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Original Citation

Edwards, Joseph, Snowden, Michael and Halsall, Jamie (2017) The example of coaching in the public sector: a quantitative case study. *International Journal of Society Systems Science*, 9 (2). pp. 89-104. ISSN 1756-2511

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The Example of Coaching in the Public Sector: A Quantitative Case Study

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Abstract

Coaching has become a key feature in the public sector environment. Since the global financial crisis greater demands have fallen on public sector organisations. Public sector organisations are in an era of value for money and provide excellent customer service. These organisations have put greater demand on their members of staff to perform well constantly. The aim of this paper is to explore the debates on coaching in a public sector environment. The research was carried out by applying a quantitative approach, namely a questionnaire survey. A public sector organisation was selected as the case study. From this research, it was observed that in the public sector organisation that was selected as the case study, employers were positively in favour of a strong dynamic coaching culture.

Keywords: Coaching, Culture, Empowerment, Psychological, Satisfaction

1. Introduction

Coaching, the process of improving performance, skills and personal and professional development (Ellinger, 2013) has become a key tool in the efficient working of public sector organisations. Parsloe and Leedham (2009, p. 10) have noted that coaching is a popular factor in employability and the main purpose of coaching/mentoring is 'to improve skills or performance, or to realize individual potential and personal ambitions for the future.' Furthermore, Greene and Grant (2006, p. xiii) have emphasised the way coaching can develop 'positive directed change' and more importantly 'managers can use coaching to enhance and increase the performance of individuals and teams.' This positive approach to improvement is becoming crucial in today's workplace because employers are living in an age of economic austerity.

Especially in the UK, the austerity period has created closer scrutiny on public sector organisations (Alwardat, et al., 2015; Zhang, 2012; Evagoras, 2010). In any public sector organisation, there are two key themes that drive that institution, which are: (1) value for money, and (2) the offer to the service user. The private sector firm Price WaterhouseCoopers (2016) have recently noted that:

"Governments worldwide are under pressure to do more with less and to ensure that public money is spent more effectively and efficiently. They have to make difficult choices around priorities and are looking for new ways to fund and deliver public services."

Hence, this has demanded new ways of public sector organisations achieving better performance from members of staff. This paper will examine the contemporary debates of coaching in a public sector organisation. The paper has three sections. Section one critically evaluates the current issues and debates on coaching within a public sector environment. Moreover, as part of the literature review, this research has created a number of hypotheses. Section two gives an overview on how the research was undertaken. Lastly, the paper presents the quantitative findings and analysis of this research.

2. Literature Review

2.1 *The importance of job satisfaction*

One of the variables that can be studied in order to gain a greater understanding of the effects of coaching is job satisfaction. A meta-analysis by Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) concluded that increasing employee satisfaction can lead to improved business outcomes. Judge, Thoreson, Bono and Patton (2001) used a mixed methods study to conclude that there was a moderate positive correlation between employee job satisfaction and performance measures. Chen, Ployhart, Cooper-Thomas, Anderson and Bliese (2011) found that changes in job satisfaction were associated with turnover intentions, in that declining levels of job satisfaction were associated with greater intentions to leave, and rising levels of job satisfaction were associated with intentions to stay. Furthermore, Diestel, Wegge and Schmidt (2014) illustrated how job satisfaction and social context can interact to predict absenteeism. In a detailed meta-analysis of literature, Organ and Ryan (1995) illustrated a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Organisations with employees who have high job satisfaction levels see positive outcomes, which may lead to hard improvements to the bottom line of the business, as employees who are, for example, performing at a higher level and not being excessively absent from work will contribute more to the financial performance of the organisation (Falsafi, et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2010).

There is some evidence to suggest coaching could increase job satisfaction. Ellinger et al. (2003), found that managing coaching behaviour was positively related to employee satisfaction. This study was focused on employee perceptions; however, if employees perceived the amount of coaching behaviour their managers engaged in to be high, then their own job satisfaction was likely to be high. It is fair to say, therefore, that this study was measuring the link between perceptions of coaching behaviour and job satisfaction, as opposed to actual managerial coaching behaviour. The current study will compare actual coaching undertaken, as opposed to mere perceptions.

Grant, Curtayne and Burton (2009) conducted a randomised, controlled, mixed methods study to find that public sector employees receiving coaching experienced positive outcomes such as greater resilience and well-being, as well as lower levels of stress and depression. Though this study did not measure job satisfaction, it is not unreasonable to suggest that this might be a promising avenue for future research. Additionally, goal setting is one technique regularly used in coaching (see Olivero et al., 1997, Scoular & Linley, 2006, and the GROW model used in coaching seen in Whitmore, 1996), and Ivancevich (1976) found short to medium term links between using goal setting techniques and job satisfaction. Mentoring, conceptually similar to coaching, was also moderately correlated with job satisfaction (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz and Lima, 2004), and, though there are differences, this study investigates whether this might apply to coaching.

This review of current research available suggests tentative links between coaching and job satisfaction. However, it is clear that there is a dearth of literature exploring the relationship between coaching and job satisfaction. This research attempts to mitigate and contribute to the body of knowledge in this area.

H1a: Being coached is positively related to job satisfaction.

2.2 The importance of psychological empowerment

The literature suggests a link between coaching and psychological empowerment. Zimmerman (1995, p. 581) defines psychological empowerment as when individuals "gain mastery over issues of concern to them," whereas Spreitzer (1995) describes work based psychological empowerment as being constructed of four concepts: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason (1997) found combinations of these four psychological empowerment concepts predict higher levels of perceived work effectiveness, which is in the interests of organisations as it means there is potential for empowered employees to be high performing and effective. Seibert, Silver and Randolph (2004) also found a role for psychological empowerment in job performance, this time using manager ratings of individual performance, meaning the performance measures may be slightly less biased than the measures in Spreitzer et al. (1997). Wall, Cordery and Clegg (2002) concluded that productivity levels would rise if organisations took measures to empower employees, which would bring clear benefits to employers. Further to this, Zhang and Bartol (2010) found a role for psychological empowerment on both intrinsic motivation and creativity at work. It is clear from the literature therefore that employees who have high levels of psychological empowerment would bring benefits to organisations, as the research suggests that empowered employees are higher performing and more productive employees.

Moen and Skaalvik (2009) conducted an experiment over a year to show that coaching can increase scores on variables such as self-efficacy and causal attributions of success. Whilst this experiment did not test psychological empowerment as such, competence (the component of psychological empowerment highlighted by Spreitzer, 1995) refers to self-efficacy, and impact (another component again referred to by Spreitzer, 1995) is

conceptually similar to causal attributions of success; therefore, the study shows that being coached can increase levels of variables that are used to measure psychological empowerment. This suggests that coaching may be able to increase empowerment.

There are some conceptual similarities between transformational leadership and coaching. Accordingly, due to Kark, Shamir and Chen (2003) finding that transformational leadership was positively related to followers' psychological empowerment, coaching may be related to increased psychological empowerment for those being coached.

As the literature seems to suggest that coaching may lead to higher psychological empowerment, though this has not been directly tested and there would be benefits to organisations if this was known, the present study tests this.

H1b: Being coached is positively related to psychological empowerment.

2.3 The relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction, and the importance of this relationship in a coaching context

It is hypothesised that coaching can increase both psychological empowerment levels and job satisfaction levels. Carless (2004) found that psychological empowerment acted as a mediator in a model whereby job satisfaction was the dependent variable. This suggests that there may be circumstances where certain situations or actions can lead to an increase in psychological empowerment, and this may result in an increase in job satisfaction. Seibert et al. (2004) also used psychological empowerment as a mediator in their study – whilst performance was mentioned in relation to this study above, they also measured job satisfaction, meaning the relationship between empowerment and satisfaction is prevalent yet again.

Furthermore, Harris et al. (2009) found a relationship between psychological empowerment and job outcomes that included job satisfaction, but this time empowerment acted as a moderator rather than a mediator, so that more psychologically empowered people also had higher levels of job satisfaction.

Wang and Lee (2009) found that the different components of psychological empowerment interact in different ways to predict job satisfaction, which adds evidence in favour of the relationship between empowerment and satisfaction. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) also found that work teams who were empowered also had higher job satisfaction than teams who were not empowered. Therefore, based on the above literature, the study examines whether higher levels of psychological empowerment are associated with higher levels of job satisfaction.

H1c: Psychological empowerment is positively related to job satisfaction.

Psychological empowerment acts as a mediator in much of the literature between other variables and job satisfaction, and due to the fact that it is hypothesised that there will be a positive relationship between being coached and job satisfaction, a positive relationship between being coached and psychological empowerment, and an effect of psychological empowerment being associated with higher job satisfaction, this study examines whether psychological empowerment acts as a mediator for the main effect of being coached on job satisfaction.

H1d: Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between being coached and job satisfaction

2.4 The importance of seniority level

Whilst it is predicted that coaching has an effect on empowerment and job satisfaction, it must be noted that there may be other factors that are influential. In particular, the literature suggests seniority level could act as a moderator towards the effects of coaching. This is apparent in Agarwal et al. (2009) where, whilst coaching intensity positively influenced performance, this effect weakened as seniority level increased. This makes intuitive sense, as people of a higher seniority level may feel their capabilities go beyond what coaching can offer them. In terms of empowerment, it may be that people of a higher seniority level may already feel empowered due to the power that their position brings, so that coaching would in fact have limited effects on levels of psychological empowerment. Spreitzer (1996) supports this, as she found that people with higher levels of access to information within an organisation, and people of a higher educational level (typically two variables that would be associated with those of a higher seniority level) also had higher levels of psychological empowerment. Due to seniority level potentially moderating the effects of coaching, and those of a higher seniority level potentially already having higher levels of psychological empowerment, the present study investigates whether seniority level acts as a moderator for the relationship between being coached and psychological empowerment.

H1e: Seniority level acts as a moderator for the relationship between being coached and psychological empowerment

2.5 The influence of culture

The literature suggests that people being coached may benefit from certain outcomes. However, there is a suggestion that it is not being coached, but being in an environment where people are being coached and where coaching is encouraged that leads to these benefits. This can be seen in Agarwal et al. (2009), who suggest that organisations who employ a coaching culture will see improvements in organisational outcomes; Hawkins (2012), who recommends organisations implement a culture of coaching in order to experience benefits; and Gordon and Di Tomaso (1992), who state that cultural strength predicts organisational performance, regardless of content. Thus, perhaps employees who are members of organisations (or parts of organisations) that have stronger cultures of coaching show positive outcomes associated with coaching, regardless of whether they were coached themselves or not.

H2: Being part of a stronger culture of coaching is positively related to job satisfaction

2.6 The effect of being a coach

When investigating the effects of coaching, the impact on the actual coach is often overlooked, as the literature focuses on the impact on the individual on the receiving end of coaching, and the organisation in which the coaching is taking place. In the mentoring literature, Ragins and Scandura (1999) describe how previous research into mentoring suggests that being a mentor increases satisfaction, amongst other benefits such as rejuvenation and tangible benefits. Applying this logic to coaching, it may be that coaches also experience benefits. Therefore, the study investigates whether being a coach increases job satisfaction, as in the mentoring literature.

H3a: Being a coach is positively related to job satisfaction

This study also investigates whether being a coach brings about another benefit, psychological empowerment, as it would make sense that being a coach affects the different

individual components of empowerment, as being trained as a coach would increase, self-determination, meaning and impact.

H3b: Being a coach is positively related to psychological empowerment

This present study also predicts that empowerment will act as a mediator in the relationship between being a coach and job satisfaction. As there is nothing to suggest that seniority level will moderate the effect of being a coach, this is not included as a moderator.

H3c: Psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between being a coach and job satisfaction.

The overall model hypothesised by the present study is presented in Figure 1.

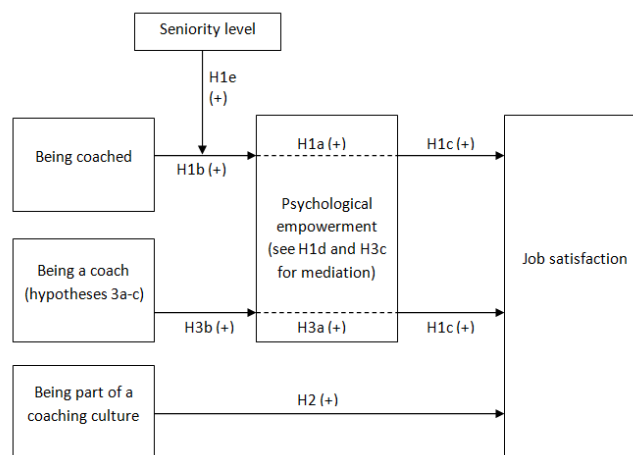


Figure 1: Overall hypothesised model.

3. Method

The questionnaire was designed to collect quantitative data, as large amounts could be collected efficiently in order to detect observable patterns (Caoet al, 2010; Robson, 2008). The data was collected at a single time-point. The questionnaire was emailed to three groups of employees within the Organisation who had:

1. Been on the Coaching as a Leadership Style programme
2. Been trained as an internal coach
3. Received coaching from a trained internal coach as part of an official coaching assignment

Of the 475 people the survey was sent to, 175 responded, making the response rate 36.84%. Of these, 27.22% were male and 72.78% were female.

The questionnaire was constructed by drawing upon the Job satisfaction Psychological empowerment scale and open-ended questions. The scales used were shortened versions so as to keep the questionnaire as short as possible, in order to increase the response rate from an extremely busy organisation. Galesic and Bosnjak (2009) show that longer online questionnaires have lower response rates and Nagy (2002) suggests that it is possible to measure some constructs (in this case, job satisfaction) with a minimal number of questions.

A scale to measure job satisfaction was included: an adapted version of Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman and Oldham, 2005). The authors found the scale to be reliable ($\alpha = .76$), and a median correlation with the other scales developed in the paper of .25 suggests discriminant validity. The scale contains three items (sample item: "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job") and was measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) Strongly disagree, to (5) Strongly agree.

A scale measuring psychological empowerment was taken from Spreitzer (1995), who found that psychological empowerment is made up of four components: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. The original scale comprises of three questions for each of the components. Further to the above mentioned reasons,, the decision was made to reduce the number of questions from the original scale from twelve to four (one question for each component of psychological empowerment as opposed to three, sample item: "The work I do is meaningful to me"). The rationale for using the scale is due to Seibert, Wang and Courtright (2011: 982) describing it as a "dominant psychological empowerment instrument" and the paper having been used as the basis for much later research into empowerment (e.g. Kirkman and Rosen, 1999). The scale was measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) "Strongly disagree" to (5) "Strongly agree".

Open questions were asked pertaining to the research questions, based on the perceived impact and benefits of coaching on individuals and their team, as well as any business benefits to the organisation that people could see.

The questions for the questionnaire were designed and distributed in an online questionnaire. 'Snap' was the software used for the online questionnaire, due to its ease of use for the respondents and its flexibility, allowing for Likert scales, multiple choice, and open questions. The questionnaire was open for two weeks, with a reminder email sent out after one week. Interviews were undertaken over a week, lasting roughly 40 minutes each. Interviews were undertaken concurrently with the questionnaire

4. Results of the Quantitative Research

Firstly, the negatively loaded question as part of the job satisfaction scale ("I frequently think of quitting my job") was reverse coded. All responses were within expected bounds (so there were no impossible values) and there was not an excessive amount of missing data, largely due to the questions having fixed responses and the vast majority of them being compulsory. The data was considered to meet the assumption of independence. Homogeneity of variance was tested for each analysis. None of the variables violated skewness or kurtosis tests. As Cortina (1993) states that Cronbach's alpha scores above .75 are "acceptable by convention" (p.108), the three-item job satisfaction scale was found to be reliable ($\alpha = .76$). The four-item psychological empowerment scale ($\alpha = .61$) was not as reliable as the job satisfaction scale. However, this is still considered acceptable according to psychological convention; therefore, both scales can be considered to be reliable to an acceptable level. Item deletion was considered to improve reliability, but this would only improve reliability to $\alpha = .63$, so it was preferred to keep the full scale. Mean scores for both scales were computed, not including participants who responded to less than 50% of the items in each scale.

Means, standard deviations and correlations can be seen in Table 1. As there were essentially three separate samples (one for hypotheses 1a-e, one for hypothesis 2 and one for hypotheses 3a-c), certain variables were measured separate times for each sample. The hypotheses each variable relates to can be seen in the first column.

Table 1

Means, standard deviations and Pearson's r correlations

Sample for hypothesis	Measure	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	7	8	9	11	12	13	14	15
1a-e	1. Age	43.91	8.63													
1a-e	2. Sex	-	-	.01												
1a-e	3. Received coaching?	-	-	-.16	-.06											
1a-e	4. Grade	-	-	.30**	-.14	.22*										
1a-e	5. Job satisfaction	3.84	.72	.08	.03	.02	.17									
1a-e	6. Empowerment	3.86	.61	.06	-.09	-.07	.19*	.60**								
2	7. Age	44.56	8.49													
2	8. Sex	-	-						-.01							
2	9. Directorate	-	-						-.02	.01						
2	10. Job satisfaction	3.88	.74						.11	.05	.24**					
3a-c	11. Age	45.52	8.09													
3a-c	12. Sex	-	-									.03				
3a-c	13. Trained as a coach?	-	-									.13	.02			
3a-c	14. Grade	-	-									.27**	-.001	.39**		
3a-c	15. Job satisfaction	3.88	.74									.18	.01	.08	.01	
3a-c	16. Empowerment	3.92	.61									.05	-.07	.27**	.13	.572**

*. Correlation is significant at the p<.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the p<.01 level (2-tailed).

4.1 Hypotheses 1a-e

To test these hypotheses, those from the Coaching as a Leadership Style programme who answered “No” to the question pertaining to receiving coaching (having not received coaching) were compared on job satisfaction scores to those who had received coaching from a trained internal coach. There were 83 people in the “not received coaching” condition and 42 people in the “received coaching” condition.

Age and gender were included as potential covariates; however, they did not significantly correlate at a $p < .05$ level with the dependent variables of job satisfaction and psychological empowerment, so therefore were not included in the analysis.

As can be seen in Table 1, the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction was assessed using Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient. A significant strong, positive correlation was identified between the two variables, $r = .60$, $n = 125$, $p < .01$ (two-tailed). This suggests that high levels of psychological empowerment are associated with high levels of job satisfaction, supporting hypothesis 1c.

An independent samples t-test was performed to compare the job satisfaction scores of employees who had been coached and employees who had not. No significant difference between the job satisfaction scores of people who had been coached ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .70$) and those who had not been coached ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .73$) was identified, $t(123) = -.16$, $p = .87$. Therefore, there is no evidence to support hypothesis 1a.

As there is no significant relationship between being coached and job satisfaction, there can be no mediating effect, so there is no evidence to support hypothesis 1d either. However, the mediation analysis is included here for completeness. A standard multiple regression was performed to assess the ability of being coached and psychological empowerment on levels of job satisfaction. The overall model explained 36.2% of the variance in job satisfaction scores, $F(2, 122) = 34.65$, $p < .001$, though only psychological empowerment was a significant predictor, having a higher beta value ($\beta = .60$, $p < .001$) than coaching condition ($\beta = .06$, $p = .43$). Higher empowerment was related to higher satisfaction scores. If there was a significant relationship between being coached and job satisfaction, the fact that it appears not significant when empowerment is included in the model would mean that empowerment would show to mediate this relationship. However, the lack of a main effect means this is not relevant, meaning there can be no support for hypothesis 1d.

A two-way between groups ANOVA was performed to examine the influence of coaching condition (being coached/not being coached) on empowerment scores, with seniority level (Grade 5 and below/Grade 6-8/Grade 9-12/Grade 13-16/Grade 17 and above) as a predicted moderator. ANOVA was used rather than moderated regression as both the independent variable (coaching condition) and the moderator (seniority level) were categorical variables. All assumptions required for ANOVA were satisfied, including the assumptions mentioned in section 3.2, the sample being normally distributed, and there being homogeneity of variance due to Levene’s test not being significant. There was no significant interaction effect between the coaching condition and seniority level, $F(3, 115) = .47$, $p = .70$, partial eta squared = .01, meaning there was no support for hypothesis 1e. There was also no statistically significant main effect of coaching condition, $F(1, 115) = .07$, $p = .80$, partial eta squared = .001, with those receiving coaching ($M = 3.92$, $SD = .62$) and those receiving no coaching ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .61$) not being significantly different on empowerment scores. This means there was also no support for hypothesis 1b.

4.2 Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicts that participants' job satisfaction scores will differ depending on how much their directorate has invested in implementing a coaching culture. The Organisation believed that certain directorates had a higher coaching culture than others. These are, in order:

1. Communities, Transformation and Change – highest coaching culture
2. Resources – medium coaching culture
3. Place – medium coaching culture
4. Children and Adults – lowest coaching culture

These rankings were used to test the hypothesis. There is some supporting data for this in terms of the percentages of people who have been trained as a coach in each directorate (for example, 7.14% of employees in Communities, Transformation and Change had been trained as internal coaches, compared with 0.2% of employees in Children and Adults, whilst the middle two directorates had scores in between these).

The directorate of Public Health was not included in the analysis, as only three people from the entire sample were from Public Health. The seven participants who did not report their directorate were also not included. The numbers of participants were as follows:

- Children and Adults: $N=24$,
- Place: $N=30$
- Resources: $N=47$
- Communities, Transformation and Change: $N=64$.

Age and gender were included as potential covariates; however, they did not significantly correlate at a $p<.05$ level with the dependent variable of job satisfaction (as can be seen in Table 1), so therefore were not included in the analysis.

A one-way between groups ANOVA was performed to examine the influence of directorate (Children and Adults/Place/Resources/Communities, Transformation and Change) on job satisfaction scores. The sample failed the Levene's test, $F(3,161)=3.40$, $p=.019$, so the Welch adjusted F ratio was used. A significant difference was found between the satisfaction scores of the four directorates, $F(3,164)=3.90$, $p=.013$. Post-hoc comparisons using Games-Howell indicate that people in Communities, Transformation and Change achieved significantly higher satisfaction scores ($M=4.09$, $S.D.=.57$) than those in Children and Adults ($M=3.57$, $S.D.=.85$). There were no significant differences found between any other combinations of directorates. The results are represented in Figure 2.

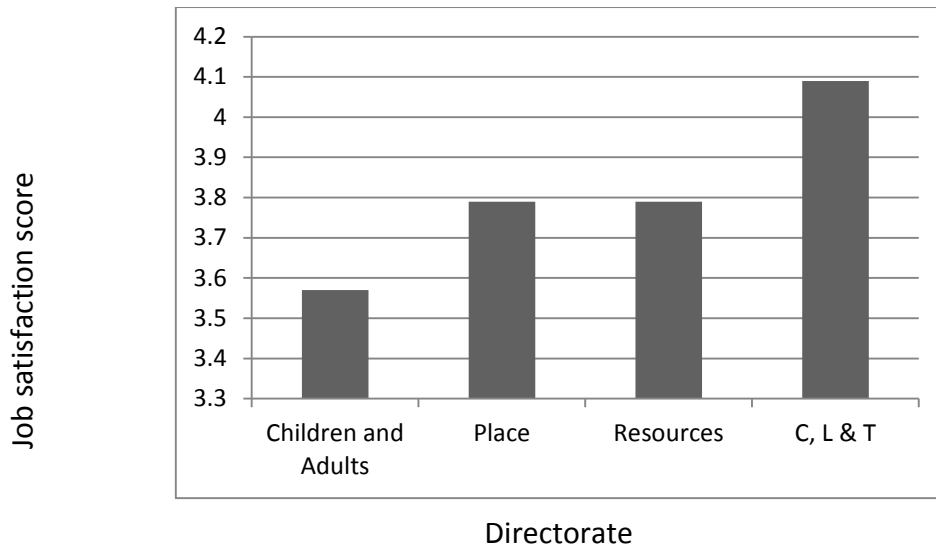


Figure 2: Bar graph to show mean job satisfaction scores based on directorate.

4.3 Hypotheses 3a-c

To test these hypotheses 3a, b, and c, due to a control group being unavailable (as explained above), the trained internal coaches were compared with the Coaching as a Leadership Style group, who, due to only receiving a minimal amount of coaching training when compared with fully trained internal coaches, make for a suitable control group: essentially the analysis compares a lot of coaching experience with minimal coaching experience. This categorical variable was dummy-coded (0,1) to convert it to a continuous variable for the regression analyses. There were 38 trained internal coaches and 95 untrained who attended Coaching as a Leadership Style.

Age and gender were included as potential covariates; however, they did not correlate with the dependent variable (as can be seen in Table 1) and therefore were not included in the analysis.

A linear regression was performed to assess the ability of being a coach to predict levels of job satisfaction. All preliminary assumptions were satisfied. The model explained .7% of the variance in job satisfaction scores, $F(1,131)=.90$, $p=.35$. Being a coach was not a significant predictor ($\beta=.08$) of job satisfaction. Therefore, there was no support for hypothesis 3a. As there was no main effect between being coached and job satisfaction, there can be no mediating effect of empowerment; therefore, there was also no support for hypothesis 3c.

A linear regression was performed to assess the ability of being a coach to predict levels of psychological empowerment. All preliminary assumptions were satisfied. The model explained 7.4% of the variance in empowerment scores, $F(1,131)=10.50$, $p=.002$. Being a coach was a significant predictor ($\beta=.27$) of psychological empowerment; therefore, hypothesis 3b was supported.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper has found statistical evidence in favour of higher job satisfaction amongst employees who are part of stronger coaching cultures, and higher psychological empowerment amongst coaches, as well as a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction.

The results can be summarised as follows:

- H1c was supported, in that psychological empowerment was found to be positively related to job satisfaction.
- H2 was supported, in that being part of a stronger culture of coaching was found to be positively related to job satisfaction.
- H3b was supported, in that being a coach was found to be positively related to psychological empowerment.
- There was no support for the other hypotheses.

The findings of the study are relevant to the modern organisation and can be applied to the workplace. Firstly, the fact that psychological empowerment positively related to job satisfaction suggests that in order to have satisfied staff, organisations must take measures to empower their employees. One way to empower staff, as found by the present study, is to train employees in coaching, as trained internal coaches were found to have higher levels of psychological empowerment (Cox et al, 2014; Garvey et al, 2009). It would therefore be beneficial for organisations to run programmes that train employees to become coaches, and then provide opportunities for employees to practice this coaching in the workplace in order to create a more empowered workforce, which leads to other more tangible organisational benefits through mechanisms such as increased job satisfaction. It is anticipated that the costs of setting up and running such programmes would be recouped when the long-term benefits of a more empowered workforce are felt.

The findings that higher levels of job satisfaction are associated with stronger cultures of coaching can also be applied to modern work environments. If organisations were to try to create or strengthen their coaching cultures, then the present study suggests they would see general increases in job satisfaction amongst their staff (and the positive organisational benefits associated with this). Therefore, it would be advisable to organisations to try to implement such a culture. Ways of achieving this include training staff to become coaches and creating opportunities for these coaches to coach fellow employees in the workplace. As for recommendations on strengthening coaching cultures based on research, McShane and von Glinow (2012) show that if leaders of an organisation were seen to act in a way consistent with a culture of coaching (such as being trained as coaches in this situation), and if culturally consistent rewards were put in place (for example by rewarding people who volunteered to be coached by not expecting them to put in extra work for the time missed from the 'day job' whilst being coached), then the culture would be strengthened. This would mean the coaching culture of organisations would be strengthened in this situation, and job satisfaction would be increased.

Acknowledgements

Special thanks go to Ms Stefanie El Madawi, who was our proofreader.

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