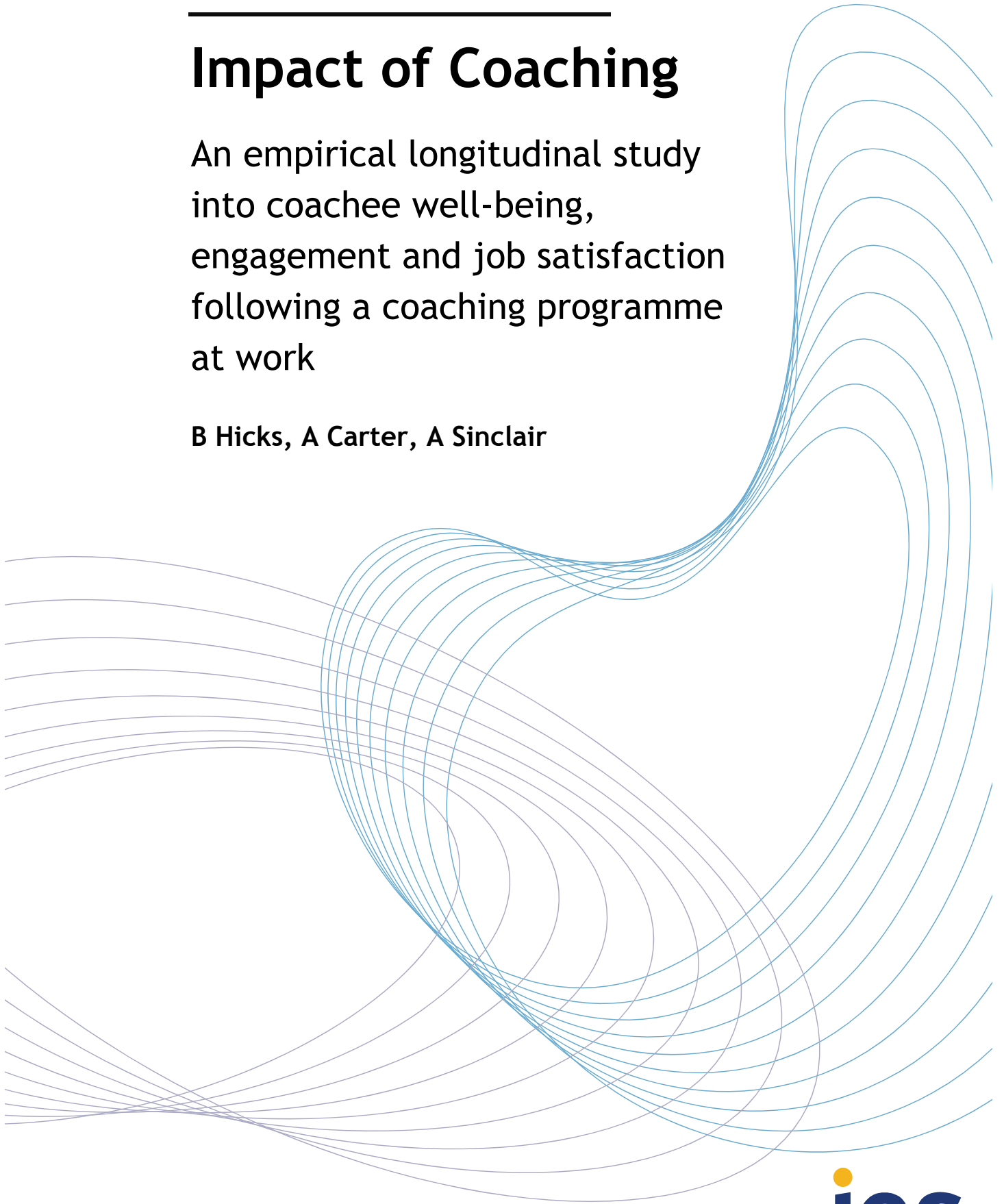

Impact of Coaching

An empirical longitudinal study
into coachee well-being,
engagement and job satisfaction
following a coaching programme
at work

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1 Summary of the Literature

1.1 Introduction

Whilst it may seem self evident that there would be a positive relationship between the receipt of coaching and individual employee psychological health and well-being, there is currently little evidence from the research to support this contention. The vast majority of research into executive coaching so far has explored the success of coaching against organisational aims and returns on a company's investment (eg *Laske, 2004, Dagley, 2006*). A typical coaching research article tends to be an insider account of a retrospective study, with perceptual data collected from small numbers of coachees, and a narrow focus usually stated in terms of business relevance and improving practice (*Garvey et al, 2009*). There are relatively few statistical studies of executive coaching carried out that have used pre and post coaching ratings or randomised controlled studies, and only a few of these collected data from sources other than the coachee (*de Meuse, Dai and Lee 2009, Feldman & Lankau 2005, Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson 2001, Grant et al. 2010 and Peterson 2010*). More good quality empirical research is needed to explore the potential for coaching in work settings to improve well-being as well as the impact of coaching for non-management populations of employees.

Aside from the need for empirical evidence to demonstrate the benefits of coaching, there is another, arguably more pressing, reason why the impact of coaching on psychological health should be assessed. The first principle of an intervention should be to 'do no harm'. Without adequate evaluation, even practices with detrimental consequences can continue unchecked and be promoted by well-meaning providers.

This study aims to address this gap in the literature and explore whether coachees (leaders, professional and employees) experience any impact on their well-being following a coaching intervention at work and whether this impacted is sustained over time.

1.2 The importance of well-being at work

Understanding the drivers of health and the relationships between health and work are a current priority for policy makers and employers in the UK and beyond. The impact of ill-health on the economy, employers and the social welfare system are pronounced and expensive. An estimated 1.2 million UK workers suffered from an illness during 2010/11 that they believed was caused or made worse by work (*Health and Safety Executive Statistics 2010/2011 using data from the UK Labour Force Survey*).

Employers in the UK have a legal obligation to safeguard the health and safety of their workers by minimising the harm that work can cause. However, there are arguments that employers can benefit from going beyond mere compliance by taking more proactive steps which maximise the positive benefits that work can offer to individuals and vice versa. A meta-analysis of Gallup studies, for example, examined the links between core aspects of employees' satisfaction, engagement and performance across organisations. This analysis showed that the

'presence of positive workplace perceptions and feelings are associated with higher business-unit customer loyalty, higher profitability, higher productivity and lower rates of turnover'

(Harter, Schmidt and Keyes, 1999, p1).

There are also consequences for employers who promote well-being in terms of reduced costs of employee absence. According to the CIPD's 2011 Annual Absence Survey, the median annual cost of absence due to sickness is approximately £673 per employee (and even higher in the public sector at £800 per employee). Absence costs the UK economy around £17bn overall. A significant proportion of these costs are related to absence due to common health problems; the HSE's analysis of Labour Force Survey data shows that common mental health problems (stress, depression and anxiety) and musculoskeletal conditions are the two leading causes of self-reported days of sickness absence due to work-related ill-health (*HSE, 2011*). A recent survey of 2,000 employees by the CIPD showed that 26 per cent of employees reported experiencing a mental health problem with those in the voluntary sector (39 per cent) and the public sector (37 per cent) being significantly more likely than those in the private sector (23 per cent) to report this. In addition to the costs for the organisation of managing this absence, the report also highlighted that 53 per cent of people reporting poor mental health said that they always go to work when experiencing poor mental health and 42 per cent said that they sometimes do. This suggests organisations will experience further costs associated with presenteeism; where the employee is present at the organisation but unable to work to their full capability (*CIPD 2011*).

If coaching can have a positive impact on mental health this may in-turn translate into cost savings for organisations and the wider economy.

1.3 How work impacts on well-being

There is a wide body of research examining the relationship between work and health. A review by Waddell & Burton concluded that *'work is generally good for health and well-being'* (Waddell & Burton, 2006) and has underpinned much of the work of policy-makers in this area. However, there are clearly cases where work can be detrimental to health and well-being. Taken together the research in this area shows that whether or not (and to what degree) an individual experiences adverse health outcomes is dependent upon the individual, the work characteristics, and the interaction between the two.

One of the strongest studies looking at the impact of work on mental health is the longitudinal Whitehall II cohort study of civil servants (Stansfeld, Head and Marmot, 2000). This concluded that the work environment is an important influence on health, although the importance of different aspects of work varies according to health outcome. For example, they found that 'reward imbalance' is associated with increased risk of alcohol dependence, psychiatric disorder, long spells of sickness absence and poor health functioning, whilst high job demands predict poor health functioning and psychiatric disorder. Moreover, the research found that certain work factors can have a protective effect on mental health, namely work social supports and control over work. Therefore, work can be a negative and/or positive influence on health.

Clearly, other non-work-related factors can influence how an individual interacts with, and reacts to, stressors at work. However, the role of individual factors in mental health is also important; some have more resilience than others. In their review of the impact of work on health, Waddell and Burton (2006) found that:

'emotional symptoms and minor psychological morbidity are very common in the working-age population; most people cope with these most of the time without healthcare or sickness absence from work'.

For example, Lunt et al. (2007) highlight the importance of an individual's social gradient (ie expectations of social capital and wealth, and perceptions of your relative position on such measures) as an external determinant of well-being at work. In addition to this, it has been shown that the way an organisation and an individual 'match' is important for good employee mental health (eg in terms of values and/or individual expectations/actual job).

The impact of work on mental health cannot, therefore, be seen as purely a passive process from the perspective of individuals. Individuals can shape their own

well-being, and coaching may be one means through which they can equip themselves to do so.

1.4 Engagement, satisfaction and well-being

Since the early-2000s the topic of employee engagement has entered the human resources (HR) agenda. Although academics and practitioners argue over the exact definition of engagement sources tend to define engagement to some degree by its outcomes and something given by the employee which can benefit the organisation. They generally agree that engaged employees feel a sense of attachment towards their organisation, investing themselves not only in their role, but in the organisation as a whole. As a result of IES's consultation with HR professionals from 46 organisations, IES developed a comprehensive definition of engagement:

'A positive attitude held by the employee towards the organisation and its values. An engaged employee is aware of business context and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organisation. The organisation must work to develop and nurture engagement which requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee'.

Robinson et al, 2004, pg 4

Although the debate still continues on the definition of employee engagement, the awareness of the central role it plays for commercial and business performance has continued to increase with the rise in the amount of literature exploring the topic. Current research suggests that higher engagement levels can have a positive impact on employee turnover, productivity, and financial performance (Baumruk, 2006). Moreover, higher engagement levels may help employers to attract and retain the best talents (eg Martin and Hetrick, 2006). Engaged employees have also found to be more supportive during change agendas (Graen, 2008) which is very important during the current financial and economic crisis which most organisations are facing. Conversely though, disengagement can result in lower job satisfaction and higher turnover rates, with disengaged workers being most likely to share their discontent with others (Penna, 2006; Gallup, 2006).

Aside from the business benefits of high employee engagement, research has also shown that on an individual employee level, highly engaged individuals will invest themselves fully in their work (Seijts and Crim, 2006), with increased self-efficacy and a positive impact upon their health and well-being (Mauno et al., 2007; Rothbard, 2001), which in turn evokes increased employee support for the organisation. Therefore from both an organisational perspective and an individual employee perspective means that although maintaining employee engagement

can pose a serious challenge for organisations it will reap them many benefits if they succeed in overcoming it.

There are a range of socio-demographic factors including gender, age, individual attitudes (*Balain and Sparrow, 2009*) and traits such as high extraversion and adaptability (*Macey and Schneider, 2008*) as well as organisational factors including seniority, occupation and length of service (*Tower Perrin, 2003, Blessing and White 2008*) that will impact on the variations of engagement levels of employees. For a full review of this literature see Robertson-Smith and Marwick (2009) '*Employee Engagement: a Review of Current Thinking.*' Due to the high level of variation in the factors that drive employee engagement means that a one size fits all methodology cannot be adopted. Overall, however, existing research most frequently highlights seven key drivers of employee engagement, these are:

1. **The nature of the work:** having challenging and varied work that utilises old and new skills (see for example *May et al., 2004; Lockwood, 2007*) as well as work that employees feel is important for themselves and for others.
2. **Important work with clear purpose and meaning** (*Lockwood, 2007; Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004*). Employees need to feel proud of the work they and their organisation do, and they need to feel as though they are making a difference.
3. **Development opportunities:** Employees need equal opportunities for, and access to, career growth, development and training opportunities (*The Conference Board, 2006*). For employees to perform well they need to have the right skills for the job, and their roles needs to encompass work that the employee knows how to do but with scope to learn new skills and develop the role.
4. **Recognition and reward:** receiving timely recognition and rewards is a key driver of engagement (*Melcrum, 2007; Robinson et al., 2005*).
5. **Effective and assertive relationships:** building good relationships between co-workers is important, especially the relationship between employee and manager (*Dulye, 2006; Kenexa, 2008 cited in WFC, 2008*). Developing mutual respect and trust between colleagues and managers is seen as key to enabling employees to engage with the organisation.
6. **Quality communications:** employees may engage in an organisation if they can understand the organisation's values and goals and these are communicated to them. They need to understand how their own role contributes to these, and the resources available to deliver them, as well as feeling well-informed about what is happening in the organisation (*Sinclair et al, 2008*).

7. **Inspiring leadership:** leaders and managers who inspire confidence in individuals, giving them autonomy to make decisions with clear goals and accountability, are perceived as engaging (*Macey and Schneider, 2008a*).

The literature clearly demonstrates the benefits that coaching can have for employee engagement levels and in part how this can impact on their job satisfaction. In turn an improvement in employee engagement has also been linked with an improvement not only for the organisation but also for the health and well-being of the individual employee. Research is beginning to highlight the drivers for increased employee engagement and it is clear that many of these areas are what coaching seeks to address and develop, such as helping employees to understand the meaning of their work, developing and utilising the necessary skills to complete the work tasks, developing good relationships between colleagues and managers etc. If coaching can equip employees to become more satisfied with their job and therefore more engaged with their organisation then this may have considerable benefits for the well-being both at work and generally.

1.5 Coaching programmes in the workplace

Coaching at work typically takes place within the context of a formal coaching 'programme' within the organisation. Key differentiating features of coaching programmes in the workplace identified by Carter (2012) include:

- What employers seek to gain – accelerated development and ease of transition in to a new or different role, support through organisational change, critical friend to help leaders re-motivate or re-focus themselves or one element in a wider development programme (Carter, 2001)
- Management goal of improving poor performance or building on good performance (*CIPD, 2011*).
- Size of employee/leader population targeted eg small population of pregnant female employees for maternity coaching programme, large population of all managers for manager coaching skills training programme, very small population of leaders for a New Directors transitioning coaching programme.
- Scale and structure of programme – continuity of process and time period.
- Method of coachee selection eg self-nomination, manager-nomination, outcome from talent management/succession planning process, *automatic with*
- Mode of coaching delivery eg face to face, telephone, virtual and/or one-to-one, groups or teams.
- Who delivers the coaching.

According to Carter & Hawkins (2012) coaching has increasingly been delivered in large companies by a mixture of:

- Line managers coaching their own staff with or without any formal coaching training.
- Internal coaches who have undertaken some more extensive coaching training and who often receive supervision, who give a few hours every week to coaching individuals from other departments and functions.
- External coaches brought in to provide specific coaching for senior executives or high potential staff.

Internal coaches are sometimes senior managers or HR and OD specialists. Internal coaches are usually expected to carry out their coaching role in addition to or as part of their 'everyday' job (Hamlin *et al.*, 2008, Hawkins 2012). According to the CIPD 2011 coaching climate survey of HR specialists:

20 per cent of coaching at work in UK is delivered by externally sourced coaches

29 per cent by internal coaches

32 per cent by line managers.

Whatever the method, organisations use to resource their coaches, most coaching within organisations is conducted in a dyadic (one-to-one) format (Ward 2008).

1.6 Research into outcomes of coaching and limitations of evaluation studies

What outcomes need to be measured? This is similar for coaching in healthcare and work settings. Measurement areas include quantifiable performance, new skills & abilities, new habits & behaviours, and/or the capacity for sustaining change(s).

There has been an enormous upsurge in papers on coaching at work in scholarly journals, with English (2006) finding a 300 per cent increase in the number of such papers between the period 1994-1999 and the period 2000-2004. Two academic journals on the subject have been established within this time period. They are the '*International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*' (established in August 2003) and the '*International Coaching Psychology Review*' (established in April 2006). The coaching literature contains theoretical, review and discussion papers (eg Baek-Kyoo, 2005; Feldman and Lankau, 2005; and Carter, Wolfe & Kerrin, 2005); but less commonly, empirical studies evaluating its effectiveness.

Some criticise the evaluation work done thus far on the outcomes of coaching at work and nearly all commentators mention the need for more rigorous, consistent and multi-faceted research that looks at the organisational impact of coaching. Fillery-Travis and Lane (2006), for example, argue that those rushing to evaluate whether coaching 'works' are asking the wrong question – they need first to determine how coaching is being used and within what framework they wish to evaluate it. In a similar vein, Mackie (2007) discusses the various criteria that have been used in evaluating coaching, concluding that 'to date there have been no universally accepted criteria for what constitutes a successful outcome'. In contrast, it is noted, 'both the training and psychotherapy literature have a long history in addressing the problem of evaluating outcomes in their respective domains'.

Considering the dramatic rise in the use of coaching over the last decade, empirical research on its outcomes has been relatively sparse. As Baek-Kyoo (2005) writes, 'executive coaching has become increasingly popular despite limited empirical evidence about its impact and wide disagreement about necessary or desired professional qualifications'. A review by Grant and Cavanagh in July 2007 concluded that the field is 'still in the early stages of development'. Carter and Peterson (2010) describe how much of the research on coaching is based on qualitative case study work with coaching participants or evaluations carried out by coaching organisations themselves, which are clearly subject to bias. Whilst academics and scientist-practitioners have conducted some of the more serious research in this area, Carter and Peterson note that much of this has involved graduate students rather than executives in a real-world organisational setting.

Garvey et al., (2009) compared 18 coaching research published articles with 18 mentoring research articles and found that coaching research comes up short. A typical coaching research paper tends to be an insider account of a retrospective study, with perceptual data collected only from small numbers of coachees, and a narrow focus usually stated in terms of business relevance and improving practice. Most research has been based on retrospective studies, where perceptions of the coaching and progress made were collected mostly from the coaches. Other commentators agree stating that there are relatively few statistical studies of executive coaching carried that have used pre and post coaching ratings or randomised controlled studies, and only a few of these collected data from sources other than the coachee (*de Meuse, Dai and Lee, 2009; Feldman & Lankau, 2005; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; and MacKie, 2007; Grant et al., 2010; and Peterson, 2010*).

The review of the research by Meuse, Dai and Lee (2009) stated that while executive coaching is gaining popularity, *'the evaluation of its effectiveness has lagged*

far behind'. In their meta-analysis of empirical research on coaching evaluations they identified only six studies that met the following four criteria:

1. The focus of the intervention had to be exclusively executive coaching.
2. The services of an external coach were used.
3. The methodological design was one that provided both pre- and post-coaching ratings.
4. Statistics, such as means, standard deviations or t values, and sample sizes had to be reported so that an effect size could be computed.

De Meuse et al (2009) concluded that, although there is a great deal of evidence that coaching does produce improvements in individual effectiveness, (across the six studies surveys, 75 to 95 per cent of participants had favourable ratings of their coaching and nearly all studies indicated that the participant's individual effectiveness had improved) fewer reported that it positively impacted on organizational improvement. Parker-Wilkins' research (2006) showed that 41 per cent of the respondents indicated that individual coaching had helped them with building their team.

In addition, a high proportion of the evaluation research to date has focused on organisational rather than individual benefits of coaching, most notably economic benefits. Laske (2004) for example, found that evidence-based coaching has potential to increase return on investment, whilst Thach (2002) demonstrated that it can increase leadership effectiveness and productivity. Whilst these outcomes are important for an organisation it is also necessary for us to explore whether coaching has a positive effect on the well-being of individuals.

1.7 Existing research on coaching and well-being

There have been a small number of studies looking at the impact of coaching on well-being in non-executive settings. Allan (2007), for example, conducted a very small-scale coaching programme (just three teaching staff participated) in a UK secondary school and evaluated this in a variety of ways, including formative evaluation reviews, data from reflection notes and an extensive summative feedback evaluation questionnaire, in addition to third party evidence. He found evidence of a number of benefits to the individuals involved, including enhanced personal effectiveness, energy and job satisfaction. However it is very difficult to draw general conclusions from this data due to the very small sample size.

Studies have also looked at other forms of coaching to executive coaching. According to Margaret Moore (2012), there are now 17 randomised controlled

coaching research studies in healthcare. This is double the number of randomised controlled studies of leadership coaching in work settings.

From the healthcare literature we know that only 20 per cent of US adults are thriving (*Kobau et al, 2010*). There is evidence in the medical literature that coaching can be effective at improving health outcomes (*Frates et al, 2011*) and that physician empathy alone improves clinical outcomes (*Hojat et al, 2011*). So how does coaching in healthcare settings deliver health outcomes? It is thought to work in four ways:

1. Creating growth-promoting relationships (through mindfulness, self-empathy, autonomy).
2. Fostering self-motivation; (*Ryan & Deci 2000, Rollnick & Miller 1995*).
3. Developing the capacity to change (through cultivating positive emotions to improve resilience, harnessing strengths and using them to overcome weaknesses, and building confidence); (*Lasada & Fredrickson 2005, Diener & Diener 2008*).
4. Facilitating the process or journey of change (through visioning, goal setting, social support, accountability and navigating setbacks) (*Prochaska, 1994*).

In the life-coaching field, Grant (2003) used a within-subjects design to evaluate the outcomes of a life coaching programme completed by 20 adults, taking before and after measures. Mental health, quality of life and goal attainment were all found to significantly increase. Butterworth et al. (2006) looked at the outcomes of motivational interviewing health coaching and found that the treatment group showed better general health and mental health scores than a control group in a matched pairs design.

Only a small number of studies have specifically considered the impact of executive coaching on aspects of individual well-being. Dagley (2006) surveyed 17 HR practitioners whom collectively had been responsible for over 1,000 individual executive coaching pairings in the preceding two years. These practitioners indicated strong support for the continued use of coaching and identified a large range of benefits both for the individuals and organisations involved, including several well-being outcomes. Gyllen and Palmer (2005) took a more experimental approach and measured depression, anxiety and stress before and after coaching in both a coaching group and a control group working in a UK finance organisation. They found coaching to have a positive effect on both anxiety and stress. Duijts, Kant, Brandt and Swaen (2007) looked specifically at a preventative coaching intervention for employees 'at risk' for sickness absence. Theoretical evidence suggested that this intervention had the potential for success.

More recently, Grant and colleagues (2009) examined the impact of executive coaching delivered by external coaches on well-being. In the randomised controlled study, 41 executives from a public health services agency received four coaching sessions using a cognitive-behavioural solution focused approach. The researchers found that, compared to controls, coaching enhanced goal attainment, resilience and workplace well-being, while reducing depression and stress. This was despite the fact that the coaching was focused on the attainment of the organisations' leadership goals rather than on improvements in well-being per se.

Thus, overall there is emerging evidence that coaching can be an effective positive individual change methodology. However, how coaching improves well-being is less clearly understood. In the Grant et al. (2009) study described above, the authors hypothesised a number of mechanisms which may be responsible for the increase in well-being; firstly that goal attainment can enhance well-being (particularly if the goals are personally valued); secondly through the increase in social support and a sense of autonomy and; thirdly, through increased self-acceptance.

In an unpublished paper, Ladegard (in review), of the Institute for Economics and Resource Management Norway, examined how workplace coaching may reduce strain both directly, through altering individual psychological states, as well as indirectly through enabling the individual to alter the stressors causing the strain. Using a longitudinal design and an initial sample of 112 coachees, he identified that strain is significantly reduced after coaching, and that the effect persists nine months later. The analysis indicated that the effect can be explained in part by the change in stressors and job resources that come about through coaching, namely the improvement in perceived job demand, social support and self-efficacy.

2 Aims of the Current Research

Whilst the literature on coaching evaluations is growing rapidly, this review shows that most research on coaching at work is yet to look at its impact on well-being. In addition, it is yet to consider the experiences of a broad range of the workforce ie professionals and employees as well as leaders and managers. Some research has looked at the impact of other forms of coaching (such as life coaching) on mental health, but very little has considered the role of coaching in work settings. In particular, it is important to understand the impact of coaching on well-being not just in one workplace but across a range of organisations. Also, it is important to understand not only whether, but also *how* coaching affects well-being.

The current study aims to address this gap in the literature by adopting a longitudinal quantitative approach to assess the impact that coaching has on coachees' levels of well-being and whether any outcomes are sustained over-time. The specific questions explored will be:

- Does coaching have a positive impact on the work well-being of coachees in the workplace?
- Does coaching have a positive impact on the general well-being of coachees?
- Does coaching have an impact on the engagement and satisfaction levels of coachees?
- What aspects of coaching are responsible for any changes that occur?
- Which elements of job satisfaction (relationship with colleagues, pay, hours) mediate the effect of coaching on well-being?
- Are any changes sustained over-time?

3 Methodology

3.1 Participants

Research participants were employees at any level who were about to begin a coaching relationship as part of a coaching programme or initiative financed by their employing organisation. Participants were recruited from a range of organisations using pre-existing contacts of the IES research team as well as additional advertising through conferences, coaching and occupational health email lists and professional bodies and social media such as LinkedIn. Employing organisations and coaching providers were encouraged to forward the invitation to participate in the research to their coachees by being offered a company-specific report on the impact of their coaching (subject to a minimum number of respondents to protect individual confidentiality). Organisations who agreed to distribute the questionnaire were given an individual code so that the coachees they recruited could be determined. One organisation was given two codes: one for coachees about to embark on a coaching programme using external coaches and the other for a programme using internally trained coaches. Our recruitment strategy was deliberately broad to ensure that a wide diversity of workplaces and coaching programme experiences was captured. Procedure

The project adopted a longitudinal quantitative approach. Coachees who were about to undertake a formal coaching programme were invited to participate in the research. Each participant was asked to voluntarily complete an on-line questionnaire prior to their first coaching session (Time 1). If they consented, they were then asked to provide their email address so that follow-up surveys could be sent directly (Time 2 after six months, Time 3 after 12 months). Coachees were tracked after the initial Time 1 questionnaire using a unique ID code which enabled their data over the three time periods to be matched as well as their sponsoring organisation to be identified. The initial questionnaire took around ten minutes to complete, and the later ones around 15 minutes.

Surveys were sent to coachees over a period of a year and each one aimed to collect data on job satisfaction, engagement and well-being both at work and in general. All surveys included the same four measures ('scales') which attempted to track any changes over time in job satisfaction employee engagement, mental well-being at work and mental well-being in general. Taking three 'snapshots' enabled any immediate benefits for the coachee to be highlighted as well as allowing further analysis to establish whether those benefits were sustained and/or whether additional benefits emerged at a later date. Demographic details as well as questions exploring the experience of the coaching programme were included in the questionnaire to allow for cross analysis. Open-ended questions were also distributed throughout the surveys which allowed respondents to freely express their opinions in more detail.

Table 3.1 shows the number of respondents to each of the three surveys, by organisation:

Table 3.1: Number of respondents

Organisation	No. at time 1
Organisation 1: A regional coaching pool incl. police, fire & local government councils	44
Organisation 2: a central Government Dept	19
Organisation 3: a large County Council	11
Organisation 4: an NHS region	6
Organisation 5: a central government department	6
Organisation 6: a central government department	4
Organisation 7: coaching provider for Org 6	4
Organisation 8: a central government department	2
Organisation 9: a central government department	1
Organisation 10: coaching provider for org 6	1
Total	98

Source: IES well-being survey Time 1

3.2 Analysis

The survey was set up and disseminated online using the IES bespoke survey software. All the results were downloaded into an Excel spreadsheet and then transferred into SPSS for statistical analysis.

The analysis was divided into different sections:

- Firstly frequency analysis was used to outline the demographics of the respondents and their aims for the coaching. Statistical tests were conducted to establish any differences between the respondents at Time 1.
- Reliability analysis was used to develop the satisfaction, engagement and well-being scales at Time 1 and the data was analysed for each scale using frequency analysis.
- At Time 2, frequency analysis was conducted to determine the demographics of the sample size for the post-coaching survey and a range of t-tests and chi-square tests were used to establish if the respondents at Time 2 were significantly different from those who participated at Time 1.
- A series of linear regressions were carried out to understand which outcomes of the coaching were associated with scores at Time 2 on the satisfaction, engagement and well-being scales.
- Again reliability analysis was used to develop the satisfaction, engagement and well-being scales at Time 2 and then paired sample t-tests were conducted to determine any significant differences between coachees scores at Time 1 and at Time 2.
- The scales were split into their various constructs and paired samples t-tests were conducted on each item to determine any significant differences between scores at Time 1 and at Time 2.
- Frequency analysis was used at Time 3 on a limited sample size to understand the demographic details of the coachees who responded. A t-test was also used to establish whether the perceived impact of the coaching at Time 2 and Time 3 differed. However very little other analysis could be carried out due to the small sample size.

3.3 Scales

Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (WEMWBS)

Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (WEMWBS)¹ is one of three mental health outcomes on which English health policy is based. It is a valid and reliable instrument suitable for use on population surveys and evaluations. It is sensitive to changes in uncontrolled studies. WEMWBS differs from other scales of mental

health in that it covers only positive aspects of mental health and all 14 items are phrased positively. Items cover a range of aspects of mental well-being including many which are familiar from other well known scales (e.g. *I've been feeling relaxed, I have been thinking clearly*). Responses in the form of a Likert scale comprise 'None of the time'; 'Rarely'; 'Some of the time'; 'Often' and 'All of the time'. Scores range from 14 to 70, with a higher score reflecting a higher level of mental well-being. For this study the seven item scale was used as this has been found to be as equally as robust as the 14 item scale (*Stewart-Brown*) and also enables the questionnaire to be shorter in length and so increase the likelihood for a better response rate.

IES employee engagement scale

A shortened version of the IES Employee Engagement Scale was used to measure participant's engagement levels. This scale has been developed over time while working on a range of projects² at IES. Respondents rate their commitment and engagement to their job in the form of a Likert scale ranging from 1 'strongly disagree' to 5 'strongly agree'. An overall engagement score is calculated as the mean of the sum of item scores. Higher scores indicate higher levels of engagement with the organisation.

Workplace Well-being Index

The Workplace Well-Being Index³ is a derivative of the Personal Well-Being Index and is associated with a person's satisfaction with their job. It has been found to be a reliable and valid measure (*Page, 2005*) and was also used by Grant et al.,(2009) in their randomised controlled study of goal attainment, resilience and well being following leadership coaching. The index includes questions about a range of different aspects of a person's job and is split into both intrinsic (meaningfulness of work, use of abilities) and extrinsic (work hours, recognition) factors. Both aspects can be combined to form a composite construct; the Workplace Well-being Index. Respondents were asked to rate 19 various aspects of their job on a scale of zero to ten (from completely dissatisfied to completely satisfied). Higher scores on the scale indicated greater levels of satisfaction.

² For further reference please see Robinson D, Perryman S, Hayday S (2004) *'The Drivers of Employee Engagement'* IES Report 408 and Robinson D, Hooker H, Hayday S (2007) *'Engagement: The Continuing Story'* IES Report 447

4 Results

4.1 Time 1 results

4.1.1 Demographics

There were a total of 100 respondents for the Time 1 survey questionnaire from ten participating organisations or coaching providers. Table 4.1 provides a breakdown of the organisations that took part in the research. Please note that we could only account for 98 respondents as two did not provide details of their organisation.

Table 4.1: Overview of the participating organisations

Name of organisation	N	%
Organisation 1: A regional coaching pool inc police, fire & local government councils	44	44.9
Organisation 2: a central Government Dept	19	19.39
Organisation 3: a large County Council	11	11.22
Organisation 4: an NHS region	6	6.12
Organisation 5: a central government department	6	6.12
Organisation 6: a central government department	4	4.08
Organisation 7: coaching provider for Org 6	4	4.08
Organisation 8: a central government department	2	2.04
Organisation 9: a central government department	1	1.02
Organisation 10: coaching provider for org 6	1	1.02
Total	98	

Source: IES coaching and well-being survey time 1

The breakdown of the data shows that 71.0 per cent of these were women and the mean average age was 38.9 years old (SE 1.01, Std.dev. 9.95). The majority (93.0 per cent) of the respondents worked full-time as opposed to part-time (including job share) for a mean average of 40.5 hours per week (SE 0.74, Std.dev 7.42).

Around two-thirds (64 per cent) stated that they managed other members of staff and 40.3 per cent of these respondents described themselves as senior managers. Those who managed other members of staff were significantly older, had been at the organisation for longer and worked on average more hours per week than those who did not manage other staff. Senior managers were significantly older and worked more hours on average per week than those who did not class themselves as a senior manager.

4.1.2 Aims of coaching

Table 4.2: Respondents' aims for undertaking coaching

Aims of coaching	Responses	
	N	Percentage of cases
Improve personal effectiveness in the workplace	65	65.7
Assist in your own career planning	46	46.5
Gain greater self-confidence in your role	41	41.4
Help with personal development needs	41	41.4
Help you cope with pressure or stress at work	25	25.3
Assist your transition into a new role	24	24.2
Help you deal with difficult relationships at work	22	22.2
Help you develop new work skills	17	17.2
Support with meeting targets at work	6	6.1
Support with specific projects/initiatives at work	5	5.1
Other	5	5.1
Total	297	300.2

Note: the responses are greater than 100 per cent as respondents could give up to three aims of undertaking the coaching

Source: IES Coaching and well-being Time 1 survey questionnaire

Table 4.2 illustrates that two-thirds of respondents (65.7 per cent) undertook the coaching programme to improve their personal effectiveness. Clients also participated in coaching programmes to assist in their own career planning (46.5 per cent), gain greater self confidence in their role (41.4 per cent) and to help with personal development needs (41.4 per cent). Other responses given by employees, not included in the table above, on why they undertook coaching included: helping them to cope with potential redundancies; improving their effectiveness as a manager; and helping them to work around people's perceptions of them.

The results were split by the demographic details of the participants to establish whether certain characteristics were more likely to predict respondents' aims for undertaking the coaching sessions. Statistical analysis showed that:

- Those who worked longer hours on average at their organisation (Mean = 42.05, SE=0.82) were more likely to use the coaching sessions to improve their personal effectiveness in the workplace than those who worked fewer hours (Mean = 37.50, SE = 1.35, $t(98) = -3.04$, $p < 0.01$, $r = 0.29$).
- Those who were younger (Mean = 35.66, SE = 1.51) were more likely than those who were older (Mean = 41.39, SE= 1.26) to state that they were using the coaching sessions to give them greater self confidence in their role ($t(96) = 2.92$, $p < 0.01$, $r = 0.29$).
- Those who had been at the organisation for less time (Mean = 70.68, SE= 14.22) were more likely than those who had been at the organisation for longer (Mean = 114.49, SE= 14.74) to also use the coaching sessions to give them greater self confidence in their role ($t(98) = 2.06$, $p < 0.05$, $r = 0.20$).
- Those who were older (Mean = 44.17, SE= 1.76) were more likely than those who were younger (Mean = 37.31, SE= 1.14) to state that they were using the coaching to assist with their transition into a new role ($t(96) = -3.06$, $p < 0.01$, $r = 0.30$).
- Older workers tended to be senior managers who were also more likely to use the coaching to assist with the transition into a new role than non-senior managers ($\chi^2(1) = 8.56$, $p < 0.01$).
- Women were also more likely than men to state that they were using the coaching sessions to help them deal with difficult relationships at work ($\chi^2(1) = 5.43$, $p < 0.05$).

4.1.3 Job satisfaction

Reliability analysis of the Workplace Well-being Index gave a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.937 which suggests high internal reliability between the items on the scale (an alpha score of 0.7 is the generally accepted value of a reliable scale), ie. they are all measuring the same general construct of job satisfaction. The scores in the scale were then combined to calculate an overall job satisfaction rating (calculated as the mean of the sum of all the item scores). The responses are presented below in Table 4.3. The table illustrates that at Time 1 the coaching clients were most satisfied with the convenience of their work hours (mean of 8.13), their co-workers (mean of 8.06), their independence at work (mean of 7.89) and their working conditions (mean of 7.82). They were least satisfied with their promotional opportunities at work (mean of 5.02), job security (mean of 5.89) and the amount

of work pressure or stress they experience at work (mean of 6.12). These concerns may in part reflect the fact that the UK was in a recession during the period of research. It would also explain the fact that the most prevalent reasons for undertaking coaching were to improve personal effectiveness and to plan for career and development needs (see Table 4.2 above).

Table 4.3: Respondents' average job satisfaction scores

How satisfied are you with the following...	N	Min	Max	Average satisfaction score	Std. error	Std. dev
The convenience of your work hours	97	0	10	8.13	0.23	2.24
Your co-workers	98	0	10	8.06	0.20	1.94
Your independence at work	97	0	10	7.89	0.22	2.16
Your working conditions	97	0	10	7.82	0.21	2.08
How meaningful your work is	99	0	10	7.64	0.24	2.38
How much responsibility you have at work	99	0	10	7.48	0.23	2.30
How much your work allows you to use your abilities and knowledge	98	0	10	7.41	0.28	2.73
Your supervisor(s)	96	0	10	7.31	0.26	2.59
The sense of achievement your work gives you	98	0	10	7.06	0.25	2.44
Your work/life balance	96	0	10	6.89	0.27	2.61
How much your views are listened to at work	97	0	10	6.80	0.23	2.29
The leaders of your organisation	98	0	10	6.69	0.24	2.32
Your pay	99	0	10	6.68	0.24	2.41
The recognition you receive for good work	97	0	10	6.64	0.25	2.46
Being valued as a person at work	98	0	10	6.57	0.28	2.74
Your level of influence at work	97	0	10	6.44	0.24	2.34
The amount of pressure or stress you experience at work	98	0	10	6.12	0.24	2.40
Your job security	96	0	10	5.88	0.26	2.54
Your promotional opportunities at work	96	0	10	5.02	0.289	2.83

Source: IES Coaching and well-being wave 1 survey questionnaire

The mean overall satisfaction score at Time 1 (calculated as the mean of the sum of the scores) was 6.8 (SE 0.19, Std.dev 1.87), which suggests that on the whole, coaching clients were fairly satisfied with their job. After completing the scale participants were asked to rate their satisfaction with their job as a whole. The mean average score for the participants on this item was 6.85 (SE 0.25, Std.dev 2.50). It is interesting to note that this figure is fairly similar to that obtained when the ratings for all the different aspects of their job are combined, suggesting that participants' perceptions of their job satisfaction take into account a range of different factors.

Further analysis showed that there were no differences in satisfaction scale scores when broken down by the various demographic variables.

4.1.4 Job engagement

Reliability analysis was conducted on the IES Employee Engagement Scale and a Cronbach's Alpha score of 0.740 suggests that there is high internal reliability between the items in the engagement scale.

Table 4.4 highlights that at Time 1, coaching clients are most likely to agree that they look to help others in their organisation (mean of 4.41) and least likely to agree that their organisation really inspires the very best in them in the way of job performance (mean of 3.18). The overall engagement score was 3.74 (SE 0.60, Std.dev 0.60). People typically score between 3.45 (low end) and 3.90 (high end) across organisations which suggests that this sample of coachees are relatively average on the engagement scale. Although the usual scale consists of 12 items and therefore it may be difficult to comprehensively benchmark respondents scores on this shortened scale with other populations that IES have tested.

Table 4.4: Respondents' average engagement scores

Engagement measure	N	Min	Max	Average engagement score	Std. Error	Std. dev
I try to help others in the organisation whenever I can	100	3	5	4.41	0.06	0.55
I would be happy for my family and friends to use this organisation's products/services	100	2	5	3.93	0.07	0.71
I speak highly of this organisation to my friends	100	1	5	3.60	0.08	0.84
I volunteer for things outside my job that contribute to the organisation's objectives	100	1	5	3.57	0.11	1.07
This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of performance	100	1	5	3.18	0.10	0.98

Source: IES Coaching and well-being wave 1 survey questionnaire

The results were further analysed by demographic variables. Correlation analysis highlighted a small, positive relationship between engagement scores and average hours of work per week (Pearson Correlation = 0.21, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that as participants' number of hours increase so do their engagement scores. There were no other significant differences when the results were analysed by the demographics of the respondents.

4.1.5 Well-being

Reliability analysis was conducted separately on both the WEMWBS at work and WEMWBS generally scales and a Cronbach's Alpha score of 0.729 for the well-being at work scale and 0.884 for the well-being in general scale suggest that both have high internal reliability and all of the items are measuring a similar construct.

The respondents' scores for each item on the scale were summed together for both well-being at work and in general (scores vary between seven and 35) and an overall mean score was calculated for well-being at work and in general. This data is presented in **Error! Reference source not found.** The mean overall general well-being score is higher than the work well-being score (25.30 compared to 23.25) which would suggest that respondents are better in their general well-being than they are at work.

Table 4.5: Respondents' average well-being scores

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. error	Std.dev
General well-being	100	16	35	25.30	0.42	4.24
Work well-being	100	14	34	23.25	0.34	3.42

Source: IES Coaching and well-being wave 1 survey questionnaire

Mean scores for each item are presented in Table 4.6. This shows that participants' reduced optimism about the future (mean score of 2.97) and their inability to relax (mean score of 2.88) at work impacted on their overall levels of well-being in the workplace. This may again in part reflect respondents' fears over losing their jobs during the recession.

To date there have been very few studies which have used the 7-item Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale so it is difficult to ascertain how these results compare to the general population. As a reference, the average population mean for the 14 item scale (which is twice as long as the shortened scale) is 51. This may suggest that levels of general well-being in our sample are similar to those of the general population (doubling the overall general well-being score from the 7-item version also gives a score of 51), although without norms isolated for the seven items in our scale it remains unclear.

Table 4.6: Respondents' average well-being scores

At work, I've been ...	N	Min	Max	Average well-being score	Std. error	Std. dev
Able to make up my own mind about things	100	1	5	3.66	0.08	0.78
Thinking clearly	100	2	5	3.64	0.06	0.63
Dealing with problems well	100	2	5	3.52	0.07	0.66
Feeling useful	100	1	5	3.46	0.08	0.81
Feeling close to other people	100	1	5	3.12	0.09	0.90
Feeling optimistic about the future	100	1	5	2.97	0.09	0.88
Feeling relaxed	100	1	5	2.88	0.08	0.84
In general, I've been ...						
Able to make up my own mind about things	100	2	5	3.90	0.08	0.81
Feeling close to other people	100	2	5	3.82	0.07	0.74
Feeling useful	100	2	5	3.63	0.08	0.78
Thinking clearly	100	2	5	3.60	0.07	0.70
Dealing with problems well	100	2	5	3.56	0.08	0.76
Feeling optimistic about the future	100	2	5	3.50	0.09	0.87
Feeling relaxed	100	1	5	3.29	0.09	0.86

Source: IES Coaching and well-being wave 1 survey questionnaire

Further analysis breaking down the well-being scores by the demographic variables showed:

- There was a strong positive correlation between well-being at work and well-being in general (PC=0.63, P<0.001) suggesting that as one component increases so does the other.
- There was a negative correlation between the length of time the respondent had worked at the organisation and their general well-being (PC= -0.28, p<0.005) suggesting that as one increases than the other decreases.
- There were no other differences between respondent's scores on the well-being scales when analysed by their demographic variables.

Table 4.7 shows a correlation analysis of the four scales at Time 1. The results suggest that all the scales are significantly positively correlated with one another,

(ie. those who score high on one scale will score high on the others) except job satisfaction and general well-being which do not correlate.

Table 4.7: Correlation analysis of the four scales

	Satisfaction	Work well-being	General well-being	Engagement
Satisfaction	1	.375**	0.161	.461**
Work well-being	.375**	1	.632**	.384**
General well-being	0.161	.632**	1	.259**
Engagement	.461**	.384**	.259**	1

Key: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: IES well-being survey Time 1

4.2 Time 2 scores

A total of 34 participants responded to the Time 2 survey. This section analyses and compares the results of the respondents at Time 1 and Time 2 to establish any impacts the coaching interventions may have had. It also looks to establish what factors of the coaching may have impacted on respondents' scores on each of the scales at Time 2. It is important to note that the number of responses at Time 2 is low by quantitative research standards and therefore great care needs to be taken when analysing and interpreting the results.

4.2.1 Demographics

Of the 34 respondents at Time2, 28 were women and the mean average age was 37.63 years (St Dev=10.64, SE=1.88). They worked an average of 40 hours per week (St Dev=5.53, SE= 0.95) and they had been at their organisation for an average of 98.09 months (St Dev=106.51, SE= 18.27) or 8.17 years. Twenty-three of the respondents managed other staff, and eight of these described themselves as a senior manager. There were no significant differences between the demographic variables of those who did, or those who did not, respond to the Time 2 survey.

4.2.2 Checking for response bias

Comparisons were made on the four scales measured, in order to identify whether there was any response bias, for example whether those who were more/less satisfied with their job were more likely to complete the survey at Time 2.

Table 4.8 below shows the mean scores of the respondents at Time 1 who participated at Time 2 of the survey to those who chose not to participate at Time 2 on the four scales used. There were no significant differences between the average scores on all scales between those who participated at Time 2 and those who did

not. Further to checking for any differences in the scale scores, the demographic variables between participants who responded at Time 2 and those who chose not to were also analysed, and no significant differences were apparent.

Table 4.8: Respondents' average scores on the four scales at Time 1, by whether they responded or not to the Time 2 survey

Time 1 scale	Responded to Time 2 survey	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean	Significant
Satisfaction	No	66	6.77	1.70	0.21	No
	Yes	34	7.01	2.18	0.37	
Engagement	No	66	3.75	0.61	0.08	No
	Yes	34	3.72	0.57	0.10	
Work well-being	No	66	23.24	3.45	0.42	No
	Yes	34	23.26	3.43	0.59	
General well-being	No	66	25.36	4.18	0.51	No
	Yes	34	25.18	4.43	0.76	

Source: IES Coaching and well-being wave 1 and wave 2 survey questionnaires

These results suggest that the sample population at Time 2 is relatively representative of the sample at Time 1. However, it cannot be excluded that other external factors may have driven the participants to respond at Time 2 which have not been measured in the surveys. One possible influencing factor is satisfaction with the coaching received; it is possible that only those who had a positive experience of coaching were motivated to take part in subsequent rounds of the survey and this is hinted at from Time 2 responses.

Time 2 respondents were asked to rate the quality of the coaching they received from 1 (low quality) to 5 (high quality) and how well the coaching met their objectives from 'not at all well' to 'extremely well.' Table 4.9 shows that the vast majority of the respondents rated the coaching either a 4 or a 5; and over two thirds felt that the coaching met their objectives either very well or extremely well. It is possible that more people from Time 1 were not satisfied with the coaching and this in turn made them reluctant to answer the survey at Time 2. This theory is hard to test but it should be kept in mind when interpreting the results. For future studies it is important to ensure a higher response rate from participants at Time 2 so that this hypothesis can be tested.

Table 4.9: Quality of coaching

Rate quality of the coaching	N	Per cent	How well coaching met objectives	N	Per cent
1	1	3.20	Not at all well	0	0.00
2	1	3.20	Not very well	0	0.00
3	4	12.90	Reasonably	10	30.30
4	18	58.10	Very well	18	54.50
5	7	22.60	Extremely well	5	15.20
Total	31	100	Total	33	100
Not responded	3		Not responded	1	
Total	34		Total	34	

Source: IES coaching and well-being wave 2 responses

4.2.3 Coaching and perceptions of its impact

Thirty-three respondents (one participant did not respond to the question) on average received three coaching sessions in the six months since the pre-coaching survey at Time 1. There were no significant correlations or differences between the amount of coaching received and respondents' scores on any of the scales at Time 2. Thirty three per cent of the respondents were still receiving coaching when they completed the Time 2 survey; although there were no significant differences between their scores on any of the scales at Time 2 and those from respondents who had finished their coaching sessions.

Respondents were asked how their method of working and their feelings towards work had been impacted upon by the coaching sessions.

Tables 4.10 and 4.11 show that in the main, respondents felt that coaching had impacted positively on both the way in which they worked and their feelings towards work. Those areas where it was felt to have helped the most included:

- Improving participants' awareness of their own motivations (87.1 per cent agreed it had helped with this).
- Gain greater self confidence in their role (83.9 percent).
- Their confidence in finding a means to get what they want if someone opposes them (80.6 per cent).
- Their ability to deal efficiently with unexpected events and to handle whatever comes their way (78.1 per cent).

Table 4.10: Impact of coaching on the way respondents work

Having gone through coaching	Agree (%)	Neither (%)	Disagree (%)	N
I am more aware of my motivations	87.1	6.5	6.5	31
I have gained greater self-confidence in my role	83.9	12.9	3.2	31
I have improved my personal effectiveness in the workplace	80.0	16.7	3.3	30
I have been more effective on specific projects/initiatives at work	79.3	13.8	6.9	29
I am better at dealing with difficult relationships at work	73.1	23.1	3.8	26
I have felt more positive about staying in my role	71.4	21.4	7.1	28
I have been able to meet my targets at work	62.1	37.9	0.0	29
I have acquired new knowledge	59.4	34.4	6.3	32
I am better at dealing with stress or pressure at work	58.6	37.9	3.4	29
I have had a smooth transition into a new role	50.0	38.9	11.1	18
I have developed new work skills	48.4	35.5	16.1	31
Others have commented on my increased personal effectiveness	46.4	32.1	21.4	28
I have a better idea of where my career is taking me	37.5	43.8	18.8	32

Source: IES Coaching and well-being Time 2 survey

Table 4.11: Impact of coaching on the way respondents feel about work

Having gone through coaching:	Agree (%)	Neither (%)	Disagree (%)	N
I am more confident that if someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want	80.6	16.1	3.2	31
I am confident that I can deal efficiently with unexpected events	78.1	18.8	3.1	32
I feel better equipped to handle whatever comes my way	78.1	21.9	0.0	32
It is easier for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals	74.2	22.6	3.2	31
I feel I can rely on my coping abilities to remain calm when facing difficulties	74.2	25.8	0.0	31
I feel more confident that when I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	71.0	29.0	0.0	31
I am more aware that if I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution	67.7	29.0	3.2	31
I am better at handling unforeseen situations	64.5	32.3	3.2	31
I am more aware that I can solve difficult problems if I try hard enough	58.1	41.9	0.0	31
I am more aware that I can solve most problems if I invest necessary effort	55.2	41.4	3.4	29

Source: IES Coaching and well-being Time 2 survey

Areas in which coaching were deemed to have had less impact included:

- Helping coachees have a better idea of where their career was taking them (37.5 per cent which is surprising as many had undertaken the coaching with this aim in mind).
- Their ability to develop new work skills (48.4 percent).
- Their awareness that they can solve most problems if they invest the necessary effort (55.2 per cent).

Coachees were asked how much they believed coaching had impacted on their satisfaction, commitment and well-being at work and their well-being in general. Responses were ranked on a five point likert scale from 'not at all' (1) to 'a great deal' (5). The average scores are presented in the Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: How much coaching impacted on coachees satisfaction, commitment and well-being

Statistics	Engagement	Satisfaction	Well-being at work	Well-being in general
N	34	34	34	34
Mean	2.50	2.82	3.41	3.44
SE	0.19	0.21	0.13	0.13
St.Dev	1.08	1.22	0.78	0.79
Min	1	1	2	2
Max	5	5	5	5

Source: IES coaching and well-being wave 2 survey

The table shows that respondents felt coaching had the biggest impact on their well-being at work (3.41) and in general (3.44). Further analysis suggested that there were no differences in scores when broken down by any of the demographic variables.

A linear regression analysis was conducted on each of the perceived outcomes of coaching (eg improved personal effectiveness, greater awareness of motivations) to determine which outcomes were associated with higher or lower respondent scores at Time 2 on each of the four scales whilst also controlling for the relevant demographic variables and whether they had changed job or not. Participants responses on the outcomes of coaching were re-coded to compare those respondents who felt that coaching had brought about the specific outcome (eg. improved my personal effectiveness) and those who felt it hadn't.

Table 4.13 shows that some of the coaching outcomes described in the survey were in the main associated with higher scale scores at Time 2 (ie. those who felt that coaching had helped them to improve their personal effectiveness were associated

with higher scores on the work well-being scale than those who felt the coaching had not provided this outcome). As the well-being and satisfaction scales are all significantly correlated at Time 2 (as shown in Table 4.13 below), it is unsurprising that many of the coaching outcomes associated with changes in these scales overlap.

Table 4.13: Coaching outcomes and association with scale scores at Time 2

Scale	Outcomes of coaching	Level of significance and relationship
Engagement	Made me more aware of my motivations	* negative
	Made me better at handling unforeseen situations	* positive
Work well-being	Improved my personal effectiveness	** positive
	Gave me a better idea of where my career was taking me	* positive
	Made me more effective on specific projects/initiatives	* positive
	Made me more able to meet my targets at work	* positive
	Allowed me a smooth transition into a new role	* positive
	Made me better at handling unforeseen situations	* positive
General well-being	Gave me a better idea of where my career was taking me	* positive
	Made me more effective on specific projects/initiatives	* positive
	Made me more able to meet my targets at work	* positive
	Allowed me a smooth transition into a new role	* positive
	Made me more aware that I could solve difficult problems if I tried hard enough	* positive
	Made me better at handling unforeseen situations	** positive
	Made more aware that if in trouble then can usually think of a solution	* positive
	Made me feel better equipped to handle whatever comes my way	* positive
Satisfaction	Improved my personal effectiveness	** positive
	Helped developed new work skills	** positive
	Allowed me a smooth transition into a new role	** positive
	Helped me deal efficiently with unexpected events	* positive
	Made me better at handling unforeseen situations	* positive

Key: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: IES coaching and well-being survey Time 2

Those coaching outcomes which were specific to one scale were predominantly in the general well-being and job satisfaction scales. These were:

- General well-being scale:
 - Made me feel better equipped to handle whatever comes my way
 - Made me more aware that if in trouble then I can usually think of a solution
 - Made me more aware that I could solve difficult problems if I tried hard enough.
- Job satisfaction scale:
 - Helped develop new work skills
 - Allowed me a smooth transition into a new role
 - Helped me deal efficiently with unexpected events.

Few of the coaching outcomes appeared to be associated with higher engagement scores at Time 2. The coaching outcomes detailed focus primarily on improved personal skills and feelings/attitudes towards work which may not necessarily translate into better engagement towards the organisation. Perhaps other factors not accounted for in the survey or not associated with the coaching explain the engagement scores at Time 2. Indeed, one element of the coaching- *'made me more aware of my motivations'* was negatively associated with engagement; those who felt that the coaching helped them to become more aware of their own motivations reported lower engagement scores than those who felt the coaching had not helped them to achieve this. This may mean that those respondents who feel that they now understand their own motivations better may then question their organisation more or feel less engaged with it as they realise it may not help them to achieve what they want from their work. It would be good for future studies to further examine this occurrence to assess whether it holds true.

A number of the coaching outcomes described in the survey were associated with better general well-being scores at Time 2. This is unsurprising since many of them could have applied to situations outside of work, such as:

'made me better at handling unforeseen situations' and 'made me more aware that if I am in trouble I can usually think of a solution.'

4.2.4 Comparison of satisfaction, engagement and well-being scores over-time

Analysis was conducted on the four scales at Time 2 to assess whether the internal reliability of the scales remained constant overtime. The high Cronbach's Alpha

scores suggest that the reliability of each scale remained constant overtime; satisfaction scale 0.929; engagement scale 0.838; work well-being scale 0.815; general well-being scale 0.906.

Table 4.14: Correlation scores for the four scales at Time 2

	Satisfaction	Work well-being	General well-being	Engagement
Satisfaction	1	.663**	.540**	0.256
Work well-being	.663**	1	.819**	0.254
General well-being	.540**	.819**	1	0.169
Engagement	0.256	0.254	0.169	1

Key: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Correlation analysis of the scales at Time 2 showed that the job satisfaction, work well-being and general well-being scales were all significantly positively correlated after the coaching programme. However, the engagement scale was not correlated with any of the three scales. This suggests that at Time 2 work engagement was a separate construct to satisfaction and well-being.

A series of statistical T-tests were used to compare respondents' levels of job satisfaction, engagement and well-being before and after coaching (ie between Time 1 and Time 2) in order to ascertain whether the coaching had any impact.

Table 4.15 shows that levels of engagement, general well-being and well-being at work were significantly higher at Time 2 after some coaching than at Time 1, before the coaching had started. Although satisfaction scores had increased, analysis suggested that this was not significant ($p=0.08$) and therefore the results may have occurred by chance. The analysis was then repeated to only include those respondents who had not changed their job over the last 6 months (whilst undertaking the coaching). The results are shown in Table 4.16 below.

These findings suggest that coaching has had a positive impact on respondents' levels of work well-being and general well-being. The fact that both mental well-being at work and in general have improved suggests that, although coaching was undertaken primarily to help with work issues, the impacts of it have infiltrated into everyday life. Although engagement levels had significantly increased in Table 4.15, when the variable of whether respondents had changed job was controlled for then this result was not significant. This suggests that other factors other than the coaching may have been responsible for this result. Job satisfaction did not significantly increase in either of the two analyses.

Table 4.15: Comparison of Time 1 and Time 2 scores on all four scales

Survey	Scale	Mean	N	Std. Dev	SE	Significance
1	Satisfaction	7.01	34	2.18	0.37	Not
2	Satisfaction	7.75	34	1.45	0.25	
1	Engagement	3.72	34	0.57	0.10	*
2	Engagement	4.18	34	1.08	0.19	
1	Work well-being	23.26	34	3.43	0.59	***
2	Work well-being	26.12	34	3.72	0.64	
1	General well-being	25.18	34	4.43	0.76	**
2	General well-being	27.47	34	4.52	0.78	

Key: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$ ⁴

Source: IES Coaching and well-being Time 1 and Time 2 survey

Table 4.16: Comparison of Time 1 and Time 2 scores on all of the scales excluding those respondents who had changed their job in the last six months

Survey	Scale	Mean	N	Std. Dev	SE	Significance
1	Satisfaction	7.15	23	2.06	0.43	No
2	Satisfaction	7.85	23	1.24	0.26	
1	Engagement	3.73	23	0.53	0.11	No
2	Engagement	4.30	23	1.20	0.25	
1	Work well-being	23.48	23	3.13	0.65	***
2	Work well-being	26.78	23	3.53	0.74	
1	General well-being	25.70	23	4.09	0.85	**
2	General well-being	28.57	23	4.50	0.94	

Source: IES Coaching and well-being questionnaire wave 1 and 2

It should be noted that the absolute change in scores is fairly small and how this translates into an actual change in feelings or behaviours is unclear. In addition, the sample size is small which makes it difficult to generalise the results. Also, as stated earlier, it is possible that those who took the time to complete the Time 2 survey had a more positive experience of coaching than their peers who did not

⁴ A 'p' value lower than 0.05 suggests that the results are statistically significantly less likely to have occurred by chance. The lower the 'p' value the more significant the results (less likely they are to have occurred by chance).

respond, which would mean the findings are not representative of all coaching experiences. In addition to this, caution should be taken in interpreting these results as evidence of a positive causal impact of coaching. There is no control group, so it is possible that events outside of coaching which we have not accounted for have impacted on engagement and general well-being.

Further analysis was conducted on the Time 2 scores to see whether scale scores at Time 2 varied by different groups. Results suggest that:

- Women were more likely to receive higher work well-being scores at Time (Mean =26.75, SE=0.66) compared to men (Mean= 23.17, SE=1.42)(t(32)=2.27, $p<0.05$, $r=0.37$).
- Women were more likely to receive higher general well-being scores (Mean =28.25, SE=0.83) compared to men (Mean=23.83, SE=1.38) (t(32)= 2.31, $p<0.05$, $r=0.38$). However it should be noted that the sample at Time 2 consisted of six men compared to 28 women.
- Those who reported that they had changed their job in the last six months received significantly lower general well-being scores (Mean = 25.20, SE=1.26) than those who remained in their job (Mean=28.57, SE=0.94),(t(31) =2.04, $p<0.05$, $r=0.34$).
- Finally, the average number of hours worked was positively correlated with satisfaction scores (PC=0.457**) and negatively correlated with engagement scores (PC= -3.43*) at Time 2.

Both of the well-being scales were split into their various components (seven separate items) and statistical tests were conducted to establish which elements of well-being had significantly improved between Time 1 and Time 2. Only those respondents that had answered survey 1 and 2 and had not changed job over the last six months were included in the analysis.

Table 4.17 shows that five components of the well-being at work scale and three components of the general well-being scale had significantly improved following the coaching programme. After coaching, coachees stated that at work they felt more useful, more relaxed, had been dealing with their problems better, had been thinking more clearly and had been feeling closer to other people. In their general well-being, there had been significant improvements in their feelings of usefulness, their ability to relax and their ability to think clearly.

Table 4.17: Comparison of the well-being constructs between Time 1 and Time 2

Survey	Components of well-being scale	Mean	N	SD	SE	Sig
Well-being work		I've been:				
1	feeling optimistic about the future	3.09	23	0.79	0.17	
2	feeling optimistic about the future	3.35	23	1.03	0.21	
1	feeling useful	3.48	23	0.73	0.15	**
2	feeling useful	3.96	23	0.64	0.13	
1	feeling relaxed	2.96	23	0.77	0.16	**
2	feeling relaxed	3.61	23	0.84	0.17	
1	dealing with problems well	3.48	23	0.67	0.14	***
2	dealing with problems well	4.09	23	0.51	0.11	
1	thinking clearly	3.65	23	0.71	0.15	*
2	thinking clearly	4.09	23	0.67	0.14	
1	feeling close to other people	3.09	23	0.85	0.18	**
2	feeling close to other people	3.57	23	0.73	0.15	
1	able to make up my own mind about things	3.74	23	0.69	0.14	
2	able to make up my own mind about things	4.13	23	0.63	0.13	
Well-being general		I've been:				
1	feeling optimistic about the future	3.61	23	0.94	0.20	
2	feeling optimistic about the future	3.74	23	0.92	0.19	
1	feeling useful	3.65	23	0.71	0.15	*
2	feeling useful	4.09	23	0.67	0.14	
1	feeling relaxed	3.26	23	0.81	0.17	**
2	feeling relaxed	3.87	23	0.87	0.18	
1	dealing with problems well	3.61	23	0.72	0.15	
2	dealing with problems well	4.04	23	0.77	0.16	
1	thinking clearly	3.61	23	0.84	0.18	***
2	thinking clearly	4.30	23	0.70	0.15	
1	feeling close to other people	3.78	23	0.80	0.17	
2	feeling close to other people	4.09	23	0.85	0.18	
1	able to make up my own mind about things	4.17	23	0.72	0.15	
2	able to make up my own mind about things	4.43	23	0.59	0.12	

Key: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: IES coaching and well-being survey 1 and survey 2

Although satisfaction and engagement scale scores did not significantly change after the coaching intervention, the scales were split into their different components (items) and similar analysis was conducted using the same sample, to compare scores overtime following the coaching. The results suggested significant improvements in the level of influence that people felt they had at work, their work-life balance and their willingness to volunteer for things outside their job which contribute to the organisation's objectives following coaching. The results are highlighted below in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Comparison of satisfaction and engagement component scores at Time 1 and Time 2

Survey	Satisfaction component	Mean	N	SD	SE	Sig
1	Your level of influence at work	6.45	22	2.28	0.49	*
2	Your level of influence at work	7.50	22	2.11	0.45	
1	Your work/life balance	7.14	22	2.15	0.46	*
2	Your work/life balance	8.00	22	1.85	0.39	
Engagement component						
1	I volunteer for things outside my job that contribute to the organisation's objectives	3.48	23	0.90	0.19	*
2	I volunteer for things outside my job that contribute to the organisation's objectives	4.04	23	1.36	0.28	

Key: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: IES coaching and well-being survey Time 1 and 2

4.2.5 Association of satisfaction and engagement with well-being

A linear regression analysis was conducted to examine whether coachees scores on the satisfaction and engagement scales were associated with scores on the well-being scales when demographic variables were controlled. Results showed that scores on the satisfaction scale were significantly positively correlated with scores on both well-being scales when controlling for demographic variables. Scores on the engagement scale were not significantly associated with scores on the well-being scales.

Unfortunately due to the small sample size the different constructs of job satisfaction (satisfaction with colleagues, supervisor) could not be explored to see which aspects were associated with higher scores on the well-being scales.

4.3 Time 3 analysis

4.3.1 Demographics

A total of 27 coachees responded to the Time 3 survey. Of these, 70 per cent were female (N=19); and the mean average age was 37.40 years old (StDev =11.24, SE=2.16). Fourteen of the respondents managed other staff and, of these, half stated that they were senior managers. All of the respondents worked full time for an average of 41.15 hours per week (StDev= 3.48, SE= 0.67). They had worked for their organisation for an average of 93.00 months (StDev= 113.84, SE=21.91) or 7.75 years. Only three respondents had received any more coaching over the last six months.

From these 27 coachees, 19 responded to both Time 2 and Time 3 surveys; with the remaining eight only responding to Time 1 and Time 3 surveys. There were no significant differences in demographics between those who responded at both Time1, Time 2 and Time 3 and those who responded at Time 1 and Time 2 only. However, there was a 70 percent response rate at Time 3 for those who completed the Time 2 survey, suggesting that those who went on to complete post-coaching surveys were highly motivated to provide feedback on their experience.

Of the 27 coachees who responded to the Time 3 survey, 13 had changed their job role since undertaking their first coaching session. Although the majority (N=8) felt that the coaching was not influential in their decision to change job, statistical tests showed that those who had changed jobs were significantly more satisfied with their job (mean of 8.40, StDev=0.93, SE=0.26, compared to 7.19, StDev=1.61, SE=0.43, $t(25)=2.37$, $p<0.05$); and more engaged with their organisation (mean of 4.44, StDev=0.99, SE=0.27 compared to 3.67, StDev=0.65, SE=0.17, $T(25)=2.43$, $P<0.05$, $r=0.44$) at Time 3. Eleven of the 19 coachees who responded at Time 2 and Time 3 had changed their job since undertaking their first coaching session.

With only eight respondents having completed the survey at Time 2 and Time 3 and not changing jobs during the course of the coaching programme, it was deemed to low a number to undertake any meaningful analysis at Time 3.

4.3.2 Overview of the coaching

All respondents were asked to what extent they believed that coaching impacted on their satisfaction at work, their commitment, and their well-being both at work and in general over the last six months. They were asked to rate their scores on a scale of 1='not at all' to 5 'a great deal.' Their responses are shown in Table 4.19 below.

Table 4.19: How much respondents feel coaching has had an impact on different outcomes over the last six months

Outcome	Mean	Not at all/little % (N)	Fair amount % (N)	Lot/Great deal % (N)
General well-being	2.93	29.6 (8)	33.3 (9)	37.0 (10)
Satisfaction	2.89	33.3 (9)	33.3 (9)	33.3 (9)
Work well-being	2.78	40.7 (11)	29.6 (8)	29.6 (8)
Engagement	2.78	37 (10)	37 (10)	25.9 (7)

Source: IES coaching and well-being questionnaire wave 3

Coachees felt that coaching had impacted most on their general well-being and this is supported to some extent by the significant results between Time 1 and Time 2 on the general well-being scale. Interestingly though, the higher percentage of respondents felt that coaching had little or no impact on their work well-being although this did not appear to be the case when comparing Time 1 and Time 2 data. However it must be remembered that this sample is different than that which was compared during Time 1 and Time 2 as some of these coachees did not respond at Time 2 and only at Time 1 and Time 3.

To present an idea of participants views of the benefits of coaching overtime, those respondents who answered the questions in Time 2 asking them how much they felt coaching had impacted on their satisfaction, well-being and engagement over the past six months (Table 4.12) were compared on their scores to similar questions at Time 3. These are presented in Table 4.20 below.

Table 4.20: Comparing respondents views on how much impact the coaching had on different outcomes over six months at Time 2 and Time 3

Survey	Outcomes	N	Mean	StDev	SE	Significance
3	Satisfaction	19	2.95	1.03	0.24	No
2	Satisfaction	19	2.79	1.36	0.31	
3	Work well-being	19	2.79	1.03	0.24	***
2	Work well-being	19	3.58	0.69	0.16	
3	General well-being	19	2.95	1.08	0.25	*
2	General well-being	19	3.53	0.77	0.18	
3	Engagement	19	2.84	1.30	0.30	No
2	Engagement	19	2.26	0.99	0.23	

Key: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Source: IES coaching and well-being survey wave 2 and 3

The table shows that the same respondents at Time 2 and Time 3 were significantly more positive at Time 2 about the impact that coaching had on their

general well-being and work well-being over the six months than they were at Time 3. Their views on the impact that the coaching had on their job satisfaction and engagement remained the same over the two time periods.

This suggests that the initial enthusiasm that coachees have about the coaching programme and the benefits it brings their work and general well-being wane overtime. This may be due to the fact that they forget the coaching they received and the positive outcomes this has had for them in terms of their well-being, or their work situation does not change, and so they do not reflect back on the coaching as positively as they did when they had just received it.

5 Discussion

This study provides an insight into the impact that coaching can have on a coachees job satisfaction and engagement and their well-being both at work and in general. It illustrates that coaching can have significantly positive impacts on coachees work and general well-being in the short-term but it is unclear whether these impacts are sustained overtime.

Before firm conclusions can be drawn from the research, several caveats of the study should first be considered. The study adopted a quantitative survey methodology with the aim of capturing a vast amount of experiences of coachees undergoing a coaching programme. Unfortunately however, the sample size was very limited at Time 1 and the response rate dwindled overtime meaning that analysis at Time 3 was very limited. The current economic climate during the time the research was being conducted was also a hindrance as many people were leaving their jobs and so tracking them was an arduous task. In addition to this, coaches were asked to pass on the questionnaire to their coachee and many may not have felt comfortable in doing this for various reasons and so neglected to do so. Although an incentive was offered to the coach, this may not have been enough and future studies should explore better ways of ensuring coach and coachee buy in from the beginning. Perhaps targeting the coachees rather than the coaches and securing personal email addresses may prove to be a more favourable recruitment tactic.

The small sample size had serious implications for the statistical analysis that could be conducted on the data and the ability to generalise the conclusions. The satisfaction scale was unable to be broken down into its various elements to explore the impact each one had on coachees' well-being and the results were very difficult to breakdown in a meaningful way by demographic variables. In addition to this, it is likely that the people who responded to the Time 2 and Time 3 survey were highly motivated to do so (as shown by the low response rate at Time 2 but the high response rate at Time 3) perhaps due to their initial positive experiences of the coaching programme; this therefore has the potential to bias the results.

Future studies should look to capture more varied experiences by ensuring that more participants respond to follow-up surveys and again better incentives could be used to facilitate this process.

Finally there is no control group for the study and so it is difficult to interpret these results as evidence of a positive causal impact of coaching. It is possible that events outside of coaching which have not been accounted for have impacted on well-being. The study aimed to explore the views of coachees from numerous organisations and therefore all coachees will have different work experiences which cannot be controlled in the study. Future research could look to work within one or two large organisations that have many employees on coaching programmes and incorporate a control group to assess the outcomes against.

Despite these limitations a number of important conclusions can be drawn from the results which are in accordance with the aims of the study.

5.1 Does coaching have a positive impact on the well-being of coachees?

From analysis of the scale scores at Time 1 and at Time 2, coaching did appear to have an impact on the work well-being of coachees in the short-term.

Interestingly, even though the coaching was undertaken by participants to improve aspects of their work such as their personal effectiveness, it also appeared to have a positive impact on their general well-being in the short-term.

The coaching appeared to work on certain components that made up the overall scale well-being scales at work and in general. The coaching increased overall well-being scores both at work and in general by improving coachees ability to feel relaxed, to feel useful and to think clearly. At work, the coaching also helped coachees to improve their ability to deal with problems well and to feel closer to other people.

Coachees views on their perceived impact of the coaching also supported this finding with the higher proportion agreeing that coaching had impacted on their work well-being (mean of 3.41) and general well-being (mean of 3.44) more than their job satisfaction (mean 2.82) and engagement levels (mean 2.50).

5.2 Does coaching have an impact on the engagement and satisfaction levels of coachees?

Although at Time 1 there was a high correlation between participants' engagement and satisfaction scores and their well-being scores, analysis showed that in the short-term, although satisfaction and engagement levels increased after the coaching programme this was not significant.

When the scales were broken down into their various components then coaching appeared to have a significant positive impact on the level of influence that coachees felt they had at work and their work-life balance as well as their willingness to volunteer in activities that contribute to their organisation's objectives.

Analysis of the Time 2 scale scores showed that although job satisfaction continued to be positively correlated with the well-being of coachees, engagement was no longer correlated with any of the other scales. This suggests that at Time 2 engagement levels were a separate construct from the other scales. This could be explained in part by the fact that coachees undertook coaching to help primarily with personal aspects such as personal effectiveness in the workplace, assist in own career planning and therefore these outcomes may not necessarily translate into improved engagement towards the organisation. Indeed, if the coaching was undertaken to assist with career planning then the final outcome following the programme may be to leave the organisation and so this is unlikely to impact on engagement levels with the organisation. The high number of respondents who stated they had left their job over the time period of the study could be a reflection of this, but could of course also be a reflection of the current economic climate. Respondents indicated at Time 1 that in the workplace they were feeling least optimistic about the future and less able to relax and both of these factors may mean participants feel less engaged with the organisation.

As the coaching aimed to aid coachees in developing more efficient work techniques and better confidence in the workplace which in turn is likely to improve their working lives and their well-being, then it is not surprising that these constructs still maintain a positive correlation after the coaching.

5.3 What aspects of coaching are responsible for any changes that occur?

It was difficult to ascertain what aspects of coaching were responsible for any specific changes that occurred in the coachees scores on each of the scales. Coaching is a complicated interaction/relationship between two individuals which develops and changes overtime. Many coachees may begin their coaching sessions with certain aims but as the coaching progresses, these may alter with some aims becoming more prevalent and others less so. It is therefore difficult to assess which aspect of coaching at any one time is responsible for any changes that may occur in the coachee. However respondents were asked at Time 2 to state whether a certain coaching outcome had been achieved and statistical tests were used to explore which of these outcomes were significantly associated with each of the coachee scale scores at Time 2 controlling for any other relevant demographic variables.

Unsurprisingly as three of the scales were strongly positively correlated (work and general well-being and job satisfaction) then a number of the coaching outcomes overlapped. Also as some of the outcomes could be applied to a work situation or a general life situation such as:

'made be better at handling unforeseen situations'

and

'made me more aware that if I was in trouble I can usually think of a solution'

then they were associated with higher scores on scales related to work as well as the general well-being scale. Table 4.13 highlights in more detail which outcomes are associated with higher or lower scores on each of the scales.

Interestingly some of the outcomes did appear to be specific to coachees scores on one particular scale. These were:

- General well-being scale:
 - Made me feel better equipped to handle whatever comes my way
 - Made me more aware that if in trouble then I can usually think of a solution
 - Made me more aware that I could solve difficult problems if I tried hard enough.
- Job satisfaction scale:
 - Helped develop new work skills
 - Helped me deal efficiently with unexpected events.

As would be expected, those outcomes which could be applied more generally to life rather than just the work-place tended to be the outcomes which solely explained improved scores in coachees general well-being. Also as would be expected, a coaching outcome which helped coachees to develop new work skills was associated with higher job satisfaction scores at Time 2.

Engagement scores at Time 2 were only positively associated with the coaching outcome *'made me better at handling unforeseen situations'* and negatively associated with the outcome *'made me more aware of my motivations.'*

As previously discussed, coaching aimed to improve elements of a coachees work and this does not necessarily translate into improved engagement with the organisation. In fact, as highlighted by the outcome *'made me more aware of my motivations'* which has a negative association with engagement, some outcomes of the coaching can help a coachee to understand themselves and their motivations better and in-turn make them realise that they cannot accomplish what they want

at their current organisation and so disengage with it. This seems particularly harsh on the organisation that has invested a substantial amount of money into their employees' development. Further research is required to establish whether this phenomenon holds true.

5.4 Which elements of job satisfaction mediate the effect of coaching on well-being?

Unfortunately due to a small sample size, analysis could not be undertaken to establish the elements of job satisfaction which mediated the effect of coaching on well-being. However, linear regression analysis which controlled for other demographic variables, showed that job satisfaction as a whole was positively associated with the work well-being and the general well-being of coachees at Time 2. A similar analysis was carried out with engagement scores which were found to not be associated with well-being scores at Time 2.

This aim would benefit from further research, with a larger sample size in order to break down the different constructs of job satisfaction to establish which ones are associated with better well-being scores.

5.5 Are any changes sustained over-time?

Due to the limited sample size in the study and the high drop out rate between Time 1 and Time 2, coupled with the fact that the majority of respondents by Time 3 had changed their job since undertaking the coaching, meant that little analysis could be undertaken to produce conclusive results on whether any changes had been sustained over-time following the coaching programme.

One small indicative piece of analysis looked to compare coachees perceived impact of the coaching at Time 2 and Time 3 on the four scales. The limited results highlighted that coachees were significantly more positive towards the impact of coaching on their work well-being and their general well-being at Time 2 then they were at Time 3. There was no change in their perceived impact of the coaching on job satisfaction or engagement over the two time periods.

This would suggest that during the initial six months of the coaching, coachees perceive it to have impacted positively on their work well-being and their general well-being. This could be because it is a new experience for them and this enthusiasm places them in a more positive mindset which in-turn makes them feel more positive about themselves and their role within the workplace. This therefore has an impact on their well-being both at work and in general. However overtime, it is possible that this positivity within the workplace wanes due to various reasons such as a lack of support in the organisation or work practices

reverting back to the norm and this in turn makes coachees less inclined to feel that coaching has had a positive and sustained affect on their well-being.

It would be useful for future studies to explore this aspect in more detail. Does the positive attitude towards coaching at the beginning necessarily translate into better work outputs or does it just alter coachees mindsets to ones which are more positive about work and generally? Are further development opportunities or more support required in order to sustain overtime any of the benefits that might be experienced through coaching?

6 Conclusion

Despite its limitations, this study has provided a small insight into the impact of coaching on coachees well-being. It has illustrated that in the short-term coaching has positive effects on coachees well-being and has outlined some of the outcomes of a coaching programme which are associated with this improvement. Although the coaching was work focussed it had additional benefits for the general well-being of coachees. It is still unclear though whether these benefits can be sustained over-time and it is likely that without further support or development opportunities post-coaching, then coachees well-being will revert back to a similar state to that of before.

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