarded the interaction. The opposite was also true; when one coachee was very casually attired, one of their coaches gave this negative feedback and gave the participant a low ranking.

Surface-level diversity factors, therefore, seemed to play a limited role in the matching process. This role is clearly in the decision-making phase of the coaching relationship.

First impressions and decision

The main recollections are from the speed-chemistry sessions when each of the participants met their potential partners for the first time. At the time of the interviews a number of participants noted that they could not clearly recall much about their unselected opposites (FZC72, 76, 87). Two coaches (FZC69 and 80) stated that they would have been happy to coach any of the coachees before them.

The key constructs that emerged as playing an influencing part in creating the first impression were; energy or enthusiasm (UUC18, 25 and FZC69, 72, 76 and 81); rapport, which was central to the first impressions that were made and its presence supported choosing that partner and being 'engaged' (UUC21 about FZC72). The term 'rapport' was used more frequently by coaches than coachees, suggesting that it is a word recognized by these practitioners. A number noted that this rapport was established very quickly (UUC25, FZC80, 87) and that the 5-minute speed-chemistry session was sufficient to build this attribute and enable a decision to be made.

A further theme was the level of interest expressed by the coachees in being coached or in the coaching process (FZC69, 76, 99). The complementary side of this was the feeling expressed by coachees that the coach was interested in giving a good coaching experience, for example (UUC44).

This was an important phase within the coaching relationship as it set the initial bedrock of the dynamic between the pairing. It was from this position that the coaching relationship developed within the sessions and so acted as a ‘**bridge**’ or ‘**transition**’ to the next phase.

Development of the relationship

The first session – the data suggests that there are a number of main elements that are important in the first session; environment (e.g. coaching pair 14), level of formality (e.g. coach FZC80), the nature of the coaching issue (e.g. FZC64), the scope of the first session and the exchange of personal information (e.g. UUC10).

The findings here suggest that the first session followed on directly from the speed session in terms of the relationship, but that the change from matching to the final coaching relationship was perceived differently by individual participants. It is suggested, therefore, that this first session also forms part of a ‘bridging’ or ‘transition’ phase in the relationship, but that this phase may be long or short, drawn out or transient, depending on the coaching pair concerned.

Second and third sessions – these sessions represented the maturity of the coaching relationship. There were many reflections as to the nature of these sessions. For two of the coaching pairs this next phase of the relationship was problematic; for Coaching Pair 14 (FZC103 and UUC52) this was a continuation of a difficult start in the first session and for Coaching Pair 5 (FZC72 and UUC21) problems emerged in the second and third sessions.

For most pairs the relationship reached a level of maturity and remained positive throughout. Some reported changes within the sessions.

A number of participants reported critical moments during their coaching sessions which shifted the dynamic in some way, mostly positively. For example, coach FZC76 and coachee UUC25 experienced such a change when the coachee asked to use the ‘time to think’ technique (Kline, 1999).

Within these later stages of the coaching relationships a number of different attributes were discussed by the participants. For example, trust was mentioned as being positively present by the majority (but not all) participants. Two of the exceptional experiences (coaching pairs 5 and 14) serve to support the proposition that in the second and third coaching sessions the coaching relationship entered a phase that might be termed ‘maturity’, since by the nature of their volatility, the two exceptional relationships show that maturity was not just an extension of the first session, but that it was a distinct phase achieved by most, but not all of the coaching pairs.

Conclusions and afterthoughts

Despite the general feedback being that twelve of the fourteen coaching pairs had positive relationships in the maturity phase, when the end of the third session approached and after the coaching had ended, there was a certain amount of variation in the way the relationship conclusion was reported. Interestingly, no-one reported finishing on an unfriendly or adversarial note. Typical descriptions of the ending of the session/relationship were ‘amicable’ or ‘courteous’, for example coach FZC64 and coachee UUC13 ranging to ‘positive’ for FZC81/UUC30 and FZC94/UUC44). In several instances, the coaching pair undertook a review at the end (FZC94/UUC44, FZC87/UUC27 and FZC98/UUC46).

In the two problematic pairs, interestingly, both said that they would be prepared to work together again – however, they would carry out much more formal contracting at the start of the relationship in terms of where sessions would be held, how appointments would be made, cancellation policy and so forth. This suggests that the contracting process is very important for the coaching process and should be attended to at the very beginning of the relationship, in the ‘**formation**’ phase.

From the above it can be proposed that there is a clear phase that is an ‘**ending**’. Each of the coaching pairs knew that for this research three coaching sessions had been requested, however, they conducted these sessions in a naturalistic environment which allowed them control over how they arranged sessions. This then represents the final phase in the coaching relationship.

5.3.2 How the findings are used to propose a model of the phases of the coaching relationship

Whilst the findings are able to describe some clear differences between the progressive stages of the coaching relationship, it should be noted that it may be interpreted that there is a certain amount of artificiality around these phases. The data collection, as far as possible, followed the events that might occur in a typical organizational coaching arrangement. However, the initial stages of the data collection were conducted in a quasi-experimental setting, which may have led the process towards the appearance of these initial phases. It can be argued that the nature of coaching in a business setting and as a brief intervention suggests that these stages would, in any case, be naturally occurring. The environment for setting up the initial stages may have been somewhat controlled, but the actual encounters and the interpersonal dynamics were as near to a normative context as possible. Furthermore, the later stages of the data collection phase were completely within typical

coaching relationship settings and boundaries as set up by the participants themselves and, therefore, the findings from these stages are completely naturally occurring and trustworthy.

The findings from this study suggest that the coaching relationship is made up of five phases: pre-formation, formation (selection and matching), transition, maturity and ending (Figure 5.2 below). The characteristics that constitute each of these phases is expanded upon below. The overall model and each of the phases can be considered in the context of previous work done on proxy interventions such as mentoring or therapy.

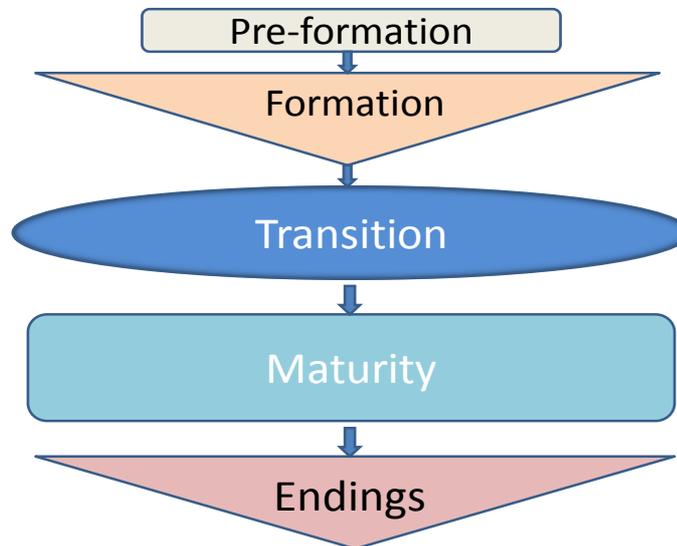


Figure 5.2 The phases of the coaching relationship

5.4 Building the model

5.4.1 The pre-formation phase

From the Clutterbuck and Megginson questionnaire (2005), it was shown that the coaching intervention was not associated with the requirement to prepare beforehand. Traditionally this is the case, though a coach may keep some notes (with the permission of the coachee) and is likely to refer to them before coaching sessions to remind them of what took place

previously. Also, some coaches (and organizations) expect a number of diagnostic evaluations to take place, such as MBTI®, FiroB™, 16PF™ and coaches may ask for documentation on the coachee such as appraisal reports or 360° feedback.

Little is usually expected by way of preparation by the coachee. They may have a discussion with their manager or human resources professional regarding the decision to offer coaching and this conversation may include covering areas that are to be included in the coaching objectives.

This research suggests that more preparation could be undertaken which would set up the coaching sessions, and therefore the relationship, more effectively and offer a better opportunity for ensuring a good match between coach and coachee, a more fruitful relationship and, as a consequence, better outcomes from the Executive Coaching intervention. Gray and Goregaokar (2007) suggested in their studies in SMEs, that more should be done to support executives during the matching process as decisions made on paper information and appearance only could be misleading. Also, much could be usefully employed from the literature on adult learning in this context, where the coachee is undertaking an experience of situated learning (Bandura, 1977; Lave and Wenger, 1991) and the coach is acting as the facilitative tutor (Mezirow, 1991, 1996) in a transformative learning process. By understanding their roles and the opportunities that are on offer, the relationship may be set up optimally and the outcomes could be maximized as a result.

This preparation is likely to be even more important for individual coachees who have not experienced the coaching intervention before. It would be useful for the organizational representative setting up the matching process to ensure that the prospective coachee understands what coaching is, how it differs from mentoring, therapy, or personal consulting, where the boundaries lie and how to get the best out of a coaching programme. Although there may be clear objectives from the organization's perspective, and agreed with

the coachee, for the coaching programme, the manager may want to make it clear that the coaching itself is a confidential process and that other subjects can also be discussed if the need arises. Reassurance should be given that in feedback only matters agreed between coach and coachee will be fed back to the organization. Finally, the coachee should be encouraged to think beforehand of the goals that they want to discuss with their coach. These will obviously include the organizational objectives, but the coachee may want to set these in context with other issues that are related and appropriate, or there may be other topics that are influencing the coachee that are relevant to raise as issues.

In addition to preparation of the individual's understanding of coaching, the preparatory phase could include some steps for the executive coach. They should consider the information that they supply to the organization and ensure that it is congruent with the assignment on offer and not necessarily just generic material. In addition, when approaching a coaching matching session, it is most important that the coach enters the setting having had their own needs met and able to attend to their potential coachees with 'unconditional positive regard' (Rogers, 1961).

From an organizational point of view, preparation should include a three-way agreement of the boundaries and objectives of the coaching and what is expected of each party. This will include what will be agreed to be fed back to the organization by the coachee and what reporting is expected of the coach.

Other issues that were evaluated in the research also have a bearing on this phase of the coaching relationship. Although the paper-based exchange of information can be seen as part of the selection and matching stage, it might usefully be categorized in the pre-formation stage as a potential tool for early selection or elimination of coaches. All of the participants felt the exchange of paper-based information was useful, though a few said it was not critical. Every participant believed that a face-to-face meeting was essential. If the

paper-based stage of information exchange is addressed at the pre-formation phase, it could be useful in developing a short-list of potential executive coaches and eliminating those who are unsuitable, thus making the eventual matching process more efficient and effective.

By undertaking this level of preparation, all parties should enter the coaching programme with a better understanding of the possibilities and limitations of coaching, what they can expect from their coach, what they can expect from their organization and what they may be able to offer themselves.

5.4.2 The formation phase

Whether as part of a research study or in real life, the coaching encounter has to be set up in some way. In organizations, it is likely that either a coachee is allocated a coach, that they choose their own coach through some means such as personal recommendation, or that they are given a number of executive coaches to choose from, probably through a number of individually organized chemistry sessions. In this research, the coaching encounter was effected in two stages, firstly through an exchange of written information and then via a speed-chemistry session based on the speed-dating methodology espoused by Eastwick and Finkel (2008). The different elements of this process are discussed below.

5.4.2.1 What were the coachees looking for?

A variety of objectives were given by the coachees before the matching took place. The most common area for attention was career, or 'next job', this was followed by work specific goals such as improved performance in business development. The third area noted for attention was life change, or work-life balance. Well below these three categories, coachees wanted to work on behaviour change or other goals, such as achieving success in a qualification. The occurrence of these objectives indicates that coachees understand the focus of Executive Coaching to be on work-related or organizational issues and are not

considering that the sessions will be general life-based change opportunities. One result is slightly unexpected in that behaviour change was offered by so few participants. Coaching is a recognized tool for enacting behavioural change in individuals (Skiffington and Zeus, 2003). However, had these encounters been naturally occurring in the organizational setting, behaviour change as a result of some sort of appraisal, review or even promotional prospect might have been more common.

Additional elements that the coachees identified as ideal in their coaches was the desire to make a difference and the offering of 'unconditional positive regard' to the coachee (Rogers, 1961). These statements indicated that these coachees sought a supportive relationship in which they could develop in some way and feel that their coach had their best interests in mind. Executive coaches were also expected to be 'non-judgemental'. This comment suggests that the coachee wanted to have an environment of openness to discuss personal issues in the security of not being judged that they are right or wrong or in some way bad. Flexibility of approach, otherwise termed agility, was required by coachees of their coaches. The underlying requirement here was for a coach who could adjust their stance to take into account the coachee's different moods or needs within and between coaching sessions. It implied that there would be some level of dynamic shift during the coaching programme and that the coach should have the skill and experience to go with these shifts and still serve the coachee in the best possible way. And finally, the coach was expected to be 'authentic'. By this, it is assumed that authentic is being used as a descriptor of 'being themselves' in a genuine and honest way; an absence of false appearance or behaviour towards the coachee; a sense of 'what you see is what you get'.

Within the coachee group, there was a variety of levels of previous coaching experience. Eighteen of the coachees had previous experience of coaching, eleven had coached others, five had trained coaches themselves and only nine had no coaching experience. These

different experiences may have influenced the coachees' responses to what they were expecting from the coaching intervention.

5.4.2.2 What were the coaches offering?

Two descriptions dominated those used by coaches to explain their coaching style on the CVs: challenging and supportive, offered seventeen and fourteen times respectively. These descriptions were used later at the interview stage to try to identify what sort of coaching was actually desired by the coachees. This reflects that coaches see themselves in two main categories each having a different main approach. Two coaches specifically expressed their style as being from the 'time to think' school of Kline (1999). It is felt that unless a prospective coachee specifically knew of this approach, or had the opportunity to investigate it in advance of coaching, that this description would be of limited use in informing the coachee of the coach's style. There were also no instances of specific coaching styles taken from psychological approaches such as cognitive behavioural coaching, Gestalt coaching, NLP coaching, psychodynamic coaching or solutions-focused coaching (Palmer and Whybrow, 2007). Two of the coaches were trained business psychologists, but did not use any of these psychologically related terms in their description of their coaching style. All of the other coaches were from business organization backgrounds, such as human resources, generalist roles or technical specialities such as engineering. They used general terms to describe their coaching.

5.4.2.3 Selection and matching as part of the formation phase

In the selection and matching process, it has been noted by authors such as Wycherley and Cox (2008) that there is a sequence of factors that reveal themselves to the other party at the start of a dyadic relationship. They term these factors surface- and deep-level diversity factors and these include issues such as gender and cultural similarity or difference. Some

authors claim that chemistry plays a crucial role in matching (Hodgetts, 2002; Chidiac, 2006), where others believe that matching (of, in this case, mentors and mentees) is a more complex process than simply the alignment between two personalities (Cranwell-Ward et al., 2004) and that similarity and difference both play their part in whether there is a productive dyadic development relationship. Jarvis further (2004) suggests that organizations consider the skills, experience and personality of prospective coaches when evaluating potential matches. According to Hodgetts (2002), three criteria are required for selecting the right coach:

1. Interpersonal skills, including self-awareness, listening and empathy
2. Perception by the client to be trustworthy and competent
3. Sufficient understanding of business and organizational politics.

This study considered all of these elements in the initial 'formation' phase of the relationship.

The first real stage at which surface- and deep-level diversity factors occurred was when the two groups met face-to-face. Some clues could be gathered from the paper-based stage of information exchange; for example, although deliberately not stated on the pro forma, gender may have been derived from the information given, as could age and possibly ethnic or cultural background. Beyond that, information was limited. Once the participants met in person much more information was immediately available, in fact one coach participant in the pilot study noted how much 'data' she gathered from the potential coachees simply as they walked into the room. The information available at the speed-chemistry stage included; gender, age, physical appearance and ethnicity/cultural background. These attributes were noted, both positively and negatively. A smart or professional appearance was noted by several participants from both groups. This was taken as a positive sign that the person was entering into a professional, working relationship and that smart appearance was a symbol of their attitude to the interaction. Some negative surface-level factors were noted and were

contributory to low preference being assigned to a partner. Surface- and deep-level diversity factors were also discussed under the transitions stage as more feedback was gained through the interview data and reflexive diaries that further informed the development of the phases in this model.

When the rankings given pre- and post-speed-chemistry sessions were examined, none of the coaches said that they would not be prepared to coach any of the coachees at either stage. One coach repeatedly used the phrase '*no reason not to*' to indicate, not necessarily a clear preference but that there would have to be a stronger reason than given by these encounters to reject the possibility of coaching any individual. The coachee's responses would, however, be of interest to potential coaches. Coachees were much more willing to 'reject' a potential coach for a number of reasons. This is unsurprising as, in the real world, they are the consumer (if not necessarily the buyer) of the coaching service.

In the overall coachee group there was a general consistency of feedback when expressing unwillingness to be coached by a particular individual between the paper and speed-chemistry session stages. Eight out of twelve of those who did not want to be coached by a particular person when viewing their CV maintained this stance after the speed-chemistry session. There were also others who changed their minds either positively or negatively. However, it appeared that in most of the cases where there was some factor that indicated that a coach was unsuitable on their CV, they were also dismissed as unsuitable at the speed-chemistry session stage. By contrast, there was little consistency in the rankings between the two stages. Only three coaches and one coachee ranked all three opposites in the same order between the two stages. Ten coachees did rank the same coach in first place though, as did seven coaches agreeing the first place of their potential coachees. As was reflected later in the interview and reflexive diary stages of the data collection, individuals put great store by the face-to-face encounter and none of the participants felt that they would not have this step

in any selection and matching process. Clearly, much richer information can be exchanged when meeting face-to-face and the full range of surface-level diversity factors (Wycherley and Cox, 2008) can come into play. More can be discovered about; the coaching process to be used, the goals being considered and, most importantly, a two-way exchange of information can take place, however brief. There are many factors that can be changed between these two phases, but most participants agreed that both elements were essential to achieve the best match of coach and coachee.

When using descriptions of their counterparts, the two sets of participants used some similar and some different word groups. In the speed-chemistry sessions, both sets used the following terms to describe their opposite numbers: 'warm', 'friendly', 'open/open style', 'thoughtful'. Coaches tended to add words to their descriptions which illustrate the demeanour of the coachees, or words that describe their personality such as 'likeable', 'pleasant', 'interesting', 'energetic', 'engaging', 'nervous', 'introvert'. Also they used words describing their willingness to engage in coaching such as 'learning' or 'curious'. The coachees on the other hand used words that described the coaches stance towards the coaching encounter such as 'empathetic' or 'challenging' or regarding the personality of the coach such as 'warm', 'calm', 'personable'. These are quite subtle differences but seem to reflect the different lens through which each group of participants was viewing the potential match. The coaches who, it has been shown, are unlikely to reject a coachee, seem to be seeking someone with whom the coaching encounter will be a pleasant experience, whereas the coachees, the clients of this dyad, are seeking an output via a professional who can serve them well and through whom they need to establish a particular developmental environment.

In the speed-chemistry sessions, most of this feedback was of a positive nature, though there was variation with some negative descriptions used by both sides, suggesting that feedback was not artificially positive.

A key word expressed by both sides was 'rapport'. This occurs in many of the feedback returns from both coaches and coachees, suggesting that it is a well-recognized term used by all. The establishment of rapport was central to forming a good relationship and where this occurred, apparently in the speed-chemistry sessions this was reflected as a positive. Some participants noted the absence of rapport and this was a reason for ranking the opposite number as a low preference.

Another construct that stood out in the matching and selection stages was energy or enthusiasm. The feedback expressed this in both positive and negative terms and as high or low. So there could be negative/high energy which manifested itself as 'too pushy' or 'impatient' or as high/positive, described as 'hungry', 'enthusiastic', or 'curious'. One term that was commonly used, but could be expressed as moderate energy either positive or negative was 'reflective' (or reflexive).

Some potential coaching pairs discussed the issue of goals or coaching objectives at the speed-chemistry stage, others did not range that far. It was more commonly mentioned by coaches than coachees and this may be due to the fact that coaches expect to tackle goal exploration and setting at an early stage in the coaching encounter. This will be discussed also in the transition phase.

'Openness', interpreted as 'open to communication with the other' was often a term used during the matching process. It was a commonly used construct and may be seen alongside 'rapport' as another element of the language of coaching which is differentiated from the languages of other dyadic interventions. Trust was not strongly featured in any of the speed-coaching feedback. This may be because it was too early in the coaching relationship for this to be of significance.

The background and experience of the coachee was noted by a number of coaches. In narrative, this was given as an influencing factor in the choice (if offered) of coachee, however, as shown by the results of the Clutterbuck and Meggison (2005) questionnaire, knowledge of the coach's or coachee's work background was ranked as the lowest priority of all responses. Other priorities given by the coachees for seeking the ideal coach were style, MBTI® compatibility, coaching experience and accreditation/supervision. When comparing these narrative comments with the questionnaire responses, some differences emerge. In the questionnaire, the top responses for both coaches and coachees were trust, and being relaxed and open (though in the opposite order for each group, trust being first for coaches). There is a discrepancy between these results and those given in the open feedback form of the speed-chemistry sessions. As noted above, background knowledge of the opposite's industry ranked lowest for both groups, but in narrative, background was repeatedly mentioned as being a factor influencing the choice of coach or coachee.

Also, from the questionnaire results it was noted, understandably, that coachees put more store on the opportunity to learn from the encounter and to gain a fresh perspective on some issue or other. Coaches gave a relatively low priority to the idea that 'we are both learning', but this was in rank comparison to other issues on offer rather than saying it was not important. Indeed in the interviews and reflexive diaries, several coaches spoke about their learning opportunities during the coaching programme.

Again, unsurprisingly, coaches gave a higher ranking to the question regarding willingness to initiate coaching conversations. This is to be expected as they were there as the professional partner in the pairing. In addition, given the mix of MBTI® types between extrovert and introvert in the coachee group, it might be expected that some would not be keen to initiate coaching conversations, but would wait for the coach to guide them, at least initially.

An interesting finding from the questionnaire responses was the lower priority attached by coachees than that of coaches to the importance of the coaching sessions. Again this may be a factor of the research process in that there may have been less drive behind the coaching than if it had been real-life encounters and the coachees had real issues, possibly led by organizational impetus to undertake the process. On the other hand, each coachee taking part in one of the coaching pairs was being given the opportunity of three free coaching sessions with an experienced professional coach, so the chance to take part in this might have been more of an encouragement. It is felt that this result should be viewed with some caution.

When conducting the interviews and collecting reflexive diary narrative, the issue of decision making when choosing the appropriate opposite number was revisited. Responses at this stage confirmed the feedback that was given in the earlier stages. The decision to choose one particular coach or coachee over the others was made on the basis of intellectual match, personality, similarity or difference of one or more parameters, such as gender, age, or cultural background. Coaches looked for someone who was keen on the coaching process and willing to learn from it and, ultimately, who would be enjoyable to work with. Coachees were looking for someone who was professional, experienced and who would offer either a challenging or supportive environment for change.

5.4.3 The transition phase

When reviewing the data from this research, a clear phase of transitions emerged. All of the coaching pair relationships underwent some form of transition from the matching and selection stage to the body of the coaching intervention in the first session. The beginning, end and duration of the transition phase varied from dyad to dyad; however, this phase was characterized by a number of different elements:

- Establishment of the coaching context
- Undertaking a contracting process

- Setting up ways of working together such as, appointments, venue, cancellation etc.
- The attempt to establish trust, rapport, openness (and sometimes failure to do so)
- Discussion of coaching goals or objectives
- Sharing of personal information.

The transition phase could be seen to take place anytime from somewhere within the speed-coaching session to part-way (or all the way) through the first proper coaching session. A point of identification was the clear shift from making the decision with whom to work, through a variety of factors discussed above, to the acceptance and validation of that decision and then to beginning the development of the coaching relationship proper.

Some coaching pairs during their speed-coaching session had already begun to discuss coaching goals and reported excellent rapport and an eagerness to move to the next stage. For others this transition occurred clearly during the first coaching session and then at various points. Several participants reported renewal of familiarization between the pair at the start of the session. A certain level of distance, formality or reticence at the beginning was noted on a number of occasions, as this re-familiarization and warming of the relationship took place. Some noted that there was an absence of small talk at the start of the first session or that the coachee seemed anxious at the start.

Very similar words were used at the start of the first session to those used in the feedback from the speed-coaching sessions, such as 'rapport', 'enthusiasm', 'interest in coaching' and 'similarity/difference'. In addition, a number of participants validated their decision by making favourable comparison of their chosen partner with the others in their panel that they rejected. Others may have made this validation in a different way by being unable to remember the other panel participants at all. Initial descriptors by coaches were based on personality attributes and energy, such as 'switched on' and 'sparky', where coachees noted the skills of the coach such as 'listening' and their demeanour such as 'calmness'. Both groups talked much about the rapport they had between them and the importance of this in

the process of establishing the relationship. Similarity and difference were again noted, but at this stage in an entirely positive way, including cultural similarity or difference.

Early in the transition phase there was a discussion of contracting issues between both parties. This took place to some degree within every one of the coaching dyads that were established. This contracting was a key milestone in the transition from selection to the full working relationship of the coaching pair. Contracting was conducted at various levels of formality: some coaches produced a standard document that they could use to inform their coachee of the various issues that they needed to cover, but more likely coaches covered these matters orally. Either way, they were able at this point to respond to the coachee's questions on any point. The most essential element of contracting, from the interview data, was the issue of confidentiality. It was seen as obligatory for any coaching relationship that had a hope of establishing a good environment of trust, rapport and openness.

A further element of contracting is the coverage of how arrangements for sessions and cancellations may be made. These aspects were covered by most of the coaches; however, despite addressing this issue, one coaching pair fell foul of these arrangements as the coachee cancelled sessions at very short notice, preventing the coach from undertaking any other paid work. This perceived lack of respect did damage to the coaching relationship in this case, led to inhibition in the relationship for the remainder of the programme and led to the coach saying that if she was to coach that person again, contracting would be done on a much more formal footing. The fact that the coaching was being undertaken free for this research was a further factor of irritation as more time would have to be committed pro bono for the re-scheduled session.

Both parties in each pair undertook a certain exchange of information at this time. It was more likely that the majority of this sharing would come from the coachee as it was important for the coach to gather a certain level of context from them in order to make best

use of the coaching opportunity. This exchange of information may have included the organizational context in which coaching was agreed, background information on work or personal issues that were relevant to the intervention and perhaps some description of how the coachee hoped to work with the coach to achieve their goals and objectives.

Most pairs during this phase were able to move towards being able to identify and begin to work on one or more coaching issues, which supports Hudson's (1999) description of 'problem orientation' and Sperry's (2004) development of a coaching plan. None of the pairs specifically talked of developing a plan of coaching, but there was a sense of setting out their stall in terms of what was on offer from the coach and what the coachee hoped to gain from the intervention. This phase is a kind of 'dance' between the parties as familiarity is established, parameters and boundaries are defined and the first steps are taken towards getting into the heart of the coaching intervention that both have anticipated.

Environment played a part in establishing the relationship either positively or negatively from the start and once set along a particular course the relationships did not appear to alter in substance throughout the course of their time thereafter. A number of coachees noted their appreciation for their coaches being willing to travel to their place of work to undertake their coaching sessions. Others met on neutral ground and two pairs met at their coach's home, one of which is also an office base. Of the coaching pairs that met at the coachee's venue, most were satisfied that this was appropriate; only one ended up being disturbed during a coaching session. Those that met on neutral ground were not always without difficulty. One pair met in a public area and were disturbed during the coaching session. The coach of this pair also expressed the concern that they would not be able to get to the very deep issues if the coachee was concerned about either being overheard, or if things got emotional, of being embarrassed. The final groups were the two who met at the coach's home. One of these relationships began well and the context of the venue probably had no effect on the eventual

breakdown of the quality of the relationship, the factors of which were around cancellation of sessions at short, or no, notice. However, the venue in the final relationship probably was very influential from the beginning of the first session to the conclusion. This relationship was apparently very one-sided and highly emotionally charged. Had the coaching taken place in a more professional setting, some of the events that unfolded might have been prevented in their extremity, but again, the overall tone of this relationship was probably inevitable and the choice of venue simply exacerbated the manifestation of the problems.

The first coaching session then can be seen as consolidation of the matching process, validation of the choice of partner and transition into establishing the context of coaching, uncovering the nature of the relationship and bedding it in, undertaking a contracting process, sharing of information and the start of 'the work' as termed by West and Milan (2001). By the end of the first session, some of the coaching pairs were already productive and many were showing potential of things to come. The relationships were seen to be at an early stage of development or at an overview level at this point. Some were experiencing strongly positive intent, though two were already either strongly negative or volatile.

5.4.4 Maturity

The maturity phase of the coaching relationship may be said to start either during the first session or in the second and third sessions, depending on the coaching pair. At this phase, Starr (2003) suggests that 'understanding and direction' are created, West and Milan (2001) as noted above, describe it as 'the work' phase and Hudson (1999) believes that this is the 'vision orientation' phase.

The strongly negative relationship that had been established in session 1, continued in much the same way throughout sessions 2 and 3. The other problematic relationship was also developing further in a negative direction as other appointments were cancelled at short

notice. However, most relationships at this stage seem to have reached a 'set-point' in terms of their relational dynamic. None of the coaching pairs reported a major shift in the tone, quality or nature of their relationship from the end of session 1 to the end of the coaching programme. There were some minor variations, however.

Eric de Haan (2008; 2010) has conducted research into critical moments experienced during coaching encounters and has amassed a body of qualitative data describing the incidence of these critical moments and the effects that they have on coaching relationships and outcomes. A specific question was asked in the interviews as to whether any critical moments were encountered, and if so, what effect these had on the coaching relationship and/or outcomes. These critical moments could be positive and negative and both de Haan (2010) and Hardingham (2004) note that it can be the recovery from negative experiences in coaching which can be influential in the overall nature of the relationship and of the eventual outcomes. Almost all participants reported some change in the overall equilibrium of the relationship at one or more points. None reported that these critical incidents fundamentally changed the nature of the relationship overall, but they did either enable a step-change in the relationship or unlock something which then allowed further progress to be achieved. The scale of the change varied in significance between pairs. One coach reported that there were either 'many or none' as their relationship was positive, but had many instances where new steps were taken to keep the positive momentum going. For one dyad, there was a very significant step when the coachee asked the coach to consider using the time to think' process developed by Nancy Kline (1999) in their second session. This was a real breakthrough for both parties and much was achieved in terms of the coaching progress, their relationship and their individual and collective learning as a result. Another dyad both reported a step forward when the coach sought permission to share some of her own experience with the coachee. Until that point the relationship had been positive, but probably would be described as slightly distant or formal. When the coach was able to share some of

her own experience, it released some tension and allowed a much closer and more productive relationship to unfold.

The issue of trust within the coaching relationships proved problematic in this research. Previous work (Hardingham, 2004; Palmer and Whybrow, 2007) suggests that trust is imperative if a coaching relationship is to achieve its potential. Alvey and Barclay (2007) undertook a qualitative study of twenty-seven high-level executives to examine the construct of trust and its characteristics in Executive Coaching. Rather than trust being something that is present and leads to a productive relationship, it is rather that trust is built up from other dimensions of the relationship, such as when the coachee is willing to disclose their honest feelings to the coach and where their organization is supportive to their leadership development. Trust also appears to be a factor of clear contracting in the transition phase of the relationship and finally where the coach shows commitment to the coachee's leadership development needs. In this research, despite specific questions regarding trust, there were no emphatic answers to its presence. When asked directly, most participants felt that trust did exist between them but only two made a point that trust was strongly present. In one relationship where cancellations were made at short notice, trust was destroyed in that relationship and not regained. Therefore, the issue of trust may be explored further specifically, to understand the process of trust, whether it is a dependent or an antecedent of other factors. This exploration could be undertaken in the context of trust as seen in other dyadic relationships, or in organizational relationships as described by McAllister (1995) and McKnight (1998).

The maturity phase, then, describes a relatively stable phase in the coaching relationship. It is characterized by progressive work on developing goals following an agreed coaching process. Each relationship experienced one or more critical incidents of varying significance, but the overall nature of the relationship as established at the transition phase

did not fundamentally change. Even the markedly negative relationship stayed on its volatile course, though the impressions of the two individuals to each other shifted over time. Only one relationship seemed to deteriorate steadily due to a loss of trust and respect of the coach for the coachee.

5.4.5 Endings

All of the coaching relationships concluded clearly at the end of three sessions. However, this had been requested of them as part of the research and was expected. Although this may have given the coaching encounters a possible artificial boundary it was only in the fact that it occurred after three sessions rather than more sessions that might have been arranged in an organizational setting. Most of the relationships ended courteously and in a professional manner. There was some variation in the conclusions, for example, surprisingly, the enduringly volatile relationship ended with both parties believing that they could be continuing friends. The way that this relationship established and progressed begs the question whether it was ever truly a coaching relationship at all.

At the conclusion it was typical for a coach and coachee to agree that updates on progress would be sent. Also, coaches often asked their coachees for some form of feedback on their performance for future development.

At the interview stage the specific question was asked as to whether the coach would coach that person again and of the coachee, whether they would want to be coached by that coach again. In all but one case the answer was positive, with occasionally the caveat that it would depend on the specific circumstances or the issue to be tackled. One coachee noted that she would return to this coach for one set of issue type, but if another kind of issue was to be tackled, she might approach a different coach, due to the style that the coach used and given the balance of challenge or empathy that would be needed to coach on those particular

issues. The one case where the coach would not probably coach the same individual again was where trust had broken down due to cancelled appointments. It is known that one coaching pair have continued with their coaching relationship and are still active several months later.

Most participants reported overall positive views of their coaching relationship with descriptions used such as 'solid', 'good', 'sound', 'personal' and 'professional'.

5.4.6 Comparison of the proposed coaching phase model with other theories

Table 5.1 below shows three theoretical models for the phases of the coaching relationship as presented by West and Milan (2001), Hudson (1999) and Starr (2003) and includes the phases of the relationship suggested by this research.

It can be seen that there are similarities with the other authors who have proposed their views of the sequence of stages in coaching. All propose theoretical phases of the relationship which are substantiated by evidence from their coaching practices, but not necessarily empirically established. In addition, Sperry (2004) supplies his comparison between the phases of the coaching relationship and the psychotherapy relationship.

The model proposed in this research differs from these previously presented ideas, most clearly with the introduction of an earlier phase 'pre-formation'. In addition, this model views the characteristics of each phase in detail and from the participants' viewpoint.

The Process	West and Milan (2001) p. 58	Hudson (1999) pp. 26 -31	Starr (2003) p. 58	This research
The beginning	Contracting and relationship management	Establish the coach-client relationship - form trust	Establish the context for coaching	Pre-formation, including contracting, preparation and exchange of essential information
		Formulate a coaching agreement - establish what is inside and outside the agreement		Transition. The matching of the dyad and the start of creating the relationship
The middle	The work Ongoing review and evaluation	Move from problem orientation to a vision orientation the future the client would prefer	Create understanding and direction	Maturity. The body of the coaching relationship, where rapport builds and forward momentum is enabled.
		Construct a change scenario - develop a future-oriented personal or organizational strategic plan		
		Resist resistance - the focus is on resistance		
		Challenge, probe, confront - connecting a sense of purpose with a vision of a coaching 'result'		
		Coach the new scenario while deepening the relationship - details, timing, priorities, training, integration, revision	Review/confirm learning	
The end	Ending and managing feedback to the organization	Conclude the formal relationship, begin follow-up coaching	Completion	Endings. Agreement of actions, review of outcomes and relationship.

Table 5.1 Summary of previous coaching stage models

5.4.7 Comparison of the phases of the coaching relationship with those of other dyadic development interventions

There are two main paradigms for comparison of the coaching relationship - mentoring and psychological interventions. The main work on mentoring relationships was carried out by Kram (1983). Although this work is almost thirty years old it is still widely supported.

Kram describes a conceptual model of four phases of the mentoring relationship from her study of eighteen relationships in a single corporate setting. She aligns these phases with the stages of adult development and notes that mentoring has the potential to enhance both career development and psychosocial development, much as coaching is able to offer development for career aspiration and behaviour change for its participants.

The most significant difference between Kram's phases and those described for the coaching intervention is the time period over which the two interventions take place. Kram describes mentoring relationships in terms of years, whereas coaching may be seen as a form of brief intervention which lasts in one programme, for perhaps a few months at a time, though coaching relationships can be revisited if both parties desire it.

A comparison of Kram's mentoring phases and the phases in this research is given below in Table 5.2. From this comparison, it can be seen that in the mentoring relationship, the focus of the intervention is in the 'consolidation' phase, much as in coaching it is in the 'maturity' phase. However, in coaching, there is much more description of the phases leading up to this maturity point where the coach and coachee come together and the parameters and boundaries surrounding the proposed intervention are addressed. Perhaps the biggest difference between the two is that mentoring, having lasted for such a significant length of time has an aftermath where the mentor and mentee often have a continued relationship. In

coaching, the relationship appears to be much more bounded and once the short relationship has concluded, it is less usual for the coach and coachee to have any ongoing relationship.

Mentoring (from Kram (1983))			Coaching (from this research)		
Phase	Duration	Characteristics	Phase	Duration	Characteristics
Initiation	6–12 months	Admiration for senior figure. Support and development sought	Pre-formation	Before encounter, may include exchange of written information	Coach prepares for coaching process with understanding and agreement of objectives.
			Formation	Face-to-face encounter for selection.	Coach and coachee are matched through a variety of parameters and prepare to work together
			Transitions	End of chemistry session into first substantive coaching session.	Coaching relationship is established, boundaries and working arrangements are agreed.
Cultivation	2-5 years	Range of development potential peaks. Intimacy deepens. Competence develops	Maturity	End of first session to last session	Goals are agreed, information is shared and a coaching framework is probably followed to generate options for change
Separation	>5 years	Emotional and structural separation. If timely can be positive, but if premature can lead to abandonment issues	Endings	Last session	A review of progress and agreement about feedback to organization/future working is made
Redefinition	After separation	Relationship becomes friendship of potential equals			

Table 5.2 Comparison of the characteristics of the phases of the mentoring and coaching relationships

The psychotherapeutic relationship and its parallels to coaching are given by Sperry (2004). He describes a four phase relationship that broadly follows the coaching relationship, but does not offer time windows for each of the phases. Psychological interactions can vary greatly in elapsed time from brief interventions similar to coaching to those lasting many years. However, based on the substance of the phases, the main differences given by Sperry are in the characteristics in each phase. For example in the assessment phase (formation and transition in this model), the concentration in coaching is towards normative patterns, where psychotherapy looks at maladaptive patterns of behaviour. And in the third phase (maturity in this model) coaching shows a forward focus, where psychotherapy addresses previous experiences and aims for diagnosis and treatment rather than generating options and plans. In the fourth phase (endings in this model), there is 'post-intention monitoring' which may be interpreted as the progress check as mentioned by the participants in this study.

It can be seen then, that this model suggests a framework that probably has more similarity with the psychotherapeutic intervention than with mentoring, though this is due in part to the nature of the elements taken into account (matching of mentor and mentee or therapist and client is not covered in either case). The biggest difference seems to come with the separation or ending phase which appears clear-cut in coaching and psychotherapy but has some lasting legacy in mentoring.

5.4.8 Summary

This review of the findings in answering the first research question leads to the construction of a model of the phases of the coaching relationship. The rich data available from the different stages of collection have allowed much synthesis of analysis to derive the proposed five phase model and to describe in detail its component parts and significance. The five phases of the model are – pre-formation, formation, transition, maturity and ending.

Having suggested a model for the coaching phases, it is then compared with previous theory on this subject and with the theoretical picture of mentoring, as a related dyadic intervention. Finally, the data collection included a specific section exploring the speed-chemistry session method for selection and matching and participants gave their views as to whether this method, or an adaptation of it, would be useful to organizations in undertaking their coach selection and matching processes.

5.5 Characteristics of Executive Coaching relationships

This part of the discussion seeks to respond to the second research question:

- What are the characteristics of different coaching relationships and do they fall into patterns or themes?
 - a. Is it possible to develop a new theoretical proposition for a typology of coaching relationships, which will contribute to the existing theory and will deliver guidance for future coaching professionals?

5.5.1 Introduction

The examination of the characteristics of the coaching relationships follows the data collected after the coaching pairs were formed. Although this generated a very large amount of data, the construction of the proposed model is relatively simpler than that of the phases of the coaching relationship as the data is more homogenous. It was derived from the interviews carried out following the conclusion of the coaching sessions and the reflexive diaries that were completed during the process of coaching. Each coaching pair had been examined in great detail and the results of this analysis are given in Chapter 4. This section sets out some general observations derived from all of the cases with reference to coaching relationship, firstly looking at the language of coaching and how it relates to other dyadic development interventions. Secondly, the two emerging key dimensions of the matrix are explored and explained so as to illustrate how a typology has been constructed. Thirdly there

is an exploration of the positive and negative variations of each of the types and finally each coaching pair is matched to one of the quadrants.

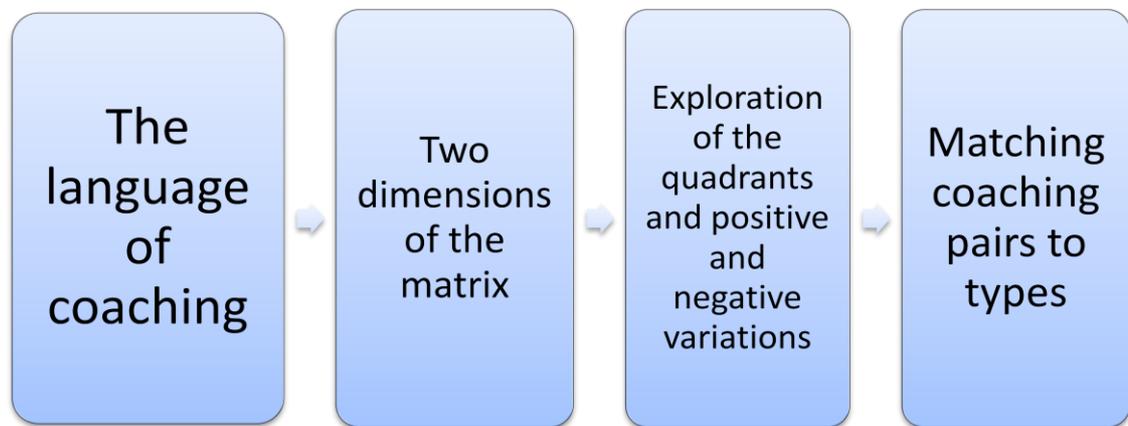


Figure 5.3 Elements of the typology

5.5.2 Language of the coaching relationship

When analysing the whole data set for both models, the phases of the coaching relationship and the typology of coaching relationships, it became noticeable that there was a particular language around coaching which merits some further exploration. In the literature review, looking at other dyadic relationships, some similarity was suggested between the therapeutic, or working alliance (Bordin, 1979) and the coaching relationship. In this alliance, Bordin used the terms ‘goals’, ‘tasks’ and ‘bonds’ to describe the three essential elements of a strong therapeutic relationship, to which Dryden (2008) added the fourth dimension ‘views’. O’Broin and Palmer (2009) extended the theory to term the ‘coaching alliance’ as an optimal collaborative relationship. This research sought to observe this theory of the coaching alliance further and to see if the terms used by Bordin and Dryden in their studies resonated with the coach and coachee participants in this study. Despite asking specific questions with regard to the terms above there was little evidence that any of the participants identified strongly with them.

Bond: When asked specifically about ‘bond’ most of the participants felt that it had been present to some extent. Most comments were in terms such as expressed by UUC30 who responded to a direct question as to whether there was a bond between them with the reply, ‘*the first one [bond] yes to a certain extent*’. For coach FZC87, clearly bond was not present in his coaching relationship with coachee UUC37, though the relationship was very positive and productive. The coach stated, ‘*I wouldn’t say there was a bond there actually. Empathy, yes*’. Most participants, when asked specifically about the presence of the various positive attributes of the relationship responded in the affirmative.

These outcomes suggest that the term ‘bond’ may be present in the coaching relationship, but that the term itself is not one that is readily understood by these participants or that resonates in a coaching setting. This indicates a clear difference in the way that the coaching relationship is perceived compared with other dyadic development relationships such as the therapeutic relationship.

Bordin (1979) describes ‘tasks’ as ‘the cognitive aspects relating to the work of coaching’ and ‘bonds’ as ‘trust, liking and respect’. In the extensive analysis of the outputs from this coaching research, there is much evidence for an understanding of the underlying meaning of both ‘task’ and ‘bond’, as there has been much feedback on the interest in the coaching process and on the tools and techniques used to achieve the desired results (task). There is also extensive evidence for use of words that underlie the meaning of ‘bond’, in that ‘liking’ and ‘respect’ are terms that were identified in both the speed-chemistry sessions and at the interview stage. However, none of the participants used the term ‘bond’ to describe an aspect of their relationship, though when asked specifically if they felt that a bond existed between them, many agreed that it did once the coaching had advanced beyond the transition phase.

In the language of coaching other terms are much more widely used and may be unintentional substitutes for the working or coaching alliance vocabulary. Coaches and coachees referred often to the term ‘rapport’ which is defined as ‘relationship or communication, especially when useful and harmonious’ (Oxford English Dictionary). This is a looser term, but could be deemed to describe the combination of terms, trust, liking and respect, included in the construct of ‘bond’. In the same sense coaching participants also use the terms ‘chemistry’ and ‘fit’ to describe the same concept.

Goal: The term ‘goal’ was one of Bordin’s (1979) descriptors that was used by these participants on a regular basis, almost exclusively at the speed-chemistry session stage. There was only one specific mention of ‘goal’ at the interview stage with regard to the coaching relationship. This was for Coaching Pair 12 (coach FZC98 and coachee UUC46) where the coach described the coachee positively as being ‘goal-focused’. At the selection and matching stage ‘goal’ appeared as one of the key constructs in the analysis of the feedback transcripts. This does not seem to translate through to being of great importance when examining the relationship in the maturity stage.

In the coaching literature the term ‘goal’ is widely used both in academic and practitioner led writing and is the foundation of a number of coaching models, for example the GROW model designed by Whitmore (2002), where the ‘G’ stands for goal.

Task: The term ‘task’ was not mentioned by any participant and was, therefore, assessed to be not part of the language of coaching when considering the dynamics of the coaching relationship.

Rapport: Rapport was mentioned by both coaches and coachees very regularly as one of the descriptors applicable to the coaching relationship. Coachee UUC21, for example, expressed the importance of rapport in enabling an atmosphere of openness, which was also expressed

by coachee UUC42. Both suggest that the perception of the presence of rapport enables openness in the relationship allowing for more personal disclosure and a deeper relationship. Coachee UUC46 described rapport as '*going beyond the formal coaching relationship*' and described the two-way exchange of information that enabled this to be built up in the course of their second and third coaching sessions.

Rapport was represented in different forms, as suggested for example between coach FZC103 and coachee UC52. This was a volatile and challenging relationship overall and interestingly the coachee in this pair reports that, '*we definitely had rapport.*' This supports the view of this relationship as being very one-sided to the extent that each one's perceptions of the relationship are so very different. Also for coach FZC72 the initial rapport that was clearly present in the relationship at the speed-coaching sessions and in the first proper coaching session was destroyed by her coachee in the way that the second session was cancelled at such short notice.

In the reflexive diaries, the main thing to note is that 'rapport' was mentioned sixteen times as a factor in the coaching relationship.

Trust: Alongside 'rapport' and 'empathy', 'trust' is a commonly cited term amongst the participants. Coachee UUC10 noted very strong levels of trust that might be exerting a similar effect to that of rapport, as shown above, in that it is enabling a more open conversation to take place. This connection between trust and openness was also made by coachees UUC25, 42 and 46. Specifically, coach FZC87 described the building of trust to allow disclosure of particularly sensitive information.

Trust was felt as a strongly positive factor in many of the relationships. For example, coachee UUC30 noted '*definitely, I completely trusted her, I didn't hold back with any information*'. For coachee UUC37 trust was linked to the similar experiences that the coach

had had. He noted, '*therefore you could trust him, as he'd had that experience and had to deal with these things*'.

Again, as with rapport, trust was not always strongly positive and may have taken some time to build, as reported by coach FZC103 reported. In fact, it is suggested that there were aspects of this relationship that did not inspire trust, certainly from the coach's point of view. However, later in her interview transcript this coach said, '*I think ... it required a bit of a crisis to add some trust*'.

The section above explores the language used to describe concepts in the coaching relationship and compares this with research on other dyads such as therapeutic interventions. It shows that, unless prompted, coaches and coachees do not commonly use the terms coined in the therapy literature; goal, bond or task. However, there are a number of constructs that were regularly used to describe facets of the coaching relationship; rapport and trust being the main ones. These terms were sometimes used interchangeably to describe a state in the relationship that enables a deepening of the relationship and the disclosure of more personal information. Both terms were felt to be positive attributes of the relationship but were not universally present, or not present all of the time. Indeed it was shown in Coaching Pair 4 that rapport and trust that were built initially could be destroyed for one of the pair by the actions of the other.

The presence of trust and rapport between the members of a coaching pair could be viewed as being a proxy measure for the level of partnership that was present between them, as this measure was reported on by almost all participants and were clearly important in the dynamics of the relationship.

MBTI®

The CV and Biographical questionnaires completed by all participants included a request to supply their MBTI® type if known. All the coaches and most of the coachees supplied this information, suggesting that it was a commonly used parameter in organizational diagnostics. When the speed-chemistry sessions were held, only a few participants mentioned MBTI® either because of similarity or difference. In one coaching pair (2) their MBTI® profiles were the same (ENFP), which pleased the coach but caused the coachee to feel that it might interfere with the level of challenge offered. When it came to the interview stage, MBTI® was hardly mentioned.

Whilst MBTI® is clearly a well-used tool within organizations, previous research (Scoular and Linley, 2006) showed no real influence of match or mismatch on the coaching relationship. The current research would suggest that whilst most of the participants were aware of their type, the real influence that it had on either their choice of partner or the quality of the relationship was, at best, minimal.

5.5.3 The key dimensions of the typology - Pace and Partnership

From the case studies that were explored in this research considerable data was generated to give meaning to the nature of the coaching relationships that were experienced by the participants. In systematically analysing this data, patterns began to emerge that described two main attributes of each of the relationships, these have been termed; pace and partnership. Firstly the data that leads to these constructs is discussed and then each construct is further examined for its relevance to understanding the dynamics of the coaching relationship.

Pace: this construct described the energy or dynamics between the two members of the coaching dyad. The analysis of the narrative brought out descriptions of this dimension with

the use of terms such as ‘energized’, ‘relaxed’, ‘laid-back’, ‘enthusiastic’. Where words such as ‘relaxed’ and ‘laid-back’ were used, the pace of the dyad might be deemed to be low and where pairs described high levels of ‘energy’ or ‘enthusiasm’ pace was considered to be high. These words were usually backed up by further narrative that described a relationship that had high momentum and forward energy or one which was more reflective and measured. Each coaching pair provided evidence of its level of pace and this was a prevalent theme throughout the transcripts.

From the data in the interviews and reflexive diaries, ‘energy’ or ‘energized’ were commonly used terms being mentioned thirty-five times. When considering the energy levels of the coaching pairs a number of references were made: Coachee UUC13 described a growing energy during their relationship. He noted, ‘*as I say the energy was going up*’. The coach in this pair (coach FZC64) also noted a specific incident which caused the energy level to change, ‘*it was a genuine light bulb moment and it was just amazing – because the energy level changed dramatically*’. Overall, the energy in this relationship however was on the low side, being described as ‘relaxed’ and ‘comfortable’ by both coach and coachee. A further term relating to the pace of the relationship was ‘enthusiasm’. This was linked to terms such as ‘fired up’ (coach FZC76) and ‘excited’ (coachee UUC30).

Low energy levels were also noted by some of the coaching pairs. Suggesting reduced energy, the coach in Pair 5 (FZC72) spoke of her coachee needing to lift her energy levels and that there was much time allowed for thinking and reflection. A number of participants reported feeling ‘relaxed’ within their partnerships, for example UUC21 and 27. Coachee UUC49 described being, ‘*on comfy chairs, sat back, relaxed*’ and the relaxed style of the coachee (UUC49) was noted by coach FZC99.

Also linked to the low pace descriptors was the term ‘laid-back’. This was used for example by coachee UUC27 in relating that her impressions of her coach (FZC80). By contrast,

coachee UUC30 described moments in her second session with coach FZC81 as 'intense'. This intensity is echoed in a high energy sense by coachee UUC25 when she described the relationship being, '*intense when you challenge your thoughts*'.

The term 'relaxed' was also used in a different context which does not relate to this construct of energy or pace in the partnership. A large number of participants described a level of relaxation which clearly relates to a level of comfort within the relationship instead of to the energy levels described above. For example, FZC103 described her coachee feeling '*safe and relaxed*' and coach FZC58 related that she was '*relaxed and present*' before entering into the coaching sessions as a result of undertaking some preparation beforehand.

Partnership – this construct described the level of equality exhibited between the two participants within each coaching pair. A high level of partnership was evidenced by feedback that the two participants worked together as equals, that the balance of work, (questions, responses, speaking) was more or less even and that each felt at a similar level of control or importance to the other. A low level of partnership emerged where one participant or the other led the relationship. This might be either the coach or coachee and could be seen as a positive attribute or a negative one. In some cases the coachee felt that, as the perceived client, they were 'in charge' and were demanding in what they expected of the relationship. In other cases, the coach felt that, as the 'professional', they were in the driving seat, though this was less prevalent.

One of the indicators of high partnership levels within a relationship was taken to be the level of sharing of personal information between the coach and coachee, and particularly when the coach shared information about themselves. This was noted in Coaching Pair 1 and was considered a 'rapport-building' process. This coach went on to note that one particular critical moment resulted in 'increased intimacy' between them. The key for this coaching pair was the balance of input from each side. The coachee (UUC10) described a personal

connection between them which was 'professional enough'. In Coaching Pair 3, the overall word to describe the relationship seems to be 'comfortable'. As described above this pair had overall low energy, but it was of a kind that they relaxed in each other's company and shared an equal partnership. It was described as a 'work in progress'.

Other coaching pairs exhibited more unequal relationships. In addition, their reflections compounded this by giving very different reports of how they felt the relationship was shaped. Two coaches were particularly concerned by their own performance (FZC62 and 80). This 'leaked' into the relationship with their partners. Coachee UUC08 noted too much 'small talk' in the relationship and found it awkward when the coach asked for feedback. In a different way, Coaching Pair 5 shared a problematic unequal relationship, though this only manifested itself at the second session. The coachee (UUC21) cancelled the session at the last minute and this resulted in a 'pulling back' by the coach (FZC72), who reported a loss of trust and rapport with the coachee from then on. A similarly problematic relationship was created between FZC103 and UUC52, though these problems were evident from the very first session. The coachee noted, '*loss of professional distance*' between them and that the coachee, '*took liberties with the relationship*'. She reported that the third coaching session was, '*an angry, negative rant*', whilst the coachee considered it to be a normal coaching session. At the other end of the energy scale, the pairing between coach FZC80 and coachee UUC27 might be described as 'lacklustre'. The coachee was overall positive about her coach and said that she 'respected' him. However, the coach did not seem to really enter fully into the relationship, at one point giving himself some 'self-coaching' in order to identify why he was disengaged from the partnership.

On the other hand some unequal relationships were very beneficial. Coaching Pair 4 enjoyed a high pace relationship, but it was seen as a pairing of a mature, experienced female coach with a younger male coachee. They enjoyed similar interests though they noted that, '*they*

were not similar people'. The coach (FZC69) was seen by the coachee (UUC18) as 'professional'. There is a sense in this relationship very much that the coach led the coachee and drew him into undertaking actions and making progress. This was received well by the coachee and positive work resulted from the pairing.

A number of coaching pairs used the term 'mutual' to describe their relationship. Coach FZC98 noted that his pairing with coachee UUC46 was, '*mutual, not hierarchical*'. Similarly coachee UUC37 enjoyed a 'mutual' relationship with coach FZC87. Both coachee UUC30 and UUC44 described their relationship as having 'mutual respect'. And coachee UUC42 noted that his relationship with coach FZC92 contained, '*an element of mutual sharing*'. 'Mutual trust' was noted by coachee UUC27 and by coach FZC87. In fact there were forty-two instances of the term 'mutual' within the coaching pairs.

There were some very clear examples of successful high partnership pairings. For example Coaching Pair 9 were very clear that they agreed on an abundance of positive attributes in their relationship and that it was, '*a relationship of equals*'. This overall impression was shared by coachee UUC42 and coach FZC92. The dynamic in this relationship appears to have been one where the coach gave the coachee space to 'get things off his chest' whilst gently guiding the conversation to achieve the best outcomes. They described a 'clear mutuality' between them.

Overall there was a clear consideration in the coaching pairs of the presence or lack of partnership between them, which was expressed in a variety of ways. A strong partnership was mostly, but not always beneficial and, conversely, a more one-sided relationship was not necessarily taken to be a negative.

5.6 Construction of the proposed matrix

Analysis of the data concerning the coaching pairs above reveals two themes which occur more frequently than any other observations made. These two themes describe the level of pace or energy between the participants and the level of partnership shared between them. Every coaching pair gave reflections which are manifestations of these two constructs (see Appendix XV). It is asserted, therefore, that these two dimensions should be used to construct a matrix which can be used to describe a typology of coaching relationships and that each coaching pair will uniquely fit into one of the resulting types.

This matrix is shown in Figure 5.4 below: The x axis shows the Pace dimension and the y axis shows Partnership, with the low levels being to bottom and left and high being top and right. This gives rise to four quadrants as shown. Within each of these quadrants, further variations of each type emerge with either positive or negative features and these are discussed in detail in the four sections below. In each of the explanations given below for the individual types the coaching pairs that have been assigned to these types are indicated and the reasoning behind this is explained.

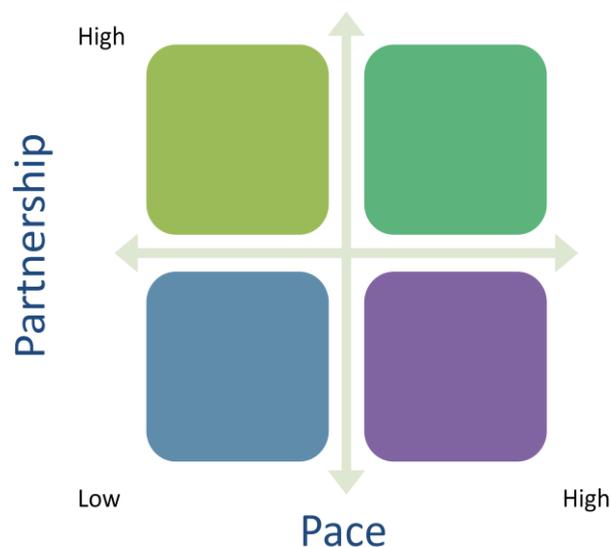


Figure 5.4 A typology of coaching relationships

5.6.1 Type 1 – The Solid Alliance

This type exhibited a high level of partnership but a medium or low level of pace. The coaching pairs deemed to be included in this type were pairs 1, 3, 11 and 13. This type is characterized by the equality of each participant, but used words in their interviews and reflexive diaries that suggested a relaxed dynamic within the relationship.

In Coaching Pair 1 the outcome was felt to be positive and key words to describe the relationship were –empathy, politeness, courtesy, modesty and similarity. Trust and rapport were strong between the pair. There was a reflection that the coach took a reflective stance in the relationship, allowing the coachee to ‘have her voice’. It was analysed as a ‘low activity partnership’ albeit a positive one.

Coaching pair 3 had a ‘balanced, mutual partnership’, which worked positively for each of them. Key words that were repeatedly used by both the coach and coachee were ‘comfortable’ and ‘relaxed’. There was a clear ‘light bulb’ moment in their relationship (critical incident) which changed the energy positively, but these energy levels were not maintained in the next session.

Coaching Pair 11 generated similar descriptor words – comfortable, mutual respect, trust, constructive, relaxed, warm and friendly. In session 3 of this relationship the coachee noted that they were ‘*at exactly the same level*’. Trust between them was felt to be high and this enabled strong levels of self-disclosure.

Coaching Pair 13 followed a similar path with use of words such as – comfortable, no awkwardness and professional. They felt that the relationship ‘*started well and built from there*’. There were no big critical moments and both trust and openness built steadily, so that the relationship gradually strengthened.

All of the relationships in this group had positive overall outcomes and none had any strong negative features.

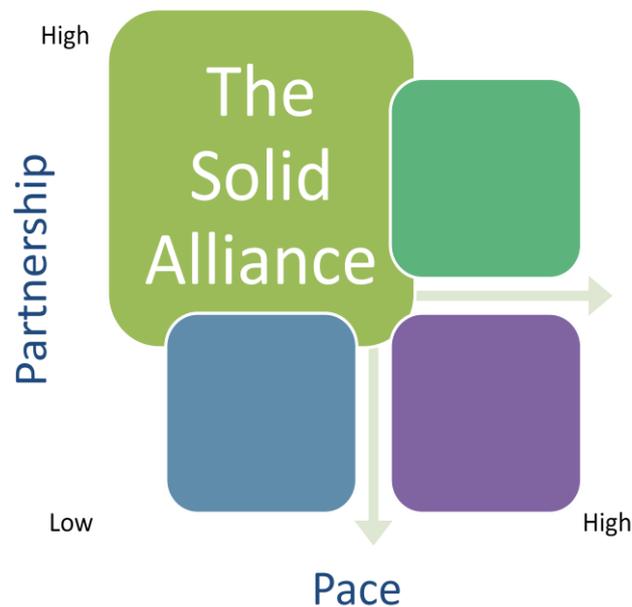


Figure 5.5 Type 1 - The Solid Alliance

5.6.2 Type 2 – The Comfort Zone

The Comfort Zone is represented by low Pace and low Partnership. The coaching pairs that were seen to fit into this quadrant were pairs 2, 5 and 7. In some way these pairings showed that one of the dyad somehow may be leading the other, or that there was a low perception of collaboration between the two. It does not necessarily have to mean that one of the pair is particularly dominant or in control, it could be that there is an absence of equality or of real partnership between them. Secondly, the energy between the participants is low or medium, there is not a strong dynamic of positive movement, though this also does not have to be negative and could be a safe and supportive environment in which the coachee can develop.

Coaching Pair 2 gave feedback that differed quite a bit, the coach being anxious about her performance and the coachee was unenthusiastic about the prospect of the coaching

sessions. There was inequality between them, despite them being the same MBTI® type and having similar personality attributes. The way this manifested was for the coach to want to capitalize on the similarities, whilst the coachee came to believe that a coach that was different from her would have been more beneficial. However, they were both engaged within the relationship and keen to produce results. Full participation was achieved in all sessions, despite obstacles. Overall, the coach termed this relationship '*an easy conversation between friends*' and all of the feedback did not give an impression of a strong dynamic between the pair.

The participants in Coaching Pair 5 gave dissimilar accounts of their relationship which indicates that there was some dissonance present and is a contributory factor in it being deemed low on the Partnership dimension. There were difficulties within this coaching relationship with regard to scheduling of appointments and cancellations at short notice. This led to the relationship becoming one-sided and for the trust to be diminished between them. The final session was reported as being 'transactional' and in the feedback there is a clear indication of lack of energy or will to make the relationship more dynamic.

The energy in Coaching Pair 7 was mismatched, indeed this was one of the words used by one of the pair to describe the relationship overall. The coach described the dynamic as '*going through the motions*' which indicates that there was low enthusiasm from him for this relationship. The outcome was felt to be mixed as the coachee had a much better impression of the relationship than did the coach. Other elements of the relationship were described, such as – 'superficial rapport', 'trust, up to a point', 'distance' and 'empathy, but not expressed well'.

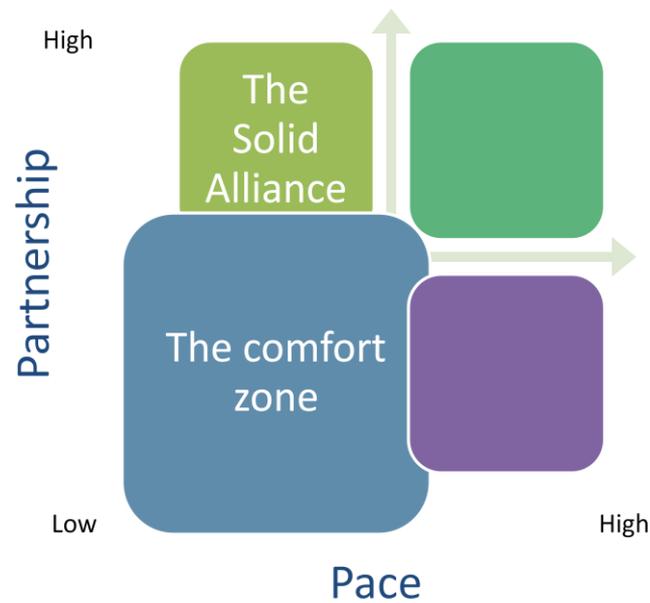


Figure 5.6 Type 2 - The Comfort Zone

5.6.3 Type 3 – Follow My Leader

The relationship is high Pace but in a one-sided relationship with low levels of Partnership.

This type includes coaching pairs 4 and 14.

This type of relationship can be positive or negative. For Coaching Pair 4 it was actually a positive relationship. The pair comprised a very experienced female coach with a younger, male coachee. The coach also took quite a ‘challenging’ line with a keen emphasis on outcomes and actions. This was a slight point of frustration when the coachee did not complete the work promised. However, there was good rapport between them and much work was accomplished. There was a sense in this pairing of the coach driving the relationship forward, but that the coachee was willingly being brought along. The pace was high with good forward momentum and positive outcomes.

Coaching Pair 14 was the most consistently negative of all the coaching relationships.

Whilst it has been shown above that an unequal level of partnership can manifest a positive conclusion, for pair 14 this was definitely not so. The pairing was dominated by the coachee

with the coach on the back foot from the very beginning. The coach gave very defensive feedback and felt that she made some incorrect judgements in setting up the sessions in the way that she did and that this allowed the situation to be out of control at some points. There is no doubt that there was very high energy, as the coach often was left exhausted, but the energy was quite destructive.

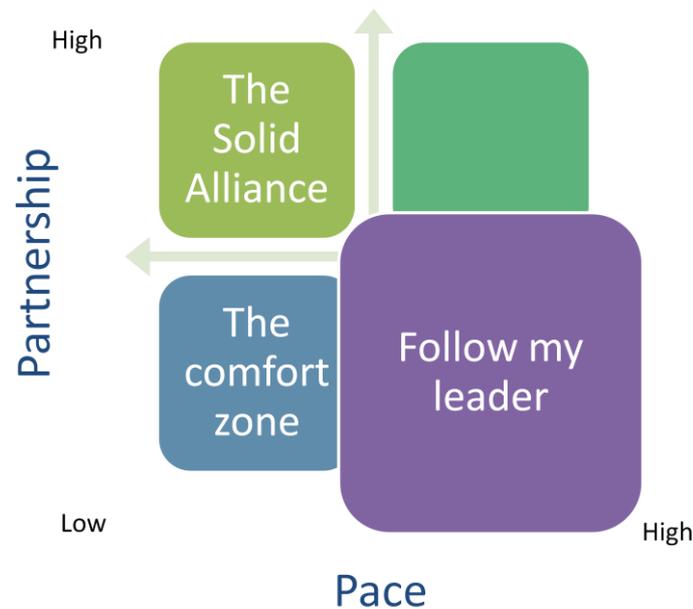


Figure 5.7 Type 3 - Follow my Leader

5.6.4 Type 4 – The Buzz

The final type is termed ‘the buzz’ as it contains high pace and high partnership. Within this type are included Coaching Pairs 6, 8, 9, 10 and 12. Again, as with the other dimensions, this type can manifest itself positively or negatively.

Words that were used by Coaching Pair 6 to describe their relationship were – synergy, exciting, continually developing, willingness to try. This was a pairing of equals who were similarly enthusiastic to get the most out of the coaching intervention. The dynamic between them was described as ‘very positive’. The coach reflected that the coachee was ‘*driven, but not self-centred*’. Openness, honesty, trust and rapport were quickly established. The

relationship deepened with subsequent sessions and the pair felt confident to try a specific tool which resulted in a clear critical moment for both of them. They appeared to really enjoy this coaching relationship and the high pace and partnership was very clearly demonstrated.

Coaching Pair 8 gave the impression of a mutually respectful, professional relationship. They reported feeling well-matched from the beginning. There was a sense of 'building up' for both participants as time moved on. Each reported different critical incidents, but there was no negative or contradictory feedback from either. Although the coach described herself as feeling like 'an older sister' there was no real perception of one-sidedness in the relationship as this perception was matched by a feeling of respect for the coachee and the position she held.

Pair number 9 was summed up by the word 'brevity'. This relationship was like a speed-boat skimming the water. There was clearly a feeling of respect and rapport on both sides equally. The dynamic was set by the coachee who was very action focused and future orientated. The coach exercised agility to match this and they had a series of very productive sessions with actions being achieved by the coachee between each one.

Within Coaching Pair 10 the coaching sessions were all constructive with positive outcomes. There was evidence of clear partnership between them and that the coach was experienced enough to be flexible to the coachee's needs. She allowed the coach to 'drive the agenda', but with a clear handle on the required structure of the sessions so that maximum benefit was derived. Both parties reflected that they had a close relationship with the right amount of challenge to produce positive results.

Finally, Coaching Pair 12 was a non-British pairing of an Irish coachee with a US coach. Their dynamic worked well and both felt that their energies were similar and fed off each

other. There was an immediate affinity and friendliness between them. They report an ‘easy’ relationship between them, but it was not lacking in energy. The coach reported that he found the relationship enjoyable. The coachee appreciated the coach’s ‘sound, impartial guidance’. The relationship was felt to be ‘professional, but not hierarchical’.

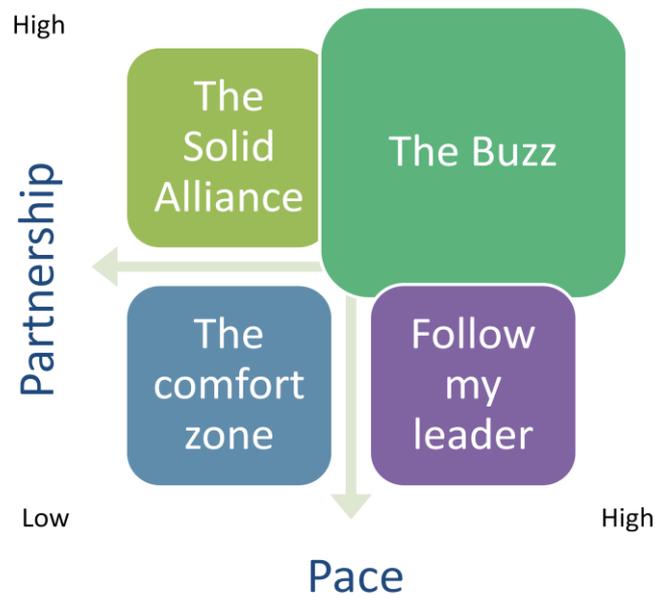


Figure 5.8 Type 4 - The Buzz

5.6.5 The Whole Model

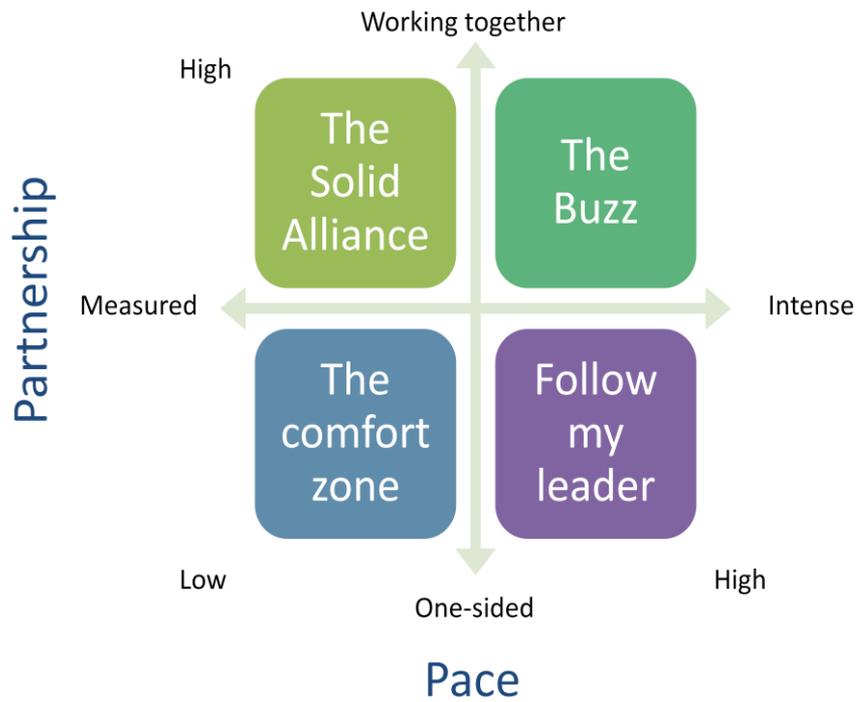


Figure 5.9 A typology of Executive Coaching relationships

5.6.6 Summary of this section

The above descriptions show that the data collected from the coaching pairs was sufficient to enable the proposal of a typology of coaching relationships. Two clear dimensions emerged as being the most influential in evaluating the patterns between the dyads. These were pace and partnership which respectively reflected the level of energy, momentum or the dynamic between the participants and the level of collaboration or equality that existed within each of the relationships. The employment of these two dimensions led to the construction of a typology matrix with four different quadrants. From the detailed analysis of the interview and reflexive diary transcripts, each coaching pair was matched with the characteristics of each of these quadrants or types.

Within each type it is possible to have both positive and negative attributes, so that just because a pair appears in a quadrant with a low level of one or both dimensions it does not mean that this pair is necessarily less effective than others who are in the high dimension quadrant. The important factors are whether the needs of the coachee are met. Sometimes it is more beneficial to a coachee that the coach takes control and challenges them to achieve certain outcomes; equally so, it may be that the coachee needs their coach to be a sounding board and can appear to be more dominant in the relationship, but is actually being well served by a coach who is willing to be patient and exercise positive listening skills. On the Pace dimension a relaxed and laid-back relationship can be as productive as one that is highly energized and dynamic. It is all down to what is needed by each participant and, in fact, mostly by the coach.

For some relationships, however, these dynamics break down and the one-sidedness or abundance of energy can become toxic and it is these relationships that raise questions of alertness for experienced coaches, so that they can observe these dynamics and take corrective action where necessary and possible.

5.7 Overall summary

This research suggests two new theoretical frameworks for the further understanding of Executive Coaching relationship as a process in leadership development: The first, a model of the phases of the coaching relationship shows evidence for five phases from pre-formation through to endings and provides a critical comparison between this model and those put forward for other dyadic interventions such as mentoring or psychotherapy. The second model is a typology of coaching relationships which demonstrates that the fourteen cases studied fit clearly into four types delineated by two dimensions, pace and partnership, taken from the feedback of interviews and reflexive diaries. This promotes the theory that coaching relationships have clear characteristics along these two dimensions and that, with

this awareness, the experienced coach would be able to identify very quickly the attributes and needs of a prospective coachee and make decisions regarding whether to coach them, or how to coach them for their best outcomes.

These two contributions also have the potential for practical impact in the influence that they might exert on coaching practice. This may be in the form of additions to the training of coaches in recognizing coachee types. In terms of the phases of the coaching relationship, it may enable coaches, coachees and contracting organizations to prepare better for coaching interventions, through better understanding of the pre-formation stage and how much better the encounter can be set up by carrying out some early steps. Also, by understanding the different stages such as transitions, the factors that make the relationship work best can be attended to and deliberately enabled where possible. In the second model, the typology of coaching relationships, there is much benefit to be offered to the coaching community in understanding the dynamic dimensions operating within each relationship. The knowledge that there are two key dimensions that can be observed and managed have the potential for giving much flexibility to coaches if they are both self-aware in their coaching stance and observant of their potential coaching clients.

Chapter 6 Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

This research sought to explore facets of the Executive Coaching relationship in the overall context of developing leaders. The current chapter provides a summary of the overall research findings from the qualitative data, comprising narrative feedback, questionnaires, interviews and reflexive diaries. The chapter will also consider the implications of the study for the body of knowledge being developed in the field of Executive Coaching as a leadership development process and the impact of the findings on both the professional environment in which leadership skills and behaviours are being developed and the resources available to the executive coach in carrying out their work as effectively as possible.

6.2 Overview of key research findings

Chapter 4 presented the findings of the research in great detail and Chapter 5 set out to interpret these findings to demonstrate their contribution to new knowledge in the field of leadership development through Executive Coaching in two ways:

- A proposed model of the phases of the coaching relationship
- A typology of coaching relationships which identifies distinguishing characteristics of each relationship and classifies them into groups of common attributes.

6.3. The research contributions

6.3.1 Theoretical contribution

To date little research has been conducted which studies the coaching relationship specifically. Some previous work has examined particular aspects of the coaching

relationship, such as that of Wycherley and Cox (2008), Baron and Morin (2009) and Gray (2010). Others have examined the coaching relationship conceptually using the proxies of either mentoring or therapy literature (Sperry, 2004; O'Broin and Palmer, 2006; 2010). However this study, with the benefit of empirical data collected and analysed using the multiple case study method, is able to offer a contribution to theory by showing the coaching relationship in all its phases and by demonstrating a typology of coaching relationships.

The research shows that the coaching relationship develops sequentially involving five phases; pre-formation, formation, transition, maturity and ending, and that each of these phases has distinct characteristics which evolve consistently throughout all of the case study examples used. Furthermore, the second part of the research shows that coaching relationships can be portrayed using a typology model with four clear patterns emerging. These patterns form from two dimensions observed in the case studies; pace and partnership. The four main groupings do not suggest any one type is necessarily better than any of the others. In addition, cases which are grouped within the same type can have both positive and negative characteristics.

The development of these two emerging theoretical positions in coaching research forms a contributory element to the body of theory concerning the development of leaders and leadership. The choice of study sample group ensured that the participating clients, or coachees, were amongst those individuals who may be eligible for leadership coaching within their organizations. Coaching has been recognized for some time as an effective form of leadership development (Adair, 2006) and, therefore, research which builds knowledge of this developmental intervention is making an effective contribution to theory in this field.

6.3.2 Methodological contribution

This research had two fundamental research questions to answer and in order to get to the most appropriate data for this purpose encompassed a number of different qualitative

methods. The choice of each data collection method was carefully considered so as to achieve the most suitable data for the stage of the process under scrutiny and which would provide the most meaningful rich contextual picture of the coaching relationship.

The overall methodological design was that of a multiple case study (Yin, 2009). The cases study unit of analysis was the coaching pair or dyad. In order to form these pairs to take forward the coaching sessions, earlier stages of the data analysis were conducted. These earlier stages had the dual purpose of forming the pairs and collecting data about the precursor factors of dyadic formation. In order to collect the data to answer the research questions on how coaching relationships develop and whether they can be categorized in any way, data was gathered by the most appropriate method at every stage. Initially, this involved treating confidential written material as narrative at two points in the process; firstly at the very initial point of exchanging biographical or CV information, and then during the speed-chemistry sessions in the feedback form after each 'encounter'. This narrative data was triangulated with additional contributions from the results of a questionnaire instrument previously developed by Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005).

The use of 'thin slices of expressive behaviour' (Ambady et al., 2000; Finkel et al., 2007; Eastwick and Finkel, 2008) as a methodological choice for the data collection in this study used a novel approach to collecting qualitative data in order to answer the proffered research questions. In order to collect feedback from a number of coaches and coachees in a semi-controlled environment, the process used for speed-dating was estimated to be a useful tool. It offered the opportunity to collect data from groups of participants in a quasi-experimental setting, and therefore in a consistent way, so that the feedback would be comparable in the data analysis phase. This was the method used to set up and collect feedback in the speed-chemistry sessions. The choice of this methodology also offered the opportunity of synthesizing it as part of the narrative data collection. In the interview phase, questions were

asked with regard to the process used and whether this could offer opportunities for coach matching and selection in the real world.

Once the coaching pairs were formed, in order to study the dynamics of the coaching relationship and to uncover the characteristics and attributes of each of the coaching dyads, two methods were used, again to provide triangulation and to strengthen the trustworthiness of the data. During the time when the coaching sessions were being carried out, each participant was asked to complete a reflexive diary, recording thoughts and feelings relating to their coaching relationship. This was done as both critical incident reporting and planned reporting around the sessions themselves. It was noted to participants that they need not include information from the content of their sessions. However, some entries were made in this way, as it was material to the reflection on the relationship. In analysis this material was reported sensitively so as not to include content information in the results. The final element of the data collection was a semi-structured interview of each participant. The interview was structured in a way that aimed at reflecting some of the literature-based enquiry from other studies and interventions, but more importantly sought to uncover the dynamics of each relationship so that patterns might be discovered and studied.

In summary, this research achieved its results and its contribution to theory and practice through the careful construction of the data collection phase. Each step of the process was considered and the most suitable method was chosen to gather data. These choices included some novel methodological steps, particularly the use of the speed-dating process to undertake the speed-chemistry sessions for the matching of the coach-coachee dyads.

6.3.3 Implications for practice

Alongside the contribution to theory and methodology this research makes a strong contribution to the practice of leadership development and, specifically, to coaching practice. The use of coaching as a leadership development tool is attracting more research

recently and the body of knowledge that informs good practice is growing rapidly. There is much written in practitioner journals to support executive coaches in their roles developing leaders, however, this informal output needs to be underpinned by empirical evidence such as in this thesis.

The first contribution is offered by adding new weight to the distinctions between coaching, mentoring and therapeutic interventions. The definition of these different processes is often a cause of confusion for clients whether they are the individual being coached or the organization purchasing the coaching. This thesis, in both the extensive review of the literature and the collection of data in answer to the stated research questions, offers clarification of the nature of Executive Coaching and the ways in which it is similar to and different from mentoring or therapy.

The second area of impact for the professional community is the understanding of the different phases of the coaching relationship and the part that they play in this process. For the three main stakeholders of the coaching relationship, the coach, coachee and buying organization, the phases of the coaching relationship have specific relevance and by using the outcomes of this study each party could approach these phases in ways that optimize their effectiveness. The research outcomes show that each stakeholder could approach the coaching intervention much more mindfully and, by having a stronger awareness of the potential impact of the coaching relationship on the outcomes of the intervention, the relationship can be analysed more systematically, its requirements for each party understood better and the development of the relationship from pre-formation to ending can be advanced in as positive way as possible, according to the needs of the coachee.

These impacts may manifest themselves as recommendations as follows: -

	Coach	Coachee	Organization
Pre-formation	<p>Provide the organization with information to enable them to put the coach forward as a possible match with the coachee, based on the parameters being put forward by the decision-maker.</p> <p>Ensure the coach's own needs are met and that the coach can approach the coachee with 'unconditional positive regard' (Rogers, 1961).</p>	<p>Give consideration to what may be the goals of coaching.</p> <p>Give consideration to what sort of coach might be most helpful in achieving these goals; Similarity vs. difference; challenging vs. empathetic; whether the coach's background is important; is a particular coaching approach required?</p>	<p>Ensure clarity of why coachee is being put forward for coaching.</p> <p>Provide information to the coachee on what to expect of the coaching process.</p> <p>Clarify the definition of coaching and how it differs from mentoring and therapy.</p> <p>Discuss some agreed coaching aims and be clear that the coachee is free to discuss any other issues with the coach confidentially.</p> <p>Discuss what sort of coach might be most helpful in achieving the agreed goals.</p> <p>Agree what will be brought back to the org'n as feedback.</p>
Formations	<p>Plan opening questions carefully so as to get responses from potential coachee(s) on the type of coaching they seek and the relationship they want.</p>	<p>Provide the potential coaches with information about your coaching requirements. Ask questions to help clarify their approach and to uncover elements of their style to allow a choice to be made.</p>	<p>No intervention required during the formation process.</p> <p>Approval of chosen match may be necessary.</p>
Transitions	<p>Ensure that contracting is carried out clearly. Follow a checklist of mandatory items, one of which must be confidentiality and another may be scheduling (and cancellation) of appointments.</p> <p>Have a less rigid discussion of ways of working that will enable the coachee to get the most from their coaching programme.</p> <p>Try to uncover any 'elephants in the room' i.e. issues that are obstacles or inhibitors in the coachee's environment.</p>	<p>Update the coach on any developments since the matching session.</p> <p>Be as open and honest with the coach as possible.</p> <p>Their confidential handling of the sessions is assured and maximum outcome will result from as candid a relationship as possible.</p> <p>Agree with coach what will be fed back to the organization.</p>	<p>Agree feedback with the coach and coachee.</p>

Maturity	Provide a safe, open environment for the coachee to enjoy. Act in a professional manner for each session. Be mindful of the relationship and the boundaries that must exist between coach and coachee. Be clear whether you are happy for the coachee to contact you between sessions.	Treat the coach with respect in terms of turning up to sessions on time and if cancellations are necessary, give suitable notice. Be open and honest with the coach and do not be afraid to use silence to find deep reflexive answers.	Agree feedback with the coach and coachee. Agree term of coaching (if not already agreed). Respect coach’s professional code of practice.
Endings	Make suitable time for review of the programme (this may be done at interim stages too). Decide whether further contact with the coachee will be offered. Prepare a report for the organization.	Work with the coach to set out what actions are to be taken and how these will be carried out, what support is required and what obstacles are to be overcome. Celebrate your progress!	Carry out final review with coach and coachee. There may also be a separate review with the coachee based on the outcomes of the coaching and in the context of the original referral.

Table 6.1 Recommendations for stakeholders in the different phases of the coaching relationship

When considering the second theoretical offering of this research, what impact can be gained for practitioners from the typology of coaching relationships that has been offered?

The development of a typology of coaching relationships is probably of most use to the coach practitioner, rather than to the other stakeholders in the relationship, the coachee or the contracting organization.

The coach may gain benefit in their practice from understanding the four main types of coaching relationship and how these relate to:

- The population of coachees that they are likely to coach
- Their coaching style and overall approach to coaching
- The relational needs of their clients at different stages of the coaching process.

Looking at these aspects in more detail:

The coach may consider the population of potential coachees that they wish to coach based on their understanding of the four main types of coaching relationship. Through a process of self-awareness and self-understanding, a coach may conclude that they have particular

strengths when coaching clients who are likely to fit into one or more of the quadrants and, conversely, that they are less skilled in other quadrants. During the selection and matching process the coach may be mindful of the personality and perceived stance of the coachee and decided that they would or would not be a suitable match. This presupposes that they are given any kind of choice in the matter. Typically organizations do not give any choice to executive coaches over who they are given to coach, moreover, some coaches do not believe that they should refuse to coach anyone in case of emotional damage to that coachee. Where this is the case, the knowledge of the different types of coaching relationship will at least serve to prepare the coach for all eventualities. By understanding the permutations and being observant and self-aware, the coach may be able to identify very quickly the dynamics of the coachee and adjust their own coaching posture to accommodate this. This may be done in two ways:

- To match the posture being signalled from the coachee
- To mediate particular facets of the coachee's approach and moderate any unhelpful behaviours.

The coach may feel that they work best in one particular quadrant of the typology and may feel that they need to move the relationship to reflect more closely this quadrant's characteristics. This may be a higher risk strategy as one of the primary understandings in coaching is that the coach should follow the needs of the coachee so, by manipulating the relationship, the coach may be doing disservice to their client. On the other hand, it may be that on one of the dimensions the coach feels that the coachee may benefit from more or less pace or partnership and may move the relationship there to help the coachee. In any case, this strategy may be the domain of the experienced coaching practitioner who has a solid understanding of the psychology of coaching.

This section has shown that the research offers contributions to practice around the two research questions that were examined. All of the stakeholders in the Executive Coaching process may benefit from understanding the phases of the coaching relationship. Each may be able to undertake activities that can maximize the benefit gained from Executive Coaching through creating the most fruitful dyadic pairing. In the second research question which produced the typology of coaching relationships, again new knowledge is offered, though this level of enhancement may sit primarily in the domain of the coaching practitioner.

6.4 Limitations of the research

The researcher made great effort in carrying out this study in way that would produce defensible evidence in support of the arguments put forward. The evidence produced is suitably substantial and has been collected in a rigorous and systematic way. By conducting the research based on clearly defined questions and through a rigorous research design and appropriate methodology and data collection methods, it is claimed that the evidence produced is considerably more trustworthy and robust than would have been achieved through common sense alone. Furthermore, it is suggested that the conclusions drawn are an appropriately cautious reflection on the provisional nature of the theories put forward. However it is also recognized that the research has been carried out by a human researcher on human subjects and must, inevitably, be flawed and have limitations.

An overarching aim of this research was to produce contributions to theory and practice in the field of developing leaders through the intervention of Executive Coaching. In conducting a qualitative study, a rich body of data was produced which offered in-depth evidence on the two research questions that were explored. However, by carrying out the research in this way, the study is limited in a number of ways:

Generalizability

The original sample of coaches and coachees was approximately forty of each. From these, fourteen coaching pairs were formed and these constituted the unit of analysis in the multiple case study design. In order for the findings to be generalizable, the theories that have been developed and suggested should be tested on a much larger sample of the Executive Coaching population. This could be accomplished by extracting some of the evidence from the data and converting them into variables that could be subjected to a large-scale survey based study.

The sample of executive coaches was selected from a group that had almost all completed the Henley Business School Postgraduate Certificate in Coaching, or a similar professional coaching qualification. It might be suggested that, having come from the same coaching 'stable', the coaches may have had a similar approach to the coaching process and that this may influence the results somewhat. In order to overcome this limitation it would be necessary to carry out the same research using a group of executive coaches from another suitable training programme or to conduct a larger scale study, testing some of the findings with a group of executive coaches from a wide range of accredited or recognized coaching programmes.

The typology of coaching relationships has been produced from a limited sample of case studies using coaching dyads. Whilst there is sufficient evidence in the findings to suggest the model described, further evidence might be required to substantiate the robustness of such a typology. Doty and Glick (1994) provide a comprehensive structure and set of requirements for constructing a typology. This thesis does not meet those rigorous requirements, but does offer the beginning of a process and has sufficient foundation for further enquiry.

Reliability

In a number of areas the researcher felt that the data set could have been made more complete with the addition of further observations. For example, had it been possible to allow varying lengths of time in the speed-chemistry sessions would different choices of preferred coach/coachee have been made? This could be a problematic piece of research to set up as it would be difficult to allow groups of individuals to spend varying lengths of time together without there being an element of presupposition or rehearsal introduced into the process. The research on speed-dating (Eastwick and Finkel, 2008) suggests a contact time of three minutes. To allow some exchange of technical information, the speed-chemistry sessions were conducted for five minutes each. In the semi-structured interviews participants were asked about the process used. Many said that overall the process worked but that they would have preferred to have a longer time, perhaps ten or even fifteen minutes. By using a five minute session time, the outcomes of the choices may have been influenced and this could be a topic for further research.

Methodological

The researcher set out to answer two main research questions relating to the Executive Coaching process. Firstly, to establish whether there were clear phases in the coaching relationship and, secondly, to identify patterns between the different coaching relationships and explore whether these fitted into certain types with common characteristics or attributes. In order to carry out this exploration it was necessary to study the whole process of the coaching intervention from first contact to conclusion. This resulted in a longitudinal, qualitative study that needed to collect richly descriptive data from a number of human actors. The collection of appropriate data at each of the stages required adoption of data collection methods that were appropriate for that stage. As a consequence the data collection phase of the research was long and complicated. A number of different methods were used – narrative data collected on written feedback forms at two different stages, questionnaire

data, interview data and reflexive diaries. The management and analysis of this data was also complicated as an analysis protocol was required that allowed all of the data sources to be treated similarly and that would allow reasonable comparison between them. The use of Framework (Ritchie et al., 2003) facilitated this common level of data management and analysis. Although the choice of combination of methods was elaborate it did, the author suggests, deliver rich data that allowed considerable sense-making to be carried out. Not only that, the participants all enjoyed taking part and those that went on to be in one of the coaching pairs derived varying levels of enjoyment and benefit from the experience.

Methodological, trustworthiness

The first part of the data collection was carried out in a quasi-experimental setting. The rationale behind this was to allow each participant the same exposure to information about their counterpart in the same manner as all of the other participants. This included the paper exchange and speed-chemistry session stages. Once the coaching pairs were formed the process then transferred to a truly naturalistic setting. Each of the participating pairs made their own arrangements for setting up sessions and for reporting in their reflexive diaries. At the conclusion of the agreed set of three coaching sessions, the semi-structured interviews were arranged according to the participant's schedule. By conducting these parts of the data collection in such a way, it may be argued that some of the results are biased to fit in with the quasi-experimental environment. However, it is reasonable to offer the argument that the circumstances of the formation process were not so artificial as to taint the results. The initial stages were carried out in an environment conducive to Executive Coaching (Henley Business School, Greenlands Campus) and were conducted in a manner that could be used by an organization to support the selection and matching of executive coaches with coachees. The only elements that would definitely not be part of a normal process were the data collection forms.

Scope of the study

In relation to the point made above, a limiting factor in the research may have been the scope of the project undertaken. To attempt to add to the body of theory by answering both the research questions was ambitious. However, the opportunity to study the coaching relationship through the eyes of a number of real coaching dyads was a tantalizing opportunity. The two research questions required a common framework of data and did not, therefore, mean two separate studies were carried out; rather one process was undertaken and the data collection was designed to take both research questions into account.

It was a deliberate decision when undertaking this research not to specifically take into account coaching outcomes. There has been some focus already on evaluating the outcomes of the coaching process as both a leadership development activity and as a tool for generating behaviour change. This research is problematic and the results are not clear-cut; typical when researching complex interventions that are concerned with behaviour change and involve many variables, one of which is the infinite variability of the human personality. Therefore, in order to maintain the focus of this research it was decided not to include outcomes as a measure of success of the coaching relationship. No formal measure of 'success' was used, the relationships were taken as they presented and their success or otherwise was evaluated as part of the narrative presented via interview and reflexive diary.

The research undertaken concentrated on understanding the coaching relationship from the viewpoint of the participants. The only measure used to assess the outcome of the encounters was whether the relationship had been successful (a positive or negative reflection) from the point of view of the dyadic actors. The evaluation of results of Executive Coaching has proved problematic and a number of studies have attempted to quantify outcome metrics (McGovern et al., 2001; Wasylyshyn, 2003; Greif, 2007;

Passmore and Gibbes, 2007) with varying success. Therefore, no measures of organizational outcome or performance change were employed as metrics of the success of the intervention. Each coaching pair involved in the case studies gave their reflections on the positive or negative nature of the relationship at its conclusion. Brockbank (2008) notes that a number of outcomes are possible and that different types of coaching may be more or less appropriate in order to generate particular outcomes. However, this would have introduced a further level of complexity to the study which was neither appropriate nor useful in revealing the desired outcomes of a model of the phases of the relationship or a typology of coaching relationships.

6.5 Recommendations for future research

Based on the above limitations, and the additional curiosity that the findings might generate, a number of opportunities for further research present themselves.

So as to create stronger generalizability of the presented results, some elements of the study could be adapted for a much wider scale, survey based, quantitative enquiry. Specifically, it may be useful to explore further some of the findings around surface- and deep-level diversity factors, particularly pertaining to gender and background. Some work in this area has been carried out by Scoular and Linley (2006), Wycherley and Cox (2008) and by Gray (2010) looking at goal-setting and personality type. Their findings could be complemented by examining the influence of issues such as background, perception of the coaching process, desired attributes of the coach or coachee and perception of the importance of the coaching relationship on the choice of coach. When considering the second research question and the formation of the typology of coaching relationships, the characteristics of these relationships could form the basis for a larger scale, generalizable piece of research. It would be interesting to discover coach and coachee perceptions of 'pace' and 'partnership', how they interact and how they influence coaching outcomes. Enconced within these

attributes might be the perceptions and importance attributed to similarity versus difference or challenge versus empathy.

It would be very interesting to conduct further research on each of the models to test their generalizability with some specific groups of leaders. The group that was studied in this research was drawn from a general population of senior staff from organizations who were clients of, or connected to, Henley Business School. The main work groups that they belonged to were human resources, training and development, technology/engineering, academia and general management. However, this research could be replicated and used to study leadership development amongst distinct groups of people to examine a) level of homogeneity of findings within each group and b) similarity or difference of findings between groups. There are as many suitable study groups as there are professions, and it may be interesting to study leaders in fields such as marketing, engineering, medical, public sector, academic and creative industry. These groups could potentially generate some real differences in results which could corroborate or refute these first findings, or could offer subtleties within the main classifications indicating particular attributes exhibited by the members of the group. For example, it would be interesting to see whether the perceptions of wanting the coach to be challenging or empathetic varied between engineering leaders and creative leaders. Equally what might the distribution of these different leaders be amongst the four main types of relationship? Would the pace and partnership measures provide groupings around one particular quadrant for a specific leadership group, or would there be an even spread as would be expected in a mixed, general population?

As has been described above, a possible limitation of this research was to conduct the initial stages of the coaching using a quasi-experimental approach. It was conducted in this manner in order to maintain some similarity of process in the early stages and allow the feedback to be collected and analysed with some measure of consistency. For comparison, this research

could be carried out in a totally naturalistic environment. Once coaching pairs have been established no real differences in method are required. However, in order to complete the matching and selection process, further data would need to be collected concerning the process used within the real-life organization. A further option would be to work with organizations that currently engage executive coaches on a regular basis and persuade them to adopt the speed-chemistry process as a selection and matching tool. Agreement of a protocol would be required so that paper-based information was standardized and exchanged, and the speed sessions were carried out for an agreed duration (say ten minutes). This could offer a good comparison looking at the attributes of the relationship compared with those that were selected by the process formerly used within the same organization. A parallel data collection path could be used.

It has been previously noted that outcomes were not studied in this research. This was so as to maintain focus and to conduct a researchable study. However, the quality of the coaching relationship is cited by many as being one of the most important factors in coaching and therefore, if this is true, one would expect there to be better coaching outcomes when the relationship is good. This could be particularly suitable for a quantitative positivistic study where a large sample of coaches and coachees could be asked to rate various aspects of the relationship. These results could be evaluated alongside the coachee and their organization identifying the outcomes of the coaching intervention, whether goals were achieved, behaviours changed or achievement against performance targets met.

Finally, in general terms, the research could be examined in the light of Doty and Glick's (1994) terms for development of typologies. They set out a system for construction of a reliable typology and this research could be examined based on those rigorous strictures for further development of both models produced.

Many opportunities exist to continue research into the coaching relationship and into the

models offered as outcomes of this study. Both qualitative and quantitative methodologies could be used to extend enquiries to look at other cohorts of coachees, methods of selection and matching, and to further refine the characteristics used to describe the attributes of the four quadrants of the typology.

6.6 Concluding remarks

In conclusion, from the initial aspiration of answering two research questions relating to the coaching relationship in Executive Coaching as a process in leadership development, data was generated and analysed that enabled the construction of two models which add to the body of theory and practice on this topic.

The study has examined in great detail the literature concerning the nature of leadership and of developing leaders. For leadership development to occur an understanding is required of how adults learn and transform their knowledge, skills and behaviours. There is an established body of theory that describes these learning processes. The various interventions that contribute to adult leadership development have been described by a number of authors. Many of these development interventions involve dyadic relationships some of which, notably Executive Coaching, mentoring, psychological therapies and personal consultancy, share a number of attributes. They are also different in a number of ways and this is explored from the view of the extant literature. Within all of these dyadic relationships one of the most important factors cited is the relationship between the professional practitioner and their client. In some interventions this relationship has been researched extensively over a number of years as these interventions share a long history. However, the executive coaching relationship has not yet enjoyed this level of research as it is a more recent intervention.

Given that there was much to be explored within the coaching relationship, the questions that were most interesting for this thesis concerned the development of the coaching

relationship and whether different relationships could be seen to fit into patterns concerning their attributes and characteristics. This qualitative, exploratory multiple case study gathered evidence in answer to both of these research questions. The data was complex and robust and was analysed using a recognized qualitative framework. This evidence demonstrated that the coaching relationship echoed characteristics of the mentoring relationship, though it produced five main phases rather than four due to the addition of an early pre-formation step. When looking at the characteristics and attributes of each of the relationships, the findings generated a typology of coaching relationships that had two dimensions, pace and partnership, as the axes. Each of the coaching pairs used as the unit of analysis in the case study was analysed and matched to one quadrant of the typology.

The two research questions have been answered clearly and have produced contributions to both theory and practice and, in addition, by using novel methods in the data collection, have offered a contribution to methodology. All of the findings of this research merit further research; to develop the models beyond this point, to expand the studies to larger populations and to apply these methods to other enquiries. Therefore, the objectives of this research have been met.

6.7 Personal reflection

Prior to my management training, finally through my MBA, I had been a natural scientist and so the process of conducting any kind of social science research was a very new concept to me and required a new mindset. I had been accustomed to framing a hypothesis and collecting experimental data to confirm or refute that hypothesis. I had not before given great attention to ontology and epistemology and had much to learn in undertaking this doctoral research. As often happens with new areas the concepts of defining knowledge and how we build understanding based on our perceptions and interpretations of the world

became of great interest. I felt enormously privileged to be accepted by Warwick Business School.

When I set out on this research journey I was very naive to the research process and my development was urgently needed. However, I found that I enjoyed the process of conducting the research enormously and embraced the new mindset with enthusiasm. The experience of going from a blank sheet of paper through the development of my literature review, research design, data collection and analysis and writing up was a real evolution of understanding. This was much enhanced by having two superb supervisors whose knowledge, attention to detail and patience supported me in the best way I could have hoped. Further step-changes came when I presented my work at colloquia and conferences and the experience and feedback gained from these passed from terrifying to exciting and welcome. The end-game was hard. Getting from draft to final thesis was fraught with technical and intellectual issues. The experience has been difficult and frustrating at times, but I can honestly say that I have remained passionate about my subject throughout and I never regretted undertaking this for one minute. And now I am just beginning to be a researcher.

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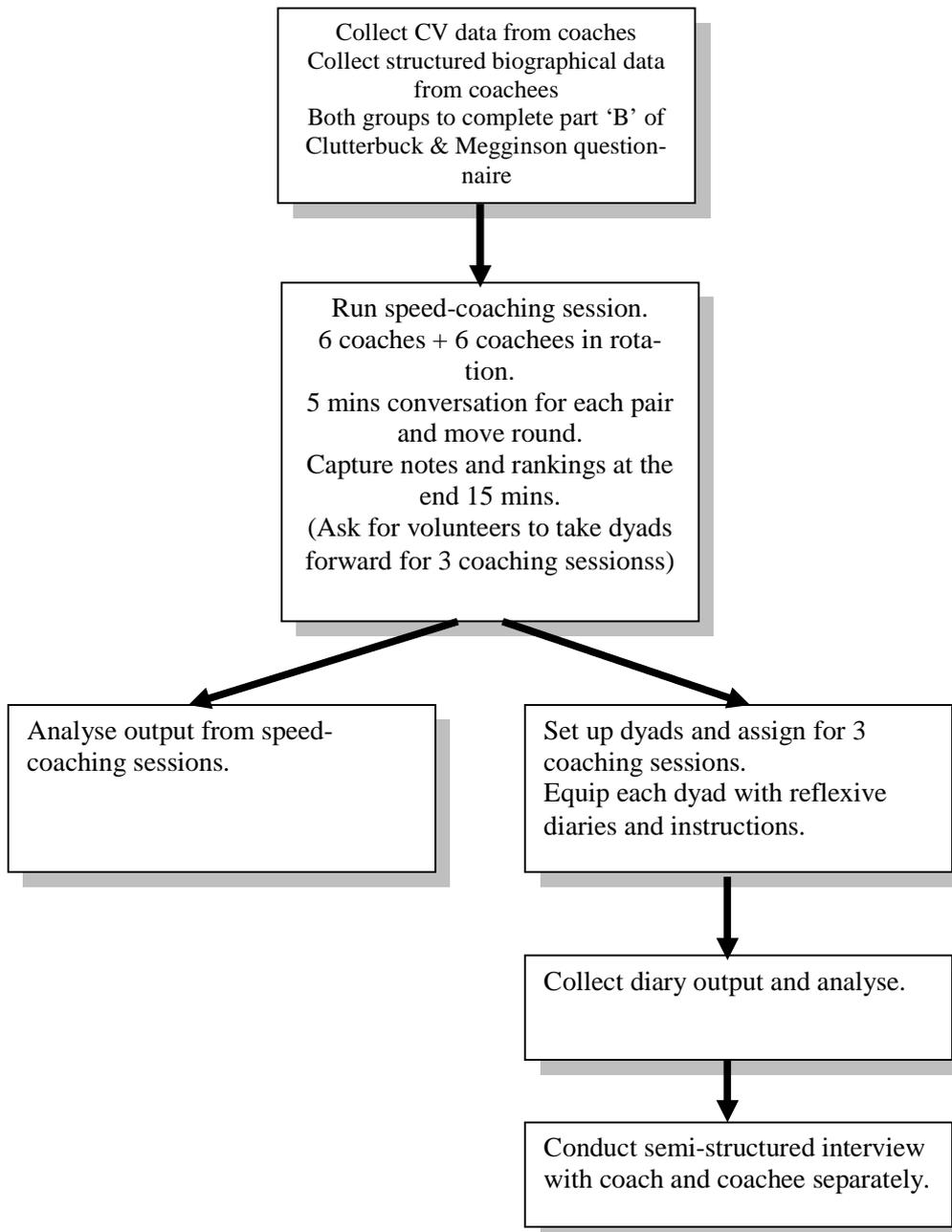
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Appendix I. List of Coaching Journals Used

Journal	Publisher
Coaching: An International Journal of Theory Research and Practice	Taylor and Francis
The Coaching Psychologist	British Psychological Society
International Coaching Psychology Review	British Psychological Society
International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring	Oxford Brookes University (e-journal)
International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching	European Mentoring and Coaching Council

Appendix II. Data collection protocol



Appendix III. Narrative account of data collection

Sequence

Step 1. CV and biographical information

Before meeting their opposite numbers coaches and coachees exchange CVs/biographies, so that they had some paper-based information on the people they were going to encounter. They viewed this information and then wrote their views as feedback onto the forms (space provided to do so). They ranked the coaches or coachees in order of preference (1 being most preferred). At this stage they also completed the Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) (Part B) questionnaire.

Step 2. Speed-coaching sessions

Once the CV/biographical feedback has been collected, the coaches were taken to the meeting room and each was seated at a table (coaching station) out of earshot of the others. The coachees were brought in shortly afterwards and one coachee went to sit with one coach. They start the process in these pairs and conduct a speed chemistry meeting for 5 minutes and then complete a feedback form on that brief session. The coachees then move on to the next coach in the group, repeat the five minute meeting/5 minute feedback process with each other and then move again to the final pairing. At the end of the three speed chemistry meetings, they complete their feedback forms and, again, rank the coaches or coachees according to preference.

The ranking outcomes then allow for the formation of some 'ideal' coaching pairs.

Step 3.

Coaching sessions These coaching pairs were asked to conduct three 'real' coaching sessions within the following three months or so. The first of these coaching sessions should be face to

face, but thereafter, if it was more convenient to conduct these sessions by telephone (or other virtual option).

During the course of conducting these coaching sessions, each participant was asked to keep a reflexive diary. The purpose of the diary was to capture feedback on factors relating to the coaching relationship only. Entries to the diaries were made either into a physical notebook diary, or electronically to a confidential e-mail address.

Stage 4. Interviews and reflexive diaries

During the time of conducting their coaching sessions, each participant was asked to complete a reflexive diary based on their observations of the coaching relationship.

Finally, once the three coaching sessions of each pair have been completed, each participant was asked to attend a semi-structured in-depth interview, again concentrating on the elements concerning the coaching relationship only.

The above sequence took place in three main sets, called T1, T2 and T3. T1, the first of all the sets differed from the others only in that the documentary evaluation and the speed chemistry meetings were conducted in one group of six.

Appendix IV. Participants' profiles

Coach code	Coaching style	Coaching qualifications	Coaching experience	Business experience	MBTI	Accreditation/supervision
FZC57	Supportive empathetic challenging	Lane 4 NLP Practitioner	Formally 5 yrs	L&D Private and public sector	INTJ	EMCC Yes
FZC58	Thinking/emotions approach. Challenge limiting assumptions	Henley Certificate Accredited APECS supervisor	5 years 20 hrs/month 75% senior level	Own business 13 yrs. Managing corporate coaching at Henley	INTJ	APECS Yes
FZC59	Relaxed but probing	Henley Certificate	10+ yrs 1000s hours 75% senior	20+ yrs HR	?	AoC Yes
FZC60	Pragmatic Collaborative Challenge with care	2yr Surrey Uni NLP Master Practitioner JCA EI profiler Pearson Marr personal branding	1000s All senior	Variety of snr mgmt roles	ENTJ/P	APECS Yes
FZC61	Aware Emphatic Relaxed Informal Professional	Henley Certificate	4 months 20 hours 50% senior	Financial professional Academic	ESTJ	None N/K
FZC62	Solution focused Supportive Facilitative	Henley Cert BPS Level A/B Firo elements	3 ½ yrs 75+ hrs 25% senior	13 yrs large plc 14 yrs consultancy 3 yrs small business	ENFP	Henley Register Yes
FZC63	Creative Resourceful Solution-focused	Henley Cert	3 yrs >250 hrs	10yrs corporate law	INFP	AoC Yes
FZC64	Open and supportive	Henley Cert	5yrs 100s Most at senior	PLC Board Director	ENFJ	AoC Yes

FZC65	Pragmatic Collaborative Challenging	3 Coaching Certs Advanced Cert Coaching supervision MA counselling Personal branding EI certificate	20yrs + 1000s All senior	Organizational line and finance roles	ENFJ/P	APECS Yes
FZC66	Session cancelled					
FZC67	Session cancelled					
FZC68	Session cancelled					
FZC69	Respect for the individual, ability to create an environment of sustainable behaviour and attitude change	Henley Cert	20 yrs 2000 30%	Senior posts in Universities/ large international companies/ charities. Many advisory boards	ENTP	Henley Register Yes
FZC70	Conversational Goal driven Challenging Inspiring	Henley Cert Certified Predictive Index Analyst	3 yrs >250 hrs 80% senior	15 yrs Advertising blue chip companies	INTP	
FZC71	Non-directive Challenging where required Supportive with warmth and humour	Meyler Campbell Business Coach MBTI practitioner	6+ yrs 30 hrs/month 95% senior	>20 yrs senior executive HR	ENFP	FCIPD APECS Yes
FZC72	Non-directive Challenging where required Supportive with warmth and humour	Meyler Campbell Business Coach MBTI practitioner	6+ yrs 30 hrs/month 95% senior	>20 yrs senior executive HR	ENFP	FCIPD APECS Yes
FZC73	Conversational Goal driven Challenging Inspiring	Henley Cert Certified Predictive Index Analyst	3 yrs >250 hrs 80% senior	15 yrs Advertising blue chip companies	INTP	

FZC74	Open, transparent, supportive, empowering and effective. Enabling people to achieve their full potential	Henley Cert	20 yrs 2000 30%	Senior posts in Universities/ large international companies/ charities. Many advisory boards	ENTP	Henley Register Yes
FZC75	Flexible to meet needs of coachee. Create safe, comfortable environment for coachee to work at own pace. Coachee's agenda	Henley Cert MBTI Coaching Signatures MSC Coaching and Behavioural Change (current)	16 yrs 400 hrs 80% senior	Retail mgmt 10 yrs. HR T&D 15 yrs of which 12 yrs leadership development	INTP	AoC Yes
FZC76	Supportive with appropriate challenge	Henley Cert	2 yrs 50 hrs 100% senior	20 yrs senior general management 7yrs own consultancy 8yrs HBS	INFJ	None
FZC77	Open and supportive. Will push to ensure progress is made	Henley Cert	5yrs 100s Most at senior	Plc Board Director	ENFJ	AoC Yes
FZC78	Coach to improve performance and address development issues. Positive, non-judgemental. CBT approach.	Centre for Coaching Middlesex Uni BPS A & B MBTI Other psychometrics	10 yrs 200 hrs 25%	Consultant psychologist	ENFP	Henley Register Yes
FZC79	Supportive with appropriate challenge. Client-centred behavioural change	Henley Cert	2 yrs 50hrs 100% senior	20 yrs Senior General Mgr 7 yrs own consultancy 8 yrs HBS	INFJ	

FZC80	Flexible to meet needs of coachee. Create safe, comfortable environment for coachee to work at own pace. Coachee's agenda	Henley Cert MBTI Coaching Signatures MSC Coaching and Behavioural Change (current)	16 yrs 400 hrs 80% senior	Retail mgmt 10 yrs. HR T&D 15 yrs of which 12 yrs leadership development	INTP	AoC Yes
FZC81	Pragmatic Collaborative Stretching	3 Coaching certificates MA counselling Advanced cert Coaching Supervision	20yrs + 1000s All senior	Line management at BT and Dun & Bradstreet. Own business 11 yrs	ENFP/J	APECS Yes
FZC82	Did not attend					
FZC83	Relaxed, measured, assured, professional, interactive	Henley Cert	3 yrs 50 hrs 30% senior	MSc DBA	ESTJ	?
FZC84	Session cancelled					
FZC85	Session cancelled					
FZC86	Session cancelled					
FZC87	Supportive, with some challenge, pragmatic, real-world and a touch of philosophy	Henley Cert	2 yrs 40 hrs 75% senior	20 yrs senior general manager, NHS 7 yrs own consultancy 8 yrs academic	INFJ	Henley Register Yes
FZC88	Encouraging and supportive, challenging and reflective. Maintain a sense of humour and perspective. Enable others to reach their potential	Henley Cert BPS A & B Trained supervisor	5yrs 350 hrs approx 10% senior	Extensive experience in large IT companies.	ESFJ	AoC Yes
FZC89	Structured, purposeful, empathetic conversation, challenging, dynamic, empowering	Henley Cert NLP Practitioner	2 yrs 250 hrs 75% senior	Corporations at Board level Own company 15 yrs	INTP	Henley Register Yes

FZC90	Friendly and positive	Henley Cert	1 yr 20 hrs 50% senior	Business education and finance in industry	ESFJ	Henley Register No
FZC91	Relaxed and informal. Light touch, sessions should be challenging and fun. Business-focused. Non-directive, driven by needs of coachee	Henley Cert	7 yrs 20 hrs 50% senior	30 yrs business experience. HR and supply chain. Talent management	ENFP	Henley Register Yes
FZC92	Facilitative and supportive. Challenging if appropriate	MSc in Coaching and Behavioural Change (current)	5 yrs 50 – 60 hrs 20% senior	Strategic account management	ENFP	Henley Register Yes
FZC93	Create a thinking space, to think at your own pace and make your own decisions. Liberating, energising, eye-opening, safe. Performance related challenge.	Henley Cert Thinking Environment (Nancy Kline) Accredited supervisor Coaching Signatures NLP Practitioner MSc Coaching and Behaviour Change (current)	5 yrs 25 hrs/month 75% senior	Own business 13 yrs Managing coaching delivery for client Broadcasting and events management	INTJ	Henley Register APECS AoC Yes
FZC94	Eclectic – drawing on a range of different schools and approaches	Certified NLP coach Henley Cert MSc Coaching Chartered Psychologist BPS A & B Psychometrics	20 yrs 100 hrs/yr Most at senior	Business psychologist Consultancies and blue chip orgs. International experience	ENTP	BPS Accredited NLP Coach Yes
FZC95	Did not attend					
FZC96	Facilitative	MBTI FIRO-B NLP Practitioner Henley Cert	20 yrs 1000 hrs 15% senior	15 yrs Operations manager 10 yrs Lecturer, Consultant, Coach	INTP	None No

FZC97	Focused on performance, encouraging, can push	Henley Cert MBTI iPPQ FIRO-B	2 yrs 500+ hrs 50% senior	Long career as Global HR Director professional services firm	ENFJ	AoC Yes
FZC98	Client-focused	Henley Cert	1 yr 10 75% senior	European civil service Consulting Business educator	ENFP	Henley Register Yes
FZC99	Positive, supportive and developmental. Identify strengths and develop needs. Work collaboratively	Henley Cert Centre for Coaching Cert. Coaching Academy Psychometrics Postgrad cert in coaching supervision	10 yrs 300 – 400 hrs All senior	20 yrs Consulting 2yrs banking Coaching in professional services and construction industries. And education	ENFP/J	APECS Yes
FZC100	Transformational	BPS A	Years 50 hrs 5% senior	Change management HR Leadership and Mgmt development Sales management	ENTJ	Awaited No
FZC101	Help individuals remove block to performance and leverage their strengths. Open, straightforward. Listen, but provide challenge when needed	Henley Cert BPS B MSc Psychology	10 yrs ? All senior	18 yrs HR in FMCG 2 ½ yrs consultant	INFJ	Henley Register Yes
FZC102	Empathetic, good listening skills, non-directive	Henley Cert	6 months 8 hrs None senior	Client management role	INFJ	None No

FZC103	Direct but gentle. Spark new ways of seeing things. Can be challenging, but warm and supportive. Natural, honest, intuitive, open, courageous and human. Flex style to client's needs	Henley Cert	18 yrs 100s >50%	9 yrs management consultancy 11 yrs senior HR, multi-national Small, med and large orgs	ENTP	None Yes
FZC104	Strong focus on emphatic understanding of coachee and context. Act as resource in coaching relationship to facilitate development.	Person-centred counselling Henley Cert Post-grad cert coaching psychology. MSc (current)	2 yrs 60 hrs 25%	30 yrs management, 15 yrs at senior level. Strategy and operations. Change management and innovation. Work with v large teams.	INTP	None Yes

Coachee code	Career history	Current role	MBTI	Challenge	Previous coaching?
UUC06	Professional HR/OD	Head of OD	N/K	Making HR 'Board critical'	Trains internal coaches
UUC07	Business/psychology HR, L&D	Head of L&D	INTP	Managing line manager/career	Sources coaches. Has received coaching
UUC08	HR, L&D	L&D Director	ENFP	Career progression. HR thought leadership	Has coached senior managers
UUC09	Teaching, HR	Head of Capability and Development	ESTP	Leading new team, VFM, IiP accreditation, NVQ use	Has coached
UUC10	Occupational psych, L&D	L&D	ISTJ	Influencing skills	Has had 3 coaching sessions
UUC11	HR, L&D	L&D consultant	ISTP	Career motivation	Has had coaching
UUC12	Marketing consultant Academic/research	Senior University Academic	ENTJ	Life progression. Meaning and purpose	Has been coached and has undertaken some training and coaching
UUC13	HR, L&D Henley	Client director	ENF/TJ	Business Development	Has been coached, taught coaching, delivered coaching

UUC14	20 yrs industry	Director of studies	ENFP	Difficult boss	1 session received
UUC15	Session cancelled				
UUC16	Session cancelled				
UUC17	Session cancelled				
UUC18	Banking industry lobbyist In-house communications/PR	Henley Client Director/Research Fellow	INTP	To complete PhD	Two coaching sessions received
UUC19	Banking, Research Associate, Academic Career	Senior academic	?	Setting and pursuing personal agenda	Some applied coaching in seminars
UUC20	Accountancy, senior finance roles, Academic	Senior academic	ESFJ	Time management	Henley coaching programme
UUC21	Commercial trainee, marketing manager/director. MD marketing consultancy	Client director	ENFJ	Regaining total positive focus	Various business/life coaching received
UUC22	Sales & Mktg, business manager, administration	Administrator of programmes	ESTJ	Career progression Public speaking	None
UUC23	Engineer Sales CEO	Business Development	?	Academic business awareness	1 session received
UUC24	Consultant in Mktg/PR 12 yrs academia	Programme Director, Business School	ENFP	Juggling day job and growing a business	In coaching training
UUC25	Buying/procurement Business development travel industry	Business Change Executive	ENTP	Delivering under-resourced programme. Managing upward expectations	None
UUC26	Banking/communications HR/Leadership development	Client director	ENF/TJ	Business development	Coached and taught coaching. Received coaching
UUC27	Consultant business psychologist.	L&D specialist, travel industry	ESFJ	Managing multiple project and additional responsibilities	No coaching, but undergoing training
UUC28	Hospitality industry sales HR professional, recruitment in technology industry	HR Business Partner	ISTP	Establishing credibility as more strategic	Woodstone, informal coaching from senior colleagues
UUC29	Did not attend				

UUC30	Marketing consultant Academic career	Senior academic	ENTJ	Make some career related choices	Has been coached, has coach, done some coach training
UUC31	Administrative	Business support	INFJ	To complete coaching course	None before coaching course
UUC32	Did not attend				
UUC34	Session cancelled				
UUC35	Session cancelled				
UUC36	Session cancelled				
UUC37	History teacher Middle/senior mgmt roles	College principal	?	Energising senior staff and public expenditure costs	
UUC38	Teaching Head of subject	Assistant College principal		Enabling new managers to turn around difficult depts., and adopt innovative solutions	Very little
UUC39	Teacher/lecturer HR professional	College HR Director	ENFJ	To develop effective middle management tier	Sports coaching NLP training 30 yrs teaching
UUC40	MSc Psychology Food industry communications	Full-time MBA student	ENTJ	Job search	Career coaching
UUC41	20+ programme/project management in IT Freelance IT Portfolio mgr BUPA £35m project	Full-time MBA student	ENFP	Motivation and self-discipline	NLP Practitioner Received some coaching
UUC42	20 yrs+ Sales & Mktg and general mgmt in drinks industry. International experience. Country manager	Full-time MBA	ENTP	Career progression	Coached sales team
UUC43	Solicitor 25 yrs	College Corporation Secretary Deputy District Judge	?	Dealing with isolation of roles	None

UUC44	Client services manager Professional services manager	MBA student	ISTJ	Key family related decision, or work related	1 session received
UUC45	English teacher Head of School and Director of Mktg	Assistant College Principal	?	Relationship with line manager	None
UUC46	Rowing coach Temp engineer Manager, professional services environmental consultancy	Student and job-seeker	ESTJ	Getting the right job	Sports coaching
UUC47	Did not attend				
UUC48	Scientific training and career Various career changes Board level roles	Full-time MBA student	INTP	Transfer back into work	Managing by coaching Received several coaching sessions
UUC49	Accountancy/finance roles. CFO	Full-time MBA student	INTJ	Find a suitable role	Received coaching. Some coach training
UUC50	Did not attend				
UUC52	Project management Technical account management Consulting team manager	Engagement manager planning software project	ISTJ	Seeking next job	Careers coaching
UUC52	8 yrs marketing 4 yrs management	Full-time MBA student	ENTJ	More direction in life to achieve goals	Several years experience
UUC53	UK Chartered Accountant 12 yrs practice IT/Finance consultant	Head of Finance (director level)	ENTP	Focus What next?	Received many hours
UUC54	Did not attend				

Appendix V. Documents associated with data collection

I. Instructions for coachees

Instructions for coachees

Thank you for volunteering to be coached in this round of speed-coaching as part of the data collection for my doctoral research into creation of coaching dyads. The following instructions should guide you through the process that you, as a coachee, should undertake in this session.

Please do feel free to ask any questions for clarification at any time.

Pre-requisites: Contact details for coachee
 Coachee's biographical data
 Part 'B' of the Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire
 Willingness/availability to take forward 3 sessions of coaching
 Agreement to conduct and record post-coaching semi-structured interview

- a. The session should last for approximately 90 minute in total
- b. Firstly you will look at the CVs of the three coaches you are about to meet. You should assess the coaches and use the space at the end of their form to indicate whether, based on the information you have before you, you would wish to be coached by this person (or not) and provide a brief note of your reasons.
- c. You will take part in a series (3) of short conversations with prospective coaches.
- d. They are permitted to discuss any matters that they feel appropriate as part of a typical 'chemistry' session prior to going forward into a coaching relationship
- e. You are permitted to discuss any matters that you feel relevant as part of a typical 'chemistry' session prior to going forward into a coaching relationship
- f. After 5 mins with the first prospective coach there will be a signal to move on to the next coach
- g. You will be allowed 5 minutes between each session to record your views on the coach, concluding with whether, or not you would want to be coached by this person
- h. This process will be repeated until you have had a session with all of the coaches
- i. At the end, you will be asked to rank the coaches in the order you would prefer to be coached by them, (1) being most preferred and (3) being least preferred
- j. The session is now over and you are free to leave with my sincere thanks for taking part
- k. You may subsequently be asked to take part in a programme of three coaching sessions with one of the coaches, if you are willing and able to do so

Informed consent:

It is only right, fair and ethical that you are asked to undertake this session freely and with full understanding of its contents. Therefore, to be sure that you are completely in agreement with taking part, I would be grateful if you would sign the consent below.

I (print name) agree to taking part in speed-coaching, data collection, coaching sessions, diary keeping and interviews where appropriate, in the collection of data for the research being conducted by Claire Collins to contribute towards a PhD thesis and related papers. I understand that my identity will be confidential in the publication of this material.

Signed..... Date.....

II. Instructions for coaches

Instructions for coaches

Thank you for volunteering to be a coach in this round of speed-coaching as part of the data collection for my doctoral research into creation of coaching dyads. The following instructions should guide you through the process that you, as a coach, should undertake in this session.

Please do feel free to ask any questions for clarification at any time.

Pre-requisites: Contact details for coach
 Coach's CV
 Part 'B' of the Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire
 Willingness/availability to take forward a coachee for 3 sessions
 Agreement to take part in a post-coaching semi-structured interview

- l. The session should last for approximately 90 minute in total
- m. Firstly you will look at the biographies of the three coachees you are about to meet. You should assess the coachees and use the space at the end of their form to indicate whether, based on the information you have before you, you would wish to coach this person (or not) and provide a brief note of your reasons.
- n. You will then conduct a series (3) short conversations with these prospective coachees.
- o. They are permitted to discuss any matters that they feel appropriate as part of a typical 'chemistry' session prior to going forward into a coaching relationship
- p. You are permitted to discuss any matters that you feel relevant as part of a 'chemistry' session prior to going forward into a coaching relationship
- q. After 5 mins with the first prospective coachee there will be a signal to move on to the next coachee
- r. You will be allowed 5 minutes between each session to record your views on the coachee, concluding with whether, or not you would want to coach this person.
- s. This process will be repeated until you have had a session with all of the coachees
- t. At the end, you will be asked to rank the coachees in the order you would prefer to coach them, (1) being most preferred and (3) being least preferred
- u. The session is over you are then free to leave with my sincere thanks for taking part
- v. You may subsequently be asked to conduct a programme of three coaching sessions with one of the coachees, if you are willing and able to do so

Informed consent:

It is only right, fair and ethical that you are asked to undertake this session freely and with full understanding of its contents. Therefore, to be sure that you are completely in agreement with taking part, I would be grateful if you would sign the consent below.

I (print name) agree to taking part in speed-coaching, data collection, coaching sessions, diary keeping and interviews where appropriate, in the collection of data for the research being conducted by Claire Collins to contribute towards a PhD thesis and related papers. I understand that my identity will be confidential in the publication of this material.

Signed..... Date.....

III. Template for biographical data from coachees

Code No. UUC	Date:
Summary of career history	
What is your current role (seniority, team responsibilities, how long in post etc)?	
What is your MBTI type (if you know it)?	
How would you describe your personality (please give five words that you feel best describe you)?	
What are your strengths and development areas?	
What is your biggest current challenge?	
What previous experience of coaching do you have?	
Feedback from coaches	
Rank: 1 2 3	

IV. Template for CV from coaches

Code No.	FZC	Date:
How would you describe your coaching style?		
What coaching or psychometric qualifications do you have?		
How long have you been coaching (months/years)?		
What is your business or organisational experience?		
Approximately how many coaching hours (in total) have you undertaken?		
Approximately what proportion of these hours is carried out a senior executive level?		
Which coaching bodies are you accredited by?		
Are you in regular supervision (please describe)?		
What is your MBTI type (if you know it)?		
<p>Coachee feedback:</p> <p>Rank: 1 2 3</p>		

V. Feedback from coachees

Coachee code number.....

After each 5 minute speed-coaching session, please capture your impressions of your coach on the form provided. You may include any relevant comment in this feedback. These may include views on: Gender, age, experience, qualification, education, behaviours personality, likeability, ethnicity, philosophy etc.

This information will be completely confidential and your honesty and impartiality is essential in order to collect accurate and meaningful data.

Please say whether you would, or would not want to be coached by this person ideally.

Please rank all of the coaches you have seen today from 1 (most preferred) to 3 (least preferred).

Coach code no.	
What were your impressions of this coach? (You may include any relevant comment in this feedback. These may include views on Gender, age, experience, qualification, education, behaviours personality, likeability, ethnicity, philosophy etc. etc.)	
Please give FIVE key words you would use to describe this coach.	
Would you want to be coached by this person?	YES / NO
What is the main reason for giving this answer?	
Please rank this coach from those you have seen in this session (1 is most preferred, 3 is least preferred).	1 2 3
Any other comments?:	

VI. Feedback from coaches

Coach code number.....

After each 5 minute speed-coaching session, please capture your impressions of your coachee on the form provided. You may include any relevant comment in this feedback. These may include views on: Gender, age, experience, qualification, education, behaviours personality, likeability, ethnicity, philosophy etc.

This information will be completely confidential and your honesty and impartiality is essential in order to collect accurate and meaningful data.

Please say whether you would, or would not want to coach this person ideally.

Please rank all of the coachees you have seen today from 1 (most preferred) to 3 (least preferred).

Coachee code no.	
What were your impressions of this coachee? (You may include any relevant comment in this feedback. These may include views on Gender, age, experience, qualification, education, behaviours personality, likeability, ethnicity, philosophy etc. etc.)	
Please give FIVE key words you would use to describe this coachee.	
Would you want to coach this person?	YES / NO
What is the main reason for giving this answer?	
Please rank this coachee from those you have seen in this session (1 is most preferred, 3 is least preferred).	1 2 3
Any other comments?:	

Appendix VI. Themes for use in semi-structured interviews

1. Anticipation of coaching
2. CV/Bio information
3. First impressions
4. Influence of surface- and deep-level diversity factors
5. Decision of which coach/coachee
6. Speed-chemistry sessions
7. Matching process
 - a. Chosen coach
 - b. Other coaches
8. First session
 - a. Overall
 - b. Relationship
9. Second and third sessions
 - a. Overall
 - b. Relationship
10. Conclusion
 - a. Nature of relationship
 - b. Further coaching?
11. Relationship overall
 - a. Words and phrases
 - b. Critical moments
 - c. Importance
 - d. One word description

12. Process

- a. Contracting
- b. Views of process used
- c. Ideal matching process
- d. Attributes of ideal coach

13. Validation of original decisions

14. Negative points

15. Were there any other questions I should have asked, or anything else you would like to say?

Appendix VII. Agreement between paper information and speed-chemistry sessions

N.B. Eventual match to form coaching pair is shown by shaded box and is based on ranking in speed-chemistry session.

Coach code	Would you coach this person? Y/N and comments											
	Coachee UUC06		Coachee UUC07		Coachee UUC08		Coachee UUC09		Coachee UUC10		Coachee UUC11	
FZC57	Y	Match on experience and I think I can help with development	Y	Match on experience and development issue	Y	Experience and development issue	Y	Experience and development issue	Y	Prepared to have a go	Y	Some match on experience
	Y	4 th	Y	6 th	Y	3 rd	Y	2 nd	Y	1 st	Y	5 th
FZC58	Y	No reason not to. Qualities appeal and would complement my coaching style	Y	Areas for self-development very clear	Y	Qualities trigger my curiosity and indicate potential for lively and challenging coaching	Y	Not in area of expertise. Interested in the “optimistic but a bit of a worrier” observation.	Y	Qualities engage my interest and ‘fit’ with my coaching style	Y	Vision/bigger picture perspective sounds like a great framework to work with
	Y	2 nd	Y	6 th	Y	1 st	Y	5 th	Y	4 th	Y	3 rd
FZC59	Y	Good professional fit	Y	Would like to work on the challenges	Y	Professional fit and would like to work on challenges	Y	Intrigued by “worrier” element of personality	Y	Big challenge around relationship building	Y	Challenge of development areas and career plateau
	Y	5 th	Y	6 th	Y	3 rd	Y	1 st	Y	4 th	Y	2 nd

FZC60	Y Y 3 rd	Right level in org. Sounds interesting	Y Y 6 th	Interesting background. Insights into self-development	Y Y 1 st	The word 'restless' intrigues me. Lots that sounds enticing	Y Y 2 nd	Sounds a bit 'needy'. I would want to help this person. Some common experience	Y Y 4 th	Experience in coaching psychological background. Mentions 'emotional' response	Y Y 5 th	L&D common experience. Connections and relationships mentioned. I would love to know what they meant by this.
FZC61	Y Y 1 st	No reason not to	Y Y 6 th	No reason not to. ? Introvert	Y Y 2 nd	No reason not to. ?Extrovert	Y Y 5 th	No reason not to. Nearest my MBTI type.	Y Y 4 th	No reason not to.	Y Y 3 rd	
FZC62	Y Y 2 nd	Similar org., background. Interesting challenge	Y Y 3 rd	Personality similarity, but scary on perfectionism	Y Y 1 st	Same 'type' and interesting background.	N Y 5 th	Detail conscious. Too many challenges	Not Sure Y 4 th	Probably opposite personality	Y Y 6 th	Interesting challenge even if different type

Coachee code	Would you want to be coached by this person? Y/N and comments Second line gives preference after speed-chemistry session.											
	Coach FZC57		Coach FZC58		Coach FZC59		Coach FZC60		Coach FZC61		Coach FZC62	
UUC06	Y	Descriptive style and NLP practitioner	N	Coaching style description unclear if not a coach yourself. How can I see if this fits org culture	?	Can't read CV	Y	Broad business experience and extensive coaching experience and qualifications	N	Not accredited/ supervised. Not enough experience at exec level	Y	Qualifications. Like business/org background and exec experience
	N	4 th	Y	2 nd	N	5 th	Y	1 st	N	6 th	Y	3 rd
UUC07	Y	Experience and could be a good fit. To be explored	Y	I like the self-description of the coaching style. Different industry background, could be useful.	N	Seems to lack preparation for this event. Handwriting rushed. Does not know his/her MBTI type. Superficial with detail	Y	Variety of experience, sound background	N	ESTJ I usually struggle with. However, could be useful experience	Y	Looks well organized. I like self-description of coaching style.
	Y	3 rd	Y	4 th	N	5 th	Y	1 st	N	6 th	Y	2 nd
UUC08	Not sure	Like the experience/background. CV comes across as 'cold'. Not sure as to MBTI profile	Maybe	Like experience and background and care/thoroughness of CV. Not sure about MBTI profile	N	Difficult to read the CV. Feels like they don't find this "written impression" important	Y	Good coaching and business experience	N	CV doesn't come across as professional. Answer on coaching experience is ambiguous	Y	CV looks professional. Thought and care put into answers. Good business experience and MBTI similar to mine
	Y	2 nd	Y	3 rd	?	4 th	Y	1 st	N	6 th	Y	5 th

UUC09	Y	Coaching experience and L&D knowledge. Like description of coaching style	Maybe	Very experienced but need to check if warm to the person. Not clear on their coaching style	Y	Experience and style and subject knowledge. Bit difficult to read	Y	Lots of experience, good experience across industries, good balance of personal style and relevant skills	Not sure	Very heavy on financial coaching and not vast amount of experience	Y	Good solutions focus and facilitation. Good mix of experience with different companies
	Y	5 th	Y	3 rd	Y	4 th	Y	1 st	N	6 th	Y	2 nd
UUC10	Y	Like challenging. Like NLP trained. Appeals to my learning value	Y	Good learning experience and models used. MBTI appeals for 'T' and 'J'	Y	Like focus on exec coaching. Could expand sessions into career focus	Y	Solid learning background like that he/she is regularly supervised	N	Not accredited. ?Only an issue because others were. Not motivated by finance background	Y	Like consultancy background. Future career aspiration of mine. Like small business as well.
	Y	2 nd	Y	4 th	Y	1 st	N	5 th	N	6 th	Y	3 rd
UUC11	Y	? Around real-world business experience	Y	Academic roles rather than business sector would interest me	N	Not enough data. Seems unorganised. Handwriting difficult to read. No MBTI type	Y	Pragmatic approach. Commercial background and experience	Y	Business world practice. Relaxed, informal and professional. Sounds on my wavelength	Y	Background, experience, academic and practical experience. MBTI opposite, so different perspectives would be curious
	Y	3 rd	N	6 th	Y	1 st	Y	2 nd	Y	4 th	Y	5 th

Coach code	Ranking in paper-based exercise by coachee 1, 2, & 3	Ranking in speed-chemistry session by coachee 1, 2 & 3	Agree/disagree
FZC63	1, 2, 1	2, 3, 1	Third coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC64	3, 3, 2	1, 1, 2	Only second placing agreed
FZC65	2, 1, 3	3, 2, 3	Only third placing agreed
FZC69	1, 3, 2	1, 3, 3	First coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC70	3, 2, 3	3, 2, 1	Only third placing agreed
FZC71	2, 1, 1	2, 1, 2	Second coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions. Second placing also agreed
FZC72	3, 2, 2	1, 1, 3	None agreed
FZC73	2, 3, 1	3, 2, 1	Third coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC74	1, 1, 3	2, 3, 2	None agreed
FZC75	?, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	Both agreed
FZC76	?, 3, 1	2, 3, 1	Latter two agreed
FZC77	?, 1, 2	3, 1, 2	Latter two agreed
FZC78	1, 2	3, 1	None agreed
FZC79	2, 3	1, 3	Only third placing agreed
FZC80	3, 1	2, 2	None agreed
FZC81	1, ?		Not agreed
FZC82			Not agreed
FZC83	2, ?		
FZC87	2, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	Second and third placings agreed
FZC88	1, 1, 1	3, 3, 2	None agreed

FZC89	3, 3, 2	2, 1, 1	None agreed
FZC90	3, 3, 3	3, 2, 3	Only two third placings agreed
FZC91	1, 1, 1	1, 3, 2	First coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC92	2, 2, 2	2, 1, 1	Only second placing agreed
FZC93	1, 2, 1	1, 2, 1	First and third coachees ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC94	2, 1, 2	2, 1, 2	All placings agree
FZC96	2, x, 2	3, x, 2	Only second placing agrees
FZC97	1, x, 1	2, x, 1	Third coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC98	3, x, 3	1, x, 3	Only third placing agreed
FZC99	1, x, 2	1, x, 1	First coachee ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC100	3, x, 3	3, x, 3	Both placings agree
FZC101	2, x, 1	2, x, 2	Only second placing agrees
FZC102	3, 2, x	2, 2, x	Only second placing agrees
FZC103	1, 1, x	1, 1, x	First and second coachees ranked this coach in 1 st place on both occasions
FZC104	2, 3, x	3, 3, x	Only third placing agrees

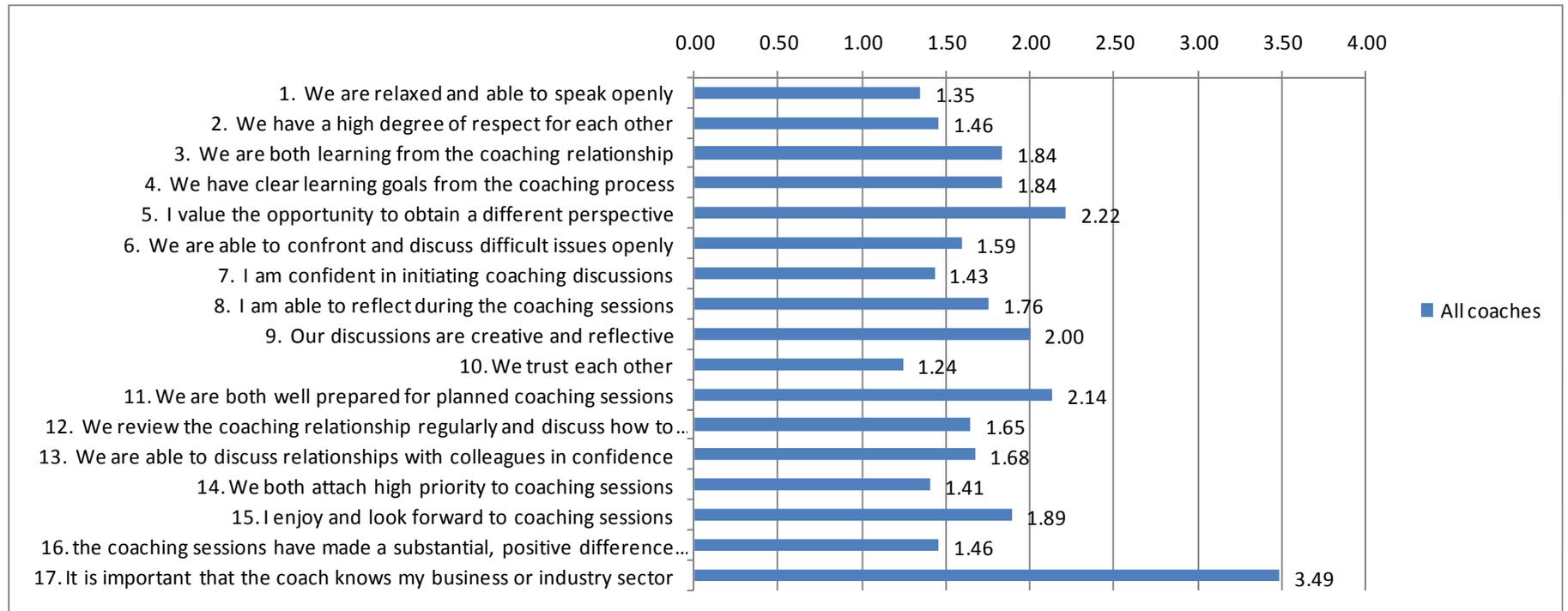
Coachee code	Ranking in paper-based exercise by coach 1, 2 & 3	Ranking in speed-chemistry sessions by coach 1, 2 & 3	Agree/disagree
UUC12	1, 2, 1	1, 2, 1	All placings agree
UUC13	3, 3, 3	2, 1, 2	None agreed
UUC14	2, 1, 2	3, 3, 3	None agreed
UUC18	1, 1, 3	2, 2, 2	None agreed
UUC19	2, 2, 1	1, 3, 3	None agreed
UUC20	3, 3, 2	3, 1, 1	Only third placing agrees
UUC21	2, 1, 2	1, 3, 2	Only second placing agrees
UUC22	1, 2, 1	3, 1, 1	Third coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC23	3, 3, 3	2, 2, 3	Only third placing agrees
UUC24	3, 2, 1	2, 3, 2	None agreed
UUC25	2, 1, 2	1, 1, 3	Second coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC26	1, 3, 3	3, 2, 1	None agreed
UUC27	1, 2, 2	1, 1, 2	Only second placing agrees
UUC28	2, 1, 1	2, 2, 1	Third coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC29	Did not attend		
UUC30	1, x, ?	1, x, 2	None agreed
UUC31	2, x, ?	2, x, 1	None agreed
UUC32	Did not attend		
UUC37	3, 3, 2	1, 1, 1	None agreed
UUC38	1, 2, 1	2, 3, 2	None agreed
UUC39	2, 1, 3	3, 2, 3	Only third placing agreed

UUC40	1, 2, 2	3, 3, 3	None agreed
UUC41	3, 1, 1	1, 1, 2	Second coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC42	2, 3, 3	2, 2, 1	None agreed
UUC43	3, 1	3, 2	Only third placing agreed
UUC44	2, 3	1, 1	None agreed
UUC45	1, 2	2, 3	None agreed
UUC46	2, 1, 2	2, 1, 1	Second coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC47	Did not attend		
UUC48	1, 2, 1	1, 2, 2	Only second placing agreed
UUC49	1, 1, 1	1, 1, 2	First and second coaches ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC50	Did not attend		
UUC51	2, 2, 2	2, 2, 1	Two second placings agree
UUC52	2, 1, 2	2, 1, 1	Second coach ranked this coachee in 1 st place on both occasions
UUC53	3, 2, 1	3, 2, 2	Second and third placings agree
UUC54	Did not attend		

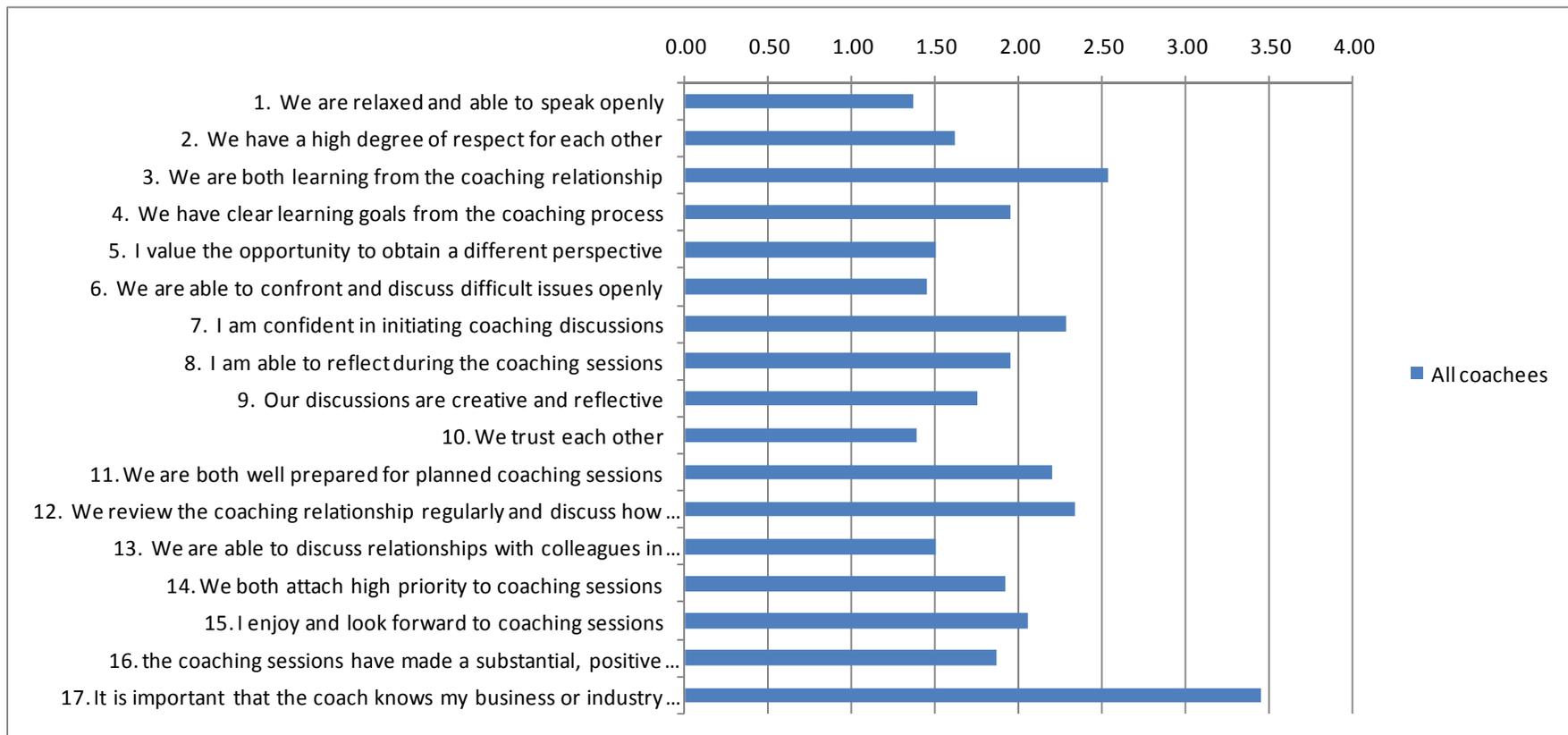
Appendix VIII. Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire

	How true is each statement?					How important is this factor?					
	Very true		Not true			Very		Not at all			
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
1. We are relaxed and able to speak openly											
2. We have a high degree of respect for each other											
3. We are both learning from the coaching relationship											
4. We have clear learning goals from the coaching process											
5. I value the opportunity to obtain a different perspective											
6. We are able to confront and discuss difficult issues openly											
7. I am confident in initiating coaching discussions											
8. I am able to reflect during the coaching sessions											
9. Our discussions are creative and reflective											
10. We trust each other											
11. We are both well prepared for planned coaching sessions											
12. We review the coaching relationship regularly and discuss how to improve it											
13. We are able to discuss relationships with colleagues in confidence											
14. We both attach high priority to coaching sessions											
15. I enjoy and look forward to coaching sessions											
16. the coaching sessions have made a substantial, positive difference to the coachee's performance											
17. It is important that the coach knows my business or industry sector.											
Total score											

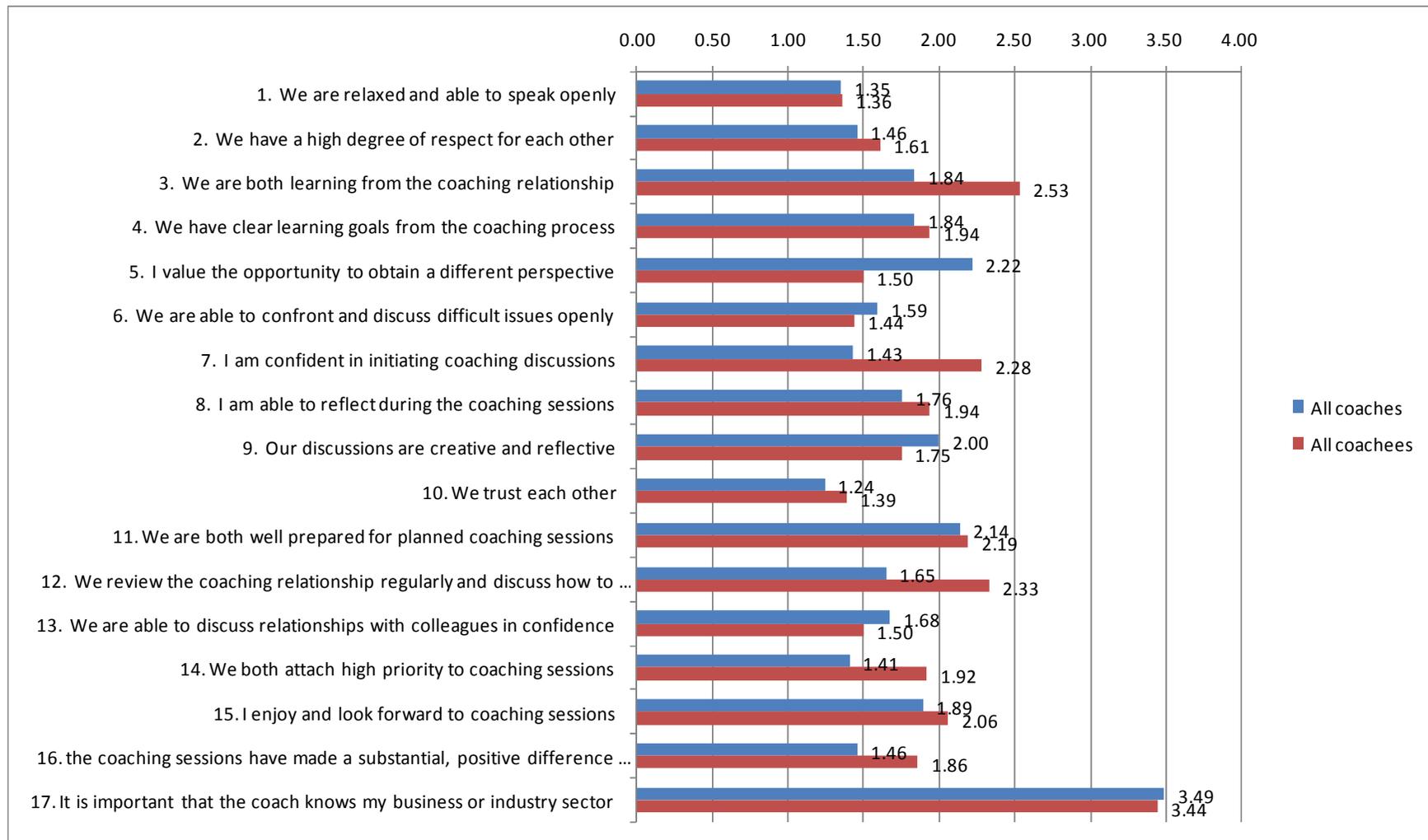
Appendix IX. Results from Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire Part B



Appendix VIII.1 Results of Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire Part B – Coaches



Appendix VIII.2 Results of Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire Part B – Coachees



Appendix VIII.3 Comparison of coaches and coachees for Clutterbuck and Megginson (2005) questionnaire Part B

Appendix X. Matching of Coaching Pairs

Coach	1 st choice(2 nd /3 rd)			Coachee	1 st choice(2 nd /3 rd)		
FZC 63	UUC12			UUC12	FZC64		
64	UUC13			13	FZC64		
65	UUC12			14	FZC 63		
69	UUC19	18	20	18	FZC69	71	70
70	UUC20	18	19	19	FZC71	70	69
71	UUC20	18	19	20	FZC70	71	69
72	UUC21			21	FZC72		
73	UUC22			22	FZC72		
74	UUC22			23	73/74		
75	UUC25			24	FZC75		
76	UUC25			25	FZC76		
77	UUC26			26	FZC77		
78	UUC27	28		27	FZC79	80	78
79	UUC27	28		28	FZC78	80	79
80	UUC28	27		29			
81	UUC30			30	FZC81		
82				31	Either		
83	UUC31			32			
84/85/86	Session abandoned			(33 missed out) 34/35/36			
87	FCO37			37	FZC87		
88	FCO37			38	FZC89		
89	FCO37			39	FZC89		
90	FCO41			40	FZC91		
91	FCO41			41	FZC92		
92	FCO42			42	FZC92		
93	UUC44			43	FZC93		
94	UUC44			44	FZC94		
95				45	FZC93		
96	UUC48			46	FZC98		
97	UUC46			47			
98	UUC46			48	FZC97		
99	UUC49			49	FZC99		
100	UUC49			50			
101	UUC51			51	FZC99		
102				52	FZC103		
103	UUC52			53	FZC103		
104	UUC52			54			

Appendix XI. Analysis of speed-chemistry session feedback (Framework)

Feedback from coaches on coachee no.	Personality	Energy/ enthusiasm	Goal	Commonality with coach	Background	Openness	Trust	Rapport	Other
UUC06	Open/receptive. Keen to know more. Friendly. Nervous. Scared. Nice. Pleasant, congenial. Balanced. Likeable.	High energy/enthusiasm. Ripe for development.	Clear about goal	Shared philosophy and vocabulary	Good HR experience. Promoted on merit.	Very open.			Vague. Specific.
07	Serious. Engaging. Invaded coach's space. Guarded, defensive. Reserved.	Appeared to interview the coach. Pushy.	Issue causing concern at work. May have to change goal. Juicy issue.			Good eye contact.			Values important.
08	Gregarious. Bright, bubbly. Friendly. Likeable, warm, positive. Forthright.	Real energy. Enthusiastic. Wants to learn and develop. Could dominate conversation.	Clear about what she wanted to achieve	Shared understanding of coaching process. Similarity in background.			Trust easily	Builds rapport	Process driven. Physical presence

09	Conscientious. Felt at ease. Likeable. Honest. Pleasant, amiable. No edges.	Fast pace. Keen to learn. Can be forceful. Keen to learn.	Receptive to exploring challenges. Told coach her challenges immediately.	Similar background.		Open to adapting herself.			Young.
10	Seemed tired, cautious. Not relaxed. Friendly, nice, easy to be with. Introvert. Nervous.	Enthusiastic about coaching. Speaks quickly	Clear what she wanted to achieve.			Open to feedback. Open.			Smiled a lot.
11	Intense. Pleasant. Engaging, outgoing, affable.	Keen to know more.	Career coaching. Deep issues to explore. What is the real question			Open. Willing to talk about issues. Lack of eye contact	Good rapport		Felt empathy with situation. ?wants formal relationship
12	Liked her straightaway. Nice. Unsure of herself. Worrier. Honest. Hesitant			Similarity in terms of gender, age, background and outlook		Open		Easy rapport	
13	Pleasant, smiling, likeable, warm. Neat, professional					Very open		Good chemistry. Comfortable. Good rapport	

14	Business-like. Curious. Cynical, formal	Guarded		Very different from me.		Hard to connect with.			Strong views
18	Bright, ambitious	Motivated	Little focus			Open			Very busy. Noted age. Likely to work hard
19	Interesting		Has thought a lot already		Varied experience. Highly educated.				Noticed physical appearance.
20	Thoughtful, reserved, charm, likeable, gentle, kind, considerate, warm, genuine, careworn	Reflective		Same as me					Noticed physical attributes. Beautiful blue eyes.
21	Sparkle, likeable, self-aware, personable, interesting. Passionate. Lively, attractive	Wants to recharge positive thinking and focus. Lovely energy. Enthusiasm.						Good rapport. Positive connection.	Noticed physical factors. Noted social status.
22	Quiet, controlled. Pleasant	Hungry for progress. Get-there-if-I-can	Clear on needs. Good topic.						Young

23	Controlled, cool. Likeable. Outer shell may be tough to crack. Reserved. Lacking warmth.	Driven. Impatient. Challenge to energise his performance.	Looking for insights. Goal may need work						Background impressive. Plenty of challenge.
24	Relaxed, personable, listened. Laid-back. Relaxed			Similar background. Different background				Strong rapport very quickly	Good values
25	Pleasant, not assertive, likeable, friendly	Interested and interesting				Wary at first then opened up		Immediate good chemistry. Rapport would be slower to establish	
26	Smart and personable, interesting, reflective, genuine, easy-going, informed			Similar age, demeanour	Well-qualified, good experience	Open		Good, immediate rapport	Quickly established coaching parameters
27	Approachable, expressive	Interested, curious, enthusiastic. Wants to be coached			Still developing in career. Experience in consultancy. Experience of coaching	Open	Once relationship had developed there would be trust		

28	Structured, nervous, comfortable, tentative. Smiley, sparkling		Clear about current challenges. Issue was something we could work on					Not immediate chemistry. Thin veil between us. Reasonable rapport	Values experience and track record
30	Nice, friendly, a little formal. Smiles, affable, pleasant.			I liked her				Good contact	Enjoyable experience
31	Needy, hesitant, nervous. Very pleasant	Session had quality and potential		No anti - issues				We engaged	
37	Mature	Needs challenging. Very keen to get going	Looking for clarity		Experienced, professional	Open to development		Felt we are on the same wavelength	Rewarding experience
38	Quiet, sense of humour, honest, self-aware, good listener, approachable, clever	Enthusiastic about current role. Energy and passion			Professional, experienced		Open, open-minded		
39	Tentative, likeable, nervous	Weary of giving support, so could do with some support herself.		Interested in my style of coaching				Didn't immediately take to her	
40	Pleasant, affable, balanced, nervous		Clear focus, career					Reasonable interaction. Scope for good coach-	Noted physical factors, gender and

								ing relationship	ethnicity
41	Bright, welcoming, engaging, affable, talkative, balanced, calm,	Relaxed	Explore interesting personal options. Can't see clear future			Open			Noted surface level factors
42	Pleasant, engaging, affable, polite	Good quality conversation. Very motivated	Clear about aims and objectives. Wants to grow		Successful to date	Open. Open body language			Very desirable, repeatable experience
43	Suspicious, lacking in confidence, intelligent	Maybe not up for coaching. Needs pacing into the coaching process	Clear idea of work to do					Didn't engage	
44	Protective, private	Keen to have intellectual discussion. Would be fun to work with						Rapport may take a while	Huge potential
45	Vibrant, intense, well-intentioned, honest	Up for challenging conversation. Serious about exploring coaching	Wants to really think about his dilemma. Clear about coaching	Connected with his references to nature		Open. Less open than others			
46	Intelligent, likeable	Determined	Career. Realistic goal					Good chemistry	MBA. ?Sloppy appearance. Ideal candidate

48	Likeable, first impression serious, but not so.		Goal unclear	Similar ethnic background and personality					Young. Warmed to him
49	Self-aware, sincere, likeable, interesting, bright, polite, friendly, shambling	Keen to develop. Engaged very positively. Genuine interest in coaching	Seemed to know what he wanted. No issue for coaching			Open and interested in process		Initial impression less positive, but warmed. Chemistry was right	Importance of first impressions, CV not good, meeting him very different
51	Introverted, shy, deep, judgemental	May have doubts on value of coaching	Career crossroads		Lots of technical experience				Young, challenging
52	Intelligent, bright, dynamic, straightforward	Everything dying to get out. Driven	Clear goals						Young, a budding star, out of normal cultural environment
53	Likeable, communicator, thinker	Not sure he needs a coach. Challenging		ENTP like me! Could sit and debate for hours. Very different from my usual coaches	Experience				

Feedback from coaches on coachee no.	Personality	Energy/enthusiasm	Goal	Commonality with coachee	Background	Openness	Trust	Rapport	Coaching Context	Other
FZC57	Friendly, calm.			Similar personal style.	Relevant knowledge and experience. Good background and business knowledge.			Keen to build rapport. Set comfort quickly. Structured opening jeopardised rapport building.	Led conversation. Good eye contact. Not confident in her ability to coach. Set expectations. Professional. Might feel intimidated. Asked good questions. Good balance between advice and coaching. Excellent opening and position setting. Good outline of process	Visually looked approachable and confident. Respect but not like her.
58	Easy, approachable, personable, friendly			Similar approach	Didn't find out about her history or experience.	Educated and knowledgeable		Good eye contact and voice pacing. Helped	Like description of coaching. Challenging.	Attracted by looks, demeanour, body

								to build rapport and mutuality. Didn't build rapport verbally, but very engaging in body language and eye contact.	A bit vague on how she will have impact. Good questions. Not sure how challenging she would be. Liked approach. Would like to experience the process. Approach didn't feel natural.	language.
59	Friendly, took initiative. Relaxed, calm, business aware.	Passion for coaching, built my confidence		Similar age	HR background. Senior, experienced manager. Needed to know more about professional context.	Open to me.		Builds rapport by sharing personal info. Something clicked. Built rapport.	Didn't seem client oriented. Maybe used to pushy snr execs. Structured conversation. Happy to speak first.	Would be comfortable with male coach (f). Shared personal info.
60	Loved her! Style, warm, caring, in-	Passionate about coaching. Spoke with passion	Quickly moved to issue	On same wavelength	Good experience of various areas.	Very open. Made me feel relaxed.		Instant rapport and match. Good rapport.	Enjoyed her philosophy on coaching. Interested in	

	sightful. Friendly and approachable. Relaxed, authentic, empathetic.	and warmth.				Open.			me! Would challenge. Mini real coaching session. Asks good questions. Collaborative style. Focused on relationship. Good balance between advice and facilitation. Collaborative	
61	Like him more as time passed. Friendly, a bit detached. Relaxed. Pleasant, controlled.	Talked passionately and easily. Passionate about what he does.	Didn't discuss my goals.			Open, conversational.			Got conversation moving quickly. Not sure of coaching philosophy. Questions not really relevant to coaching selection. Not sure how authentic. Not sure of listening.	Notice negative physical factors.

									No structure. Unsure of his aims for the session. Good listening.	
62	Very friendly, warm. Very welcoming, friendly. ? Clingy. Gentle, safe.				Mix of corporate and academic experience. HR background. Didn't give enough background to assess.	Open, challenging questions.		Good first impression.	Gained respect quickly. Able to establish credentials in a non-boastful way. Felt like chat with friend. Would like a bit of context first. Little sense of challenge. Client orientated. Good opening. Balance between advice and exploring. Solution focused. I was allowed to talk for too long.	

63	Nice, pleasant. Nervous, attentive. Friendly. Relaxed, warm, friendly.			Both non-UK, made me like her from the start. Both wearing same colour.			Think I can trust her.	Good at building rapport. Good fit. Genuine good start to relationship. Immediate rapport.	Good questions. Forced the pace a bit fast. Maybe too structured.	Younger than I expected.
64	Calm,			Very different, might be good. Male could be good.	Good experience. Professional.		Would trust him.	Good eye contact. Immediate rapport.	Considered approach. Good first impression. Interested in me. Non-judgemental. Philosophy not discussed.	
65	Very personable. Soft tone. Arrogant.	Believes coaching is the answer to everything.			Very professional.				Liked the way the conversation started. Relationship felt forced. Interested in me. Used good examples. I didn't feel I wd be myself in the relationship.	Noted appearance.

69	Confident, interested	Alert	Liked framing of issue	Interest in neuro-psychology and values. Similar background.	Didn't get time to ask about her.				Made me at ease.	
70	Seemed uncomfortable at times. Welcoming smile. Friendly, inviting, aware.		Didn't get my issues. Really asking back to understand my issue. Goal directed.		Didn't talk about coach.			Experienced chemistry.	Not sure about ability to listen. Unsure how to start. Will be challenging. Interesting first question.	
71	Very good impression. Likeable. Easy to talk to, friendly.				Professional. Good experience. Oozes experience, but in a nice way.				Structured approach but open to feedback. Flexible. Felt coach in control. Got me thinking early on. Listened carefully to pick up issues.	
72	Lovely manner, calm, reflective.								Listened well and fed back. Made me feel re-	Noted physical appearance. Deep

									laxed and comfortable. Warmed to her style. Experienced coach, but lack of depth.	warm voice, but seemed less spontaneous. Age and gender positive. Maturity assuring.
73	Warm, friendly, Intelligent, engaging	Eager to engage.							Comfortable in his space. I didn't like being told I couldn't do what I wanted. Too judgemental. Focused, enquiring. Good direction without knowing everything. Made me feel comfortable.	Noted physical appearance positively.
74		Aabsorbed and absorbing. Depth and stillness instil calm		Very well matched. ? not different enough.	Experience helpful.			Feel comfortable made for good connection.		Noted appearance positively. Fun and style.

		and energy at the same time.								Voice is warm and engaging. Maturity made me relax.
75	Very positive, solid. Friendly, engaging and open. Direct. Forthright, intense.	Engaging				Open. Good eye contact and positive body language.			Would be happy to have him as a coach. Coachee-centred philosophy. Clear about coaching relationship. Made me feel comfortable. Would listen to my needs. Not willing to give example of coaching success. Would listen and not just collude. Too driven and focused on process.	Clear cut appearance.

76	Thoughtful, reflective, focused on me.	Very engaging indeed.			Experience.		Immediate empathy. Respect	I would trust his views and confidentiality.	I want to be coached by this person! Willing to work in partnership.	Noted individualistic appearance positively.
77	Less assured and engaging on personal level. Very positive.			Similarity was a negative.	HR background. Corporate person				Would have to work hard to make relationship work. Challenged sufficiently. Philosophy, experience and manner would lead to good relationship.	
78	Too nice. Friendly, interested, positive.				Prefer someone without business psychology background. Well-qualified.			Don't feel connection.	Conversations and questions didn't flow. Asked too many questions. Liked practical approach.	Age gap too large.
79	Likeable.			We have things in common (positive).	Value experience. Lacks operational ex-	Open and honest.		No chemistry. Didn't find me interesting.	Made me feel very comfortable.	I prefer male coaches (f). Noted

					perience. Well-qualified.					appearance issue negatively.
80	Friendly, positive.			Different background helps.	Less experienced. Good experience of working in complex orgs.	Could open up to this person.		Not immediate chemistry, but could grow to like.	Non-judgemental. Felt I could be myself.	Initially my preferred coach from CV, but now second.
87	Easy to get on with. A bit distant, but generally relaxed. Seemed nervous. Personable, friendly, welcoming, talkative.				Knowledgeable and experienced.		Early impression could trust him.		Related to his approach. Would get on. Would benefit and be challenged. Clear process. Discussions may not have sufficient depth.	Would have liked longer to test points of interest. Professional, casual but well-dressed.
88	Sympathetic, humorous, friendly, easy to talk to. Thoughtful, cheerful,						Not enough personal info to know if could trust.	Good eye contact and body language.	Nice to talk but not sure would lead to good coaching. Straight to the point. Would know	Let me waffle too much.

	inquisitive. Expressive, focused.								how to move an individual forward. Good com- municator.	
89	Personable, easy to talk to, intelli- gent, empa- thetic.	Really trying to get me to think things through and energise me.	Got me to actually state a de- velopment issue.					Not sure about empa- thy.	Got straight to the heart of the prob- lem. Did not warm to this coach, but challenged me help- fully. Able to move from generic thoughts to specific ac- tions.	
90	Funny, intelligent, entertain- ing, not so serious. Friendly, supportive. Positive and caring. Not very direct.					Open and interested.		Established rapport quickly.	Keen to give me some- thing sup- portive to feel good about. Won- dered what we could achieve.	Might al- low me to waffle.
91	Friendly. Friendly,				Very compe- tent. HR				Very struc- tured and no	

	talks a lot.				background, might be useful in current situation. Makes very experienced impression. Multi-national experience. Worked with talent management.				messaging about. Keen to understand my needs. Helped me to believe he could help.	
92	Friendly and interested. Makes a kind impression. Empathy.		Career coaching. Quickly identified issue.	Common experience of MBA. Some shared background.					Liked to talk to her. Eager to listen. Intelligent, challenging approach. Immediately warmed to her style.	Well-dressed
93	Friendly, articulate, interesting.	Very engaged. Enthusiasm for new ideas.		Similar age. Same gender.		Open and supportive.			Like description of coaching style. Showed no initial interest in my issues. Felt could help.	Liked appearance, tone of voice, eye contact.

									Liked that she asked me what I would like to talk about.	
94	Professional and friendly. Intelligent. Relaxed.	Interested in what I have to say.		Similar age to me and same gender, reassuring.				Direct eye contact. Some rapport. Did not build rapport quickly enough.	Approach and strategies appropriate. Able to challenge to think deeply. Pace too slow and meandering.	Didn't use jargon.
96	Hesitant, unsure			Matches closely to what I am looking for. Both left-handed and have common genealogical background	Good experience in areas I'm interested in.			Engaged well. Built common ground quickly.	Listens well and got me talking.	Was first choice in paper stage.
97	Friendly, firm.				Experience a bit fuzzy. Well connected in the city. Useful for job hunting.	Open		Good connection.	Didn't ask questions to elicit more than broad info. Gave experienced impression.	

98									Steered me on-topic. Asked thought provoking questions enabled me to think through current issues and challenges. Put me a little on the defensive, was later able to reverse the roles. Never equal.	Was my blind top rank. Much more impressive in person.
99	Professional.		Clear about setting goals up front.	Similar belief in people.				Decision based on chemistry.	Someone I could learn from. Good listen/talk balance. Focused on me and what I want from coaching. Gave impression of experienced coach.	

100	Easy to talk to.				Professional and experienced.				Put pressure on me to talk without structure, might be good. Probably not personal enough for me. Quick to engage conversation. Lack of focus on what I need. Uncomfortable.	
101	Very friendly and open, relaxed, easy to get comfortable with.	Likes coaching.			Lots of experience.	Open, but didn't seem to want to listen to me.			Felt comfortable discussing situation.	Very likeable, but not sure would fit.
102	Seemed sweet. Quiet.								Asked probing questions, but nothing too personal. Didn't learn anything about her. Liked that	

									she didn't talk about coaching at all. Would be interesting relationship.	
103	Nervous at start.			Similar views. Has been through similar situations. Like-minded.		Open.		Good instant chemistry.	Questions appropriately directed. Might give actionable feedback. Easy communication. Could be a really exciting relationship.	
104	Cool and calm, mellow. Straight-forward style. Maybe too serious, but also sense of mischief.				Worked in government.				Too cool for my taste. Good coaching style. Let me take the debate forward. Prefer a little more intervention.	

Appendix XII. Analysis of speed-chemistry session feedback from coaching pairs

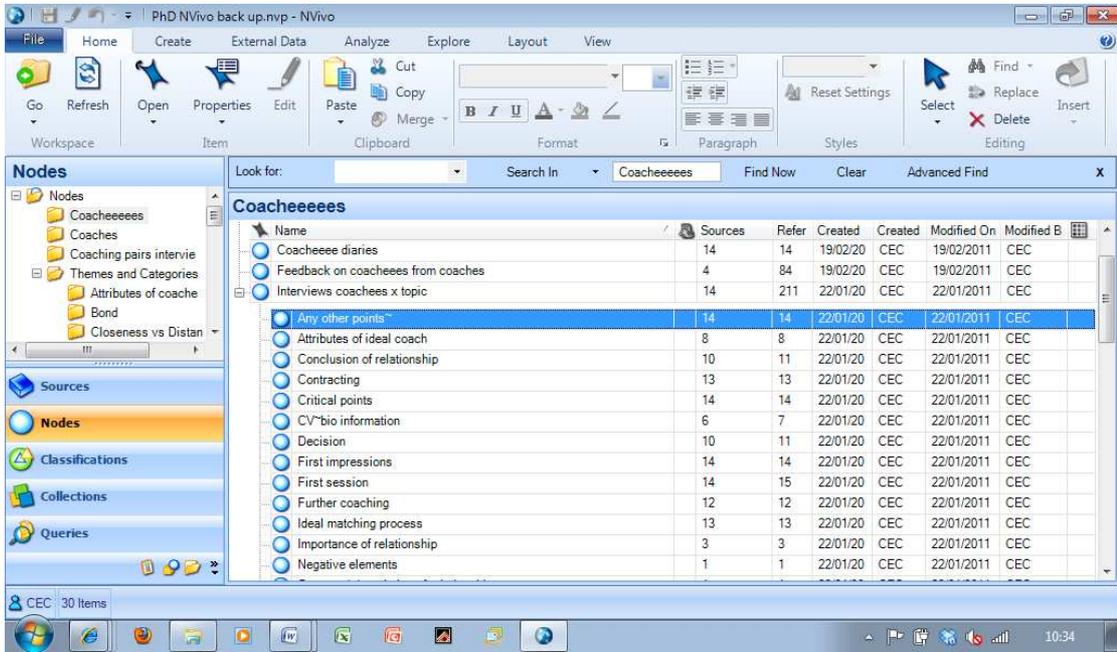
	Coachee feedback on coach	Coach feedback on Coachee
Coaching pair 1	<p>UUC10</p> <p>Seemed tired - that was my first impression. Perhaps a little cautious about/intimidated by me?</p> <p>Keen to be obliging, not very relaxed about expressing what she wanted from the conversation</p>	<p>FZC58</p> <p>Liked the 'thinking approach' - appeals to my learning values - think this aspect may cause me to choose her more to experience the process rather than her being the right person. Good description of coaching in terms of 'real' issue and need to dig for this. But does she just rely on this tool 'when all you have is a hammer everything looks like a nail'. Again v difficult to do</p>
Coaching pair 2	<p>UUC08</p> <p>Very open, friendly. Sense can trust her easily? Dutch? N. Europe. Wide experience and coaches herself, so know what she could be coached on. ??Philosophy about knowing the person first, builds rapport</p>	<p>FZC62</p> <p>Friendly, smiley, asked good questions though did not set expectations/purpose at the start. Has a similar approach and idea about coaching as I do and seems to have the relevant experience and approach i.e. Coaching = talking through thoughts out loud. Not sure how challenging she would be</p>
Coaching pair 3	<p>UUC13</p> <p>Open and pleasant person. Likeable, coaching experience, works with corporates</p>	<p>FZC64</p> <p>Considered in approach. Good first impression in greeting. Interested in me and how I was finding the experience and what I've done and how I wanted to play it. Seems to have a good level of experience. Good I contact. Lazy side of mouth gave impression a bit severe at times but got used to it</p>

Coaching pair 4	UUC18 Open, London, very busy, slightly difficult to start with. At an age when what you get and what you do to help your success in future is the prism	FZC69 Very good. She seems confident, interested and very alert. Also, she has a real interest in neuro-psychology and values which are of interest to me too
Coaching pair 5	UUC21 Lovely pretty wide lady. Sparkle. Very likeable. Middle-aged. Warming to curious. EN FJ. Self-aware wanting recharge her positive thinking and focus	FZC72 Lovely manner-calm, reflective blonde hair and pink shirt worked for me listened well-i.e. interpreted and played back founded deep, warm voice, with a laugh inside it slightly over considered and less spontaneous though that's okay for a coach
Coaching pair 6	UUC25 A little wary to start with but quickly opened up. Very pleasant-not assertive. Felt that she would normally 'pull' people but could be assertive when necessary. Likeable, friendly Coachee but not being coached much	FZC76 Definitely an individual character (goatee beard, purple roll-neck, jacket) (not sure about the purple top!) Thoughtful, reflective, focused on me. Would he pushed me enough?-Not sure?
Coaching pair 7	UUC27 Young expressive talkative? Background and experience of coaching	FZC80 Maybe less experienced than others but I felt I could open up to this person will stop didn't feel that they were judging me. Liked their flexible approach probably different background helped
Coaching pair 8	UUC30 A little hard to understand every word due to accent, nice, friendly, a little formal but I think we'd get beyond that. I'd have to warm her up	FZC81
Coaching pair 9	UUC37 Mature experienced professional man who realises he needs challenging and is seeking that. Clearly experienced in his field and wants to develop himself	FZC87 Positive knowledgeable and experienced. Would find the coach easy to get on with. I related to his approach and enjoyed talking to him

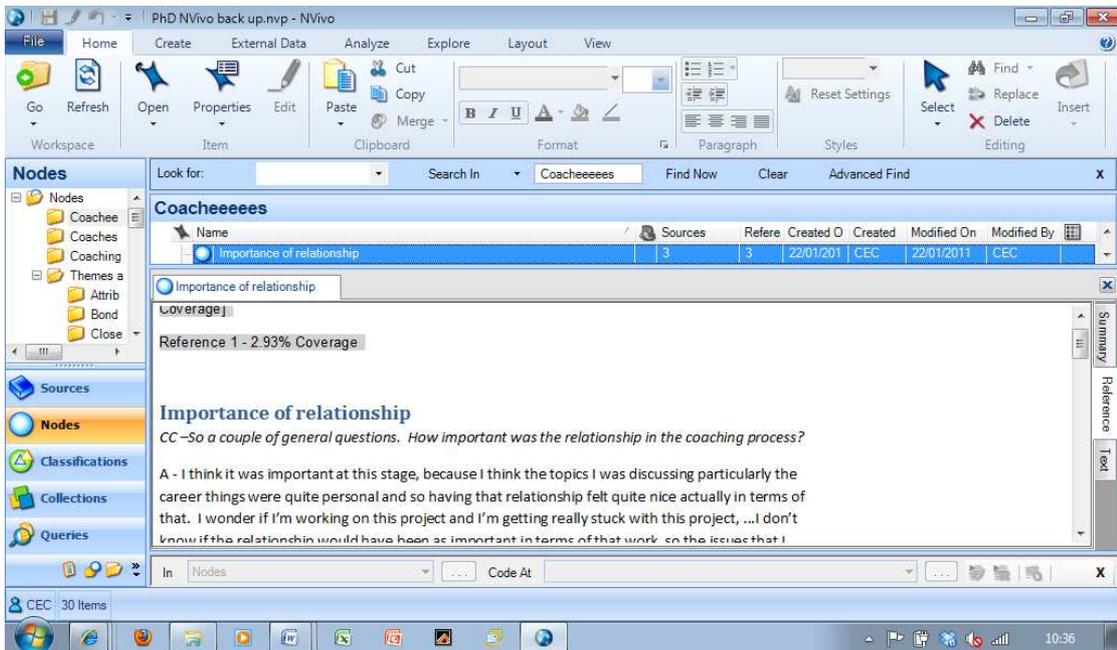
Coaching pair 10	UUC42 Male, late 30s (?). Successful to date, young family, very open body language, coming to end of MBA, likeable. Lots of ambiguity in the near future	FZC92 Very friendly, quickly identify areas of commonality. Like the fact she is female, soft approach, good at listening, open. (Told me personal things like redundancy and marriage)
Coaching pair 11	UUC44 Ernest, lively, friendly, willing to engage, intelligent, likeable	FZC94 Very professional but relaxed very quickly and is evidently really friendly. Seems able to challenge you to think deeply
Coaching pair 12	UUC46 MBA looking for career coaching. Would be an ideal coaching candidate i.e. he would benefit from coaching	FZC98 We started off-topic but he steered me on-topic quickly, provides some good information and then asked some thought-provoking questions that enables me to think through current issues and challenges
Coaching pair 13	UUC49 Very keen to develop people skills. Self-aware e.g. talked about interactions can be clumsy. Initial impression less positive but very quickly warmed and wanted to engage further	FZC99 Very professional, felt like someone I could learn from. Good listen/talk balance. Well educated
Coaching pair 14	UUC52 A real budding star in the making who is at a perfect point in choosing her life	FZC103 I really liked this coach. We had good instant chemistry and similar views on some things. Her questions were appropriately directed, but open and we had a good back and forth conversation

Appendix XIII. Example of NVivo™ coding

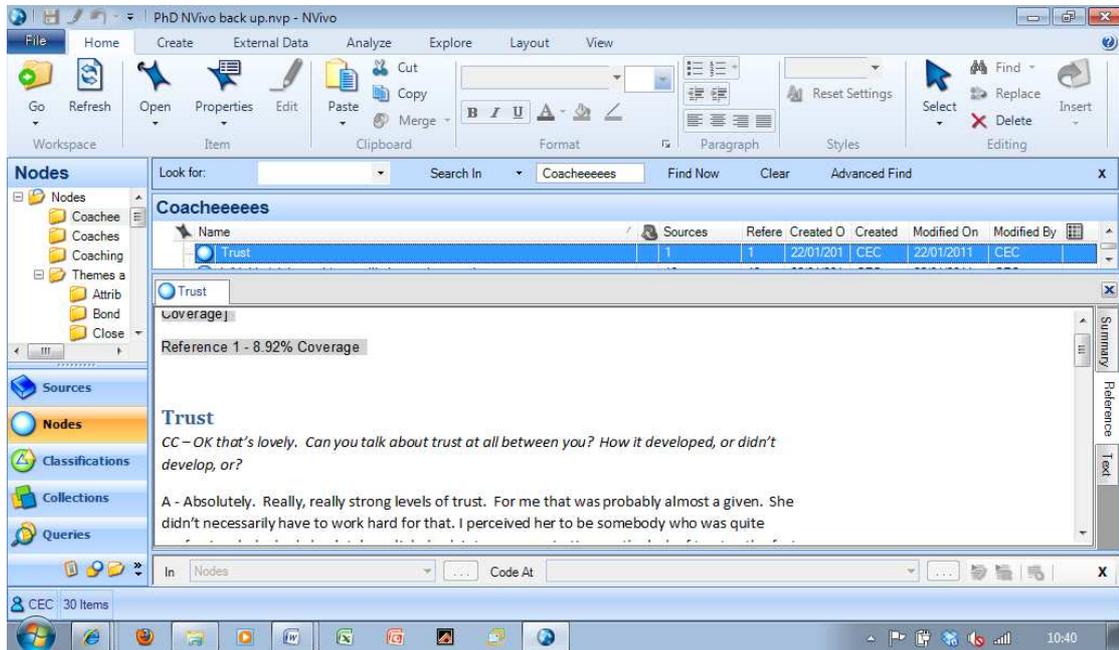
Example of overall coding nodes in NVivo™



Example of coding in one specific node “Importance of Relationship”



Example of coding in one specific node ‘Trust’



Appendix XIV. Constructs created from analysis of all coaching pairs

1. First impressions
2. Decision
3. First session
4. Surface-level and deep-level diversity factors
5. Relationship in the first session
6. Second and third sessions
7. Conclusion of relationship
8. Overall impression of relationship
9. Trust
10. Words and phrases to describe overall coaching relationship
11. Critical points
12. Further coaching
13. Contracting
14. CV/Bio information
15. Validity of choice of coach/coachee
16. Attributes of the ideal coach
17. Ideal matching process
18. Opinion of process used
19. Any other points

Appendix XV. Example of Framework from interview/reflexive diary constructs extracted from NVivo™

Framework for the construct ‘First impressions’

Coaches

Main theme: First impressions	Subtheme 1: Enthusiasm	Subtheme 2: Rapport	Subtheme 3: Interest in coaching	Subtheme 4: Similarity/ difference	Subtheme 5: Surface-, deep-level diversity	Subtheme 6: Comparison with other coachees
Coach FZC58						
62	She was enthusiastic and outgoing	Could have rapport			Taller than I remembered	
64		Tried to build rapport in limited time				
69	Fresh, young, dynamic. Motivated. Eagerness.		Clear goal			Felt connection with all of them
72		Would be easy to work with.	Genuinely interested in coaching. Knowledgeable	Similar personality type. A match.	Warmth, engaging	Not huge recollection of others
76	“She was pretty switched on”	Gelled more than with the other two	Really keen to do something with the coaching process			Don’t remember anything about the other two

80	Chose the one that would be more challenging	Rapport straight away				Wanted to coach all of them. She identified that I coach because I wanted to do that rather than move away from something.
81						
87		Struck up good relationship in 5 mins. We both rated each other				Can't remember the other two
92		Clicked immediately				In CVs felt least attracted to this coachee
94	Most energised	He was the most interesting, articulate, curious. Would be enjoyable to coach				One was low energy and the other had personal stuff going on
98		Had known coachee in another setting, so was surprised when he chose me				One was less interested in coaching than the other two
99		Rapport fine with all of them	Recognised a 'need' in one and that he would get a benefit		Vulnerability was interesting. "Felt he was a 'woman' customer"	

103	“Sparky”		Interested in coaching	Cultural background similar. Common themes	“Diamond in the rough”	Other was “slick and challenging”
Coachee UUC10		“One guy I absolutely loved...he was so rational, professional.” A ‘gentle relentlessness’.		One coach was known to me and it would have made me uncomfortable. Not enough distance for it to work.	Didn’t focus on MBTI as with paper info. Personality was more important in speed-coaching. Within a few seconds, “I like you, you would make an excellent coach”.	“The others were ‘nice’ and that doesn’t work for me.”
08				Same MBTI type. My reaction was “oh no, she’s an ENFP”. Almost, too nice and friendly.	One was nice guy, but smelled awful, so literally a physical reaction.	I formed an opinion really quickly. Some I could tell really quickly if I wanted to be coached and some I couldn’t tell. One talked ‘too fluffy’.
13	Immediately very relaxed and friendly.	Sociable, engaging, thoughtful.			Noticed gender mix of coaches.	

18	Good and active listener. Very quick, so she wouldn't necessarily wait.			Common interests in psychology and neuroscience.	Very professional and astute.	
21	Very calm and still and observant. Positively disposed towards human beings and wanting to help.	She was really listening to me. Body language told me she was facing me and facing into what I was saying and engaging with it.			Good tone of voice and level of volume – she's quiet but announces very clearly.	Buzzy personality of one was not what I was looking for. Was looking for a sense of calm. Other coach, male, at a physiological level no rapport at all
25	He was calm and laid back. Someone you could rely on. Very friendly and approachable.	Someone I would be prepared to share information with.				
27	Laid back approach	Very interested in what I had to say; active listening skills. Good non-verbal communication. Felt would be open relationship. Respect.			Smiling, non-verbal signals.	First coach asked lots of questions

30	She was very calm and relaxed. Very natural, very comfortable.				Most professional in how she was dressed, how she held herself, as well as how she started her conversation	
37						Three interesting coaches. Nothing negative.
42	Bright and smiley	Very good listener, extremely friendly. Very, very positive person. Immediately struck up rapport.				Ruled out one coach because he talked too much about himself. Wasn't good at listening and was giving the answers he thought I wanted to hear. Second had similar background and good coaching skills, I liked him very much.
44		Coach talked about the sort of things I would like to cover. She gave me support.	Acknowledged the thing I wanted to be coached on.			Other coach (lady) was friendly. Conversation was evenly balanced.

46					Was very impressed by his resumé. Thought style would be good one-to-one.	Liked one coach, but he was new to coaching. No recollection of third person.
49	Would reflect back and bring something more to the table.	Quickly related to what I was talking about.			Professional.	One coach too pushy, the other too soft and fluffy.
52		Wanted someone interested in drawing me out.		Similar cultural background, contrast to subtle English culture.		First coach, female, did not seem to have enough experience for me at my level. Didn't like the guy, he was quite 'English'. Didn't seem interested in me. Came across as a bit cold, removed, distant. Felt the opposite of chemistry.

Appendix XVI. Full narrative data from all coaching pairs

This appendix provides the full narrative of all of the coaching pairs that was summarized in section 4.5.

4.5.2 Coaching pair 1

The dynamics within the coaching relationship in pair no. 1 were very positive. As this pair was formed during the pilot phase of the data collection there had been a choice of six coaches and coachees. The coach in this case was not the coachee's first choice (she was second). In her interview this gave rise to comments that she had remembered her first choice of coach as being '*rational and professional*', where the others were 'nice'. She felt that the information on the CV/biography forms did not give much help and that she did not deliberately choose or select out based on MBTI type personality profile. She reflected at several points in her interview that she was not looking for a coach that was 'nice' but rather for someone who would challenge her.

The coach's experience of the speed-chemistry session at a surface level was that this coachee had a '*sweet way*' of excusing her nervousness and that she displayed shyness as if she was '*not quite used to this type of encounter*'. The coach was frustrated by the speed sessions as she felt pressure to make progress and left the session feeling that she would have liked to progress to 'building up' the coachee had time allowed. In her interview the coach ruminated on whether surface-level factors played a part in making a matching choice and felt that unconsciously they probably did but cognitively they should not be an influence, especially for the coach who should be prepared to coach any client. She noted that she had 'clocked' the gender mix of the group, thought that her coachee 'looked tired' and wondered if she might be under pressure, was stressed or unwell, or whether this was her normal demeanour. This was noted in a compassionate way and showed further interest in working with her.

The coach reported extended preparation periods of at least one hour before each coaching session. This was so that she was relaxed and ready for the coaching sessions. She noted that this enabled her to feel 'fully present' in the sessions.

Initially the coach felt that the coachee was shy, introverted and uncomfortable with small talk and with new people. When they met the coach described the coachee as appearing to be 'animated, highly-strung, very smiley with little eye contact'. Both coach and coachee noted the benefit of sharing initial personal details and anecdotes. This resulted in the conversation settling quickly and the coachee became more relaxed. It was clearly a 'rapport-building' process. The coachee commented that she was impressed that the coach asked permission to 'go out' of coaching mode to share a story and that these stories were usually relevant and helpful - one producing an 'aha' moment for the coachee in enabling her to look at the situation at hand from a completely different point of view – *'that's what I am doing, so I should stop doing that'*. The coach also noted this point and stated that she felt that it increased the level of intimacy between the pair.

A key element for the coaching relationship was the balance of input from each side. The coach allowed the coachee to do the majority of the talking, giving her much space and allowing silences. About the coachee, the coach noted: *'With only the gentlest of prompts and interventions from me, she dissected the issue beautifully and got to some clear insights'*.

The final coaching session was conducted by telephone. Whilst the coach had wondered if this might be problematic both reported that the relationship having been established, it actually worked very well with no detriment to the quality of the session. In fact they each made observations to demonstrate the familiarity that they had established. They felt that they could fill in the 'visual blanks'.

The coachee described the conclusion of the relationship as '*a positive close*', that there had been a personal connection which was 'professional enough'. The coach felt that the relationship 'drew to a natural conclusion'. The coachee noted, '*really, really strong levels of trust*' between the pair.

In some general questions the coachee went into some detail about the importance of the relationship in terms of the level of challenge. Her second point was that she felt it important to match up with a coach based on the issue to be discussed and that this would guide her on the level of similarity or difference, empathy or challenge that would be appropriate. She also had some clear suggestions for the matching process in that she felt that a '*pre-coaching coaching diagnostic*' session would be helpful with someone asking the question: '*What do you think a good coach would look like for you?*' She also believed that knowledge of previous coaching experience was important as you then knew what worked for you and what did not.

Summary

Coaching Pair 1 experienced a positive relationship. The coach had not been the coachee's first choice and the coachee felt that she might have appreciated more challenge. They both appreciated a 'rapport-building' stage in the development of the relationship. The relationship appeared to be close though rather polite. Once established, the coaching relationship remained solid throughout the three sessions.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive
Key words	Empathy, politeness, courtesy, modesty, similarity
	Need for challenge
Level of collaboration	High Both parties were equal partners in the relationship. Trust and rapport were strong
Level of Pace	Low The coach took a reflective stance in the relationship, allowing the coachee to 'have her voice'. This was a low activity partnership, albeit a very positive one.

Table.1 Summary for Coaching Pair 1

4.5.3 Coaching pair 2

The overall responses from the coach and coachee in this pair were quite different. From the initial impressions the coach was anxious and apprehensive about her potential performance and the coachee was unenthusiastic about the prospective coaching sessions.

In the speed-coaching the coach noted the coachee's height, though not as a factor influencing their choice, merely noting it and making an association from the biographical information. The coach also picked up on the similarity of MBTI type and saw this as an advantage, describing the encounter as: *'Two butterflies colliding every so often and going off to something interesting but following each other'*.

On the other hand the coachee reacted negatively to the similarity of MBTI type: *'Oh no, she's an ENFP'*, being concerned that she would be *'too nice, too friendly, too lovely'*. The coachee felt that the coach had a great background and experience but was unsure how she would be as a coach.

When the coaching sessions commenced, the coach felt that it was like *'catching up with a friend'*. The coachee, by contrast, was lacklustre in her anticipation of the coaching. An overall theme for the coachee within the coaching sessions was that her coach was very flexible and

accommodating which, given some difficult circumstances, was much appreciated. However, she wanted to be challenged much more by the coach and did not feel that this was happening. In the coachee's view there was too much 'small talk', whereas she preferred more detachment and sticking to the coaching issues. She was unsure whether the coach understood the business environment sufficiently.

The coach was positive about the relationship noting that there was good rapport and quoted Flaherty (De Haan et al., 2010) that there was trust, respect and commitment in the relationship. However, she focused also on her own performance quite a bit, several times in her diary and interview, noting anxiety about how she might encounter the coaching. She asked her coachee for feedback (others also did this) on her performance which her coachee found 'awkward'.

Within the coaching sessions the coach described the relationship as an *'easy conversation between friends'* whilst the coachee felt that she (the coach) should have taken more control to *'drive the agenda'* and to gain more challenge. Challenge was a key theme for the coachee: *'I like someone to be quite strict and tough with me ... she's not holding the mirror in front of me ... that's the 'F' in her (referring to the 'F' in their MBTI profiles)'*. An overall description of this was 'tough love'. The coachee did, however, want to give the coaching 'her best' and fully participated in all three sessions, despite extensive travel and changes at work. She rated her commitment to the relationship as high and expressed her liking of her coach as a person.

Both coach and coachee regarded the relationship as empathetic rather than challenging, the difference in perception being that the coach felt this to be positive whereas the coachee would have preferred more challenge. Both felt that they had rapport which was *'clear and enjoyable'*. Both felt that the relationship was one of distance rather than closeness, but their reasons for this differed, the coachee believing that the coach could not 'visualise' her business role whereas

the coach felt that it was due to her own inhibitions. She noted that she *'felt the weight of expectation'* on her.

Contracting was carried out at the outset of the relationship and both felt that this had been positive, aiding a 'common purpose' (coach) or simply as 'housekeeping' (coachee).

The coaching relationship concluded amicably. The coach was keen to know more about the outcomes for the coachee, however this was never accomplished which left the coach feeling that there was 'unfinished business'. The coachee, however, was satisfied that the relationship had gone as far as it could go. She felt that she had gained benefit from it and that a conclusion had been reached.

Summary

The energy levels between this coach and coachee differed quite markedly, with the coach being enthused and positive about the pairing and the coachee being more ambivalent. They were of the same MBTI® type which pleased the coach, but left the coachee wondering if it would work for or against a successful relationship. Trust, respect and rapport were all present between the participants. The coach's flexibility and understanding were, however, much appreciated by the coachee. The coachee reflected that she would have like to have 'driven' the relationship more and had more challenge. The relationship concluded amicably.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive overall.
Keywords	Empathetic rather than challenging, committed, clear and enjoyable rapport.
Level of Partnership	Low. The coachee wanted more challenge, though was appreciative of many aspects of the coach. The coach enjoyed the similarities more than did the coachee.
Level of Pace	Medium/low. 'An easy conversation between friends' (Coach). Empathetic rather than challenging (coachee).

Table.2 Summary for Coaching Pair 2

4.5.4 Coaching pair 3

This pair each reported good first impressions of the other, the coachee reporting that he was 'intrigued' and that his coach was *'immediately very relaxed and friendly'*. He was *'sociable, engaging, thoughtful, but with a serious demeanour when it was needed'*. He was *'comfortable and relaxed'* and clearly had experience. He noted that: *'I didn't want what I call a "lovey" coach'*.

In their speed-coaching sessions the coachee noted that he had a working relationship with one of the potential coaches and did not choose this person for that reason. He felt that it would not be possible to have the same openness and confidence with someone with whom he worked and noted that *'however much you trust a person, there is always the feeling that organizational politics may become involved'*.

Before the first session, in his diary, the coachee undertook preparation around what issue he wanted to cover in his sessions and noted: *'It will be interesting to see how far he challenges me as it gets more personal'*.

A key word which appeared repeatedly in the coachee's diary and in his interview was that this relationship was 'comfortable'. He used this word in relation to being 'comfortable' with being open with his coach, that he was 'comfortable' being coached by this person and that the relationship was *'comfortable and relaxed'*. This word was also used by the coach to describe their relationship right from the first coaching session.

The key word for the coach seemed to be 'honest(y)'. He described his coachee as *'honest, bright and intelligent'* and said that he was being 'honest' with himself. In their first session he said that the coachee's *'honesty came through very strongly'*. At the end of the first session both felt that the relationship was good and that there was progress, the coach describing it as *'a work in progress'*.

In session two they both reported a critical moment (1999). The coach described it as a '*genuine light bulb moment*', whereas the coachee noted it but in a more nuanced manner. Both reported that at this point the energy levels of the session increased markedly and that this was a 'turning point'. The moment came when the focus shifted from a present to a future orientation for the work. The coach noted: '*It was one of those coaching experiences, where as the coach I kind of was just thinking to myself "wow" – the feeling that you've actually made a difference*'. And the coachee reflected that he was, '*energized by the positiveness (sic) of this session*'.

Both seemed somewhat disappointed that the same energy levels could not be reproduced in session 3 but accepted that session 2 had been a 'high point' that was hard to follow.

One feature which was important for this pair was the coaching environment. Their first session was held in a public meeting room at the coachee's workplace. Initially this had seemed like a good plan but they were interrupted a couple of times which broke concentration. This seemed to be more of an issue for the coach than the coachee, as the coach clearly was attending to the needs of his client. Thereafter, they met in the coachee's office which was much better. There was one interruption from the coachee's manager but this did not disrupt the relationship.

Both coach and coachee felt comfortable bringing the relationship to a natural close. The coach would have liked to continue and both would be happy to work together in the future. Both had noted the fact that this coaching was for research purposes and that the coach was volunteering his time. This was appreciated by the coachee who felt that there was probably a more even balance between them than if he had been paying for his coaching, where he felt that the client might feel that more of the power was on their side. However, he did note that his coach was happy to be a part of the arrangement and was very flexible when dates had to be changed; he observed that '*no-one was coerced*'. Their coaching relationship was described as being 'empathetic', which was satisfactory for both of them and they both felt that they were similar people

in terms of *'personality, tastes and styles'*. Again this was seen favourably. Overall they had a very similar sense of the relationship.

Summary

Both participants in this relationship used similar words to describe the pairing, such as 'comfortable' and 'honest'. The energy between them was always positive, but increased noticeably after a critical moment which changed the dynamic. The energy level diminished slightly in session 3 compared with session 2 which was seen as a high point. They resolved some initial difficulties in the coaching environment. The relationship was very even and equally balanced. It was brought to an amicable close with both parties saying that they would be happy to work together again.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive (Coachee <i>'Good experience. Glad I did it'</i>).
Descriptions	Balanced, mutual, partnership. Comfortable. Honest. Empathetic.
Level of Partnership	High. Very evenly balanced. Though the coachee wondered if this was because the experience was part of the research and might have been different had he been paying for the coaching.
Level of Pace	Medium to high. Increased after critical moment.

Table.3 Summary for Coaching Pair 3

4.5.5 Coaching pair 4

Initial impressions from each participant were very positive. The coach noted that she could have worked with any of the potential coachees. Her preference was based on the fact that this coachee was *'fresh and young and dynamic'* and that he had a very clear goal which she described as a 'come-on' for a coach. The coachee's assessment of the coach was that she was *'professional, astute, a good/active listener, and very quick to understand'*. The coach did not raise any surface-level factors regarding the coachee, but he noted that the coach's experience and her background as a senior person in a similar setting was a great attractor.

A clear positive point identified by the coachee was that they both shared some similar interests. This had been a factor in his decision for preferring this coach and was noted repeatedly in his reflexive diary and interview. This similarity of interest was a strongly positive point in their relationship. However, a distinction was drawn between them having this similarity of interest and them being similar people which was not felt to be the case. The coach described this sharing of interests as there being, *'a welcome synchronicity'*.

The coachee commented that in the coaching relationship he believed that the coach should share something of their own background and of their own experiences to enrich the content. He noted, *'in the real world, people do not have value free or interest free conversations'*.

With regard to the need to be similar people and to share 'small talk', the coachee felt that it was *'nice to chat but important not to stray from the professional'* and that, *'I do not want to know that many things about my coach as I quite like the aura of independence'*.

Both described their coaching relationship as 'natural' and the most common descriptor used by the coachee was 'professional'. In session 1 the coach noted that it *'felt natural and continued building from the speed-coaching session'* and during the course of the session: *'None of this felt "deliberate", it was more like the conversation evolving naturally through very open questions and answers'*.

The coach reproached herself at one point for her *'bad case of 'assumptionitis'(sic)'* as she had written in her diary that she felt that the coachee was not committed to the coaching relationship, where she subsequently realized that he had been ill (reason for lack of contact) and had actually done the homework actions that had been agreed.

A point of interest for this coaching pair was that they both focused on the issue of the second session being a telephone coaching session. The coachee was very apprehensive about using this mode for a coaching session and was concerned that there would be a lack of visual clues. These

concerns were laid to rest by the coach who reported that she had much experience of this form of interaction and had, in fact, undertaken training specifically in telephone interviewing. Both reported that early into the session the issue of it being by telephone became irrelevant and that the relationship continued to be of a high quality. The coachee felt that this was possible because they had already met and could '*picture each other*' to make it more 'real'. The coach made a point of letting each of them describe their surroundings for that session so that they could conjure up a visual scene to relate to. Also, she herself focused on the external environment to 'zone out' her visual perceptions and to concentrate on the 'audio cues'. The coachee picked up on the issue of them '*talking over each other*' and viewed it positively as a sign of their commitment to the session.

Despite the very positive work done beforehand, the final session and conclusion for this pair appeared to have been problematic. The session started well but came at the end of a long day for the coach. Whether this was an influencing factor cannot be stated as the coach did not mention this point. Both noted frustrations, the coach believing that she '*tried to pack too much in*' and frustration that she could not work with the coachee longer term. She also stated that she '*tried to give him options at the end to make up for the time ending*'. The coachee stated the issues more strongly, that he felt the coach exhibited some impatience with him (this had occurred in session 2 to a lesser extent), that he wanted to be listened to more and that this was around issues previously discussed that the coachee had 'failed' to resolve in the first airing: '*she kind of put me in my place a bit*'.

This left the relationship with a frustrated conclusion, on the coach's part because time had run out, and on the coachee's part because he felt 'rushed' to a conclusion and that the coach was impatient with him. There was a feeling that the real work had been achieved in the first two sessions.

They both reported experiencing ‘critical moments’ in the sessions. These were around unlocking detail using good questioning and agreeing key actions to take before the next session.

The overall description for both individuals of their coaching relationship was very positive. The coach felt that they had very strong rapport, that there was a high level of trust and integrity and noted that they *‘could have been more open, given more time’*. She felt that their relationship was balanced and that it was mainly empathetic with some challenging moments. The coachee used terms such as ‘business-like’, ‘structured’ and ‘professional’. He felt that the relationship was high in trust and integrity and that it was *‘challenging in an empathetic way’*. He very much valued the coach’s ‘rationality, that she was *‘naturally intuitive and logical’* and that her understanding was due to her speed of uptake of complex issues. An overall impression was *‘friendly but professional’* with *‘much warmth and understanding’*.

On the issue of whether they would coach together again in the future, the coach was clear that she would whilst the coachee was a little more guarded. Based on his experience in the third session he felt that with a similar work-based issue he would want to be coached by this coach again for her professionalism and acuity, but that if the issue was one which needed more of a ‘nurturing’ approach he would probably choose a different coach (and suggested one of the others that he had met in the speed-coaching session).

Summary

This relationship had the overall semblance of a very professional partnership – a coachee who was ‘fresh and young and dynamic’ with a senior, experienced coach. Each was attracted to working with the other. The interactions remained professional without straying into small talk, although the coachee felt that it was valuable that the coach revealed some information about herself. Environment was again an important factor. Both participants noted concern beforehand that the second session was by telephone, but that it had, after all, been successful. The relation-

ship ended on a frustrating note with the both being conscious of the time constraint. However, overall, both reported that it had been very positive with good energy and a number of critical moments.

Summary	
Outcome	Positive.
Descriptions	Natural, professional, empathetic with challenging moments, <i>'Something that worked'</i> . <i>'A welcome synchronicity'</i> .
Level of Partnership	High. The contrasting experience levels were complementary and each derived satisfaction from working with the other.
Level of Pace	High. Both participants were motivated and keen to rise to the challenge.

Table 4 Summary for Coaching Pair 4

4.5.6 Coaching pair 5

The two participants in this coaching pair gave dissimilar reports of the dynamics of the relationship. Initial impressions for both of them were very positive. In her reflexive diary the coach noted that she sensed a 'vulnerability' in this particular coachee on first meeting. In her interview she reflected that she had no real recollection of the other two coachees in the speed session group. She felt that she had established a nice 'rapport' with them all, but it was this coachee that stood out because she seemed *'genuinely interested and aware of how coaching could benefit'*. She noted a 'nice warmth' and an 'engaging character'. The coach clearly made a strong impression on the coachee. In her interview the coachee noted the coach's 'presence' being *'calm, still, observant, positively disposed towards human beings and wanting to help'*. The coachee offered comparison with the other two coaches in the speed session, one being too 'buzzy' whereas the chosen coach was *'someone I could slow down with'* and the third candidate offered the coachee no rapport. The coach was attracted to working with the coachee as *'a senior, experienced, mature woman'* and felt that these characteristics would support rapport building. The coachee had actively observed the coach's looks and voice tone, her strong sense of being non-judgemental and her gentleness as early impressions.

Both, therefore, approached the coaching from a positive stance. The first session was also viewed positively. The coach described the coachee as 'relaxed' and said that she *'warmed to her'*. The coachee described the potential for the relationship as the coach was *'gentle, very structured, has a sense of great confidence, will not be intrusive and will use absolute integrity'*. In her diary the coachee stated that she believed that *'rapport is everything'* and *'with 'n' I felt totally in rapport'*. She further noted that, *'good rapport gives the client and the coachee permission to really delve into what's going on'*.

In session 1 the coach felt that the relationship was 'professional and friendly', and the coachee described it as 'very mutual'. The coach noted, *'the friendliness was because we were women who related well in terms of chemistry'*, and felt that they were similar in terms of their personalities and their 'lenses' on the world.

Following on from this very positive start the arrangement of session 2 proved to be problematic for the coaching relationship from the coach's point of view. There were several cancellations by the coachee, one at very short notice and by email. The coach expressed in several ways her annoyance and irritation at this saying that she felt *'disappointed and disrespected'* and also that *'if she was a client, I would have charged her a cancellation fee'*. She stated that: *'With hindsight I should have contracted properly with 'n' and given her some rules around this relationship'*.

Based on this irritation, once the second session did take place the coach reported that she felt the cancellation incidents had affected the coaching relationship. She noted that her first impressions were 'deepening' and that she was influenced by the coachee's *'quality of dialogue'* but also by the *'behaviour around scheduling'*. On the other hand she stated that during the actual coaching the feelings of trust and openness were very good.

The coachee's view of this was somewhat different. She reported that she did not recall the second session 'too well' and that she remembered '*changing it a couple of times*'. She noted in her interview that, in her view, '*if the time isn't right for the coachee, the session should be re-scheduled*', adding '*if I have coachees who are just like 'now just isn't a good time can we re-schedule?' that's fair enough*'. The view of the manners and consequences of rescheduling coaching sessions was clearly viewed very differently by the two participants.

A long time gap then occurred before the third session was organized. For the coach the prevailing view was, '*in terms of the relationship – we just need to get this done now*'. She felt that the client was difficult with 'erratic behaviour'. She reported that the final session was much more 'transactional', that she felt 'disrespected' and that this had '*coloured her opinion about future working*'. The coachee reported the third session positively. The coach was able to use her '*style, her calmness and her listening*' and afterwards the coachee felt, '*more resilient, less emotional and more confident*'.

The coaching was concluded 'courteously' (coach's word from interview) with the coachee sending a final email regarding an outcome. The coachee also expressed gratitude for the coaching which the coach appreciated.

Overall the coachee stated that she felt that the relationship had high integrity. After the scheduling difficulties the coach felt that integrity and trust for her were poor. The coachee stated, '*I have felt so energized by the sessions I have had*'. The coachee described the relationship as 'mutual' or '*on the same wavelength*' and the coach as '*supportive, objective, concerned, engaged and with positive intent*'. The coach felt that the relationship was 'productive', 'substantial and worthwhile' having '*worked at a deep level*'. There was high rapport and openness reported.

Both participants stated that they would choose the other again, though the coach clearly noted that she would undertake contracting much more formally another time, not just around confidentiality but setting clear rules for planning and possible cancellation of sessions.

Critical moments for the coach were around the problems with session 2, but for the coachee they centred on the chemistry meeting where *‘certain things that ‘n’ said and did - immediately clicked “yes, yes, yes” for me’*.

Finally the coach stated that the relationship was in a ‘good place’, *‘I am feeling satisfied’*.

Summary

The coach was very impressed with the coachee who had stood out at the matching stage. The coachee was also positive about the coach who was sufficiently senior and experienced for her needs. Both were very positive about their coaching relationship which they felt was productive. The relationship at the start was described as ‘very mutual’. However, due to some appointment issues, the coach began to be irritated by the coachee and regretted not making the contracting process more formal. The coachee was satisfied overall with the relationship and outcomes; she felt that it had high integrity and did not allude to the scheduling difficulties. For the coach, the relationship became ‘transactional’. The coaching was concluded ‘courteously’.

Summary	
Outcome	Mixed.
Descriptions	Mutual, professional, friendly (coachee). Productive (coach).
	Clear dichotomy between within coaching sessions and contracting arrangements. Plainly affects coaching relationship for coach.
Level of Partnership	Low/medium. Almost toxic from the coach’s point of view.
Level of Pace	Medium/high.

Table.5 Summary for Coaching Pair 5

4.5.7 Coaching pair 6

This coachee had not experienced any coaching before and her coach had not done a lot of coaching over the previous few months. They each made a good first impression on the other, the coach describing the coachee as 'switched on' and the coachee found the coach to be *'calm and laid-back'*. The coach felt that the relationship with this coachee 'gelled' more than with the other two in the group. He felt that there was a genuine 'link' and that there was good eye contact and body language between them. The coachee had some doubt introduced when she spent additional time with the other two coaches of the group over lunch immediately after the speed session, however, when their coaching commenced she was once again reassured that the coach that she had identified as her first choice was, indeed, the right one.

They both felt that although contracting discussions were undertaken, specifically confidentiality and that there were three sessions, these issues might have been covered more thoroughly to enable the coachee, who was new to coaching, to understand the process more and to feel more supported by her coach. This was rectified early in the first session.

Their first coaching session was 'comfortable'. They spent a little time on introductions where the coach found that the coachee *'expressed herself very clearly and concisely'*. For the coachee, the coach quickly established his credibility which enabled her to trust his direction. They talked openly, comfortably and there was a *'growing understanding'* (coachee). The coach noted: *'[I] wanted to quickly get her to an understanding of what the coaching relationship was about'*, and that the dynamic between them was 'very positive'. He reflected that the coachee was driven but not self-centred; she was 'astute' and he felt 'synergized with'. Rapport, honesty, openness and trust were quickly established. There was a 'soft' entry with 'moderate challenge'.

In session 2 the relationship was quickly re-established and continued along the same lines with a gradual deepening. A critical moment in the relationship for both participants was in this sec-

ond session when the coachee mentioned the book *A Time to Think* by Nancy Kline (Kline, 1999). The coachee had read this and been impressed with the book and its impact. The coach noted that this could be an immediate point of discussion for the final session and that this was an example of where the '*coachee can help the coach to learn*'. He decided to buy the book and read it for the next session.

On a separate issue, the coach noted that there were a number of attempts to schedule the second and third sessions and that plans were often cancelled at short notice. However, he reflected that he felt that these were very 'genuine' issues and that it did not affect the coaching relationship at all.

The coachee reported that she felt sessions 1 and 2 were very similar - comfortable, open and with a growing understanding. However, the nature of the final session for both participants was very different. The coach had read *A Time to Think* and agreed with the coachee to use its methodology in the session. They both gave effusive descriptions of this final session, the coach calling it '*the best yet*' and the coachee saying that it was '*the most amazing session*'. The coachee noted a dramatic difference in the relationship, saying that it was 'very intense' and that it helped them to form a real 'bond'. She also felt that although it was a 'step-change' in terms of the relationship she felt that it was a 'natural progression' from the solid start of sessions 1 and 2. The words that she used to describe session 3 were: '*exciting, liberating, created real results, created a bond, stimulating, challenging, exhausting and thrilling*'. She stated: '*I felt like I emptied ideas from my very core*'; and '*it is quite intense when you challenge your thoughts and dig below the surface*'.

The coach reflected that the coachee seemed '*fired up and enthusiastic*'. The session came to a 'natural' close and left them both feeling exhausted but energized.

Both coach and coachee said that they would make the same choice and that they would ‘definitely’ be happy to work together again. The coach felt that, *‘it worked because she really wanted to get the most out of the sessions ... and because she was keen to do positive things’* and that it worked, *‘being happy in an equal relationship’*.

They were both happy with the conclusion, the coachee reporting that it was *‘an amazing experience’*.

Summary

Both participants agreed that this was a beneficial partnership. The coachee had not had coaching previously and the coach had not coached for a while. They reported a ‘growing understanding’ during the first session. There was a distinct critical moment in the third session when they chose to follow Kline’s time to think’ methodology (Whitmore, 2002). Moderate challenge was reported and there were high levels of rapport, honesty, openness and trust. The final session was described as ‘intense’ and helped them to form a real bond. Both coaches reported being very satisfied with the choice that they had made to work together.

Summary	
Outcome	(Very) Positive.
Descriptions	Comfortable at first, synergy, exciting, continually developing, willingness to try, bond. Last session ‘intense’.
Level of Partnership	High. Each took the opportunity to lead the other in a positive way.
Level of Pace	High. Although a comfortable relationship, much was tried in a short space of time.

Table.6 Summary for Coaching Pair 6

4.5.8 Coaching pair 7

For this coaching pair the very words that one party used in a positive sense, the other seemed to use negatively. The coach particularly gave a very low-key account of the relationship. He was quite exercised by the fact that the coaching was part of a research study and was keen to ad-

dress this with the coachee in contracting. The issue did not arise in the coachee's diary or interview.

From the speed sessions the coach notes that he would have been happy to coach any of the coachee candidates and that surface-level factors were deliberately set aside for him. He created a hierarchy amongst the coachees in which ones he felt would be more 'challenging' and who might '*stretch or challenge me*', or who might '*help me learn about myself*'. This was, therefore to some extent about the coach's development as well as that of the coachee. He felt that he was chosen because the coachee identified from his CV that he was doing this work from choice rather than moving away from some other kind of work. The coachee on the other hand had more deliberate reasons for choosing the coach. In comparison to the others in the speed session this coach had impressed with his 'laid-back' approach and she noted that his '*active listening skills were in abundance*'. She felt '*listened to and heard*' and felt that they would build a good, open relationship. She based her decision on the non-verbal communication skills and the coach's 'warmth'.

The coachee approached the first session with excitement and anticipation whereas the coach was concerned that he did not know anything about the issue to be discussed. The coachee reported in her diary and in her interview that she enjoyed the session and that her initial good impressions were further reinforced. She felt that the relationship was relaxed and open and that she was able to speak freely about her issues. She enjoyed the use of various tools and techniques. In contrast, the coach noted that the session 'lacked warmth'. He felt that it was more formal than usual. It was professional. He talked at length about needing to contract with the coachee and discovering whether they were working on a real issue as he was concerned not to be creating a false context since this was for a piece of research. A number of his diary and interview comments covered this point. The coachee on the other hand welcomed the use of feed-

back, as it demonstrated that: *'he found my opinion important but also that he wants to improve'*.

The coach felt that the research context *'created a different chemistry'* but the coachee did not mention this at all. The coachee gave a definite impression of a relationship that was 'building', rapport was present, enhanced by the coach's self-disclosure.

In sessions 2 and 3 this mismatch of overall impressions continued. The coach again noted the 'lack of warmth', at one point saying: *'I feel I am chipping away at a very hard rock and mostly just blunting the chisel!!!'* Whereas the coachee held respect for the coach and enjoyed his approach to the sessions. She only spoke of one area of frustration with the relationship in the second session but felt that this was because she came into the session feeling unsettled and also all of the sessions were held at her place of work which was not ideal and which she would change in the future. The coach in session 2 had a sense of 'holding back' and potentially creating a *'self-fulfilling prophecy'* as far as the relationship as part of research was concerned. He did some 'self-supervision' to avoid creating an environment of which he had been critical in S1. He was clearly influenced by the context but making great effort to overcome it.

The coachee felt overall that she 'respected' her coach: *'I respected my coach and believe he truly listened to me and had my best interests at heart'*.

When asked to describe the overall relationship, the coach used the words: professional, distant and exploratory. And that they had 'superficial rapport', 'trust up to a point', 'distance' and *'empathy – but not expressed well'*. By contrast, the coachee felt that the relationship was open and honest, she felt supported, that the relationship was building and developing and that there was mutual trust. Both stated that they would be happy to enter into coaching in the future, though the coach noted that he would set it up differently in an attempt to get a 'real alliance'.

The conclusion of the relationship was one of ‘unfinished business’ on both sides. They had agreed to have a follow-up telephone call and that the coachee would send written feedback to the coach. Although both had good intentions for these tasks neither had been actioned at the time of interview.

Summary

This was a contradictory pairing. The coach gives a low-key account of the relationship and seemed concerned that his own performance was satisfactory. The coachee had been attracted to the coach because of his laid-back approach and active listening skills. The coach continued to be subdued about the relationship and his reports indicate a lack of energy towards the coachee who, on the other hand, reports enjoying the sessions and the use of various coaching tools. The coachee was very respectful of the coach. The coach felt that there had been ‘*superficial rapport*’ and ‘*trust up to a point*’. The conclusion of the relationship was one of unfinished business.

Summary	
Outcome	Mixed
	Mis-matched
Descriptions	Warmth/lack of warmth. Respect, mutual trust, building relationship (coachee). Formal, professional, ‘going through the motions’ (coach)
Level of Partnership	Low
Level of Pace	Low

Table 7 Summary for Coaching Pair 7

4.5.9 Coaching pair 8

From the first impressions to the final conclusion coaching pair 8 reported that they were satisfied with the matching outcome and with the coaching relationship. Each described the other as ‘professional’. At their speed-chemistry sessions they both used the word ‘professional’ to describe the other. The coach was impressed with the coachee’s intelligence and openness to explore genuine issues. The coachee described the coach as ‘together’ and ‘calm’. They both no-

ticed good rapport from the very beginning. In the speed-chemistry sessions the coach made the point that one of the potential coachees was not at the right level of seniority for the type of coaching she offered. The organizational position and ability of the cohee was of importance to her.

At the start of the first session the coach stated that she liked the coachee so much that she was already tempted to offer more sessions after the three agreed to for the research. (The coachee also expressed interest in this at the end of the relationship and explored funding opportunities to allow the coaching to continue.) The coach noted that she felt that the coachee was her *'intellectual equivalent'*, found this motivating and had the anticipation of leading to *'meaningful conversations'*. Within the coaching sessions themselves both parties reported a very positive relationship, *'close but not chummy'* and again *'professional'*.

An issue of interest to the coach was that before and after each coaching session normal conversation or casual *'chit chat'* were difficult to achieve. She wondered whether this was a cultural issue. The coachee made no observation of this in either her diary or her interview, however, she did note, with positive emphasis, that she was given space and time to reflect within the sessions: *'[I] didn't know how silence would be perceived. She put no pressure on me to hurry up. She was very calm and gave me the space'*.

Another word used by both parties to describe their coaching relationship was *'warm'*. They both reported a *'building up'* of the relationship from session to session. At one point the coach described the relationship as being *'like an older sister'*. She noted: *'I could see the impact and I felt very encouraging of her'*. And that it *'felt close – like I was the right person to work with her'*.

She noted in both her diary and interview that she wanted to *'encourage, empathize and challenge'* the coachee. From the coachee's point of view this appears to have been achieved. She

particularly highlighted the quality of the coach's questions and her ability to probe deeply into issues which brought out an unexpected level of personal examination. Each referred to a different critical (positive) point in the coaching relationship. For the coach it occurred in S3 where the coachee spoke at a personal level which was described as almost 'spiritual' and also in S3 the coach revealed some personal information for the first time, which led the coachee to 'see' her very differently and in an even more positive light.

Contracting was dealt with quite formally with the giving of documents by the coach. This was seen as a positive influence on the relationship as it set boundaries and expectations right from the beginning of the process.

The coach's overall summary of the relationship was that it was an, *'even, equal, respectful relationship from my point of view. It feels like a solid and calm base – appreciative of each other'*. Both felt that there were high levels of rapport, openness, integrity, empathy and trust. In terms of bond the coachee felt that this was present *'to a certain extent'*, but this was stated in a positive sense, *'someone I can relate to, but not too close'*. As an overall impression of coaching, the coachee noted that the sessions had *'high impact'* and that, *'it seems such a soft thing, but it can make such a difference in your life'*.

Summary

The matching of this pair was a success from start to finish. Each described the other as 'professional' throughout. There was good rapport from the start. It was important for the coach that she worked with people who were her intellectual equivalent and she felt that she had found that with this coachee. The coachee noted the effective questioning of the coach. Both participants describe the relationship as warm and that they could relate to each other but with an appropriate and effective distance. The coaching was described by the coachee as *'high impact'*.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive
Descriptions	Professional, trust, respect, rapport, warmth, ‘close but not chummy’, ‘calm and together’
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	High

Table.8 Summary for Coaching Pair 8

4.5.10 Coaching pair 9

Brevity seems to have been the key word for these two participants. Each of their reflexive diaries was meaningful but succinct. Both approached the coaching process with positive intentions. The coach in his interview noted that he remembered the process of matching but did not remember either of the other coachees, whereas the coachee had a good recollection of the three coaches and was clear about why he preferred this one, *‘he “clicked” the best and would be most useful to me’*. Each ranked the other as first choice and were pleased when they knew they had been matched together. The characteristics given by the coach for making this choice were that the coachee was ‘business-like’, that he ‘talked easily’ and that they *‘struck up a natural rapport’*. Those given by the coachee were that the coach *‘listened effectively’*, had a *‘warm personality and sense of humour’*, and that he had *‘clarity of purpose and empathy’*.

Surface-level diversity factors were felt by the coach to be of no relevance. For the coachee there was an early impact because the coach was *‘calm and quietly spoken’*, was *‘genuinely trying to listen’* and his voice and manner were very positive. The coachee in his interview debated with himself whether gender was an important issue and though he felt that it should not be, in reality it may have played some part. He also noted that the maturity of the coach was a positive factor and that he would not have wanted to be coached by someone aged 25 for example.

Contracting was undertaken at the start of S1 and was felt to be useful, ‘set the context’ with no impact on the relationship. The first session appears to have had the most impact. It was the

longest session and the coachee was quick to introduce the issues he wanted to tackle. His approach from the coach's viewpoint was 'matter of fact', 'cut and dried' and 'clear-minded' where *'prevarication does not seem to be an issue'*. The relationship developed naturally and was built on mutual trust (coach), *'our relationship offered a trusted environment'*.

The first session was felt by the coachee to be a 'cathartic' experience. He felt able to, *'talk about things and sort them out in my own mind'*.

When the pair moved on to the second and third sessions these were both very short (30 minutes or less). As a consequence the coach reflected that perhaps he should have explored or challenged more. However, the coachee appeared to have been satisfied with the sessions noting that they were useful to 'consolidate and reflect'. Both were positive about these two sessions and felt that they were constructive. The explanation for the brevity as offered by both participants was that the coachee had taken ownership of agreed tasks in S1 and had acted upon them. Therefore, in the later sessions, although there was one issue which had further impact, most of the agreed steps had already been accomplished.

In terms of the relationship it continued to be good, but did not necessarily develop over time. Certainly the coachee used a number of positive phrases to describe the relationship: excellent, first class, (coach was) very easy to talk to, completely empathetic, gently challenging, good sense of humour, could relate to very easily, non-judgemental, gently supportive. He summarized that, *'I couldn't think of anyone more suitable for me'*.

No critical moments were identified by the coachee though the coach reported that he felt the coachee made a breakthrough between S1 and S2. And for himself, the coach noted that it was a key point when he realized that it was OK to have a session lasting only 30 minutes.

When asked in their interviews about using words or phrases to describe the relationship each said that all the positive attributes of trust, openness, honesty, bond, empathy, integrity were there in abundance. Considering the three dimensions being used the coachee felt that there was closeness in their similar backgrounds, and distance when the coach took a leadership perspective. The most telling quote was that the coachee felt that it was a *'relationship of equals'*.

Both parties reported that they would choose each other again and would be willing to work on future coaching issues together. It was, in the coachee's words, *'a very positive experience'*.

The conclusion of the relationship was good and positive.

Summary

The pair was highly satisfied with their match and pursued their coaching relationship with high energy and strong outputs. There was a natural rapport, but the overall relationship was 'business-like'. The sessions were 'matter of fact' and the relationship developed naturally with a high level of mutual trust. The coachee took ownership of agreed tasks and was focused and action orientated towards them. All the words used to describe the relationship were positive on both sides. Both said that they would be more than happy to work together again.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive.
Descriptions	Empathetic (coachee). Solid, clear-minded, mutual trust, matter of fact, clear-cut.
Level of Partnership	High.
Level of Pace	High.

Table 9 Summary for Coaching Pair 9

4.5.11 Coaching pair 10

Unusually, both parties in this pair commented quite extensively on the speed-chemistry sessions, the other participants and the reasons for their choice decision. The coach recalled in her

diary preparing her appearance for the session, wanting to look professional, but 'not intimidating'. She reported that she expected to prefer the person who shared the same MBTI type (ENFP) which she had learnt from the CV information. Indeed, from his CV she had expected her coachee to be her last choice as she was intimidated by his qualifications and experience. After the speed sessions her view was the exact opposite. She reflected that she then felt that coaching someone with the same MBTI type would be too similar and that they '*would not be able to do the best for each other*'. However, with her eventual coachee she felt that they just 'clicked' immediately. With the third possible choice she felt that she did not 'bond' with her at all.

The reflection by the coachee was based on perception rather than a specific personality typing. One potential coach is reported to have talked about himself and was 'not listening'; the second was 'extremely good' with an appropriate background and good listening skills. This person, he reported, could have been a good choice except that his actual chosen coach was simply even better. His perceptions of her at the speed session time were very positive: he used descriptions such as '*extremely friendly; very, very good listener; bright and smiley; very, very positive*'. They struck up an immediate 'rapport' and there was a 'genuine' connection.

When asked about immediate impact issues the coach felt that she was turned off one potential coachee '*because she simply didn't smile at all*'. For the coachee the 'turn-off' issue was that one coach was too relaxed and did not possess the 'tempo' he was looking for. The other two potential coaches were both 'professional', he felt that they both had 'something to give' and they gained his respect very quickly. His chosen coach above the others had a balance of being professional and having a 'softer' side.

Their coaching sessions appear all to have been very constructive with positive outcomes. Both noted that at the start of S1 that the coachee 'rambled' (both used the same word) for about

twenty minutes. This was accepted positively by each of them and the coachee reported that he was glad to have had the space to uncover many issues; the coach describing it as a 'verbal out-pouring'. She used the GROW model (Berne, 1964) to '*bring him round*' which the coachee described as '*gradually funnelling him down*' to address specific issues.

The professionalism of the coach was positively noted by the coachee in terms of her insistence on arranging a private room for the sessions so that personal issues could be discussed in safety. He commented that her '*presentation in the first session reaffirmed that I had made the right choice*'. She was clear about the structure of the sessions but let the coachee drive the agenda. Contracting was covered at the start and was revisited at each session. This was perceived positively and did not interfere with the coaching relationship.

In the second and third sessions the relationship continued in its positive frame as before. The second session was conducted by telephone. This gave the coach some concern as she had not conducted any telephone coaching before, but her anxiety was allayed after only a few minutes of the session and she found that she took emotional cues from the coachee's voice tone. It was also noted by the coachee who was impressed by the coach's sensitivity in this session. The third session was again face-to-face and was 'very productive' (coach). There was a clear mutuality between them, the coach identifying with the coachee's dilemma and the coachee appreciating her similar background and ability to 'empathize' with his situation.

There was only one negative issue that arose in the relationship. As part of her continuing development the coach had asked for formal feedback from the coachee who was very happy to provide it. However, he did not complete the requested forms promptly and the coach felt it necessary to remind him on several occasions. She reported being 'miffed' by this and signalling that she did not want this to disturb their very positive relationship.

Overall the relationship was felt by both to be 'empathetic' with an appropriate amount of challenge on work role related issues. They both reflected that it was a close rather than distant relationship and that they had high levels of similarity in background and experience. The coach related that she experienced a breakthrough moment when she decided not to be intimidated by the coachee's 'impressive CV'.

The conclusion of the relationship was that there was no conclusion. They had maintained limited contact and the coachee felt that the best word to describe the relationship at the conclusion of the three research sessions was 'friendship'. They had contact between sessions which the coachee found 'very supportive'. They both said that they were completely satisfied with the choice they had made and would certainly be willing to coach together again. The coachee said that: *'she was everything that I saw in that first three [sic] minutes'*, and *'everything I saw in those first five minutes she delivered on'*.

However, the coachee also mused on whether a different type of issue might lead him to choose a different coach, such as the second one he met in the speed sessions. He thought that this might be the case *'if there was something that would get her disapproval'*, but not in a judgemental way; he just would not want to spoil the positive impression. As a final note, indicating the importance of meeting potential coaches and the importance of personality over information on CVs, the coachee said that he, *'took information from the CVs, but what got me to choose [name], was [name]'*.

Summary

Following a strong impression from the written stage of information, the coach was surprised at the choice of coachee and reflected that matching on MBTI type was not necessarily a good indicator. The coachee made the choice on perception and they both felt that they struck up an immediate rapport and that there was a genuine connection. Coaching sessions were all productive with positive outcomes. The professionalism of the coach was noted and the coach noted

that the coachee was encouraged to drive the agenda. There was a mutuality between them. The relationship was described as empathetic with the right amount of challenge. Coaching has continued beyond the three research sessions.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive
Descriptions	Mutual support, empathy, affinity, listening, energizing, balance of professional and soft, high impact, very productive
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	High

Table.10 Summary for Coaching Pair 10

4.5.12 Coaching pair 11

The reflexive diary notes from the coach in this case were fairly brief but summarized the coaching relationship well. The coachee was *'nervous at first'*, then settled and it became an *'easy relationship'*. In the speed session the coach recalled that this coachee was *'interesting, articulate, curious and energized'* and that the issue he wanted to cover was interesting and would be easy for her to coach as it was a fairly standard coaching topic. Reflecting on why she preferred this coachee she recalled that one of the other participants had *'serious personal stuff'* and that the other was *'low energy'* and that there were limitations around the content he discussed. For the coachee there was only one other candidate in this session whom he described as friendly but that they did not actually manage to talk much about the coaching issue. He was very impressed by the chosen coach's qualifications and experience (a psychologist also with business experience) and when they talked, she spoke much more about what he would like to cover. In terms of initial impressions he felt that her age also supported her experience and this was a positive factor. His responses showed a level of *'looking up'* to the coach, as he said that he, *'lacked confidence that the things I wanted to be coached on were important enough to take up someone's time'*.

Both reflected that the coachee was nervous at the beginning, though the coach noted that he was actually *'confident, outgoing, intelligent and self-aware'*.

When the coaching commenced, again the coachee was nervous at first. Both noted this and that he was unsure of what to work on having resolved the issue that he brought to the speed session. About the coach, the coachee felt, *'she is someone who impressed me at our first meeting and I don't want to waste her time'*, and *'As she is so experienced in coaching, I felt under pressure to show that I had at least sensible ideas to deal with the issue that I wanted to discuss'*. The impression was given also that the coachee was slightly in awe of the coach, mentioning in several places things such as, *'at the start I was in awe of her level of experience'*.

In the first session the coachee noted the fact that he was an introvert and that at first interactions could be somewhat stilted. After an initially nervous start both commented that the relationship settled and became *'relaxed'* (coach) and that there was a gradual development of trust (coachee). Both used transactional analysis terms to describe the relationship. Initially the coachee described it as *'parent/child'*, which the coach agreed in her description of his need for guidance and input. Later both note that the relationship has moved to *'adult/adult'*. This was positive. The key word for the coach appeared to be that the relationship was *'comfortable'*. In the second session the coachee was *'warm, friendly and energized'*. On a number of occasions the coachee reported that there was a growing level of trust between them. This was confirmed by the coach in drawing out a list of words to describe the relationship, although she did not specifically state this in her narrative. By S3 the coachee felt that they were both *'at exactly the same level'*.

The coachee described a clear breakthrough moment in S1 when it appeared that the coach was *'closing him down'* on a point which meant suggesting that his issue might be unsolvable. This caused him to reflect, re-frame the issue and gain real insight. He also reported that it led to in-

creased trust in the coach because he felt she understood him. He became more comfortable in the relationship and was excited about further coaching.

Trust was also increased for the coachee when the coach gave some self-disclosure of personal issues. His description of the relationship in S3 was '*gradually more relaxed and trusting*'.

When asked for words to describe the relationship, the coachee used 'mutual respect' and 'constructive'. The coach gave 'energized, enjoyable, exploratory, relaxed and focused'. Both felt that there was both challenge and empathy present. If the choice were to be made again each said that they would happily make the same choice and each said that they would willingly undertake further coaching together if the opportunity arose, the coachee noting that '*it would be hard to find someone better*'. Contracting was covered at the beginning including confidentiality, scope and times of sessions. The coachee noted that it would not have mattered if it had not been covered although he was expecting it.

Overall the relationship was described by the coach as 'nurturing' and by the coachee as a '*good balance of trust, rapport and understanding*'. The coach felt that it was appropriately conducted as '*a professional session rather than a friendly chat*'.

Summary

This was described as an 'easy' relationship. The coach chose the coachee as he was interesting and articulate and the coachee was impressed, almost awestruck by the coach's experience and qualifications. The coachee was nervous at first and was conscious of taking the time of such an experienced coach. The relationship quickly settled and became relaxed and there was a gradual development of trust. Over time, the relationship moved to become a much more equal one, which the coach described as comfortable. Trust was strengthened when the coach disclosed some personal information. Overall the relationship was constructive with both challenge and empathy.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive
Descriptions	Comfortable, mutual respect, trust, constructive, relaxed, warm, friendly, energized
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	Medium/Low

Table.11 Summary for Coaching Pair 11

4.5.13 Coaching pair 12

This was a non-British pairing of an Irish coachee with a US born coach. For the coach their cultural easiness was one of the reasons he gave for making his first choice of coachee. He felt that there was an affinity and friendliness between them immediately. There had been two coachees with whom he had felt an ‘affinity’ but with this coachee he felt that they ‘just got on’ and that the relationship ‘*wasn’t too heavy*’. He also felt that the chosen coachee would gain the most benefit as he was specific about what he wanted, which was good. The coachee on the other hand identified his preferred coach because of his impressive résumé. He noted that the coach had, ‘*enough worldly experience and gravitas to be very good in a professional coaching session*’.

When asked about first impressions the coach noted mainly the coachee’s accent and his affinity to the Irish which naturally drew him to this individual. The ‘unassuming’ appearance of the coach belied the ‘*considerable, impressive intellect*’ in the mind of the coachee.

In both participants’ reflexive diaries and interviews they highlighted a number of very positive factors. They both reflected similar issues and gave equally affirmative reviews of the coaching process and their relationship. From the first session they both use the word ‘easy’ to describe their coaching relationship. They reported that from the beginning the relationship was very open with clear, easy communication. Throughout the sessions the coachee reported that he felt they adopted an ‘ad-lib’ approach and that he was glad that they could operate freely without a

hidden agenda. The coach also sensed that this was the assumption, however, he noted that he was following a light-handed structure but that the coachee was not aware of this. This was seen as a positive point.

The coach used words such as 'direct, frank, matter of fact' to describe the coachee. He found the relationship enjoyable because the coachee was *'tenacious, goal-focused and open to suggestions'*. The coachee appreciated the coach's *'sound, impartial guidance'* which was challenging but not judgemental. He noted that the coach was very consistent throughout and was a *'safe pair of hands'*. Over time the relationship strengthened and transitioned to become first challenging and then more reflective, both appropriate to the issue being discussed. The relationship was felt to be 'professional' as a coach/coachee relationship but not 'hierarchical'. It was at all times *'free-flowing and transparent'*. The coach was particularly impressed with the manner in which the coachee *'just got on with things'* and he felt that this strengthened the relationship. He said, *'here's a guy that I not only have enjoyable sessions with, but is fun to work with and takes things on board and runs with them'*.

He summarized the relationship as, *'A positive relationship that was productive and enjoyable and progressed naturally'*.

Both said that they would choose each other again from the grouping available and both said that they would undertake further coaching if the opportunity arose. Indeed, the coach offered a fourth session if it would be helpful and left it to the coachee to contact him to arrange it. The coach did note that further coaching might depend on whether it was an issue with which he had some expertise and one to which he could add value.

During the relationship, they both identified the same critical points, the main one being the observation in S1 that a behaviour of the coachee was causing an issue in his working environment. The coachee had not perceived this for himself but the realization was insightful and had a

high impact on him. A further moment came after the coach had introduced him to a diagnostic instrument and the results of this clarified an issue that had been previously unclear. They both reported the presence of trust, honesty, integrity, openness. Both felt they were fundamentally different people but with some key similarities around background and experience. The coachee noted that this was *‘comforting, but not claustrophobic’*.

Overall the coachee felt that it was a ‘mature’ relationship. The coach said, *‘it felt like we were a textbook case, we had rapport and a very functioning coaching relationship and the results were positive’*.

Summary

A matching of two similar cultures gave this pairing an ‘easiness’ and affinity. The relationship worked well with a good level of balance. Both participants give very similar reflections in both their interviews and diaries. From the beginning, the relationship was very open with clear, easy communication. Descriptions of the coachee by the coach include *‘tenacious, goal-focused and open to suggestions’*. The relationship ranged between challenging and reflective. It was described as *‘professional, but not hierarchical’*.

Summary	
Outcome	Very positive
Descriptions	Clean, open, honest, direct, a good functioning relationship, mutually beneficial, easy, useful
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	High

Table.12 Summary for Coaching Pair 12

4.5.14 Coaching pair 13

At the conclusion of the speed sessions the coach recalled hoping that this coachee would choose her. The time in their session had gone quickly and she recalled wanting to continue the discussion because she wanted to be able to help him with his issues, saying that *‘helping is an*

important value for me'. As the time progressed in the speed session her opinion of this coachee became more positive. She was interested in him and his background and felt that they could work together. It was the recognition of a 'kind of need' that set him above the other coachees in the group. The coachee was very clear on his reasons for choosing this coach. In the speed session he had noted that one of the coaches '*pushed herself forward too much*' and that the other one was '*too soft and fluffy*' and that she would be 'nurturing' which was not what he was looking for. The chosen coach was 'professional' and could relate to business issues. She would bring an opinion and 'reflect back' and not just listen.

In terms of first impressions the coachee noted that he found it interesting that all the coaches were female and that he preferred to work with a woman coach as they are able to get to emotional issues more quickly. This coach 'looked professional' and seemed genuinely interested in his issues. She would be '*open and easy to talk to*', a 'nice person'. The coach contrasted the physical appearance of the coachee with his dialogue, noting that she was more impressed with him still when they began to converse.

Both referred to their first session as 'relaxed' and that the rapport picked up from the speed session. The first part of the session was exploratory. The coachee was open and confidence in the relationship began to build immediately. The coach noted that the coachee seemed to be 'appreciative' of her approach. She also on two occasions noted that there was 'no awkwardness', as though awkwardness was something that was expected. Both used the word 'comfortable' to describe the relationship, the coachee added that it was also 'professional'. The coach stated that she 'enjoyed' the relationship and that this was in part because she sensed a '*slight neediness*' in the coachee and felt that this added something to the relationship.

In the later sessions the coach offered a telephone session but was content that the coachee preferred to meet face-to-face. They both noted this in their interviews. They both also noted that

there was an overall process to their sessions which were partly exploratory ('down-loading' used by the coach) and partly comprised the coach offering theories or models for the coachee to investigate and discuss. The coachee described that the coach, *'would talk me through how to approach many of these issues, still me making the decisions'*. He noted that the coach was good at listening and reflecting and that she *'supported me making my own decisions'*.

When discussing the conclusion of their relationship they each gave quite different accounts. The coach reported that it ended *'comfortably – no awkwardness'*, that they discussed staying in touch and that she was relaxed about whether this would actually happen. However, the coachee noted in his interview that the third session ended somewhat abruptly as the coach needed to leave. He described this as being 'a bit odd' and that this was the only part that felt 'process driven'. Seemingly they had agreed an end time, so the coachee noted that this was more of an 'emotional response' than a 'logical response'. However, he also stated that he felt they had reached a natural conclusion and that given longer they might have started *'going over old ground'*. He noted that, *'You spend time putting into a relationship, you then need to have time to pull out again'*.

When asked about critical points in the relationship both felt that there were no specific moments but that the relationship *'started well and built from there'*. Both trust and openness were developed steadily and the relationship 'gradually strengthened' (coach). The coachee made comments in his interview that there were several areas where the coach introduced tools that were really helpful and that *'there were moments where it could have got quite personal, operating with your mind rather than at a practical level, but this was OK because there was confidence in the confidentiality'*.

In describing the overall relationship the coach spoke of it being 'equal' and wondered if this was because it was not a paying relationship where there was an expectation of 'value for

money' which she can find worrying. She stated that she felt that this gave the relationship 'simplicity' and that they were *'both willing to be there, working together'*.

The coachee went into some depth describing the relationship and for him 'trust' was a key issue. He related a number of the other attributes such as 'bond' and 'rapport' to the presence of trust, and that to have 'integrity' you must have 'trust'. He also felt that you must have 'closeness' to build rapport. He reported having a connection that was *'slightly above being a coach/coachee', but that this was 'not about nurturing'*, especially between a man and woman where it was important to have standards in a professional relationship.

Both said that they would choose each other again and that they would be willing to coach again. The coachee noted that *'she helped me come through some big decisions'*. As an additional point the coachee noted the importance of venue. They held all of their sessions in a public area, though away from many people. He found this to be positive as it made it feel 'relaxed and informal' and gave it 'warmth'. He also credited his coach for being skilled at *'getting a relationship going'*. As a final thought he suggested being aware of what time of day worked best, whether you were an early or late person. In conclusion, the coach says, *'I liked him as a person, that's why I enjoyed it and why it felt so comfortable'*.

Summary

A recognition of need was what drew the coach to the coachee in this pairing and the coachee chose the coach for her professionalism. He noted his preference to work with a female coach. They both referred to their sessions as relaxed with high rapport. Both use the word 'comfortable' to describe the relationship. A good structure to the sessions was reported and the coach was felt to be good at listening and reflecting. There was a slightly abrupt ending to the relationship, but the coachee felt that they had reached a natural conclusion anyway and so this didn't present a problem. Both trust and openness developed gradually and the relationship was de-

scribed as equal with each willing to work together. For the coachee, trust was a key issue and that this was present, as was a helpful closeness which was beyond coach/coachee level. The choice of venue made the sessions relaxed and informal and gave the relationship warmth.

Summary	Very positive
Outcome	
Descriptions	Comfortable, no awkwardness (coach), professional, trust, rapport (coachee)
Level of Partnership	High
Level of Pace	Medium

Table.13 Summary for Coaching Pair 13

4.5.15 Coaching pair 14

There was overall inconsistency between the reports of the participants in this coaching pair. Each gave consistent accounts in their reflexive diaries and interviews, but their overall impressions of the coaching relationship were markedly different. What they did agree on was that the relationship was not what each of them expected and that they ended up in a friendship relationship rather than a professional coaching relationship. The course of their coaching could be described as ‘volatile’.

They were each other’s first choice from the speed sessions. The coach described her impression of the coachee as ‘*a diamond in the rough*’ and that she was ‘open’, ‘interested in coaching’ and ‘sparky’. The coachee recalled all three potential coaches and assessed one, a woman, as inexperienced and unaccustomed to dealing with people at her level and the other, a man, as ‘cold and distant’ with ‘no connection’ and ‘*the opposite of chemistry*’. Her chosen coach on the other hand engendered an ‘immediate liking’, noting that she was ‘warm and open’. Both noted the cultural similarity, both being from North America (the coach, Canadian and the coachee from the USA) and felt that this was part of their attraction to each other. The coach fitted the coachee’s ideal because she wanted someone who would ‘draw me out’. She added that she had

worked out from the CVs who was who and that this coach was 'more compelling' to her in that her background meant that she could coach at a 'higher standard'.

When asked about first impressions the coachee felt that in principle issues such as physical attributes should not play a part in a person's impression of someone else, but that in reality this was not the case. She had noted the physical characteristics of all three coaches and was inclined to work with one of the two women as they were of a similar age and that the connection with a woman to deal with certain issues was different and preferable to that with a male coach.

For their first meeting the coach was not able to get to Henley so they agreed to meet at her home in London. They each reported very differently about this first encounter. The coach noted that she knew that this would '*muddy the relationship*', but 'we needed to do this' and that it '*changes the dynamic*'. The coachee said that she was '*comfortable with the offer*'. They had planned to carry out the coaching session over dinner but, due to travel complications, the coachee arrived later than expected so they went out to eat '*to get to know each other*' (both coach and coachee used this phrase).

Here their reports diverged. The coach noted that '*within half an hour she was regretting taking part*' due to the behaviour of the coachee, very negative, brash and loud. The coach reported struggling to remain passive and that she tried to diffuse the situation. On returning home she went to bed and when she awoke the next morning the coachee had left. On the other hand, the coachee did not note any tension, simply saying that they '*talked about current experiences*'. She did say that by going into London they got too close and that there should have been a '*certain amount of professional distance*' which was lost. She noted that she was '*able to take liberties with the relationship*' because it was immediately a more friendly relationship rather than a traditional detached coaching one. At the end of this episode, which the coachee regarded as a coaching session but the coach did not, the coach said that she would not have continued except

for fulfilling the research, though she did also report that she looked on it as a 'development opportunity'.

The next session was on the telephone. The coach wrote that it started in much the same way as the first. They both noted that the coachee wanted to work through some areas that were not in the coaching arena as such, and that they agreed to leave these until the end of the session and change stances to address them. This seemed to work for both of them. The coach stated in her interview and her diary that this was 'a breakthrough' and that they '*cracked the surface*' at this point. They discussed a different issue from then and moved '*slowly, gently forward*'. She noted that it '*felt much better*'. There was agreement from the coachee that this was '*most like coaching*'. Interestingly she describes the start of the session as simply 'sharing', which she noted was 'fine'. She did say that, had she been paying for the coaching, she would have expected it to be more formal. In contrast she also pointed out that as they were both voluntary it was a more equal relationship.

Session 3 was, according to the coach '*an angry, negative rant*'. She had difficulty deciding whether to let it continue, but in the end the coachee seemed to '*run out of steam*' and the coach was able to '*bring it round*'. Again the coachee recalled things differently and remarked that the nature of the session was not a coaching one but more of a conversation and that, had the coach been more of an MBTI type 'J', the sessions might have had more structure. As she was a 'P', they were too open and conversational. Later in the session, the coach noted that it was, '*as though she just wanted to dump some garbage, so that she could move on*', and described the remainder of the session as a 're-boot', or 'starting afresh', but still with the same relationship.

In describing the relationship in the first stages the coach described it in transactional analysis (2005) terms and felt that it was 'nurturing parent' with a 'rebellious child'. Towards the end of the third session she said that they '*finally got to adult-to-adult*'. She described her overall ex-

perience as, *'up and down the rollercoaster'*, and that it *'required a bit of a crisis to add some trust'*. She noted: *'The relationship itself, that takes two people doesn't it? I don't know, it's hard to separate out my feelings about it from the relationship in an objective way. I would just say it's been a rollercoaster for me'*.

The coachee commented that, *'I might have changed maybe the way we started the relationship ... but ended up with a friendly face in England – an ally'*. She also noted that she would, *'try to keep it a more professional relationship, less mutually personal'*.

In summarizing their descriptions of the relationship overall the coach reported that 'rapport' was hard to build and that she was struggling to stay objective when the coachee was 'ranting'. Trust took a while to build, where for the coachee this was assumed from the start. The coachee did not think that there was a bond between them and interpreted integrity as relating to the intention to coach and that there was a lack of integrity in this sense. Both reported that contracting did take place at the beginning and the coach added that she felt it necessary to re-contract in the second session. The coachee noted that contracting for her was concerned mainly with confidentiality and that not enough was covered about arranging meetings and the expectation of what coaching was about.

Despite all of this both said that they would choose each other again. Their relationship did not really come to a conclusion as both said that they had agreed to continue. They both felt that they had become friends and that the relationship would go forward.

Summary

Overall this pairing was volatile and inconsistent. It is characterized by the inequality between the two and the driven manner in which the coachee controlled every aspect of the relationship like a runaway train. There was a cultural match between the participants which was the main factor in bringing them together at the speed-chemistry sessions. However, from the first session

the arrangement was inappropriate with the session taking place at the coach’s home and the coachee staying overnight. Subsequent sessions improved only marginally. Some progress was made, but this was masked by the strength of the emotional dominance of the coachee. The coach noted that rapport was hard to build. Even with this context, both stated that they would coach together again and that they felt that the relationship would go forward.

Summary	
Outcome	Unknown
Descriptions	Rollercoaster, unbalanced, not a formal coaching relationship, unstructured, very different accounts from each participant
Level of Partnership	Very low
Level of Pace	Very high, but dysfunctional

Table 14 Summary for Coaching Pair 14

Appendix XVII. List of personal publications

Collins, C. (2012) '*Using Coaching to Eliminate 'Stuckness' in the Leadership of Change*' Paper accepted for the British Academy of Management Conference, Cardiff University, UK., Sept.

Collins, C. (2010) '*The role of precursor factors in the creation of dyadic leadership development relationships: Using coaching as a intervention example*'. British Academy of Management Conference. University of Sheffield, UK. **Joint first prize, Leadership and Leadership Development Track.**

Collins, C. (2010) '*The role of precursor factors in the creation of dyadic leadership development relationships: Using coaching as a intervention example*'. Joint Doctoral Colloquium, Paris-Dauphine University, Paris, France

Collins, C. (2010) '*The role of precursor factors in the creation of dyadic leadership development relationships: Using coaching as a intervention example*'. Spring Doctoral Symposium, Judge Business School, University of Cambridge, UK

Collins, C. (2008) '*Which Coach will lead me to change (and change me to lead)?*' Conference proceedings, 4th European Conference on Management, Leadership and Governance, University of Reading, UK.

Collins, C. (2008) *Creating the Coaching Relationship*. Doctoral Symposium, British Academy of Management Conference, Harrogate, UK.

Collins, C. (2008) Coaching: More than just a buzzword, but is it the Holy Grail, SEEDA Leadership Academy, Feb

Collins, C. (2007) National Audit of the Management of Leg Ulcers, Report to the Healthcare Commission, June

Collins, C. (2006) National Audit of the Management of Leg Ulcers, Wounds UK, Harrogate, Nov. **3M prize for best paper**

Creative techniques for senior team development, Law Society Conference, 2004