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A Holistic View of Employee Coaching: Longitudinal Investigation of the Impact of Facilitative and Pressure-Based Coaching on Team Effectiveness

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Abstract

This study uses regulatory focus theory to take a holistic perspective on employee coaching. The contrasting effects of facilitative versus pressure-based coaching on changes in team effectiveness were examined over a 54-month period of time. Results of growth curve analysis on a sample of 714 managers and their teams indicated that facilitative and pressure-based coaching had opposing direct and indirect effects on long-term changes in team performance, with team commitment playing a critical role in this process. Specifically, facilitative coaching positively influenced team commitment and, in turn, team effectiveness. In contrast, pressure-based coaching hindered team functioning by negatively influencing team commitment through heightened levels of tension within the team. Limitations and areas for future research are discussed.

Keywords

employee coaching, facilitative coaching, pressure-based coaching, regulatory focus, team effectiveness, growth curve analysis

Coaching has emerged as a particularly relevant managerial activity in organizations. As opposed to standardized training programs, organizations increasingly rely on more

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informal training practices by entrusting traditional HR management responsibilities to managers and supervisors (Heslin, Vandewalle, & Latham, 2006; Latham, Almost, Mann, & Moore, 2005; Liu & Batt, 2010) who can focus on the specific challenges faced by their workers and more adeptly affect employee performance (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenback, 1999). In so doing, managerial responsibilities have expanded to simultaneously include cultivating subordinate competencies while also aligning performance and productivity with strategic organizational goals (Hales, 2005; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). As a result, scholars suggest that effective coaching has become an important component of managerial duties and a necessary skill for lasting success (Boyatzis, Jack, Cesaro, Khawaja, & Passarelli, 2010; Boyatzis, Smith, & Blaize, 2006; Heslin et al., 2006; Liu & Batt, 2010).

Much of the research on coaching has centered on executive coaching in which external coaches help clients improve performance, develop executive behaviors, and enhance their careers within a formally defined and typically short-term coaching agreement (Baron, Morin, & Morin, 2011; de Haan, Culpin, & Curd, 2011; Gessnitzer & Kauffeld, 2015). In contrast, this study focuses on employee coaching that occurs between internal coaches (i.e., managers) and individuals or teams with the aim of continuously improving performance (Joo, Suchko, & McLean, 2012; Kim, Egan, Kim, & Kim, 2013; Kinlaw, 1996). Hence, employee coaching represents an ongoing and reciprocally contingent relationship in that the employee depends on the manager for opportunities and rewards, while the manager depends on the employee to accomplish tasks and meet organizational objectives (Anderson, 2013; Smither & Reilly, 2001). As such, the performance and success of both the manager and employee are heavily influenced by the quality of the coaching relationship.

Employee coaching is an unstructured, developmental process whereby managers provide guidance and feedback to workers in order to inspire improvement and enhance individual and team performance (Heslin et al., 2006; Liu & Batt, 2010; Yukl, 2002). It involves communicating expectations and augmenting employee functioning through regular and continuous interaction (Segers & Inceoglu, 2012; Sue-Chan, Wood, & Latham, 2012). Aside from the cost advantages relative to formal training programs, informal coaching provides organizations and workers with a number of additional benefits. Because coaching is tailored to the employee and takes place during the normal course of work, it is much less susceptible to transfer of training losses often associated with structured programs (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanaugh, 1995). Furthermore, coaching has been shown to increase individual performance (Agarwal, Angst, & Magni, 2009; Liu & Batt, 2010), foster motivation and receptivity to feedback (Gould-Williams & Gatenby, 2010; Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas, & Kucine, 2003; Taylor & Bright, 2011), and enhance peer relationships (Mulec & Roth, 2005).

Despite the advantages of coaching for individual employees, we know little about the broader impact of coaching on team-level outcomes. Scholars have noted that coaching research needs to move beyond the individual level of analysis to adopt approaches that address group-level phenomena (Liu & Batt, 2010). In addition, to date, the coaching literature has remained largely normative, thus failing to consider

that poor or negatively framed coaching may have counterproductive results. Indeed, although the intentions behind coaching are inherently positive, research on organizational dyads (e.g., supervisor/subordinate, leader/member, mentor/protégé) repeatedly notes the presence of negative relational experiences (Kram, 1985; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, 2000). However, with few exceptions (e.g., Boyatzis et al., 2010; Buljac-Samardzic & van Woerkon, 2015; Parker, Kram, & Hall, 2012), studies on employee coaching have focused almost exclusively on the positive aspects of coaching with little regard for the potential harmful consequences that may arise from poor coaching techniques.

Addressing these issues, this study takes a holistic perspective on coaching by conceptualizing and examining the influence of two distinct forms of coaching—facilitative and pressure-based—on team performance. We focus on the cumulative effect of dyadic coach–employee relationships within the team and suggest that the ways in which managers frame feedback and attempt to facilitate the development of team members' goals will have significant implications for team effectiveness over time. Consistent with prior research regarding the bright-side and dark-side of leadership (Conger, 1990; Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009; Resick, Whitman, Weingarden, & Hiller, 2009) and the contrasting influences of supportive versus abusive supervision (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009; Tepper, 2000), we draw from regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) to demonstrate the opposing effects of facilitative versus pressure-based coaching on team effectiveness. As such, the primary contribution of this study is twofold in that it expands our understanding of the effects of coaching to the team-level while also extending our conceptualization to include the possible detrimental effects of negatively framed coaching in the workplace.

A further aim of this research is to examine the processes that explain the association between coaching practices and team performance. In later sections, we argue two mechanisms that mediate the impact of facilitative and pressure-based coaching on team effectiveness: team commitment and tension. Highly committed team members likely share organizational values and identify with their work, which can foster greater motivation in the pursuit of team and organizational goals (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010). Conversely, stress and tension can inhibit functioning (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005) and limit a team's ability to work effectively as a cohesive unit to meet standards for success (Drach-Zahavy & Freund, 2007; Driskell, Salas, & Johnston, 1999). As such, we investigate the explanatory influence of these constructs in the relationships between the two forms of employee coaching and long-term changes in team effectiveness.

In the following sections, we describe the process and mechanisms through which positively framed and negatively framed coaching affect team performance. We undertake a methodological approach that enables us to longitudinally investigate changes in team effectiveness over time and use growth curve analysis based on matched supervisor–team data from incumbent managers participating in a multiyear training and development program. We conclude with a discussion of the findings and their implications for theory and future research.

Theory and Hypothesis Development

Facilitative and Pressure-Based Coaching: Eliciting Promotion or Prevention Focus

Heslin et al. (2006) identified three integral components of employee coaching that can foster increased performance: guidance, facilitation, and inspiration. Yet while it is likely that all managers seek to inspire, motivate, and improve their employees through the coaching process, we can expect differences in the manner in which direction and feedback is provided and the motivational tactics they use. That is, not only do managers differ in their likelihood to provide coaching but they also differ with respect to their preferred coaching methods, behaviors, and coaching-related skills. As cited by Heslin et al. (2006), "Although *good* coaching is basic to managerial productivity, most organizations have difficulty getting their managers to be *effective* coaches" (Mahler, 1964, p. 28, italics added). Therefore, while encouraging more extensive coaching may foster improved individual and organizational performance, the extent of these gains likely hinges on the way managers communicate and the quality and effectiveness of the coaching methods being employed.

According to regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998), employees have two distinct regulatory foci: promotion-focus and prevention-focus. When promotion-focused, employees are motivated by growth and aspirations and a need to fulfill intrinsic desires. When prevention-focused, employees are concerned with security needs that refer to meeting one's duties and obligations and the avoidance of failure (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002). Authorities can affect employees' regulatory focus and induce either a promotion or prevention-focus by enacting different social regulatory styles to communicate work-related goals (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Higgins, 2002; Higgins & Loeb, 2008). For instance, supervisors can elicit promotion-focus through coaching episodes by emphasizing facilitative feedback via praise and opportunities for learning and development (Sue-Chan et al., 2012). In so doing, managers exhibit more nurturance-based coaching styles that orient subordinates toward reaching personal and organizational ideals. Conversely, prevention-focus can be induced by expressing pressure-based feedback through complaints, criticism, and force. This is representative of security-based coaching styles that draw employee attention to the penalties and consequences of poor performance (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Higgins, 2002).

Therefore, from a coaching perspective, managers can employ methods specifically designed to stimulate either the pursuit of desirable outcomes (promotion-focus) or the avoidance of undesirable ones (prevention-focus; e.g., Carver & Scheier, 1998; Higgins, 1997; Lockwood et al., 2002). That is, managers may choose to frame coaching episodes toward success (facilitative coaching) or away from failure (pressure-based coaching), in an effort to enhance the performance of their subordinates through the arousal of either a promotion or prevention regulatory focus. In this vein, *facilitative coaching* is characterized by managers who provide guidance by aligning team member aspirations with organizational goals and facilitate the achievement of both

individual and team objectives. As such, goal clarity and goal facilitation are fundamental elements of the facilitative coaching process (Heslin et al., 2006; Hui, Sue-Chan, & Wood, 2013; Smither & Reilly, 2001), which help foster promotion-focus and motivate individuals toward the attainment of individual and organizational goals. In contrast, *pressure-based coaching* is characterized by managers who provide direction by applying extensive pressure to get results. These managers communicate expectations by becoming visibly upset and complaining vigorously if goals are not met, and may challenge employees to improve by reprimanding poor performance and/or publicly criticizing mistakes. These tactics are intended to elicit prevention-focus and motivate subordinates to avoid future failures and the associated negative consequences enacted by the supervisor.

Although we acknowledge that inducing either promotion or prevention focus may provide individual-level results in the short term (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Higgins, 2000; Lockwood et al., 2002; Shah, Higgins, & Friedman, 1998; Sue-Chan et al., 2012), we suggest that these distinct forms of coaching will ultimately have differential effects on team-level outcomes over time due to their impact on team processes. Furthermore, we suggest that these effects are explained by the emotional and attitudinal responses of team members to different coaching behaviors exhibited by their managers.

The Influence of Coaching on Changes in Team Effectiveness Over Time

Previous work on leadership and team effectiveness has shown the beneficial effects of providing direction via clear performance expectations and assisting team members in reaching goals (Lorinkova, Pearsall, & Sims, 2013). By establishing a clear and shared understanding of the team's mission and strategy, leaders facilitate team processes and help align the team's purpose with organizational strategies and values (Bennett & Bush, 2013; Klein, Ziegert, Knight, & Xiao, 2006; Posner, 2008). Once a mission is established, constructive team leaders capably outline clear performance expectations and goals that will enable the team to fulfill its purpose (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004; Knight, Durham, & Locke, 2001; Muhlberger & Traut-Mattausch, 2015). As the team works toward these objectives, feedback becomes essential to the functioning, maintenance, and development of the team by enabling members to learn and adapt so as to ensure success (Duff, 2013; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010).

As mentioned above, this ongoing developmental feedback process represents employee coaching and a potential source of self-regulatory "help" for employees (Gregory, Beck, & Carr, 2011). Facilitative coaching, in particular, can enhance this process by helping individuals learn from their errors without getting discouraged (Burke, 2014; Keith & Frese, 2008) and by reviewing previous performance to determine specific areas for improvement (Ellis, Ganzach, Castle, & Sekely, 2010; Liu & Batt, 2010). As such, facilitative coaching experiences encompass specific and constructive feedback which can help individuals develop new skills and set higher goals

for achievement (Ellinger, Ellinger, Bachrach, Wang, & Elmadagbas, 2011; Heslin et al., 2006; Liu & Batt, 2010).

Moreover, these types of facilitation typify a nurturance-based coaching style that can induce promotion-focus among employees. Research has shown that promotion-focused individuals develop interpersonal strategies geared toward the pursuit of positive outcomes (Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997; Lockwood et al., 2002; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). Therefore, at the team level, these interpersonal strategies likely entail fostering collaboration and cohesion with other team members to attain mutually beneficial results (Anderson, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2004; Hirschfeld & Bernerth, 2008; Hirschfeld, Jordan, Field, Giles, & Armenakis, 2006). Indeed, evidence has shown that positively framed coaching can promote more creative and collaborative work climates by facilitating stronger peer relationships that enable employees to effectively develop and use collective knowledge (Huang & Hsieh, 2015; Mulec & Roth, 2005; Rousseau, Aubé, & Tremblay, 2013). Therefore, facilitative coaching is likely to foster a work environment that enhances communication and motivates individuals toward cooperation and learning (Argote & McGrath, 1993; Edmondson, 1999; McCartney & Campbell, 2006). The team effectiveness literature has repeatedly shown that enhancing such processes, via empowering leadership, have positive effects on team performance (Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011; Cohen & Bailey, 1997).

Conversely, pressure-based coaching signifies a security-based style through the use of negative feedback, criticism, coercion, or pressure. These methods are likely to produce prevention-focused team members who will strive to avoid the penalties and criticisms that stem from failing to meet expectations (Sue-Chan et al., 2012). As such, prevention-focused individuals are highly attuned to feelings of anxiety (Higgins et al., 1997) and adopt interpersonal strategies designed to protect themselves from these outcomes (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes. 1994). Consequently, these strategies may lead to counterproductive behaviors at the team level (Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008). Fear of reprisal may motivate team members to avoid taking on new responsibilities and/or challenging roles as these are seen not as opportunities for further development, but rather as opportunities for failure. Moreover, pressure-based coaching tactics will limit feelings of psychological safety (Spreitzer, 1995), possibly causing members to disengage from the team or, conversely, generate interpersonal conflict (Chen et al., 2011; Jehn, 1995; LePine et al., 2005; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Finally, in an effort to avoid failure, it seems unlikely that members will enact helping or backing-up behaviors (Barnes et al., 2008; Van der Vegt & Van de Vliert, 2003) so as to not be associated with struggling projects and assignments.

As such, pressure-based coaching may be the preferred tactic of more destructive leaders who intend to serve the organization's mission and strategies, but produce results at the cost and detriment of their workers (Ashforth, 1994; Tepper, 2000). Destructive leaders do not necessarily have malicious intent, and their pressurized tactics can, at times, compel short-term gains in productivity. But, by continuously arousing prevention-focus among their employees these leader are ultimately "perceived as hostile and/or obstructive" by team members (Schyns & Schilling, 2013,

p. 141) and have detrimental effects on the long-term well-being and morale of the team (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007). Supporting this, evidence suggests that leaders and managers who adopt security-based styles, centered on coercion and pressure, negatively affect workplace climate and, in turn, performance (Goleman, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

> **Hypothesis 1:** Facilitative coaching is positively related to increases in team effectiveness over time.
> **Hypothesis 2:** Pressure-based coaching is negatively related to increases in team effectiveness over time.

The Role of Commitment in the Coaching to Effectiveness Process

We suggest that team members' emotional and attitudinal responses to coaching tactics help explain the differing effects of facilitative and pressure-based coaching on team performance. Primary among these, team commitment has been shown to be relatively homogenous among team members and that high levels of commitment promote team effectiveness and success (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Drach-Zahavy & Freund, 2007; Neininger, Lehmann-Willenbrock, Kauffeld, & Henschel, 2010). Team commitment represents the extent to which individuals are involved in, and identify with, a particular team (Bishop et al., 2000). It positively influences team processes by promoting greater teamwork, innovation, and learning (Chen et al., 2011; Liu, Keller, & Shih, 2011; Pearce & Herbik, 2004; Porter, 2005). When teams are highly committed members engage in greater knowledge sharing, backing-up, and citizenship behaviors (Chen et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2011; Luchak & Gellatly, 2007; Pearce & Herbik, 2004; Porter, 2005; Thompson & Heron, 2006), which foster motivation and facilitate the functioning and performance of the team. Moreover, committed team members have no intention to leave their organizations and thereby help maintain the viability and effectiveness of their work teams over time (Chen et al., 2011; Hackman, 1987).

> **Hypothesis 3:** Team commitment is positively related to increases in team effectiveness over time.

Leader behaviors have been repeatedly shown to impact employee commitment to organizations and teams (Chen et al., 2011; Mills & Schulz, 2009; Pearce & Herbik, 2004; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). With regard to facilitative coaching, managers who provide clear expectations and empower their teams to reach those goals engender perceptions of fairness and equity among members who reciprocate with increased commitment to the mission and team (Chen et al., 2011). Additionally, as with constructive mentorships and quality leader–member exchange relationships (i.e., positive relations and rapport between supervisors and subordinates), facilitative coaching can help cultivate bonds between employees and the organization (Aryee & Chay, 1994; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Kim et al., 2013; Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014) and

foster stronger emotional attachment with the organization through the adoption and promotion of organizational values, missions, and goals (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Liu & Batt, 2010). By aligning individual goals with organizational objectives, facilitative coaching can foster beliefs that one's work has a meaningful and relevant impact on the organization, thereby enhancing commitment by causing members to feel more personally and emotionally engaged in team processes and organizational outcomes (Chen et al., 2011; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004).

Moreover, previous research has shown that leaders who exhibit more nurturing and facilitative behaviors are adept at motivating individuals toward team-based efforts and outcomes (Chen et al., 2011; Chen & Kanfer, 2006; Rousseau et al., 2013). Because these leader behaviors promote backing-up and citizenship, individuals perceive greater psychological safety and team support, which engenders greater commitment to their fellow members (Bishop, Scott, Goldsby, & Cropanzano, 2005; Huang & Hsieh, 2015; Paillé, 2009; Rego, Vitoria, Magalhaes, Ribeiro, & Pina e Cuhna, 2013). Finally, as noted earlier, facilitative coaching will elicit promotion-focused employees who cultivate more collaborative work environments, develop stronger peer relationships, and experience greater levels of team cohesion (Anderson et al., 2004; Hirschfeld & Bernerth, 2008; Hirschfeld et al., 2006; Mulec & Roth, 2005; Neubert et al., 2008; Yammarino & Naughton, 1992), likely enhancing attachment to the team and commitment to its goals (Pearce & Herbik, 2004; Porter, 2005).

Hypothesis 4: Facilitative coaching is positively related to team commitment.

Conversely, pressure-based coaching is expected to deteriorate team commitment over time. Drawing from the Attraction-Selection-Attrition model (Schneider, 1987), individuals will be drawn to or repelled by teams depending on the degree to which they identify with the team (Drach-Zahavy & Freund, 2007). Research has shown that leaders who exhibit coercive styles negatively affect employee emotions and alienate subordinates from work (Ashforth, 1997; Fowlie & Wood, 2009; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007; Judge, Lepine, & Rich, 2006). Consequently, rather than nurturing a sense of community and commitment, pressure-based coaching tactics merely engender compliance (Smith, Van Oosten, & Boyatzis, 2009). In this vein, related research in the abusive supervision literature has consistently indicated the influence of negative leader behaviors on the commitment and turnover intentions of subordinates (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Duffy, Shaw, Scott, & Tepper, 2006; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2008; Tepper et al., 2009). Therefore, while pressure-based coaching may be useful for short-term motivation, it may nevertheless have harmful effects on team commitment over time.

Moreover, the interpersonal aggression exhibited through pressure-based coaching can have a contagion effect that sparks hostility among subordinates (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Mayer, Thau, Workman, Dijke, & De Cremer, 2012) causing aggressive behavior to spread between members and become an element of team norms (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Tepper et al., 2008). Recent laboratory research using functional

magnetic resonance imaging to track neural activity has provided compelling evidence that negatively framed coaching puts people on the defensive and produces characteristics of the human stress response (Boyatzis et al., 2010). This is consistent with prior research indicating that coercive leadership styles are associated with higher levels of tension, stress, emotional exhaustion, and psychological distress among followers (Aryee, Sun, Chen, & Debrah, 2008; Chen & Kao, 2009; Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007; Nyberg et al., 2011; Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006; Wu & Hu, 2009). These negative responses are known to promote higher levels of conflict and dysfunction within the team (e.g., Drach-Zahavy & Freund, 2007; Driskell et al., 1999), which in turn diminishes members' satisfaction and their intentions to remain in the group (Aubé & Rousseau, 2011; Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Jehn, 1995; Mayer et al., 2012). Therefore, the consistent arousal of prevention-focus through pressure-based coaching may adversely affect team commitment by creating negative emotional responses (i.e., tension and discord) within the team that hinder team processes and alienate workers from the group.

> **Hypothesis 5:** Pressure-based coaching is negatively related to team commitment through increases in team tension.

Method

Procedure and Sample

Data for this study were collected as part of a larger research project focusing on managerial training and development. Data used in this study were collected from managers and their direct report teams three times within a 4½-year period; only participants for whom at least three rounds of data were collected were included in the study. Data were collected electronically by an outside third party via a secured server. The data and the individualized reports were considered to be the property of the participants.

The original sample consisted of 987 mid-level managers and their teams. Managers and their subordinate team members were employed by a large, multinational technology-driven firm. Response rates for the managers and team members were 84% and 63%, respectively. On average, 3.74 team members from each team completed questionnaires. After removing incomplete data, as well as data not captured from both the manager and each team member, the final analysis sample was reduced to 714 managers and their subordinate teams. The average age of the manager was 37 years, with an average length of service of 9 years. Twenty-eight percent were female and 62% were from the United States.

Measures

Facilitative and pressure-based coaching as well as team commitment, tension, and effectiveness were measured using items from the Survey of Management Practices

(SMP; Form LB; Wilson & Wilson, 1991). This questionnaire has been found to be psychometrically sound in multiple studies (e.g., Leslie & Fleenor, 1998; Morrison, McCall, & DeVries, 1978; Shipper, 1995; Van Velsor & Leslie, 1991). The stability of the questionnaire has been tested successfully using a multisample measurement model to assess both discriminant validity within and construct validity across five cultures—Irish, Israeli, Malaysian, Filipino, and the U.S. (Hoffman, Shipper, Davy, & Rotondo, 2014). The measures in this study were retested for internal consistency and interrater agreement as appropriate.

Facilitative Coaching. Facilitative coaching was measured using eight items that represent specific forms of interaction that communicate the organization's vision and orient team members to their tasks (Boyatzis et al., 2010; Seijts, Latham, Tasa, & Latham, 2004) and address each of Heslin et al.'s (2006) components of positive employee coaching: guidance, facilitation, and inspiration. Sample items include "Coaches group members to help them improve performance on the job," "Is a helpful coach and trainer," and "Discusses how group members' work and goals relate to the organization's goals and projects" ($\alpha = .90$). The composite mean of team members' responses to the eight items at Time 1 was used in all analyses (intraclass correlation [ICC] range = .15 to .22).

Pressure-Based Coaching. Pressure-based coaching was measured using four items, including "Punishes or yells at people when they make mistakes" and "Seems to feel it is necessary to apply pressure to get results." The composite mean of team members' responses to the four items at Time 1 was used in all analyses (ICC range = .24 to .27; $\alpha = .86$).

Team Commitment. We used a four-item measure of team commitment from the SMP that represents the strength of an individual's involvement in his or her team which has been used in prior research (e.g., Shipper & Davy, 2002). Sample items include "We are committed to reaching our goals" and "We put out a lot of effort to meet commitments." Items were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *extremely small extent, never, or not at all* to 7 = *extremely great extent, or always*, and the measure showed good internal consistency ($\alpha = .84$). The composite mean of team members' responses to the four items at Time 2 was used in all analyses (ICC range = .10 to .15).

Team Tension. Team tension was measured using four items in the SMP that assesses respondents' emotional state. Sample items include "The situation in the group is full of tension" and "I feel under pressure from management." Items were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = *extremely small extent, never, or not at all* to 7 = *extremely great extent, or always*. The composite mean of team members' responses to the four items at Time 2 was used in all analyses (ICC range = .11 to .22; $\alpha = .80$).

Team Effectiveness. To avoid criticisms of common source bias, the manager of each team rated the level of the team's effectiveness using four items from the SMP. Items
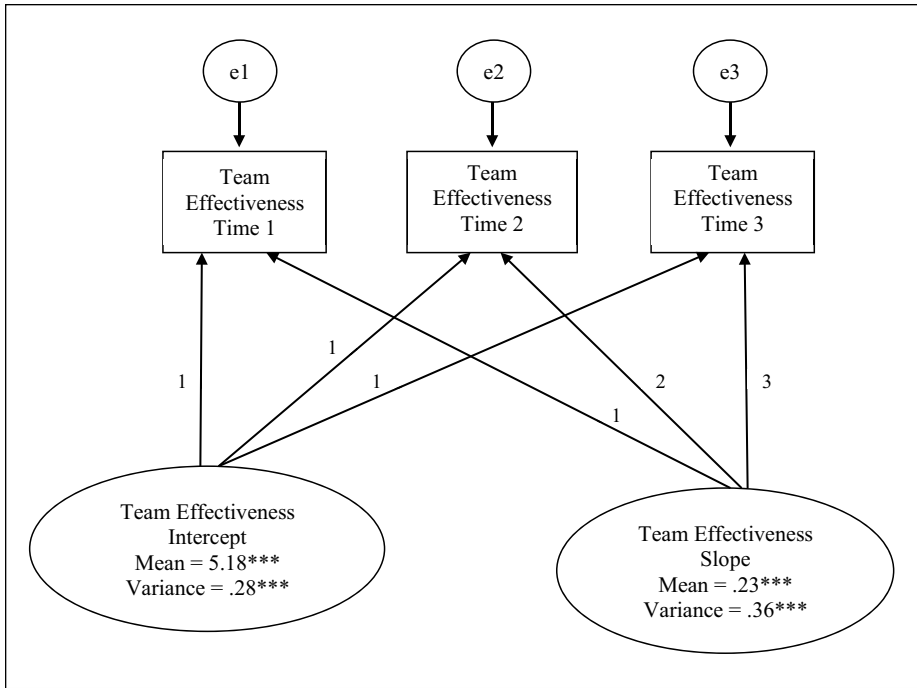
Figure 1. Latent growth curve model for team effectiveness.
Note. N = 714.
***p < .001.

include "This work group does high quality work," "This work group does its work well," "This work group is very productive," and "This work group has a very positive impact on the organization" (α = .91 at Time 1, α = .92 at Time 2, and α = .91 at Time 3). The slope of team effectiveness as determined by latent growth curve analysis was used in the structural equation modeling analysis.

Controls. Managers' gender, age, and experience were controlled in all analyses.

Analyses

We used structural equation modeling with AMOS 19 (Arbuckle, 2005) to examine the fit of our measurement and structural models to the data and to test our hypotheses. We examined a series of three models: an initial latent growth curve model, a measurement model, and a structural model. The latent growth curve model, shown in Figure 1, enabled us to examine the average growth in team effectiveness over time. Latent growth curve modeling is an application of structural equation modeling that uses longitudinal data to identify patterns of change over time. Several advantages over

competing methods such as ANCOVA and multilevel modeling have been identified (Preacher, Wichman, MacCallum, & Briggs, 2008). For example, the use of latent growth curve modeling allows for the examination of intraindividual (within-person) as well as interindividual (between-person) variability in change over time. That is, it allows us to explore the general characteristics of growth for the sample as a whole as well as the variability among the teams. Moreover, it also allows researchers to investigate antecedents and consequences of change and provides group-level statistics such as mean growth rate and mean intercept (Preacher et al., 2008). Since latent growth curve modeling is an application of structural equation modeling, it also allows for all the advantages of structural equation modeling such as the ability to assess model fit, the ability to take into account measurement error by using latent repeated measures, and the ability to overcome issues related to missing data (Preacher et al., 2008). It is for these reasons that we employed latent growth curve modeling in the current study.

We then tested the measurement model that was essentially a confirmatory factor analysis of the relationships between the indicators and their respective latent variables (Rothbard, 2001). For each variable, with the exception of facilitative coaching, we used four individual items as indicators of the latent variables (Kenny, 1977). For facilitative coaching, we combined the eight items into four parcels using the procedure suggested by Landis, Beal, and Tesluk (2000). After a single-factor maximum-likelihood analysis of the items was conducted, items with the highest and lowest loadings were assigned to the first parcel, items with the second-highest and lowest items were assigned to the second parcel, the third-highest and lowest items were assigned to the third parcel, and the remaining two items were assigned to the fourth parcel. The four composite parcels were then used to represent the latent construct, facilitative coaching.

The test of the structural model examined the effects shown in Figure 2 and allowed us to test our hypotheses. The fit statistics examined included (a) chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic, (b) chi-square statistic/degrees of freedom, (c) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993), and (d) comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990).

Results

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations between the variables used to test the model.

Latent Growth Curve Model

As a preliminary analysis examining change on the dependent variable, team effectiveness over the three measurement occasions, a univariate growth model was tested. The two-factor linear growth model was specified so that the intercept factor, constrained to a constant value of 1, served as the starting point (i.e., initial status) for any change across time. The slope factor captured the rate of change of the trajectory over
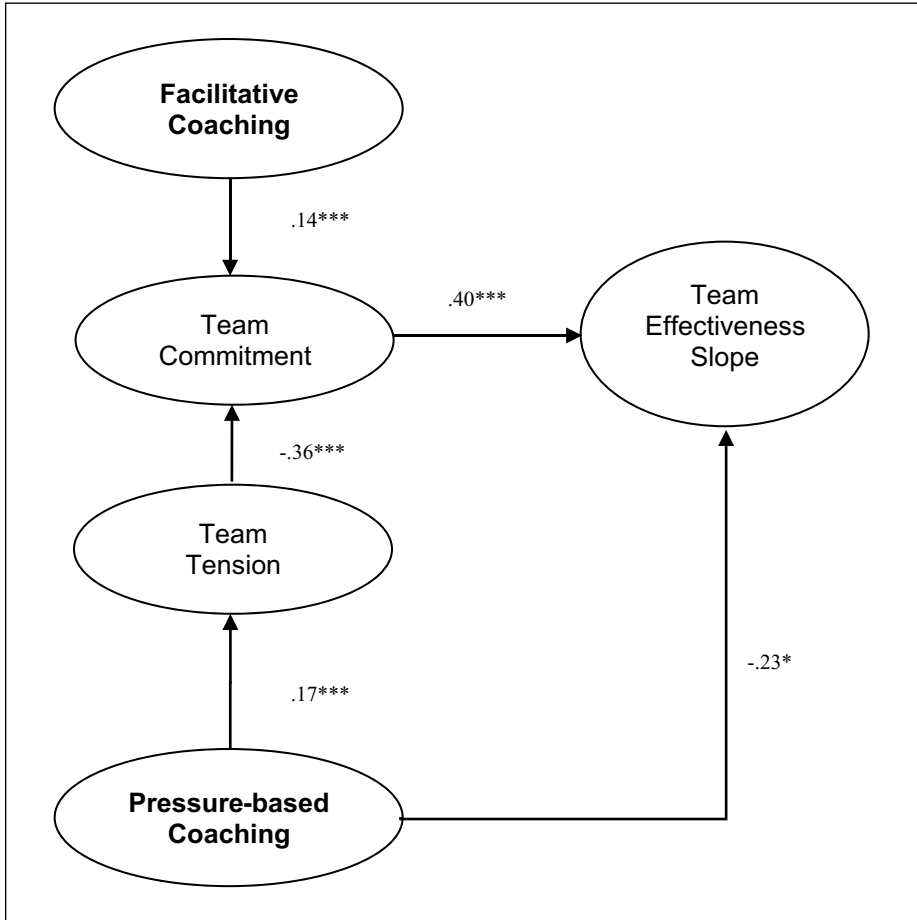
Figure 2. Standardized structural model of the relationships among facilitative coaching, pressure-based coaching, team commitment, team tension, and team effectiveness.
Note. N = 714.
*p < .05. ***p < .001.

time. The scaling of the slope was specified using a fixed value (1, 2, 3), representing linear growth (Meredith & Tisak, 1990).

The two-factor latent growth curve model examining the growth of team effectiveness over the 54-month period fit the data well, ($\chi^2[2]$, $N = 714$) = 3.05, $p < .22$ ($\chi^2/df = 1.52$, RMSEA = .03, CFI = .98). The model indicated a significant positive mean for the slope ($\mu_{slope} = .23$, $p < .001$), suggesting increases in team effectiveness over time. A significant variance component in both the intercept ($\psi_{intercept} = .28$, $p < .001$) and the slope ($\psi_{slope} = .36$, $p < .001$) factors indicated that there were significant differences among the teams in both initial levels and growth in team effectiveness. The negative

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for All Variables.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	0.28	0.45									
2. Organizational tenure	105.04	57.88	.01								
3. Age	37.49	6.53	-.05	.40**							
4. Facilitative coaching	5.04	0.70	.00	.05	-.08*						
5. Pressure-based coaching	2.85	0.91	.08*	.04	-.08*	-.05					
6. Team commitment	5.61	0.54	.08*	.00	.01	.12**	-.08*				
7. Team tension	3.31	0.82	-.02	.01	-.02	.03	.15**	-.31**			
8. Team effectiveness (T1)	5.18	0.81	.01	.05	.01	.14**	-.05	.09*	-.01		
9. Team effectiveness (T2)	5.31	0.77	.05	-.06	-.02	-.00	-.11**	.19**	-.11**	.14**	
10. Team effectiveness (T3)	5.41	0.78	.00	-.05	-.03	.02	-.06	-.06	-.02	.10**	.30**

Note. $N = 714$.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

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relation between team effectiveness at the initial time of measurement and changes in team effectiveness (cov = −.20, *p* < .001) suggests that teams that started out with lower levels of effectiveness experienced greater increases in effectiveness across time. This finding underscores the potential positive influence of the institutional management development program over the long term.

Measurement Model

The measurement model fit the data quite well. Perhaps due to the large sample size (*N* = 714), the chi-square for the model was significant. However, the other fit statistics met or exceeded generally accepted criteria, (χ^2[140], *N* = 714) = 435.62, *p* < .001 (χ^2/df = 3.11, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .95). The standardized regression weights for the indicators ranged from .63 to .88 (see Table 2). All the relationships between the indicators and their respective latent variables were statistically significant (*p* < .001) with *t* values (critical ratios) between 14.03 and 27.47.

Structural Equation Model

Our structural model contained all the paths shown in Figure 1. The model also included the three control variables (age, gender, and organizational tenure) for which paths were created between each control and the dependent variable, team effectiveness slope. The model provided an excellent fit to the data, (χ^2[196], *N* = 714) = 520.63, *p* < .001 (CFI = .95, RMSEA = .05). With respect to our hypotheses, no support was found for Hypothesis 1 as the direct path between facilitative coaching at Time 1 and team effectiveness at Time 3 was not significant (β = .02, *ns*). However, support was found for Hypothesis 2 in that the negative path between pressure-based coaching at Time 1 and team effectiveness at Time 3 was significant (β = −.24, *p* < .05). Findings provide support for Hypothesis 3, as team commitment at Time 2 was positively related to team effectiveness at Time 3 (β = .40, *p* < .001). Support was also found for Hypothesis 4, which predicted a positive relationship between facilitative coaching at Time 1 and team commitment at Time 2 (β = .14, *p* < .01). Hypothesis 5, which predicted that pressure-based coaching at Time 1 would be negatively related to team commitment through team tension was also supported (destructive leadership → team tension: β = −.17, *p* < .01; team tension → team commitment: β = −.36, *p* < .01).

Discussion

Interest in workplace coaching has markedly increased recently with scholars repeatedly noting the importance of effective coaching for managerial, team, and organizational success (Boyatzis et al., 2006; Boyatzis, Smith, Van Oosten, & Woolford, 2013; Heslin et al., 2006; Liu & Batt, 2010). Yet despite the importance of coaching, few have acknowledged that managers likely use different coaching tactics, and little attention has been given to the possibility that ineffective coaching methods may produce unfavorable consequences. To address this, and to enhance theory and research

Table 2. Standardized Loadings of Latent Variables on Indicator.

Latent variable	Item	Standardized loading
Facilitative coaching	Clearly communicates the importance of the group's goals	.83
	Discusses goals with the group to be sure they are clear	.83
	Sets goals which help the group make worthwhile contributions	.84
	Discusses how group members' work and goals relate to the organization's goals and projects	.77
	Is a helpful coach and trainer	.79
	Coaches group members to help them improve performance on the job	.84
	Makes sure people have the resources and training to do their work	.77
	Looks for ways to help people do a better job	.83
Pressure-based coaching	Punishes or yells at people when the make mistakes	.74
	Gets upset when goals are not met	.78
	Seems to feel it is necessary to apply pressure to get results	.77
	Complains vigorously if goals are not met	.87
Team commitment	We put out a lot of effort to meet commitments	.79
	We are committed to reaching our goals	.88
	I work hard because I like it here	.63
	I try hard to do my work well	.76
Team tension	I feel under pressure from management	.66
	Things here seem to be in a constant state of crisis	.66
	I feel uneasy in dealing with management	.64
	The situation in the group is full of tension	.83

on employee coaching, we delineated the concepts of facilitative and pressure-based coaching to address the variability in coaching behaviors and styles that managers may employ. Rooting our framework in regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997), we shed light on the ways in which coaching episodes can be framed so as to stimulate promotion or prevention focus in employees thereby producing differing emotional and attitudinal responses. Our study responds to calls to move beyond the individual level of analysis (Liu & Batt, 2010) and addresses the longer-term influence of coaching on team-level outcomes.

We examined relationships between facilitative and pressure-based coaching and changes in team effectiveness using a 3-wave longitudinal research design. Findings suggest that facilitative coaching has an indirect effect on team effectiveness by fostering greater commitment among team members, which then translated into increasing

team effectiveness over a 54-month period of time. Conversely, pressure-based coaching had a direct negative effect on changes in team effectiveness over time; with results suggesting that pressure-based coaching may spark harmful emotional responses and a climate of tension among the team, which in turn detrimentally effects team commitment. These finding are particularly important given that, with few exceptions, the coaching literature has focused almost exclusively on the facilitative nature of coaching practices and the resulting benefits for employees who receive positive forms of coaching. To our knowledge, this is the first study to empirically examine the relationship between the contrasting forms of coaching and team effectiveness and highlights the lasting effects of coaching on important team-level outcomes.

Results from this study present a number of interesting insights and provide several areas for future research. Of particular interest is that growth curve analysis indicated that, over time, facilitative and pressure-based coaching practices have divergent influences on team-level functioning. As such, the findings support the notion that while stimulating prevention focus may be a useful short-term motivational tool (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Lockwood et al., 2002), consistent use of this tactic likely comes at the detriment to long-term team performance outcomes. Our finding that pressure-based coaching had a direct effect on team effectiveness, while facilitative coaching had only indirect effects highlights the significance of this issue. These relationships seemingly suggest that limiting instances of pressure-based coaching will be more important to long-term team functioning than will increases in facilitative coaching. Moreover, while facilitative and pressure-based coaching exhibited a moderate negative correlation in this study, the relationship was in fact not significant. Though contrary to our initial expectations, this finding suggests that managers enact both forms of coaching in their efforts to motivate and develop their employees. Presumably, managers intentionally enact either tactic based on the belief that one is more appropriate or necessary for a given purpose or situation. Nevertheless, managers will be wise to monitor the extent to which they employ negative, security-based coaching for relatively immediate performance gains so as to not lose sight of its broader and likely more important influence on enduring team effectiveness and sustainability. Rather, managers concerned with producing sustained team-level functioning should favor eliciting promotion focused employees through the use of positively framed and nurturance-based coaching techniques aimed toward the pursuit of personal goals and aspirations as opposed to the avoidance of retribution and failure.

Moreover, this study illustrated that tension and commitment help explain the impact of coaching behaviors on team effectiveness over time. These findings highlight the pivotal role that team members' emotional and attitudinal responses play in the relationships between coaching experiences and team effectiveness. They are also consistent with interesting laboratory research that has exposed the unique psychophysiological reactions of individuals to developmental versus critical feedback (Boyatzis et al., 2010). The beneficial influence of positively framed coaching on commitment lends support to notions that coaching with compassion may arouse cognitive, emotional, perceptual, and behavioral openness, whereas the association between negatively framed coaching and tension provides added credence to claims

that coaching based on weakness is likely to arouse the human stress response and decrease cognitive functioning (Boyatzis et al., 2006; Boyatzis, Smith, & Beveridge, 2012). Furthermore, these findings suggest that these emotional responses may spread throughout the team and engender a climate of tension that hinders team processes. The literature has seen the introduction of many foundation and specific climate variables in recent years based on the aggregation of individual perceptions and attitudes (e.g., interactional justice climate, voice climate, competitive climate). We suggest that a climate of tension offers another interesting climate-type construct based on the emotional norms in which the team may operate, and interesting research will address the role that coaching plays in the development of team climates.

Given the important role that these variables played in the current study, future research should examine additional factors that may explain relationships between coaching experiences and team outcomes. For example, might opposing forms of coaching elicit different types of behaviors among team members? Perhaps facilitative coaching brings about greater citizenship behaviors, backing up behaviors, creativity, or innovation (Chen et al., 2011; Kim & Kuo, 2015), while pressure-based coaching may spur counterproductive behaviors, in-fighting, avoidance behaviors, or extensive politicking. Moreover, future research should examine the conditions that might influence the manner or extent to which coaching practices may impact team effectiveness. For example, it is likely that individual difference variables, such as experience, education, job tenure, and dispositional variables (e.g., emotional stability, emotional intelligence) may play a role in the individual-level attitudinal and behavioral responses to various coaching experiences. In particular, future research should consider the influence of employees' trait-level self-regulatory focus. Individuals vary with regard to their receptivity to promotion and prevention focus (Stapel & Koomen, 2001), suggesting that the fit between an individual's primary orientation and the manager's coaching style is likely to impact individual and team outcomes (Lockwood et al., 2002; Sue-Chan et al., 2012).

Finally, we encourage research that further explores our notions of potentially differing effects of leader behaviors and team attitudes across the short versus long terms. Time has become an increasingly salient component of theoretical and empirical research. Many scholars have noted the need to include time in our conceptualizations and researchers have attempted to empirically address this in a number of ways (Gevers & Peeters, 2009; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Mohammed, Hamilton, & Lim, 2009; Mohammed & Nadkarni, 2011). Along these lines, we call on researchers to consider the ways that leader and team behaviors may initially spark positive (or negative) responses, which over time manifest in contrasting effects. For instance, might negative experiences on entry to an organization or team have immediate negative effects at the individual level, but in time these experiences come to serve as the foundation for identity with and unity among the group? Perhaps overcoming conflict or enduring a toxic supervisor may be a means through which remaining team members ultimately find solidarity in the long run. In contrast, might supportive efforts by leaders initially help an individual achieve his/her goals, but possibly be viewed as unfair by other members and ignite derision within the team? We anticipate extensive oppor-

tunities for researchers to examine the potential for differential effects of leader behaviors across the individual level and team level over time.

Study Limitations

Although the findings provide support for the notion that coaching practices have longer term implications for team effectiveness, some limitations to the study should be noted. The use of surveys as a method of data collection can be considered a limitation to the study as self-report questionnaires have the potential for allowing bias due to common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). However, we incorporated data from both the manager (team effectiveness) and team members (facilitative and pressure-based coaching, commitment, and tension) within the analyses to mitigate the likelihood of bias due to single-source ratings. In addition, the sample used may limit the generalizability of the findings. Since the sample was composed of employees within the high-tech industry, extending the findings to other populations should be done with caution.

In addition, despite the strength of the longitudinal research design, additional data collection points beyond three would allow for an examination of the longer term implications of facilitative and pressure-based coaching on team-related outcomes. Moreover, additional data collection points would enable the inclusion of multiple growth curve analyses within one study, thereby offering the opportunity to examine not only the longer term effects of coaching practices on team effectiveness but also changes in the emotional and attitudinal mechanisms that may mediate these relationships. In addition, our measures of facilitative and pressure-based coaching practices could be improved. Given that, to our knowledge, this was the first study to empirically examine the two distinct forms of coaching, we had limited options for measures of the coaching variables, particularly pressure-based coaching. Future research would benefit from validated coaching constructs.

Finally, although we theorized that the stimulation of regulatory foci is the mechanism through which facilitative and pressure-based coaching may lead to distinct emotional and attitudinal responses, this study did not explicitly measure the occurrence of a promotion focus or a prevention focus. Future research explicitly addressing these relationships would allow for a better understanding of the value and effectiveness of specific coaching behaviors via the self-regulatory reactions and responses of subordinates.

Conclusions

In sum, the current study highlights the importance of recognizing the distinction between facilitative and pressure-based coaching and sheds light on the divergent consequences associated with these two opposing experiences. Our findings are consistent with prior research that has touted the individual as well as organizational benefits associated with positively framed coaching; however, we also shed light on the detrimental consequences that may result from negatively framed coaching practices.

Indeed, our findings highlight importance of recognizing not only the "if" and "when" of coaching but also the "how."

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

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