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Coaching Isn't Just for Little League Anymore: A Theory of Individual Coachability

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COACHING ISN'T JUST FOR LITTLE LEAGUE

ANYMORE: A THEORY OF INDIVIDUAL

COACHABILITY

by

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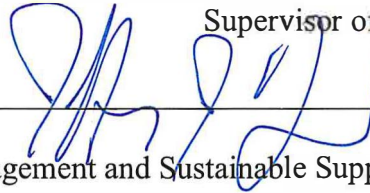
Coachability

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ABSTRACT

Utilizing coaching as an employee development activity has increased significantly in the practitioner space in recent years. Practitioners have implemented coaching in the modern organization, establishing best practices for both coaches and coachees. Coaching is a dyadic relationship whereby the coach and the coachee play a critical role in the successes obtained by the relationship. Previous academic research in a variety of disciplines, including athletics, entrepreneurship, marketing, and management, has studied the coach/coachee relationship extensively from the perspective of the coach. Although the coach's perspective is important, practitioners and academics agree that individual coachability is a key individual characteristic of a coachee for coaching success. However, there has been little research evaluating the individual coachee. Further, what little research there is, presents inconsistencies in regards to what makes an individual coachable. Therefore, the purpose of this dissertation is to establish a theory of individual coachability by defining individual coachability and empirically evaluating its elements.

Theory development begins with a rigorous literature review. I thoroughly examine current coaching literature, establishing the need for a theory of individual coachability. Through inductive and deductive research, I establish that goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability are important elements of individual coachability. Rooted in the newly developed theory, I define individual coachability for universal use

across all areas of research. I achieve this through a series of empirical studies. In Study 1, I develop a measure of coachability, establishing that coachability is a second order construct. I conduct an exploratory factor analysis to confirm the structure. In Study 2, I test the convergent and discriminant validity of the developed scale by comparing it to existing constructs. I conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to establish validity of the constructs in the measurement model. In Study 3, using the established scale from Study 2, I conduct an experiment, using experimental vignette methodology, to observe whether individual coachability influences the relationship between the quality of an organization's developmental coaching program and various organizational outcomes. More specifically, I hypothesize that the quality of the developmental coaching program and individual coachability will interact to predict job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment. I also hypothesize that when a workplace has no developmental coaching program, job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment for those high in coachability will be higher than for those who are low in coachability.

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CHAPTER 1

BUILDING A THEORY OF INDIVIDUAL COACHABILITY

Introduction

With the emergence of communication technologies and the growing popularity of business coaching, it has never been easier for an individual to seek out feedback for his or her ideas, intuitions, and investments from experts all over the world. Coaching has become increasingly more common, and The International Coaching Federation estimates a 33% increase in coaches from 2015 to 2019. This phenomenon lends itself to various academic literatures, as coaching and coachability has garnered serious attention and discussion over the last few years (Chichta et al., 2018; Marvel et al., 2020). Yet, there are two primary limitations with the academic coaching literature. First, it lags behind practice, as construct definitions, theories, and evidence-based practices are not necessarily informing the implementation of coaching in the business world. Second, the current academic literature has conflicting views on what makes an individual coachable. For instance, the marketing literature and the entrepreneurship literature differ on their definitions of coaching and coachability (Chichta et al., 2018; Shannahan et al., 2013). This chapter is aimed at advancing the concepts of individual coachability through theory development.

In the entrepreneurship literature, coaching and mentoring are frequently used interchangeably and often lacking a clear conceptual definition of each (Lancer et al., 2016; Kotte et al., 2020). However, in organizational behavior and psychology literatures, a mentor and a coach are described as two very different concepts (Cox et al., 2010, Garvey 2018). A mentor/mentee relationship centers around the mentor's personal experience and giving advice to the mentee, whereas a coach/coachee relationship focuses on providing feedback and the tools to necessary for the coachee to create the change they desire (Rosinski 2010). Though both are dyadic relationships, a mentoring relationship is driven by the mentor, while the coaching relationship is driven by the coachee (Garvey 2018).

Not only are there discrepancies in the distinctions between coaching and mentoring, little research has explored what individual coachability is, particularly in the context of management and applied psychology concepts. In this chapter, I describe four critical elements that indicate individual coachability. That is, highly coachable individuals have strong self-efficacy, are receptive to goal-setting, receiving feedback, and working with accountability. Using both the inductive and deductive approach, this is a first step towards bringing science up to speed with the practice of coaching.

Coaching in Practice

The use of coaching in organizations as a means of personal growth and professional improvement became conventional in the workplace during the twentieth century. (Cox et al., 2014). Initially, organizational coaching focused on high level executive training and new employee training. The application of coaching has since evolved and is used in various contexts across many different platforms. No longer is

coaching restricted to executives and organizations, but sought out by individuals seeking personal and professional development on diverse topics though various media. As coaching grows in popularity, the concept continues to develop outside of the organization space to include life coaching, career coaching, developmental coaching, leadership coaching, and group coaching. Coupled with ever-growing technology and innovation, coaches and coachees continually seek new and exciting ways to experience coaching (Kanatouri, 2020).

Coaching is not a new concept. Individuals have long worked with coaches to develop knowledge, skills, and abilities. However, coaching is becoming more and more popular in the practitioner realm as access to knowledge continues to grow. A recent search on Amazon for "coaching" returned over 40,000 results for books (print, audio, and e-book), and according to the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), the field of coaching continues to grow as organizations continue to recognize its benefits (SHRM, 2020). Organizations are working to create a "culture of coaching", focusing on coaching behaviors across the organization to provide continued learning and development (SHRM, 2020). SHRM also states that "Coaching is similar to, but distinct from mentoring… coaching is not counseling or teaching or instruction; it is a process of guiding the person being coached from one level of competency to another" (SHRM, 2020). Unlike most mentoring and training situations, in coaching the coachee is the expert and the coach is simply trying to draw that out in the most productive way possible (Open Access Government, 2020). Coaching establishes an equal relationship between the coach and the coachee, engaging in information-seeking practices which create

increased accountability, communication, self-esteem, and work-life balance (Open Access Government, 2020).

As digital technologies continue to grow at exponential rates, continuous learning is almost mandatory to sustain work performance in a digital world (Kanatouri, 2020). Combined with the recent COVID-19 pandemic forcing individuals of all backgrounds to stay home for excess periods of time, individuals are seeking new knowledge and diversifying their skills (Agrawal et al., 2020). There is also an increased demand for coaching services, with a 6.7% yearly increase in the size of the industry (Willis, 2020). Along with these forces, perceptions of coaching have changed. What was once seen as a luxury for senior and C-level employees is now considered significant for the growth of all employees, regardless of seniority (Willis, 2020). Coaches and their coachees continue to adjust to the "new normal," with more and more coaching being done through virtual channels (International Coaching Federation, 2021). This blended approach will allow coaches and coachees to develop deeper dyadic relationships while also providing additional learning methodologies and access to individuals across the globe (International Coaching Foundation, 2021).

With the current rapid growth in coaching activities at multiple organizational and professional levels, and no indication that this trend will die down soon, considerable developments in coaching continue to occur in the practitioner domain. However, previous academic research observes that not all coaching is successful. While current research offers many solutions to improve the features unsuccessful coaching programs, it fails to observe the individual coachee perspective. Many popular press articles state the necessity for an individual to be coachable for successful coaching to occur (Kucera,

2018; Nieuwenberg 2022). Yet, perusal of academic journals in management begs the question "Where is the research?". As is evidenced above, practitioners are engaging in coaching at increasing levels, yet academic research has not laid the foundation for best practices or evidence-based recommendations when it comes to individual coachability. To do this effectively, I establish a theory of individual coachability. I review the current coachability literature, establish the need for further theoretical development, and, through inductive and deductive research, present a generalizable theory of individual coachability.

Coaching and Coachability

First, I discuss coaching as an employee development tool. The use of coaching in organizations as a means of personal growth and professional improvement became conventional in the workplace during the twentieth century. (Cox et al., 2014). Initially, organizational coaching focused on high level executive training and new employee training. The application of coaching has since evolved and is used in various contexts across many different platforms. No longer is coaching restricted to executives and organizations, but sought out by individuals seeking personal and professional development on diverse topics. Cox et al. (2014) define coaching as "a human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools and techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and potentially for other stakeholders" (1). A coach's role is to advise and support their coachee(s), guiding them to increased performance, optimized effectiveness, and goal achievement (Cox et al., 2014). Coaching is a learning and growth process using inquiry, reflection, and support opposed to giving advice (Schwartz et al.,

2020). Simply, coaching is a manner in which individuals can develop and discover themselves in an effort to become more efficient and effective in their professional lives.

Unfortunately, research in this area of the employee development literature has not advanced in such a way to provide coaching with its own domain distinct from other employee development constructs. In particular, mentoring has often been confused with coaching. Modern literature defines a mentor as "a person who oversees the career and development of another person, usually a junior, through teaching, counseling, providing psychological support, protecting, and at times promoting and sponsoring" (Zey 1984:7). Alfred et al. (2010) suggest that mentoring is a three-stage process, Exploration, New Understanding, and Action. In the exploration stage, the mentor leads the discussion, providing support and encouragement while asking the mentee various questions in order to develop an agenda (Alfred et al., 2010). During the new understanding stage, the mentor summarizes the progress to date and offers feedback, usually in the form of advice based on personal experiences (Alfred et al. (2010)). In the final stage, action, the mentor employs various strategies and assists the mentee in planning a course of action (Alfred et al., 2010). This dyadic relationship between the mentor and the mentee is heavily driven by the mentor. Mentors give advice and expert recommendations, talking about their personal experiences, assuming this is relevant for the mentees (Rosinski 2010; Garvey 2018). This greatly differs from the role of the coach, who acts as a facilitator, enabling the coachee to determine for themselves the appropriate actions for them (Rosinski 2010; Garvey 2018)

With this in mind, effective practitioners often attribute their accomplishments to having a fruitful relationship with an individual who has experienced both personal and

professional successes (Kuratko et al., 2020). Previous research argues that successful individuals need to be coachable (Chichta et al., 2018; Kuratko et al. 2020; Marvel et al., 2020). However, these authors and others, use the terms mentoring and coaching interchangeably, stating that the entrepreneurial process "is much more likely to be successful when the entrepreneur working with the mentor is coachable" (Kuratko et al., 2020) and claiming that an individual who does not take advice as uncoachable (Chichta et al., 2018). As evidenced above, there are many differences between a mentor and a coach, notably that a mentor gives advice and a coach facilitates change. Put simply, an individual can reject advice and still have high coachability.

In this dissertation, I argue that, for coaching to make a difference, an individual needs to be coachable. Though the term "coachability" has been utilized in previous practitioner and academic publications, each field of study defines it using discipline specific terminology. As of now, there is not a consistent definition of coachability. The popular press defines coachability as "the combination of the mindsets and behaviors for continuously integrating feedback to drive growth and change within oneself" (Masood, 2020). In entrepreneurship literature, Chichta et al. (2018) define coachability as "the degree to which and entrepreneur seeks, carefully considers, and integrates feedback to improve his or her venture's performance" (861). This definition aligns with previous coaching literature (Cox et al., 2014; Garvey 2018), focusing on the entrepreneur's willingness to find their own solutions and maximize their performance. Chichta et al. (2018) created a 9-item scale to measure coachability in entrepreneurs, stating that the scale will help investors choose ventures to financially support. Although this scale was validated through various methods, I find this scale to lack generalizability as it only

focuses on the investor/entrepreneur relationship, making it difficult to use this scale outside of entrepreneurial research. One of the survey items in Chichta et al.'s (2018) coachability scale states "proactively seeks help and advice" though coaching literature states that "advice is seen as inappropriate" (Garvey 2018: 437) and that coaches provide feedback. Coaches do not give advice (Clutterbuck 2008; Cox et al., 2014; Garvey 2018). Another survey item "Is genuinely committed to improving the venture" measures an individual's organizational commitment, not coachability. Lastly, the survey item "Understands the challenges of the venture" is measuring the individual's knowledge level, not whether the individual is coachable.

In marketing literature, Shannahan et al. (2013) define coachability as "the degree to which salespeople are open to seeking, receiving, and using external resources to increase their sales performance in a personal selling context" (42). The authors continue to state that coachability is determined by the interaction of the salesperson and the sales manager and that the manager should mentor and counsel their sales team to achieve desired performance levels. Again, this does not align with coaching literature, as it is not the coach's role to mentor or counsel; a coach's role is to provide feedback and guide the coachee to reaching his or her goals. Shannahan et al. (2013) adapted the Athletic Coachability Scale (Giacobbi, 2000) to assess salespeople. The authors replaced sports references with references to selling, including replacing the terms athlete and coach with the terms salesperson and sales manager respectively. Although this resulted in a high reliability scale (α=.95), this scale is not without flaws. This scale is incredibly sales marketing focused, making it difficult to apply it to other areas of study. This scale also relies on the dyadic relationship between the individual and his or her manager including

direct involvement of both parties. However, the scale does not address the involvement or coaching abilities of the manager. Which leaves the question, can an individual be considered coachable if his or her manager is not participatory?

Most recently, in management literature, Johnson et al. (2021) define coachability as "a tendency to be comfortable working with and willing to learn from a coach" (585). The authors describe coachability as having three dimensions; comfort with coaching, development orientation, and acceptance of feedback. Based on these dimensions, Johnson et al. (2021) developed a 13-item coachability scale centered on the individual's level of comfort working with a coach, level of effort willing to put forth, and level of receptivity to feedback. Though this scale meets the criteria put forth by previous researchers for scale development (Nunnally, 1978; Price & Mueller, 1986), the scale uses mostly reverse coded items. Of the of the 13 items in Johnson et al.'s (2021) scale, 8 are reverse coded. Sonderen et al. (2013) argued that reversing items is an unnecessary complexity that can cause respondent confusion, especially when original and reverse coded items are mixed up. Sonderen et al. (2013) recommend measurement instruments have all items posed in the same direction to avoid inattention and misunderstanding. Also, Johnson et al. (2021) fail to provide adequate detail about their item generation process. The authors generated a pool of 75 coachability items, including some that were modified from Giacobbi's (2000) Athletic Coachability Scale. Johnson et al. (2021) state that the items were reviewed by 10 graduate students and faculty in an IO Psychology program, but do not discern how many were students and how many were faculty. Furthermore, the simple participation in a graduate program does not make an individual an expert on coaching. Through the review of the items by non- experts and then sorting

into dimensions, the authors reduce the list to 45 items (Johnson et al., 2020). However, there is no mention of the process taken to decrease the list from 45 items to the 13 items used in the coachability scale.

As established in this section, there are conflicting viewpoints concerning individual coachability. The following sections attempt to remedy this by establishing a comprehensive theoretical perspective of individual coachability through inductive and deductive research.

Inductive Approach: Focus Group

As practice has outpaced research on coaching, I employed an inductive approach to understanding how currently employed individuals experience workplace coaching as a means to begin to define the constructs of individual coachability. According to Calder (1977), "exploratory focus groups entail creative prescientific intellectualization" (359). Focus groups are a particularly useful qualitative process for the generation of scientific constructs and often lead to further quantitative study (Calder, 1977). For this study, I sought input from working professionals who are in positions in which workplace coaching was likely to be available. Four focus groups were conducted via Zoom within the span of ten days in summer 2021. Each focus group involved three to five individuals, including the researcher. The members of the focus groups were all working professionals between the ages of 25 and 45. At the time of the focus group meetings, all participants were employed in full time jobs and the majority were actively serving or previously served in a managerial role. The participants were primarily male (75%) and all participants completed bachelor's degrees in their respective fields. Several

participants also held master's degrees and/or advanced education certificates in subjects relating to their current careers.

To begin, each group member was introduced and asked to describe their current job position. The researcher then defined coaching using Cox et al.'s (2014) definition. Individuals were then asked if they had experienced coaching, based on the given definition, resulting in various answers across individuals and groups. The researcher then asked a series of open-ended questions, repeating each question for each focus group. These specific questions can be found in Appendix A.

Upon the conclusion of all focus group Zoom meetings, I studied each recording and audio transcript in search of common themes. Though each group consisted of different individuals of different backgrounds, the concepts of feedback, development, ambition, and willingness were mentioned over ten times in each group. The concept of change was mentioned over twenty times in each group. Each group also discussed the major differences between training and coaching, concluding that training and coaching are very different concepts. One participant stated that "Training is robotic whereas coaching is human development." Another participant further elaborated that "Training is technical skill development. Anyone with the capacity to complete the task can be trained. Coaching is the development of talents and gifts, which not everyone has." Other common themes emerging from the focus groups include self-motivation, resilience, emotional intelligence, accountability, and openness.

The results of the focus group discussion led to an array of attributes these current practitioners deemed important to be considered a coachable individual. It was agreed that an individual "has to desire change and be willing to sacrifice for their goals". It was

also established that the individual needed to be self-motivated, able to effectively

communicate, and successfully work in a team. Several groups concluded that a

coachable individual need "to be able to take feedback and criticisms appropriately and

be able to correct any negative actions to be better". Other discussions included the need

for a coachable individual to have self-efficacy/self-awareness, ambition and drive,

accountability, and a bit of competitiveness. One participant stated that "individuals also

need to be comfortable with being held accountable for their actions regardless of the

outcome." It is also important to note that participants agreed that coaching should no

longer have "one size fits all" approach. Coaching should be tailored to the coachee, as

each coachee is a unique individual with diverse attributes and distinct needs.

It is important to recognize the practitioner's current understanding of coaching

and coachability for this research. Previous research has critiqued the academic-

practitioner relationship, stating that the lack of engagement and direct interaction

between the two has led to debate over the true efficacy of academic research (Hughes et

al., 2011). To bridge this gap, the author sought practitioner ideas and opinions with the

intention of developing relevant research. Based on the hours of discussions, the

reviewing of interviews, and the reading of transcripts, I believe it is most important to

practitioners and academics to focus on goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, and

accountability for further theory development in individual coachability.

Deductive Approach: Literature Review

"In the preceding sections, I specified what coaching is and what coaching is not.

Coachable individuals (or those high in coachability) will have characteristics, attitudes,

and behaviors that allow them to benefit from coaching. The inductive portion of this

research aided in narrowing down the variety of constructs that could comprise individual coachability. Based on the information gathered throughout the focus groups and a rigorous review of the literature addressing coaching in other disciplines, I chose four constructs to further develop into a theory of individual coachability; goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability. In the next section, I thoroughly examine each of these four constructs and their relation to coaching in an effort to determine "What makes an individual coachable?"

Goal Setting

Goal setting theory (Locke and Latham, 1990) developed from industrial/organizational (I/O) psychology based and is on the idea that conscious human behavior is derivative of a greater purpose (Latham & Locke, 1991). Humans possesses a higher form of consciousness, allowing them the ability to make decisions with rationale and intent. Grounded in the idea that individuals make active choices attributing to their work successes, the theory of goal setting states that "the simplest, most direct motivational explanation of why some people perform better than others is because they have different performance goals" (Latham, 2000: 161). Locke and Latham (1990) further state that difficult, specific goals and commitment to those goals can lead to significantly higher performance over individuals who are simply hoping to do their best.

Goal Setting Subprinciples

For goal setting to provide maximum benefits and result in attainment of a goal, it must meet the following four subprinciples as defined by Latham (2000). The goal must first be challenging and specific; the higher the goal, the higher the performance. When the goal is truly a challenge, the individual will increase their effort to achieve the goal,

resulting in pride, satisfaction, and an increase in self-efficacy (Latham 2000). Goal

specificity narrows individual focus to the explicit task at hand opposed to the bigger

picture. Goal specificity allows for performance measurement and detailed feedback,

opposed to a "do your best" scenario. Feedback in relation to goal attainment is the

second subprinciple outlined by Latham (2000). Research in goal setting and other

empirical areas indicate that without goal setting, feedback has little or no effect on

individual performance. Without feedback, the positive benefit of goal setting is

minimized (Erez, 1977). The third subprinciple studied is goal commitment, which is

defined as "the degree to which the individual is attached to the goal, considers it

significant or important, is determined to reach it, and keeps it in the face of setbacks or

obstacles" (Latham & Locke, 1991: 217). Although goal commitment can prove difficult,

two concepts can be used to help maintain commitment. The first is outcome expectancy.

When the individual has a clear vision of their expectations, they are more likely to stay

committed to the goal. The second concept is self-efficacy. Individuals with low self-

efficacy are more likely to abandon a goal whereas individuals with high self-efficacy are

more likely to stay committed to a goal (Latham, 2000). Both outcome expectancy and

self-efficacy can be improved upon throughout the goal attainment process. The fourth

subprinciple defined by Latham (2000) is to provide or have the resources necessary to

attain the goal. The individual must have the abilities and means to complete the goal. A

goal cannot be achieved if there are unremovable constrictions. When each subprinciple

is achieved successfully, goal attainment is most probable. Although theoretically

important, these four subprinciples do not full describe the goal setting - goal attainment

relationship.

Goal Orientation

During the development of goal setting theory arose the idea of goal orientation. This is important to goal setting theory in that goal orientation impacts individual results in high achievement settings (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997). VandeWalle (1997) defines goal orientation as an "individual disposition towards developing or validating one's ability in achievement settings" (997). Dweck (1986) identified two broad categories of goal orientation; performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation. According to Dweck (1986), performance goals focus on ability demonstration "in which individuals seek to gain favorable judgements or avoid negative judgements of their competence" (1040). Conversely, learning goals focus on ability development "in which individual seek to increase their competence by understanding or mastering something new" (Dweck, 1985: 1040). Individual ability is related to both performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Performance goal orientation views ability as a fixed attribute (VandeWalle, 1997), which can lead to an avoidance of challenges and withdrawal (Button et al. 1996). In opposition, learning goal orientation views ability as an attribute to be continually developed for future task mastery (VandeWalle, 1997), precipitating future involvement in challenging tasks and improved performance (Button et al., 1996). Essentially, performance goal orientation posits that ability is the more important determining factor of performance whereas learning goal orientation postulates that effort is the more important determining factor of performance (VandeWalle, 2019).

Grounded in these differences, Button et al. (1996) developed a two-factor measure of goal orientation items, with eight items relating to performance goal

orientation and eight items relating to learning goal orientation. The authors found through numerous studies that performance and learning goal orientation were uncorrelated, thus confirming that goal orientation is a two-dimensional construct. In 1997, VandeWalle theorized that goal orientation is a three-dimensional construct that splits performance goal orientation into two distinct dimensions, prove goal orientation and avoid goal orientation. Simply put, prove goal orientation is the desire to prove competence and earn praise whereas avoid goal orientation is the desire to avoid refuting competence and avoid criticisms (VandeWalle, 1997). Subsequently, the effects of goal setting through the lens of goal orientation continues to be of interest to scholars. Lee et al. (2003) conducted a laboratory experiment where they established additional types of goal orientations, illustrating how goal attainment incites mastery which stimulates enhanced performance. LePine (2005) conducted a decision-making simulation to determine the effects of the different goal orientations on teams. Teams that adapted best had both high goal and a high learning orientation. VandeWalle and colleagues (2019) affirm the continued interest in goal orientation, concluding that researchers continue to study effects of both performance and learning goal orientation on organizational outcome variables such as job-performance, contextual performance, change adaptation, leadership, and well-being.

Goal Setting as it Relates to Coaching

Goal setting theory is rooted in achievement motivation, which involves pursuing a specific standard of excellence. Specifically, it means not just doing, but doing something well (Locke & Latham, 2019). But how does an individual improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities that they may "do something well?" An avenue often

explored when seeking education and development is coaching. Grant (2012) states that all coaching conversations are either directly or indirectly goal focused because of the nature of the coach/coachee relationship; the coachee is seeking improvement with the assistance of the coach to create positive change. Online coaching resources emphasize goal-setting as an important part of most coaching processes, as it allows for both the coach and the coachee to have a clear outcome of what the coachee would like to achieve (Managing Change, 2016; UK Coaching, 2018; Life Coach Spotter, 2021) Although there is ample scholarly research to inform coaches as to how to influence goal setting and achievement throughout the coaching process (Grant, 2012; Grant, 2014; Clutterbuck & Spence, 2017; Müller & Kotte, 2020), there little research centered on the individual coachee. Notably, unlike other development techniques, many coaching relationships begin when a coachee has a goal already set, but wants the support of a coach to reach it. For instance, an individual who wants to start her own business may reach out to a coach to facilitate that goal.

Not only is goal-setting an integral element of a well-designed coaching relationship, receptivity to goal setting, including the desire to learn and improve, is likely to be related to individual coachability, and a resistance to goals should hinder individual coachability. In workplace coaching, the employee who fails to set goals is unlikely to improve their performance through coaching. Further, the coachability of an individual may rely on their goal orientation, with those who have a strong avoid orientation perhaps unwilling to pursue challenging or new goals. Yet, a mastery orientation (an achievement behavior in which individuals seek challenge and growth (American Psychological Foundation)) is likely to enhance an individual's coachability.

Thus, both goal orientation and receptivity to goal-setting in general are posited to be related to individual coachability.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as "people's judgements of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986: 391). Bandura (2012) states that an individual's self-belief system, or self-efficacy, can vary across various environments and situational conditions. Based on the nature of current circumstances, and individual may exhibit strong or weak self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) indicated that individuals exhibiting possessing strong self-efficacy, especially when related to a specific task, are more likely to persevere in difficult situations, engage in complex cognitive processes, and utilize independent learning strategies. Essentially, the stronger an individual's self-efficacy, the more committed their efforts, and the weaker an individual's self-efficacy, the more likely they are to suspend their efforts (Bandura, 1977).

According to Bandura (1977), personal efficacy expectations are developed based on four sources of information: performance accomplishments (mastery experience), vicarious experience (social modeling), verbal persuasion (social persuasion), and physiological states (physical and emotional states). Successful performance of a task impacts self-efficacy in that it shows that successful execution of the task is possible. It is through repeated successes that strong self-efficacy expectations are developed (Bandura, 1977). As a result of continued mastery, the individual becomes resilient, learning how to manage both successes and failures through perseverance, leading to increased self-efficacy (Bandura, 2012). However, individuals cannot simply rely on mastery

experience alone to improve their self-efficacy. Vicarious experience or social persuasion occurs when individuals observe others accomplishing daunting or intimidating activities without negative consequences (Bandura, 1977). Witnessing others' successes can affect the observer's confidence (Bandura, 2012). Essentially, creating a mindset of "if they can do it, so can I". Although performance and observation create stronger self-efficacy, without feedback an individual's self-efficacy may be misdirected. Verbal/social persuasion influences behavior, in that if individuals are encouraged to believe in themselves, they are more likely to persevere (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 2012). Constructive feedback is most trusted when the evaluation comes from someone who is highly skilled, effectively objective, and incredibly experienced in the specific area (Bandura, 1997). Lastly, an individual's physiological state influences his or her self-efficacy expectations. Thoughts and feelings that occur before, during, and after task performance influences self-perception of abilities. Emotions, both positive and negative, can affect self-efficacy beliefs. Stress, anxiety, and depression threaten self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Reducing negative emotional arousals through mastery experience and modeling approaches develops stronger self-efficacy beliefs, whereas giving in to the threats and fears greatly diminishes self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977; Bandura 2012). Similarly, physical strength and stamina are important and influential in individual self-efficacy beliefs when attempting physical tasks (Bandura, 1997). To truly foster high self-efficacy, individuals should interpret information from all four sources while also remembering that the impact of these factors depends on individual cognitive appraisal (Bandura, 1977). Ultimately, self-efficacy beliefs are strengthened and weakened through individual experiences, activities, situational conditions. Self-efficacy is not a blanket

trait and cannot be assumed the same for all, as each individual interprets each experience differently (Bandura, 2012).

Bandura (2012) states that individual self-efficacy beliefs "affect the human functioning though cognitive, motivational, affective, and decisional processes" (13) As mentioned above, personal mastery and enforcing learned behaviors can lead to increased self-efficacy. But what transpires if the individual seeks to improve his or her self-efficacy yet lacks the necessary skills to gain proficiency? The simple answer is the individual seeks help, at times from a coach.

Self-efficacy as it Relates to Coaching

Previous research in athletics has linked individual athlete self-efficacy with performance, confirming self-efficacy belief as an accurate predictor of success (Feltz & Lirgg, 2001). Weight and colleagues (2020) explored self-efficacy in relation to the athlete's dyadic relationship with their coach, indicating that both positive and negative experiences with the relationship affected athlete self-efficacy beliefs. Coaches can provide the necessary instruction and support throughout this cycle. It is understandable to view self-efficacy through the lens of a coach; a coach can assist and facilitate throughout all four of the sources of information (performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological state) to increase individual self-efficacy beliefs. Much of Bandura's work addresses the cyclical nature of the self-efficacy process; complete a task, receive feedback, make necessary changes, increase self-efficacy, repeat (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1997; Bandura; 2012). This process is easier and more achievable when the coachee begins the coaching process with high self-efficacy. Conversely, low self-efficacy coachees, even with coaching, struggle to

accomplish set goals or appropriately respond to feedback. Thus, self-efficacy is a fundamental aspect of individual coachability.

Feedback

According to Merriam-Webster (2022) feedback is defined as "the transmission of evaluation or corrective information about an action, even, or process to the original or controlling source". Management literature considers feedback an essential piece of the interpersonal interaction surrounding role learning, task environment, and performance appraisal (Ilgen et al., 1979). Feedback is important in evaluating individual behavior and performance, providing direction and motivation for task completion (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). However, the efficacy of any feedback provided relies on both the individual providing the feedback and the individual receiving the feedback. The feedback receiver's perception of and response to the message depends on many factors including his or her personality, the nature of the communication received, and the characteristics of the source of the feedback (Ilgen et al., 1979).

All feedback originates from a source and it is necessary to define the source to determine the level of influence the feedback may have. Ilgen and colleagues (1979) identify three distinct sources of feedback; other individuals, task environment, and self. The first, and most obvious, source of feedback is other individuals. Other individuals (ex. supervisors, co-workers, teachers, and coaches) who frequently witness an individual's behaviors and actions are the most common source of feedback due to the unique position to provide evaluation. The second source of feedback is the task environment. For example, when using a back-up camera in a vehicle, the driver is notified with an auditory warning if he or she gets too close to an object. The warning is

feedback to the driver during a specific instance. Ilgen and colleagues (1979) refer to the

third source of feedback as the self. An individual can judge his or her own beliefs and

actions, consequently serving as their own source of feedback. It must be noted, however,

that a source of feedback cannot simply exist and feedback will be openly received. The

source of feedback must be credible, providing evidence of expertise and exhibiting

trustworthiness (Ilgen et al., 1979). Ilgen and colleagues (1979) also acknowledge that

the perceived power of the source can affect the individual's response to feedback. For

example, an individual may be more willing to accept feedback from his or her boss

(someone they perceive with more power than themselves) opposed to his or her

subordinate (someone they perceived with less power than themselves). In theory,

credibility and power are two independent factors, however they can be interpreted as one

in the same.

Although feedback communicates various reactions to individual performances,

the degree of information effectiveness is determined by the feedback receiver. Because

of this, previous research has focused on how the feedback recipient interprets feedback

information. Ilgen and colleagues (1979) discuss four different elements of the feedback

process; perception of feedback, acceptance of feedback, desire to respond to feedback,

and the intended response to feedback. Perceived feedback, simply, is how the recipient

perceives the feedback message from any given source. Productive feedback perception

relies highly on the source of the feedback (does the receiver deem the source credible

and trustworthy?), the message from the source (is the message timely, clear, and

positively or negatively connotated?), and the recipient of the feedback (how do the

individual's characteristics affect their perception of the feedback?) (Ilgen et al., 1979).

Once the recipient perceives feedback, he or she must decide on acceptance. Feedback

acceptance is the individual's belief that the feedback received and perceived pertains to

his or her performance (Ilgen et al., 1979). Again, feedback acceptance is heavily

determined by the source of message and the actual stated message. The source of

feedback can be the most influential element of feedback acceptance. A source with high

credibility, expertise, and trustworthiness can greatly influence the receiver's willingness

to accept the feedback message (Ilgen et al., 1979). Researchers (Jacobs et al., 1973;

Halperin et al., 1976; Ilgen et al., 1979) have studied the effects of positive and negative

feedback, agreeing that the message connotation greatly influences the individual's

feedback acceptance. Once the recipient accepts feedback, her or she must decide

whether or not to respond. The desire to respond to feedback again stems from the

source's credibility and relationship with the reviver and from the timing, frequency, and

sign of the message (Ilgen et al., 1979). Feedback response is also influenced by

capability, motivation, and personality of the message receiver (Ilgen et al., 1979).

Presumably, the culmination of perception, acceptance, and desire leads to the

individual's intended feedback response. Feedback, without appropriate response, will

have little or no effect on the individual's beliefs or performances (Ilgen et al., 1979).

Feedback as it Relates to Coaching

As mentioned, the source of feedback plays an important role in the feedback

process. Individuals who desire feedback will ask credible and trusted sources to evaluate

their behaviors (Ashford, 1986). Therefore, the concept of feedback as a component of

coaching is not new. Previous coaching research includes providing feedback as a

primary function of a coach (Cox et al., 2014; Schwartz et al., 2020). By definition,

feedback is a large aspect of coaching; coaches promote change and growth, using feedback to facilitate performance assessments with the coachee. Previous literature shows that both positive and negative feedback can have both favorable and adverse effects on the individual (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). Positive feedback is important for enhancing confidence and improving performance. Negative feedback, however is important for correcting behaviors and improving weaknesses. A successful individual must be willing to not only receive both forms of feedback, but be able to consider the feedback as constructive opposed to insulting (Ashford & Tsui, 1991).

Coachable individuals must be willing to consider feedback as part of the coaching process. Individuals who are unwilling to accept feedback, or discount the feedback that they get, are unlikely to experience change or growth. Further, highly coachable individuals are more likely to seek feedback. Feedback seeking is defined as "conscious effort toward determining the correctness and adequacy of behaviors for attaining valued end states" (Ashford, 1986: 466). Rooted in this idea, an individual who actively seeks feedback, understands the feedback given, and is willing to put the new knowledge to practice would be considered highly coachable. Logically, individuals who seek consistent, comprehensive, and credible feedback are also those who seek out are highly coachable.

Accountability

Accountability is defined as "being answerable to audiences for performing up to certain prescribed standards, thereby fulfilling obligations, duties, expectations, and other charges" (Schlenker et al., 1994: 634). Individual accountability is not only important for organizational successes and improved performance, but is imperative to society as a

whole. Plato argued that "without accountability for our actions we would all behave unjustly". A lack of accountability can produce detrimental consequences and has been the cause for many societal, political, corporate, and personal failures (Hall et al., 2017). Accountability motivates individual behavior and decision making; individuals strive for approval from others and shift behaviors based on the potential for evaluation (Hall et al., 2017).

Schlenker and colleagues (1994) noted that accountability holds individuals responsible for their behaviors, developing an accountability pyramid explaining how accountability operates and influences behaviors. The authors stated that prescriptions, events, and identity must be considered to understand accountability. Prescriptions are simply the rules or standards in place that determines individual activities and evaluation (Schlenker et al., 1994). Events describe the actual occurrences being evaluates and the consequences of the behavior enacted (Schlenker et al., 1994). Identity refers to the individual's characteristics and his or her status and persona (Schlenker et al., 1994). All three components are important in directing individual behaviors, establishing the level of responsibility for which they will be judged.

Perhaps the most influential notion of accountability is Tetlock's model of social judgement and choice, stating that accountability is the "fundamental social contingency driving individual behavior and decisions" (Hall et al., 2014: 206). Tetlock's model is a theoretical road map emphasizing the psychology of accountability that includes motivational and coping-strategy assumptions (Tetlock, 1992). From this work developed Frink and Klimoski's (1998) conceptualization of role theory and accountability, Ammeter and colleagues' (2004) framework of role theory, trust, and accountability, and

Frink and colleagues' (2008) meso-level accountability theory discussing the influence of the accountability environment.

Rooted in these theories, Hall et al., (2017) posited seven conceptions of accountability. First, accountability is seen as a social order, holding individuals responsible for their decisions and actions. Second, accountability functions in the perceptual domain as individuals vary in their perceptions of accountability. Third, accountability shapes how individuals think, enacting a deeper conceptualization of what they think. Fourth, accountability motivates perceptions of self-image, suggesting implications for beliefs and behaviors. Fifth, accountability perceptions influence individual relationships that are relevant to the current situation. Sixth, accountability may be the most prevalent influence on individual social behavior. Lastly, based on these concepts and the implications for behavior, there is motivation for avoiding, manipulating, and coping with individual accountabilities.

Accountability as it Relates to Coaching

Decades of research coincide that accountability is an individual action. Individuals are held accountable based on numerous ideals and environmental regulations in both their personal and professional lives. With copious information available and ample daily distractions, being accountable can become a daunting task. When this occurs, individuals seek accountability though coaching, employing another individual to provide structure, support, and guidance to help them stay focused and achieve their goals. According to New York Times bestselling author Gretchen Rubin, many individuals crave accountability in the form of someone to answer to when struggling to complete expectations (Rubin, 2017). Coaches can serve as that individual by providing

ongoing accountability though vision clarification, goal measurability, focus improvement and procrastination elimination (Pettit, 2020). Essentially, coaches create an action plan for accountability. The degree to which an individual responds to accountability is anticipated to be linked to coachability. An individual who resists accountability is unlikely to change behavior or improve performance based on the coaching relationship. Conversely, an individual who emphasizes meeting the obligations created by the coach should see more success in meeting goals. Thus, coaching can be more effective and achievable when the coachee is accountable, which can lead to higher individual coachability.

The above deductive approach systematically explored the concepts of goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability. I established meaningful associations between each concept and how it relates to the notion of individual coachability. Using the above conclusions from both the inductive and deductive research sections, I posit a comprehensive definition of individual coachability for use across all disciplines of study.

A Definition of Coachability

Athanasopoulou and Dopson (2018) mention that the coaching experience should be tailored to fit the characteristics of each individual coachee, as they are active participants in the process who greatly determine the effectiveness of the coaching experience. To better understand the coachee role throughout the coaching experience, researchers must clearly define and operationalize coachability. Researchers must systematically study the individual characteristics that result in a highly coachable individual. The theoretical model of individual coachability developed through the inductive and deductive research above examines goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback

seeking, and accountability as the primary attributes of individual coachability. Based on the theoretical development presented here, I define coachability as the degree to which an individual seeks a desirable and sustainable change, integrating goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability. In the next chapters, I aim to validate this definition through the development of a highly generalizable and theoretically comprehensive measure of coachability.

CHAPTER 2

A MEASURE OF INDIVIDUAL COACHABILITY

Introduction

As coaching continues to grow in practitioner popularity, it becomes more and more evident that there is a need for an appropriate measure of coachability. Grover and Furnham (2016, p. 26) observed that "as an industry, coaching needs more stringent methodology, statistical analysis, and larger sample sizes to increase the generalizability of the coaching effectiveness findings". However, the majority of coaching research often examines coaching in isolation, focusing on the methods and means of providing an effective coaching experience opposed to considering the influence of individual coachee characteristics (Weiss & Merrigan, 2021; Johnson et al., 2021). As evidenced in Chapter 1, previous research in entrepreneurship, marketing, and management have developed measures of coachability however, these measures are problematic and do not encompasses the overall definition of coachability.

Also, these measures of individual coachability (Shannahan et al. 2013; Chichta et al., 2018; Johnson et al. 2021) observe the coachability trait as a first order construct, measuring it directly. However, the theoretical model of coaching developed in Chapter 1 examines goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback seeking, and accountability as the primary attributes of coachability. Coachability manifests in the exhibition of these attributes.

An individual scoring high in coachability will subsequently exhibit high scores in goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback seeking, and accountability. Therefore, coachability is a latent trait that is the common source of these four (and possibly others) specific traits, rendering coachability a second order construct. Due to the inconsistencies in previously published coachability scales, the aim for this chapter is to develop a measure of coachability that is consistent with the theory developed and definition designed in Chapter 1. I do this by following the steps put forth by Hinkin (1995; 1998) for scale development for use in survey questionnaires. I also evaluate individual coachability scale as a second order construct following the procedures set forth by Judge et al. (2003) throughout their development of the Core Self-Evaluations Scale, as they determined core self-evaluations to be a second-order construct.

Study 1

Item Generation and Refinement

According to Hinkin (1995; 1998), the first step of scale development is the creation of items that adequately capture the specific domain interest. This requires an in depth understanding and thorough review of the chosen theoretical foundation. I utilized both and inductive and deductive approach to item generation and generated items that adhered to the recommendations put suggested by scholars (Bradburn et al., 2004; Lambert & Newman, 2019; Tourangeau et al., 2000) such that the items are clear, simple, unidimensional, uncontaminated from related constructs, and free of jargon or slang.

Using the theory conceptualization in Chapter 1, published scales were sought to measure the attributes selected: goal orientation, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability. Additionally, based on inductive and deductive research, I chose to add

the construct of willingness to change. Kucera (2018) states that "if you try to coach someone who is not willing to change then no amount of coaching will help".

Furthermore, consistent with previous research on second order constructs (Judge et al., 2003), I closely examined the items of the existing measures of the four attributes (goal orientation, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability), based the item development on these items. Following the data collection, I chose the final scale items by applying the following criteria. First, the items needed to adequately sample the content domain covered by each individual attribute. Second, in order to ensure scale reliability, items had to be significantly correlated with each other. Third, the scale had to be short enough to be useful.

Goal Orientation

While both performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation (of Button et al.'s (1996) two-part goal orientation scale) are highly correlated with both coachability subscales at the p<.01 level, previous goal orientation research indicates that learning goal orientation may be a better predictor of coachability based on how each orientation views ability. Performance goal orientation views ability as a fixed attribute whereas learning goal orientation view ability as something that can be continually developed (Button et al., 1996; VandeWalle, 1997). Therefore, for this study, only the 8-item measure of learning goal orientation is used.

Self-Efficacy

I utilized all 10 items from the operationalized Schwarzer & Jerusalem's (1995) Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE).

Feedback Seeking

I adapted several items from Ashford's (1986) feedback scale, using three items from the Value from Feedback scale and one item from the Risk in Feedback scale for this study.

Accountability

After insufficient findings in the search for an accountability scale, I created four-item measure based on the definition of accountability. I define accountability as an implied or direct expectation that one is held to for his or her decisions and/or actions. These items appear in Appendix B.

Willingness to Change

I created a 5-item Willingness to Change scale based on the Transtheoretical Model Stages of Change from clinical psychology literature (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997; Prochaska & DiClemente, 2005). These items appear in Appendix B.

Participants and Procedure

The data were collected from Amazon.com MTurk workers in an anonymous online survey. Participants were invited to take a Qualtrics survey for a small monetary reward. The participants were instructed to assess on a Likert-type scale to which they agreed with each statement about themselves ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The initial sample consisted of 412 participants. Of those, 27 responses were deemed unusable for a variety of reasons. Five responses were deleted for incompletion, three responses appeared to be the same respondent, and five were removed for suspiciously repetitive answers. An attention check stating "please respond 'strongly disagree' for this item" was also incorporated into the questionnaire to eliminate

biased observations (Meade & Craig, 2012). 14 respondents failed this attention check. This resulted in 383 usable responses providing complete data.

The data for the sample were collected from full-time employees in the United States. The sample was 57% male and the self-reported race or ethnicity was 94% Caucasian/White. The majority of respondents had at least a bachelor's degree (72%), some management experience (93%), and had served in the military (61%). Respondents were also required to currently employed, with 77% currently working for an organization and 23% self-employed.

Factor Analysis and Scale Reliability

Although reliability may be calculated in a number of ways, the most commonly accepted measure is internal consistency reliability using Cronbach's Alpha (Price & Mueller, 1986). Almost 20 years ago Nunnally (1978) suggested that an alpha of 0.70 be the minimum acceptable standard for demonstrating internal consistency in a newly developed scale and that established scales should produce a coefficient alpha well above 0.80. The data was subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and reliability analysis to establish evidence of factor structure and consistency of the developed measures, respectively. I followed recommended best practices, using maximum likelihood extraction and oblimin rotation, examining initial eigenvalues, and observing scree plots to determine the number of factors (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). I then examined the pattern matrix and identify items in which the factor loadings are at least |.30| in magnitude and |.20| different than loadings on other factors.

Results

IBM's SPSS statistical software package was used to conduct the EFA. To verify the unidimensionality of each subscale, separate EFA was run for each scale used (goal orientation, self-efficacy, feedback, accountability, and willingness to change). For self-efficacy, feedback, accountability, and willingness to change only one component was extracted, resulting in each respective scale loading on a single factor. For goal orientation, the initial factor structure comprised of two factors, with seven items loading on one factor, and one item loading on a second factor. The item "I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task" was dropped and a second goal orientation EFA was conducted. With the removal of this item, the remaining seven items loaded on a single factor. Based on these results, an EFA was then conducted for the hypothesized individual coachability scale using maximum likelihood extraction and oblimin rotation. Results initially presented that rotation failed to converge in 25 iterations, thus a pattern matrix was not produced. I then increased the iterations to 50, which produced a pattern matrix with oblimin rotation within 32 iterations. Contrary to the hypothesized five factor structure, the pattern matrix produced four factors with each subscale loading randomly throughout. Each individual item loaded on one of the four factors with the exception of self-efficacy line item 9. The item "If I am in a bind, I can usually think of something to do" is a very wordy way to express the concept of self-efficacy in less than ideal situations and may be challenging to interpret for some respondents. Therefore,

self-efficacy item 9 than was dropped and a second EFA was conducted. Again, four factors were produced with each subscale loading randomly throughout.

Table 1 and Table 2 show the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and zero-order correlations between the constructs, factors, and demographic variables for this sample.

Study 2

According to Hinken (1998), it is important to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to confirm the findings of the EFA and to establish construct validity. Construct validity refers to the extent to which a construct actually measures what is supposed to measure (Hair et al., 2018). The most common purpose of a CFA is to establish convergent and discriminant validity (types of construct validity) of the constructs in the measurement model. Convergent validity refers to as "the extent which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common" (Hair et al., 2018: 659); on the other hand, discriminant validity refers to as "the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs both in terms how much it correlates with other constructs and how distinctly measured variables represent only this single construct" (Hair et al., 2018: 659). The purpose of this study is to (1) determine the degree to which my individual coachability scale is a second-order factor, and (2) test the convergent and discriminant validity of the coachability scale developed in Study 1. I tested both with a CFA using a new dataset. To test convergent validity, I compared the finalized individual coachability scale to the full scales of each tested concept (goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, accountability, and willingness to change).

Table 1

Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis

Variable		Factor			
		1	2	3	4
Feedback 1	It is important for me to receive feedback on my performance	-0.018	**-0.803**	-0.052	-0.098
Feedback 2	I would like to get more feedback on what behaviors will help me do better in performing my job	0.022	-0.103	**-0.671**	-0.042
Feedback 3	I find feedback on my performance useful	0.002	**-0.353**	-0.167	0.145
Feedback 4	It is better to try and figure out how you are doing on your own rather than ask anyone for feedback	0.248	-0.235	**-0.342**	-0.022
Willingness to Change 1	I recognize when I need to make changes in my life	-0.053	**-0.742**	-0.012	0.074
Willingness to Change 2	I routinely consider changes to my life	-0.060	-0.003	**-0.774**	0.006
Willingness to Change 3	When I want to make a change, I plan for it	0.183	**-0.343**	0.115	0.297
Willingness to Change 4	I have successfully made changes in my life	0.249	**-0.321**	-0.231	0.065
Willingness to Change 5	I am good at sticking to changes I've made in my life	0.052	**-0.410**	-0.174	0.153
Learning Goal Orientation 1	The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me	0.076	**-0.825**	0.072	-0.022
Learning Goal Orientation 2	When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it	-0.041	-0.036	**-0.773**	-0.008
Learning Goal Orientation 3	I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things	0.111	-0.026	0.063	**0.705**
Learning Goal Orientation 4	The opportunity to learn new things is important to me	**0.473**	-0.210	-0.131	0.113
Learning Goal Orientation 6	I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task	0.189	-0.260	**-0.389**	-0.042
Learning Goal Orientation 7	I try hard to improve on my past performance	-0.245	-0.186	-0.377	**0.334**
Learning Goal Orientation 8	The opportunity to extend the rand of my abilities is important to me	**0.395**	0.001	-0.338	0.147
Accountability 1	I perform tasks better when they are subject for evaluation	-0.107	**-0.558**	-0.043	0.256

Variable		Factor			
		1	2	3	4
Accountability 2	I like having someone to be accountable to because it motivates me	0.151	0.072	**-0.593**	0.171
Accountability 3	I like working in an environment where someone will check to see if I've met my goals	0.112	-0.066	0.051	**0.618**
Accountability 4	If there is something I really want to accomplish, it helps if I have someone to hold me accountable	**0.373**	0.023	-0.252	0.243
Self-Efficacy 1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough	0.035	**-0.600**	-0.023	0.217
Self-Efficacy 2	If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want	0.160	0.061	**-0.607**	0.069
Self-Efficacy 3	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals	-0.082	-0.035	-0.107	**0.675**
Self-Efficacy 4	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events	**0.364**	-0.156	-0.179	0.095
Self-Efficacy 5	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen events	-0.065	-0.080	-0.194	**0.543**
Self-Efficacy 6	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort	0.203	-0.163	**-0.525**	0.007
Self-Efficacy 7	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities	0.124	-0.215	-0.001	**0.400**
Self-Efficacy 8	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	**0.374**	-0.063	-0.255	0.203
Self-Efficacy 9	*If I am in a bind, I can usually think of something to do*	*0.137*	*-0.283*	*-0.158*	*0.119*
Self-Efficacy 10	No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it	0.224	-0.049	**-0.335**	0.274

Note: Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 32 iterations. Bold text indicates factor loading. Italic text indicates no factor loading.

Table 2

Exploratory Factor Analysis Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Zero-Order Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Learning Goal Orientation	3.969	0.625	**0.831**										
2. Self-efficacy	3.945	0.625	.872**	**0.881**									
3. Feedback	4.037	0.644	.792**	.770**	**0.729**								
4. Accountability	3.904	0.686	.790**	.797**	.692**	**0.754**							
5. Willingness to Change	3.981	0.618	.817**	.843**	.787**	.730**	**0.777**						
6. Individual Coachability	3.952	0.593	.944**	.960**	.865**	.867**	.910**	**0.954**					
7. Gender	1.432	0.496	0.061	0.042	0.076	0.067	0.053	0.061	-				
8. Education	4.565	1.527	0.100	.111*	0.058	.172**	0.089	.115*	.319**	-			
9. Military Experience	1.389	0.488	0.043	0.023	.120*	-0.067	0.060	0.037	.110*	.131*	-		
10. Employment Type	1.232	0.423	0.081	0.028	0.009	0.096	0.007	0.049	-0.033	-0.063	-.232**	-	
11. Management Experience	1.069	0.254	-0.041	-0.058	0.078	-.111*	-0.022	-0.041	0.059	0.002	.234**	-0.100	-

Note: $N = 375$ Coefficient alpha reliabilities appear in the diagonals. Gender (1 = Male, 2 = Female); Education (1 = less than High School, 2 = High School Graduate or GED, 3 = Some College Credit, 4 = Associates Degree, 5 = Bachelor's Degree, 6 = Master's Degree, 7 = Doctorate Degree); Military Service (1 = Some Military Service, 2 = No Military Service); Employment Type (1 = Fully Employed, 2 = Self-Employed); Management Experience (1 = Some Management Experience, 2 = No Management Experience)

**p <. 01; *p < .05., two-tailed.

Item Generation and Refinement

To test discriminant validity, I compared the finalized individual coachability

scale to the coachability scales developed by Shannahan et al. (2013) and Johnson et al.

(2021).

Goal Orientation

I used Button et al.'s (1996) 16-item goal orientation scale, which includes both

learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation.

Self-Efficacy

I utilized the 10-item scale operationalized Schwarzer & Jerusalem's (1995)

Generalized Self-efficacy Scale (GSE).

Feedback Seeking

Ashford's (1986) entire 13-item feedback-seeking scale, including risk in

feedback seeking and value from feedback seeking, was used.

Accountability

I used scale I created; the four-item measure based on the definition of

accountability. I define accountability as an implied or direct expectation that one is held

to for his or her decisions and/or actions. These items appear in Appendix B.

Willingness to Change

I used the 5-item Willingness to Change scale based on the Transtheoretical

Model Stages of Change from clinical psychology literature (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997;

Prochaska & DiClemente, 2005). These items appear in Appendix B.

Other Coachability Scales

I used Shannahan et al.'s 24-item Salesperson Coachability scale and Johnson et al.'s and Johnson et al.'s 12-item Three Dimensional Coachability Scale.

Individual Coachability

I used the refined measure of Individual Coachability from Study 1.

Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and coefficient alphas for the above scales can be found in Table 6.

Participants and Procedure

The purpose of a CFA is to confirm the findings of the EFA, thus it is highly recommended to collect data from a new sample that is different from that of the EFA (Lambert & Newman, 2019; Messick, 1995). The data was collected from Prolific Academic in an anonymous online survey, restricting participation to those who were based in the United States and currently working. Participants were invited to take a Qualtrics survey for a small monetary reward. The participants were instructed to assess on a Likert-type scale to which they agreed with each statement about themselves ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The initial sample consisted of 400 participants. Of those, 9 responses were deemed unusable for a variety of reasons. One response was deleted for incompletion, one response was removed for suspiciously repetitive answers, and one response was removed for completing the survey in an illogical time frame. An attention check stating "please respond 'strongly disagree' for this item" was also incorporated into the questionnaire to eliminate biased observations (Meade & Craig, 2012). Six respondents failed this attention check. This resulted in 391 usable responses providing complete data.

The data for the sample was collected from full-time employees in the United States. The sample was 51% male and the self-reported race or ethnicity was 70% Caucasian/White. The majority of respondents had at least a bachelor's degree (59%), some management experience (55%), and had never served in the military (96%). Respondents were also required to currently employed, with 88% currently working for an organization and 12% self-employed.

Results

Both IBM's SPSS statistical software package and AMOS 26 were used to conduct the CFA. Preliminary factor analyses in SPSS did not result in the same factor structure as the EFA. Conversely, the factor analysis produced a six-factor model. Unlike the EFA, the items mostly loaded with their respective subscales. However, there were a few exceptions. Willingness to change item 2, "I routinely consider changes to my life", did not load on any factor. This item asks about the perception of change whereas the other willingness to change items ask about the action of change. Therefore, willingness to change item 2 subsequently dropped. Another factor analysis was conducted and again resulted in six factors. The subscales of feedback, learning goal orientation, and accountability each loaded on their own respective factor. Self-efficacy items four through 10 loaded on a single factor. Willingness to change items 3, 4, and 5 plus self-efficacy item 3 completed an additional factor. Factor six was comprised of willingness to change item 1 and self-efficacy items 1 and 2. Factor loadings can be found in Table 3.

Table 3

Factor Loadings for Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Individual Coachability Scale

Variables		Factor					
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Feedback 1	It is important for me to receive feedback on my performance	-0.063	-0.050	**-0.809**	0.090	-0.055	0.048
Feedback 2	I would like to get more feedback on what behaviors will help me do better in performing my job	-0.107	-0.117	**-0.735**	0.088	-0.043	0.079
Feedback 3	I find feedback on my performance useful	0.023	-0.025	**-0.843**	0.016	-0.038	0.063
Feedback 4	It is better to try and figure out how you are doing on your own rather than ask anyone for feedback	-0.168	-0.019	**0.465**	0.024	-0.100	0.178
Willingness to Change 1	I recognize when I need to make changes in my life	0.051	0.016	-0.126	0.005	0.238	**0.361**
Willingness to Change 2	*I routinely consider changes to my life*	*0.006*	*-0.074*	*-0.111*	*0.101*	*0.181*	*0.182*
Willingness to Change 3	When I want to make a change, I plan for it	-0.006	-0.041	-0.054	-0.020	**0.493**	0.059
Willingness to Change 4	I have successfully made changes in my life	0.035	0.032	-0.013	0.102	**0.728**	-0.035
Willingness to Change 5	I am good at sticking to changes I've made in my life	-0.017	-0.037	0.111	0.065	**0.850**	-0.021
Learning Goal Orientation 1	The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me	0.030	-0.050	-0.080	**0.691**	0.076	-0.028
Learning Goal Orientation 2	When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it	0.068	-0.020	-0.087	**0.441**	0.103	0.084
Learning Goal Orientation 3	I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things	0.086	-0.104	0.059	**0.805**	-0.006	-0.093
Learning Goal Orientation 4	The opportunity to learn new things is important to me	0.032	0.012	-0.020	**0.828**	-0.036	-0.071
Learning Goal Orientation 6	I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task	-0.161	-0.002	-0.217	**0.449**	0.206	0.097

Variables		Factor					
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Learning Goal Orientation 7	I try hard to improve on my past performance	-0.024	0.049	-0.062	**0.729**	0.068	0.084
Learning Goal Orientation 8	The opportunity to extend the rand of my abilities is important to me	0.379	-0.056	-0.038	**0.410**	-0.017	0.006
Accountability 1	I perform tasks better when they are subject for evaluation	0.017	**-0.680**	0.047	0.003	0.005	0.167
Accountability 2	I like having someone to be accountable to because it motivates me	-0.036	**-0.917**	0.006	0.030	0.029	-0.057
Accountability 3	I like working in an environment where someone will check to see if I've met my goals	-0.004	**-0.836**	-0.044	0.001	0.036	-0.094
Accountability 4	If there is something I really want to accomplish, it helps if I have someone to hold me accountable	0.001	**-0.825**	-0.075	-0.013	-0.046	-0.036
Self-efficacy 1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough	0.330	-0.006	-0.002	0.194	0.045	**0.421**
Self-efficacy 2	If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want	0.232	-0.096	0.024	-0.082	0.072	**0.427**
Self-efficacy 3	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals	0.279	-0.008	-0.011	0.005	**0.422**	0.037
Self-efficacy 4	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events	**0.808**	-0.032	-0.021	-0.072	0.139	-0.072
Self-efficacy 5	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen events	**0.789**	-0.007	-0.065	-0.062	0.114	-0.046
Self-efficacy 6	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort	**0.555**	-0.005	-0.045	0.142	-0.036	0.255
Self-efficacy 7	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities	**0.779**	-0.019	-0.001	0.007	0.016	-0.060
Self-efficacy 8	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	**0.611**	-0.038	0.055	0.156	0.003	0.142
Self-efficacy 9	If I am in a bind, I can usually think of something to do	**0.682**	0.032	-0.028	0.099	-0.019	0.153
Self-efficacy 10	No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it	**0.663**	0.019	0.011	0.134	0.023	0.098

Notes: Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 9 iterations. Bold text indicates factor loading. Italic text indicates no factor loading.

Confirmatory factor analysis was then used to test the underling structure of the individual coachability scale. To demonstrate the construct validity of a new scale, convergent and discriminant validity must be assessed. Therefore, the nomological network of the individual coachability scale was investigated and the extent to which the pattern of correlations adhered to theoretical expectations was examined. First, I assessed convergent and discriminant validity of new six-factor individual coachability scale using AMOS 26. To assess convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) much be calculated for each variable (Collier, 2020). To denoted convergent validity, the AVE number must be larger than 0.50 and factor loading should have a standardized regression weight above 0.50. (Collier, 2020). The initial CFA did not result in confirmatory factor analysis. The results showed that factor six, containing willingness to change item 1 and self-efficacy items 1 and 2, did not have an AVE larger than .50. Factor six was subsequently deleted and another CFA was conducted. This resulted in willingness to change item 3, "When I want to make a change, I plan for it" having a standardized regression weight below 0.50, which hindered the convergent validity of the model. This item focuses on planning for change, whereas the remaining items in this factor focus on the action of change. Therefore, willingness to change item 3 was deleted and a third CFA was conducted, resulting in all AVE's and standardized regression weights above than 0.05. It should also be noted that self-efficacy line item 9 "If I am in a bind, I can usually think of something to do" loaded cleanly onto factor five, opposed to not loading cleaning in the EFA.

Once convergent validity was achieved for the individual coachability scale, discriminant validity was conducted. Discriminant validity is assessed by calculating the

shared variance between constructs (Collier, 2020). To do so, the square root of the AVE

is compared the original correlation of each construct (Collier, 2020). If the resulting

value is greater than the AVE for each construct, the discriminant validity is achieved

(Collier, 2020). Examining the current model from the convergent validity results, all

square root values of the AVEs exceed the shared variance between constructs, thus

supporting discriminant validity. Results of the individual coachability scale convergent

and discriminant validity can be found in Table 4. The final individual coachability scale

and subsequent factors can be found in Appendix C.

Table 4

Convergent Validity of the Individual Coachability Scale

Variables	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
1. Feedback	0.725	0.585	**0.765**				
2. Self-efficacy	0.911	0.596	-0.202	**0.772**			
3. Goal Orientation	0.888	0.533	-0.599	0.560	**0.730**		
4. Willingness to change	0.775	0.538	-0.286	0.644	0.546	**0.733**	
5. Accountability	0.897	0.688	-0.448	0.175	0.335	0.205	**0.830**

Note: $N = 211$ CR = construct reliability. AVE = average variance extracted. AVE squared
roots in the diagonals.

With convergent and discriminant validity established, the final individual

coachability scale ($\alpha= .954$, $p<.01$) has been shown to be a cohesive measure of

coachability that is distinct from other measures. With that, I sought testing to determine

whether individual coachability is a second-order construct. Following best practices set

forth by Brown (2006) for testing second-order factor models, I tested two competing

models to examine the assumption that the correlations among the set of first order

factors accounts for the second-order factor. The alternative model consisted of the five

core factors (25 items) established above with the CFA analysis. However, coachability

manifests in the exhibition of these core attributes (goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, accountability, and willingness to change) and not necessary on the distinct traits, the hypothesized model was that the 25 individual coachability items load on one second-order factor. This model was created by fixing all five relationships among the five factors to one.

In order to test the fit of these models, I analyzed the following statistics: chi-square (x^2) with corresponding degrees of freedom, Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Goodness of Fit index (CFI), Comparative Fit Index (IFI), and Relative Fit Index (RFI). These fit statistics are reported in Table 5.

Table 5

Fit Statistics from Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Single Dimensional Structure of Individual Coachability Scale

Fit Statistic	Data Sample (N=391)	
Number of factors in model	One	Five
Degrees of Freedom	270	265
Chi-square (x^2)	736.01	639.08
Difference in chi-square (Δx^2)		96.92
RMSEA	0.067	0.060
Goodness of fit index	0.917	0.933
Comparative fit index	0.918	0.934
Relative fit index	0.850	0.868

Notes: RMSEA = Root-mean-square error of approximation. The degrees of freedom for Δx^2 between the one and five factor model is *df* = 5.
p<.01

According to Brown (2006) I tested whether the decrease in fit of the hypothesized model is statistically significantly different from the alternative (five factor) model. To test this, I used the chi-square difference test utilizing the chi-square values and degrees of freedom from both models (Figure 1).

$$\chi^2{}_{diff} = \chi^2{}_{hypothesized\ model} - \chi^2{}_{alternative\ model} \qquad\qquad df_{diff} = df_{hypothesized\ model} - df_{alternative\ model}$$

$$\chi^2{}_{diff} = 736.006 - 639.082 = 96.924 \qquad\qquad df_{diff} = 270 - 265 = 5$$

Figure 1: *Chi-square difference test*

I then compared the computed chi-square difference value against the tabled chi-squared value using the Critical Values of Chi-Square table in Warner's (2012) Applied Statistic textbook. The tabled chi-square critical value for 5*df* and assuming α=.05 is 11.07. Since the obtained chi-square value of 96.924 is greater than 11.07, I maintain that the hypothesized model fits significantly worse (since p<.05) than the alternative model. This signifies that the individual coachability scale is not a second-order construct.

Utilizing the finalized individual coachability scale, convergent and discriminant validity were then assessed. I tested convergent validity by comparing the finalized individual coachability scale to the full scales of each tested concept (goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, accountability, and willingness to change). I tested discriminant validity by comparing the finalized individual coachability scale to the coachability scales developed by Shannahan et al. (2013) and Johnson et al., (2021). Table 6 presents the correlations of the individual coachability scale along with the five core traits (goal orientation, self-efficacy, feedback, accountability, and willingness to change), Shannahan et al.'s (2013) coachability scale and Johnson et al.'s coachability scale. Because individual coachability is comprised from items from the five core traits, I expected it to be substantially correlated with each individual trait scale. For all of the following correlations, *p*<.01.

Table 6

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Correlations of Individual Coachability with Other Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Learning Goal Orientation	4.132	0.618	**0.895**														
2. Performance Goal Orientation	4.111	0.591	-0.049	**0.812**													
3. Self-efficacy	3.987	0.577	.501**	0.013	**0.902**												
4. Value from Feedback Seeking	4.220	0.748	.491**	0.107	.192**	**0.918**											
5. Risk in Feedback Seeking	1.951	0.894	-.362**	0.055	-.355**	-.375**	**0.900**										
6. Accountability	3.433	1.032	.251**	0.062	.161*	.449**	-.171*	**0.892**									
7. Willingness to Change	4.052	0.552	.398**	0.133	.447**	.335**	-.238**	.141*	**0.720**								
8. Shannahan et al. (2013) Coachability Scale	3.761	0.637	.658**	-0.028	.433**	.450**	-.420**	.365**	.392**	**0.884**							
9. Johnson et. al (2021) Coachability Scale	4.022	0.596	.451**	-0.012	.336**	.455**	-.537**	.340**	.345**	.550**	**0.975**						
10. Individual Coachability	3.916	0.459	.799**	0.038	.733**	.608**	-.410**	.604**	.518**	.680**	.566**	**0.894**					
11. Gender	1.5	0.589	-0.129	.219**	-0.086	-0.093	0.030	-0.091	-0.019	-0.112	-.139*	-.151*	-				
12. Education	4.49	1.419	0.112	0.065	0.059	0.118	-0.094	-0.133	0.107	0.095	0.058	0.067	0.019	-			
13. Military Experience	1.96	0.203	-0.040	0.065	-0.111	-0.006	-0.027	0.003	0.020	-0.039	0.062	-0.063	.139*	-0.092	-		
14. Employment Type	1.07	0.249	-0.007	-0.006	-.192**	0.024	0.085	-0.066	0.018	-0.085	0.025	-0.086	-0.031	0.015	0.056	-	
15. Management Experience	1.37	0.484	-0.031	0.116	-0.005	-0.017	-0.006	-0.036	0.004	-0.096	-0.023	-0.042	0.020	-0.086	0.113	-0.046	-

Note: N = 211 Coefficient alpha reliabilities appear in the diagonals. Gender (1 = Male, 2 = Female); Education (1 = less than High School, 2 = High School Graduate or GED, 3 = Some College Credit, 4 = Associates Degree, 5 = Bachelor's Degree, 6 = Master's Degree, 7 = Doctorate Degree); Military Service (1 = Some Military Service, 2 = No Military Service); Employment Type (1 = Fully Employed, 2 = Self-Employed); Management Experience (1 = Some Management Experience, 2 = No Management Experience); **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$., two-tailed.

As predicted, individual coachability was highly correlated with learning goal orientation (.799) whereas performance goal orientation was not correlated at all. Self-efficacy (.733), accountability (.604), and willingness to change (.518) were all correlated with individual coachability as well. Value from feedback seeing (.606) was positively correlated individual coachability. However, risk in feedback seeking (-.410) was negatively correlated with individual coachability, establishing that coachable individuals do not perceive a risk in asking for performance feedback.

The correlations of Shannahan's (2013) coachability scale and Johnson's (2021) coachability scale were to bear on the discriminant validity or distinctiveness of the individual coachability scale. It was expected that the individual coachability scale would be significantly related to, but still distinct from both previously published coachability scales. Both Shannahan et al.'s (2013) coachability scale and Johnson et al.'s (2021) coachability scale were subjected to the same discriminant validity analysis as the individual coachability scale above. All square root values of the AVEs do not exceed the shared variance between constructs, thus discriminant validity is not found. Results of the individual coachability scale convergent and discriminant validity are in Table 7.

Table 7

Discriminant Validity of the Individual Coachability Scale, Shannahan et al.'s (2013) Coachability Scale, and Johnson et al's (2021) Coachability Scale

Variables	CR	AVE	1	2	3
1. Shannahan et al. (2013) Coachability Scale	0.921	0.373	**0.611**		
2. Individual Coachability	0.910	0.321	0.728	**0.567**	
3. Johnson et. al (2021) Coachability Scale	0.859	0.401	0.648	0.651	**0.633**

Note: $N = 211$ CR = construct reliability. AVE = average variance extracted. AVE squared roots in the diagonals.

Now that the individual coachability scale has been subjected to the above testing and confirmed to be a reliable and valid measure of coachability, I will further explore the concept of individual coachability. Previous research states that to best understand causal relationships, the use of experimental or quasi-experimental designs are ideal (Grant & Wall, 2009; Spector & Spector, 1981). Also, experimental vignette methodology permits the researcher to manipulate and control the independent variables, which can enhance both external and internal validity (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010) Therefore, in Chapter 3, I will use experimentation, specifically experimental vignette methodology, to identify whether individual coachability influences the relationship between a developmental coaching program and organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER 3

THE ROLE OF INDIVIDUAL COACHABILITY IN ORGANIZATIONS

Introduction

Utilizing coaching as an employee development activity has increased significantly in the practitioner space in recent years. Individuals are seeking development; they want to learn and grow to become more effective and empowered (Johnson et al., 2021). In response, organizations have implemented developmental coaching programs to aid their employees in this process (Agarwal et al., 2009; Cox & Jackson, 2014). Developmental coaching is a continual interaction between the coach and the coachee in which the coach imparts constructive assessment, feedback, and implementation while facilitating the coachee's desired improvement (Hunt & Weintraub, 2002; Agarwal et al., 2009; Cox & Jackson, 2014). According to Cox & Jackson (2014), developmental coaching is driven by the coachee's desired outcomes, often with aspirations of progressive and permanent change. Because of the nature of the ongoing and persistent coach and coachee relationship, developmental coaching has presented more positive effects above and beyond traditional managerial coaching (Agarwal et al., 2009; Cox et al., 2014).

Cummings and Worley (2008) state that coaching is critical for individual development and establish a six-step developmental coaching process for effective change. The steps laid forth by the authors include: establish the principles of the relationship, conduct an assessment, debrief the results, develop an action plan, implement the action plan, and assess the results (Cummings & Worley, 2008). In the first step, establish the principles of the relationship, it is important to ascertain the coach/coachee relationship. This is done by working together to determine the parameters of relationship and arrange matters like schedules, meeting times, and accountability practices (Cummings & Worley, 2008). Step two, conduct the assessment, involves the coach's evaluation of the coachee. This is often done conversationally, through interview type questions that focus on the coachee's desire for development and can occasionally include more formal personality instruments (Cummings & Worley, 2008). The third step, debrief the results, entails discussing the assessment data together to develop goals to attain throughout the coaching process (Cummings & Worley, 2008). Step four, develop an action plan, is simply the development of a strategy that will lead to goal attainment, including an approach to milestones to evaluate both progresses being made and coaching effectiveness (Cummings & Worley, 2008). The fifth step, implement the action plan, involves the execution of the strategies put forth in step four. This includes one-on-one meetings between the coach and the coachee, where the coach facilitates growth and proposes feedback on the coachee's current progress (Cummings & Worley, 2008). The last step, assess the results, incorporates the review and evaluation of the coaching process. It is here that goals and action plans are revised for continued development or the coaching process is terminated (Cummings & Worley, 2008).

Although this developmental coaching process is rooted in theory, the author's state that

evidence of its effectiveness is subjective, largely depending on the nature of the coachee

and his or her desired outcomes (Cummings & Worley, 2008).

Sharing that sentiment, Agarwal et al. (2009) states that the effects of coaching on

positive organizational behaviors is ambiguous. Coaching is an established

developmental practice that can prove beneficial for both organizations and individuals,

but even when the coaching program is proven effective, the results of the coaching

experience vary. Current research offers many solutions based on the coach: establishing

various types of specific coaching skills (skills coaching, performance coaching,

development coaching, transformational coaching) and suggesting various trainings to be

a better equipped coach (Milner et al., 2018). However, researchers have failed to include

the other side of the coaching dyad, the individual. As evidenced in Cummings &

Worley's (2008) developmental coaching process, successful coaching includes both the

coach and the coachee consistently working together. Yet, previous research neglects an

investigation into the individual coachee when determining the success or failure of a

coaching experience. According to Nieuwenberg's 2022 article entitled "Top 5 Reasons

Coaching Doesn't Work", the main reasons that coaching fails are all focused on the

individual coachee. Nieuwenberg (2022) states that coaching doesn't work if the

individual is not ready psychologically or if the individual is not willing to commit to the

process. Kucera (2018) states that "coaching works for anyone who is willing to get

coached, has an open mind, and a strong desire to improve" and that if an individual is

unwilling to change, then no amount of or approach to coaching will work. Grounded in

this logic, an organization can facilitate a high quality coaching program, but if the

individual isn't coachable, then the program will be a failure. On the other hand, what researchers assume about effective coaching programs may only be relevant because the individual coachee is highly coachable. With this in mind, this chapter aims to establish that individual coachability is an important element in an effective development coaching process.

Previous research has established that developmental coaching programs within organizations can result in desired organizational outcomes, such as increased job performance, increased employee engagement, and increased organizational commitment (Ellinger et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2013; Crabb 2011; Woo, 2017; Park et al., 2020). Though the relationship between developmental coaching programs and these organizational outcomes have been supported through empirical research, they do not recognize the individual coachee as an integral part of the coaching process. Most research connecting developmental coaching programs with organizational outcomes heavily focuses on the manager as the coach and the manner in which the manager, through coaching, can improve organizational outcomes. Also, not all developmental coaching programs are the same. It is understood, thanks to Cummings & Worley (2008), what needs to be in place for a high quality developmental coaching program, but often there is a learning curve between academic knowledge and industry practice. As summarized above, a high-quality coaching program involves establishing the relationship between the coach and coachee, evaluating the coachee and discussing those results, developing an action plan, implementing the action plan, and the continued assessment coaching process (Cummings & Worley, 2008). With that, the current literature has examined only coaching programs that are considered high quality; yet,

anecdotal evidence from practice indicates that not all coaching programs are high quality. In particular, as coaching has grown quickly in practice, with little in the way of higher education or academic literature to guide it, it's highly likely that coaching programs will vary substantially in their quality. Therefore, it is a contribution of this dissertation to hypothesize effects in relation to quality of a coaching program.

In this chapter, I review the established literatures of job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment (see Figure 2). I analyze the previous research relating coaching programs to these organizational outcomes and expose noted inconsistencies. Using experimental vignette methodology and the individual coachability measure developed in the previous chapter, I propose that an individual's level of coachability influences the relationship between the level of quality of coaching programs and job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment.
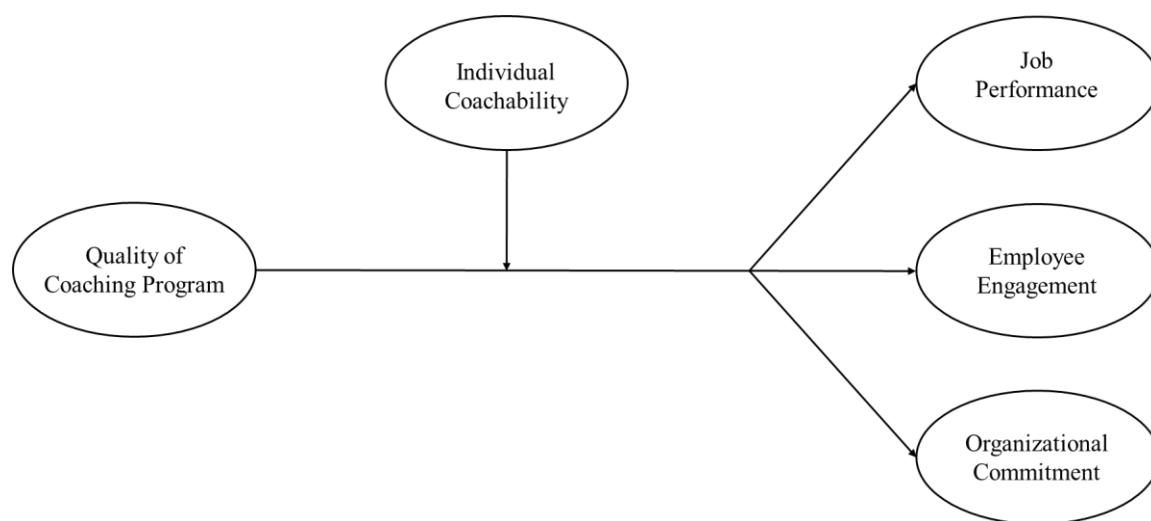

Figure 2: *The Hypothesized Model*

Job Performance

Job performance is defined as "the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time" (Motowidlo & Kell 2012, p.91). Although performance relies heavily on behavioral episodes, it is important to note that performance and behavior are not the same. Behavior is what people do. Performance is the merit of expectations of what people do. (Motowidlo & Kell 2012). Therefore, performance is a behavioral phenomenon, influencing organizational outcomes, and yielding both positive and negative results.

Prior research on performance focused specifically on employee selection, exclusively fixating on particular jobs, job families, and scenarios which resulted in a lack of general performance dimensions. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) argued that there are two distinct dimensions of performance; task performance and contextual performance. Task performance relies heavily on an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) to complete the given task. Task performance incorporates KSAs in two forms related to the organization's technical core. An individual employee either executes the technical process (transforming raw materials into goods or services) or supports the technical requirements (the servicing, maintaining, and distribution of products and the planning, supervising, and coordinating of staff) (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). While task performance is job role specific, contextual performance is more discretionary. Contextual performance "contributes to organizational effectiveness through its effects on the psychological, social, and organizational context of work" (Motowidlo & Kell 2012, p.102). Contextual performance includes behaviors that effect the psychological states of both the individual and others and can be found in elements of

organizational citizenship behavior, prosocial organizational behavior, and organizational

spontaneity (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Motowidlo & Kell 2012). Motowidlo &

Van Scotter's (1994) study of Air Force mechanics found that task and contextual

performance contribute independently to an individual's overall value to the organization,

concluding that performance is a multidimensional concept.

Because of the organizational importance of employee effectiveness, job

performance is often measured to identify positive (or negative) effects of behavior

changes at work. Coaching is an often-used organizational approach as a performance

improvement strategy. Coaching is defined as "a human development process that

involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools, and

techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and

potentially other stakeholders" (Cox et al., 2014 p.1). Previous literature on coaching as a

performance tool centers on the ability of the manager to provide adequate coaching to

receive a desired outcome. Ellinger (2003) suggested that when managers serve as

coaches, organizational improvements can be directly attributed to coaching

interventions. Ellinger et al. (2003) found that effective supervisory coaching has

positive implications for employee performance in warehouse specific settings. Kim et al.

(2013) empirically established a significant positive indirect relationship between

managerial coaching behaviors and employee job performance.

Hypothesis 1: *Coaching program quality will be positively related to job*

performance.

Although these studies provide unique insights on the positive impacts of

coaching on job performance, they rely heavily on the abilities of a manager to provide a

positive coaching experience, but fail to observe the coachee and the role individual coachability play in performance outcomes. For instance, an individual with high coachability, who participated in a high quality developmental coaching program, will likely experience increased job performance. This may be due to the highly coachable individual receiving feedback to improve upon their task and contextual performances. Therefore, I hypothesize that individual coachability will impact the relationship between a high quality developmental coaching program and job performance.

However, an individual with high coachability, who participates in a low quality developmental coaching program, will experience decreased job performance. This could be due to the highly coachable individual receiving little to no feedback on their task or contextual performance. If the highly coachable individual perceives that the organization is not invested in high performance practices, he or she may begin to take part in shirking or avoidance behaviors. Thus, in the presence of a low-quality coaching program, the highly coachable, yet dissatisfied, individual will likely emotionally withdraw and disengage from productive behaviors, consequently not exhibiting high levels of job performance. Yet, these same coachable individuals will likely have higher job performance outcomes if they are participating in a high-quality coaching program.

> **Hypothesis 2a:** *Coaching program quality and individual coachability will interact to predict job performance such that there will be higher job performance when individuals have high coachability in a high-quality program, but lower job performance when individuals with high coachability participate in a low-quality program.*

Finally, an individual with high coachability who's organization does not have a developmental coaching program, will still experience increased job performance. This may be a result of the highly coachable individual's established positive task and contextual performance behaviors. Based on the definition of individual coachability presented in Chapter 1, a highly coachable individual will be more goal-oriented, self-aware, accountable, and feedback seeking regardless of the presence of a coaching program. Therefore, without a developmental coaching program in place, the highly coachable individual will likely continue acting on these behaviors, which may produce an increase in job performance. Consequently, I hypothesize that when there is no coaching program present, job performance will be higher for individuals high in coachability than for those who are low in coachability.

> **Hypothesis 2b:** *When a workplace has no coaching program, job performance for those high in coachability will be higher than for those who are low in coachability.*

Employee Engagement

Engagement is defined as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (Kahn, 1990: 694). Kahn (1990) further states that engagement is the "simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active, full role performance" (700). Put simply, when individuals are engaged at work they exhibit all aspects of their full selves within the work role they are performing. Engaged individuals

are psychologically present, meaning they are open, attentive, connected, and focused when performing an organizational role (Kahn, 1992). Building on this, Rich et al. (2010) indicated that engagement is a more complete representation of the self than other job attitude constructs, stating that engagement is a simultaneous investment of intellectual, emotional, and physical energies into one's role performance. Thus, engagement is viewed as a multidimensional, higher-order, motivational construct (Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010; Christian et al., 2011).

Upon conception, researchers debated that engagement was simply a repackaging of similar constructs or putting "old wine in a new barrel" (Macey & Schneider, 2008). However, Christian et al. (2011) found that engagement exhibits discriminant validity from and criterion validity over job attitudes. The author's empirically distinguished job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement, concluding that "work engagement is unique although it shares conceptual space with job attitudes" (120). Christian et al. (2011) also state that engagement is a broader, holistic investment of personal energies into the execution one's of work, confirming Erickson's (2005) statement that "engagement is above and beyond simple satisfaction with the employment arrangement or basic loyalty to the employer" (14).

Previous research concludes that employee engagement creates a competitive advantage for organizations in that it is positively related to both task performance and conceptual performance (Rich et al. 2010; Christian et al. 2011). In their study of firefighters, Rich et al. (2010) found that engaged individuals invested energy in both the implementation of their job-related tasks and the creation of positive social contexts. In terms of task performance, an engaged employee, who is giving their full self to the

performance of a role, is more likely to execute technical processes more efficiently and effectively (Christian et al. 2011). In terms of contextual performance, an engaged individual is more likely to exhibit positive organizational behaviors, such as helping, courtesy, teamwork and voice, that can result in organizational effectiveness (Christian, 2011). More recently, Saks & Gruman (2014) proposed that performance variance is a consequence of employee engagement in that specific types of engagement will result in specific types of performance (e.g. employee task engagement will be strongly related to task performance). Overall, previous research empirically supports the notion that employee engagement positively influences job performance in that the more engaged the individual employee, the more of an increased organizational competitive advantage as a consequence of enhanced job performance (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich et al. 2010; Christian et al. 2011; Saks & Gruman 2014).

Hypothesis 3: *Coaching program quality will be positively related to employee engagement.*

Engagement continues to be important to practitioners, as an engaged employee tends to have a more positive attitude toward the organization and toward work in general. However, there is little research observing the relationship between developmental coaching programs and engagement. Crabb (2011) suggests that coaches can help identify employee strengths. Once identified, Crabb (2011) states that coaches then encourage employees to focus on these strengths, thereby fostering engagement. Ladyshewsky et al. (2017) observed a positive relationship between perceived managerial coaching and employee engagement, suggesting employees were more engaged when coaching was present. However, Ladyshewsky et al. (2017) mention that there was a

wide variation in coaching abilities of managers sampled and indicate that there need to

an investment in training managers to coach employee engagement. Yet again, the

literature establishing a relationship between developmental coaching programs and

employee engagement is lacking the involvement of the individual coachee.

For instance, an individual with high coachability, who participated in an

effective developmental coaching program, will likely experience increased employee

engagement. This may be due to the highly coachable individual receiving feedback that

encourages their "preferred self" emotionally, cognitively, and/or physically.

However, an individual with high coachability, who participates in an ineffective

developmental coaching program, will experience decreased employee engagement. This

could be due to the highly coachable individual receiving fruitless feedback messages in

opposition of "preferred self" emotionally, cognitively, and/or physically. If the highly

coachable individual perceives that the organization is not allowing them to express

themselves physically, cognitively, and/or emotionally during role performances, they

will become disengaged with the organization Therefore, in the presence of a low-quality

coaching program, the highly coachable individual will likely emotionally withdraw and

disengage from productive behaviors, consequently not exhibiting high levels employee

engagement. Yet, these same coachable individuals will likely have higher employee

engagement outcomes if they are participating in a high-quality coaching program.

> **Hypothesis 4a:** *Coaching program quality and individual coachability will*
>
> *interact to predict employee engagement such that there will be higher employee*
>
> *engagement when individuals have high coachability in a high-quality program,*

but lower employee engagement when individuals with high coachability

participate in a low-quality program.

Lastly, an individual with high coachability who's organization does not have a developmental coaching program, will experience increased employee engagement. This may be a result of the highly coachable individual's confidence in their "preferred self" in their work role. With no feedback, the highly coachable individual will likely continue performing their "preferred self" physically, cognitively, and/or emotionally. Consequently, I hypothesize that when there is no coaching program present, employee engagement will be higher for individuals high in coachability than for those who are low in coachability.

> **Hypothesis 4b:** *When a workplace has no coaching program, employee*
>
> *engagement for those high in coachability will be higher than for those who are*
>
> *low in coachability.*

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment (OC) is defined as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1979: 226). OC is an organic reciprocal process; when the individual employee feels supported by the organization they are more likely to feel a since of loyalty (Allen & Meyer, 1990). There must be effort from both the organization and the individual in order to retain a high level of commitment. Previous research links OC and social exchange theory. According to Blau (1964) social exchange theory studies the interactional behaviors between two parties by implementing a cost-benefit analysis to determine the advantages and disadvantages of a particular relationship. Simply, multiple factors

determine how individuals act or react in any given social context, including the individual's relationship with his or her employment organization. Grounded in social exchange theory, Allen & Meyer (1990) state that OC is a multidimensional construct that indicates the individual's affective attachment, perceived cost, and obligatory commitment to an organization.

Allen & Meyer (1990) conceptualized a three-component model of organizational commitment acknowledging the different psychological states reflected in organizational commitment. The first component, affective commitment, is considered "an emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990: 2). Affective commitment is an individual's choice to stay loyal to an organization due to a positive emotional connection. (Singh & Gupta, 2015). Broadly, the individual stays committed to the organization because they want to. The second component, continuance commitment, is essentially the cost-benefit analysis of the individual remaining employed with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). An individual's continuance commitment is determined by the perceived cost of leaving the organization. If the cost of leaving is too high, then the individual is likely to stay committed to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). According to Singh & Gupta (2015), individuals can have many reasons for continuance commitment, including tenure, authority, length of service, monetary investments, or organization specific skills. Essentially, an individual stays committed to the organization because they need to. The third component, normative commitment, encompasses the individual's perceived societal expectation or obligation to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Weiner (1982) suggests that individuals exhibit

commitment behaviors because they believe it is the "right" and "moral" thing to do

(421). An individual with normative commitment remains loyal to an organization due to

the concept of reciprocity; the individual is receiving compensation and feels the need to

repay the organization for the investment (Singh & Gupta, 2015). Basically, an individual

stays committed to the organization because they ought to. Though Allen & Meyer

(1990) found some conceptual overlap when studying these three components, the

authors determined that these dimensions are empirically separable. Allen & Meyer

(1990) established that affective, continuance, and normative commitment are separate

dimensions of organizational commitment.

Continuing their research on the three dimensions of organization commitment,

Meyer & Allen (1997) explored the notion that commitment is based on the

psychological state of the individual and his or her attitude toward the organization. In

researching antecedents of organizational commitment, the authors noted that a particular

variable could influence all three dimensions of OC depending on the perception of the

variable by the individual employees (Meyer & Allen (1997). Training opportunities are

an example of a variable that can influence affective, continuance, and normative

commitment. Training opportunities can be viewed as an acknowledgement of

organizational support (affective), a contractual benefit (continuance), or an individual

investment (normative) (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Dessler (1999) furthered this notion

suggesting that organizations who support employee development and provide

development activities are more likely to observe an increased level of commitment from

employees. Development activities and opportunities appeal to the individual's desire for

learning and growth and establishes a greater since of loyalty to the organization. More

recent studies have found that employee development practices significantly increase positive senses of well-being, overall job satisfaction, job performance, higher work efficiency and productivity, and perceived supervisory support which all establish an increase in organizational commitment (Bashir & Long, 2015; Gultek, et al., 2006; Lin, et al. 2011; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Satterfield & Hughes, 2007).

Hypothesis 5: *Coaching program quality will be positively related to organizational commitment.*

Utilizing coaching as an employee development activity continues to increase in popularity within the practitioner space (Cox et al., 2014). Previous research has established a relationship between coaching and organizational commitment (Woo, 2017; Park et al., 2020). Woo (2017) argues that effective managerial coaching can increase employee efficacy, satisfaction, and sense of belonging which all increase the employee's organizational commitment. Park et al. (2020) conclude that effective managerial coaching increases employees' organizational commitment by 36%. Both studies indicate an increase in satisfaction with their managers, indicating that the stronger the manager/employee relationship, the more committed the employee will be to the organization (Woo, 2017; Park et al., 2020). Though both studies produced significant empirical findings, they are largely rooted in the concept of the manager as a coach opposed to the individual receiving the coaching. As established in coaching literature, a manager is not necessarily a coach and a coach is not necessarily a manager (Cox et al., 2014). Also, both organizational commitment and individual coachability are rooted in the individual's psychological state, behaviors, and involvement yet previous research fails to recognize the individual's role in the relationship between managerial coaching

and organizational commitment. Research concerning organizational commitment and coaching establishes that there is an increase in organizational commitment due to effective managerial coaching (Woo, 2017; Park et al., 2020).

Nevertheless, researchers fail to view the impact of individual coachability on this relationship. For instance, an individual with high coachability, who participates in a high-quality coaching program from their organization, will likely have an even higher organizational commitment. This may be due to the highly coachable individual receiving complimentary feedback on their already established positive behaviors which may provoke an emotional, contractual, or obligatory response increasing their commitment to the organization.

However, an individual with high coachability, who participates in a low-quality coaching program, will have a lower organizational commitment. This could be due to the highly coachable individual receiving mixed feedback messages that go against their established positive behaviors. Based on the definition of individual coachability presented in Chapter 1, a highly coachable individual will likely exhibit characteristics associated with highly goal-oriented, self-aware, accountable, and feedback seeking individuals. Therefore, if the highly coachable individual perceives that the organization is failing to develop employees properly, especially themselves, this may decrease their organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6a: *Coaching program quality and individual coachability will interact to predict organizational commitment such that there will be higher organizational commitment when individuals have high coachability in a high-*

quality program, but lower organizational commitment when individuals with

high coachability participate in a low-quality program.

Lastly, an individual with high coachability, who receives no coaching, will have

a higher organizational commitment. This might be due to the highly coachable

individual no feedback on his or her established positive behaviors, such as their high

levels of goal-orientation, self-efficacy, and accountability. With no feedback, the highly

coachable individual will likely continue acting on these behaviors, which may produce

an increase in organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6b: *When a workplace has no coaching program, organizational*

commitment for those high in coachability will be higher than for those who are

low in coachability.

Methods

To appropriately observe the above hypotheses, I utilized experimental vignette

methodology, presenting three scenarios with varying "coaching" moments. According to

Aguinis and Bradley (2014) experimental vignette methodology "consists of presenting

participants with carefully constructed and realistic scenarios to access dependent

variables" (352). This methodology incorporates the manipulation and control of the

independent variables which enhances internal and external validity. Previous research

states that there are two major types of experimental vignette methodology; paper people

studies and policy capturing and joint analyses (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). For this study

I used the paper people study, which allow for accessing explicit processes and outcomes.

According to Aguinis and Bradley (2014) paper people studies "consist of presenting

participants with vignettes typically in written form and then asking participants to make

explicit decisions, judgements, and choices or express behavioral preferences" (354).

This experimental vignette is a between-person design, where each participant will read

only one scenario and comparisons will be made across participants (Artzmüller &

Steiner, 2010). I followed the best practices put forth by Aguinis and Bradly (2014) when

designing and implementing this experimental vignette study.

Manipulation

I utilized a vignette to manipulate three coaching scenarios; the presence of a

high-quality coaching program, the presence of a low-quality coaching program, and the

absence of a coaching program. This included creating a scenario in which a newly hired

department manager (the respondent) must discipline an employee (Riley) and to do so

he/she reaches out to their direct supervisor (Taylor) for support. Each scenario begins

with the exact same paragraphs explaining the current situation. However, the type of

support given by the direct supervisor was manipulated to reflect the quality of the

coaching program.

In the high-quality coaching program scenario, respondents are given the

definition of a developmental coaching program; developmental coaching is a continual

interaction between the coach and the coachee in which the coach imparts constructive

assessment, feedback, and implementation while facilitating the coachee's desired

improvement (Hunt & Weintraub, 2002; Agarwal et al., 2009; Cox & Jackson, 2014). I

then crafted a description of the developmental coaching program that emphasized high

quality in the behaviors and actions of the direct supervisor (coach) on the newly hired

department manager (with whom the respondents are asked to identify) based on the

definition of individual coachability established in Chapter 1. Next, using the six steps of

best practices laid forth by Cummings and Worley (2008) for a developmental coaching

program, I emphasized these to increase the quality of the coaching interaction in which

the direct supervisor (Taylor) coaches the newly hired department manager (the

respondent) through process of disciplining the employee (Riley).

In the low-quality coaching program scenario, respondents were also given the

definition of a developmental coaching program. However, in this scenario, the coaching

relationship is between the direct supervisor and the newly hired department manager, is

lacking. Though the direct supervisor is helpful, the approach is mostly "hands off" and

the majority of communication is done via email. Again, there is an interaction between

the direct supervisor and the newly hired department manager regarding the disciplinary

actions of the employee, however this interaction is directive opposed to interactive.

In the third scenario, there is no mention of coaching. The newly hired department

manager asks for help (regarding the employee's disciplinary issue) from direct

supervisor because of his/her organizational status. The interaction is brief, with

instruction of where to find the company policy and the necessary paperwork.

All three scenarios conclude with the same statement regarding the disciplinary

action taken with the employee. The full vignettes for this study can be found in

Appendix D.

Pilot Study

Before conducting the main data collection, a pilot study was conducted to

determine the effectiveness of the manipulation in the experimental design. The pilot

study asked individuals about the realism and quality of the scenarios, whether the

scenario given presented a coaching program, and if they perceived a coaching

interaction had occurred. The pilot study also collected relevant demographic information. To simulate collecting data from emerging professionals, students enrolled in an upper-level training, development, and coaching course at a southern university participated in the pilot study. The three scenarios and accompanying questionnaire were administered randomly during a class period by the course instructor. Of the 33 students that participated, 3% were of sophomore standing, 33% were of junior standing, and 64% were of senior standing. 64% of the students reported "management" as their major study program. 82% of the students reported previous work experience and 24% reported having participated in an internship, with 33% having participated in a coaching program through their job or internship. 100% of the students reported a complete understanding of the experiment's directions and 94% reported that the scenarios were realistic. When asked if the scenario included a coaching program, 46% reported yes, 30% reported no, and 24% reported not sure. When asked if they received coaching within the scenario, 40% reported yes, 46% reported no, and 15% reported not sure. However, after further examining the data reported, several conflicting answers were noted, such as marking that the scenario had a high-quality coaching program, but that they did not receive coaching. The data and feedback from this pilot study were then used to formulate the scenarios and questionnaire for the main data collection.

Measures

I asked participants to imagine the situation as vividly as possible, putting themselves into the scenario given. Participants were instructed to read the given scenario and answer a series of survey questions. The participants were instructed to assess on a Likert-type scale to which they agree with each statement from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5

(strongly agree). The final measure of individual coachability from the Chapter 2, Study 2 was used to assess individual coachability. Job performance was measured using Williams & Anderson's (1991) 21-item scale (α= .91) (a sample item is: "Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description"). Employee engagement was measured using Rich, Lepine, and Crawford's (2010) 18-item scale (α= .95) (a sample item is: "I exert my full effort to my job"). Organizational commitment was assessed using Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) 15-item scale (α= .90) (a sample item is: "I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar"). These scales were chosen because they are highly valid, published scales that have been commonly used to measure their respective constructs though out management literature.

Participants and Procedures

According to Aiman-Smith et al. (2002), to produce quality data with experimental vignette methodology, I need to survey a large population of interest. Previous research states that the more respondents who represent the population of interest, the higher the external validity will be (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). With this in mind, I collected a sample size of 320 responses from emerging professionals within the College of Business at a southern university. Qualtrics was used to administer the survey due to its reliability (Bajaba et al., 2018; Courtright et al., 2016; DeCelles et al., 2012). Of the original 320 responses, 66 responses were deemed unusable for failing the attention check stating "please respond 'strongly disagree' for this item". This attention check was incorporated into the questionnaire to eliminate biased observations (Meade & Craig, 2012). This resulted in 254 usable responses providing complete data.

The data for the sample was collected from upper level business students at a university in the southern United States. The goal of the study is to observe the attitudes of emerging professionals, or those individuals about to join the professional workforce, in an effort to provide practitioners the knowledge on how to better coach these individuals. I collected from students in an effort to fulfill this goal. The sample was 51% male and the self-reported race or ethnicity was 82% Caucasian/White. The majority of respondents had at least a senior educational standing (65%), no management experience (59%), and had some level of job experience (94%).

Analyses

First, I conducted a correlation analysis to get an estimate of the relationships between the constructs of interest in which their means, standard deviations, and reliabilities were calculated using IBM's SPSS software statistical package. Second, I tested my direct effect hypotheses using a regression analysis and an analysis of variance to evaluate the relationship between the quality of coaching program and the dependent variables (job performance, employee engagement, organizational commitment). Third, I tested my moderation hypotheses by utilizing Model 1 in the PROCESS macro by Hayes (2013, 2017) to determine significant effects among the quality of coaching program, individual coachability, and the dependent variables (job performance, employee engagement, organizational commitment).

Results

Table 8 shows the means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and zero order correlations between the constructs and demographic variables. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability of each of the scales was above a 0.70, indicating their reliabilities as construct.

The constructs also relate in expected ways. For example, Individual Coachability is positively correlated with job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment.

Job Performance

Hypothesis 1 stated that the level of quality of a developmental coaching program will be positively related to job performance. I conducted an ANOVA in SPSS, with quality of coaching as the independent variable and job performance as the dependent variable, to analyze the direct effect in Hypothesis 1. With that, I found that the quality of the developmental coaching program was not statistically significantly related to job performance F (2,250) = 1.705, p = 0.184. With the standard of a 95% confidence interval, Hypothesis 1 is not supported.

Hypothesis 2a stated that coaching program quality and individual coachability will interact to predict job performance, such that there will be higher job performance when individuals have high coachability in a high-quality program, but lower job performance when individuals with high coachability participate in a low-quality program. To best observe the interaction between job performance and individual coachability, I used Model 1 within the PROCESS macro for SPSS. When comparing the high-quality coaching program to the low-quality coaching program, the interaction is not significant, b = -0.3458, 95% CI [-0.7600, 0.0686], t = -1.6482, p = 0.1013, indicating that the relationship between the quality of the coaching program and job performance is not moderated by individual coachability. However, with a less stringent confidence interval of 90%, there is support for an interaction between the quality of coaching program and individual coachability on job performance.

Table 8

Chapter 3 Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Zero-Order Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Individual Coachability	4.238	0.405	**0.878**							
2. Job Performance	3.837	0.544	.190**	**0.731**						
3. Employee Engagement	3.768	0.993	.206**	.542**	**0.954**					
4. Organizational Commitment	3.626	0.988	.154*	.508**	.747**	**0.926**				
5. Gender	1.295	0.633	0.055	.131*	0.053	-0.018	-			
6. Job Experience	5.406	2.664	0.068	0.020	0.061	0.038	-0.083	-		
7. Management Experience	1.590	0.493	-0.115	0.047	0.006	0.062	0.120	-0.055	-	
8. Educational Standing	3.649	0.636	-0.026	-0.031	-0.078	-0.023	-0.050	-0.062	-0.116	-

Note: $N = 251$ Coefficient alpha reliabilities appear in the diagonals. Gender (0 = Other, 1 = Male, 2 = Female); Job Experience (1 = never had a job, 2 = currently works <20 hours a week, 3 = currently works <20 hours a week & had previous job, 4 = currently works <20 hours a week & had internship, 5 = currently works <20 hours a week & ROTC, 6 = currently works >20 hours a week, 7 = currently works >20 hours a week & had internship, 8 = had previous job but currently not working, 9 = had previous job and current U.S. Military, 10 = participated in an internship, 11 = current U.S. Military); Management Experience (1 = Some Management Experience, 2 = No Management Experience); Educational Standing (1 = freshman, 2 = sophomore, 3 = junior, 4 = senior, 5 = more than senior)

**p <. 01; *p < .05., two-tailed.

Hypothesis 2b states that when a workplace has no coaching program, job performance for those high in coachability will be higher than for those who are low in coachability. Using the corresponding low, mean, and high values (low being one standard deviation below the mean and high being one standard deviation above the mean) of individual coachability scores from the PROCESS output, I created a slope graph to observe job performance and coachability among all three scenarios, with Scenario 1 including the presence of a high-quality coaching program, Scenario 2 including the presence of a low-quality coaching program, and Scenario 3 not including any coaching program presence. The resulting graph is show in Figure 3. The graph shows that when the workplace has no coaching program (Scenario 3), job performance for those high in coachability (3.8861) is higher than for those in low coachability (3.7525) at $p<0.05$, thus resulting in the significance of Hypothesis 2b.
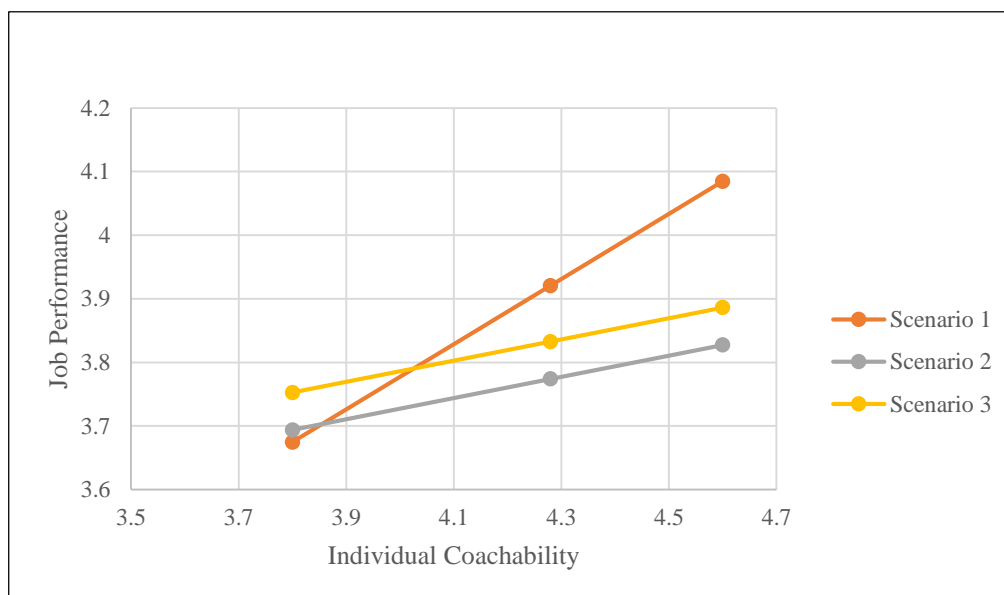

Figure 3: *Regression of individual coachability on job performance for all three scenarios ($p < 0.05$)*

The lack of significant findings for Hypothesis 2a, was likely due to lower power. In an effort to examine a less fine-grained interaction, I performed a median split on individual coachability to observe it as a high/low variable. Using a regression analysis and multiple comparisons in SPSS, I found there to be marginal significance ($p = 0.075$, $p<0.05$) between a high-quality coaching program and a low-quality coaching program when observing individual coachability as a dichotomous variable. However, when comparing a high-quality coaching program to no program ($p = 0.177$) and the low-quality coaching program to no program ($p = 0.644$), no significance was found at $p<0.05$. Figure 4 depicts the interaction of job performance and high/low individual coachability across all three scenarios.
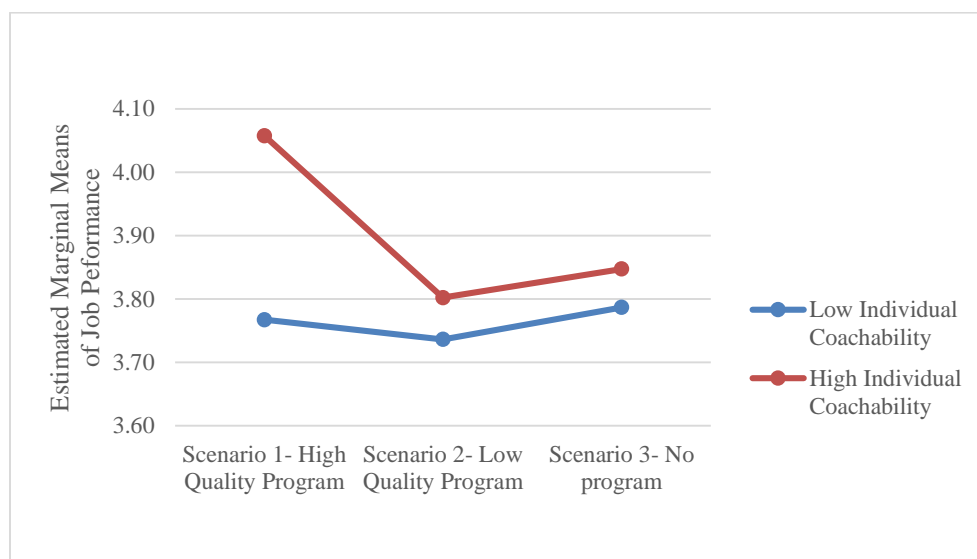

Figure 4: *Estimates marginal means of job performance (p<0.05) when individual coachability is median split*

Employee Engagement

Hypothesis 3 stated that the level of quality of a developmental coaching program will be positively related to employee engagement. Again, I conducted an ANOVA in SPSS, with quality of coaching as the employee engagement and job performance as the dependent variable, I analyzed the direct effect in Hypothesis 3. With that, I found that the quality of the developmental coaching program was statistically significantly related to employee engagement F (2,251) = 4.865, p = 0.008. With the standard of a 95% confidence interval, Hypothesis 3 is supported (see Figure 5).
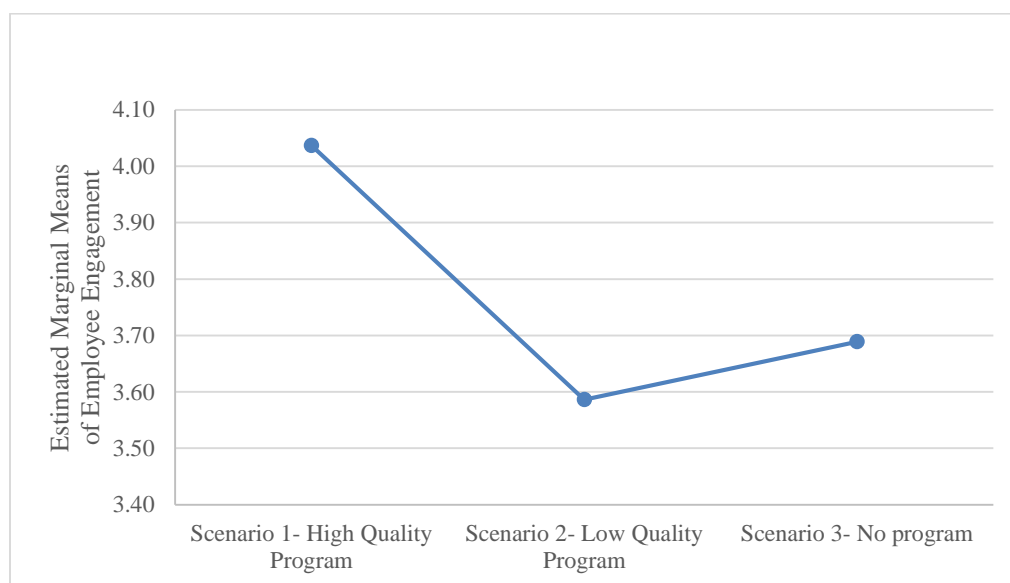

Figure 5: *Estimated marginal means of employee engagement*

Hypothesis 4a stated that coaching program quality and individual coachability will interact to predict employee engagement such that there will be higher employee engagement when individuals have high coachability in a high-quality program, but lower employee engagement when individuals with high coachability participate in a low-quality program. To best observe the interaction between employee engagement and

individual coachability, I used Model 1 within the PROCESS macro for SPSS. When

comparing the high-quality coaching program to the low-quality coaching program, the

interaction is not significant, b = -0.5425, 95% CI [-1.2901, 0.2051], t = -1.4330, p =

0.1538, indicating a lack of support for an interaction between the quality of the coaching

program and individual coachability to predict employee engagement. However, with a

less stringent confidence interval of 90%, there is moderate support for an interaction

between the quality of coaching program and individual coachability on employee

engagement. Using this looser requirement, the graph of the interaction is in the predicted

direction.

Hypothesis 4b states that when a workplace has no coaching program, employee

engagement for those high in coachability will be higher than for those who are low in

coachability. Using the corresponding low, mean, and high values (low being one

standard deviation below the mean and high being one standard deviation above the

mean) of individual coachability scores from the PROCESS output, I created a slope

graph to observe employee engagement and coachability among all three scenarios, with

Scenario 1 including the presence of a high-quality coaching program, Scenario 2

including the presence of a low-quality coaching program, and Scenario 3 not including

any coaching program presence. The resulting graph, shown in Figure 6, indicates

support for this hypothesis. The graph shows that when the workplace has no coaching

program (Scenario 3), employee engagement for those high in coachability (3.9179) is

higher than for those in low coachability (3.5053), thus resulting in significance of
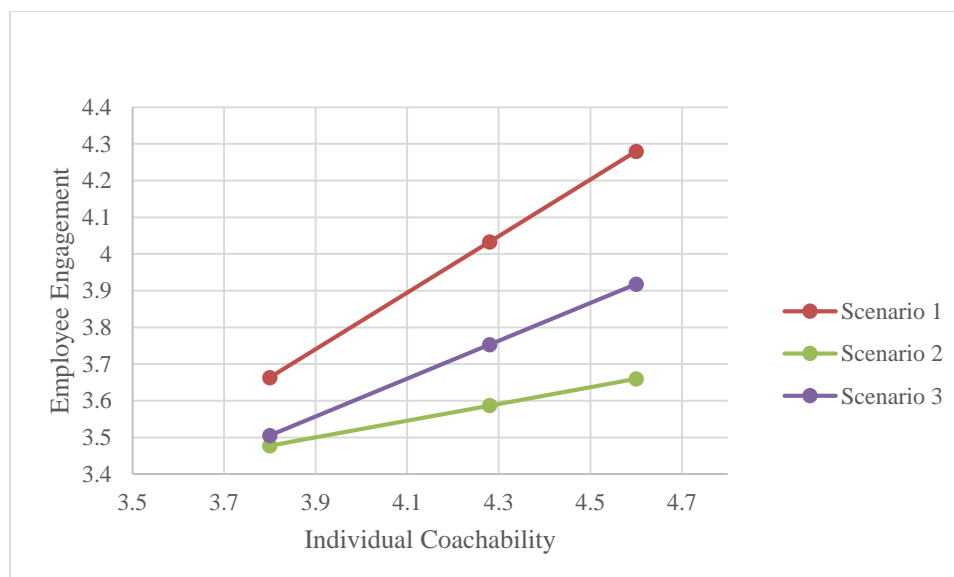
$p<0.05$ for Hypothesis 4b.

Figure 6: *Regression of individual coachability on employee engagement for all three scenarios (p < 0.05)*

Due to the lack of significant findings for Hypothesis 4a, I again median split individual coachability to observe it as a high/low variable. Using a regression analysis and multiple comparisons in SPSS, I found there to be significance ($p = 0.003$, $p<0.05$) between a high-quality coaching program and a low-quality coaching program when observing individual coachability as a dichotomous variable. Also, there was significance when comparing a high-quality coaching program to no program ($p = 0.020$, $p<0.05$). However, when comparing the low-quality coaching program to no program ($p = 0.487$), no significance was found at $p<0.05$. Figure 7 depicts the interaction of job performance and high/low individual coachability across all three scenarios.
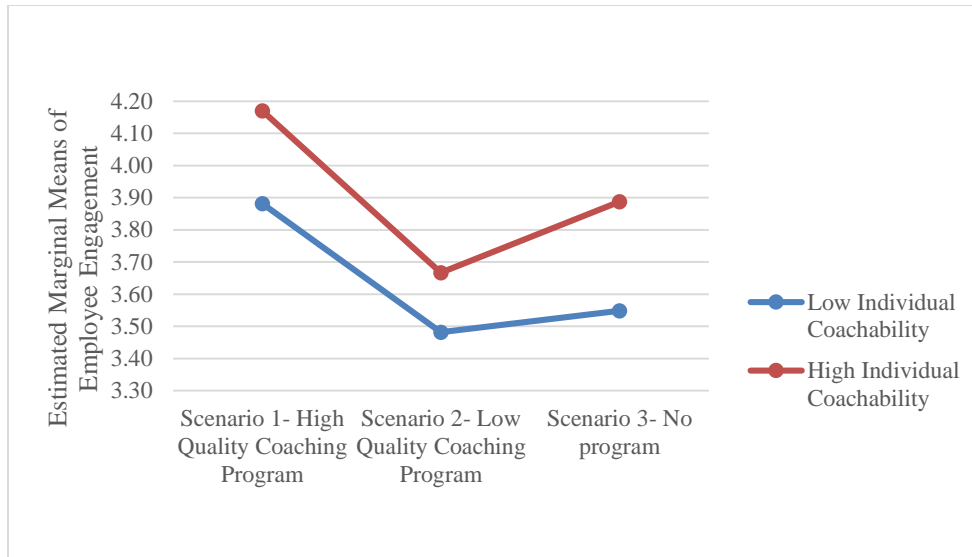
Figure 7: *Estimates marginal means of employee engagement (p<0.05) when individual coachability is median split*

Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 5 stated that the level of quality of a developmental coaching program will be positively related to organizational commitment. Again, I conducted an ANOVA in SPSS, with quality of coaching as the independent variable and organizational commitment as the dependent variable, I analyzed the direct effect in Hypothesis 5. With that, I found that the quality of the developmental coaching program was statistically significantly related to organizational commitment $F(2,251) = 4.865, p < 0.001$. With the standard of a 95% confidence interval, Hypothesis 5 is supported (Figure 8).
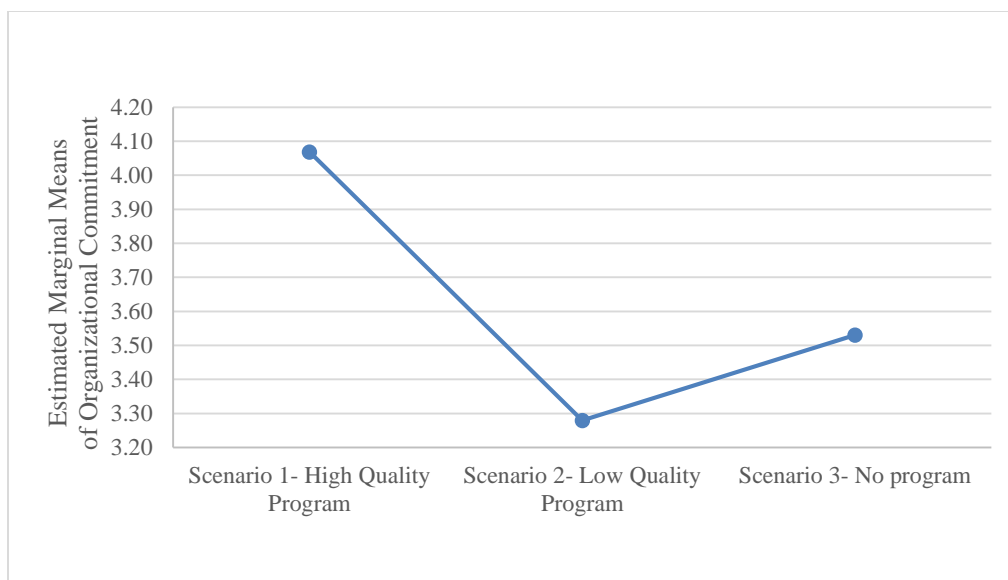
Figure 8: *Estimated marginal means of organizational commitment*

Hypothesis 6a stated that coaching program quality and individual coachability will interact to predict organizational commitment such that there will be higher organizational commitment when individuals have high coachability in a high-quality program, but lower organizational commitment when individuals with high coachability participate in a low-quality program. To best observe the interaction between employee engagement and individual coachability, I used Model 1 within the PROCESS macro for SPSS. When comparing the high-quality coaching program to the low-quality coaching program, the interaction is not significant, $b = -0.4059$, 95% CI [-1.1350, 0.3232], $t = -1.0994$, $p = 0.2732$, indicating that the relationship between the quality of the coaching program and organizational commitment is not moderated by individual coachability. Even with a less stringent confidence interval of 90%, there is no support for an interaction between the quality of coaching program and individual coachability on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6b states that when a workplace has no coaching program, organizational commitment for those high in coachability will be higher than for those who are low in coachability. Using the corresponding low, mean, and high values (low being one standard deviation below the mean and high being one standard deviation above the mean) of individual coachability scores from the PROCESS output, I created a slope graph to observe organizational commitment and coachability among all three scenarios, with Scenario 1 including the presence of a high-quality coaching program, Scenario 2 including the presence of a low-quality coaching program, and Scenario 3 not including any coaching program presence. The resulting graph is show in Figure 9. The graph shows that when the workplace has no coaching program (Scenario 3), employee engagement for those high in coachability (3.6577) is higher than for those in low coachability (3.4280), thus resulting in the significance at p<0.05 of Hypothesis 5b.
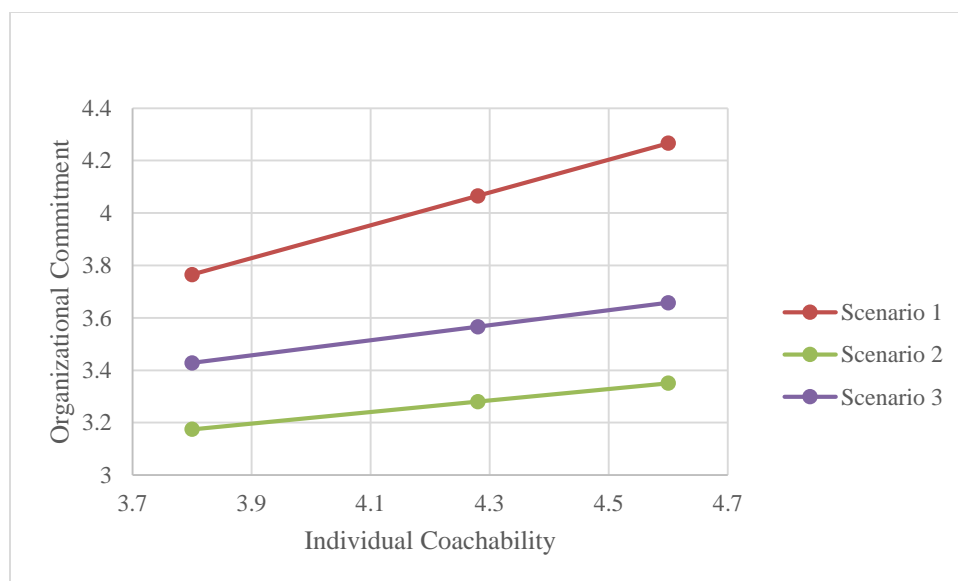

Figure 9: *Regression of individual coachability on organizational commitment for all three scenarios (p < 0.05)*

Due to the lack of significant findings for Hypothesis 6a, I again median split individual coachability to observe it as a high/low variable. Using a regression analysis and multiple comparisons in SPSS, I found there to be significance ($p<0.001$) between a high-quality coaching program and a low-quality coaching program when observing individual coachability as a dichotomous variable. Also, there was significance when comparing a high-quality coaching program to no program ($p<0.001$). and when comparing the low-quality coaching program to no program ($p<0.001$). Figure 10 depicts the interaction of job performance and high/low individual coachability across all three scenarios.
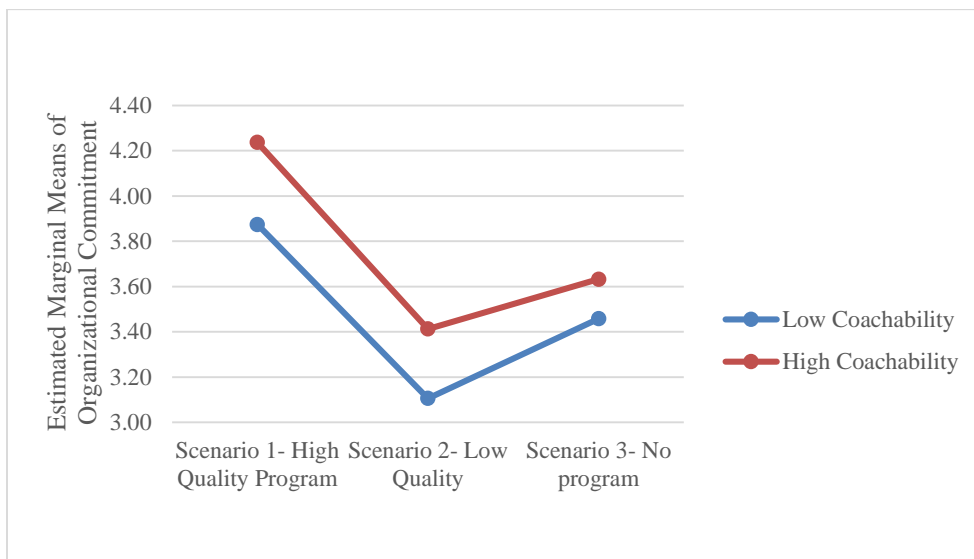

Figure 10: *Estimates marginal means of organizational commitment when individual coachability is median split ($p<0.05$)*

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this dissertation was to establish a theory of coachability by defining individual coachability and empirically evaluating its elements. In Chapter 1, theory development began with both inductive and deductive approaches, resulting in the establishment of a need for a theory of individual coachability. Through a rigorous literature review, I then establish that goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability are important elements of individual coachability and defined individual coachability as "the degree to which an individual seeks a desirable and sustainable change, integrating goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability". In Chapter 2, I developed a theoretically comprehensive measure of coachability that could be used in any workplace coaching situation. Separate datasets of working individuals were used for an exploratory factor analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis. This resulted in a final 25-item individual coachability scale. The scale demonstrated convergent validity, but did not exhibit strong discriminant validity with other scales. However, the current scale has advantages over the two existing coachability scales. In Chapter 3, using experimental vignette methodology, I examined the interaction of coaching program quality and individual coachability to predict three organizational outcomes; job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment. Data were collected from emerging professionals at a regional university in the southern United

States. All six hypotheses were subjected to regression and moderation testing using IBM's statistical software packages to determine statistical significance.

Summary of Findings

In an effort to expand coaching research beyond its current scope, an individual coachability scale was created based on the theoretical underpinnings discussed in Chapter 1. Following Hinkin's (1995;1998) steps for scale development, 31 items were chosen for the initial individual coachability scale in Study 1. Twenty-two of these items were chosen from existing literatures on goal orientation (8 items), self-efficacy (10 items), and feedback (4 items), whereas 9 items were created to represent accountability (4 items) and willingness to change (5 items). Thus, this scale was conceptualized as a second-order construct. An exploratory factor analyses (EFA), using maximum likelihood extraction and oblimin rotation, was conducted to establish evidence of factor structure and consistency of the individual coachability scale, resulting in a four-factor model. A reliability analysis was also conducted on the individual coachability scale resulting in a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.954, which established internal consistency per Nunnally's (1978) standards for newly developed scales.

Study 2 was intended to establish Individual Coachability as a second-order factor and assess its convergent and discriminant validity. The findings of Study 2 in Chapter 2 suggest that the 25 items that represent the construct of individual coachability are better represented as a first-order construct rather than the hypothesized second-order construct. Theory developed in Chapter 1 proposed that individual coachability manifests in the exhibition of its attributes (goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback seeking, accountability, willingness to change). Theoretically, an individual who scores high in individual

coachability is someone who is also goal oriented, feedback seeking, self-aware and self-confident, accountable, and willing to change. However, the results of the chi-square difference test show that individual coachability is indeed a combination of its first-order constructs. Although testing did not support the initial hypothesis of a second-order construct, the individual coachability scale demonstrated high internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .954$). Thus, I continued analysis of it as a single scale.

In Study 2, the individual coachability scale was found to exhibit convergent validity. Individual coachability was highly positively correlated with the full measures of learning goal orientation (Button et al., 1996), self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995), value from feedback seeking (Ashford, 1986). Individual coachability was also highly correlated with both the accountability and willingness to change scales developed for this project. However, individual coachability was not correlated with performance goal orientation (Button et al., 1996) and was negatively correlated with risk in feedback seeking (Ashford, 1986). The lack of correlation between individual coachability and performance goal orientation is understandable in that performance goal orientation views ability as a fixed attribute (Button et al., 1996; VandeWalle, 1997) and individual coachability centers on the continual growth of an individual's ability. It is also not surprising that individual coachability was negatively correlated with risk in feedback seeking because a highly coachable individual does not perceive the act of receiving feedback as a risk, but more of a way to continually develop.

I sought to establish discriminant validity by comparing scores on my Individual Coachability scale with two coachability scales that exist in the literature. Unfortunately, discriminant validity was not established between the current study's scale and those

published in Shannahan et al. (2013) and Johnson et al. (2021). However, the individual

coachability scale established in Study 2 is preferable to both Shannahan et al. (2013) and

Johnson et al.'s (2021) coachability scales for a number of reasons. Notably, Shannahan

et al.'s (2013) scale is written specifically for marketing sales team members and their

managers in an effort to explain sales performance variation. The scale is rooted in the

notion of helping sales managers better coach their sales team members in a "personal

selling context". This scale is also limited in that it only observed individuals in the

health care sales industry who worked in an outside sales environment. The individual

coachability scale established in Study 2 can be utilized across industries and disciplines

as it is not unique to a specific field of study. Also, data for Study 2 were collected from

individuals working in a variety of full-time roles across many industries, opposed on

only one group of individuals from one specific industry. Lastly, Shannahan et al.'s

(2013) scale focuses heavily on the salesperson's relationship with his/her manager and

sales team. However, coachability is established as an individual trait, focusing on the

individual's receptivity (or lack thereof) to specific instances opposed to relational

activities with other individuals (managers, coworkers, team members, etc.). Essentially,

an individual high in coachability will exhibit those traits regardless of the individuals

surrounding them. Owing to these factors, it would not be appropriate to simply alter the

wording of the items in the Shannahan et al. (2013) scale to be more general.

On the other hand, Johnson et al's (2021) coachability scale, though more broadly

focused, exhibits similar issues. Because the authors define coachability as "a tendency to

be comfortable working with and willing to learn from a coach (Johnson et al. 2021 p.

585), seven of the 13 items focus on the interpersonal impact from a coach. Again,

individual coachability is not defined by other people or relationships as it is an individual trait. For reference, the individual coachability scale established in Study 2 does not have any items centered on the individual's relationship with another person. Johnson et al. (2021) also focus heavily on "comfort with coaching" stating that "an effective coaching relationship requires a high level of comfort" and that it is "difficult to establish trust" if the coachee is uncomfortable in the relationship (p.591). Though this may be true, a person's individual coachability should not hinge on his or her relationship with a coach. A high in extraversion individual does not only exhibit extraverted behaviors when surrounded by a group of people (Lucas et al., 2000). Similarly, a high in coachability individual does not only exhibit coachability behaviors when surrounded by a coach. Also, problematic is of the 13 items in Johnson et al.'s (2021) coachability scale, 8 of them (62%) are reverse coded. It is known that reverse coded items can result in unnecessary complexity, respondent confusion, and inattention (Sonderen et al. 2013). For instance, all of Johnson et al.'s (2021) items concerning feedback are reverse coded with no specific explanation for creating the items to be negatively worded. Conversely, the individual coachability scale established in Study 2 does not include any reverse coded items. Although discriminant validity was not established, the individual coachability scale established in Chapter 2, Study 2, still presented high internal consistency reliability and conceptual differences from both Shannahan et al.'s (2013) and Johnson et al.'s (2021) coachability scales. Therefore, this newly established scale was used in Chapter 3 to establish whether or not individual coachability influenced the relationship between the quality of a developmental coaching program and various organizational outcomes.

To further explore the impact of the newly formed theory of individual coachability and individual coachability scale, I conducted an experiment, using experimental vignette methodology, to explore the impact of individual coachability on the relationship between the quality of an organization's developmental coaching program and the organizational outcomes of job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment. First, I utilized a vignette to manipulate three coaching scenarios; the presence of a high quality developmental coaching program, the presence of a low quality developmental coaching program, and the absence of any coaching program. These three scenarios were then assessed by conducting a pilot study to determine the effectiveness of the manipulation. The results of pilot study indicated that each vignette was easy to understand and presented a realistic and quality scenario. The data collected from the pilot study was then used to finalize each scenario and respective questionnaire for the main data collection.

Hypotheses 1, 2a, and 2b examine the relationships between the quality of the developmental coaching program, individual coachability, and job performance. In Hypothesis 1, I posited that the quality of the developmental coaching program would be positively related to job performance. However, the results indicated that there was no statistical significance at both the 95% and 90% confidence intervals. Initially, for Hypothesis 2a, I believed that the developmental coaching program quality would interact with job performance to reveal that individuals high in coachability would have high job performance in a high-quality program, but lower job performance in a low-quality coaching program. However, Hypothesis 2a was also found not significant at both the 95% and 90% confidence intervals. Hypothesis 2b investigated the effects of

individual coachability when no developmental coaching program is present. Hypothesis 2b was significant, indicating that when a workplace has no coaching program, individuals who are higher in coachability exhibit higher job performance than those lower in coachability. Because of the lack of significance for Hypothesis 2a, I performed a median split on the individual coachability data, separating it into a high/low dichotomous variable. Though median splits often add error and reduce power (DeCoster et al., 2011), I wanted to further examine if there was any evidence of an individual coachability interaction. When individual coachability is median split, there is marginal significance between Scenario 1, a high quality developmental coaching program, and Scenario 2, a low-quality developmental coaching program. This finding establishes that a highly coachable individual will exhibit higher job performance when there is the presence of a high-quality developmental coaching program, but will exhibit lower job performance in a low-quality coaching program. Also, there is a notable drop in job performance between a high-quality coaching program and a low-quality coaching program for both high and low individual coachability. This indicates that regardless of individual coachability, it is better to have a high-quality developmental coaching program than a low-quality coaching program. Essentially, a low-quality coaching program negatively affects job performance, especially if the individual is high in coachability.

Hypotheses 3, 4a, and 4b examine the relationships between the quality of the developmental coaching program, individual coachability, and employee engagement. In Hypothesis 3, I posited that the quality of the developmental coaching program would be positively related to employee engagement and results indicated this to be true. Employee

engagement is at its highest when a high-quality coaching program is present and lowest when a low-quality coaching program is present. Also, employee engagement is higher when there is no program present opposed to when a low-quality coaching program is present, suggesting that is it better to have no coaching program than to have a low-quality coaching program. Hypothesis 4a tested the moderating effect of individual coachability on the quality of the developmental coaching program and employee engagement. Originally, for Hypothesis 4a, I believed that the developmental coaching program quality would interact with employee engagement to reveal that individuals high in coachability would have high engagement in a high-quality program, but lower engagement in a low-quality coaching program. Hypothesis 4a was found insignificant at the $p<0.05$ but marginally significant $p<0.1$ levels. Hypothesis 4b investigated the effects of individual coachability when no developmental coaching program is present. Hypothesis 4b was significant, indicating that when a workplace has no coaching program, individuals who are higher in coachability exhibit higher employee engagement than those lower in coachability. Because of the lack of significance for Hypothesis 4a, I again performed a median split on the individual coachability data, separating it into a high/low dichotomous variable. When individual coachability is median split, there is significance between Scenario 1, a high-quality developmental coaching program, and Scenario 2, a low-quality developmental coaching program. There is also significance between Scenario 1, a high-quality coaching program, and Scenario 3, no program presence. As presented in Figure 7, this established that a highly coachable individual will exhibit higher employee engagement when there is the presence of a high-quality developmental coaching program but will exhibit lower employee engagement in a low-

quality coaching program. This also established that a highly coachable individual will exhibit higher levels of employee engagement when there is the presence of a high quality developmental coaching program than when there is no coaching program present. Also, as represented in Figure 7, there is a notable drop in employee engagement between a high-quality coaching program and a low-quality coaching program for both high and low individual coachability. This indicates that regardless of individual coachability, it is better to have a high-quality developmental coaching program than a low-quality coaching program. It is also better to have a high-quality coaching program than no program at all. This echoes the findings of Hypothesis 3 in that the quality of the developmental coaching program effects employee engagement. Also, it should be noted that a highly coachable individual in a scenario where no developmental coaching program is present, still exhibits higher employee engagement than an individual with low coachability in a high-quality coaching program. This is likely due to the aforementioned attributes of a highly coachable individual that lead to them feeling more engaged at work.

Hypotheses 5, 6a, and 6b examine the relationships between the quality of the developmental coaching program, individual coachability, and organizational commitment. In Hypothesis 5, I posited that the quality of the developmental coaching program would be positively related to organizational commitment and results indicated this to be correct. Organizational commitment is at its highest when a high-quality coaching program is present and lowest when a low-quality coaching program is present. Also, organizational commitment is higher when there is no program present opposed to when a low-quality coaching program is present. Similar to Hypothesis 3, the findings of

Hypothesis 5 suggests that is it better to have no coaching program than to have a low-quality coaching program. Hypothesis 6a tested the moderating effect of individual coachability on the quality of the developmental coaching program and organizational commitment. Initially, for Hypothesis 6a, I believed that the developmental coaching program quality would interact with organizational commitment to reveal that individuals high in coachability would have high commitment in a high-quality program, but lower commitment in a low-quality coaching program. However, Hypothesis 6a was found insignificant at both the 95% and 90% confidence intervals. Hypothesis 6b was significant, indicating that when a workplace has no coaching program, individuals who are higher in coachability exhibit higher organizational commitment than those lower in coachability. Because of the lack of significance for Hypothesis 6a, I again performed a median split on the individual coachability data, separating it into a high/low dichotomous variable. When individual coachability is median split, there is significance between Scenario 1, a high-quality developmental coaching program, and Scenario 2, a low-quality developmental coaching program. There is also significance between Scenario 1, a high-quality coaching program, and Scenario 3, no program presence. Additionally, there is marginal significance between Scenario 2 and Scenario 3. This established that a highly coachable individual will exhibit higher organizational commitment when there is the presence of a high-quality developmental coaching program but will exhibit lower organizational commitment in a low-quality coaching program. This also established that a highly coachable individual will exhibit higher levels of organizational commitment when there is the presence of a high quality developmental coaching program than when there is no coaching program present.

Lastly, this moderately suggests that a highly coachable individual will exhibit higher levels or organizational commitment when no coaching program is present then when a low-quality coaching program is present. Furthermore, there is a notable drop in organizational commitment between a high-quality coaching program and a low-quality coaching program for both high and low individual coachability. This indicates that regardless of individual coachability, it is better to have a high-quality developmental coaching program than a low-quality coaching program, a high-quality coaching program than no program at all, and no program than a low-quality coaching program. This echoes the findings of Hypothesis 5 in that the quality of the developmental coaching program effects organizational commitment. However, it is still represented within each scenario that a highly coachable individual will exhibit higher levels of organizational commitment then an individual low in coachability.

Though the moderation analyses using individual coachability as a continuous variable did not render significant results, the subsequent findings of Chapter 3 present intriguing conclusions to be followed-up with future research.

Contributions

This dissertation presents multiple theoretical contributions. First, it introduces a new comprehensive theoretical perspective of individual coachability as it sheds light on the importance of the individual within the coaching conversation. Previous literature often disregards the individual's perspective when assessing coaching for business practices. When individual coachability is assessed in the literature, there are conflicting views on what actually makes an individual coachable. By employing both a practitioner perspective of coachability and a meticulous review of existing literatures, I establish that

individual coachability manifests in the exhibition of four critical elements; learning goal orientation, self-efficacy, feedback seeking, and accountability. This advances the academic literature on coaching in that there are currently no robust theories of individual coachability.

I also establish a comprehensive definition of individual coachability for operationalization across all disciplines of study. Previous research efforts have marginalized individual coachability by creating theory, definitions, and measures for specific only to the respective study, making them difficult to utilize across research disciplines. I define coachability as the degree to which an individual seeks a desirable and sustainable change, integrating goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback, and accountability, which can be utilized in all realms of research. Rooted in this newly created theory and definition, this dissertation introduces a highly reliable and theoretically distinct measure of individual coachability. Though there are other individual coachability measures in the literature, my individual coachability scale is different in that it is completely focused on the individual. Other coachability measures focus heavily on an outsider's assumption (i.e. coach, manager, investor, etc.) of the individual's coachability without considering the individual's distinct attributes that may not always appear. To my knowledge, the scale created in this dissertation is the first to include both academic theory and practitioner perspective in its creation.

Third, this dissertation provides some empirical support for the newly established scale and its use in assessing organizational outcomes through experimentation. When using individual coachability as a dichotomous variable, highly coachable emerging professionals were found to exhibit higher levels job performance, employee

engagement, and organizational commitment than their peers who are lower in coachability when a high-quality coaching program is present. Also, for employee engagement and organizational commitment, there is statistical evidence that shows it is better to have no developmental coaching program in place than a low-quality coaching program. Essentially, it is better to go through the process of either implementing a high-quality coaching program or not having one at all, as a low-quality coaching program will lead to lower levels of employee engagement and organizational commitment. This presents a foundation from which to extend individual coachability research in relation to organizational outcomes and the components of developmental coaching programs.

This dissertation may also have implications outside of the management literature. Specifically, the theory developed in Chapter 1 and the individual coachability scale developed in Chapter 2 will translate into academic literature surrounding athletics. Often times we see players with outrageous athletic talent, but they have trouble with their coaches, in the locker rooms, and even outside the organization. The individual coachability scale can be used to assess an athlete's individual coachability. Coaches and staff can use those results to further assess the athlete and coach them appropriately. This dissertation also lends itself to any discipline in which a dyadic interaction is key to the conducting of business. For instance, in many trade-based industries (i.e. plumbing, electrical, construction, welding, etc.) there are dyadic relationships between a tenured employee and an apprentice in which the tenured employee is to impart their job-related knowledge to the apprentice. Again, the tenured employee, or the organization as a whole, can evaluate the apprentice's individual coachability to determine how receptive

they will be to the knowledge being shared. These are just a few examples of the many areas in which this dissertation can have an impact outside of the management discipline.

This dissertation also offers multiple practical implications for employees, leaders, and organizations across a variety of industries. First, practitioners were consulted throughout the development of theory. Inductive research was conducted and first-hand practitioner knowledge, opinions, and insights were utilized to construct the theory of individual coachability. Thus, this research was closely tied to the experiences of practitioners and such should be more easily applied in a non-academic setting. Second, the 25-item Individual Coachability Scale can be easily adapted into an employee assessment. Human resources departments can issue the individual coachability scale as a pre-employment assessment to determine if the potential new hire exhibits an appropriate level of coachability in relation to the job for which they have applied. Lastly, findings from the experiments conducted in Chapter 3 present relevant information about the quality of developmental coaching programs, individual coachability, and organizational outcomes. Chapter 3 found for both employee engagement and organizational commitment, it is actually more beneficial to not have a coaching program than to impart a low-quality coaching program. Essentially, this conveys to practitioners then when implementing a developmental coaching program, either do it right or don't do it at all. Chapter 3 also found evidence, through a median split, that highly coachable emerging professionals exhibit higher levels of job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment than their peers who present with lower levels of coachability. This again lends itself to the idea of a pre-employment individual coachability assessment for individuals entering the workforce. Employers can use the

individual coachability assessment to determine if the potential employee is high in coachability and will thus exhibit a higher level of job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment.

Limitations

As with any research, this dissertation has limitations. First, the focus group conducted in Chapter 1 was lacking in diversity. The majority of the participants were male, between the ages of 25 and 45, and all participants were employed in the southern United States. Opinions and insights on individual coachability may differ across groups of women, individuals younger than 25 and older than 45, and individuals employed in other areas of the United States and other countries.

Another limitation is that the new scale did not demonstrate all of the qualities I sought. First, this scale did not emerge as a second-order factor. Yet, the high level of internal consistency reliability indicates that the items can be used in conjunction to produce one score. Additionally, there was no evidence of discriminant validity of this individual coachability scale in comparison to existing scales. However, as indicated in Chapter 2, the ability to use the current scale in a wider variety of employment contexts and its emphasis on individual coachability versus a coaching relationship presents a contribution.

Further, the experimentation data utilized in Chapter 3 featured only students enrolled in a business degree program at a regional university in the southern United States. Although the aim was to understand an emerging professional viewpoint, college students are not wholly representative of the general population of employees. Typical college students, even those nearing graduation, are usually ages 20 to 24, which leaves

some questions about their overall experience and maturity level. Though the majority of students reported some type of work experience, they still have less overall life experience simply due to their age. Also, after review of the measures representing job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment, it appears that these measures are a better fit to be answered by an individual who is established in a career or long-term job, opposed to a student who may be referring to their experience as a student rather than their experience with employment. Additionally, in this sample, students struggled to appropriately complete the attention check. I eliminated 66 out of 320 (20%) responses for failing the attention check. For comparison, I only eliminated a total of 20 responses out of 812 (2%) when using Amazon's MTurk and Prolific Academic. Lastly, this student sample only had 254 usable responses after the attention check fails were removed. Previous research states that experimental vignette methodology necessitates a large population of interest (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Aguinis & Bradley, 2014); essentially, the more respondents, the higher the quality of the data. With more respondents (an increase in power), it is possible my marginally significant findings would have presented as significant.

Additionally, only experimental vignette methodology was considered for this study. Though best practices were used when designing and implementing the three scenarios, this was the first time I have developed scenarios and utilized this type of experimental design. Also, although experimental vignette methodology is appropriate for causal relationships like the ones represented in Chapter 3, they still do not create the same context as would be encountered in "real life" (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). This is especially true in high-stakes decision-making scenarios. The scenarios presented in

Chapter 3 could be considered "high stakes" because they illustrate a situation in which an individual receives disciplinary action for a wrong doing.

Future Research

First, this dissertation offers a thorough conceptualization of a theory of individual coachability. Therefore, future research should continue to build upon the theory presented here to better understand individual coachability. For instance, the theory presented in Chapter 1 lends itself to observing individual coachability as from a trait perspective as it's built on prior trait theories and scales. Conversely, perhaps individual coachability is a state. Future research could further this research avenue, thus adding to the theory of individual coachability.

Another research avenue is the continued development of the individual coachability scale established in Chapter 2. Because discriminant validity was not established, further analysis is needed to ascertain a significant difference between my individual coachability scale and other published coachability scales. Although, because individual coachability is an overarching trait in that it manifests in the exhibition of goal-setting, self-efficacy, feedback seeking, accountability, and willingness to change, it may never demonstrate a notable difference from other existing scales.

Also, future research should include the development of a highly generalizable accountability measure. Similar to individual coachability, there is a lot of academic research surrounding the concept of accountability but there is a lack of an inclusive measure of individual accountability. Frink et al. (2018) establish the need for an individual-level accountability scale, however their measure is wholly focused on an individual's accountability within an organization. Frink et al.'s (2018) scale centers on

the individual's feelings of accountability when "producing a certain quality of work" or "results or outcomes of my job" (p.30). Though important to understand accountability at work, like the individual coachability scale and coaching, accountable behaviors occur outside the organization as well. The creation of an individual accountability scale should include the measurement of an individual's external accountability (i.e. outside sources that the individual is accountable to) and internal accountability (how an individual holds themselves accountable). For instance, the accountability items used in the above individual coachability scale are grounded in external accountability. The line item "I like having someone to be accountable to because it motivates me" targets the use of an outside source to be answerable to. However, many individuals are also internally accountable, or accountable to themselves. A line item to measure internal accountability could be "I meet obligations I make to myself" or "Once I decide to do something, I do it". These items are generalizable to any situations in which a accountability is important, not just to accountability at work.

Furthermore, additional data, from a more comprehensive group of individuals, could be collected for increased development of the hypotheses established in Chapter 3. With a more robust and reliable sample, such as data collected from Amazon's MTurk or Prolific Academic, the moderation hypotheses may prove to be significant when individual coachability is a continuous variable. If that is the case, then research should continue to examine the effects between the quality of developmental coaching programs, individual coachability, and other organizational outcomes.

Moreover, as mentioned as a limitation, only experimental vignette methodology was considered for the study of interactions in Chapter 3. Future research could include a

laboratory study, where individuals watch scenarios play out in real time and are then asked as series of questions about what they observed. Future research could also include a field study, where the researcher observes and interviews individuals within an organization with an established developmental coaching program. Field studies are more likely to represent "real life" due to the natural setting for the individuals being observed. Also, in a field study, there are more variables that can influence individual outcomes such as opportunities for advancement, support from coworkers, the organization's culture, and the state of the economy.

Additionally, future research should include cross-disciplinary studies. As mentioned above, the theory and measure created in this dissertation can be utilized in other academic areas. For instance, utilizing the individual coachability scale to measure college athletes' individual coachability and observing how it translates to behaviors both on and off the field. Perhaps it is the highly coachable athletes that always emerge as leaders or receive more playing time even though they may not be the best performer. Or utilizing the individual coachability scale to help pair tenured employees with apprentices in those specific industries. Researchers could then compare those dyads and the dyads what did not use the scale as a pairing tool and discern which group exhibits high job satisfaction.

Lastly, as practitioner perspectives continue to outpace academic research in terms of coaching and coachability, future research should stay current with other prevalent practitioner phenomenon. For instance, Dr. Heidi Gardner states that among currently employed individuals, collaboration skills are rare (Gardner, 2023). According to Gardner (2023), the primary goal of collaboration is bringing people together in

specific instances (i.e. to solve a problem or learn a new skill). Ideally, in a team setting, there would be strong collaboration among its members. If the team's task is to learn something new, ideally its members would also be highly coachable in an effort to get the most out of the learning experience. Perhaps there is a connection between collaboration skills (or lack thereof) and individual coachability in that those with those with high collaboration skills may also be highly coachable. Plausibly, a highly coachable individual is receptive to growth and change and would therefore be willing to enhance their collaboration skills.

Conclusion

Though the concept coaching is not a new construct in the study of management. Observing coachability from the individual perspective is a more recent development. Individual coachability helps depict the often-forgotten other half of the coaching dyad, the person being coached. In an effort to bridge the current gap between practitioner and academic literatures on the topic, this dissertation sought to establish a highly generalizable and comprehensive theory of individual coachability for use across all academic disciplines and relevant industries. To do so, a measure of individual coachability was created and operationalized in an effort to better understand the effects of individual coachability within the workplace. Though the results may not have aligned perfectly with theoretical arguments, this dissertation provides relevant and worthwhile information for the continued study of individual coachability.

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APPENDIX A

FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS

Questions used in each focus group

Coaching was defined as "a human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools and techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and potentially for other stakeholders" (Cox et al. 2014; p 1). This definition was used as the basis for each question.

1. Based on the definition, have you personally experienced coaching?

   a. If yes, would you consider your coaching successful?

   b. If no, would you be interested in receiving coaching?

2. Do you feel like you are a coachable individual? Please elaborate.

3. What are some attributes that you think makes you coachable? Please elaborate.

4. If you were to coach someone in your line of work, what attributes would you want your coachee to possess?

Do you think certain age groups/generations are harder/easier to coach? Please elaborate

APPENDIX B

SCALES USED IN STUDY 1 AND STUDY 2

Learning Goal Orientation
1. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me
2. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it
3. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things
4. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me
5. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task
6. I try hard to improve on my past performance
7. The opportunity to extend the rand of my abilities is important to me
8. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work

Self-Efficacy
1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough
2. If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want
3. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals
4. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events
5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen events
6. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort
7. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities
8. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions
9. If I am in a bind, I can usually think of something to do
10. No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it

Feedback
1. It is important for me to receive feedback on my performance
2. I would like to get more feedback on what behaviors will help me do better in performing my job
3. I find feedback on my performance useful
4. It is better to try and figure out how you are doing on your own rather than ask anyone for feedback

Accountability
1. I perform tasks better when they are subject for evaluation
2. I like having someone to be accountable to because it motivates me
3. I like working in an environment where someone will check to see if I've met my goals
4. If there is something I really want to accomplish, it helps if I have someone to hold me accountable

Willingness to Change
1. I recognize when I need to make changes in my life.
2. I routinely consider changes to my life.
3. When I want to make a change, I plan for it.
4. I have successfully made changes in my life.
5. I am good at sticking to changes I've made in my life.

APPENDIX C

FINAL INDIVIDUAL COACHABILITY SCALE

Factor 1: Feedback
1. It is important for me to receive feedback on my performance
2. I would like to get more feedback on what behaviors will help me do better in performing my job
3. I find feedback on my performance useful
4. It is better to try and figure out how you are doing on your own rather than ask anyone for feedback

Factor 2: Accountability
5. I perform tasks better when they are subject for evaluation
6. I like having someone to be accountable to because it motivates me
7. I like working in an environment where someone will check to see if I've met my goals
8. If there is something I really want to accomplish, it helps if I have someone to hold me accountable

Factor 3: Willingness to Change
9. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals
10. I have successfully made changes in my life.
11. I am good at sticking to changes I've made in my life.

Factor 4: Learning Goal Orientation
12. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me
13. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it
14. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things
15. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me
16. I try hard to improve on my past performance
17. The opportunity to extend the rand of my abilities is important to me
18. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work

Factor 5: Self-Efficacy
19. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events
20. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen events
21. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort
22. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities
23. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions
24. If I am in a bind, I can usually think of something to do
25. No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it

APPENDIX D

EXPERIMENTAL VIGNETTES

This study has three separate parts:

Part one:

Participants will answer the questions pertaining to the individual coachability scale first. I do not want the scenario they are given to influence their answers to the individual coachability scale. This will be a 5-point Likert scale where the participants will be instructed to "Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree)".

Part two:

Upon completion of part 1, participants will be given, at random, one of the three coaching scenarios below. They will be instructed to read the scenario and imagine they are experiencing the scenario themselves.

Part three:

Upon completion of part two, participants will be asked to answer questions about their foreseen job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment based on the scenario they just read.

Experimental Vignette 1: High-quality developmental coaching program

Imagine you are a new department manager for XYZ company. You supervise 20 employees, all of whom you work with daily. You report to only one supervisor, Taylor, who supervises all the department managers within the company. You have only been employed with XYZ for three months now.

Over the last few weeks one of your employees, Riley, has been late an alarming number of times. You have given him several verbal warnings, but Riley continues to be late, offering no excuse for his tardiness. You decide it is time to further reprimand Riley, but seeing as you are new to the company you approach your supervisor, Taylor, asking for help in dealing with the matter.

One of the reasons you took the job with XYZ is their well-established developmental coaching program. Developmental coaching is a continual interaction between the coach and the coachee in which the coach imparts constructive assessment, feedback, and implementation while facilitating the coachee's desired improvement. You have regularly scheduled meetings with your supervisor, Taylor, where she coaches you by providing you feedback on, holding you accountable, increasing your confidence, and aspiring positive and permanent change. In the short time you have been with XYZ and had coaching from Taylor, you have noticed that you feel more effective and empowered than you did at your previous company.

Given that Taylor is your direct supervisor, you ask to meet with her regarding your issue with Riley. You explain, in depth, Riley's tardiness, the warnings you have given him, and his lack of excuses. Taylor pulls out the employee handbook to reference the proper disciplinary actions. She asks you to read the pages on employee disciplinary actions and write out a few notes on how you believe the situation should be handled. Once you are finished reading, you and Taylor discuss your notes. Taylor offers her feedback on your thoughts, giving you a few comments to ensure you follow XYZ protocol. You and Taylor then role play your potential conversation with Riley, allowing you to work through the appropriate things to say. Before leaving her office, Taylor gives you the necessary paperwork to file for the disciplinary action and you set a plan to speak to Riley the next morning.

The next day, Taylor calls you first thing to encourage your conversation with Riley, holding you accountable to the things you said you were going to do. You have your conversation with Riley and take the disciplinary action necessary for his repeated tardiness.

Based on the above interaction please answer the following questions about your perceived job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment with XYZ company.

Experimental Vignette 2: Low-quality developmental coaching program

Imagine you are a new department manager for XYZ company. You supervise 20 employees, all of whom you work with daily. You report to only one supervisor, Taylor, who supervises all the department managers within the company. You have only been employed with XYZ for three months now.

Over the last few weeks one of your employees, Riley, has been late an alarming number of times. You have given him several verbal warnings, but Riley continues to be late, offering no excuse for his tardiness. You decide it is time to further reprimand Riley, but seeing as you are new to the company you approach your supervisor, Taylor, asking for help in dealing with the matter.

One of the reasons you took the job with XYZ is their well-established developmental coaching program. Developmental coaching is a continual interaction between the coach and the coachee in which the coach imparts constructive assessment, feedback, and implementation while facilitating the coachee's desired improvement. You are supposed have regularly scheduled meetings with your supervisor, Taylor where she coaches you by providing you feedback on, holding you accountable, increasing your confidence, and aspiring positive and permanent change. However, in the three months you have been employed with XYZ, you have only had one coaching meeting with Taylor and it was cut short by an important phone call she had to take. Taylor was quite helpful during the first few weeks of your employment, making sure you were situated and had the necessary materials to do your job. You usually communicate via email, but for the most part she is hands off, allowing you to manage your department as you see fit. You were excited to participate in XYZ's coaching program to help you grow as a manager, but as of now you haven't participated in any coaching activities.

Given that Taylor is your direct supervisor, you ask to meet with her regarding your issue with Riley. You explain, in depth, Riley's tardiness, the warnings you have given him, and his lack of excuses. Taylor pulls out the employee handbook and tells you to review the section on proper disciplinary procedures. She quickly prints off the necessary paperwork you will need to fill out and tells you to email her if you have any questions. She mentions it would be best to have the conversation with Riley "sooner than later", but trusts you can figure out how to handle it.

The next morning you have your conversation with Riley and take the disciplinary action necessary for his repeated tardiness. Shortly after, you sent an email to Taylor letting her know you spoke with Riley. She replied "Thanks for letting me know".

Based on the above interaction please answer the following questions about your perceived job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment with XYZ company.

Experimental Vignette 3: No developmental coaching program

Imagine you are a new department manager for XYZ company. You supervise 20 employees, all of whom you work with daily. You report to only one supervisor, Taylor, who supervises all the department managers within the company. You have only been employed with XYZ for three months now.

Over the last few weeks one of your employees, Riley, has been late an alarming number of times. You have given him several verbal warnings, but Riley continues to be late, offering no excuse for his tardiness. You decide it is time to further reprimand Riley, but seeing as you are new to the company you approach your supervisor, Taylor, asking for help in dealing with the matter.

Given that Taylor is your direct supervisor, you ask to meet with her regarding your issue with Riley. You explain, in depth, Riley's tardiness, the warnings you have given him, and his lack of excuses. Taylor tells you to reference the employee handbook; that there is a section on employee discipline procedures and that it will tell you what you need to know. She mentions you can get the necessary paperwork from Human Resources and that they can give you any further advice on how to handle the situation.

The next morning you have your conversation with Riley and take the disciplinary action necessary for his repeated tardiness.

Based on the above interaction please answer the following questions about your perceived job performance, employee engagement, and organizational commitment with XYZ company.

APPENDIX E

HUMAN USE APPROVAL LETTERS

LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY.

Office of Research and Partnerships

MEMORANDUM

TO: Dr. Jeff Haynie and Ashley Fournet

FROM: Dr. Walter Buboltz, Professor/Elva L. Smith Endowed Professor
buboltz@latech.edu

RE: **Human Use Committee - Review DECISION**

DATE: November 9, 2022

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been completed for your proposed study:

HUC No.: 1450: IRB 23-122

TITLE: Survey of Individual Attitudes and Perceptions

HUC DECISION: **APPROVED**

The proposed study's procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval for the involvement of human subjects as outlined. Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on November 9, 2022, and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project continues beyond November 9, 2023.* ANY CHANGES to your protocol procedures, including minor changes, should be reported immediately to the IRB for approval before implementation. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of Sponsored Projects.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, the informed consent process, or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research and Partnerships or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

Thank you for submitting your Human Use Proposal to Louisiana Tech's

Institutional Review Board.

EXEMPTION MEMORANDUM

TO: Dr. Ashley Fournet

FROM: Dr. Richard Kordal, Director of Intellectual Properties
             rkordal@latech.edu

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: August 19, 2021

TITLE: "Individual Business Coaching Antecedents"

NUMBER: HUC 22-017

According to the Code of Federal Regulations Title 45 Part 46, your research protocol is determined to be exempt from full review under the following exemption category(s): 46.104 (a)(d)(1)(2)(i)(ii).

a) Unless otherwise required by law or by department or agency heads, research activities in which the only involvement of human subjects will be in one or more of the categories in paragraph (d) of this section are exempt from the requirements of this policy, except that such activities must comply with the requirements of this section and as specified in each category.

(d) Except as described in paragraph (a) of this section, the following categories of human subjects research are exempt from this policy:

   (1) Research, conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings, that specifically involves normal educational practices that are not likely to adversely impact students' opportunity to learn required educational content or the assessment of educators who provide instruction. This includes most research on regular and special education instructional strategies, and research on the effectiveness of or the comparison among instructional techniques, curricula, or classroom management methods.

   (2) Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording) if at least one of the following criteria is met:

(i) The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects;

(ii) Any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research would not reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, educational advancement, or reputation.

NOTE:
Following the 2021 Code of Federal Regulations, I recommend that HUC 22-017 be exempted from full review. Participants are anonymized, and research involves survey items commonly used in social science. Participants can skip survey items without penalty. There are no treatments offered or administered. The research includes no physical contact with the participants.

Thank you,
Richard Shrubb

Thank you for submitting your Human Use Proposal to Louisiana Tech's Institutional Review Board.

![Louisiana Tech University logo]

LOUISIANA TECH
U N I V E R S I T Y®

Office of Research and Partnerships

MEMORANDUM

TO PI (s):   Ashley Fournet

FROM: Dr. Walter Buboltz, Professor/Elva L. Smith Endowed Professor
buboltz@latech.edu

SUBJECT: Human Use Committee - Review DECISION

DATE: February 13, 2023

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been completed for your proposed study:

HUC No.:   **IRB 23-148**

TITLE: **Developmental Coaching Programs & Organizational Outcomes**

HUC DECISION: **APPROVED**

The proposed study's procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.   Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on February 13, 2023 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project continues beyond February 13, 2024* ANY CHANGES to your protocol procedures, including minor changes, should be reported immediately to the IRB for approval before implementation. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of Sponsored Projects.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research and Partnerships or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

Thank you for submitting your Human Use Proposal to Louisiana Tech's Institutional Review Board.