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DISSERTATION

UNDERSTANDING MANAGERIAL COACHING: THE ROLE OF MANAGER ATTRIBUTES AND SKILLS IN EFFECTIVE COACHING

Submitted by

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In partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Colorado State University

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WE HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE DISSERTATION PREPARED UNDER OUR SUPERVISION BY RUSSELL CROPANZANO, JERRY DEFFENBACHER, KATHY RICKARD, AND MICHAEL SLATER ENTITLED UNDERSTANDING MANAGERIAL COACHING: THE ROLE OF MANAGER ATTRIBUTES AND SKILLS IN EFFECTIVE COACHING BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING IN PART REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

Committee on Graduate Work

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

UNDERSTANDING MANAGERIAL COACHING: THE ROLE OF MANAGER ATTRIBUTES AND SKILLS IN EFFECTIVE COACHING

As the world of work has changed, so have the roles and responsibilities of managers. Organizations have begun to insist that leaders take much of the responsibility for the development of employees. One proven method for doing so is through one-on-one coaching between manager and employee. While coaching has been found to be effective, there has been no research on which personal attributes and skills help make a coach effective. This study investigates the relationship among managerial attributes, managerial skills, and coaching performance to help fill this gap in the literature.

The literature is reviewed and a model for coaching performance is proposed and tested. The results indicate that managers who are effective coaches are more likely to build relationships with their staff and to lead courageously. In addition, those who were bright were more likely to be effective in analyzing issues, which helped them to lead in a courageous or forthright manner. In contrast, when one was bright but did not use his or her intelligence to carefully analyze issues, a negative relationship between intelligence and leading courageously was found, indicating that the more intelligent the individual, the less likely they were to be considered a strong leader, as well as an effective coach.

This is an important finding as it challenges the long accepted theory that intelligence is the foremost predictor of performance (with a positive, not a negative relationship).

Building relationships with people was also found to be a significant predictor of coaching performance. Those who listened to their staff and were outgoing and social were more likely to be viewed as making interpersonal connections with employees and therefore perceived as better coaches.

The findings of this study have implications for how managers are hired and developed. The results suggest that organizations must look not only at personal attributes such as cognitive ability, assertiveness, and sociability, but also at how these are channeled through skills such as analyzing issues, leading courageously, listening to others, and building relationships. Study limitations and future research directions are proposed and discussed.

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Understanding Managerial Coaching: The Role of Manager Attributes and Skills in Effective Coaching

In 1997 Pizza Hut Corporation implemented an organization-wide coaching program in which every leader above the level of shift manager took on the title of coach. This change brought a radical new approach to leadership for their company. Leaders became directly accountable for the development of their people, just as they are for meeting their bottomline goals. As a result, the culture at Pizza Hut has become more of a learning environment. In addition, Pizza Hut reports a significant gain in revenues which they attribute directly to this program (Lewis, 1998).

American Express Financial Advisors has also insisted that all team leaders and managers, as well as many individual contributors take on a coaching role. Their efforts to develop people through coaching has helped give them a competitive advantage in attracting and retaining talent as well as in contributing to the bottomline (C. Johnson, personal communication, April, 1999).

Leslye Louie, Americas Operation Manger, Product Support Division, Hewlett-Packard (H-P) works closely with an external coach and, in turn, actively coaches employees within H-P. She has found a dramatic increase in skill level and performance among her people, and she is highly sought after as a coach and as a leader (Louie, 1998).

These are but a few of hundreds of examples of how coaching has become increasingly important to organizations and leaders working in a highly competitive labor market (Graham, Wedman, & Garvin-Kester, 1993; Peterson, Uranowitz, & Hicks, 1996).

Coaching is "the process of equipping people with the tools, knowledge, and opportunities they need to develop themselves and become more effective" (Peterson & Hicks, 1996). Managerial coaching involves supervisors meeting one-on-one with their direct reports or other employees within the organization whom they are coaching and helping them learn and practice new skills to accelerate their development. The need for coaching in the workplace arose from the changing demands on managers to work with individuals, develop them, and help them realize their potential. Managers face increasing demands for performance on the part of their employees. Many managers are finding themselves in a situation of having to do more with less, and they have found development of their people to be a critical component to becoming more efficient. The responsibility for providing this development generally falls to the manager (Louie, 1998). Therefore, many leaders have found themselves in the position of being a coach as well as a manager.

Managers and leaders in organizations have recognized the need for employee development and have found one-on-one coaching to be an effective way to realize desired results for both the individual and the organization (Bielous, 1994; Hicks & Peterson, 1997a; Peterson & Hicks, 1996). However, being an effective coach is quite different from being a "traditional" supervisor. As a result, a new type of manager with a different set of characteristics and attributes is needed. Leaders have to be competent in more of the "soft skills" of management such as interpersonal skills, communication

skills, as well as leadership and development. Thus, selection of managers has become more difficult as organizations have to consider a broader range of competencies (Levinson, 1980; Spreitzer, McCall, & Mahoney, 1997). Organizations have found that development and coaching requires that leaders have unique attributes and skill sets (Lewis, 1998; Tobias, 1990). While still important, being task-oriented, execution-minded, and having sound judgment no longer guarantees success for managers. Leaders have to be more sophisticated and savvy in working with people (Cohen & Jaffee, 1982; Peterson, 1993).

Unfortunately, research has not kept up with the practice of coaching in business. As a result, there has been a great deal of confusion regarding what it takes to be an effective coach, what coaching looks like, and how to do it well (Hellervik, Hazucha, & Schneider, 1992; Peterson, 1993; Hicks & Peterson, 1997a; Peterson et al., 1996). The bulk of the literature regarding managerial coaching consists of case study accounts and practical experience of managers and consultants involved in coaching (Bell, 1997; Keil, Rimmer, Williams, & Doyle, 1996; Landsberg, 1997; Levinson, 1996; Lukaszewski, 1988; Smith, 1993; Tichy & Charan, 1995; Wallach, 1983). While there is a great deal of work being done in practice, there has not been the scientific support needed to fully understand coaching. Research on the subject generally suggests that coaching is effective; however, that research is quite limited. In fact, no research has investigated what it takes for an individual to be a great coach. Research on the attributes and skills required of managers to be effective coaches is greatly needed so that organizations can more effectively select people who are likely to be good coaches as well as to develop incumbent leaders (e.g., Graham et al., 1993; Peterson et al., 1996; Scandura, 1992;

Stowell, 1988). The current study begins to fill this gap in the literature by investigating the critical attributes and skills that lead to effective coaching.

To explore the relationship between coaching effectiveness and managerial attributes and skills, coaching will be defined and the effectiveness of coaching will be reviewed. Next, the history of coaching in organizations will be traced. A model presenting the predictive relationship among managerial attributes, skills, and effective coaching will be proposed and discussed, and hypotheses will then be posited. The methods used in the study will be outlined and results will be reported. Implications of the findings will be presented and discussed along with the limitations and proposed direction for future research. By investigating the characteristics required of managers to be effective coaches, the present study will help our field better define competencies around which selection and development decisions can be made within organizations.

Coaching Defined

Managerial coaching today has been defined in terms of the individual being coached, as "unlocking a person's potential to maximize their own performance" (Whitmore, 1996, p. 8); in terms of what the coach does, "interviewing and counseling with a focus on reality problems" (Levinson, 1996, p. 116); and in terms of business results, "facilitate private individual learning in order to achieve identified business results" (Hodgetts & Knudson, 1993, p. 214).

Peterson and Hicks (1996, p. 14) take a more holistic approach, defining coaching as "the process of equipping people with the tools, knowledge, and opportunities they need to develop themselves and become more effective." This definition is particularly helpful in that it captures the essential elements of coaching suggested throughout the

literature: relationship, process, realization of effectiveness, and empowering the individual. Implied in the Peterson and Hicks definition is that the coach or manager helps a person learn and develop on their own. The responsibility for the process lies not only with the manager but also with the employee. Managers who coach guide the individual by first establishing a relationship with them and then acting as a sounding board and mirror – giving constant feedback and guidance. Managerial coaching, like other managerial tasks, requires sound judgment and task knowledge; however, it also requires that the manager have strong interpersonal, leadership, and communication skills.

To best understand coaching it is also helpful to consider what coaching is not. Coaching is different from traditional training in that coaching is an on-going process where an individual works one-on-one with their manager, the coach. The process is specifically tailored to meet the needs of the employee being coached by his or her manager. Coaching involves a degree of assessment of the learner's skills, needs, and potential, followed by establishing a plan and then a great deal of practice and helping the individual learn new skills and integrate them into their current practices on the job (see Table 1 for a review of the processes used in coaching). While there is often a coaching plan, there is not a specific curriculum or agenda as found in a training program or workshop. The issues addressed are those agreed upon by the manager (coach) and his or her employee (coachee). Therefore, it tends to be a very dynamic and fluid process, changing as the individual's needs and the needs of the organization change. There is a great deal of follow-up and adjusting of the environment to maximize learning and opportunity to use new skills at work (Peterson & Hicks, 1996).

In contrast, training is typically a onetime engagement conducted in a group setting (Goldstein, 1993). The topics being presented are clearly established a priori and address the overall needs of the group, not those of any specific individual. Training, while often containing interactive exercises, is generally fairly didactic in nature. Effective training generally incorporates methods to help facilitate transfer of the learning in the classroom to the job; however, because it is typically a one time engagement, there is a limitation in the degree to which this can be successful (Ford, & Weissbein, 1997; Goldstein, 1993). Thus, while training is more geared toward teaching many people in one sitting, coaching focuses on guiding a specific individual over time.

Coaching and mentoring are often compared and contrasted. While there is some debate among practitioners as to differences, these are generally quite small and are often more differences of semantics than substance (Fey, 1998; Woods, 1998). For example, mentoring may be more informal than coaching in that it is dependent on the "chemistry" between the mentor and the mentee; however, effective coaching clearly relies on establishing a relationship so there can be trust between the manager and coachee (Evered & Selman, 1989; Peterson & Hicks, 1996).

Finally, coaching is different from task management in that it stresses performance in the future as well as current performance. Much of the benefit in coaching is in addressing current needs; however, there is also a large component that involves identifying future needs and helping the individual prepare to meet those demands. When managers are in the role of managing task performance, they tend to be more administratively minded, attending to details and follow-up (Personnel Decisions International, 1996). Coaching focuses on the individual's performance and effectiveness

in a more holistic manner, looking across tasks, duties and interpersonal style needed to improve performance in either a specific area or in overall effectiveness and career development (Levinson, 1996).

Providing developmental opportunities to employees is important to organizational effectiveness as well as to meeting the needs of employees. Following is a review of the history of coaching in business to give further understanding of the context in which coaching arose.

History of Managerial Coaching

Coaching has a rich origin that begins in transportation and moves through sports into organizations. The following section traces the history of coaching and brings us to present day coaching in organizations.

Origin of the Term

The word "coach" was coined in the 1500's to describe a particular type of carriage - important in that it describes a means of getting to the place one wants to be (Evered & Selman, 1989). This was prophetic, given that managerial coaching today emphasizes getting people where they want to go faster and better equipped (Peterson & Hicks, 1996). Similarly, an athletic or managerial coach helps an individual or a team to achieve performance goals.

By the early 1880's, the term was being used in athletics to describe rowing trainers (Evered & Selman, 1989). Coaches helped guide and direct crews so that they could be more efficient in the water and more likely to win. The term was later adopted by other sports to describe a trainer or leader, responsible for maximizing the performance of the individual as well as the team. Athletic coaches have long practiced

the art of guiding and developing individual players as well as the team as a whole to create winning teams, helping them get to the place they want to be. Both managers and athletic coaches help set strategy for success, guide the "players" by providing feedback and tap into their motivation so that they are committed to improvement and success.

The Evolving Role of the Manager

The focus of the managerial role has evolved greatly in the past century, having moved from a primarily coercive stance in which control was the driving factor to one in which team work, collaboration, and interdependence was emphasized. In the early part of the century, scientific management models were the standard. Control was instigated with an interest in streamlining productivity, first through motivating employees extrinsically, then later through appealing to their emotions and thoughts. Regardless of the impetus, early "scientific management" was dependent on control and manipulation (Barley & Kunda, 1992; Miller & O'Leary, 1989).

Coaching in Organizations: The Early Years

While coaching has enjoyed a recent rise in popularity among cutting-edge managers and leaders, the concept is not new to the world of industry. Evidence of the importance of coaching activities can be found as early as the turn of the century (DeBower & Jones, 1914). DeBower and Jones (1914) recognized coaching as an important vehicle of motivation and direction for sales managers to use in developing and guiding their sales force. They promoted spending one-on-one time with a manager's salesmen as an effective way to develop the staff's sales skills and confidence in selling, ultimately having a positive impact on the bottomline. While there was more focus on scientific management technology in the early part of the century, the coaching or

development-minded approach has seen a resurgence in modern organizations (Acosta-Amad & Brethower, 1992; Evered & Selman, 1989; Graham et al., 1993; Kilburg, 1996).

The 1950's saw the formal introduction of the term "coaching" into the workplace with Mace and Mahler's book On-the-Job Coaching (1958). Their work provides an early demonstration of the benefits of applying coaching strategies in the workplace. While their approach to coaching was not as comprehensive as it would be today, it did involve some one-on-one time, typically focused on teaching skills; therefore, it reflected more of what we know today as on-the-job training rather than true coaching. It lacked mindfulness of the relationship between coach/manager and learner/employee as well as attention to the motivations of the individual, along with opportunities to practice and methods of accountability.

In the late 1970's coaching in the workplace was revived and seen as a way to counsel and guide employees toward more effective performance (Buzzotta, Lefton, & Sherberg, 1977; Fournies, 1978). Since that time, a shift in paradigms has begun to occur in management; as a result, coaching has become increasingly popular and important to organizational and individual effectiveness (Evered & Selman, 1989, Graham et al., 1993; Hicks & Peterson, 1997a). Coaching has been around for some time; however it did not receive wide attention until more recently, in part due to the continuing dominance of the classical management model.

Coaching in Organizations: Current Needs

Today coaching has become a "hot" topic in industry. Increasingly, companies are requiring that leaders take on a coaching role. In a 1998 study in which 103 Human Resource leaders of major business units within 93 Global 1000 companies were

surveyed, it was found that 73% of the companies surveyed used internal coaches to develop their people (Personnel Decisions International, 1998). Fifty-percent required that managers coach their employees. Clearly, companies see value in development and are looking for ways to engage their leaders in activities to help individuals become more effective (Personnel Decisions International, 1998, Tobias, 1996).

As business and marketplace demands have changed, so have the leadership requirements of managers. Managers and supervisors have taken on a much more supportive and development-oriented role. There has been a shift in industry from traditional methods of management to a more person- and development-oriented approach. Managers and supervisors focus more on developing their employees to obtain enhanced performance rather than simply focusing on the task. This trend has created a transformation in the roles managers are expected to take on, moving away from the traditional managerial concept of meeting the bottom line through managing work to doing so by maximizing individual performer's potential (Graham et al., 1993; Kanter, 1983).

Demands of a competitive market and dwindling numbers of qualified job applicants have forced companies to place more attention on retaining and developing employees. The contract between organizations and employees has also changed. Employment for life is a relic of times gone by. Organizations can no longer afford to make such promises nor are employees interested in making a lifetime commitment to a single organization (Cropanzano & Prehar, in press; Rousseau, 1995). Given this, people are far more likely to change jobs and careers than ever before. This trend is exacerbated by the radical drop in unemployment over the past several years that has created the

employees' market predicted by Offermann and Gowing (1990). Thus, employers are looking for ways to entice employees to work for them, and one of the best incentives they have found is promising to develop them to be more marketable in the workplace overall. Because organizations need a mechanism for enticing people to work for them and motivating them to stay, offering effective development opportunities is even more important than it was only ten years ago (Patterson, West, Lawthim & Nickell, 1997).

To address the growing need to develop employees, today's managers are changing the ways in which they interact with their direct supports. As companies move away from traditional hierarchical management structures into more horizontal, matrixed and team-based organizations, managers and supervisors are challenged with different roles and are looking for new models for performance (Evered & Selman, 1989; Graham et al., 1993). Managers cannot afford to simply focus on managing tasks, relying on training and human resource departments to deal with people development. Leaders must now focus on fully developing each member of their team as well as providing guidance and feedback as a matter of course. Like managers, athletic coaches are also concerned with monitoring performance and assuring smooth and effective play. However, athletic coaches have always taken an active, hands-on approach to the development of players, working with them continually to improve their playing abilities (Pratt & Eitzen, 1989). Managers are being required to take an equally active role. Thus, the model established by athletic coaches has become a natural choice for managers to emulate (Chiaramonte & Higgins, 1993; Evered & Selman, 1989).

The change in demands on managers has changed the nature of their work along with the skills and abilities needed to be effective. Managerial effectiveness can no longer

be achieved with sound judgment and task execution skills alone. Successful managers and supervisors now have to have strong interpersonal and leadership skills as well. As a result, organizations must look for different traits in the managers they hire as well as develop different skills in existing leaders. They have to find managers and supervisors who are able to connect with their employees, deliver messages in a direct manner, provide on-going feedback, and listen effectively. The more managers tap into what motivates employees by asking good questions, listening to the answers, and using that information to coach subordinates to be more effective, the more successful the managers and their staff will be (Birkeland, et al., 1993).

Organizations have given a great deal of attention to coaching, and many are requiring their leaders to develop their employees through coaching. We might ask, what evidence exists to show that coaching is effective and worth the attention it is receiving in organizations. The literature on coaching is fairly limited; however, as outlined below, there is evidence that coaching provides significant advantages to organizations that want to fully develop employees.

Literature Review: Effectiveness of Coaching

There exist many methods to increase learning and development of individuals at work: for example, classroom and workshop training, on-the-job learning, formal education, and reading books, as well as formal and informal coaching. Given that organizations place such a high emphasis on developing people, which of these will provide the greatest realization of desirable and transferable results? Hicks and Peterson (1997) argue that to assure development genuine and lasting learning must occur. Learning and development require careful planning, daily practice, reflection on what

happens with practice, feedback and support, and transferring lessons learned to new tasks and challenges. This type of learning generally requires more than an individual effort. It requires that a partnership be forged to guide and support the learning process. Coaching provides the guidance and support needed by employees and it facilitates long-term improvement of performance (Peterson, 1993).

Peterson (1993) investigated the ability of a personalized coaching program to change the behavior of an individual over an extended period of time. His unique approach to measuring change in on-the-job behavior of individuals undergoing individualized coaching programs provides strong evidence that coaching creates significant and meaningful change. He conducted a longitudinal study to evaluate the outcome of coaching programs and demonstrated measurable change in behavior as a result of the coaching intervention. Participants underwent an intensive one-on-one coaching program with an external consultant as their coach. Peterson monitored the progress of the coaching participants (learners) with a customized rating inventory developed to reflect each learner's identified training needs. Thus, the measure of change was based on the goals set for development for that individual. In addition, ratings of overall performance were gathered. The ratings were completed by the learners, their boss, as well as by their coach at three intervals: pre-coaching, post-coaching, and at a follow-up time, several months after the conclusion of coaching.

Results of the post-coaching and follow-up measures demonstrate that all perspectives (boss, coachee, and coach) rated the coaching as effective in creating significant behavioral improvements over the initial ratings of pre-coaching skills. People being coached demonstrated significant change in the areas in which they were

trying to improve. In fact, their performance improved, on average, more than 1.5 standard deviations over where they were initially rated on the targeted skills. In addition, Peterson found that coaching not only improved the targeted skills but was also reflected in other areas of performance as well. He found that the learners significantly improved their overall effectiveness on the job. For example, if an employee was trying to improve his organizational skills, not only did he become more organized, they also became more productive and effective in other areas such as communication and interpersonal skills. Thus, coaching was found to increase performance in targeted areas of difficulty as well as in overall effectiveness (Peterson, 1993).

While the Peterson study is important, it is somewhat limited in that is does not address individuals who were not accepted for coaching. There is no control group, and thus we are uncertain how the behavior or skills of the participants might have changed even without the benefit of coaching. In addition, he looks exclusively at coaching provided by an external coach and does not consider the more common form of coaching done internally by line managers and human resource professionals. Nonetheless, this study provides the only true outcome measure of coaching effectiveness to date.

Thompson (1986) studied a similar population undergoing individualized coaching. He investigated effectiveness of coaching by contrasting individuals who began coaching but then terminated prematurely with those who underwent and completed a coaching program. Participants were rated by multiple sources (including self, boss, and coach) on several variables, including the number of skills demonstrated, effectiveness of skills used, frequency of skill use, satisfaction with changes achieved, and overall job effectiveness. He found that those who completed the program were

given significantly higher ratings on outcome measures than those who dropped out of coaching. In addition, and perhaps more important, participants who completed coaching programs were far more likely to maintain the skills they acquired than were those who did not complete their program. Those who completed the full coaching program were rated by 80% of criteria respondents (themselves and their bosses) as demonstrating continued effectiveness in the skills they gained. In fact, in most cases, the coachee continued learning and showed a continual increase in skill level at the time of the follow-up measure, suggesting that the benefits of coaching did not stop at the end of the program (Thompson, 1986).

This study suggests an important advantage of coaching over other developmental interventions. Coaching not only helps teach people new skills, it also teaches them how to learn more effectively and efficiently so that they can do more of it on their own; however, while this study demonstrates important evidence for the effectiveness of coaching, it does not account for the self-selection issues in those who completed coaching versus those who did not. There may be other factors that influenced why the "completers" were more effective that have to do with internal/personality or environmental factors rather than simply because of the coaching program.

Birkeland, Davis, Goff, Campbell, and Duke (1998) also studied the effects of coaching. Their study focused on the impact of coaching on the performance of approximately 70 midlevel managers working in a U.S. Fortune 50 petroleum company. They found coaching significantly enhanced both individual and organizational performance. The performance measures included: 1) salary data, 2) performance assessments/reviews, 3) assessments of advancement potential, and 4) employment status.

Those who went through coaching were rated as having improved 50% more on the rating of overall performance completed by their manager during their performance review, than did those in the control condition. In addition, those coached received salary increases that were 11% greater than those who did not receive coaching. Advancement in the organization was predicted more by the reason for enrollment in coaching (high potential, solid performer, or derailment risk) than by membership in the coaching intervention group. In other words, those who are already high performers are more likely to benefit from coaching than their lower performing counterparts. This implies that managers may see a higher pay-off for focusing their developmental on high potential employees rather than focusing primarily on problem employees. Evidence for organizational benefits was found as well. Their qualitative analysis supported the conclusion that skills learned in coaching (particularly communication and influencing) were directly responsible for several individuals' improved performance and had a significant impact on the organization's bottom line (Birkeland, et al., 1998).

The value of this study is in showing the value of coaching for both individuals and organizations as well as in understanding with whom coaching is most effective. However, it was based within a single organization and thus the generalizability of the findings is somewhat limited.

In a study investigating leadership behaviors and characteristics, Morgan (1989) identified 13 leadership dimensions, including areas such as integrity, participation, charismatic behavior, future vision, motivation, and coaching/mentoring. Results found that, of the 13 dimensions, coaching/mentoring was most closely related to "getting results." Coaching was also found to be significantly related to trust, influencing others

and a general measure of leadership. This is important evidence that coaching provides an effective means of improving performance at work.

People being coached are able to learn skills quickly and apply them in the workplace. Transfer of training is a common concern in the development field (Ford & Weissbein, 1997). Transfer of new skills to the workplace is critical if the training is to be of value and have a lasting impact on performance. By nature, coaching happens on an on-going basis, often in an on-the-job setting. Thus, skills are not only transferable to the real world; they are attained in the real world. In a study of transfer of training, coaching was also found to be a critical component in assuring lasting results from training (Acosta-Amad & Brethower, 1992). Acosta-Amad and Brethower (1992), found that post-training performance was greatly improved when coaching and feedback were present. Without these important components, effects of training on performance were quickly lost.

Clearly there is powerful, albeit limited, evidence that coaching is an effective intervention for accelerating development. A common limitation to all of the above studies is the lack of consideration of what it takes to be an effective coach. Each of the studies reviewed investigates aspects of the outcome and process of coaching. None of them consider the personal attributes and characteristics needed to provide good coaching. Without the understanding of what makes a great coach, organizations are left in the dark as to whom to hire to be managers and supervisors, as well as to what they should focus on when developing existing leaders to be better coaches. The current study helps to fill this gap in our knowledge by investigating the manager attributes required to be an effective coach.

To hire better coaches and to train managers to coach, we need to have a sense of what differentiates managers who are good coaches from those who are not talented in developing others. Are there specific qualities in an individual that predispose them to be a better coach? What are the attributes that make a manager a good coach? In addition, which skills are most used in coaching? To explore these questions and to provide guidance to organizations interested in creating learning organizations, a model for the proposed predictive relationships among managerial attributes, coaching-related skills, and coaching effectiveness is presented and discussed below.

Coaching Model: Relationships of Managerial Attributes, Skills, and Coaching Performance

Today's leaders are responsible for managing and developing talent. Managers used to be able to focus all their efforts on running the business through directing tasks and people, a focus which requires keen attention to detail, follow-up, and strong strategic and critical thinking skills (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). Thus, cognitive skills have been highly depended upon for the selection of managers. Cognitive skills are still important today; however, now that coaching and development have become such an important part of a manager's job, they alone are not enough. While there is no research suggesting which attributes and skills are required in coaching, there is a body of practitioner literature based on years of experience that gives some insight into what it takes to be a good coach. The attributes that the literature consistently suggests are most important include: interpersonal abilities such as sociability and empathy, assertiveness, and cognitive abilities. Practitioners also identify specific skills that are important to coaching: analyzing issues, building relationships, listening, and leading courageously.

This study investigates the relationship among these managerial attributes, coaching-related skills, and coaching performance, using the model shown in Figure 1.

We have an understanding of coaching effectiveness as demonstrated in the coaching research literature (Birkeland, et al., 1997; Morgan, 1989; Peterson, 1993; Peterson, 1996; Personnel Decisions International, 1998; Thompson; 1986). There is evidence coaching can make a difference for organizations and individuals. However, there is little evidence as to which attributes and skills are required of a good coach. Following is a review of this literature to explore the key skills and attributes identified by these subject matter experts and represented in the coaching model (see Figure 1).

Coaching-related Skills

There are several skills identified as important in the literature; however, the four competency areas that are most consistently mentioned are: analyzing issues, building relationships, listening skills, and leadership skills.

Analyzing issues. Because effective development occurs when an employee is working on issues that are important to him or her and to the organization, it is important for the manager to accurately assess the needs of the organization as well as those of the individual. The leader must also continually attend to what is important to all stakeholders and to where the person is in his or her development, so that changes in course can be made as needs, demands, and expectations change and evolve (Hicks & Peterson, 1997b); therefore, coaches must be able to think critically about issues and recognize trends and patterns as well as demonstrate sound judgment.

In addition, managers who are adept in analyzing issues are also likely to feel more comfortable in expressing their ideas and speaking out (Bass, 1990). With their

analysis, these individuals will obtain data and insight that will give them an advantage in understanding issues and problems (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). With such evidence, they are likely to recognize trends or opportunities that others do not, and therefore they are more apt to make tough decisions when others may feel more hesitant to do so. Given this, they are more likely to lead courageously and take calculated and reasonable risks.

> **H_1:** The manager's skills in analyzing issues will be directly and positively related to his or her effectiveness as a coach.

> **H_2:** A manager who is proficient in analyzing issues will lead more courageously and thus coach more effectively.

Leading courageously. Coaching requires managers to speak-up, give timely feedback and to provide strong leadership (Diedrich, 1996; Good, 1993; Lukaszewski, 1998; Peterson & Hicks, 1996). Being direct and up-front can be difficult, as forthrightness requires the manager to demonstrate a willingness to take a stand and guide employees, especially when development efforts become difficult. Guidance requires a certain degree of leadership and assertiveness to champion the learner's process, both with that individual and with the organization as a whole. Demonstrating leadership not only helps the leader provide appropriate learning opportunities, it will also help her maintain credibility in the eyes of the learner (Evered & Selman, 1989).

> **H_3:** The manager's skills in leading courageously will be directly and positively related to his or her effectiveness as a coach.

Building a relationship. Establishing a solid relationship or partnership is critical to any coaching process (Evered & Selman, 1989; Peterson & Hicks, 1996; Levinson, 1996). The relationship between manager and employee provides the foundation on

which the entire coaching process is built. It is through this relationship that trust between the manager and employee is earned, enabling the individual being coached to feel supported in taking risks and experimenting with new behaviors later in the coaching process (Peterson, 1996).

> **H_4:** The manager's skills in building relationships will be directly and positively related to his or her effectiveness as a coach.

Listening to others. Active listening involves using non-verbal skills to show attention, asking open-ended questions, not interrupting, paraphrasing, reflecting, and summarizing (Bolton, 1999). While these are important skills for a manager, it is particularly important to ask strategic and well timed questions when coaching. Research in how adults learn indicates that people are most likely to acquire new skills when they come up with the options and actions themselves, with guidance from others (Druckman & Bjork, 1991). Therefore, managers who can help employees find their own answers are more likely to be successful coaches. This is best accomplished by asking questions and listening actively (Diedrich, 1996; Evered & Selman, 1989; Good, 1993; Katz & Miller, 1996; Leibowitz, Kaye & Farren, 1986; Lukaszewski, 1998; Peterson & Hicks, 1996). By asking open-ended questions and listening carefully, the supervisor is far more likely to help the employee gain learning and come to solutions on their own. People are far more likely to be committed to making behavior changes that will last if they generate their own solutions with help from their coach (Druckman & Bjork, 1991). Thus, good listening skills are necessary for a manager to be a good coach.

Listening skills not only contribute directly to a manager's ability to coach, it also contributes indirectly in that strong listeners are more likely to build relationships with

others (Peterson & Hicks, 1996). Thus, the coach not only picks up on important issues, he or she also connects to the individual and better ensures the trust and credibility required in a positive coaching relationship.

> **H_5:** The manager's listening skills will be directly and positively related to his or her effectiveness as a coach.
>
> **H_6:** A manager's listening skills are positively related to his or her skills in building relationships and thus are predictive of coaching performance.

Managerial Attributes

Performing the above skills comes more naturally to some managers than to others. Therefore, an understanding is needed of who is more likely to be a good coach, based upon their attributes and characteristics. The literature suggests that the attributes described below are associated with effectively performing the skills that are related to productive coaching. Put another way, these attributes are expected to improve coaching by increasing managers' skill levels.

Cognitive abilities. Research has long shown cognitive abilities to be important predictors of managerial performance (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). The "smarter" the individual, the more likely he or she is to be successful, regardless of his or her position. In particular, the ability to analyze issues and to recognize the interrelationships among issues is helpful in being a successful manager and coach (Personnel Decisions International, 1996). Managers who have strong cognitive abilities are more likely to grasp the subtleties as well as the trends in their employees' behavior and its impact on others; therefore, they are more likely to accurately assess the needs of these individuals as well as the organization's requirements for employees. Managers who coach must be able to analyze the needs of their employees and helping them to establish, follow and

adjust development plans to meet the needs of the individual, as well as of the organization, and of changing industry demands. Therefore, managers with strong cognitive abilities are more likely to analyze issues effectively as well as assert their ideas firmly and, as a result, be better coaches.

> **H_7**: A manager's cognitive abilities relate to his or her skills in analyzing issues and leading courageously and thus are related to coaching performance.

Assertiveness. In addition to connecting with employees, managers who coach must also be able to demonstrate leadership to help guide individuals and follow up with them to be sure they are making the progress and getting the feedback they need to develop. They must be direct and willing to confront employees in a constructive and supportive manner when necessary. Managers or supervisors who demonstrate assertiveness and directness are more likely to be courageous in their leadership style, and as a result, achieve the credibility and leverage they need to help guide the learner or employee through the development process (Bass, 1990; Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1993). Given that, managers who use their assertiveness to lead courageously are better coaches.

> **H_8:** The manager's assertiveness will be related to his or her skills in leading courageously.

Sociability. As previously mentioned, managers can no longer rely solely on their intelligence and drive to be successful in today's demanding workplace. They also have to be effective in building relationships with their staff. Development requires that employees admit to imperfections as well as take risks as they stretch and grow (Levinson, 1996; Kaplan & DeVries, 1993; Peterson & Hicks, 1996; Tyson & Birnbrauer,

1983). In taking these risks, employees often feel quite vulnerable; it is important that they trust their supervisor to guide and support them; therefore, managers must be able to connect with employees and demonstrate empathy and understanding so as to help build constructive relationships. This is important because it is through building constructive relationships that managers are able to gain the trust basic to in the coaching relationship. Therefore, sociability helps a manager build relationships and in turn be effective as a coach.

> **H_9:** The manager's ability to be sociable with others relates to his or her skills in building relationships and thus to coaching performance.

Empathy. Leaders who are more effective interpersonally and empathize with employees are likely to be better coaches than managers who do not empathize with the people they coach (Kaplan & DeVries, 1996). Being able to empathize with others enables a coach to connect with them It also helps him recognize subtle cues that the learner may be sending and thus be more considerate and insightful. As a result managers will perform better as coaches because they will be able to build relationships with their staff and foster more open communication (Stowell, 1988). Empathy does not lead directly to effective coaching. Rather, the degree to which a manager uses his or her empathy to listen more carefully and build better relationships improves their performance as a coach

> **H_{10}:** Ability to empathize with employees relates positively to a manager's skill in building relationships and listening skills and therefore to coaching performance.

Coaching Effectiveness, Personality, and Intelligence

There are some who argue that most variability in managerial performance can be accounted for by intelligence (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Schmidt et. al., 1979). While intelligence is likely to be a significant predictor of effectiveness as a coach, theory suggests that personality is also quite important. Therefore:

> **H_{11}:** Personality variables will attribute for variance in effective coaching above and beyond that accounted for by general intelligence or "g."

Relationship by Perspective

The criterion measure used in the current study is a multi-rater feedback instrument in which the boss, peers, direct reports, as well as the individual him/her self rate the manager. No known research has been done to explore how these perspectives may differently evaluate the effectiveness of the manager as a coach; however, they interact differently with the individual doing the coaching so it is likely that their perspectives and ratings would differ and, as a result, change the causal model for coaching performance. If their ratings differ, the relationship between coach attributes and perspective rating on effectiveness is likely to vary. In other words, the model for predicting coaching performance will vary, depending upon who is rating the effectiveness of the managers' skills.

> **H_{12}:** The relationship among coach characteristics and perceived effectiveness will vary based upon the perspective (direct report, boss, peer) by which the effectiveness of the skills is rated.

The present study investigates the relationship among managerial characteristics and attributes, their coaching-related skills, and their ability to coach effectively. In order to be most effective, coaches need to be intelligent as well as have good people skills

such as being sociable, having empathy, and being assertive; however, simply having these attributes is not enough. These attributes must be expressed in the leader's skills if they are to have an impact on his or her effectiveness as a coach. For example, a manager must use her or his intelligence toward analyzing issues and making tough decisions in order to be an effective coach. The current study investigates these relationships using archival data collected at Personnel Decisions International (PDI), a large, international, human resources consulting firm based in Minneapolis, MN., and used with their permission.

Methods

Participants

Participants in the study represent a selected section of U.S. managers and supervisors. The sample is made up of 1,396 managers who were assessed for development. It is made up of 80% males, 20% females. Eighty-eight percent of the participants identify themselves as Caucasian, and 12% identify themselves as non-Caucasian. The mean age is 42 years old, within a range of 26 to 67 years. They were sent to PDI for developmental assessments for a variety of reasons including being in high potential categories, because they are experiencing difficulties on the job, or so they can receive feedback on their skills that they are otherwise unable to get. No specific data has been gathered to indicate what brings managers to PDI for developmental assessments.[1]

The participants do not vary significantly from typical U.S. managers other than they tend to be slightly more sophisticated in their management styles. In addition, this sample appears to be somewhat more intelligent than average U.S. managers in that their mean scores on the Watson-Glaser (a cognitive abilities test) was $M = 65.1$ as compared to a similar normative population whose average was $M = 60.2$. Eighty-four percent

[1] Discussions with senior assessors at PDI suggest that there are many reasons, but primarily people fall into two categories: those who are sent because there is a problem in their performance, and those who are considered to have high potential. The second group is generally sent so they can get developmental feedback and so that the organization can get an objective view on their potential for promotion; however, regardless of why the participants are sent, they are generally highly valued employees as the developmental assessment can be quite expensive.

considered themselves to be primarily in a managerial role, while 16% see themselves as technical or professional staff who also manage. Forty-seven percent have a college degree, while 30% have completed a Masters degree, 5% have a Doctoral degree, and 15% a high school or a two-year Associate degree. The participants were primarily mid-level managers but some were entry-level and executive-level managers as well. The sample's median salary falls within the range of $70,00 to $89,999.

On average, the participants have worked for three different employers and have been in the workforce for approximately 20 years. Median tenure as a manager is five years. Thus, in general, they have had approximately four to five years of experience in some kind of coaching activities with employees.

Subjects were referred to PDI for a developmental assessment by the organization that employed them. These organizations represent various industries including, but not limited to, grocery and food distribution, airlines, electronics, computer technology, medical technologies, petroleum, telecommunications, financial services, retail, and manufacturing. Organizations who do business with PDI are often Global 1000 companies and are representative of organizations throughout the United States. They tend to be large organizations but they also include some medium-sized and small businesses. These companies do not vary significantly from organizations that do not use consultative services for assessment, except that they are generally slightly more progressive in their human resource practices.

Procedure

The current study involved identifying the important attributes that differentiated traditional managers from managers who are effective coaches as well as effective administrators. The literature was reviewed and a model was created to reflect the predictive relationships suggested in the existing empirical research studies as well as in the available practitioner case studies. The database manager at PDI was then consulted to identify existing data that could be used to test the model proposed. The current data were extracted and analyzed with permission from the managing consultant. Here is an explanation of how the archival data used in this study were collected.

Participants in the current study signed a release of information for research purposes prior to entering into the assessment process. Upon completion of the assessment, data were entered into a database that is maintained by PDI for research purposes. Permission to use the data in the current study was granted by the coordinator of research at PDI.

As previously mentioned, participants underwent an assessment for developmental purposes at one of the PDI offices across the United States, including Minneapolis, Dallas, New York, Detroit, and Houston, Denver, Atlanta, San Francisco, and Boston. They were given a variety of measures including the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987), the Values Scale (Super & Nevill, 1985), and the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (Briggs & Briggs-Myers, 1977), as well as cognitive tests (Watson-Glaser, 1980; Wesman, 1965), work simulations (including an in-basket exercise and a direct report meeting), and an interview with a consultant. These assessments lasted anywhere from half a day to two days, depending upon the depth of

the assessment. The majority of the participants in the present study were assessed for one full day. Scheduling of the day depends upon the schedule of the consultant who is doing the assessment. Thus, subjects completed the measures at varying times in the day and in their schedule, thereby producing resulting in a balanced randomization of the tasks.

Concurrently, participants received multi-rater feedback, using The PROFILOR® (Personnel Decisions International, 1991), to obtain feedback on their current performance. The participants were assessed by his or her boss, peers, direct reports and they completed an assessment of themselves. This instrument provides feedback to the participant from multiple perspectives regarding important areas of managerial performance including coaching and development of others, leadership, interpersonal skills, and communications skills, to name a few. The participant, with the help of his or her boss, selected coworkers to the surveys - those who they felt would give the individual honest and direct feedback. The surveys were then distributed. Upon completion, the surveys were returned directly to PDI for processing, assuring anonymity for everyone except the participant and his or her boss. PDI collated the responses, calculated scores and created a report that describes how the individual views his or her own performance, as well as from the perspectives of others. The report was generated prior to the assessment day so that it was available for the feedback development planning session with the participant immediately following the assessment (generally the following day). As The PROFILOR® was designed for use as a development tool and not for making administrative decisions, only one copy of the report was generated and was the property of the participant. No information was shared with others unless the participant chooses to do so.

Upon completion of the assessment day, the consultant who conducted the assessment gave feedback to the participant in a two-hour development planning session. He or she also gave feedback regarding the results in general (but not specific results from The PROFILOR®) to the organization in a half-hour phone conference (typically to the manager or human resource manager).

Instruments

The PROFILOR®

Data from the multi-rater feedback measure designed by PDI, The PROFILOR®, were used to measure present level of each participant's coaching performance (criterion measure), as well as analyzing issues, building relationships, listening, and leading courageously (mediator variables). The scales used to measure these skills were Coach and Develop, Analyze Issues, Build Relationships, Listen to Others, and Lead Courageously, respectively.

The PROFILOR® captures the individual's perceptions of his or her performance as well as the perception of his or her boss, peers and direct reports. It consists of 135 items in eight factors, including Thinking, Administrative, Leadership, Interpersonal, Communication, Motivation, Self-management, and Organizational Knowledge. Each of the factors is made-up of between two and seven competencies, which are more narrowly defined than the factors and make-up the key components of the broad factors. The competencies are comprised of between four and eight items that are representative of specific behaviors. The current study uses the competency level measures.

The instrument has sound content-related and criterion-related evidence of validity, having undergone over eight years of research on the validity of its current 135-

item form. Research on previous editions of The PROFILOR® began in 1970 and involved hundreds of psychologists and managerial subject matter experts. The current form of The PROFILOR® was developed by industrial and organizational psychologists and counseling psychologists trained in test construction and validation and managerial practice along with subject matter experts (SMEs) from companies across the U.S. (Personnel Decisions International, 1991). Focus groups were conducted and surveys were distributed to identify the key factors and items with those factors critical to managerial success. These items were then refined and reduced until only the current135 remained. Studies were then conducted to measure the reliability and criterion-related evidence of validity of the instrument, including a pilot study in 1992 (n = 622), followed by a second study in 1996 (n = 13,434). Scale reliability was found to range from $\alpha = .83$ to $\alpha = .96$ (see Table 2). Evidence of Criterion-related validity was gathered by exploring relationships among The PROFILOR® scales and three ratings of manager performance: overall (both future potential and current abilities), potential (possible future performance), and competence (current levels of performance). Correlations ranged from $\underline{r} = .27$ to $\underline{r} = .84$. See Table 3 for a complete listing of results (Hezlett, Ronnkvist, Holt, & Hazucha, 1997). Data continues to be collected and norms are revised on a regular basis to reflect the most current trends. Currently the normative database contains a sample of over 60, 000 managers.

The scales are made up of behavioral items on which the participant is rated on the extent to which he or she displays the specified behavior. The rating range from 1 to 5, in which "1" represents "Not at all" and "5" represents "To a very great extent" (see Appendix A for scale items used in the current study). The scores used in the present

study were calculated by averaging the responses to each item by perspective, resulting in four scores per scale. The self scores were not used in this study as research suggests they are likely to be biased (Cascio, 1991).

The current study uses four competency scales from The PROFILOR® to measure the mediating skills in the coaching model. These include Analyze Issues (Thinking Factor), Build Relationships (Interpersonal Factor), Listen to Others (Communication Factor), and Lead Courageously (Leadership Factor).

Analyze Issues. Analyze Issues consists of five behavioral items such as "Focus on important information without getting bogged down in unnecessary detail" (See Appendix A for scale in its entirety). It has been found to measure the degree to which managers gather relevant information systematically, consider broad as well as specific issues, as well as their ability to grasp complex and difficult information and assess it accurately and efficiently (Hezlett et. al., 1997). The reliabilities of the Analyze Issues scale are reported by perspective: Boss $\alpha = .82$, Direct Report $\alpha = .89$, and Peer $\alpha = .87$. Strong evidence of construct-related validity is demonstrated in the construction of the scale (see description above). In addition, it has been shown to be significantly correlated to performance in three areas: overall performance ($r = .73$), potential ($r = .52$), and competence ($r = .71$) (Hezlett et. al., 1997).

Build Relationships. The Build Relationships scale measures the degree to which one interacts with people in a friendly and open manner. It also investigates how well the manager shows genuine interest in others and works to initiate and develop relationships with them. The scale is comprised of seven behavioral items, such as "Can be approached easily" (see Appendix A for entire scale). The reliabilities of the Build Relationships

scale are reported by perspective: Boss α = .88, Direct Report α = .93, and Peer α = .92. Strong evidence of construct-related validity is demonstrated in the construction of the scale (see description above). In addition, it has been shown to be significantly correlated to performance in three areas: overall performance (r = .59), potential (r = .32), and competence (r = .57) (Hezlett et. al., 1997).

Listen to Others. The Listen to Others scale measures the degree to which one listens carefully one-on-one as well as in a group. The scale is comprised of seven behavioral items, such as "Clarify what people say to ensure understanding" (see Appendix A for entire scale). The reliabilities of the Listen to Others scale are reported by perspective: Boss α = .87, Direct Report α = .93, and Peer α = .92. Strong evidence of construct-related validity is demonstrated in the construction of the scale (see description above). In addition, it has been shown to be significantly correlated to performance in three areas: overall performance (r = .55), potential (r = .27), and competence (r = .50) (Hezlett et. al., 1997).

Lead Courageously. The Lead Courageously scale measures the degree to which managers are willing to deal with difficult issues and problems, take a stand and put forth their views. The scale is comprised of seven behavioral items, such as "Challenge others to make tough choices" (see Appendix A for entire scale). The reliabilities of the Lead Courageously scale are reported by perspective: Self α = .83, Boss α = .88, Direct Report α = .93, and Peer α =.92. Strong evidence of construct-related validity is demonstrated in the construction of the scale (see description above). In addition, it has been shown to be significantly correlated (p <.05) to performance in three areas: overall performance (r = .78), potential (r = .50), and competence (r = .71) (Hezlett, et. al., 1997).

Coach and Develop Scale (dependent variable). The Coach and Develop scale measures the degree to which managers accurately assess the strengths and development needs of others, give timely feedback, and provide assignments for development. The scale is comprised of eight behavioral items, such as "Give specific and constructive feedback" (see Appendix A for entire scale). The reliabilities of the Coach and Develop scale are reported by perspective: Boss = .89, Direct Report α = .93, and Peer α =.92. Strong evidence of construct-related validity is demonstrated in the construction of the scale (see description above). In addition, it has been shown to be significantly correlated to performance in three areas: overall performance (r = .73), potential (r = .52), and competence (r = .71) (Hezlett, et. al., 1997).

Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal

Cognitive Abilities were measure using the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (Watson & Glaser, 1980). Having been proven valid and reliable yet short in length and easily administered, the Watson-Glaser is a commonly used tool for accurately assessing analytical as well as big picture thinking. The Watson-Glaser is an 80-item paper-and-pencil test measuring critical thinking skills. Five specific cognitive abilities have been shown to be measured by the appraisal tool: the ability to define a problem, the ability to select pertinent information for the solution of a problem, the ability to recognize stated and unstated assumptions, the ability to formulate and select relevant and promising hypotheses, and the ability to draw valid conclusions and judge the validity of inferences. As such, the test is broken into five sub-tests: Inference, Recognition of Assumptions; Deduction; Interpretation; and Evaluation of Arguments. The current study will use the overall score rather than sub-test scores, which is standard interpretation of

the test. Test-retest reliability for the test is .73 while split half reliability is .75. The Watson-Glaser is an un-timed test and is therefore considered a test of power rather than a test of speed. It has been found to be highly correlated with other measures of general intelligence or "g." Validity and normative information can be found in the Manual (Watson & Glaser, 1980).

California Psychological Inventory (CPI)

The second measure used is the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1987). The California Psychological Inventory, or CPI, is a measure used to assess personality in normal populations in such a way that an in-depth understanding of the individual is achieved. Results of the measure describe the person much as a close friend might describe one. This instrument is an excellent fit for the current study as it is reliable, valid, and contains scales that investigate both interpersonal characteristics including sociability and empathy as well as leadership traits such as dominance or assertiveness. The CPI (Gough, 1987) is a paper-and-pencil personality test made up of 462 true/false items measuring various dimensions of personality including: Dominance, Sociability, Social Presence, Self-acceptance, Empathy, Responsibility, Social Orientation, Self-control, Good Impression, Well-being, Tolerance, Achievement by Conformance, Achievement by Independence, Intellectual Efficiency, Psychological Mindedness, and Flexibility. Alpha coefficients for the scales range from $\alpha = .52$ to $\alpha = .85$. Evidence of validity and normative data is thoroughly outlined in the CPI Administrator's Guide (Gough, 1987).

The current study uses the scales which are most closely related to strong interpersonal and leadership skills, including: Dominance ($\alpha = .79$) (measuring

Assertiveness in the model), Sociability (α = .75), and Empathy (α = .58). According to Gough (1987), Dominance measures the degree to which individuals are confident, assertive, and dominant as opposed to being unassuming or not forceful. Sociability measures the degree to which one likes to be with people, is friendly and sociable. People who score low on this measure tend to be shy, prefer to keep in the background, and may feel uneasy in social situations (Gough, 1987). Gough (1987) states that individuals who score high on Empathy are more likely to understand the feelings of others, feel comfortable with themselves and be well-accepted by others. In addition, they may be more likely to pick up on social cues and feelings of others. Those who score low on this scale are more likely to feel ill at ease in social situations and may come off as cool or unfeeling toward others (Gough, 1987).

Results

Multivariate Analyses

Based on the model outlined in Figure 1, the relationships among the variables were assessed simultaneously via causal path analysis. Each of the predicted paths was tested using multiple regression analysis. To avoid capitalizing on method variance, three separate models were tested (see Figures 2, 3, and 4 for models and results). In each, the attributes are based on the self-report scores of the CPI scales and coaching performance was assessed using the direct report ratings from the Coach and Develop scale of The PROFILOR® (Personnel Decisions International, 1997). These perspectives were chosen as they represent the most accurate assessment for the constructs being measured. The manager's direct reports are in the best position to rate the effectiveness of the manager's ability to coach as they are the individuals receiving the coaching. The personality measures are most appropriately taken from the individual. However, to measure the skills, each of the of the three "other" perspectives (boss, peer, and direct report) were considered, resulting in three models (see Figures 2, 3, and 4).

For each model, five multiple regressions were conducted to test the direct and indirect relationships among the variables (Asher, 1983; James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982). The first group of paths tested included coaching performance regressed on the four managerial skills (Analyze Issues, Lead Courageously, Build Relationships, and Listen to Others). The second path involved regressing Lead Courageously on Analyze Issues and

Cognitive Abilities. Third, Build Relationships was regressed on Sociability, Empathy, and Listening Skills (Listen to Others, The PROFILOR®, Personnel Decisions International, 1997). Fourth, Analyze Issues was regressed on Cognitive Abilities. Finally, Listen to Others was regressed on Empathy. This series of regressions allowed for each of the paths to be tested and thus, concurrently testing all of the hypotheses.

Univariate Analyses

In addition to the causal path analysis, several univariate analyses were conducted. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the variables (see Table 5). A correlation table was created to explore the zero order relationships among the variables (see Table 6).

Correlation Analysis

The correlation analysis indicated that the zero order relationships were generally as expected. There were significant correlations among the attributes, skills, and the outcome measure of coaching performance (see Table 6). Significant relationships were found between the outcome measure of Coaching Performance and each of the skills and the attributes. All of these were significant and in the positive direction with an interesting exception. There was a significant negative correlation between coaching performance and Cognitive Abilities. The only other significant negative correlation was found between Cognitive Abilities and the direct report's rating of Lead Courageously. Contrary to Hypothesis 7, this suggests that one is more likely to be seen by subordinates as leading courageously if he or she is less intelligent. Potential explanations of this will be discussed shortly.

Managerial skills (Analyzing Issues, Leading Courageously, Building Relationships, and Listening Skills) were generally found to be significantly inter-related. A moderate to strong relationship was found among the skills within each specific perspective (direct report, peer, and boss) ranging from $r = .38$ ($p < .01$) to $r = .78$ ($p < .01$).Weak to moderate relationships were found among the skills when compared across perspectives, ranging from $r = .05$ (ns) to $r = .39$ ($p < .01$). This is important in that it supports the strategy of analyzing three separate models rather than using an average rating across perspectives. The three perspectives demonstrate enough validity across raters to warrant investigating them separately.

In support of Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, and 5, the Coach and Develop measure was positively and significantly correlated at the $p < .01$ level to each of the four skills: Analyze Issues (Boss $r = .22$, Peer $r = .24$, Direct Report $r = .73$); Lead Courageously (Boss $r = .65$, Peer $r = .33$, Direct Report $r = .81$); Build Relationships (Boss $r = .24$, Peer $r = .31$, Direct Report $r = .78$); Listen to Others (Boss $r = .16$, Peer $r = .24$, Direct Report $r = .72$). Initial support for Hypothesis 2 was found in that there was a significant ($p < .01$) relationship between Analyze Issues and Lead Courageously (Boss $r = .65$, Peer $r = .25$, Direct Report $r = .20$). Evidence in the support of Hypothesis 6 was also found. Listen to Others was positively and significantly related to Build Relationships (Boss $r = .78$, Peer $r = .25$, Direct Report $r = .30$).

The relationships among the manager's attributes (Cognitive Abilities, Assertiveness, Sociability, and Empathy) were also investigated. The resulting correlations ranged from $r = .01$ (ns) to $r = .63$ ($p < .01$). Not surprising, the relationships among Assertiveness, Sociability, and Empathy were strongest, ranging from $r = .46$ ($p <$

.01) to r = .63 (p < .01). Small correlations were found between Cognitive Abilities and Assertiveness as well as Cognitive Abilities and Empathy (r = .10, p < .01 for each). However, Cognitive Abilities were not significantly related to Sociability.

The significant (p < .01) and positive relationship found between Cognitive Abilities and Analyze Issues (Boss r = .21, Peer r = .17, Direct Report r = .10) provides partial evidence for Hypothesis 4. However, the only significant relationship between Cognitive Abilities and Lead Courageously is in the Direct Report ratings and is negative (r = .08, p < .05). This suggests that the higher the intelligence of the manager, the less likely his or her subordinates will see him or her as leading courageously.

In addition, initial support for Hypothesis 8 is evident in the significant correlation (p < .01) between Assertiveness and Lead Courageously (Boss r = .16, Peer r = .20, Direct Report r = .17). Surprisingly, only partial support was found for Hypothesis 9 in that Sociability and Build Relationships was significantly correlated only for Peers (r = .08, p < .01). Similarly, mixed evidence was found for Hypothesis 10. Empathy was significantly related to Build Relationships in the case of Peers (r = .08, p < .01) and Boss (r = .08, p < .01) but insignificant for Direct Reports. In addition, it was only significantly related to Listen to Others for Peers (r = .06, p < .05).

Causal Path Analysis

To test the predicted model, three causal path analyses were conducted. In keeping with the procedures recommended by Asher (1983) and James, Mulaik, and Brett (1982), the proposed causal model (see Figure 1) was tested by regressing each endogenous variable on all of the variables that were anticipated causals. The obtained regression coefficients provide estimates of the causal paths. Each analysis used the managers' self

ratings for the attributes and the direct report ratings for coaching performance. However, as explained above, each of the three perspectives' skill ratings were explored, resulting in three models[2] (see Figures 2, 3, and 4).

Support for Hypotheses

Results of the analyses indicated support for many of the hypotheses and are reported below for the correlation analysis as well as the three causal path analyses that were conducted. Results of Hypotheses 1 through 10 are discussed for each of the three models. The results of Hypotheses 11 and 12 are then reported by comparing the three models.

Model 1: Self Rating of Attributes, Direct Report Rating of Skills, and Direct Report Rating of Coaching Performance

Following are the results of the analysis of Model 1 in which attributes are rated by participants, and skills and coaching performance are rated by direct reports.

Managerial Skills. Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, and 5 stated that the managerial skills (Analyzing Issues, Lead Courageously, Build Relationships, and Listening Skills) would significantly predict coaching performance. The analysis of Model 1 demonstrated significant effects for each of the four skills at the $p < .01$ level of significance, providing full support for this hypothesis. Lead Courageously and Build Relationships both had

[2] These analyses were also run with each perspective's rating for coaching performance in conjunction with that perspective's ratings for the skills (self -ratings were the only available measure of attributes). These analyses provided essentially identical models and thus the current method of analysis was used as it best controls for method variance.

relatively strong relationships ($\beta = .57$ and $\beta = .36$ respectively). While significant predictors, Analyze Issues and Listen to Others had smaller effect sizes and thus accounted for a smaller percentage of variance in coaching performance ($\beta = -.08$ and $\beta = .15$ respectively). It is important to note that the relationship between Analyze Issues and Coaching Performance is negative, suggesting that those who are effective in analyzing issues are not effective coaches. This surprising effect is explained somewhat by the results of Hypothesis 2 and will be explored further in the discussion.

Hypothesis 2 posited that the relationship between analyze issues and coaching performance was mediated by lead courageously. The analysis supported this in that the path from Analyze Issues to Lead Courageously was significant and positive ($\beta = .79$, $p < .01$). Therefore, Analyze Issues is important to Coaching Performance, but given the relatively small effect size of the direct path, it is likely that Analyze Issues is most important when it is used to lead courageously. Similarly, Hypothesis 6 predicted a mediated relationship between Listen to Others and Coaching Performance, with Build Relationships as the mediator. Again, a significant positive path was found between Listen to Others and Build Relationships ($\beta = .85$, $p < .01$). Thus, whereas the direct relationship between Listen to Others and Coaching Performance is negligible, Listen to Others is an important predictor when it is used to Build Relationships.

Managerial Attributes. Hypothesis 7 states that Cognitive Abilities are significantly related to and predictive of a manager's ability to coach in that they are more likely to be proficient in the skills of Analyze Issues and Lead Courageously. This hypothesis was supported in that the path from Cognitive Abilities to Analyze Issues and the path from Cognitive Abilities to Lead Courageously were significant at the $p < .01$

level (β = .10 and β = -.17 respectively). Thus, the "smarter" a manager is, the more likely they will analyze issues accurately and efficiently. However the effect for the path from Cognitive Abilities to Lead Courageously was negative. Therefore, a manager is likely to be perceived as a less effective leader when they are more intelligent. This finding, while not hypothesized, can be explained by findings in previous research and is explored in the discussion section.

The analysis for Model 1 supported Hypothesis 8, which predicted Assertiveness to be related to coaching performance by way of Lead Courageously. The path was significant at the $p < .01$ level with a β weight of .10. Thus, assertive managers are more likely to lead courageously and in turn, be better coaches.

Support for Hypothesis 9, which stated that Sociability is positively related to a manager's ability to Build Relationships and therefore to Coaching Performance, was also found in the analysis; however, while the effect for the path from Sociability to Build Relationships was significant and positive (β = .07, $p < .05$), it was disappointingly small and thus lends only questionable practical implications. Similarly, Hypothesis 10 predicts that Empathy will be positively related to Coaching Performance in that it predicts Build Relationships and Listen to Others. Partial support was found for this hypothesis. There was a significant effect for regressing Build Relationships on Empathy (β = .05, $p < .05$), but the path from Empathy to Listen to Others was not significant. Again, while the effect for the path from Empathy to Build Relationships is significant, it is trivial in practical terms, thus limiting any interpretation of this finding.

Model 2: Self Rating of Attributes, Peer Rating of Skills, and Direct Report Rating of Coaching Performance

Because Model 1 is comprised of Direct Report ratings for both managerial skills and coaching performance, method variance must be considered. To avoid making false assumptions based on method variance, two additional models were analyzed, substituting Peer (Model 2) and Boss (Model 3) ratings of Managerial Skills for the Direct Report's ratings. Following are the results of the analysis of Model 2 in which the managerial attributes are rated by the participants, the skills by peers, and coaching performance is rated by bosses.

Managerial Skills. As previously mentioned, Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, and 5, state that managerial skills significantly relate to Coaching Performance. These hypotheses were partially supported in Model 2. There are again significant effects at the $p < .01$ level for both the Lead Courageously path and Build Relationships path to Coaching Performance, accounting for a great deal of the variance ($\beta = .29$ and $\beta = .26$ respectively); however, in this model, the β weights for the path from Analyze Issues to Coaching Performance and the path from Listen to Others to Coaching Performance were not significant. Essentially, the larger paths in the first model were retained while the smaller paths dropped out.

Hypothesis 2 posits that the relationship between Analyze Issues and Coaching Performance is mediated by Lead Courageously. With very similar results to Model 1, the path analysis for Model 2 supported this hypothesis. The path from Analyze Issues to Lead Courageously in Model 3 was significant and positive ($\beta = .79$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 6 posited a significant and positive relationship between Listening to Others and Coaching performance, with Build Relationships as the mediating variable.

As before, a significant positive path was found between Listen to Others and Build Relationships ($\beta = .85$, $p < .01$). Thus, while there is no direct relationship between Listening Skills and Coaching Performance, Listening to Others is once again an important predictor of Build Relationships and therefore of Coaching Performance.

Managerial Attributes. As stated above, Hypothesis 7 proposes a mediated relationship between Analyze Issues and Coaching Performance. Two paths to Coaching Performance are hypothesized with a different mediating variable in each: Analyze Issues and Lead Courageously. As in the previous analysis, this hypothesis was supported. The path from Cognitive Abilities to Analyze Issues and the path from Cognitive Abilities to Lead Courageously were both significant at the $p < .01$ level ($\beta = .17$ and $\beta = -.13$ respectively). Again, the path between Cognitive Abilities and Lead Courageously is negative.

As in Model 1, the analysis for Model 2 supported Hypothesis 5, which predicted Assertiveness to be related to coaching performance by way of Lead Courageously. The path was significant at the $p < .01$ level with a β weight of .15. Thus, assertive managers are more likely to lead courageously and in turn, be better coaches.

Hypothesis 9, which stated that Sociability is positively related to a manager's ability to build relationships and therefore to coach effectively, was supported in this path analysis ($\beta = .07$, $p < .01$). Thus, sociability is related to coaching performance by way of Build Relationships. As with the first set of analyses, the relationship between Sociability and Building Relationships exists but is very small. It is important to note that the effect size of this relationship is also very small and therefore somewhat limited in the degree to which it can be interpreted.

Hypothesis 10 predicts that Empathy will be positively related to Coaching Performance in that it is important to Build Relationships and to Listen to Others. This hypothesis was partially supported in Model 2. The path from Empathy to Listen to Others was significant ($\beta = .06$, $p < .01$) but quite small and of minimal interpretive value. Contrary to predictions, the path from Empathy to Build Relationships was not significant.

Model 3: Self Rating of Attributes, Boss Rating of Skills, and Direct Report Rating of Coaching Performance

The results from the path analysis of Model 3 included participant ratings of attributes, boss ratings of the manager's skills, and direct report ratings of coaching effectiveness.

Managerial Skills. Hypotheses 1, 3, 4, and 5 stating that each of the managerial skills significantly relate to Coaching Performance, were partially supported in Model 3 in the same manner as in Model 2. There are again significant effects at the $p < .01$ level for both the Lead Courageously path and the Build Relationships path to Coaching Performance. As in the model investigating peer-rated skills, Lead Courageously and Build Relationships both accounted for a great deal of the variance ($\beta = .18$ and $\beta = .25$ respectively). Similarly, in this model the β weights for the path from Analyze Issues to Coaching Performance and the path from Listen to Others to Coaching Performance were not significant.

Hypothesis 2 predicts that the relationship between Analyze Issues and Coaching Performance is mediated by Lead Courageously. With almost identical findings to the previous Models' results, the path analysis for Model 3 supported this hypothesis. The

path from Analyze Issues to Lead Courageously in Model 3 was significant and positive ($\beta = .69$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 6 posited a significant and positive relationship between Listening to Others and Coaching performance, with Build Relationships as the mediating variable. Similarly, a significant positive path was found between Listen to Others and Build Relationships ($\beta = .77$, $p < .01$). Thus, while there is no direct relationship between Listening Skills and Coaching Performance, Listening to Others is once again an important predictor of Build Relationships.

Managerial Attributes. As mentioned above, Hypothesis 7 proposes a mediated relationship between Analyze Issues and Coaching Performance There are two paths to Coaching Performance hypothesized with a different mediating variable in each: Analyze Issues and Lead Courageously. As in the previous analyses, this hypothesis was supported in the analysis. The path from Cognitive Abilities to Analyze Issues and the path from Cognitive Abilities to Lead Courageously were both significant at the $p < .01$ level ($\beta = .21$ and $\beta = -.13$ respectively). The results for Model 3 mirror the results in the previous two models.

The analysis for Model 3 supported Hypothesis 8, which predicted Assertiveness to be related to coaching performance by way of Lead Courageously. The path was significant at the $p < .01$ level with a β weight of .11. Thus, assertive managers are more likely to lead courageously and in turn, be better coaches than non-assertive managers.

As in Model 2, Hypothesis 9, which stated that Sociability is positively related to a manager's ability Build Relationships and therefore to Coaching Performance, was supported in this analysis; however, as before, although the effect for the path from

Sociability to Build Relationships was significant and positive ($\beta = .06$, $p < .05$), it was similarly trivial and thus limited.

Hypothesis 10 predicts that Empathy will be positively related to Coaching Performance in that it is important to Build Relationships and to Listen to Others. This hypothesis was not supported in Model 3. This diverges somewhat from the previous two models in that Empathy was related to Build Relationships in Model 1 and to Listen to Others in Model 2.

Personality and Cognitive Ability, and Coaching Performance.

Hypothesis 11 stated that personality would account for variance beyond that accounted for by cognitive abilities. This hypothesis is imbedded within each of the models and is identical in each. The path analysis supported the hypothesis that personality predicts above and beyond intelligence. Cognitive abilities contribute significantly to predicting coaching performance by way of analyze issues and lead courageously. However, personality (Assertiveness and Sociability) contributes significantly and uniquely through Lead Courageously and Build Relationships. Thus, personality predicts beyond cognitive ability. We can test the size of this relationship more directly. As shown in Table 7 and Figure 6, Coaching Performance was regressed on Cognitive Abilities, Assertiveness, and Sociability (Empathy was dropped as evidence as it was dropped from the revised model). Cognitive Ability was entered in Step 1. In Step 2, the three personality variables, Assertiveness and Sociability were entered. In Step 1, the β weight was -.09 ($p < .01$), a small but significant result ($F(4) = 7.70$, $p < .01$). When the personality variables were entered in Step two, the overall model was significant with $F(4) = 3.81$, $p < .01$ and $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .01$. It is important to note that the

only significant personality variable in Step 2 was Dominance ($\beta = .10$, $p < .05$), suggesting that Dominance predicts Coaching Performance above and beyond Intelligence. The negative β found for Cognitive Abilities is consistent with the findings in the previous models.

Hypothesis 12: The Causal Models will Vary Based on Perspective

The results of the path analysis do not support Hypothesis 12, which states that the relationship among coach characteristics and perceived effectiveness will vary based upon the perspective (direct report, boss, peer) by which the effectiveness of the skills is rated. Of the 36 paths tested by the three models, only four differed among the perspectives. These included paths from Empathy to Build Relationships, Empathy to Listen to Others, Listen to Others to Coaching Performance and Analyze Issues to Coaching Performance. In each case, those models that found significance for these paths did so at such a trivial level that, in essence, they did not substantively differ from those that did not. Therefore, there is no practical difference among the models, suggesting that while the zero order correlations may vary, when placed in context, various stakeholders value similar skills and attributes in an effective coach.

Discussion

The results of this study lend some support the proposition that a manager's attributes and skills predict the degree to which they are perceived as an effective coach. The causal model was generally supported across the varied perspectives (Direct Report, Peer, and Boss) with several surprising but interesting findings. In comparing each of the models, the concurrence among them was remarkable given the moderate to low zero order correlations found in the univariate analysis. Any differences in significant paths occurred where there were negligible effect sizes. Given this, it is appropriate to discuss one single model rather than the three models separately. This revised, convergent model is represented in Figure 5.

The main effects found for Build Relationships and Lead Courageously support what many managers and practitioners have experienced and reported in the literature: coaching requires a balance of relationship and leadership (Evered & Selman, 1989; Hargrove, 1995; Peterson & Hicks, 1996; Whitmore, 1996). It involves helping people maximize their potential and this requires both trust and expert guidance; traits implicit in building relationships and leading others. It also supports the need for connecting with employees in a supportive manner, while at the same time providing direct feedback and leadership. To do this, the model supports the need for listening to others, skills in analyzing issues as well as general intelligence, assertiveness, and to some degree, social skills as is discussed below.

A main effect was not found for Analyze Issues. However, it was related to Coaching Performance when mediated by Lead Courageously. Being able to analyze issues and recognize trends is therefore not sufficient to performing well as a coach. However, when a manager applies her analytic skills to making tough decisions, giving direct feedback, guiding and leading the employee, he or she is more likely to be an effective coach. This mediating effect can be seen in industry. For example, people who are strong analytically and succeed as individual contributors are often promoted into management; however, unless they are also effective leaders, many of them fail. Their intelligence and technical abilities are not enough to make them successful (Bass, 1990, Yukl, 1989).

Listen to Others was related to Coaching Performance by way of Build Relationships rather than as a main effect. Again, simply being a good listener is not enough. Though important, its impact on coaching comes through the coach/learner relationship. In other words, a manager cannot rely on listening techniques alone. He has to use his skills toward building a more solid working relationship. One potential implication of the finding that Listen to Others is only related to Coaching Performance by way of Build Relationships may be explained by how the manager is using his or her skills. The literature suggests that coaches need to be direct but they must also help the individual explore solutions for him or herself (Druckman & Bjork, 1991). Therefore, the types of questioning and paraphrasing (both integral parts to active listening) used should not be leading or biased or they may negatively impact the learning process (Personnel Decisions International, 1999). It may be that the type of listening required for effective coaching goes beyond listening skills. Perhaps the listener must suspend judgment while

exploring the other's position which in turn, strengthens the relationship and increases learning. This, in part, may explain why there is a mediated rather than a main effect for Listen to Others.

As predicted, Cognitive Abilities were predictive of Analyze Issues and Lead Courageously. Intelligent managers are more effective in their analysis of issues and situations. However, as mentioned above, Analyze Issues did not show a main effect on Coaching Performance. Instead, the relationship between Analyze Issues and Coaching Performance was mediated by Lead Courageously. Interestingly, there was a negative β weight for the path from Cognitive Abilities to Lead Courageously. The findings suggest that simply being intelligent can actually reduce the degree to which managers are seen as effective leaders. Bass (1990) discusses the potential negative side of intelligence in leadership. He points to research that indicates that, in some instances, very bright people are not as capable in putting their thoughts into practical application as those who have a lesser degree of raw general intelligence but perhaps more common sense. The mean Watson-Glaser score for this sample ($M = 65.07$) is well above many of the normative groups reported for the test (e.g., sales representative $M = 60.2$, or upper division university students $M = 59.5$). Thus, the baseline for this sample is already skewed toward higher intelligence. It follows then, that the effect that Bass (1990) proposes may be at play in this study. Those participants who scored quite high on the Watson-Glaser but are not using their skills to effectively analyze issues are not seen as being as effective in leading courageously as their counterparts who scored lower. This is an important finding to consider when selecting managers to coach. It underscores the importance of not over-emphasizing the importance of intelligence when selecting managers who will be

responsible for coaching. To predict coaching performance, the intelligence of the individual must be considered within the manner in which the manager puts it to use.

Assertiveness was found to directly impact Lead Courageously and thus have a mediated relationship with Coaching Performance. Participants who scored higher on the Dominance scale of the CPI were more likely to be seen as leading courageously. This finding supports the literature (Bass, 1990). Managers who are assertive and willing to speak-up were more likely to make unpopular decisions and give tough feedback. In turn, this enabled them to coach more effectively. Practitioners agree that delivering direct and at times, difficult feedback is important for managers who coach (Good, 1993; Hargrove, 1995; Lukaszewski, 1998; Schelling, 1991). Managers who are more assertive are likely to feel more comfortable in delivering direct messages along with battling for needed resources and thus are more likely to be effective coaches.

The effect size for the path from Sociability to Build Relationships was quite small, accounting for a somewhat trivial percentage of variance ($\beta = .06$ to $\beta = .07$). However, it was consistently significant in each of the three models and so warrants some attention. While these results indicate that being social and friendly is not tremendously important to building relationships, it does play a role. A likely explanation is that building relationships is a very individual process and that a different mix of personality traits are needed depending upon the individuals involved. A small but significant effect may be reflective of those in the sample who use their proclivity toward being social in building relationships. Others may have connected in a quieter or more low-key manner. Another explanation is that the finding is simply an artifact of the large sample size.

Regardless, the implications of this finding are limited and should be interpreted with caution.

Finally, as seen in Figure 5, Empathy did not prove to be sufficiently significant to remain in the model. While it did have a significant path to Listen to Others in Model 2 ($\beta = .06$, $p < .05$; peer-rated skills) and to Build Relationships in Model 1 ($\beta = .05$, $p < .05$; direct report model), the effect sizes were small and thus have virtually no practical implications. In addition, there was a significant but again small zero order correlation between Empathy and Coaching Performance ($r = .07$, $r^2 = .01$, $p < .05$).

The results of this study suggest that being empathetic does not relate to how well one listens or is capable of building strong relationships. That Empathy did not account for a notable degree of the variance in Build Relationships, Listen to Others, or Coaching Performance was surprising given the emphasis on empathy in the practitioner literature (Diedrich, 1996; Kaplan & DeVries, 1996; Kilburg, 1996; Stowell, 1988). This is interesting in that the findings support the importance of building a relationship with employees, having empathy does not necessarily help in connecting. In creating the CPI, Gough (1987) defines the scale of Empathy as being comfortable with others and understanding the feelings of others. Clearly participants in this sample were able to build relationships, listen effectively and serve as coaches without attending closely to the feelings of others. Perhaps having empathy for others is associated with a different type of relationship. It may be more associated with close personal relationships or therapeutic relationships than with work relationships. If that is the case, the findings of the present study are useful because they suggest that successful coaching may require less of an emphasis on personal relationship and connection than a strong working relationship.

This is promising for managers in the position of coaching employees to whom they are unable to relate or whom they don't like. It suggests that if they are able to develop a relationship through credibility and respect, more of a working relationship, they do not need to connect with them on a more personal level. Stated bluntly, they don't have to care as much about the person as they have to care about their development.

The results indicated that personality predicted Coaching Performance above and beyond general intelligence alone, providing support for Hypothesis 11. Had the null hypothesis been true, the variables other than Cognitive Ability would have had little to no significance in the model, which clearly is not the case. This is an important finding in terms of hiring managers as well as making promotion decisions. It indicates that while intelligence is important, assertiveness, and one's abilities in leadership and building relationships are of equal or greater importance when looking for a manager who has the potential to be a good coach. These results also challenge some of the traditional thinking in our field that argues that intelligence is the foremost predictor of performance, regardless of the task (Hunter & Hunter, 1984). They imply that much of what an effective coach does is related to the attributes and skills we bring to a situation, supporting some of the more recent work in personality and performance (Briggs, 1989). Therefore, given the previously mentioned finding that intelligence is only important when it is properly channeled as leadership ability, this finding further suggests that organizations must look further than raw intelligence when hiring managers.

Finally, while the various people who work around the manager (boss, peer, direct report) may have different perspectives on that individual's abilities, the various models tested in the current study clearly define a single model for understanding causality of

coaching performance (see Figure 5). Therefore, Hypothesis 12 was not supported. This simplifies matters in terms of selecting and developing coaches in that the attributes and skills identified in the revised model will predict success as a coach regardless of who is rating the effectiveness. In other words, the results provide clearer guidelines for selecting and developing coaching talent.

Implications

Organizations are under a great deal of pressure to hire and develop effective managers who can produce results as well as develop and retain quality staff members. The mounting demands of a diminishing workforce combined with the added pressures of workplace dynamics created by mergers and acquisitions, technological breakthroughs, and changing employee values, require managers to demonstrate skills they were not required to perform 20 years ago, such as coaching employees. While organizations want to hire people who are capable of coaching, there has been little guidance from the scientific community as to what attributes are most likely to predict effective coaching. In addition, there has been limited understanding as to what types of characteristics are needed to coach so they can be broken down into behaviors to be developed in existing leaders. The results of this study provide the first glimpse into what makes for a good coach and offers the first empirical evidence of what makes a coach effective.

Selecting Managers Who Coach

Support found for many of the hypotheses in the present study will begin to outline attributes that organizations can use as criteria for selection and placement decisions as well as guidelines for developing behaviors in their current management staff. The current study shows that for predicting coaching performance, organizations

may want to consider the intelligence of the individual as well as his or her assertiveness, relationship building skills, listening skills, ability to analyze issues and lead courageously. Thus, when an organization is considering hiring a leader that they expect to coach employees, they can screen for these attributes and skills. However, this is only the first study to support these skills and attributes as predictors of coaching performance, and thus further research is needed to validate these findings before companies can feel comfortable in making selection or promotion decisions based on this evidence.

Developing Managers to be More Effective Coaches

While someone may not be naturally inclined toward easily building relationships or leading courageously, research has shown that people can develop behaviors that look like those of someone who is more assertive, social, etc. (Peterson, 1993). Organizations can use the information in the current study to gain further understanding of what an effective coach brings to the process and develop managers within the organization to demonstrate more of the behaviors associated with the attributes and skills. For example, when intelligence is not properly developed, it has a negative relationship with coaching performance. If organizations want smart people to coach, it will be important to help them develop leadership skills so that their natural abilities can be channeled effectively.

In addition, assertiveness is an important attribute for a coach. Therefore, helping new coaches to learn how and when to assert their ideas and give direction to the learner will be helpful in making them more effective. Similarly, given that evidence suggests coaches are more effective when they are able to build relationships with people, we can break "building relationships" down into specific behaviors and teach those behaviors to managers. While it will be helpful to hire people who naturally have the attributes and

skills shown to be related to effective coaching, the characteristics can also be used as a springboard for defining behaviors that can be learned by managers who are not predisposed to behave in that manner.

Limitations

While there are many interesting questions asked in the proposed study, there also exist several limitations. The greatest limitation is the criterion measure that looks only at the perception of overall effectiveness rather than the effectiveness of the process. As a result, it is unclear as to which attributes and skills may be particularly helpful along the way to gaining results. In addition, the criterion is based on effectiveness of the coach rather than a measure of improvement on the part of the learner. While perceptions are important measures of how effective coaches are, the real benefit comes from what the learners are able to do as a result of the coach's efforts. Future studies would benefit from using a more process-oriented measure of effectiveness as well as of learner development as a way of testing effectiveness as a coach (e.g., Peterson, 1993).

In addition, the data are archival, lending limited flexibility to the design of the study. With more flexibility in design, future studies should consider additional personality measures as well as address the criteria issues mentioned above. For example, a nomonological net for coaching effectiveness could be built to investigate which variables are most closely related to coaching and which are unrelated or negatively related to effectiveness.

Given the lack of specific reasons why the managers in the sample were sent to PDI for assessment, the generalizability of the findings to other managers is somewhat uncertain. While a sampling of senior assessors who do a considerable number of

assessments every year suggested that the sample is generally reflective of managers they work within other capacities, without more objective data, caution should be taken in making assumptions based on the findings in this study. Even if their assessment of these managers as representative of managers who work with PDI in general is accurate, the question of whether managers who do business with PDI are different than managers and companies that do not. Future research should be done with a sample that is more randomly selected to assure generalization of results.

Finally, while all the managers in the sample are rated on their effectiveness as a coach on The PROFILOR®, not all of them may not be actively involved in or expected to coach their employees as they come from a variety of organizations with differing expectations. Unfortunately, it was not possible to identify only those managers who were also coaches in the current sample. While the majority of them do coach employees, future studies should include only those who are actively involved with coaching others in the sample.

Conclusion

In conclusion, there are many demands placed on employees and managers in business today. To best meet those demands and build talent for the future, managers must coach and develop their employees. This study suggests that organizations can select managers who are more likely to be effective coaches. In addition, it gives organizations valuable direction for developing behaviors in managers who do not have these attributes to help them become more effective.

While there are important implications of this study for organizations, it is also important to recognize the limitations and apply its findings with caution. The study

represents a good step toward furthering our understanding of managerial coaching and supporting managers and organizations that want to develop their people.

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Tables

Table 1

Coaching Processes and Characteristics in the Literature

Author	Coaching Process	Critical Coaching Characteristics
Evered & Selman (1989)		1) Partnership and relationship 2) Commitment to results and vision 3) Compassion, non-judgmental acceptance 4) Speaking and listening for action 5) Honoring uniqueness 6) Practice and preparation orientation 7) Willingness to coach 8) Willingness to go beyond what is already achieved 9) Responsive player
Peterson & Hicks (1996)/ Peterson (1996)	1) Forge a partnership 2) Inspire commitment 3) Grow skills 4) Promote persistence 5) Shape the environment	1) Listening skills 2) Build trust 3) Non-judgmental understanding 4) Patience 5) Focus 6) Adaptability and cognitive flexibility 7) Intelligence, ability to learn 8) Willingness to learn, non-defensiveness 9) Developmental orientation and self-awareness 10) Understanding of human behavior

Author	Coaching Process	Critical Coaching Characteristics
Diedrich (1996)	1) Assessment 2) Feedback 3) Help adjust to change 4) Plan for and monitor progress 5) Educate on key dimension of superior performance 6) Enhance organizational performance	1) Giving looped, interactive feedback 2) Empathy 3) Listening skills 4) Development oriented
Katz & Miller (1996)		1) Approach as a partnership 2) Vision of organizational system 3) Self-assurance; lack of desire to be leader 4) Contribute information, knowledge without requiring they be used 5) Listen effectively 6) Ability to ask constructive, data gathering questions 7) Create a safe environment 8)Find strategic links to organizational goals 9) Open-mindedness 10) Willing to take risks/lean into discomfort
Tyson & Birnbrauer (1983)	1) Performance analysis 2) Job analysis 3) Feedback to coachee 4) Contract w/ coachee 5) Development plan 6) Coaching sessions	1) Unselfish interest in helping 2) Listening 3) Belief that people can change and improve 4) Ability to lead 5) Skills in encouraging others 6) Providing direction 7) Earning and maintaining respect 8) Orientation toward practice 9) Ability to learn from mistakes

Author	Coaching Process	Critical Coaching Characteristics
Lukaszewski (1998)		1) Listening skills 2) Willingness to give feedback 3) Ability to inspire others 4) Complete thinkers 5) Trustworthy 6) Pragmatic orientation 7) Understanding that time=money 8) Understanding of organization 9) Leadership skills 10) Ability to control ego involvement in solving problem
Schelling (1991)		1) Ability to communicate clear performance objectives 2) Providing feedback 3) Consideration of all relevant information 4) Willingness to observe performance 5) Understanding client performance needs 6) Ability to recognize and reward high performance 7) Provide help, training and guidance 8) Ability to build relationships
Good (1993)		1) Listening skills 2) Ability to identify areas for development 3) Providing feedback

Author	Coaching Process	Critical Coaching Characteristics
Bielous (1994)		1) Know the subject at hand 2) Communication skills 3) Patience 4) Trust building 5) Follow-up 6) Courage
Leibowitz, Kaye & Farren (1986)		1) Skillful listening 2) Skillful questioning 3) Respectful of others 4) Trustworthy 5) Openness with information
Laird (1985)	1) Analyze the task 2) Tell the learner how to do the task 3) Show the learner how to do the task 4) Let the learner do the task 5) Review the learner's work	
Stowell (1988)		1) Orientation toward partnership 2) Orientation toward collaboration 3) Concern toward employee needs 4) Empathy 5) Patience 6) Supportive and caring 7) Clear and direct

Author	Coaching Process	Critical Coaching Characteristics
Cohen & Tichy (1997)		1) Leadership skills 2) Teachable 3) Systems orientation: creating a teaching culture
Kaplan & DeVries (1996)	1) Assessment (360° feedback; interview individual, family, coworkers) 2) Consolidation and Development plan 3) Implementation 4) Reassess	1) Orientation toward management development 2) Orientation toward personal development 3) Credibility 4) Intelligence 5) Maturity 6) Placing other's needs before own 7) Empathy 8) Constructive 9) Genuinely caring
Prochaska, DiClemente & Norcross (1992)	5 Stages to change: 1) Precontemplation 2) Contemplation 3) Preparation 4) Action 5) Maintenance	1) Awareness of individual's place in change process 2) Patience 3) Understanding how to help move the individual toward readiness to change
The Woodlands Group (1980)	1) Set challenging tasks 2) Clearly state expectations and progress towards goals 3) Counsel 4) Appraise regularly and objectively 5) Give positive feedback and reinforcement	1) Ability to develop rich interpersonal relationship
Bell (1997)		1) Find the teachable moment 2) Provide support without rescuing 3) Avoid perfectionism 4) Demonstrate authenticity and genuineness

Author	Coaching Process	Critical Coaching Characteristics
Darling (1994)	1) Setting aside time for coaching work 2) Ask questions to better understand 3) Keep a long-term perspective 4) Be a committed partner	1) Respectful

Table 2

The PROFILOR® Internal Reliabilities

Skills	# of Items	Cronbach's Alphas				
		Self	Boss	Direct Report	Peer	Average Other
Analyze Issues	5	0.69	0.82	0.89	0.87	0.88
Lead Courageously	7	0.83	0.88	0.93	0.92	0.93
Coach and Develop	8	0.82	0.89	0.93	0.92	0.92
Build Relationships	7	0.78	0.88	0.93	0.92	0.93
Listen to Others	5	0.81	0.87	0.93	0.92	0.93

Table 3

Relationships between The PROFILOR® Skills and Managerial Outcomes

Skill	Overall Performance	Potential	Competence
Analyze Issues	0.73	0.52	0.71
Lead Courageously	0.78	0.50	0.71
Coach and Develop	0.72	0.40	0.65
Build Relationships	0.59	0.32	0.57
Listen to Others	0.55	0.27	0.50

N = 13,434

Note. All correlations are significant at $p < .05$, taking into account the number of tests.

Table 4

Sample Demographic Descriptive Statistics

	Age	Years in Workforce	Managerial Tenure	Employees Managed	Employees Managed Directly
M	41.80	7.39	2.91	138.54	8.08
Median	0.24	0.06	0.03	9.22	0.29
SD	7.38	1.91	0.79	268.39	8.22
Min.	26.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
Max.	67.00	15.00	4.00	999.00	77.00

Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	991.00	80.37
Female	242.00	100.00
Missing	163.00	
Total	1396.00	

Ethnicity

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Aleutian/ Native American	2.00	0.14	0.22	0.22
African American	61.00	4.37	6.81	7.03
Hispanic	32.00	2.29	3.57	10.60
Asian	10.00	0.72	1.12	11.72

Ethnicity

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
American				
Caucasian	789.00	56.52	88.06	99.78
Other	2.00	0.14	0.22	100.00
Total	896.00	64.18	100.00	
Missing	500.00	35.82		
Total	1396.00	100.00		

Table 5

Instrument Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Range	Min.	Max.
Cognitive Abilities	994	65.07	7.83	3.09	34.00	80.00
Assertiveness	1233	28.47	4.14	26.00	10.00	36.00
Sociability	1233	22.70	4.02	16.18	10.00	31.00
Empathy	1233	24.09	4.14	26.00	9.00	35.00
Coach & Develop	1254	3.59	.53	3.09	1.91	5.00
Boss Analyze Issues	1322	3.80	.56	3.20	1.80	5.00
Boss Lead Courageously	1316	3.72	.61	3.83	1.17	5.00
Boss Build Relationships	1319	3.81	.65	3.57	1.43	5.00
Boss Listen to Others	1322	3.71	.66	3.80	1.20	5.00
Peer Analyze Issues	1333	3.80	.42	2.73	2.20	4.93
Peer Lead Courageously	1325	3.73	.46	2.70	2.19	4.89
Peer Build Relationships	1332	3.82	.53	3.07	1.82	4.89
Peer Listen to Others	1334	3.71	.50	3.00	1.90	4.90
Direct Report Analyze Issues	1260	3.89	.48	3.16	1.84	5.00
Direct Report Lead Courageously	1255	3.79	.54	3.17	1.83	5.00
Direct Report Build Relationships	1257	3.87	.57	3.37	1.63	5.00
Direct Report Listen to Others	1263	3.74	.58	3.70	1.30	5.00

Table 6

Correlations: Coaching Performance, Managerial Skills, and Managerial Attributes

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Boss Coach & Develop		.31**	.41**	.04	.11**	.05	.09**	.58**	.69**	.65**	.60**	.28**	.34**	.32**	.27**	.29**	.33**	.29**	.25**
DR Coach & Develop			.40**	-.09**	.10**	.07*	.07*	.14**	.22**	.24**	.16**	.24**	.33**	.31**	.24**	.73**	.81**	.78**	.72**
Peer Coach & Develop				-.03	.12**	.09**	.12**	.17**	.26**	.35**	.28**	.68**	.77**	.74**	.69**	.35**	.39**	.39**	.34**
Cognitive Abilities					.10**	.01	.10**	.21**	.02	.03	.07*	.17**	-.03	.01	.05	.10**	-.08*	-.04	.00
Assertiveness						.57**	.46**	.08**	.16**	.01	-.03	.10**	.20**	.03	-.04	.10**	.17**	.02	-.04
Sociability							.63**	-.02	.03	.04	-.03	.03	.09**	.08**	.00	.04	.07*	.05	-.01
Empathy								.02	.02	.08*	.05	.06	.05	.11**	.06*	.06*	.04	.08**	.04
Boss Analyze Issues									.65**	.48**	.52**	.37**	.25**	.15**	.16**	.30**	.20**	.12**	.12**
Boss Lead Courageously										.41**	.38**	.25**	.43**	.10**	.05	.24**	.35**	.10**	.07*
Boss Build Relationships											.78**	.26**	.16**	.56**	.47**	.26**	.16**	.43**	.37**
Boss Listen to Others												.25**	.11**	.42**	.45**	.21**	.09**	.30**	.33**
Peer Analyze Issues													.70**	.61**	.63**	.42**	.30**	.26**	.26**
Peer Lead Courageously														.48**	.42**	.36**	.49**	.22**	.18**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Peer Build Relationships															.85**	.30**	.20**	.52**	.45**
Peer Listen to Others																.25**	.13**	.41**	.44**
DR Analyze Issues																	.79**	.72**	.73**
DR Lead Courageously																		.62**	.58**
DR Build Relationships																			.86**
DR Listen to Others																			

** p<.01, ** p<.05

Note: DR = Direct Report

Table 7

Hypothesis 11: Regression of Coaching Performance of Cognitive Abilities, Assertiveness, Sociability, and Empathy

	Variables Entered	Beta	ΔR^2	F	df
Step 1	Cognitive Abilities	-.09**	.01**	7.70**	1
Step 2	Cognitive Abilities	-.10**			
	Assertiveness	.10*	.01*	4.90**	3
	Sociability	-.02			

Note: Dependent Variable: Coaching Performance

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Figures

Figure 1

Proposed Coaching Model

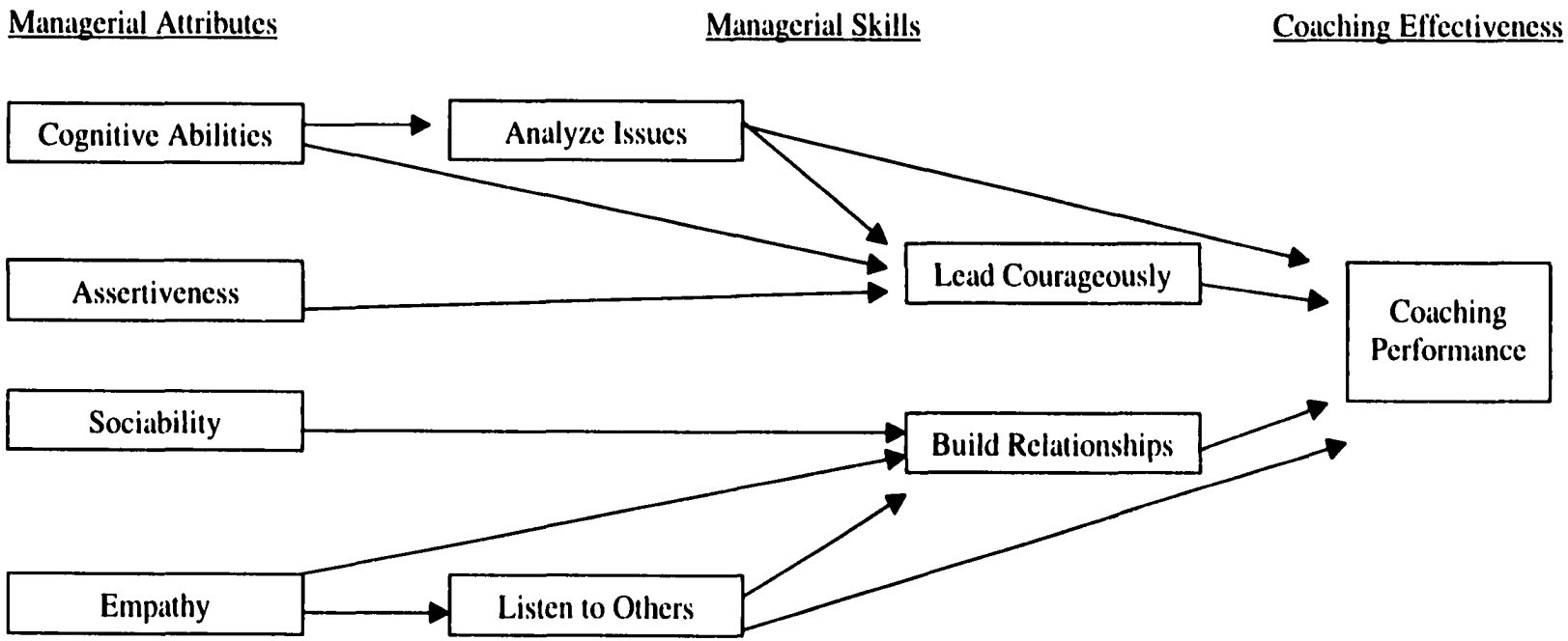


Figure 2

Causal Model #1: Self Rating of Attributes, Direct Report Rating of Skills, Direct Report Rating of Coaching Performance

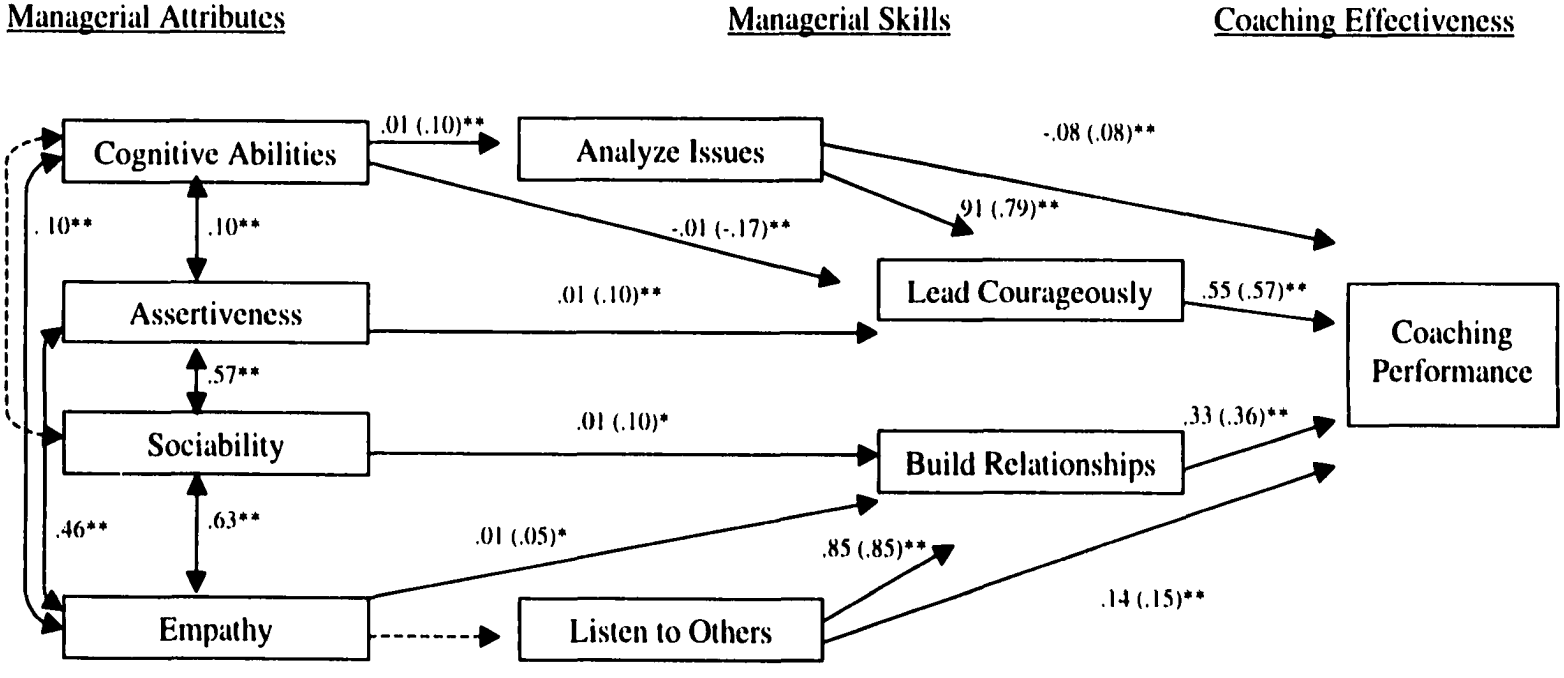


Figure 3

Causal Model 2: Self Rating of Attributes, Peer Rating of Skills, Direct Report Rating of Coaching Performance

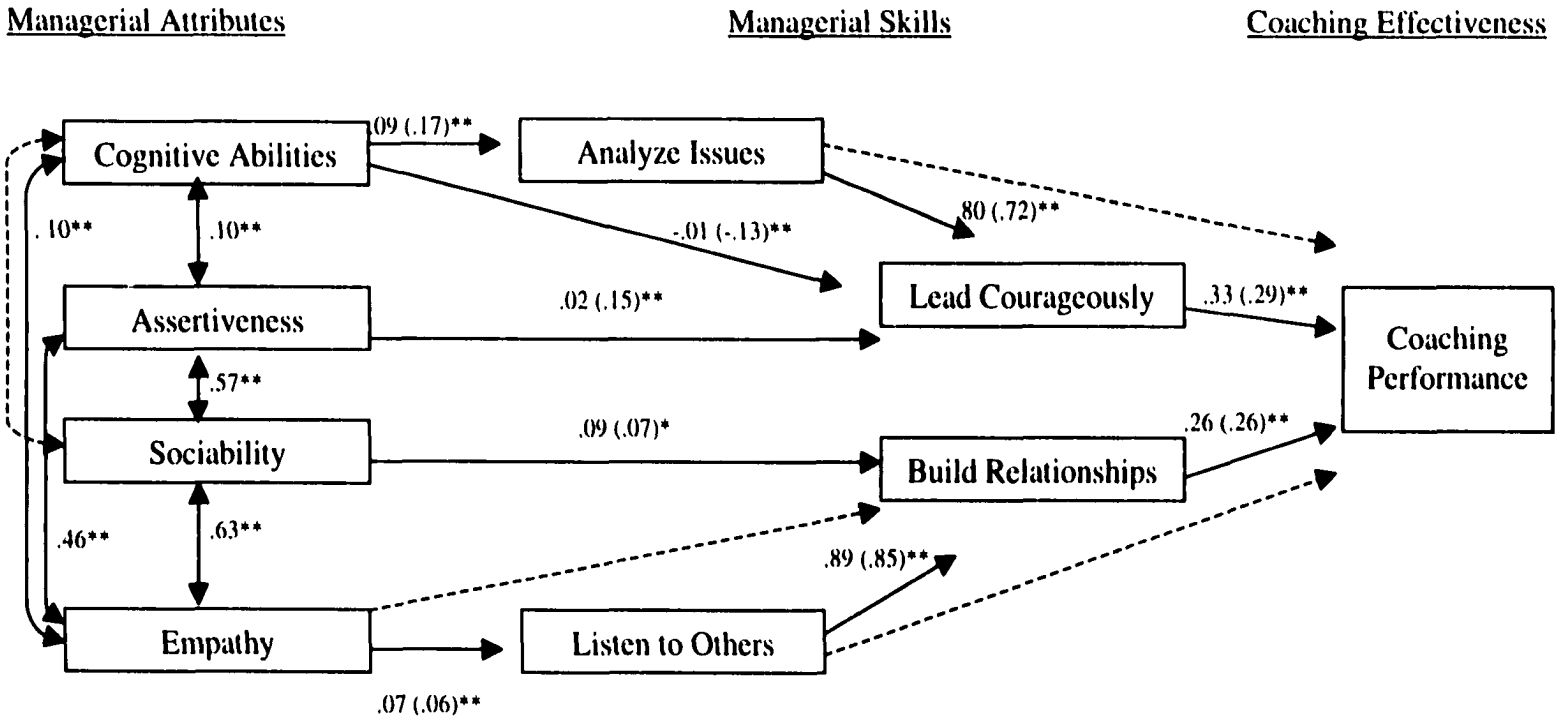


Figure 4

Causal Model #3: Self Rating of Attributes, Boss Rating of Skills, Direct Report Rating of Coaching Performance

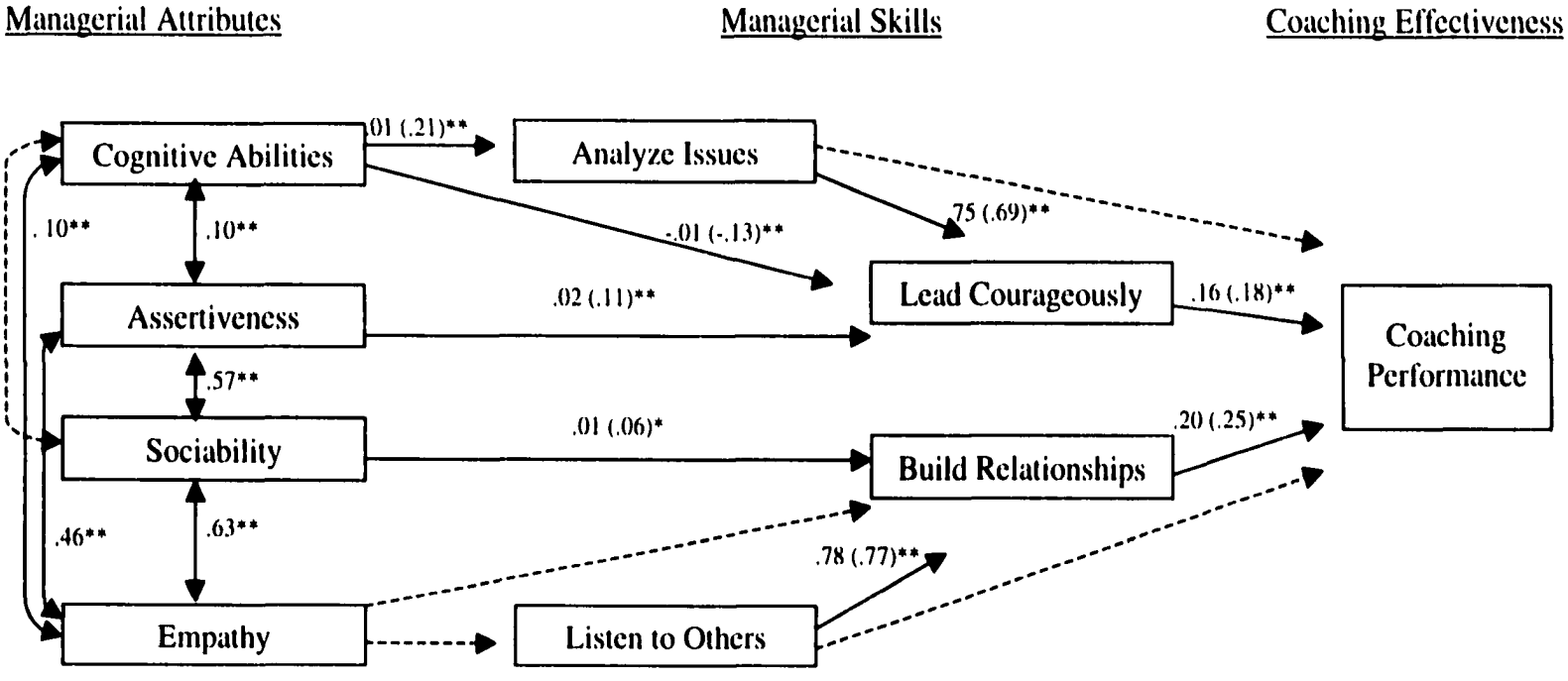


Figure 5

Revised Coaching Model

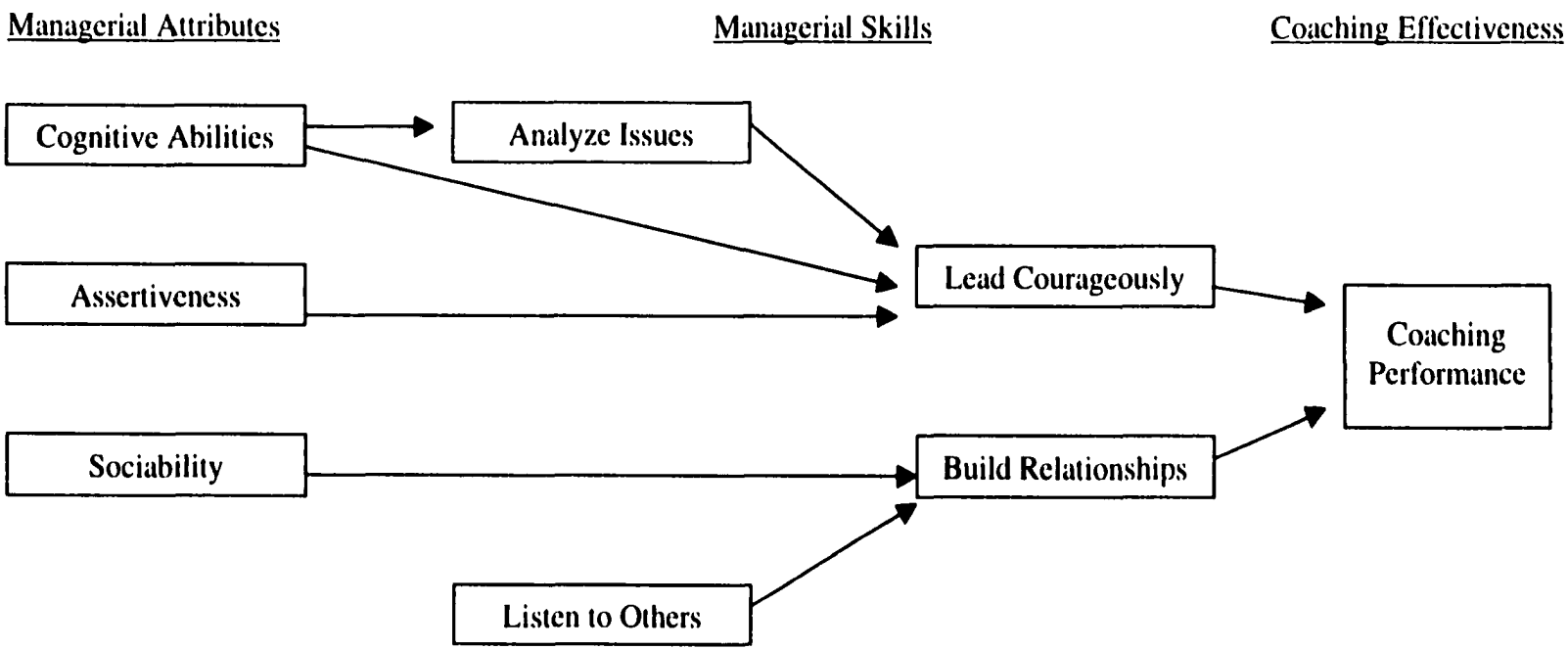
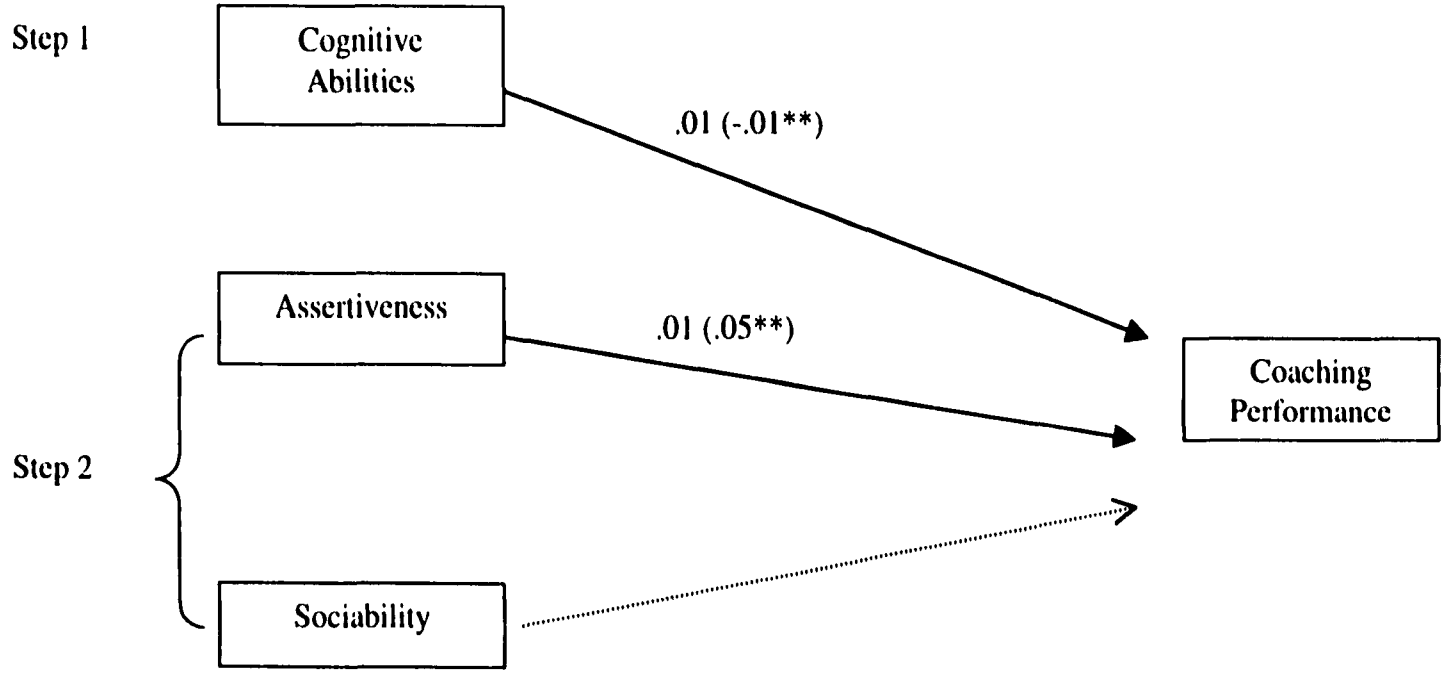


Figure 6

Hierarchical Regression: Direct Test of Hypothesis 11



$\Delta R^2 = .01, p<.05$

Appendix A

The PROFILOR® Scale items

(ratings: 5=To a very great extent, 4=To a great extent, 3=To some extent, 2=To a little extent, 1=Not at all, or "Does not apply")

The PROFILOR® Coach and Develop scale items

This person:

Accurately identifies strengths and development needs of others.

Gives specific and constructive feedback.

Lets people know when they are not performing well.

Coaches others in the development of their skills.

Provides challenging assignments to facilitate individual development.

Shows interest in employee's careers.

Knows when to supervise and coach people and when to leave them on their own.

The PROFILOR® Analyze Issues scale items

This person:

Considers alternative solutions before making decisions.

Makes timely decisions.

Makes sound decisions based on adequate information.

Makes decisions in the face of uncertainty.

The PROFILOR® Lead Courageously Scale Items

This person:

Takes a stand and resolves important issues.

Confronts problems early, before they get out of hand.

Challenges others to make tough choices.

Drives hard on the right issues.

Acts decisively.

Demonstrates managerial courage.

The PROFILOR® Build Relationships Scale Items

This person:

Treats people with respect.

Treats people fairly.

Can be approached easily.

Develops effective working relationships with direct reports.

Develops effective working relationships with peers.

Develops effective relationships with higher management.

Takes people's feeling and preferences into account when making decisions.

The PROFILOR® Listen to Others Scale Items

This person:

Listens carefully to input.

Listens well in a group.

Listens to people without interrupting.

Clarifies what people say to ensure understanding.

Listens willingly to concerns expressed by others.