

**AN ANALYSIS OF THE COACHING COMPETENCIES OF MANAGERS IN
THE EASTERN CAPE**

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ABSTRACT

The new world of work requires managers to be performance coaches. Traditionally, coaching was viewed as one of the lesser responsibilities of a manager. With more emphasis being placed on the leadership role of managers, there has been a shift in the role of managers from controller to coach.

On-the-job performance coaching remains a neglected management function in many organisations in South Africa. Coaching is imperative for the future success of an organisation because it helps employees build their competence and results in improved performance. The purpose of this study is to identify a core set of coaching values, knowledge and skills that underpin management practices amongst a sample of Eastern Cape managers.

The literature review highlights the need for managers to become coaching managers. Five values (building trust, collaborating, learning, helping and empathy) and six knowledge/skills competencies (effective questioning, active listening, problem solving, giving feedback, motivating and reflecting) were identified as being used in best coaching practices. The research design used is predominantly quantitative. A survey questionnaire was designed around the eleven core coaching competencies identified in the literature review. A total of 72 questionnaires were distributed and 40 questionnaires were returned. The response data was analysed using descriptive statistics.

The main value of the study is that it proposes a tentative coaching model that can be used by managers to help them function effectively in their new role of coaching manager. The research study has highlighted three broad competency areas (values, problem solving and facilitating) and their related competencies. At the core of the coaching model are five values (building trust, collaborating, learning, helping and empathy) that promote rapport and a coaching friendly environment.

The model advocates a systematic problem solving process. When coaching opportunities arise on-the-job, the coaching manager uses facilitation skills (effective questioning, active listening, giving feedback, motivating and reflecting) to engage the employee in the problem solving process.

STATEMENT

I, Spuds Horne, hereby declare that the dissertation submitted by me in partial fulfillment of the degree Magister Technologiae: Human Resource Development at the University of South Africa is my independent work and has not been submitted by me for a degree at another university.

Signature: _____

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa is currently facing a serious shortage of competent managers. The old management style of command and control is no longer effective anymore. Societal changes have caused management to shift from traditional authoritarian style of management to a more participative approach that requires a manager to become a coach. While the benefits of coaching are impressive, too often today's managers have not received the appropriate training that would give them the necessary knowledge, values and skills to help them function effectively in this new role of coaching manager. Coaching remains a neglected function in many South African organisations.

The aim of the research project will be to analyse the coaching competencies of managers from a leading organisation in the Eastern Cape. The desired outcomes of the project will be to design a coaching competency profile for managers. A major part of the chapter will be devoted to reviewing literature pertaining to the background of the research study. Thereafter the problem will be highlighted and the research design and method discussed.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

Since the advent of the new democracy in South Africa in 1994, the role of management has changed in order to adjust to the transformed political climate and globalisation forces. In a world of work that is increasingly complex, competitive and fast paced, the challenge for managers is to create a work environment that enhances employee performance. New labour laws, black economic empowerment and employment equity programmes are forcing business to lead in more effective ways as the human factor has become more prominent than ever. With the rapid changing environment of business and

government, Meyer (2004:28) states that South Africa needs to be obsessed with leadership development. Further, he believes that there is an overwhelming need to grow a leadership cadre who reflects the South African demographic community and who can find South African solutions to South African problems.

Globalisation has dramatically changed the workplace. Since 1994, South Africa has been more part of the international world. The demands of globalisation require a workforce that is efficient, flexible and open to change. According to Meyer (2001:09), South African companies that do not meet international standards will slowly disappear as international competition increases. Globalisation requires a new set of competencies that will empower employees to function effectively in a global business environment. Coaching is a management competency that will promote employee development and lead to improved performance.

World competitive reports have consistently identified the lack of people development as the major stumbling block for the South African economy to compete in a global market. In terms of the most recent World Competitive Scorecard, South Africa was ranked 44th out of 61 countries with the Human Development index being ranked almost in last position (NPI, 2007:1). South Africa is consequently faced with an enormous challenge of developing its human resources. For this reason, the government embarked on the RDP and introduced new training legislation. The three main pieces of legislation are the South African Qualifications Authority Act of 1995, the Skills Development Act of 1998 and the Employment Equity Act of 1998. With the introduction of affirmative action measures, Africans, Coloureds, Indians and women are increasingly making up the workforce. Cultural differences must be taken into account when managing people. New work values such as *Ubuntu* (humanity towards others) and *Batho Pele* (people first) are increasingly being introduced into the South African work ethic.

The manager's core responsibility is to get work done through other people. This is becoming increasingly difficult as managers are expected to do more things with fewer staff and less money. The old ways of managing through close supervision simply do not work as well anymore. Zeus and Skiffington (2002:38) believe that managers do not have the time to control anymore and that there is an ever-increasing dissatisfaction with the current control-orientated management. They propose a paradigm shift to a more humanistic model committed to building a trusting and authentic partnership. Societal changes have caused management to shift from the traditional authoritarian style of management to a more participative approach that requires the manager to be a coach (Holliday, 2001:x). Further, Parsloe and Wray (2000:56) assert that there is no alternative but for managers to move away from the command and control style of management towards shared control and to manage as a coach. Similarly, Whitmore (1992:75) notes that the commanding, demanding and persuading with threats approach may get the job done but cannot produce sustainable optimum performance. He concurs that coaching is an essential management tool for optimising people's potential and performance. The coercive management style must give way to a more facilitative and team leader approach, a transition from boss to coach (Burdett, 1998: 143).

Closer to home, managers stand accused of not doing their jobs as coaches: "it is time for managers to go back to the basics of management and to realise that good management is all about coaching" (Meyer & Fourie, 2004:26). Also, the tendency to over-emphasise the controlling function of management often leads to the neglect of coaching (Meyer & Fourie, 2004:25). However, managers do not have the time or capacity to control employees any more. According to Buys (2007:5), most South African organisations have downsized, right-sized, restructured or re-engineered resulting half the number of people doing three times more work with fewer resources. Further, managers have to empower and delegate to create a culture of responsibility and initiative. Accordingly, we need to accept that sustained superior performance is no longer under the manager's

control but under the employee's control. The challenge then is to move away from the traditional command and control style of management to one where the contribution and development of all employees in the organisation is facilitated and supported.

Over the past thirty years, many of the leadership proponents have increasingly included the people element in their theories. Also Meyer and Fourie (2004:22) propose that there is a strong interrelationship between the management functions and the coaching process. More recently the concept of emotional intelligence has received much attention. Emotional intelligence appears to be especially relevant in those jobs that require a high degree of social interaction and empathy. This is what leadership and coaching is all about. The research to date indicates that leaders who score high in measures of emotional intelligence are more likely to become effective leaders (Weiss, 2003:11). The softer people skills, ignored for so long by managers, has become an essential competency for coaching managers. Since the leadership theories contain coaching characteristics, the challenge for managers is to make the transition to become a coaching manager. Essentially, it is a management/leadership style whereby managers use a coaching approach in their day to day practices of people management and development (Bennett, 2007:56). Thus coaching has to be a large part of what the effective manager does everyday.

International trends in education, training and development (ETD) indicate that the future workplace will require a culture of lifelong learning. According to Meyer et al (2004:5), a major shift in the areas of human resource development is the creation of a learning organisation as an alternative to traditional classroom training. One reason put forward for this is that traditional training programmes do not address specific individual needs but have a more generic focus. Training for activity involves pushing through the required number of delegates on training programmes without having conducted the appropriate performance analysis (Meyer, 2002:92). This generic focus, combined with the

complexity and speed of change in the workplace, necessitates a more proactive and flexible approach to leadership development.

When it comes to training in management skills, there is little evidence that the skills and abilities that are taught are sustained over time. According to Weiss (2003:8), leadership training is usually delegated to others and there is no follow up coaching on-the-job. Further, any learning that takes place in a seminar tends to dissipate over time if it is not reinforced with on-the-job coaching. It is suggested that training has failed in most instances because it has no connection to real and practical life that participants are confronted with daily. Programmes are mainly designed to create awareness and understanding, but not competence. This observation was confirmed by Davies (2006:1) in her paper delivered at the 5th Annual Coaching and Mentoring Conference in Johannesburg. Her research and twenty years consulting experience suggest that training on its own does not make a sustainable impact as reflected in the following table:

Table 1.1: Learning methods and recall of information

	Told	Told & shown	Told, shown & experienced	Train, apply & coach
Recall after 3 weeks	70%	72%	85%	100%
Recall after 3 months	10%	32%	65%	95%

Training on its own appears to have a limited effect on behaviour change. By managing the context into which freshly trained people return, behaviour change can be rapidly initiated through coaching (White, 2008:29). The directive approach of telling, advising, demonstrating, etc is the management style we see used most commonly in our organisations. There is no collaboration or input from team members. It would seem that experiential learning and coaching are the two best intervention methods to make a sustainable impact on learning.

This observation seems to be consistent with international trends in leadership development. Vicere's (1998:527) research on 400 leading companies indicated a significant shift from the traditional classroom programmes towards experience-based development methods. He found that on-the-job learning, experiential and action learning, coaching, mentoring, project assignments etc. have emerged as the driving force in leadership development. The best learning does not take place in a training room but on-the-job where more immediate work issues can be focused on in a more relevant manner (Lane & Fillery-Travis, 2006:23-26). Meyer (2004:28) confirms that action learning is becoming favoured in most global leadership programmes because it enables managers to learn through real-time problem solving. The problem solving process is normally supported by a coach who facilitates understanding of the process issues and reflection on the learning which has occurred (Meyer, 2004:28). Further, Nel (2003:22) believes it is essential to build action learning into any development programme. He believes that Kolb's experiential learning model captures the process through which people learn through four stages: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. Essentially, coaches are leaders and the best people to develop leaders are other leaders (Rauff, 2005:50). Coaching is considered to be one of the most effective ways of enabling people to learn and solve performance problems.

In summary, one leadership competency that is getting more attention today in the boardroom and on shop floor is coaching. This competency allows the business manager to create considerable added value to the organisation by engaging and retaining employees. It would appear then that workplace conversations between managers and employees are potential coaching opportunities. Every day is full of potential coachable moments when something happens that creates an opportunity for learning and can lead to greater employee competence. Today's managers find themselves not in their old functional role – the expert, the source of power; but more often a team leader,

an influencer, a facilitator – a coach (Doyle, 1999:5). Further, Zeus and Skiffington (2002:2) contend that coaching is evolving as a natural form of leadership.

Closer to home, Price (2006:60) believes that the manager-coach is the way of the future. He states that there is a shift towards implementing manager-coach programmes to empower and develop skills in South African organisations. The manager coach style is a move from the authoritative and directive approach to one of facilitation and collaboration (Price, 2006:64). A South African research project found a 64 percent increase in production after internal coaching was introduced over a period of one year (Price, 2006:63).

While the benefits of coaching are impressive, too often today's managers haven't received the appropriate training that would give them the necessary knowledge, values and skills to help them function effectively in this new role of coaching manager.

Coaching remains a neglected management function in many organisations in South Africa. Meyer and Fourie (2004:26) assert that the consultants are claiming ownership of coaching because managers have not been doing their jobs as coaches. Performance management is part of a manager's job. Ultimately a company's success depends on the performance of its people. Coaching is an imperative for the future success of an organisation because it helps employees build their competence and results in improved performance. According to Price (2003:36), coaching is the new management tool for the third millennium and is the way to go in South Africa.

While much research work has been conducted around mentoring the process, there appears to be a paucity of research in the coaching field. Coaching is still in its infancy in South Africa (Price, 2003:34) and requires pioneering research

to prove its case in the scientific arena. For most writers, coaching models have been developed out of their consulting practices and coaching workshops.

In South Africa, the limited research has tended to focus on executive coaching. Lester (2002:90) conducted her research on a sample of thirty-two executive coaches. She found that the two most critical factors for coaching success were trust and a client who is willing to work with the process. In order to conduct a more meaningful analysis, the raw data was converted into seven different generic constructs. The top three clusters driving success of the coaching process were:

- The relationship (trust, confidentiality)
- Characteristics of the coach (knowledge and experience, objectivity, honest feedback, listening activity, credibility, empathy)
- Characteristics of the client (willing client)

Conversely, Lester (2002:94) found that the top three factors driving failure of the coaching process were an uncommitted client, lack of trust and the lack of a real relationship between the coach and the client.

In her research into executive coaching, Rumboll (2005:iii) conducted qualitative in-depth interviews with twenty stakeholders. Empirical research results indicated three kinds of attitudinal changes that occur as a result of executive coaching: greater insight into working at a senior level, a more effective understanding of roles in the organisation and the development of a greater awareness of self and others. The research results also identified nine skills as being developed by executive coaching: improving networking ability, targeting developmental areas, triggering new behaviour, accelerated leadership development, time management, coping with conflict and change, more effective work relationships, improving focus and honing strategic thinking.

The aim of Chapman and Cilliers (2008:63) research was to qualitatively explore the learning experiences of senior managers during a six-month executive coaching intervention at an information technology company in South Africa. The Integrated Experiential Executive Coaching Model was designed on the basis of Kolb's experiential learning model. The empirical study consisted of a transcendental phenomenological analysis of the reflective essays of 13 managers who were participating in the executive coaching intervention. Eight themes manifested, namely, a difficult beginning, building trust, a growing awareness of the self, the self in relation to others, entering the transpersonal realm, learning how we learn, from dependency to autonomy and transference of learning to the workplace.

With regards to internal coaching, Robertson (2001:ii) investigated the issues surrounding the relationship between managers and protégés. The sample comprised of eleven expert coaches. Her research was inconclusive as a variety of conflicting paradigms emerged with regards to factors determining the success of a coaching relationship. However, there was some evidence that coaches require the competencies of building trust, giving, feedback, listening and questioning to build an effective coaching relationship (Robertson, 2001:95)

Meyer and Fourie (2004:84) have conducted some pioneering research in South African organisations and have compiled a competency profile for a mentor and coach. The competency profile consists of a wide range of fifty-one competencies and have been clustered into three main competency areas; values, knowledge and skills. The aim of this research project is to build on the foundation of this pioneering work. Meyer's three dimensions of competence will be used as a foundation to develop a coaching manager's competency profile.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

South Africa is currently facing a serious shortage of competent and experienced managers, especially in the ranks of black managers (Van Rensburg & Roodt, 2005:10). Managers have not been doing their jobs as coaches. The problem is that insufficient attention is being paid to the transition of managers to becoming coaching managers. The directive approach of command and control is the management style we most commonly see in our organisations. South Africa's lack of global competitiveness, ongoing skills shortage and more diverse workforce require a more participative and developmental managerial approach. Performance coaching can play an important role in developing the required management skills. There is a need to identify a core set of coaching competencies that will apply to most on-the-job coaching situations.

1.4 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The literature survey will identify coaching values, knowledge and skills considered to be essential for effective management performance. Books and published research articles will be used to identify the core competencies of a best practices coaching model. The aim of the research project will be to tailor the best practices in coaching competencies identified in the literature research to the values and management practices of a leading organisation in the Eastern Cape area. The outcome of the research project will be to develop a competency model for coaching managers.

1.5 THE RESEARCH QUESTION

The question that this research study wishes to answer is: What are the core set of coaching values, knowledge and skills that underpin management practices amongst a sample of Eastern Cape managers?

1.6 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

South African research has tended to focus more on external coaching as a method of enhancing executive and managerial development (Lester: 2002, Robertson: 2001). Consultants are claiming ownership of coaching because managers have not been doing their jobs as coaches. According to Burger (2004:60), executive coaching is the dominant niche in South Africa. There appears to be limited research into internal coaching as a means of improving workplace performance. Coaching is said to be “internal” when the coach and coachee are members of the same organisation, such as managers and their subordinates. Internal coaching occurs when managers are alert and recognise a “coaching moment” or on-the-job coaching opportunity.

The outcome of the research project is to develop a tailored best practices profile for on- the-job coaching effectiveness. HRD practitioners and researchers could use the coaching framework to provide:

- A generic or core set of coaching standards which will apply to most on-the-job coaching situations
- A job specification to recruit managers against
- An objective, independent measure to assess the coaching needs of managers in terms of identifying coaching competency gaps
- A basis to design and develop a curriculum for a coaching programme intervention

- A starting point for continued research to refine the concept of on-the-job coaching competencies

It seems that coaching can play an important role in alleviating the skill shortage in the management ranks in South Africa.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research design and methodology is described according to the following headings:

1.7.1 Research design

This study takes the form of a quantitative research design. A survey questionnaire will be used to gather the data. According to Welman and Kruger (2001:84), survey design is non-experimental research where there is no planned intervention and no random assignment of research participants to groups. This type of design is used when researchers want to elicit the perceptions, opinions and beliefs of the respondents. A questionnaire, based on the core competencies identified in the literature research, will be designed to collect information from respondents. The advantages of the survey method are that they provide large amounts of data at relatively low cost in a relatively short period of time and allow for anonymity (Robson, 1993:129). The disadvantages of the survey method include respondents not reporting their beliefs and behaviours accurately (socially desirable response bias) and low response return rates (Robson, 1993:128). In an attempt to increase the response rate, a coordinator has been appointed in the organisation to follow up on outstanding questionnaires.

1.7.2 Population and sampling

The research population potentially consists of all coaching managers in the Eastern Cape area. The type of sampling used is purposive sampling since the unit of analysis targeted may be regarded as being representative of the Eastern Cape management population. The unit of analysis is comprised of all managers who work for a national public utility organisation in the Eastern Cape area that competes successfully on the African continent and whose managers have been exposed to coaching interventions. The organisation is considered to be a leader in the HRD field and has undergone a successful transformation process in terms of employment equity policy.

1.7.3 Data collection

A survey questionnaire will be designed for the purpose of the study and will consist of three sections:

- Biographical information
- Coaching values and beliefs
- Coaching knowledge and skills competencies

A five point Likert scale will be used to measure the perceived importance of the coaching values, knowledge and skills to a manager's job and also the frequency of use of these competencies. The use of structured questions will ensure both ease and comparability of response. One open-ended question will be used to gain additional information, which may not be possible through structured questions. The questionnaire should take twenty minutes to complete.

1.7.4 Data analysis

Descriptive and inferential statistics will be used to analyse the structured questions in order to:

- Provide a visual presentation of the biographical variables (race, sex, age, experience) in the form of pie charts and frequency tables.
- Ranking the importance and frequency of use of coaching values, knowledge and skills.
- Use content analysis for the analysis of the open-ended question.

1.8 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

The outline of chapters to follow is summarised below:

Chapter two: Literature Review

Chapter two reviews the literature relating to on-the-job coaching. It includes definitions of key concepts, identifies the coaching values, knowledge and skills considered to be important for effective coaching, summarises the main benefits and barriers to coaching and introduces the relevance of adult and emotional learning.

Chapter three: Research Methodology

This chapter describes the research design, population and sampling frame used and outlines the construction of the questionnaire.

Chapter four: Analysis of Results

Quantitative research techniques are used to analyse the data. The results of the statistical analysis are presented in the form of pie charts and frequency tables.

Chapter five: Interpretation of Results

The results of the data analysis are discussed in chapter five. This is done in context of the research question and the literature review.

Chapter six: Conclusion

Chapter six comprises the recommendations and conclusions arising from the research. It highlights the key findings of the research and comments on whether the research objectives were met. It also outlines recommendations for South African coaching managers and suggests possible areas for future research.

1.9 CONCLUSION

The main focus of the chapter has been to highlight the problem that South African managers are not doing their jobs as coaches. The fruits of the new democratic dispensation have not filtered down into the manager's job description. In terms of leadership development, there has been a shift from training to on-the-job learning. Research has indicated that coaching is considered to be one of the most effective ways of enabling people to learn. The main aim of the research project will be to collect coaching data from a leading organisation in the Eastern Cape area in order to benchmark a coaching competency profile for managers.

The next chapter will review coaching literature in an attempt to identify the core coaching competencies considered to be crucial for on-the-job coaching. Books and published articles will be consulted in an attempt to identify the core coaching competencies of a best practices coaching model.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the first objective of the research project is to identify the core competencies of a best practices coaching model, the purpose of this chapter is to identify the core coaching competencies considered to be crucial for on-the-job performance coaching. The literature review will attempt to gain some insight into on-the-job performance coaching by examining nine interwoven areas in the field of coaching. The chapter begins by defining coaching and related concepts. The main focus of the literature review is to identify the coaching values, knowledge and skills considered to be important for effective coaching. The review of literature suggests that everyday is full of potential coaching moments. While the benefits of coaching are many, unfortunately there are many perceived barriers to coaching that make coaching unpopular in the workplace. A comparison is made between South African and international coaching standards. Further, the link between management and coaching is investigated. It is suggested that the new world of work requires managers to become performance coaches. Coaching is about promoting a productive learning culture. Coaching managers are encouraged to become facilitators of learning and use emotional intelligence competencies to enhance employee performance.

2.2 DEFINITION OF COACHING AND RELATED CONCEPTS

The management practices of coaching, mentoring, counseling, training and facilitation each have their own character and exhibit significant areas of overlap.

2.2.1 Definition of coaching

There are literally hundreds of different definitions of coaching, each dependent on the type of coaching context (executive, strategic, life, career, sport, business, leadership, performance, etc.) Our focus will be on-the-job performance coaching. Performance coaching starts with establishing clear goals that both the manager and the employee believe to be achievable. Interim progress reviews and coaching meetings are the key elements in monitoring the employee's performance.

Hunt and Weintraub (2002:5) adopt a developmental approach to defining coaching as:

An interaction between two people, usually a manager and an employee, aimed at helping the employee learn from the job in order to promote his or her development.

Learning on-the-job is primary and usually leads to improved performance. Further, Sheppard et al (2006:4) describe coaching as a developmental partnership, based on the shared responsibility between a coach and an individual. It is not a simple transfer of knowledge, but a relationship focused on developing people's capabilities:

In a typical manager-employee relationship, coaching is an ongoing cycle of goals and desired outcomes, plans, experimental actions, learning opportunities, reflections and retries that ultimately lead to greater competence.

Thus performance coaching is about learning and collaborating with the employee to achieve their goals.

Likewise, Redshaw (2000:106) adopts a developmental approach to describe coaching :

Systematically increasing the capability and work performance of someone by exposing him or her to work-based tasks or experiences

that will provide the relevant learning opportunities, and giving guidance and feedback to help him or her to learn from them.

Thus the coach uses the workplace as the classroom. It is by exposing the learners to new work experiences, by encouraging the learner to solve new work problems, that the coach helps the learner to develop new competencies and improve existing ones (Redshaw, 2000:52). In this way, both management and employees share the responsibility for learning and solving performance problems.

Skiffington and Zeus (2005:8) highlight the problem solving aspect of performance coaching:

The coach has the skills to manage fluctuations in the coachee's performance and is able to deal effectively with blocks or resistances within the work environment.

Further, performance problems must be noticed and analysed at an early stage and constructive feedback given to the coachee. The manager uses facilitation skills to help the employee to solve the performance problem. This observation is supported by Grant (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004:107) who describes workplace coaching as:

A solution-focused, results-orientated process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of work performance and growth of the coachee.

Holiday (2001:1) adds the motivational and leadership aspect to coaching:

Coaching implies motivating, inspiring, taking people to greater heights. It is a directive process by the manager to train and orientate an employee to the realities of the workplace, and to assist in removing the barriers to optimum work performance. Coaching is high-level leadership.

Likewise, Robbins and De Cenzo (2005:78) describe a coach as a manager who motivates, empowers, and encourages his or her employees. Coaching is about inspiring others.

For the purposes of the research study, on-the-job performance coaching can be described as a collaborative working relationship between the manager and the employee aimed at helping the employee to solve performance problems encountered on-the-job. The manager's role is an enabler who creates a supportive work environment, clarifies performance expectations and collaborates with the employee to resolve performance deficits. The manager utilises facilitation skills during the coaching meeting.

2.2.2 Mentoring

Mentoring is frequently confused with coaching. Some definitions of mentoring may help to differentiate between the two concepts.

Buys (2007:41) states that mentoring is typically a hierarchical process in terms of which a senior expert passes on specific knowledge, skills and experience to others. According to Holiday (2001:x), a mentor is a person with advanced experience and knowledge who is committed to giving support and career/job advice to a less experienced person. For Meyer and Fourie (2004:2), mentoring is a reciprocal work relationship where a more advanced and wise career incumbent (mentor) helps a less experienced person (mentee – who is not a direct subordinate) develop in some specified capacity.

Mentors usually have experience at senior management level and have a broad knowledge of the vision, mission, policies, organisation structures and culture of organisation. Mentoring is thus a way of passing on the standards, norms and values of the organisation to the next generation. Meyer and Fourie (2004:6) list the differences between coaching and mentoring in table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Differences between mentoring and coaching

Coaching	Mentoring
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides day to day skills to be used on the job 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides medium-to long-term skills development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Two parties are involved, i.e. the manager (coach) and employee. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three parties are involved, i.e. the manager, employee and mentor (third party)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The coach is usually the immediate line manager 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The mentor is an independent third party
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintained by performance appraisals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintained by development agreements
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Driven by individual coaches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Driven by a steering committee
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Usually no policy framework for coaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guided by policy framework
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coaches are appointed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentors are nominated or are volunteers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occurs on-the-job 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occurs off-the-job
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is training focused 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is development focused
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationships are formed due to supervisory role 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationships are formed via matching
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goals, objectives and tasks are normally not documented (informal) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goals, objectives and tasks are documented (formal)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job outputs are measured 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developmental outputs and the overall mentoring process can be measured
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used to promote individual competence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used for a variety of reasons e.g. career management, fast-tracking, equity etc.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The relationship continues as long as there is a supervisory-employee relationship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Once goals are achieved, the formal relationship is terminated

(Source: Meyer & Fourie, 2004:6)

For our purposes, the main difference is that coaching is performed on-the- job by the immediate line manager with the goal of improving the employee’s present job performance. Conversely, mentoring is facilitated by an independent third party with the aim to develop tomorrow’s leaders. Both coaching and mentoring are seen as enabling processes that support and encourage self-development and learning.

2.2.3 Workplace counselling

Workplace counselling is another discipline closely allied to coaching. Counselling is helping people who have personal problems that are interfering with their work performance. Put more formally, counselling is a two-way relationship between a counsellor and an individual in which the counsellor helps the individual to overcome barriers to performance and fulfillment (Meyer & Fourie, 2004:7). By definition, counselling is a supportive process to correct personal problems or skills that affect performance. Such problems can involve poor quality work, absenteeism, frequently missing deadlines, stress, marital and family problems, substance abuse etc.

Thus workplace counselling differs from coaching in the nature of the problem (personal problems, below standard performance and misconduct) and the more directive, remedial role played by the coach (coach can implement disciplinary action if there is no change in behaviour).

2.2.4 Training

Trainers typically operate in training rooms with groups of 'trainees'. Training is the process of providing the necessary skills, attitudes and knowledge needed to perform one's job more effectively (Meyer & Fourie 2004:7). Training usually focuses on the technical job skills, orientation of new employees and leadership development.

Organisations throughout the world spend billions of dollars on training programmes each year. Research suggests that only 8 to 12 percent of those who attend training courses translate the new knowledge and skills into measurable improvement results (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002:14). Essentially, this is because most training occurs off the job and does not allow for skills to be put into practice. There is no feedback or ongoing support. This view is supported by Weiss (2003:7) who states that when it comes to training in management skills,

there is little evidence that the skills and abilities that are taught are sustained over time. Without follow-up and coaching on-the-job, the learning that took place in the seminar tends to dissipate over time. As such, coaching readily reinforces the lessons learnt from training. Research indicates that training followed by a process of coaching results in productivity and performance improvement of about 88 percent (Buys, 2007:41). The international trend that 'training alone is not enough' also seems to be prevalent in South Africa as well. According to Meyer and Fourie (2004:279), the role of workplace mentor/coach is to assist the learner to apply the training concepts in the workplace.

Therefore, there is a strong case for training and coaching to dovetail and work hand in hand. Workplace coaching is essential to support the transfer and application of skills in the workplace. The training-coaching link is particularly relevant to South Africa where there is a severe skills shortage at the managerial level.

2.2.5 Facilitation

Facilitation can be used in almost any setting (coaching, mentoring, training etc.) To facilitate means to "make easy". According to Meyer et al (2004:143), facilitation is a skill of interacting with an individual or group to draw out their ideas and lead them through the process of learning to new ideas and understanding. It is the process of helping an individual or group towards a desired outcome by using such techniques as asking questions, listening, paraphrasing, clarifying and summarising. Facilitation skills will assist managers, coaches, mentors and counselors to achieve their goals. Many of these techniques (questioning, listening, reflecting) will become more evident when discussing coaching skills later in the literature review.

2.3 COMPETENCIES OF A COACH

Competencies focus on what managers have to do in the work place. According to Weiss (2003:10), leaders typically flounder not because they lack technical skills or knowledge of the job, but rather because they have a competence deficit. McClelland, who is frequently credited as the father of competencies, made a case for behavioural competencies and defined competency as a “personal characteristic, motive, behaviour, skill or knowledge that is proven to drive superior job performance” (Weiss, 2003:10). Further, Meyer (1996:34) defines competency as the “integration of knowledge, skill and value orientation, demonstrated to a defined standard in a specific context”. Smit and Cronje` (2002:18) adopt a similar viewpoint and refer to a competency as the relevant knowledge, skills and value orientation that is required to do the job of a manager. Thus a manager is considered “competent” if he or she possesses sufficient skills, knowledge and appropriate attitudes for successful job performance.

In addition, Sheppard et al (2006:7) describes coaching as a competency made up of a process, techniques, mind-sets and skills that you can learn. Just like any other competency that one can acquire throughout a career, one’s ability to coach others successfully is something that can be developed. Competencies can be acquired through classroom training or on-the-job experiences. Competencies work best when they become deeply ingrained in both the values of the organisation and in the performance that is expected of individuals. Meyer’s three dimensions of competence will be used as a foundation to develop the coaching competency profile.

To be an effective coach, the manager must have a clear sense of what success looks like in the organisation. Benchmarked competencies can ensure that managers have a uniform standard to communicate expectations and results to be achieved. The literature search will focus on three competence areas

associated with competent coaches. While in theory a distinction can be made between values, knowledge and skills, it will become evident from the literature review that there is a great deal of overlapping between the three concepts. The main purpose for the literature review is to identify and benchmark a set of core coaching competencies that can be used to build a best practices coaching effectiveness profile. The three dimensions of coaching competence will be used to develop research propositions and serve as a base to construct the research questionnaire.

2.3.1 Value orientation

Values are associated with aspects such as beliefs, views, attitudes and ethics. Our value systems define our standards of what is good and bad, right and wrong, worthwhile or worthless (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002:22). Values are the basic foundations of each person's view of how life is supposed to be lived. They are principles that guide one's behaviour. Coaching does not take place in a vacuum. Values lie at the core of the relationship between the coach and the coachee.

According to Kinlaw (1996:24), coaching begins with a manager's values. It does not begin with learning a few behavioural skills or clever communication. He identifies five core beliefs:

- People want to be competent – given help, employees will strive to be more competent
- Managers must be committed to superior performance
- Managers must use every interaction with employees as a potential opportunity to coach
- Both the manager and employee have a shared responsibility to work together
- Respect for people being coached

Weiss (1993:6) reported the following characteristics of a good coach:

- A positive attitude – believe in your employee

- Enthusiasm – be eager and committed to the employee
- Caring – care about the welfare of the other person
- Support and trust – provide moral and resource support
- Focus, goal orientated – set challenging goals that stretch employees
- Knowledge – know the required job standards
- Attentiveness – listens actively, ask questions
- Clarity – give clear instructions
- Patience - changing behaviour and learning new skills take time

For Burdett (1998:144), the essential tools a coaching manager has to work with are trust, mutual respect, a sense of common purpose, integrity, openness and honesty.

Lawson's research (1999:17) revealed that effective coaches share certain personal characteristics, including:

- Patience and understanding
- Enthusiasm – they show it off
- Honesty and integrity – to be forthright and have high principles
- Genuine concern for others – to care about people
- Self-confidence – confidence in themselves and what they do
- Fairness – be tough but fair
- Consistency – be consistent in your behaviour and expectations
- Flexibility – ability to adapt to new situations
- Resourcefulness – good coaches know where to go for help
- Empathy – the ability to put yourself in other people's shoes

Holiday (2001:2) reported ten values that underpin successful coaching:

- Clarity of communication – ask questions, listen, check for understanding
- Supportiveness – remove barriers, help team members
- Confidence building – enhance and maintain self-esteem
- Mutuality – build partnerships, shared vision, mission and goals
- Perspective – empathy, see others point of view

- Risk – encourage innovation, we learn through our failures
- Patience – press the ‘pause’ button, avoid knee-jerk responses
- Involvement – get to know your employees, collaborate with members
- Confidentiality – keep quiet about people’s confessions and weaknesses
- Respect – have a high regard for your staff

For Hunt and Weintraub (2002:42), managers who have become coaching managers have an overriding attitude of helpfulness. Coaching managers have the following in common; they:

- Have an attitude of helpfulness
- Do not believe in the “sink or swim” theory of employee development
 - they believe in helping out with support, advice and feedback
- Show less need for control – delegate tasks
- Believe most people really want to learn
- Show empathy in their dealings with others
- Are open to personal learning
- Set high standards
- Do not try to “fix” people – coaching managers build on the strengths of their employees, they work together on performance problems.

Further, Hunt and Weintraub’s research (2002:34) revealed that coaching managers work hard and are results orientated. Although they have strong beliefs of helping others to learn and grow, most enjoy business life and would not give it up to become social workers.

Based on local and international research, Meyer and Fourie (2004:84) have compiled a value competency profile for a South African mentor or coach:

Fairness, openness, empowerment, inclusiveness, representativeness, objectivity, humility, learning, sensitivity, respect, empathy, multi-culturalism, anti-discrimination, self-awareness, awareness of

others, equality, trust and co-operation, critical thinking, honesty and integrity, flexibility and confidentiality.

While many of the above values are appropriate to a coaching context, some would be more suited to mentoring where experienced managers 'download' organisational values to less experienced employees (anti-discrimination, multiculturalism, etc.).

Table 2.2 is a matrix of the value competencies reported in this section. Forty value competencies were identified in the literature review.

Table 2.2: Summary of value competencies

BEHAVIOUR GUIDED BY A BELIEF IN:	Kinlaw ('96)	Weiss ('93)	Burdett ('98)	Lawson ('99)	Holiday ('01)	Hunt & Weintraub ('02)	Meyer & Fourie ('04)	TOTAL
Employee competence	x					x		2
High performance standards	x					x		2
Use of coaching opportunities	x							1
Shared responsibility	x							1
Respect	x		x		x		x	4
Positive attitude		x						1
Enthusiasm		x		x				2
Caring, concern for others		x		x				2
Trust		x	x				x	3
Goal orientated, focus		x	x					2
Job knowledge, standards		x						1
Integrity			x	x			x	3
Openness			x				x	2
Honesty			x	x			x	3
Patience		x		x	x			3
Self-confidence				x				1
Fairness				x			x	2
Consistency				x				1
Flexibility				x			x	2
Helpful, supportive, resourceful	x	x	x	x	x	x		6
Empathy				x	x	x	x	4
Clear communication, attentive		x			x			2
Build self-esteem					x			1
Collaboration, mutuality					x	x		2
Risk, can make mistakes					x			1
Involvement, inclusive					x	x	x	3
Confidentiality					x		x	2
Shared control						x		1
Learning		x				x	x	3
Empowerment							x	1
Representativeness							x	1
Objectivity							x	1
Humility							x	1
Sensitivity							x	1
Multicultural							x	1
Anti-discrimination							x	1
Self-awareness							x	1
Awareness of others							x	1
Equality							x	1
Critical thinking							x	1

Many of these values are similar in meaning and can be clustered down into broader competency categories. Competencies that have a frequency count of three or more will be selected for inclusion in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Ranking of core value competencies identified in the literature review.

Coaching values	Frequency	Rank order
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trust (competence, trust, integrity, openness, honesty, consistency) 	14	1
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaborating (shared responsibility, collaboration, involvement, shared control) 	7	2
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helpful 	6	3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empathy (caring, empathy) 	6	3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning 	3	5
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Patience 	3	5

Trust is made up of a number of dimensions. For Covey (1994:188-98), trust is a feeling of safeness that has been built up in a relationship from showing personal integrity, kindness, clarifying expectations, keeping commitments, apologising when making mistakes and loyalty. Robbins and De Cenzo (2005:376) are of the opinion that trust is the foundation of leadership and is composed of integrity, honesty, competence, consistency and openness. Similarly, Hughes (2003:83) sees trustworthiness as a function of both character (consistency, congruency, integrity, supportiveness, reliability) and competence. This broad based trust competency is the highest ranked value in section 2.3.1 of the literature review. Trust takes time to develop. As personal trust increases,

so employees become more attached to their jobs and more productive (Bews, 2002:34).

There are also a number of participatory values that are similar in meaning that can be grouped together under the generic category of **collaborating**. The cluster of collaborating values received the second highest frequency rating in the literature review. Collaborating is where both parties work together to solve the performance problem in an attempt to find a win-win solution. According to Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2006:302), collaboration is used to find an interactive solution, to merge the insights of people with different perspectives and gain commitment by incorporating concerns into consensus. Further, Covey (94:263) asserts that the habit of interdependence is based on the principle of creative cooperation and synergy. Simply defined, synergy means that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. High trust and a cooperative relationship between the coaching manager and the employee produces synergistic win-win solutions.

Helping and empathy received similar frequency counts. Six of the seven authors acknowledged having a helpful and supportive attitude as a critical value. Managers who coach believe in assisting employees with the help they need in a timely manner. According to Hunt and Weintraub (2002:42), coaching managers should have an overriding attitude of helpfulness – they want their employees to succeed. Coaching managers believe in helping out with support, information, resources, feedback and encouragement.

Empathy and caring are similar in meaning and were grouped together under the category empathy. One of the core values of ubuntu is empathy (care, understanding, compassion). Coaching managers show empathy in their dealings with others. They have the ability to put themselves in the shoes of their employees in order to understand how their employees feel and experience problems in life and work (Meyer & Fourie, 2004:108). According to Covey

(1994:240), a key principle to empathic communication is to “seek first to understand and then be understood”. Until people feel that you understand them, they will not be open to your influence. This high concern for people stands in sharp contrast to managers who are focused only on results. There should be an equally high concern for both employees and standards of performance.

The lowest ranked values are **learning** and patience. Learning can be described as a permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of practice or experience. It was noted in the earlier definitions of coaching in section 2.2.1 that coaching provides work-based learning opportunities. According to Clutterbuck (2003:41), two core competencies of a coach are a commitment to their own continued learning (role model for learning) and a commitment to developing others – having a genuine interest in the achievements of other people. Coaches are proactive in identifying potential learning opportunities in the work situation. A leader’s primary responsibility is to develop people and to enable them to reach their full potential (Truter, 2008:58). When employees are well-developed and trained and know how to do their jobs, the load on the manager becomes much less as the subordinate will be more self-directed, instead of reliance on direction from the manager.

Three of the seven writers identified **patience** as a core value. This value will be explored in further detail in section 2.11 of the literature review.

It would seem that the coaching process is value driven. The literature review has resulted in six core values being identified that promote rapport and a coaching friendly environment. Covey (1999:314) is a strong proponent of a principle or value-centered approach to leadership. He advocates that the shared values or governing principles of an organisation (trust, caring, integrity, teachability, etc) ought to be the primary consideration. Further, all other management processes flow out of the core values.

In addition, many of the core values identified in the literature review are also reflected in the philosophy of ubuntu. The culture of ubuntu implies a democratic system of values. Many researchers indicate that ubuntu remains the traditional value system of black South Africans and should be woven into the organisation's core value system (Meyer & Botha, 2000:364). The core values of ubuntu are expressed in the form of humanness, compassion, care, understanding and empathy (Boon, 1996:31). Similarly for Broodryk (2006:52), ubuntu core values take the form of humanness (warmth, tolerance, peace), caring (empathy, helpfulness), sharing (giving), respect (dignity, order) and compassion (love, cohesion). Since ubuntu is dependent on valuing people, the coaching relationship should prove to be a worthy extension of ubuntu philosophy to the workplace.

Hurt and Homan (2005:120) state that leadership development needs to be connected to the goals and strategies of the organisation. One of the recurring ideas in the literature is that leadership development needs to focus on identifying and connecting an organisation's values, strategies and goals to the training and development of leaders. Organisation mission statements are increasingly reflecting company values by way of value statements. Any coaching agenda must reflect an appreciation of the context including the organisation's mission statement, beliefs and values. Many of the values identified in this section will also be reflected in the sections that follow in this chapter.

2.3.2 Knowledge

Knowledge is the second dimension of competence. Knowledge refers to the facts and theories we acquire and place in our memory. A good coach needs to have a sound understanding of the coaching process. Managers must internalise a model of coaching that helps them guide their actions on-the-job (Hunt & Weintraub, 2002:37). Many writers employ a systematic problem solving

process approach to solve performance deficits. Based on the review of literature, the researcher will attempt to construct a generic problem solving model at the end of this section.

Lucas (1994:27) promoted a systematic coaching process model (CPM) to develop employees through ongoing one-on-one communication. In the process of coaching, managers and employees jointly strive to identify, develop and reach performance goals:

- Establish goals – set realistic, measurable, specific and time-bound performance goals, establish job standards
- Collect performance data – use personal observation, interviews, reports, performance appraisals, questionnaires, etc
- Analyse performance – compare employees performance to desired situation and identify performance gaps
- Review and modify performance goals as needed
- Identify development resources
- Develop an action plan
- Implement strategies
- Evaluate performance

At the heart of the model is feedback that is interwoven through all eight stages.

Berry et al (1995:68) use a four-step process to solve performance problems when the performance of their employees does not meet expectations, or developmental goals are missed because of performance deficiencies:

- Get agreement that a problem exists – ask questions to see if the person is aware of the problem and its consequences
- Decide on a solution – generate alternatives and agree on solution that will be implemented
- Follow up – determine whether the solution is implemented and is working
- Give recognition when the problem is solved – give specific feedback and recognition

Further, Lawson (1999:34) breaks the coaching process into three main segments:

- Planning and preparation – clarify expectation, observe performance, analyse problem
- Conduct the coaching session – create a comfortable environment, describe problem and expectation, encourage self-assessment, agree on nature of problem, explore alternative solutions, agree on solution
- Action plan and follow up – create action plan, monitor employee progress, provide follow-up coaching

Coaching is an ongoing process designed to help the employee gain greater competence (Lawson, 1999:12). There are two types of coaching; spontaneous, on-the-job coaching and planned, formal coaching. She believes both types of coaching can be effective but warns that many attempts at on-the-spot coaching fail because of the manager's natural tendency to take over.

Crane (1999:82) incorporates a learning phase into the coaching process:

- Foundation phase – connect, observe, prepare
- Learning loop phase – to use dialogue, ask questions and listen, offer feedback
- Forwarding-the-action phase – reinforce positives, suggest possibilities, obtain action commitment

For Crane (1999:31), coaching is a comprehensive communication process in which the coach provides performance feedback to the coachee with the intention to enhance their performance.

Cook (1999:140) proposes a seven-step process to coach employees to solve their problems:

- Name the problem – describe the present situation and the desired outcome (goal)
- Brain storm possible approaches – trigger creativity
- Develop an action plan – compile a to-do-list

- Set deadlines to provide a sense of urgency
- Set evaluation criteria to monitor progress
- Facilitate action – establish what can be done to help the employee to complete their task successfully
- Follow through – assess progress on action plan and deadlines

Dotlich and Cairo's (1999:35) action coaching process consists of the following eight steps:

- Determine what needs to happen and in what context – uncover skill deficiency or identify problem
- Establish trust and mutual expectations – explain what will happen during coaching process
- Contract with client for results – agree upon outcome of coaching
- Collect data and communicate feedback – fact-based confrontation
- Translate talk into action – limit objectives and action plan to priority area
- Support big steps – help with resources, act as sounding board, etc. during implementation of plan
- Foster reflection about actions – client stands back and looks at their situation and tries to make sense out of it
- Evaluate individual and organisational progress – assess the change that has taken place

For Dotlich and Cairo (1999:2), coaching is a process that fosters self-awareness and leads to motivation to change, as well as the guidance needed if change is to take place so as to meet individual and organisational needs. Moving from self-awareness to improved performance is a critical feature of the process.

Parsloe and Wray (2000:43), propose a four step coaching process model to enable learning to occur and thus improve performance:

- Analyse for awareness – compare current performance to performance competences

- Plan for responsibility – learner to be actively involved in decision making, set realistic and measurable goals, agree on personal development plan
- Implement the plan using styles, skills and techniques that are appropriate to the situation in which the learner is operating – be observant, listen actively, use effective questioning, give feedback

- Evaluation for success – monitor progress being made in implementing plan

They believe that opportunities for coaching arise at many different occasions during the working day and it is important to seize the opportunity when they occur (Parsloe & Wray, 2000:46). Their experience suggests that both formal and informal coaching approaches are complementary.

Hunt and Weintraub's (2002:20) developmental model focuses on the helping relationship between the manager and their employees; its goal is to promote the growth and development of employees through learning:

- Develop a coaching mind-set – an overriding attitude of helpfulness on the part of the manager
- A 'coach-able' learner – most employees want to learn on-the-job
- Create a coaching friendly context – instill values of trust, tolerance of mistakes, an interest in learning, value people and introduce a reward system that encourages managers to spend time on coaching
- Stop the action and start the dialogue – create coaching opportunities through management by walking around, assess timing of intervention, ask reflective questions, listen for understanding
- Build a coaching mirror – focus on what is important: pay attention to competency, observe what is important: gather performance data
- Provide helpful feedback – give the coach's view of the gap between the individual's performance and the desired performance (describe situation and behaviour observed and impact of behaviour)
- Collaborate to interpret the meaning of the performance gaps – establish root cause of performance gaps (individual, team or organisational factors) and interpret what needs to change

- Set goal for change and follow up – coach and coachee set realistic and measurable goals, agree on action plan, coach facilitates change and learning process, monitors progress

The first three steps in the model are value orientated and the rest of the stages are steps to solve performance problems. Coaching moments occur all the time in most settings. An employee has a question, complaint or expresses a concern about a work problem. For Hunt and Weintraub, (2002:25), coaching requires that the manager stop the action and start a dialogue using the techniques of inquiry to take advantage of coaching moments.

Zeus and Skiffington (2002:103) adopt a behavioural approach for managers to coach. For them coaching is a conversation whereby a coach and coachee interact in a dynamic exchange to achieve goals and enhance performance. Their coaching model for managers is as follows:

- Observe and monitor behaviour
- Analyse and hypothesise about the possible causes of a particular behaviour
- Give feedback
- Solve problems through setting goals, developing and implementing an action plan

A coaching manager will be able to recognise when a coaching opportunity arises. For Zeus and Skiffington (2002:102), coaching can occur both in a formal and informal setting. A formal setting is where the manager and staff sit together for an hour or so in weekly sessions and work together on goals and action plans for development. Coaching can be informal and occur on the job whenever the manager sees the need.

Sheppard et al (2006:20) use a four step basic model (GAPS) for managers to help employees stretch, learn and build their skills successfully:

- Setting goals – set realistic and measurable goals, communicates clearly (ask questions, listen), ensure shared agreement and expectations
- Assessing current progress – gather data, provide feedback

- Planning the next steps – brainstorm options, narrow the choices, decide on action plan
- Supporting the action – help create conditions for success, show appreciation, be a role model, give extra help when needed

The hallmark for a good manager is the ability to develop, inspire and achieve result through others. Coaching is pivotal to this aim. Sheppard et al (2006:24) advocate that the coaching process can be used for both formal, planned sessions and informal, coachable moments.

Table 2.4 is a summary of the knowledge competencies in this section in which twenty-four potential competencies were identified.

Table 2.4: Summary of knowledge competencies

A COACH MUST HAVE AN UNDERSTANDING OF HOW TO:	Lucas ('94)	Berry et al ('95)	Lawson ('99)	Crane ('99)	Cook ('99)	Dotlich & Cairo ('9)	Parsloe & Wray ('01)	Hunt & Weintraub ('02)	Zeus & Skiffington ('02)	Sheppard et al ('06)	TOTAL
Set goals for change	x					x	x	x	x	x	6
Collect data	x					x		x		x	4
Identify performance gaps, analyse and identify problem	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x		8
Analyse cause of problem	x		x				x		x		4
Identify resources	x										1
Develop action plan	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	9
Implement strategies, action plan, solution	x	x				x	x		x	x	6
Evaluate performance or monitor progress	x	x	x		x	x	x	x			7
Give feedback	x	x		x		x	x	x	x	x	8
Select solution		x	x		x						3
Observe performance			x	x			x	x	x		5
Explore alternative solutions			x	x	x						3
Ask questions	x	x		x			x	x		x	6
Listening				x			x	x		x	4
Facilitate					x						1
Give recognition, reinforce positives		x		x						x	3
Set deadlines					x						1
Set evaluation criteria					x						1
Give help, helpful attitude						x		x		x	3
Coach-able learner								x			1
Trust						x		x			2
Learning				x				x			2
Reflect, use coaching mirror						x		x			2
Collaborate, agree, involve		x	x			x	x	x	x	x	7

Many of the micro problem solving skills can be grouped together to form a broader competency category. The combined frequency counts for problem solving and the frequency counts for the other knowledge competencies are reflected in Table 2.5

Table 2.5 Frequency count of core knowledge competencies identified in the Literature Review

Knowledge Competency	Frequency
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem solving process (set goals, collect data, identify performance gaps, analyse problem, develop action plan, implement plan, evaluate performance, agree on solution, observe performance, explore alternatives, set deadlines and evaluation criteria) 	57
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Giving feedback 	8
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Asking questions 	6
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listening 	4
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivating (give recognition) 	3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflecting 	2
Value Competency	
Collaborate (agree, involve)	7
Help	3
Trust	2
Learning	2

Ten coaching models were reviewed in this section. The main theme to emerge is the use of problem solving models to resolve performance deficits. Coaching is viewed a systematic, collaborative process that consists of a number of sequential steps. Meyer (2002:98) proposes a human performance technology (HPT) model for performance consulting. The five steps of the HPT model can be used to summarise the problem solving steps identified earlier in the section:

- Performance analysis: The coaching manager monitors the employee`s performance against agreed upon objectives or performance standards

Performance data is collected through observation, interviews, reports, performance appraisals, questionnaires, etc. The employee's performance is then analysed by comparing the employee's performance to the desired situation. Agreement is then sought that a performance gap exists.

- Cause analysis: Together with the employee, the coach should analyse and determine the cause of the performance deficit. Some reasons for poor performance include inadequate knowledge and skills, insufficient feedback, inadequate resources, lack of incentives or rewards, etc.
- Intervention design and development: The coach and employee work together to find a solution to the problem. Alternative solutions are explored and a solution agreed upon. The performance goals are reviewed or modified. An action plan is developed with performance standards and a time frame.
- Implementation: The employee then implements the action plan
- Evaluation: The coach monitors the progress being made in implementing the plan

Central to the HPT model is that the performance improvement consultant works in partnership with the client – that is, collaboratively (Meyer, 2002:103). The manager involves the employee in all phases of the problem solving process. Working collaboratively means that decisions about a solution and action plans are all shared responsibilities. Partnerships are created from using the facilitation skills of listening, asking questions and reflecting.

Another similar problem solving model is action research. According to Welman and Kruger (2001:21), action research is conducted with a view of finding a solution for a particular problem in a specific applied setting. This involves the systematic collection of data and then the selection of a solution based on what the analysed data indicates. Further, Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2006:412) state that the process of action research also consists of five steps:

- Diagnosis: The consultant collects information about the problem by asking questions, listening to concerns of employees, reviewing records, observing, etc.
- Analysis: The gathered information is synthesised in an attempt to understand the information
- Feedback: This requires sharing with employees what has been found in the diagnosis and analysis stage. A participant kind of action research is required where the employee is involved in the entire problem solving process.
- Action Planning: The consultant and the employees collaborate to develop an action plan to correct the problem that was identified
- Evaluation: This involves the evaluation of the action's plan's effectiveness. Evaluation implies data gathering, which leads back into the first step of the action research cycle.

The action research model shows a lot of promise. The disadvantage of this model is that collaboration with the employees only really begins at the feedback stage. A participant kind of action research is required where the employee is involved in the entire problem solving process.

The problem solving steps identified in this section will be used as a guideline to develop a coaching model in chapter seven. Coaching works to close the gap between current and desired performance. At the same time, coaching creates the ideal forum for exploring new solutions and developing action plans while providing continuous support and feedback.

The other knowledge competencies identified in this section (feedback, questioning, listening, motivating and reflecting) also appear in the skills dimensions of competence in the next section. For ease of convenience, these knowledge competencies will be combined with the skills competencies and discussed in the next section. Also of interest is that four of the core values

identified in the previous section are also reflected in this section (collaborate, help, trust and learning).

2.3.3 Coaching Skills

Skills are the third dimension of competence. Skills reflect the application of knowledge, the ability to perform a set of tasks or activities. A skill is a behaviour that can be learnt or mastered by practice. To act on their values and knowledge, effective coaches must translate their understanding of coaching into behaviour. A summary follows of coaching skills or behaviours deemed to be important by researchers and writers in the field of coaching.

For Orth, Wilkinson and Benfari (1990:13), most managers are not “born” coaches but learn how to coach through experience and training. For them, coaching involves helping employees improve their capabilities and performance on a day-to-day basis as well as the long term. They believe that managers need to develop four critical coaching skills:

- Observation skills – observe the employees behaviour and performance on a day-to-day basis
- Analytical skills – identify opportunities for coaching
- Interviewing skills – ability to ask open-ended, probing and reflective questions, listen actively, use non-verbal behaviour
- Feedback skills – give specific feedback that is well timed, direct feedback towards a behaviour that can be changed

These four core skills will also be identified by many of the other researchers that follow in this section.

Whitmore (1992: 31) lists the qualities of an ideal coach as follows:

Patience, detached, supportive, interested, good listener, perceptive, aware, self-aware, attentive and retentive.

He sees the role of a coach as a facilitator and sounding board.

For Lucas (1994:3), coaching is any activity in which the superiors and employee work towards performance improvement. He lists the skills used in coaching:

Instructing, communicating, analysing, training, facilitating, assisting, collaborating, guiding, motivating, nurturing and supporting

Phillips (1995:7) divides the core skills of coaching into mental and interpersonal skills:

- The mental skills include observation, analysis and the ability to structure the coaching process
- Key interpersonal skills include questioning, listening, giving feedback, communicating and motivating

According to Kinlaw (1996:28), effective coaches have the following skills for interacting with others:

- Attending – ability to listen, use appropriate body language
- Inquiring – ability to ask questions
- Reflecting – ability to put into your own words what you believe the person said
- Affirming – compliment, reinforce appropriate behaviour
- Being disciplined – ability to use the above four skills

For King and Eaton (1999:45), the key skills used to close the performance gap between current and desired performance include:

listening, effective questioning, building and maintaining rapport, reframing, reading non-verbal behaviour, goal setting and establishing commitment.

In the process of moving from a boss to a coach, Lawson (1999:19) states that the coaching manager needs to develop the following skills and abilities:

- Communicating effectively

- Listening
- Questioning
- Setting goals and objectives
- Establishing appropriate priorities
- Analysing
- Planning and organising

In addition to the above skills, Lawson (1999:20) proposes that coaches need to demonstrate certain behaviours. She used the acronym COACH as a way to remember these behaviours:

- Collaborate – the coach works with the employee to identify the performance problem, set standards and performance objectives and develop a performance approval plan
- Own – coaches should examine their own behaviour to see if they have given the employee the necessary support (training, resources, etc)
- Acknowledge – the employee’s achievements, problems, feelings and concerns
- Communicate – includes listening, questioning, giving and receiving feedback (two-way communication)
- Help – as a manager you advise, serve as resource person and act as a guide to access other resources, both inside and outside the organisation

For Parsloe and Wray (2000:46), the most important coaching skills are: effective questioning, observant listening and giving feedback.

Holiday (2001:62) presents a more comprehensive list of ten tools for developing the values that are beneficial to a coach:

- Flexibility – open to change
- Helping – assisting the people you work with
- Empathy – understanding of employees
- Valuing the employee

- Listening – the majority of effective communication is spent in listening behaviours
- Proactive mindset – look for coaching opportunities
- Effective feedback – let your employee know how they are performing
- Enthusiasm and optimism – have a positive outlook
- Openness – volunteer information
- Humour is a stress buster

Furthermore, Hart (2003:5) suggests that three broad characteristics that are important for coaching success:

- Rapport, which connects the coach and coachee`s values (respectful, open, caring, empathic etc)
- Collaboration, which connects their minds
- Commitment to the coaching process to close the performance gap

In addition, he identifies concrete, observable behaviours that promote rapport, collaboration and commitment:

Listening, observing, questioning and facilitating (paraphrasing, reflecting, summarising), gap analysis, conducting after action reviews (reflecting), challenging behaviours (confronting, goal setting, action planning) and supporting behaviour (affirming, celebrating success)

In an attempt to build up a best-practices coaching effectiveness profile, Warner (2003:11) identified seven competencies:

- Empathising ability – ability to understand the other person`s view point and feelings
- Listening skills – the ability to hear and understand other people
- Capacity to confront and challenge – ability to help people to face up to their problems
- Problem solving ability – ability to analyse problems and find solutions
- Feedback skills – give constructive performance feedback

- Capacity to empower – create a climate of trust where people feel they can take risks and make mistakes
- Mentoring skills – use your knowledge and experience to provide long term guidance

It is interesting to note that mentoring has been included in the above coaching profile. We noted earlier in the literature review that mentoring and coaching were different concepts.

In a similar vein, Chen (2004:3) has identified seven basic skills required by coaches:

- Building trust and support – self-disclosure, honour another's competence
- Listening for understanding – focus on the speaker, encourage through supportive body-language
- Giving effective feedback – describe the situation, the behaviour observed and the impact of the behaviour
- Guide – help craft personal vision, set goals and develop action plan
- Motivator – encourage the employee to believe in their ability to be successful
- Teacher – ability to transfer knowledge and skills to the employee, identify the coachee's learning style
- Mentor – providing knowledge and sharing experiences

Once again mentoring has been identified as a coaching skill. It would seem that in practice, coaching and mentoring could overlap. It also interesting to note that training is included in the coaching profile. Present trends seem to indicate less focus on instructing and more emphasis on facilitation skills.

Table 2.6 is a matrix of the thirty nine coaching skills reported by the authors in this section.

Table 2.6 Summary of skills competencies

ABILITIES	Orth et al ('90)	Whitmore ('92)	Lucas ('94)	Phillips (95)	Kinlaw ('96)	King & Eaton ('99)	Lawson ('99)	Parsloe & Wray ('00)	Holiday ('01)	Hart ('03)	Warner '03)	Chen ('04)	TOTAL
Patient		x											1
Detached		x											1
Supporting, assisting		x	x				x					x	4
Interested		x											1
Listen	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	11
Perceptive		x											1
Aware		x											1
Self-aware		x											1
Attend		x			x								2
Facilitate		x	x							x			3
Instruct			x										1
Communicate effectively			x	x			x						3
Analyse, solve problems	x		x	x			x			x	x		6
Train, learning			x									x	2
Help			x				x		x				3
Collaborate			x				x			x			3
Guide			x									x	2
Motivate, gain commitment			x	x		x				x		x	5
Care			x							x			2
Observe performance	x			x						x			3
Question effectively	x			x	x	x	x	x	x	x			8
Give feedback	x			x			x	x	x		x	x	7
Interpret & use body language	x				x	x						x	4
Reflect	x				x					x			3
Affirm, reinforce					x		x			x			3
Build rapport (connect hearts)						x				x			2
Reframe						x							1
Set goals and objectives						x	x			x			3
Establish priorities							x						1
Develop action plan							x			x		x	3
Be flexible									x				1
Show Empathy									x	x	x		3
Value employees									x				1
Identify coaching opportunities									x				1
Be enthusiastic and positive									x				1
Openness									x	x		x	3
Use humour									x				1
Confront and challenge										x	x		2
Mentor											x	x	2

Some of the coaching competencies overlap one another and can be consolidated into broader competency categories. The combined frequency counts for the broader skills categories are reflected in Table 2.7

Table 2.7 Frequency count of core skills identified in the Literature Review

Skill Competency	Frequency
Listening (listening, using appropriate body language, attending)	17
Solving problems (analyse problems, observe performance, set goals, set priorities, develop action plan)	16
Effective questioning	8
Motivating (motivate, affirm)	8
Giving feedback	7
Reflecting	3
Facilitating	3
Communicating effectively	3
Value Competency	
Helping (support, help)	7
Empathising (care, empathy, value employees)	6
Trust (openness, trust)	3
Collaborating	3
Learning (train)	2

Problem solving was once again ranked high (second). The communication skills of listening and questioning were ranked first and third respectively. The frequency score for listening and questioning could have been higher since these two skills form the core components of the generic skill of communicating effectively and facilitating. We noted in section 2.2.5 of the literature review that facilitation can be used in a coaching setting. It would seem that a number of communication or facilitation skills are required to help the employee to progress through the problem solving process. However, we will limit the scope of the

research project to the micro communication and facilitation skills of listening, asking questions and giving feedback.

Seven of the twelve writers identified giving feedback as a core competency. Feedback should not be reserved for the annual performance reviews or only when problems arise. Feedback should be built into the relationship between the manager and the employee. According to Zeuss and Skiffington (2000:113), feedback is an unending process that allows review and continuous growth.

One of the functions of a manager is to motivate and inspire employees towards achievement goals. This can take form of affirming or reinforcing appropriate behaviour, setting goals, rewarding employees for achieving the desired results etc. Positive feedback acts as a reinforcer and strengthens the likelihood of the desired behaviour continuing.

Reflecting received the lowest ranking. Only three writers believed that reflecting was a critical coaching skill for managers to develop. In addition, five of the core values identified in section 2.3.1 of the literature review are also listed in this section (helping, empathy, trust, collaborating and learning). Helping and collaborating in particular received a high frequency count.

The knowledge frequency (Table 2.5) and skills frequency scores (Table 2.7) will be added together to get a combined frequency score for each competency in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 Overall ranking of knowledge and skills competencies.

Competency	Knowledge Frequency (Table 2.5)	Skills Frequency (Table 2.7)	Combined Frequency	Ranking
Solving problems	57	16	73	1
Active listening	4	17	21	2
Giving feedback	8	7	15	3
Effective questioning	6	8	14	4
Motivating	3	8	11	5
Reflecting	2	3	5	6

Solving problems emerged as the most frequently used competency in section 2.3.2 and 2.3.3 of the literature review. This is due to the fact that most of the coaching models adopted a systematic problem solving process to resolve performance deficits. The researcher has a preference for the HPT and action research models discussed in the previous section. The coaching managers should have an understanding and be able to apply the following five-step problem solving process when the performance of their employees does not meet expectations: conduct a performance analysis and cause analysis, develop an action plan, implement the action plan and evaluate the action plan's effectiveness.

Listening and questioning are core facilitation skills and are ranked second and fourth respectively. According to Zeus and Skiffington (2000:173), sixty to eighty percent of a coaching session involves listening. The purpose of listening entails a deliberate effort to understand the message from the speaker's point of view. According to Buys (2007:100), some of the guidelines to effective listening are to look alert and interested, to minimise distractions, not to interrupt, attend to the non-verbal cues, check for understanding through asking questions and summarising key points, use silences, etc. The key to asking the right question is active or responsive listening.

Questioning is a competency whereby the coach directs the coaching dialogue. Through questioning, the coach gathers information, assesses and identifies issues, facilitates action and change (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002:168). Questioning takes the form of open or closed questions, seeking information or clarification questions (who, what, why, when, how, tell), etc. Put simply, questions are powerful because they demand answers. A good coach rarely gives advice but instead asks the right question that helps the person being coached get a fresh perspective on difficult issues (Weiss, 2003:14).

Giving feedback emerged as the third strongest competency. Providing feedback is an essential element of any communication and performance assessment process. Giving accurate and helpful feedback keeps the employee informed about their progress. According to Hunt and Weintraub (2002:146), feedback content should include a description of the situation in which one observed the employee, a description of the behaviour of the employee observed and a description of the impact of the behaviour on others or any relevant business outcome. Feedback should be given frequently right after an action. There are two types of feedback: positive feedback in which the employee is praised for doing a good job and constructive feedback for when there is a performance discrepancy. Positive feedback helps to reinforce desired behaviour (motivate) while constructive feedback helps with creating self-awareness and initiate corrective action (problem solving). It is important that performance feedback be given regularly to enable change.

Motivating was ranked 5th out of six competencies. From the viewpoint of the organisation, motivation may be defined as the willingness of an employee to achieve organisational goals (Smit & Cronje, 2003:344). From an individual's perspective, it is an inner desire to satisfy an unsatisfied need. If employees perceive that their best interests are closely linked the interests of the organisation they work for, they will be motivated to achieve the organisation's

goals. According to Blanchard and Thacker (1999: 86), a person's performance depends on the interaction of three factors:

Performance = Motivation x knowledge, skills and attitudes x environment.

Motivation arises from one's needs and beliefs, about how best to satisfy those needs. If employees do not have the necessary attitude, knowledge and skills (competence), they can't perform. Further, the work environment must be supportive. Thus optimum performance is limited by the weakest factor. From a motivational perspective, managerial behaviours that sustain superior performance would take the form of applying reinforcement and goal-setting theory, attempting to satisfy employee needs and empowering employees by using a participative management style.

Reflecting was the lowest ranked knowledge and skills competency. Reflective coaching is grounded in the theories relating to how we make meaning out of our experiences. The coach's role is to help the coachee to become aware of their own unique structure of interpretation which is shaped by personal experience, beliefs and intentions (Skiffington & Zeus, 2005:24). Reflective discussion promotes posing thought provoking questions to the coachee which contributes to reflection, introspection and self-assessment. Typically, the coaching manager would ask questions that will help the employee self-assess their performance. Once the employee can see what was previously not seen, new actions are possible. Self-assessment represents the foundation of learning. One has to be personally aware of one's own performance and the gap between that performance and the desired performance, in qualitative and quantitative terms (Hunt & Weintraub, 2002:26). Further, if the self-assessment component of the coaching dialogue is successful, the employee owns the problem. Ultimately, the employee becomes self-correcting.

At the conclusion of the literature review, the knowledge and skills competencies will be revisited in section 2.11.

2.4 COACHING MOMENTS AND OPPORTUNITIES

The coaching moments and coaching opportunities mentioned earlier by some writers in section 2.3.2 of the literature review will now be elaborated on. A coaching moment is any situation when a coachee is likely to benefit from coaching at that point.

Few managers enjoy the luxury for having time for ideal coaching sessions because of the fast pace of modern organisational life. In reality, much of the coaching is “curbside” coaching or coaching on the run. When the performance of an employee does not meet expectations, effective coaches know that it is their responsibility to help their employees to get back to the desired situation as quick as possible. Managers can create valuable coaching opportunities by stopping the action, if only briefly, and engage the employee in a useful coaching dialogue (Hunt & Weintraub, 2002:90). Every day is full of potential coachable moments when something happens that creates an opportunity for learning and that can lead to greater competence (on-the-job observation, supporting the transfer of the training process, discussion at lunch time, departmental meetings, work assignments, etc.) It is vital that the manager is aware of the myriad of potential learning situations in the workplace.

In progressive organisations, managers deal with issues at hand with the process of focused conversations. Price (2006:63) states that these “just-in-time” coaching conversations have short time lines and can take place in seven, fifteen, twenty or forty minute sessions. Further, the role of the coach is to ask the right questions in order to facilitate solutions to immediate business problems. The coachee is responsible for the content and the answers. Price (2006:63) suggests that the just-in-time approach be structured along the following lines:

- Get an outcome – identify the behavioural components that would contribute to a solution

- Get possible solutions
- Get behaviours or an action plan – establish who will do what
- Get commitment from the role players
- Get measurement of the results so as to monitor progress
- Get clarity on plans for the follow up

These steps are similar to the problem solving skills identified in section 2.3.2. For coaching to work, there has to be a shift from command and control management to a more open and flexible yet structured approach (Price, 2006:64). Further, it is important that management create a coaching friendly context by talking about coaching and find ways to make themselves more accessible by being around and approachable:

- Managers can “manage by walking around” so that they can observe and make use of naturally learning opportunities.
- Managers should also be approachable. A coaching manager should make it easy for an employee to ask for help or share a concern.

In a coaching friendly context, people seize coaching and learning opportunities both informally and formally, whenever they occur.

Coaching opportunities can be used in everyday informal situations and in more structured situations. Informal coaching opportunities arise whenever employees have a query or during unscheduled meetings or whenever performance problems arise. Informal coaching allows the coaching manager to intervene naturally and effectively in even the toughest situations. Even if the interaction only lasts a few minutes, the learning can be put to use right away.

Coaching managers don't rely solely on informal coaching moments. By scheduling formal coaching sessions and dedicating time with one's coachee demonstrates that coaching is important. In addition, the coach may schedule lengthier sessions for further coaching, address more complex problems or plan future skill development. Typically, the most structured coaching session is the

annual performance appraisal when an employee's performance is assessed against targets, performance gaps identified and an action plan implemented. However, informal day-to-day performance management is much more important than the annual review. Katz (1995:38) states that interim progress reviews and coaching meetings are key elements in monitoring an employee's performance. This observation will be built into the performance management model in section 2.9.

2.5 THE BENEFITS OF COACHING

The benefits of coaching have been known for some time yet management has chosen largely to ignore them. Some research statistics say that there is an overall productivity and performance improvement of 68% or more (Price, 2005:65). Manchester Consulting Inc conducted what is believed to be the first major research project to quantify the business impact of executive coaching. In a study of 100 executives who had completed a coaching program between 1996 & 2000, they found that the estimated return on investment was 5.7 times the initial investment outlay (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002:3). In a study on Fortune 500 companies, it was found that coaching gave a return on investment of 329% (Price, 2005:65). Employees perform better with coaching and improved performance translates into business results. Some of the ways in which coaching is beneficial include the following.

Orth, et al (1990:11) list the following benefits of coaching:

- Helps employees expand their capabilities and improve their performance
- Enhances management performance
- Managers enhance their chances for promotion
- Results in a less stressful environment for all employees
- Teamwork and mutual support is fostered among employees

Whitmore (1992:103) identified multiple benefits of coaching:

- Improved employee performance and productivity

- Staff development – the way you manage staff will either develop them or hold them back
- Improved learning – the coachee is learning on the fast track
- Improved relationship as the manager engages the employee in the coaching process
- Improved quality of life in the workplace because people are valued
- More time for the manager – staff who are coached welcome responsibility, they do not have to be chased or watched
- More creative ideas – suggestions for improvements are encouraged
- Better use of people, skills and resources – coaching uncovers previously undeclared talents and practical solutions to problems
- Faster emergency response – since people are valued, they in turn look after the interests of the organisation
- Greater flexibility and adaptability to change – the coaching ethos is all about change

The above benefits make very compelling reading and serve as a strong motivational tool to engage in the coaching process.

Lucas (1994:5) lists the following benefits of coaching for supervisors:

- Reduced costs and turnover – happy employees tend to be productive and stay longer
- Improved quality and quantity of work – by developing employee knowledge, skills and attitudes, the supervisor can enhance the overall effectiveness of both the employee and the organisation
- Enhanced employee growth – through an ongoing process of imparting up-to-date information, role modeling and demonstrating support, the supervisor can function as a valuable resource for employees
- Improved employee problem-solving ability – the primary goal of a supervisor should be to develop employees to the point where they can assume the supervisor's job

- Increased likelihood that goals will be reached – employees need continuing feedback and reinforcement to enhance their performance. By communicating regularly, supervisors stay abreast of employee progress and head of potential problems before situations get out of control.
- Enriched transfer of training – it is vital to set up a learning environment to reinforce key elements of any training received
- Improved supervisor/employee communication – by sitting down and talking together on a regular basis, employees and supervisors can share expectations and reduce misunderstandings

Lawson (1999:14) lists the benefits of coaching as follows:

- Coaching is the most effective way to develop your employees – the time you invest will produce long-lasting results
- It helps relieve the workload on management – in today's world of cost cutting, downsizing and re-engineering, managers are expected to do more with less. Coaching will help reduce the stress of increased responsibilities and multiple tasks.
- Coaching leads to improved employee performance, which leads to increased productivity and bottom-line results
- It improves the employees' self-esteem and job satisfaction. People perform better when they feel good about who they are

For Cook (1999:6), the benefits of coaching are as follows:

- Helps develop employee competence – there is no need for close supervision
- Helps diagnose performance problems – a good coach first asks for employee input and then listens to it. By doing so, you're more likely to make the right diagnosis.
- Helps correct performance problems – if employees feel empowered to solve the problem, they will solve it

- Helps diagnose behavioural problems – investigate behaviours that are getting in the way of performance
- Helps correct unsatisfactory behaviour – keep the communication lines open by consulting the affected parties before you take action
- Fosters productive working relationships – employees are more open to helping each other to achieve the organisation's performance objectives
- Focuses on providing appropriate guidelines – mentor workers who seek your guidance
- Provides opportunities for conveying appreciation – coaching provides natural opportunities to praise good work and strong effort
- Fosters self-coaching behaviours – when one coaches an employee through a challenge, you teach that employee to figure out how to deal with similar problems in future
- Improves employee performance and morale – by allowing employees to take responsibility and initiative for their work, you will improve their morale in ways no seminar, pep talk or self-help book ever could

The main observation here is that there are many benefits emanating from a healthy coaching relationship.

Qualitative surveys across various countries and industries have demonstrated that coaching yields the following benefits (Skiffington & Zeuss, 2005:5):

- Improvement in individual work performance
- Growth and self actualisation of the individual
- Increased job satisfaction
- Increased openness to learning and development
- Ability to use talent and potential more effectively
- Improved morale
- Higher staff retention

Closer to home, Price (2005:65) states that the key benefits from coaching relationships could include:

- Bringing new employees up to speed more effectively
- Reducing turnover of qualified performers
- Providing managers with the skills that can empower, facilitate and direct employee focus
- Increased levels of ownership, responsibility and accountability
- Helps achieve employee and organisational goals
- Advancement of career, improved decision making
- Improved feedback and monitoring of performance
- Improved interaction between manager and coachees
- Improvement in leadership, facilitation of people and team building on-the-job
- Helping to obtain higher levels of focus and sustained clarity of purpose

In an attempt to consolidate the abovementioned benefits, it would seem that the main benefits fall into the following categories:

- **Work environment:** Coaching decreases the levels of stress and conflict within organisations. Coaching aids the development of trust and improves management/employee communication and rapport.
- **Management development:** Coaching managers acquire the competencies that can empower, facilitate and direct the employee's focus. Further, coaching reduces the manager's workload and results in more discretionary time for managers.
- **Employee development:** Coaching enhances the employee's growth and development opportunities. Coaching helps develop the employee's competence and fosters self-coaching behaviours. This results in increased opportunities for career advancement.
- **Employee performance:** coaching assists employees to improve their work performance and to achieve their goals
- **Motivation:** coaching provides opportunities to give feedback and convey appreciation and praise for good work. This results in improved employee morale, job satisfaction, increased commitment and loyalty.

- Problem solving: coaching helps diagnose performance problems and correct performance deficiencies
- Organisation: since coaching results in the improvement in the quantity and quality of work, there is an increased likelihood that the organisation goals will be achieved. Coaching reduces costs and labour turnover.

The abovementioned benefits for coaching in general are similar to the recent research findings obtained by the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development in the UK into the effectiveness of coaching managers (Bennett, 2007:56-58):

- Making changes to the organisation's culture or helping to imbed a coaching culture
- Improved management skills and capability
- Behaviour change in the managers
- Improved coachee performance and behaviour
- Greater employee engagement and commitment
- Improvement to business indicators or results
- Savings in HR time and costs
- Accelerated talent development

In addition, a survey conducted on the effectiveness of coaching found that the majority of companies (87% of respondents) believe that coaching by managers is an effective development tool.

Thus coaching has multiple benefits for the employee, manager and organisation. According to Meyer and Fourie (2004:52), coaching has many benefits for South African organisations since it is the most powerful leadership tool of the 21st century organisation. The benefits should serve as a strong motivational tool for managers to make the transition to become a coaching manager. However, this is not to be found in practice. Hunt and Weintraub's (2002:4) research into on-the-job coaching revealed that American managers very rarely practice real coaching. In South Africa, the consultants are claiming ownership of coaching because managers have not been doing their jobs as

coaches (Meyer & Fourie.2004: 26). These are very disappointing findings and observations in the light of the obvious benefits of coaching. I suggest that coaching is a vastly underused resource that is available to most managers.

2.6 BARRIERS TO COACHING

We have noted in the previous section that despite coaching's potential benefits, coaching remains a neglected management function in many organisations. In the light of the above, one should investigate why coaching is unpopular in the workplace. The primary barriers to effective coaching can be found within the organisations climate, managers and employees themselves. Some practical suggestions will be given as to how to overcome these coaching hurdles:

Orth et al (1990:11) name three factors that inhibit greater practice of coaching as a management style:

- Organisational climates are not conducive to coaching – managers are not rewarded for developing employees
- Lack of role models who promote coaching
- Takes time to train and develop coaches

Lawson (1999:15) gives the following reasons why managers are poor coaches:

- Managers don't know how to coach. Many managers have been left to develop their management skills through trial and error. This barrier can be overcome through training and development.
- Management does not want to make the time to coach. They do not know that the time spent on coaching in the short term results in long-term benefits.
- They do not have the patience to coach. Impatient people can develop patience by focusing on the positive outcomes of coaching and practice coaching on a daily basis.

- They believe that employees should improve performance on their own – a case of “sink-or-swim”. Managers need to understand that employees perform better if they take time to coach their subordinates.

No matter how skillful or committed a coach may be, coaching cannot succeed unless the employee is “coachable”. Lawson (1999:15) gives reasons why employees might be difficult to coach:

- Employees resist change. Coaching requires that employees change their behaviour and many people are uncomfortable with change.
- Employees think they know it all. Employees who think they have all the answers will initially resist coaching efforts.

Managers can overcome employee resistance by having an open communication with their employees and explain to them how they will benefit from coaching.

Lucas (1994:6) identifies some of the more common excuses given by supervisors for failing to coaching employees:

- Coaching takes too long – coaching does take an investment in time on the part of the supervisor and employee but it has long-term benefits
- If employees need help, they will ask – Although many people are not reluctant to ask for information and help, some employees are reluctant
- Supervisors do not know how to coach – they are unaware that coaching skills can be learnt through training
- Employees may think that supervisors do not trust them – coaching requires open communication that builds up trust and helps eliminate potential misunderstanding
- Supervisors believe that they have more important things to do – the supervisors’ success depends on their ability to work through people. Employees need guidance and support to be successful.
- Managers believe that it is the trainers job to teach skills – one of management’s key responsibility is training and development

Cook (1999:127-139) identified a number of coaching barriers and gives suggestions on how to avoid them:

- Lack of authentic purpose – keep coaching relevant by focusing coaching on the desired goal or problem situation, don't mistake activity for results
- Coach anxiety – recognize the anxiety and develop a personal method of handling it. Nothing combats anxiety better than thorough preparation.
- Employee fear and distrust – acknowledge that you might be doing something to create the fear; examine your own behaviour; work quietly to overcome employee fear by offering genuine assurance
- Resistance to change – old habits are hard to break; be patient and give the employee time to establish new behaviour patterns
- Lack of coaching skills – new skills can be learnt through training and development
- One-way-communication – ask the employee questions, involve the employee in the discussion
- Language barriers – keep your conversation simple and don't use jargon
- Interrogating, asking routine questions – ask open-ended questions and listen actively
- Fixing problems for employees – coach the employee to take responsibility for fixing their own problems
- Blaming the person who caused the problem – rather focus on fixing the problem
- Failure to follow through – continue to monitor the employee's progress

According to Cook (1999:127), these coaching inhibitors can be hard to spot but once you locate them, they are easy to avoid.

Many of the barriers identified can be overcome by using the practical suggestions from this section. To summarise, the main barriers are as follows:

- Organisational climate that is not conducive to coaching, lack of trust between management and employees
- Lack of real commitment by management

- Manager's lack of coaching knowledge and skills, insufficient training
- Manager's mistaken belief that it takes too much time to coach
- Lack of open communication with employees
- Employee's resistance to change
- Lack of knowledge of coaching benefits

Poor management is costly. Many organisations fail to answer the call of coaching and the concept of a consultative, supportive and participatory work environment remains in the realm of rhetoric (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002:42). Ultimately, coaching others makes the life of a manager easier. Helping employees to improve their competence frees the manager to do other work. The challenge for senior management is to develop the coaching competencies of managers and to provide an organisation climate that is conducive to coaching. Many of the barriers identified can be overcome by using the practical suggestions identified in this section. Further, Gaskell (2008:70) states that a key factor in ensuring line managers use coaching every day as part of their management style is to remunerate their performance against coaching criteria. Should a significant part of a manager's bonus be linked to coaching behaviour, then this will encourage managers to coach more consistently.

2.7 COACHING STANDARDS

There is a need for a generic or core set of coaching standards that will apply to most coaching situations. According to Clutterbuck and Lane (2004:52), the issue of standards in coaching and mentoring has arisen for two reasons:

- The rapid growth of coaching and mentoring gives rise to calls for regulation
- Standards provide objective, independent measures of competence

Standards codify competencies into a framework that can be used to assess how well an individual performs against them. How useful the measure is depends on how credible the standards are perceived to be by programme participants and providers.

The profession of coaching is still in its infancy in South Africa (Price, 2003:34) while it is well established in Europe and America (Price, 2003:53). According to Price (2006: 59), the local unit standards of coaching are poorly defined and the larger companies that have a structured approach to coaching have opted for the international standards. The National Qualification Framework (NQF) and the Coaching and Mentoring Association of South Africa (COMENSA) are two current regulatory bodies in South Africa.

2.7.1 International coaching competencies

The International Coach Federation (ICF) is operating in 36 countries worldwide and has a chapter in this country. The mission of the ICF is to build support and prescribe the integrity of professional life for the business coaching and mentoring profession (Price, 2003:45). The ICF protects the interests of all stakeholders and uphold the standards, competencies and code of ethics.

The following eleven core competencies were developed by the ICF to support greater understanding about the skills used within today's coaching profession (Steinberg, 2005:9-16):

- Meeting ethical guidelines and professional standards – ensure that the client understands nature of coaching, bounds of confidentiality, financial arrangements, seek to avoid conflict of interest, not knowingly exploit any aspect of the coach-client relationship for personal or monetary benefit, respect client's right to terminate coaching at any point, etc.
- Establishing the coaching agreement – discusses with the client the guidelines of the coaching relationship and reaches agreement what is being offered (fees, meetings, coaching method, etc.)
- Establishing trust and intimacy with the client – ability to create a safe, supportive environment that produces ongoing mutual respect and trust (shows genuine concern for the client's welfare, demonstrates integrity, honesty and sincerity, keeps promises, respects client's learning style)

- Coaching presence – ability to create a spontaneous relationship with client (flexible, uses intuition, humour, etc.)
- Active listening – ability to focus on what the client is saying, to understand the meaning of what is said (hears the client's concerns, goals and values, distinguishes between words, tone of voice and body language, summarises, paraphrases, mirrors back what client has said, reinforces the client's expression of feelings, concerns, beliefs and suggestions, builds on the client's ideas, etc.)
- Powerful questioning – ability to ask questions that reveal valuable information (ask open-ended questions that create greater insight and possibility of new learning, ask questions that evoke discovery, insight, move the client forward, etc.)
- Direct communication – ability to communicate effectively with client (provide clear feedback, states the objectives clearly, uses appropriate language e.g., non-sexist, non-racist, non-technical, non-jargon)
- Creating awareness – ability to integrate and evaluate multiple sources of information and make interpretations that help the client gain awareness (not getting hooked by clients story, identifies client's underlying concerns, identifies major strengths and weaknesses, helps client discover new thoughts, beliefs, emotions, etc.)
- Designing action – ability to create with the client opportunities for ongoing learning (brainstorms and explores alternative ideas, applies ideas through active experimentation and self discovery, celebrates client successes, etc.)
- Planning and goal setting – ability to develop and maintain an effective coaching plan with the client (develops goals with client that address concerns and major areas of learning, helps client identify and access different resources for learning)
- Managing progress and accountability – ability to hold attention on what is important for the client and to leave responsibility with the client to take action (keeps client on track, promotes client self-discipline, develops

client's ability to make decisions, confronts client when they do not take agreed-upon actions, etc.)

The ICF competencies are designed for professional coaching. The coach-client relationship is a much more intense, in-depth and time-consuming process than on-the-job coaching, which focuses mainly on observable behaviour and is of short duration. Although the coaching context may differ, the coaching competencies are the same – establishing trust, active listening, powerful questioning, direct communication, planning and goal setting, managing the coaching progress, creating awareness (reflecting), etc. These competencies are the same as the values, knowledge and skills competencies identified earlier in the literature review.

2.7.2 South African coaching standards

There are a number of unit standards that have been registered on the National Qualifications Framework that deal with coaching in the field of education, training and development. The most appropriate unit standard for the purpose of this study is “conduct on-the-job coaching”. This unit standard has been registered in the services field by the standards generating body for hospitality, tourism, travel, gaming and leisure (SAQA, 2007). The purpose of the unit standard is to be able to develop employees on-the-job in a way that contributes to the overall effectiveness of the organisation. The twelve specific outcomes are as follows:

1. Describe the basic principles of training
2. Explain the importance of questioning techniques
3. Distinguish the concepts of coaching and training from each other
4. Describe alternative arrangements for coaching
5. Identify the need for coaching through discussions with the person to be coached

6. Arrange a specific time and place for the coaching session and prepare for it
7. Communicate theory and knowledge associated with the coaching session
8. Complete the coaching session
9. Give honest feedback and encourage the learner to ask questions
10. Monitor the ongoing process and give ongoing feedback in the workplace
11. Identify possible problems that may occur in relation to coaching
12. Develop a plan for individual coaching, taking the needs of the team into account

Even though the unit standard focuses on a planned formal coaching session, the coaching process has much in common with our earlier discussion. Competencies such as identifying the need for coaching, asking questions, giving feedback, monitoring the process, etc are the basis of any coaching programme, whether formal or informal. Other outcomes mentioned in the unit standard are also covered in the literature review are – describing adult learning principles, distinguishing between coaching and training, communicating theory and knowledge associated with coaching, etc.

Initially started in Cape Town, COMENSA is a national body whose mission it is to provide for the regulation and support of local coaches and mentors (Rostron, 2007:2). The COMENSA website (2006:1-10) indicates that the standards committee has drafted five standards of professional competence for a coach/mentor:

- Questioning – asking a person to turn inward for answers and solutions
- Listening – paying attention to all information presented by the client, both verbal and visual
- Building rapport – establishing and maintaining trust and intimacy in the coaching relationship, providing a safe environment, empathising
- Delivering measurable results – achieving outcomes that can be quantified

- Upholding ethical guidelines – upholding and maintaining ethics and professional standards defined by COMENSA

The abovementioned standards have also been identified as core competencies in the literature review. Building trust and empathising were identified as core values that build rapport and a coaching friendly environment. Likewise, questioning, listening and delivering results (problem solving) were identified as core coaching skills in the literature review. With regards to upholding ethical guidelines and professional standards, coaching managers should ensure their behaviour is aligned with the organisation's ethical code of conduct and value statements.

The coaching profession is still in its formative stage in South Africa. Over the next few years, we will see increased regulation of coaches. Coaching is the trend of the moment. The NQF coaching standard seems poorly defined and the COMENSA standard of professional competence seems to be a good attempt to benchmark coaching standards. The challenge is to develop much-needed local unit standards based on South African realities.

2.8 CREATING A LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

We noted in the earlier literature review that learning was a core value. The purpose of this section is to look at the principles and context that support a learning culture. A learning culture refers to an environment in which learning opportunities are encouraged and provided across the organisation. The promotion of a learning culture is one of prime leadership responsibilities, so it is critical that coaching managers become change agents that promote learning opportunities. By developing a supportive learning environment, an organisation allows employees the opportunity to achieve behavioural change and enhance their performance. In this respect, this section will focus on general adult

learning principles, learning by doing (experiential learning) and promoting a learning organisation.

2.8.1 Adult learning principles

It is widely accepted that adults have different needs and requirements as learners when compared to children. Skiffington and Zeus (2005:74) propose the following principles of adult learning which have been adapted from the work of Knowles:

- Adults are self-directed and learn best when the coach facilitates them in the acquisition of knowledge and skills. Adults are self-directed in that their motivation to learn is largely intrinsic. Coaches facilitate the learning process. Crane (1999:82) refers to the “learning loop” phase of the coaching process which consists of listening, asking questions and giving feedback.
- Adults need to connect their new learning to their life experiences. What employees learn must relate to their work life (experiential learning).
- Adults are goal-orientated. It is important that coaches explain the goals of the coaching session. In most cases, the goal for performance coaching is to overcome the performance deficits and achieve the desired performance standards.
- Adults learn when they have a need or reason to learn. The content of the programme should be tailored to their job needs and requirements.
- Adults are pragmatic. They want to apply the knowledge and skill they learn to their daily work or personal lives.
- Learners need to participate actively in the learning process

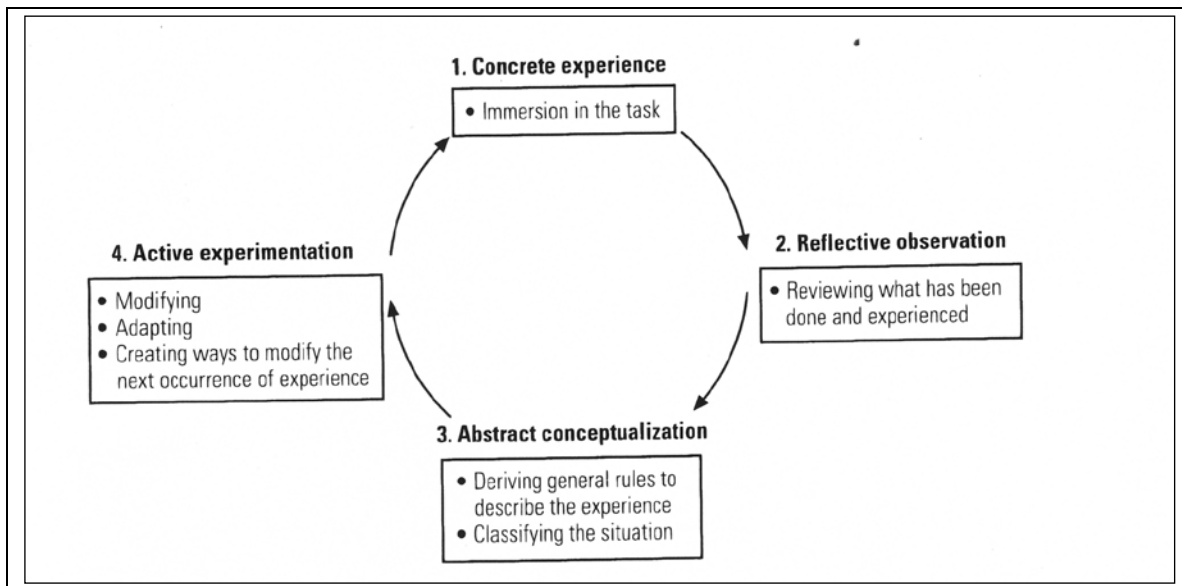
Adults demand respect for their knowledge and experience. Coaching is a democratic process which ensures equal involvement and freedom of expression. Another principle that could be added to the list is co-responsibility. Adults want to take responsibility for their learning. The coach and employee establish a collaborative partnership during the coaching process.

Given these principles of adult learning, it is imperative that coaching managers structure coaching sessions that are highly interactive and engaging that relate to an employee's work experience and performance goals. Thus, adult learning programmes work well if they are presented in a highly practical and experiential manner.

2.8.2 Experiential learning

A further learning principle is that people learn by doing, through action, reflection and experimentation. Developed in the 1980s, Kolb's experiential learning model remains one of the most widely used descriptions of adult learning. The four-stage learning process reflected in figure 2.1 has been extracted from the work of Skiffington and Zeus (2005:75):

Figure 2.1 Kolb's cycle of learning



Source: Skiffington & Zeus, 2005:75

In terms of Kolb's model, learning consists of four interrelated steps. The first step is action where the individual performs a task. In step two, the learner reflects on the action or experience. External feedback also helps with self-reflection. In the conceptualisation stage, the learner draws new conclusions of

what worked, which did not work and what might be tried differently. The new theory is subject to experimentation in step four. Making mistakes should be seen as part of the learning process and should not lead to automatic punishment.

In terms of using Kolb's experiential learning model for empirical research in South Africa, Chapman and Cilliers (2008:63) designed an Integrated Experiential Executive coaching model. This model was used to conduct a phenomenological analysis of the reflective essays of thirteen senior managers who were participating in a six month executive coaching intervention. Eight themes were identified of which building trust was one.

It is critical that coaches attend to each stage of the process during the learning experience. The direction that learning takes is governed by one's perceived needs (performance gap) and goals. For our purposes, we will focus on problem-orientated experiential learning. Practical work problems serve as the training medium for solving performance problems. Further, active participation increases the learner's motivation and therefore promotes the achievement of problem resolution.

2.8.3 Learning organisation

A learning organisation is an organisation which facilitates the learning of all its members and continually transforms itself (Erasmus & van Dyk, 2004:68). A learning organisation is one where employees are supported by a culture that values and promotes learning. By fostering learning, an organisation gives employees the opportunities to enhance their performance and hence the organisation's productivity. However, learning organisations do not occur spontaneously. They have to be developed over time through conscious interventions by using organisation-wide methods such as organisation development processes. Coaches cannot create a learning organisation on their

own (Skiffington & Zeuss, 2005:96). Nevertheless, an understanding of the characteristics of a learning organisation can help generate conditions that foster self-learning and enhance performance.

According to Skiffington and Zeus (2005:94), coaching subscribes to the concept of a learning organisation as one where individuals are supported by a culture that values and promotes learning. They define the characteristics of a learning organisation as follows:

- Creative problem finding and solving
- Critical thinking
- Trust between all members
- Open communication
- Risk taking
- Creative conflict around work-related issues
- Accountability and self-responsibility
- Members are responsible for their own learning
- Continuous enquiry
- Appreciation of its member's strengths
- Individuals to align their values with corporate values
- Diversity in its composition and points of view
- A collective, communicated vision
- Teamwork
- Reflection that is non-judgmental and encourages different perspectives
- Intuition and emotional learning

Many of these concepts (problem solving, trust, open communication, self-responsibility, enquiry, collaboration, emotional learning, etc) have been repeatedly highlighted during the literature review. By developing a supportive learning environment, an organisation allows individuals to achieve behavioural change and enhance performance.

In a similar vein, Meyer and Botha (2000:260-263) identify fifteen characteristics that need to be entrenched in order to facilitate the development and maintenance of a learning culture in an organisation. Some of the characteristics are as follows:

- Shared vision of the future
- Open communication – able to speak openly about things that are not working well
- Teamwork – real learning takes place when team members work together and learn from each other's achievements and mistakes
- Empowerment – freedom to make decisions and to learn from the successes and failures of these decisions
- Inspired leadership – transformational leaders are required
- Innovation, change and improvements are encouraged
- Systems approach – fragmentation is discouraged
- Improving job satisfaction and employee commitment
- People orientated – managers develop their emotional intelligence in order to identify and meet the needs of their employees
- Learning opportunities – learning is promoted by the training department and encouraged on-the-job
- Action and results focus – opportunities to apply in the workplace what they have learnt from training programmes
- External focus – benchmarking exercises to study competitor trends and developments

Van Dyk et al (2001:137) identify eight characteristics of a learning organisation. An explanation will be given as to how these characteristics create an organisational climate that is conducive to coaching:

- Corporate and individual vision – coaching has to be aligned with the philosophy and direction of the organisation, otherwise coaching will remain out on a limb with limited opportunity to show its true value and benefits.

- Flexible culture. Coaching is about change and change involves learning. The coach's mandate is to guide and support those involved in the change process. The traditional cultural values of non-learning need to be transformed into an entrepreneurial culture of sharing information and trying new approaches.
- Learning orientation – we noted in the literature review that learning was identified as a core competency. Coaches facilitate the learning process through listening, asking questions and giving feedback. Employees learn through engaging themselves in experiential learning opportunities. Lifelong learning will be a requirement.
- Global emphasis. With regards to coaching standards, we noted how the NQF and COMENSA have attempted to regulate the coaching profession. Many organisations have opted for the ICF standards.
- Employee empowerment. The old command and control management style has given way to a more participative leadership style. Employees are empowered to make their own decisions during the coaching process.
- Risk bias. Active experimentation is part of the experiential learning process. Making mistakes should be seen as part of the learning process.
- Creativity, analysis. During the problem solving process, an in depth analysis of the causes of the problem and brainstorming for solutions is encouraged.
- Collaboration and co-operation. We noted earlier in the literature review that collaboration was identified as a core value. The coach and the employee form a partnership and work together to resolve the performance problem.

A primary responsibility of management is to create and foster a climate that promotes learning opportunities. Management's task is not to control but rather to promote the characteristics of a learning organisation discussed in this section. To summarise, leaders and employees can build a learning organisation by promoting the following core characteristics at three different levels in the organisation:

- At the **organisational** level, senior management can promote a collective vision, instill systems thinking, promote change and innovating and build commitment to continuous learning.
- At the **management** level, leaders can create an organisation culture to promote a participative, collaborative leadership style, encourage open and honest communication, promote an equal concern for both employees and results, invest in training and on-the-job learning opportunities and empower employees to make decisions.
- At the **employee** level, employees should be open to change and learning opportunities and to accept responsibility for their work.

The challenge for coaching managers is to create a workplace environment that makes learning and growth possible by promoting the abovementioned characteristics of a learning organisation, especially at the management level. People at all levels in the organisation should understand the need for life long learning opportunities. Blockages to learning in the organisation should be systematically identified and removed. Managers play an active role in on-the-job coaching of their staff and thus become facilitators of learning and change agents in creating a productive learning culture.

2.9 THE LINK BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND COACHING

The term management and leadership will be used interchangeably throughout this section. Managers get work done through other people through the traditional functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling. Another way of considering what managers do is to look at the skills or competencies they need to achieve predetermined goals. Katz (Robbins, 2001:4) has identified three essential management skills: technical (work related), human (ability to understand and motivate others) and conceptual skills (analysing and solving problems). Historically, managers were selected on the basis of their technical skills – people skills were low on the list of managerial competencies. Coleman's

concept of “emotional intelligence” and the increased need for people orientated skills in the workplace, highlight the shift in management priorities (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002:101). Further, problem solving was also identified as a core coaching skill in the literature review.

Leadership is defined by Kinicki and Kreitner (2006:342) as a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organisational goals. This definition entails more than wielding power and exercising authority. Leadership is all about working together to achieve a shared purpose. Over the past thirty years, many of the leadership proponents have increasingly included the human element in their theories. Two classical leadership theories of the 1980’s were the Managerial Grid and Situational Leadership. Based on the findings of Blake and Mouton (Robbins, 2001:316) on the Managerial Grid, managers were found to perform best under 9.9 management style (high concern for both people and production). Hersey and Blanchard’s (Ivancevich, 1999:423) Situational Leadership Model proposed four leadership styles available to managers: telling, selling, participating and delegating. Whitmore (1992:12) does not advocate the selling, telling and delegating styles for coaching. For him, the telling and selling style is where the manager is still in control while the delegating style is an abdication of management responsibility. The participating or coaching style is preferred in situations where both the leader and followers share in decision making, with the main role of the leader being that of facilitating and communicating.

Two of the more recent approaches to leadership are transformational and servant leadership. Meyer and Botha (2000:73) equate a transformational leader to a coach, mentor and advisor. Further, these “moral” leaders behave in ways to achieve superior results by employing one or four components of transformational leadership (Meyer & Botha, 2000:75):

- Idealised influence – be a role model who is admired, respected and trusted, a person of integrity who sets high moral and work standards

- Inspirational motivation – develop a shared vision of the future, encourage team work
- Intellectual stimulation – question status quo, stimulate followers to think through problems and generate simpler solutions
- Individualised consideration – concern for followers, pay attention to their needs, act as a supporter and coach, get to know employees well

According to Kinicki and Kreitner (2006:355) the four core outcomes of this leadership style are trust, commitment, job satisfaction and personal understanding. Many of the above leadership characteristics (trust, teamwork, solving problems, concern for employees, etc.) were also identified as core coaching competencies in section 2.3 of the literature review.

Kelloway and Barling (2000:360-361) have found in their research that transformational leadership does result in enhanced employee satisfaction and productivity-related positive outcomes. Furthermore, employees are effectively committed to the organisation, trust in management and a sense of group cohesion is developed. In his research into the link between transformational leaders and coaching behaviours, Starcevich (1996:3) found that “high” transformational leaders (effective managers) saw their role as a helper, facilitator, partner and utilised engaging interpersonal communication skills. Conversely “low” transformational leaders were described as a boss and as jerks who did not care. We have already established in the literature review that a coach is a facilitator who uses the competencies of helping, collaborating (partnering) and empathy (caring).

Although servant leadership has been around since biblical times, the ability to “serve others” has only recently become a vital component of modern leadership. With the democratising of the workplace and *ubuntu* values on which community leadership is based, Ngambi (Meyer & Boninelli, 2004:130) states that it is through service to others that one becomes an effective leader.

Since the leadership theories and management practices contain coaching characteristics, the challenge for managers is to make the transition to becoming a coaching manager. A decade ago, the management styles were already changing to match the new coaching demands. Orth et al (1990:11) observed that managers who are most effective at developing employees have incorporated the skill of coaching into their management style. Lucas (1994:2) noted the following shifts in supervisory behaviour as outlined in table 2.9.

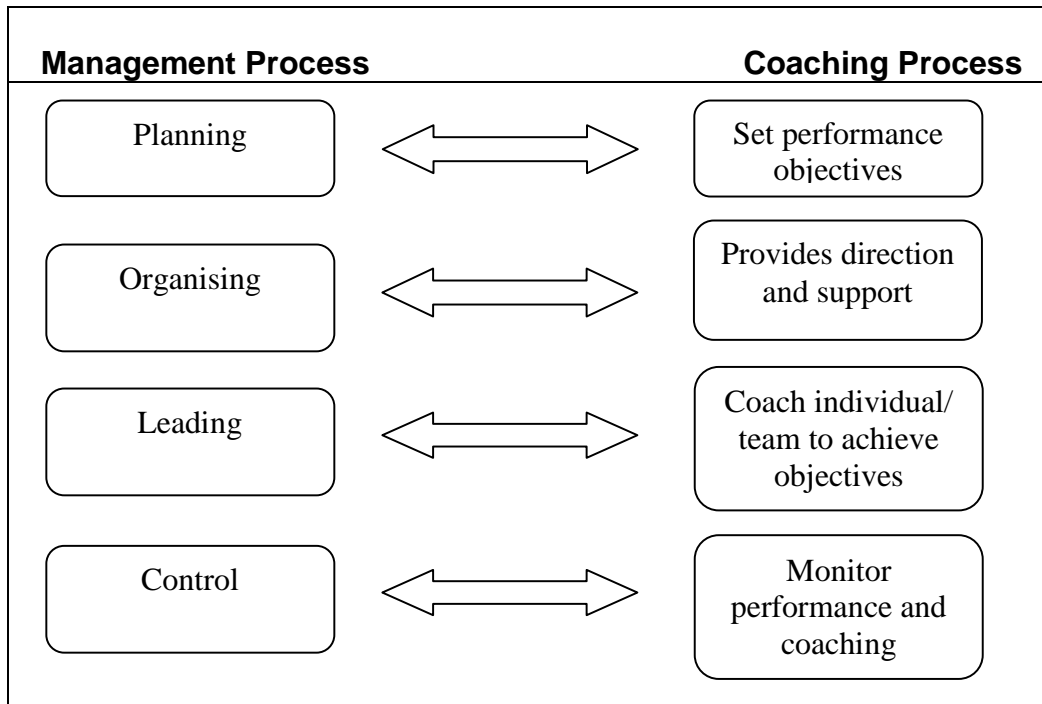
Table 2.9 Shifts in management behaviour

From	To
Directing	Guiding
Dictating	Participating
Delegating	Empowering
Telling	Listening
Planning	Consulting
Competitive	Co-operating
Non- risk taking	Risk taking
Focusing on bottom line	Focusing on people

Source: Lucas, 1994:2

Many of these new management competencies are at the heart of the coaching process. For Meyer and Fourie (2004:22), there is a strong interrelationship with the management functions and the coaching process. The phases of management and the interrelationship with coaching are outlined in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 Interrelationships between management and coaching.



Source: Meyer & Fourie, 2004:22

In terms of the above management processes, managers are responsible for the following functions:

- Planning – includes establishing strategy, setting of objectives, developing plans
- Organising – determines where decisions are made, what tasks are to be done and by whom (delegates tasks)
- Leading – ability to keep people focused and motivated in order to implement plans
- Control – monitor the actions of people to ensure the goals are achieved

As far as coaching is concerned, Meyer and Fourie (2004:23) believe that coaching skills are utilised in all phases of management:

- Planning – the coach facilitates setting of performance objectives and gives direction during the problem solving process

- Organising – the coach provides direction during the problem solving process, allocates learning tasks and ensures necessary resources are acquired
- Leading – the coach has the ability to inspire people to achieve the objectives of the organisation
- Controlling – the coach monitors performance against set standards

The new world of work requires managers to be coaches. Traditionally, coaching was viewed as one of the lesser responsibilities of a manager. Over the past twenty years, with more emphasis being placed on the leadership role of managers, coaching has emerged as being the glue that binds leadership activities with the manager's result orientation (Bennett, 2007:56-58). Essentially, it is a management/leadership style whereby managers use a coaching approach in their day-to-day practices of people management and development. The coaching manager's primary focus is on improving and developing employee performance.

In Table 2.10, Meyer and Fourie (2004:24) clearly indicate the new role of managers as coaches rather than the traditional manager role as controller.

Table 2.10 The shifting role of the manager: From controller to coach

Manager as Controller	Manager as a Coach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The manager sets objectives for the team to achieve 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The coach helps the team to set mutual objectives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The manager compiles a plan to be executed by employees 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The team compiles the plan jointly, while the coach facilitates the process
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The manager closely supervises the work of employees 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The coach works with the team and only checks work when it is really necessary
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The manager is automatically the chairperson of the meeting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any employee who takes ownership of a particular project can be the chairperson of a meeting
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees get into trouble when they make a mistake 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mistakes are seen as learning opportunities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scientists or specialists are responsible for innovation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees are encouraged to be innovators
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The purpose of control is to discipline employees 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The purpose of control is to ensure that objectives are achieved
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The major form of communication is top-down 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All lines of communication are open
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees are blamed for defects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The source of defects is a system or process not working properly
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managerial control lies in power 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managerial control lies in empowerment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information is the prerogative of management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees have access to information
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management makes decisions on their own 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees are empowered to make their own decisions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The hierarchy emphasises position and status 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A flat structure emphasises vertical and horizontal co-operation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management is about execution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coaching is about development

Source: Meyer & Fourie, 2004:24

In a similar vein, Zeuss and Skiffington (2002:38) also indicates the new “humanistic” role of the coaching manager in Table 2.11

Table 2.11 The shifting role of management behaviour.

Traditional Management Role	New coaching manager role
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Directs and controls • Focuses on organisation's goals • Directs operations • Derives power from position in organisation • Management makes decisions • Focus on what is wrong • Leads from the top • Maintains existing organisation culture • Results orientated • Tells 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empowers others to accomplish results • Align the individual's goals with those of the organisation • Collaborates on strategies • Personal power derived from coaching relationship • Responsible for own commitments and decisions • Emphasis development and future possibilities • Develops their team to lead • Encourages creative thinking and challenges status quo • People orientated • Listens, questions, supports and collaborates

Source: Adapted from Zeus & Skiffington, 2002:39-41

On analysis of the above behaviours, it is clear that the coaching manager has a high concern for both people and results. The coaching competencies of collaborating, motivating (empowering), developing (learning), creative thinking (problem solving), listening, questioning and supporting (helping) have already been identified as core competencies in the literature review.

As management practices and values move away from command and control, the model of coaching manager has evolved. Coaching managers are concerned with mainly improving individual and team performance. According to Buys (2007:14), coaching managers are able to help team members improve their performance by building their understanding about:

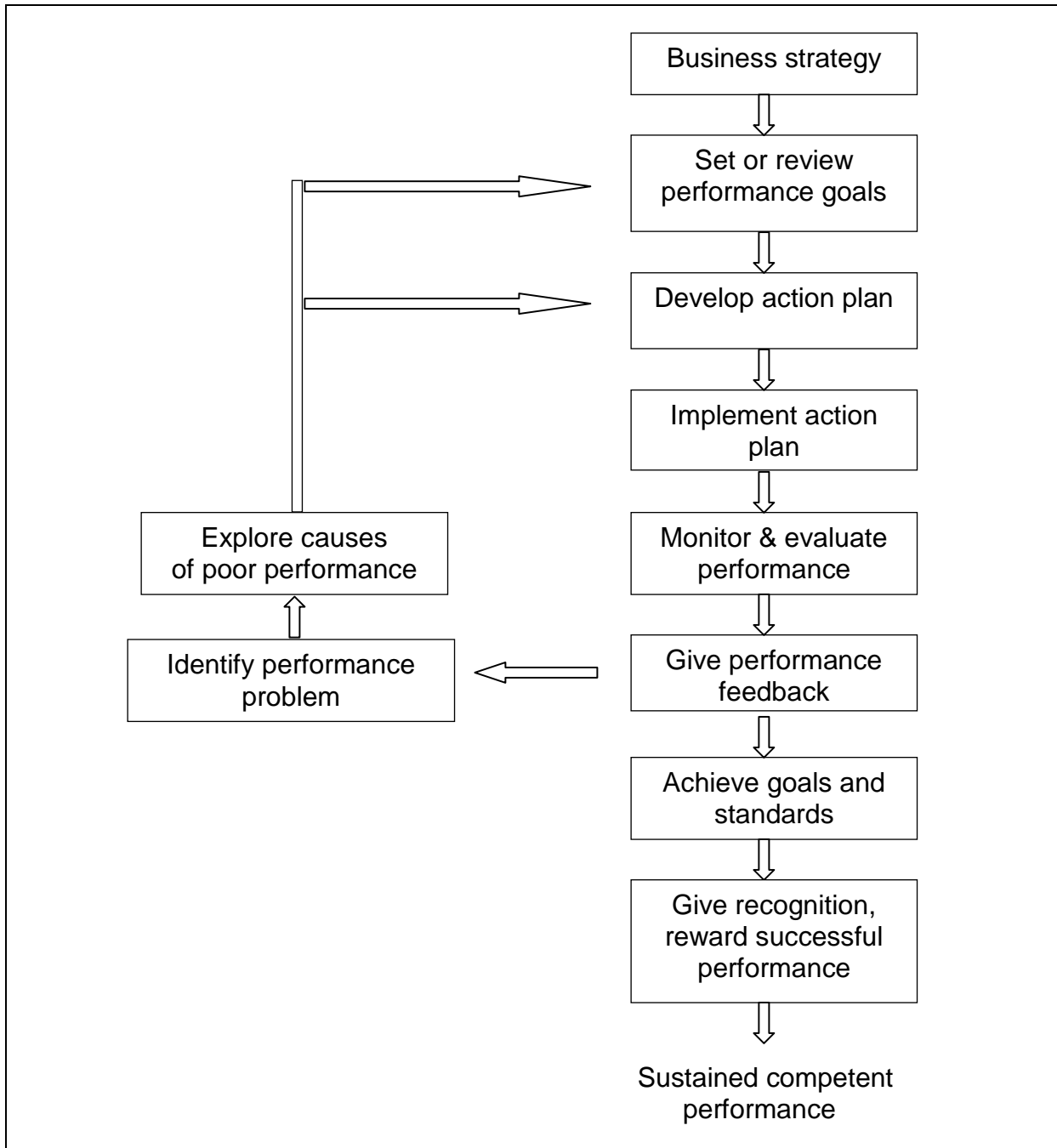
- What effective performance looks like
- How to achieve effective performance
- What skills are required to perform

- What methods of problem solving help
- How to build competence for the future

Coaching helps managers recognise new competencies that they and their employees need to be learning. Further, coaching aids in developing personal responsibility. The coaching process inculcates a style of thinking that raises the quality of problem solving and decision-making and enables participants to start “self-coaching” (Oliviera, Bane & Kopelman, 1997:461). As team members learn to self-coach, their dependence on managers for answer diminishes.

Gaskell (2008:16) argues that coaching interventions will be effective when aligned to the business goals of organisation. It is the researcher’s belief that workplace coaching should be integrated into the organisation’s performance management system. Performance appraisal programmes hardly ever enjoy full support from employees in general. In order for performance management to be effective, it must be line-driven rather than personnel department-driven (Nel et al 2001:516). Performance management systems are increasingly seen as the way to manage employee performance rather than relying on the traditional appraisal alone (Torrington & Hall, 1995:327). Providing feedback should be used for developmental purposes rather than for summative evaluation purposes. Research indicates that performance is much less likely to improve after receiving a summative evaluation and more likely to improve when using formative assessment that is focused around helping the employees (Huston & Weaver, 2008:12). In addressing the link between management and performance, the following performance management process is proposed:

Figure 2.3: Performance management process



Organisations set strategic goals which must be filtered down to departments and individuals. The manager and subordinate meet and collaborate how the department and the employee must adapt the organisation's strategic goals. The manager and subordinate agree on an action plan to achieve the

individual's goals. Katz (1995:38) states that interim progress reviews and coaching meetings are key elements in monitoring an employee's performance. If agreed upon objectives and performance standards are achieved, the manager gives performance feedback and recognition in order to sustain competent performance. When a performance gap is identified, the coaching manager facilitates the problem solving process identified in section 2.3.2 of the literature review in order to achieve competent performance.

From the previous discussion, it is clear that there is a strong link between management/leadership and coaching – the new world of work requires managers to be coaches. Many managers still resist the change that coaching represents (see barriers to coaching in section 2:6). What is needed is a responsible, empowered, freethinking workforce where all the players are committed to collaborating, achieving objectives and seeking growth and new possibilities (Zeuss & Skiffington, 2002:43). The old style of `command and control` has clearly outlived its usefulness. Coaching lies at the heart of management, not on the edges. The coaching manager style encourages a move from the authoritative and direction approach to one of facilitation and collaboration. In addition, workplace coaching should be linked or integrated into the organisation's performance management system. Research in South Africa indicates a 64% increase in productivity after internal coaching was introduced over a period of one year (Price, 2006:63). In the light of the obvious benefits of coaching, the challenge for managers is to become coaching managers.

2.10 THE COACHING MANAGER AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The purpose of this section is to define emotional intelligence (EI) and to discuss the link between emotional intelligence, coaching and leadership. Emotional intelligence refers to an assortment of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2006:96). Since EI are skills and competencies, they can be learnt.

Recently there has been increased research into the concept of EI. The impetus came from the recognition that some people in management positions with a high IQ and a wide range of management competencies are still relatively unsuccessful (Hughes, 2003:105). It now seems quite possible that one of the missing ingredients towards their success includes a range of factors loosely headed "emotional intelligence/competence". Various authors have produced definitions and lists of EI components.

Coleman's broad definition of EI conceptualises EI as consisting of five elements and their related competencies (Meyer & Botha, 2000:435):

- Self-awareness – recognising one's emotions, knowing one's strengths and weaknesses, self-confidence
- Self-regulation – controlling one's emotions, trustworthiness, flexibility in handling change, conscientiousness, innovation
- Motivation – ability to facilitate the movement towards reaching of goals, achievement orientation, commitment, optimism, initiative
- Empathy – understanding of other's feelings, needs and concerns, developing others, service orientation
- Social skills – communication, wielding influence, change catalyst, building relationships, collaboration and cooperation, team builder, inspirational leadership

Thus individuals with high levels of EI have a clearer sense of who they are, are better able to manage their own feelings, have relatively high levels of personal motivation, are able to empathise with others and are socially skillful. Self-awareness, self-management and motivation are personal competencies as they determine how we manage ourselves. Conversely, empathy and social skills are social competencies as they determine how we handle relationships with others.

Wolmarans (Meyer & Boninelli, 2004:232) scanned the literature of twenty writers in the field of EI. The emotional competences found to have the highest frequency are ranked as follows:

1. Self-awareness
2. Self-confidence
3. Adaptability, flexibility
4. Empathy
5. Influence
6. Emotional control, building relationships, integrity or trustworthiness, awareness of others emotions, cooperation

Wolmarans' list of emotional competencies is similar to Coleman's elements of EI. Further, there is also a great deal of overlapping with the core coaching competencies identified earlier in section 2.3 of the literature review. The five core coaching values identified in the literature review can be located in the two lists of emotional competencies (empathy, trustworthiness, developing others [learning], service orientation [helping] and collaboration). Likewise, there are emotional competencies that are similar to the core coaching skills identified in the literature review (self-awareness [reflection, feedback], social skills [listening, asking questions] and motivation). Only problem solving is absent from the list of EI competencies since solving problems is a cognitive skill.

According to Hunt and Weintraub (2002:9) self-assessment, particularly when coupled with feedback, improves self-awareness. The ability to see oneself

clearly helps one to comprehend and adjust for one's strengths and weaknesses. Further, self-assessment represents the foundation of learning – one has to be personally aware of one's own performance and of the gap between that performance and desired performance (Hunt & Weintraub, 2002:26). The coaching manager gathers performance data, asks questions and gives feedback that will help the employee to self-assess their performance. Performance analysis is the first stage of the problem solving process. Thus performance coaching relies heavily on the idea that learning requires personal reflection and self-assessment on the part of the employee. We saw earlier that reflection was one of the stages of Kolb's experiential learning cycle.

Beyond self-awareness, coaching offers the opportunity to help build EI in other ways as well. It takes self-regulation for a coaching manager to manage their emotions, to exercise restraint and not volunteer to solve the performance problem for the employee. Motivation can take the form of encouragement and support for the employee's progress. Finally, coaching managers show empathy in their dealings with their employees and they are socially skillful in building relationships.

Following a qualitative investigation into the views and opinions of major stakeholders on the competencies of a team coach, Maritz (2006:58) established that EI is a prerequisite for effective team coaching. Her research indicated that self-awareness, self-regulation, effective communication, optimum change and efficient problem solving are paramount competencies for a team coach. It is interesting to note that Maritz included cognitive skills (problem solving) in the elements of EI. In our earlier definition, EI was defined as an assortment of non-cognitive competencies.

David Coleman has written several publications that focus on EI in the workplace. Coleman reviewed 500 organisations worldwide and concluded that

people who score high on the five measures of EI are more likely to be effective in their work, regardless of their jobs (Murray, 1998:3). Further, he claimed that EI matters twice as much as technical and cognitive skills for 'star' performers and that EI can be learned. The evidence indicates that the higher the rank of a person considered to be a star performer, the more EI capabilities surface as the reason for his or her effectiveness (Odendaal & Roodt, 2006:254). Coleman suggests that for those in leadership positions, 85 percent of the competencies are in the EI domain (Weiss, 2003:11). A study conducted by Palmer, Walls, Burgess and Stough (2001:9) found a significant correlation between the emotional intelligence subscales and transformational leadership. These studies imply that emotion based competencies are critical for effective leadership.

To summarise, EI is a learned capacity that results in enhanced job performance at work. Coleman suggests that EI consists of personal competence that determines how we manage ourselves and social competence that determines how we manage relationships. The research to date indicates that employees who score high on measures of EI are likely to be much more effective in their work, especially those in leadership positions. EI appears to be especially relevant in those jobs that require a high degree of social interaction. This is what leadership and coaching is all about. Since most of the core coaching competencies from the literature review can be located in the EI domain, it would seem that the possession of EI competencies is a prerequisite for the coaching manager.

2.11 IDENTIFYING THE CORE COACHING COMPETENCIES

In terms of the literature review, coaching covers a broad range of competencies that are spread across the field of performance coaching, progressive management practices, adult learning, emotional intelligence, human resource

and leadership development, etc. The literature trawl focused on the threefold competence structure based on Meyer's definition of competence:

- Value competencies (personal competencies or characteristics)
- Knowledge competencies (knowledge coaching practices)
- Skills competencies (behavioural competencies)

Lane (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004:58) adopted a similar approach in a quantitative study of mentor competencies. Her study began by looking at the vast array of literature on the activities of mentors and at the underpinning skills, abilities and knowledge for effective competence. She divided the list of potential competencies into two groups: behavioural competencies (practical "doing" type approach) and personal competencies ("being" type approach). For the purpose of this study, we have added knowledge competencies to Lane's twofold competence structure.

The value, knowledge and skills frequency count tables (Table 2.3, 2.5, 2.7, 2.8) from section 2.3 of the literature review will be used to identify the most frequently used competencies. While in theory a clear distinction is made between values, knowledge and skills, it is evident from the literature review that there is a great deal of duplication between the three sets of competencies. The core competencies identified in this section will be used as a foundation for developing the research propositions for constructing the data collection instrument.

2.11.1 Value competencies

At the outset, it was acknowledged that it is difficult to quantify the frequency with which coaching values occur in the literature review. There was a great deal of overlapping of the value competencies in section 2.3 of the literature review. The frequency of mention of values in Tables 2.3, 2.5 and 2.7 will be used to establish the most frequently mentioned values in coaching literature. Table 2.12

reflects the overall ranking of core value competencies identified in section 2.3 of the literature review.

Table 2.12 Overall ranking of core value competencies identified in the literature review.

Coaching Values	Value Frequency (Table 2.3)	Knowledge Frequency (Table 2.5)	Skill Frequency (Table 2.7)	Total Frequency	Overall Ranking
Building Trust	14	2	3	19	1
Collaborating	7	7	3	17	2
Helping	6	3	7	16	3
Empathy	6	-	6	12	4
Learning	3	2	2	7	5
Patience	3	-	-	3	6

These six core values will be used to focus the discussion in this section. The purpose of these values is to help the coaching managers to establish rapport with employees and to develop a supportive coaching culture. By way of integrating the competencies highlighted throughout the literature review, each of the above values will be related to the appropriate section(s) in the wider literature review.

Trust

Building trust was rated the most frequently used value in section 2.3 of the literature review. In section 2.7, the ICF and COMENSA have identified trust as a core competency in building rapport. Sheppard et al (2006:12) are of the opinion that relationships begin by communicating and establishing trust. Since performance coaching is essentially a helping relationship between the manager and coachee, the coaching manager must first build a trust relationship with the employee before attempting to solve performance problems.

Collaborating

Collaborating received the second highest frequency rating. Since the main focus of on-the-job coaching is to solve performance problems, the coaching manager and employee collaborate and form a partnership during the problem solving process. In section 2.9, we noted a shift in management style from directing and controlling to participating, empowering and consulting.

Helping others

By way of the definition of coaching in section 2.2.1, at the heart of the coaching process is the helping relationship between manager and the employee. In the summary of value competencies in Table 2.2, six of the seven authors acknowledge this enabling value as a core value. In section 2.9, we noted the concept of servant leadership and the growing popularity of applying ubuntu values in the work place. Thus the coaching manager's behaviour is centered on enabling principles.

Empathy

In the literature review summary of the coaching competences in Table 2.10, empathy is reflected as both a value and a skill. Some writers (Zeuss & Skiffington, 2002:124) view empathy not so much as a social skill but more as an attitude of responding with genuine care and lack of judgement. For convenience sake, empathy will be retained as a value competency. Earlier in section 2.10, we also noted how empathy is a core element of emotional intelligence. Further, the transformational model of leadership (section 2.9) advocates individual consideration by paying attention to the person's needs. Through empathy, coaching managers have the ability to put themselves in the shoes of their employees in order to understand how their employees feel and experience problems in life and work.

Learning

Learning was the second lowest ranked value (5th). We have noted from the various definitions of coaching that coaching provides work-based learning opportunities. In section 2.8, we observed that the primary responsibility of a manager is to create and foster a coaching climate that promotes learning by applying adult learning principles, providing experiential learning opportunities and promoting the characteristics of a learning organisation. The best learning does not take place in the training room but on-the-job where more relevant work issues can be focussed on. In section 2.9, the transformational approach to leadership also promoted intellectual stimulation and commitment to continuous growth. Lifelong learning has become a way of life in organisations.

Patience

Patience obtained the lowest frequency count and was ranked last in section 2.3 of the literature review. While patience is no doubt an important value in the general ambit of professional coaching, it is the writer's impression that patience is not a core-competency for on-the-job coaching. This observation was also confirmed by Fourie (2006) in a paper delivered at the 5th Annual Coaching and Mentoring Conference in Johannesburg.

The five core coaching values identified in the literature review with the highest frequency count are ranked from highest to lowest as follows:

- building trust, collaborating, helping, empathetic understanding and interest in learning

2.11.2 Knowledge Competencies

In section 2.3.2, of the literature review, Table 2.5 identified six knowledge competencies with the highest frequency. However, these knowledge competencies also appear in the skills dimension of competence. Knowledge competencies were combined with the skills competencies in section 2.3.3 of the

literature review and will be discussed in the next section. However, we should not forget that one of the specific outcomes of the SAQA unit standard for `on-the-job coaching` in section 2.7.2 stipulates communicating theory and knowledge associated with the coaching session. It is therefore vital that the coach be familiar with concepts and theories associated with the coaching skills.

2.11.3 Skills competencies

In section 2.3.3 of the literature review, the coaching skills were reduced to six core skills. The frequency counts for the skills competencies (table 2.7) and the knowledge competencies (table 2.5) were added together to obtain a combined score for each competency in Table 2.8. The overall ranking of the knowledge and skills competencies, from highest to lowest, is as follows: solving problems, active listening, giving feedback, effective questioning, motivating and reflecting.

Solving Problems

The ability to solve performance problems received the highest combined frequency count. Managers are responsible for setting goals and performance standards. Whenever these goals or performance standards are not met, a performance problem exists. We noted in section 2.3.2 of the literature review that problem solving is a structured process that follows a number of decision-making steps that may lead to solutions. Four of the eleven ICF competencies in section 2.7.1 relate to the problem solving process (creating awareness, designing action, planning and goal setting, managing progress). Further, in section 2.8 we observed that adults are pragmatic and that they learn best from engaging in problem-based experiential learning tasks.

Active listening

The ability to listen actively was ranked second. Eleven of the twelve authors in section 2.3.3 of the literature review indicated that the skill of listening was a core competency. In addition, active listening is one of the core competencies

of the ICF and COMENSA. Coaching is about empathetic listening. It is essential for the coach to listen before going into the problem-solving mode.

Giving feedback

Giving feedback emerged as the third strongest competency. The SAQA coaching unit standard in section 2.7.2 also identified giving honest feedback as one of the specific outcomes. It has been estimated that eighty percent of performance problems that occur in the workplace could be solved through the better use of feedback (Berry et al, 1995:58). The coaching-manager is able to give real-time feedback which is a key component of learning and development.

Effective questioning

Effective questioning was ranked fourth. Eight of the twelve authors in section 2.3.3 of the literature review indicated that the skill to question effectively was a core competency. Further, powerful questioning is also one of the core competencies of the ICF, COMENSA and the SAQA coaching unit standard. The ability to ask questions reveals valuable information for the coaching session. Questioning is a skill whereby the coach directs the coaching dialogue.

Motivating people

Motivating was ranked fifth out of six competencies. One of the functions of a manager is to lead, to influence employees in a positive manner toward achieving of goals. We note in section 2.9 that the transformational leader is an inspirational motivator who has the ability to inspire vision and create enthusiasm in others. Further, we observed in section 2.10 that motivation and the ability to influence are also components of emotional intelligence. In section 2.2.1 we noted that Robbins and De Cenzo (2005:78) define a coach as a manager who motivates, empowers and encourages his or her employees to improve their performance. Coaches should have a basic understanding of major motivational theories and be able to apply these motivational concepts in the workplace.

Reflecting

Reflecting emerged as the lowest ranked competency. We saw earlier in section 2.8 that reflective observation was one of the stages of Kolb's learning cycle. This is a time for the coach to think, to stand back and observe so as to gather as much information as possible before asking the employee questions. Posing thought provoking questions to the employees contributes to introspection, reflection and self-assessment. In section 2.7, we noted that creating awareness is an ICF coaching competency. Further, self-awareness is also an emotional intelligence competency.

The final list of consolidated core coaching knowledge and skills competencies is as follows: problem solving, active listening, giving feedback, effective questioning, motivating and reflecting.

2.12 SUMMARY

The manager's core responsibility is to get work done through people and to develop employees to enable them to reach their full potential. The traditional method of managing through control and close supervision simply do not work anymore. The literature review highlighted the need for managers to become coaching managers. In theory, this should be an easy transition since the review established a strong link between managing and performance coaching.

By definition, on-the-job coaching is a learning relationship between a manager and employee aimed at helping the employee solve performance problems. The main focus of the literature review was to identify the coaching values, knowledge and skills considered to be important for effective coaching. The core coaching values identified reflect an overriding attitude of helpfulness and collaboration. Both the knowledge and skills competencies focus on effective communication, problem solving and employee motivation. The ICF, SAQA and

COMENSA coaching standards have much in common with the above-mentioned coaching competencies.

Coaching managers are well positioned to take advantage of coaching moments on-the-job. Every day is full of potential coaching moments where something happens that creates an opportunity for learning. The multiple benefits of coaching should serve as a strong motivational tool for managers to make the transition to coaching managers. Unfortunately this is not to be found in practice as there are perceived barriers to coaching. South African managers stand accused of abdicating their coaching responsibilities.

A primary responsibility of management is to create a learning environment through the application of adult learning principles, providing experiential learning opportunities and promoting the characteristics of a learning organisation. The survey also revealed that managers who score high on measures of emotional intelligence tend to be much more effective in their work. The 'softer' people skills, ignored for so long by management, has become an essential competency for coaching managers.

The diverse range of competencies were clustered down to five values and six knowledge/skills competencies which will be used to form the basis to construct the research questionnaire and also to formulate the research propositions in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Insights obtained from the literature review enhanced and guided the research process. The eleven competencies identified in chapter two will be used to construct the data collection instrument. This chapter will also describe the type of research design, the sampling frame used and the approach used to collect and analyse the data. Tentative solutions to the research problem are posed in the form of three research propositions. Reliability and validity issues and the limitations of the study will also be discussed towards the end of the chapter.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design followed in the study is quantitative. A survey questionnaire will be used to gather data. According to Wellman and Kruger (2001:84), survey design is non-experimental research where there is no planned intervention and no random sampling. Further, this type of design is used when researchers want to illicit perceptions, opinions and beliefs of the respondents. Since the objective of the research project is to elicit opinions from a convenient sample of managers working for a public utility organisation, the survey method was deemed to be most desirable. The survey questionnaire was constructed from the eleven core coaching competencies benchmarked from the literature review. Since the research design is predominantly a quantitative study, descriptive statistics will be used to analyse the data.

3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING FRAME

The population refers to all the potential subjects who possess the attributes in which the researcher is interested in. In the case of this study, the research population comprised all coaching managers in the Eastern Cape area. The

primary goal of any sampling procedure is to obtain a representative sample of the population (Fink, 1995:1). Given the difficulties in establishing a sampling frame of all potential candidates, the type of sampling used was non-probability purposive sampling. According to Welman and Kruger (2001:63), purposive sampling is one of the most widely used methods of sampling whereby the researcher deliberately targets a unit of analysis that may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population.

A preferable sample size was considered to be more than 25 respondents, which according to Welman and Kruger (2001:64) is sufficiently large for meaningful analysis. The targeted unit of analysis for the survey consists of 72 managers who work for a national public utility organisation in the Eastern Cape (Patterson grade M1, 2, 3, & 4 bands: middle managers, junior managers, and senior supervisors). The organisation has a regional office in East London and branch offices that cover the Eastern Cape area. The organisation is considered to be a leader in the HRD field and a worthy model to benchmark coaching competencies. The managers have been exposed to leadership and coaching interventions. It is envisaged that the targeted unit of analysis will contain a well-qualified, heterogeneous group of managers who exhibit many of the coaching competencies identified in the literature review.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

The purpose of the research project is to develop a competency model for coaching success. Competencies work best when they become deeply ingrained in both the values of the organisation and in the performance that is expected of individuals. The tailoring best practices approach will be used to develop a competency profile for the public utility organisation. According to Weiss (2003: 95), this approach involves using an off-the-shelf competency model that lists the core competencies appropriate to effective managers in successful organisations. The literature review was used to identify the list of

coaching competencies used in best practices. To make the list of competencies more appropriate to the organisation, managers were asked to indicate which were the most appropriate competencies to their job.

The survey questionnaire was designed around the five value competencies and six knowledge/skill competencies which were clustered down from the literature review (section 2.11). The questionnaire consists of three sections (see Appendix B):

- Section A: Biographical information about respondents (gender, age, population group, qualifications, length of service and number of subordinates)
- Section B: Twenty five questions relating to the five core values and beliefs identified in the literature review (building trust, collaborating, helping, empathy and learning)
- Section C: Thirty six questions based on the six core knowledge and skills competencies identified in the literature review (problem solving, active listening, giving feedback, effective questioning, motivating and reflecting)

The use of structured questions ensured both the ease and comparability of responses. Each question attempted to give a short statement to help respondents to take a considered view before rating the level of importance of each competency. A five point Likert scale was used to measure the perceived importance of the eleven core competencies in section B & C of the questionnaire. The summative rating method used for the importance scale of options ranged from unimportant (one) to critically important (five). Respondents were invited to respond to each statement or question by marking the appropriate importance rating option that best reflected their views. One open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire was used to gain additional qualitative comments from the respondents. The questionnaire was designed to take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The questionnaire was pilot-tested on a convenience sample of 6 managers in academia. Based on the feedback received, some of the questions were either modified or deleted. Further, in an attempt to overcome socially desirable responses received on the importance scale of options, a second five-point Likert rating scale was added to measure the frequency of use of the competencies. The final version of the questionnaire is included in the research report under the heading Appendix B.

3.5 RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS

The objective of the research project is to answer the research question posed in chapter one:

- What are the core set of coaching values, knowledge and skills that underpin management practices amongst a sample of Eastern Cape managers?

In an attempt to answer this question, three research propositions have been developed based on the eleven core competencies identified in the previous chapter and the two rating scales formulated in this chapter.

Proposition one

- The following five value competencies are both important and are used frequently by managers for the on-the-job coaching: building trust, collaborating, helping, empathy and learning

Proposition two

- The following six knowledge and skills competencies are both important and are used frequently by managers for on-the-job coaching: problem solving, active listening, giving feedback, effective questioning, motivating and reflecting

Proposition three

- An overall coaching effectiveness profile can be constructed from the validation of proposition one and two.

The three research propositions will be tested in chapter five when the research results are interpreted.

3.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Reliability is concerned with consistency of results and validity with the purpose of measurement.

3.6.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which the obtained scores may be generalised to different measuring occasions and measurement administration (Welman & Kruger, 2001: 139). The following measures were used to enhance reliability:

- The questionnaire was pilot tested to detect possible flaws in development of the instrument. Modifications were made to the questionnaire (Section 4.4).
- The respondents were informed of the objectives of the research project by means of a covering letter (Appendix A).
- Standard instructions were used to administer the questionnaire by way of a covering letter and on the questionnaire (Appendices A & B).
- Managers could respond anonymously and all returned responses were treated confidentially.
- The internal consistency of responses was measured by Cronbach's coefficient alpha test to assess the degree of generalisability across the items in the questionnaire. Thus a statistical measure will be obtained to gauge the reproducibility of the questionnaire's data. Reliability of a measuring instrument can vary between 0 and 1.00. A reliability of 1.00 represents perfect reliability, while a reliability of 0.00 indicates no

reliability. A reliability of 0.80 or more is considered to be very good, while a reliability of 0.60 can be considered to be adequate. Consistent measurement or high reliability is an indication of accurate measurement.

3.6.2 Internal and external validity

Assessment is valid when it assesses what it claims to assess. In terms of internal validity, the questionnaire seems to have both content and face validity based on the item content. According to Rosnow and Rosenthal (1996:130), content validity involves a systematic examination of the questionnaire's content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of behaviour domain to be measured. The thorough literature search resulting in eleven core coaching competencies being identified ensured that all major coaching values and skills were covered in the question items. Further, the number of questions posed (61 in Section B & C) suggests that there are enough questions to cover the coaching domain adequately. Face validity is the extent to which a test seems on its surface to be measuring what it purports to measure, it pertains to whether the test "looks valid" to the respondents who take it (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996:406). Face validity is not validity in the technical sense, but concerns rapport and public relations. The questionnaire items are relevant and appropriate for managers since the questions use familiar management terms and behaviours.

External validity refers to the generalisability of research. Since the population sample is not random, it lacks external validity. Therefore, it follows that the findings of this research cannot be generalised. As this was an exploratory report, it provides a platform for further research in the field of performance coaching.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION

A series of meetings was conducted with two of the organisation's human resource managers in order to obtain permission to conduct the study. The human resource department was responsible for electronically mailing the questionnaire through the organisation's intranet to all managers in the Eastern Cape region. The questionnaire was distributed with covering letters from the organisation's human resource manager and the researcher explaining the purpose of the research, instructions for completion and return procedures (see Appendix A for the researcher's letter). The questionnaires were self-administered and returned directly to the organisation's human resources manager. Self-administered questionnaires have the advantage in that they are a relatively low-cost method of collecting information. In order to improve the response rate, a letter of reminder was sent at a later stage to urge respondents to participate in the study. Ethical values were not compromised. Individuals could respond anonymously and all returned responses were treated confidentially. A total of 72 questionnaires were emailed and 40 questionnaires were returned. A high response rate of 56% was achieved.

3.8 DATA ANALYSIS

Quantitative research techniques were used to analyse the data obtained from the biographical details and structured question sections. Content analysis was used to analyse the open-ended question.

3.8.1 Checking of questionnaires

All of the returned questionnaires were checked for completeness and errors. Two questionnaires had some biographical details missing. No questionnaires were discarded.

3.8.2 Coding of data

Coding was used to standardise the data so as to prepare the data for analysis. All the variables in the demographic and closed question section were given a numeric code and captured on a statistical programme so that the responses could be grouped into a limited number of categories. Content analysis was used for the analysis of the open-ended question. According to Welman and Kruger (2001:195), content analysis involves examining the contents of the open-ended question and to record the relative incidence (frequencies) of emerging themes. Key words and common themes were used to group the data into specific headings.

3.8.3 Data analysis method

A quantitative analysis of the data was used to generate demographic profiles and to identify the relative importance and frequency of use of the coaching competencies. Descriptive statistics were used to:

- Provide a visual presentation of the biographical variables (gender, age, population groups, qualification, service) in the form of pie charts and frequency tables.
- Rank the perceived importance and frequency of use of the eleven competencies by means of frequency distribution tables.

Where respondents were asked the open-ended question, the responses were analysed by means of content analysis. The qualitative data could not be measured and was categorised according to common themes or specific headings.

3.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The use of purposive sampling and small sampling size limits the researcher's ability to generalise the findings to the wider population since the sample selection is based entirely on the judgement of the researcher. Another researcher may be of the opinion that the targeted sample needs to be more representative. The data will be used to make tentative recommendations for on-the-job coaching. In addition, the questionnaire was self-administered. This meant that the managers were unable to clarify the issues that they may have been unsure of. This could have resulted in respondents misinterpreting the instructions or questions.

3.10 SUMMARY

The survey research design followed in the study was mainly from a quantitative paradigm. The measuring instrument was constructed from the eleven core coaching competencies identified in the literature review. The questionnaire was distributed through the organisation's intranet to a convenient sample of managers. The managers could respond anonymously and all returned responses were treated with the utmost confidentiality. The data was analysed by first coding the responses and a quantitative analysis followed through the use of descriptive statistics. Measures were taken to enhance reliability and validity. The limitations of the research were also discussed. The data obtained from the completed questionnaires will be coded and analysed in the next chapter. By following these steps in the research process, the researcher will be able to answer the research question in an appropriate manner. The three research propositions will be tested in chapter five when the research results are interpreted.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a design plan to obtain research participants and to collect information from them. This chapter focuses on the presentation and analysis of the data obtained.

A total of 72 questionnaires were distributed and 40 questionnaires were returned. The returned data was coded and captured on the statistical programme for social scientists. A pie chart and frequency tables were used to provide a visual presentation of the biographical variables. Frequency distribution tables were also used to profile the importance and frequency of use of eleven coaching competencies. The analyses of one closed and one open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire will complete the analysis of results. A reliability test was conducted to assess the internal consistency of responses.

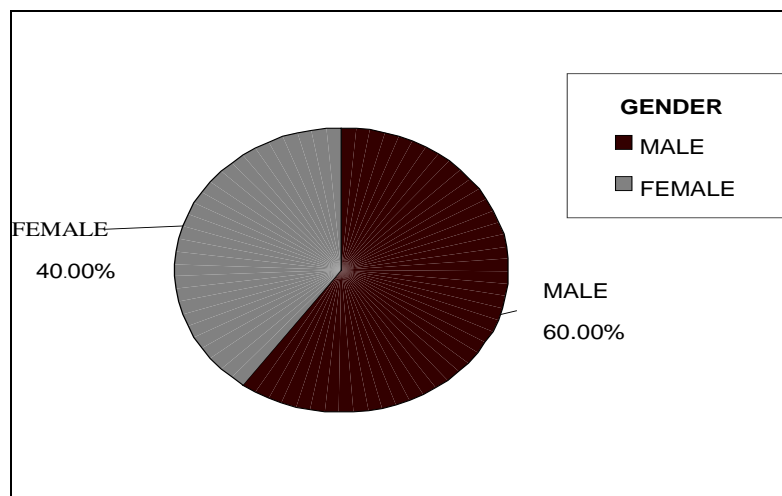
4.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

Section A of the questionnaire yielded biographical data with regards to the manager's gender, age, population group, qualification, length of service and number of subordinates (see Appendix B).

4.2.1 Gender of managers

The gender breakdown of respondents is depicted in figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Gender profile of respondents



Sixty percent of the respondents were male and 40% were female.

4.2.2 Age profile of managers

The age distribution is indicated in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Age profile of the respondents

Age Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
21-30	6	15.0	15.0
31-40	16	40.0	55.0
41-50	12	30.0	85.0
51-60	5	12.5	97.5
61+	1	2.5	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

It is evident from Table 4.1 that 70% of the respondents are within the 31-50 categories with the majority (40%) falling in the 31-40 year old category. The remaining 30% of respondents are divided equally between younger managers

in the 21-30 age group (15%) and managers older than fifty-one years (15%). Significantly most of the managers (55%) are younger than 40 years.

4.2.3 Population group of managers

Table 4.2 outlines the racial breakdowns of respondents.

Table 4.2 Racial breakdown of the respondents

Population Group	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
African	10	25.0	25.0
White	21	52.5	77.5
Coloured	6	15.0	92.5
Indian	3	7.5	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

More than half of the population groups were white respondents (52.5%). The second highest racial concentrations are black managers (25%) followed by coloured (15%) and Indian (7.5%) respondents.

4.2.4 Qualification of managers

The educational background of respondents are indicated in table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Qualifications of respondents

Qualification	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Grade 11	1	2.5	2.5
Senior Certificate	5	12.5	15.0
Diploma	11	27.5	42.5
Degree	12	30.0	72.5
B.Tech/Honours+	11	27.5	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

Eighty five percent of the managers have a tertiary qualification. Most of the managers have a first degree or diploma (57.5%) followed by B.Tech / Honours

qualifications on 27.5%. By contrast, only 15% of the respondents had a senior certificate or less.

4.2.5 Length of service of managers

Table 4.4 provides an outline of the length of service of respondents.

Table 4.4. Length of service of respondents

Service Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-5 years	11	27.5	27.5
6-10 years	10	25.0	52.5
11-15 years	3	7.5	60.0
16-20 years	7	17.5	77.5
21 years+	9	22.5	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

More than half of the managers (52.5%) have ten years or less service. The 0-5 years length of service category accounts for the highest percentage of respondents (27.5%). The 6-10 year category is the next highest service category (25%) followed by those in excess of 21 years service (22.5%). Managers with 11-15 years service (7.5%) are in the minority. Respondents with sixteen or more years service account for 40% of the managers.

4.2.6 Number of subordinates

Table 4.5 depicts the number of employees reporting to respondents.

Table 4.5. Number of employees reporting to respondents

Subordinate Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-2	12	30.0	30.0
3-5	12	30.0	60.0
6-8	5	12.5	72.5
9-11	5	12.5	85.0
12+	6	15.0	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

Sixty percent of the managers have five or less employees reporting to them. By contrast, 15% of the respondents had twelve or more subordinates reporting to them. Twenty five percent of the respondents have between six and eleven employees reporting to them.

4.3 IMPORTANCE RATING OF COACHING COMPETENCIES

Section B & C of the questionnaire consisted of 61 questions (see Appendix B). Section B consists of the first 25 questions designed to gather information on five core coaching values (building trust, collaborating, helping, empathy and learning). Section C depicts the last 36 questions in the survey designed to extract information on six competencies relating to coaching knowledge and skills (problem solving, active listening, giving feedback, effective questioning, motivating and reflecting). A five point rating scale was used to assess the perceived importance of the eleven coaching competencies. Frequency counts were conducted on the forty respondent's responses. The importance response ratings for each coaching competency will be summarised in eleven frequency tables.

Since the aim of the project is to identify the coaching competencies considered to be important for effective management performance, the critically important and relatively important rating scores will be added together to give a combined importance score. Finally, the coaching competencies will be rank ordered using the combined percentage score for critically important and relatively important ratings.

4.3.1 Value ratings

The first 25 questions of the questionnaire were designed to gather information on five core coaching values. Frequency counts were conducted on 200 responses obtained for each competency (five questions on each value

multiplied by forty respondents equals 200 responses). Frequency tables were compiled for each of the five values.

Table 4.6 provides information on the importance rating for helping.

Table 4.6 Importance rating of Helping

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	1	.5	.5
Relatively Unimportant	6	3.0	3.5
Neutral	17	8.5	12.0
Relatively Important	71	35.5	47.5
Critically Important	105	52.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

Managers gave the value of helping a combined importance score of 88%, which is comprised of 52.5% critically important responses and 35.5% relatively important responses. Helping received the second highest critical important rating (52.5%) of all competencies.

The importance rating of building trust is indicated in table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Importance rating of Building Trust

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	2	1.0	1.0
Relatively Unimportant	4	2.0	3.0
Neutral	15	7.5	10.5
Relatively Important	66	33.0	43.5
Critically Important	113	56.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

The value of building trust was also rated highly with a combined importance score of 89.5%. Trust received the highest critically important rating (56.5%) of all the competencies.

Table 4.8 outlines the importance rating of empathy.

Table 4.8 Importance rating of Empathy

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	4	2.0	2.0
Relatively Unimportant	4	2.0	4.0
Neutral	24	12.0	16.0
Relatively Important	91	45.5	61.5
Critically Important	77	38.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

A combined importance score of 84% was recorded for empathy. Of the five values, empathy received the lowest critical importance rating (38.5%) and combined rating (84%).

The importance rating of learning is indicated in table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9 Importance rating of Learning

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	2	1.0	1.0
Relatively Unimportant	3	1.5	2.5
Neutral	13	6.5	9.0
Relatively Important	93	46.5	55.5
Critically Important	89	44.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

A combined importance score of 91% was obtained for the value of learning. Although the combined percentage score is second highest, the relative importance score (46.5%) accounts for most of the combined score.

The importance rating of collaboration is depicted in table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Importance rating of Collaborating

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	1	.5	.5
Relatively Unimportant	4	2.0	2.5
Neutral	12	6.0	8.5
Relatively Important	92	46.0	54.5
Critically Important	91	45.5	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

The value of collaborating received the highest combined importance rating (91.5%) of all competencies. The relatively important (46.0%) and critically important scores (45.5%) are similar.

In general, the five value competencies scored highly with collaborating (91.5%) receiving the highest score and empathy (84%) receiving the lowest score. Trust (56.5%) and helping (52.5%) received the highest critically important ratings and were the only two values where the critically important scores were higher than the relatively important scores.

4.3.2 Knowledge and Skills ratings

The last 36 questions in the questionnaire were designed to gather information on six coaching competencies relating to coaching knowledge and skills. Frequency counts were conducted on 240 responses for each of the six competencies (six questions on each competency multiplied by 40 respondents equals 200 responses). Frequencies tables were compiled for each of the six competencies.

Table 4.11 indicates importance rating for active listening.

Table 4.11 Importance rating for Active Listening

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	2	.8	.8
Relatively Unimportant	10	4.2	5.0
Neutral	44	18.3	23.3
Relatively Important	92	38.3	61.7
Critically Important	92	38.3	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

A combined importance score of 76.6% was recorded for active listening which is the second lowest score for this section.

In table 4.12, the importance rating for effective questioning is recorded.

Table 4.12 Importance rating for Effective Questioning

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	0	0	0
Relatively Unimportant	9	3.8	3.8
Neutral	38	15.8	19.6
Relatively Important	101	42.1	61.7
Critically Important	92	38.3	100
Total	240	100.0	

A combined importance score of 80.4% was yielded for effective questioning.

The importance rating for reflecting is depicted in table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Importance rating for Reflecting

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	1	.4	.4
Relatively Unimportant	12	5.0	5.4
Neutral	46	19.2	24.6
Relatively Important	97	40.4	65.0
Critically Important	84	35.0	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

Reflecting received the lowest combined importance score of 75.4%

Table 4.14 outlines the importance rating of feedback.

Table 4.14 Importance rating of Feedback

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	1	.4	.4
Relatively Unimportant	7	2.9	3.3
Neutral	29	12.1	15.4
Relatively Important	107	44.6	60.0
Critically Important	96	40.0	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

Feedback responses were rated the third highest skill at a combined importance score of 84.6%. Feedback received the highest critically important rating (40.0%) of the six knowledge and skills competencies.

Table 4.15 provides information on importance rating of motivating.

Table 4.15 Importance rating of Motivating

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	1	.4	.4
Relatively Unimportant	3	1.3	1.7
Neutral	26	10.8	12.5
Relatively Important	118	49.2	61.7
Critically Important	92	38.3	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

The combined importance rating score of 87.5% was the second highest of the six competency scores.

The importance rating of problem solving is indicated in table 4.16.

Table 4.16 Importance rating of Problem Solving

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unimportant	3	1.3	1.3
Relatively Unimportant	1	.4	1.7
Neutral	23	9.6	11.3
Relatively Important	125	52.1	63.3
Critically Important	88	36.7	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

The importance rating of problem solving yielded the highest combined score of 88.8%. This is partly due to the high score of 52.1% for the relatively important rating.

In summary, the general scoring trend was that the knowledge and skills competencies received lower scores than the value competencies. Of the six knowledge and skills competencies, problem solving received the highest combined score of 88.8% and reflecting received the lowest score of 75.4%. The critically important ratings were either equal (active listening) or less than relatively important rating scores.

4.3.3 Coaching competency profile for importance ratings

The information contained in the eleven tables in section 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 is summarised in table 4.17. The five point rating scale that was used in the questionnaire will be used to record the frequency of responses (1= unimportant, 2= relatively unimportant, 3= neutral, 4= relatively important, 5= critically important). Thereafter the coaching competencies will be rank ordered from most to least important using the combined score obtained for critically important and relatively important responses.

Table 4.17: Ranking of coaching competencies in terms of importance ratings

Rank	Coaching Competencies	Value Knowledge & Skill	Frequency% for Importance scale					Combined Importance %
			1	2	3	4	5	
1	Collaborating	Value	.5	2.0	6.0	46.0	45.5	91.5
2	Learning	Value	1.0	1.5	6.5	46.5	44.5	91.0
3	Building Trust	Value	1.0	2.0	7.5	33.0	56.5	89.5
4	Problem solving	Knowledge & Skill	1.3	.4	9.6	52.1	36.7	88.8
5	Helping	Value	.5	3.0	8.5	35.5	52.5	88.0
6	Motivating	Knowledge & Skill	.4	1.3	10.8	49.2	38.3	87.5
7	Feedback	Knowledge & Skill	.4	2.9	12.1	44.6	40.0	84.6
8	Empathy	Value	2.0	2.0	12.0	45.5	38.5	84.0
9	Effective questioning	Knowledge & Skill	0	3.8	15.8	42.1	38.3	80.4
10	Active listening	Knowledge & Skill	.8	4.2	18.3	38.3	38.3	76.6
11	Reflecting	Knowledge & Skill	.4	5.0	19.2	40.4	35.0	75.4

From the above table, it is evident that the value competencies are ranked higher than the knowledge and skill competencies (1st, 2nd, 3rd, 5th, 8th). Of significance is that all of the eleven competencies received a high percentage score in excess of 75%. There is a 16% range in scores with the minimum score being 75.4% (Reflecting) and a maximum score of 91.5% (collaborating).

4.4 FREQUENCY OF USE RATING OF COACHING COMPETENCIES

Section B & C of the questionnaire consisted of 61 questions of which 25 questions gathered information on five core values and 36 questions yielded information on six competencies relating to coaching knowledge and skills. A five point rating scale (D=daily, W=weekly, M=monthly, Y=yearly, N=never) was used to assess the frequency of use of the eleven coaching competencies. Frequency counts were conducted on the responses and frequency tables were

compiled for each of the eleven competencies. The daily and weekly rating scores will be added together to give a combined frequency score. Further, the coaching competencies will be rank ordered using the combined score for the daily and weekly ratings.

4.4.1 Value ratings

The first 25 questions of the questionnaire gather information on five core coaching competencies. Frequency counts were conducted on the 200 responses received for each competency (five questions on each value multiplied by forty respondents equals 200 responses). Five frequency tables were compiled.

The frequency of use rating for helping is indicated in table 4.18 below.

Table 4.18 Frequency of use rating for Helping

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	109	54.5	54.5
Weekly	52	26.0	80.5
Monthly	30	15.0	95.5
Yearly	5	2.5	98.0
Never	4	2.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

Managers gave the value of helping a combined frequency score of 80.5%, which is comprised of 54.5% daily responses and 26.0% weekly responses.

The frequency of use rating for building trust is indicated in table 4.19.

Table 4.19 Frequency of use rating for Building Trust

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	132	66.0	66.0
Weekly	43	21.5	87.5
Monthly	21	10.5	98.0
Yearly	4	2.0	100.0
Never	0	0	0
Total	200	100.0	

The value of building trust continues to be highly rated by managers. A combined frequency of use score of 87.5% was recorded. Trust received the highest daily rating score (66%) of all competencies and also obtained the highest combined score (87.5%) of the five values.

Table 4.20 outlines the frequency of use rating for empathy.

Table 4.20 Frequency of use rating for Empathy

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	121	60.5	60.5
Weekly	44	22.0	82.5
Monthly	27	13.5	96.0
Yearly	4	2.0	98.0
Never	4	2.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

Empathy received a combined frequency of use score of 82.5%. Empathy was ranked behind trust with the second highest combined value rating.

The frequency of use rating for learning is depicted in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21 Frequency of use rating for Learning

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	95	47.5	47.5
Weekly	41	20.5	68.0
Monthly	43	21.5	89.5
Yearly	19	9.5	99.0
Never	2	1.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

Of the five values, learning received the lowest combined score of 68%.

Table 4.22 outlines the frequency of use rating for collaborating.

Table 4.22 Frequency of use rating for Collaborating

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	111	55.5	55.5
Weekly	47	23.5	79.0
Monthly	36	18.0	97.0
Yearly	4	2.0	99.0
Never	2	1.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

A combined frequency of use score of the 79% was obtained for the value of collaborating.

In general, the value competencies continue to be rated highly except for learning which received a relatively low score of 68%. The daily response option always received higher scores than the other response scales.

4.4.2 Knowledge and skills ratings

The last 36 questions of the survey were designed to gather information on six coaching knowledge and skills competencies. Frequency counts were conducted on 240 responses received for each of the competencies (six questions on each competency multiplied by forty respondents equals 240 responses). Six frequency tables were compiled.

Table 4.23 provides information on frequency of use for active listening.

Table 4.23 Frequency of use for Active Listening

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	152	63.3	63.3
Weekly	50	20.8	84.1
Monthly	33	13.8	97.9
Yearly	2	.8	98.8
Never	3	1.3	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

The skill of active listening received a combined frequency of use score of 84.1%. Active listening obtained the second highest combined rating score and the highest daily rating (63.3%) score in this section.

The frequency of use for effective questioning is indicated in table 4.24.

Table 4.24 Frequency of use for Effective Questioning

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	142	59.2	59.2
Weekly	70	29.2	88.4
Monthly	23	9.6	97.9
Yearly	2	.8	98.7
Never	3	1.3	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

A combined frequency score of 88.4% was recorded for effective questioning which is the highest score for all the competencies.

Table 4.25 outlines the frequency of use for reflecting.

Table 4.25 Frequency of use for Reflecting

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	112	46.7	46.7
Weekly	71	29.6	76.3
Monthly	54	22.5	98.8
Yearly	2	.8	99.6
Never	1	.4	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

Reflecting received a combined frequency score of 76.3 %. Reflecting received the highest weekly rating score (29.6%) of all competencies.

The frequency of use for feedback is depicted in table 4.26.

Table 4.26 Frequency of use for Feedback

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	125	52.1	52.1
Weekly	61	25.4	77.5
Monthly	50	20.8	98.3
Yearly	3	1.3	99.6
Never	1	.4	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

A combined frequency score of 77.5% was achieved for feedback which is the third highest frequency of use rating for knowledge and skills competencies.

The frequency of use rating for motivating is indicated in table 4.27.

Table 4.27 Frequency of use rating for Motivating

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	101	42.1	42.1
Weekly	65	27.1	69.2
Monthly	61	25.4	94.6
Yearly	10	4.2	98.8
Never	3	1.3	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

Of the six competencies in their section, motivating received the second lowest combined frequency score of 69.2%.

Table 4.28 outlines the frequency of use rating for problem solving.

Table 4.28 Frequency of use rating for Problem Solving

Rating Scale	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Daily	88	36.7	36.7
Weekly	67	27.9	64.6
Monthly	72	30.0	94.6
Yearly	10	4.2	98.8
Never	3	1.3	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

Problem solving received the lowest combined frequency score of 64.6%.

An interesting trend in section 4.4.1 and 4.4.2 is that the daily rating was used far more frequently than any of the other response ratings. The average daily use score for all the eleven competencies is 53.1%. Effective questioning received the highest combined score of 88.4% and problem solving received the lowest combined score of 64.6%.

4.4.3 Coaching competency profile for frequency of use ratings

The information contained in the eleven frequency tables in the previous two sections will be summarised into one frequency table. The coaching competencies will be ranked from most to least frequently used by using the combined scores for the daily and weekly responses.

Table 4.29 Ranking of coaching competencies in terms of frequency of use ratings

Rank	Coaching Competency	Value, Knowledge & Skill	Frequency %					Combined Frequency %
			Daily	Week	Month	Year	Never	
1	Effective questioning	Kn & Skill	59.2	29.2	9.6	.8	1.3	88.4
2	Building trust	Value	66.0	21.5	10.5	2.0	0	87.5
3	Listening	Kn & Skill	63.3	20.8	13.8	.8	1.3	84.1
4	Empathy	Value	60.5	22.0	13.5	2.0	2.0	82.5
5	Helping	Value	54.5	26.0	15.0	2.5	2.0	80.5
6	Collaborating	Value	55.5	23.5	18.0	2.0	1.0	79.0
7	Feedback	Kn & Skill	52.1	25.4	20.8	1.3	.4	77.5
8	Reflecting	Kn & Skill	46.7	29.6	22.5	.8	.4	76.3
9	Motivating	Kn & Skill	42.1	27.1	25.4	4.2	1.3	69.2
10	Learning	Value	47.5	20.5	21.5	9.5	1.0	68.0
11	Problem Solving	Kn & Skill	36.7	27.9	30.0	4.2	1.3	64.6

The ranking positions of the value and knowledge/skill competencies are fairly evenly dispersed. For ease of comparison, the information contained in the ranking of the coaching competencies in terms of frequency of use ratings (table 4.29) and importance ratings (table 4.17) is summarised in table 4.30.

Table 4.30 Summary of the overall ranking of coaching competencies in terms of frequency of use ratings and importance ratings

Coaching Competency	Value, Knowledge & Skills	Frequency of use Ranking (Table 4.29)	Combined Frequency %	Importance Ranking (Table 4.17)	Combined Frequency %
Effective Questioning	Knowledge & Skills	1	88.4	9	80.4
Trust	Value	2	87.5	3	89.5
Active Listening	Knowledge & Skills	3	84.1	10	76.6
Empathy	Value	4	82.5	8	84.0
Helping	Value	5	80.5	5	88.0
Collaborating	Value	6	79.0	1	91.5
Giving Feedback	Knowledge & Skills	7	77.5	7	84.6
Reflecting	Knowledge & Skills	8	76.3	11	75.4
Motivating	Knowledge & Skills	9	69.2	6	87.5
Learning	Value	10	68.0	2	91.0
Problem Solving	Knowledge & Skills	11	64.6	4	88.8

From the above table, it is evident that the knowledge/skill competencies have obtained a higher frequency of use ranking (table 4.29) when compared to the importance ranking depicted in table 4.17. Effective questioning (88.4%) and active listening (84.1%) are ranked first and third highest respectively. There is also a wider range of frequency of use scores (23.8%) ($88.4 - 64.6 = 23.8$) with problem solving obtaining the lowest score of 64.6% and effective questioning obtaining the highest score of 88.4%.

When the frequency of use and importance ranking positions are compared in table 4.30, there are only three competencies with similar rankings with one or less change in ranking position (helping, giving feedback and trust). With regards to the other competencies, there are significant changes in ranking positions with effective questioning and learning having eight position changes and active listening and problem solving having seven position changes.

Collaboration has five position changes followed by empathy (4), reflecting (3) and motivation (3).

4.5 OVERALL COACHING COMPETENCY PROFILE

The importance and frequency of use rankings from table 4.30 will be multiplied to get a combined score for each competency. Thereby the competencies that are important and happen frequently will be ranked higher than those competencies that are not as important and happen less frequently. The overall ranking of coaching competencies is depicted in table 4.31 below.

Table 4.31 Overall ranking of coaching competencies

Ranking	Coaching Competencies	Values, Knowledge & Skill	Combined Importance & Frequency of Use score
1	Building trust	Value	6
1	Collaborating	Value	6
3	Effective questioning	Knowledge & Skill	9
4	Learning	Value	20
5	Helping	Value	25
6	Active listening	Knowledge & Skill	30
7	Empathy	Value	32
8	Problem solving	Knowledge & Skill	44
9	Giving feedback	Knowledge & Skill	49
10	Motivating	Knowledge & Skill	54
11	Reflecting	Knowledge & Skill	88

It is evident that the value competencies are ranked higher than the knowledge and skills competencies (1st, 1st, 4th, 5th, & 7th). Four value competencies (building trust, collaborating, learning and helping) are ranked in the top five positions. Conversely, five knowledge and skill competencies are ranked in the last six positions (active listening 6th, problem solving 8th, feedback 9th, motivating 10th and reflecting 11th). Both building trust and collaborating received high rankings on the motivating and frequency of use scale while reflecting has consistently received relatively low ratings on the two rating scales.

4.6 TIME SPENT COACHING EMPLOYEES

After completing the importance and frequency of use rating of questions in sections B and C, managers were asked what percentage of their time they spent helping and empowering employees to improve their job performance. The time spent coaching employees is depicted in table 4.32.

Table 4.32 Time spent coaching employees

Percentage Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-10	5	12.5	12.5
11-20	8	20.0	32.5
21-30	7	17.5	50.0
31-40	6	15.0	65.0
41-50	3	7.5	72.5
51-60	5	12.5	85.0
61-70	4	10.0	95.0
71-80	2	5.0	100.0
Total	40	100.0	

It would appear that coaching is occurring on the job but to varying degrees, from a little time (1-10%) right through to most of the time (71-80%). The average time a respondent spends on coaching is 34.25%.

4.7 DESIRABLE CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD COACH

In the last question of the survey, managers were asked an open-ended question to illicit their perceptions regarding the desirable qualities or good characteristics of a coach. Only five respondents chose to answer this question. Their responses were then analysed using content analysis. A frequency of mention analysis was conducted but all the responses were different. The responses are listed below:

- Have mutual discussion with each staff member
- Set ground rules and targets
- Monitor work performance

- Analyse the reasons why things go wrong
- Set steps in place to correct the problem
- Give good feedback
- Appreciate and recognise your staff
- Reward your staff

The abovementioned responses highlight the importance of collaborating, problem solving, giving feedback, empathising and motivating during on-the-job coaching. All these competencies have been identified as core competencies in the literature review.

4.8 RELIABILITY

The internal consistency of responses was measured by Cronbach's coefficient alpha test to assess the degree of generalisation across the items in the questionnaire. A reliability coefficient of .8642 was achieved for the 122 questions which suggests a high degree of generalisability across the items in the questionnaire.

4.9 SUMMARY

The survey data was analysed and a description of the information derived from the recorded data. Frequency distribution tables were used to provide a visual presentation of the biographical variables and to profile the perceived importance and frequency of use of eleven coaching competencies. The competencies were rank ordered in terms of importance and frequency of use ratings. An overall coaching competency profile was constructed from the importance and frequency of use ratings. The last two questions in the questionnaire were analysed to establish the time managers spent coaching employees and to identify the desirable characteristics of a good coach. A reliability coefficient was also established for the questionnaire. The results presented in this chapter are interpreted and discussed further in chapter six.

CHAPTER 5: INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to interpret the meaning of the research results from the previous chapter and to determine the extent to which the three research propositions were answered. Findings surrounding the biographical profiles of the managers will be used to enhance the main findings of the research project. Each of the three propositions will be presented in turn and compared to the evidence resulting from the research findings. Thereafter a comparison to the relevant literature will be made.

By the end of the chapter, the researcher will be able to answer the research question posed in chapter one: “What are the core set of coaching values, knowledge and skills that underpin management practices amongst a sample of Eastern Cape managers?” In an attempt to answer this question, the three research propositions formulated in chapter three, will be examined.

5.2 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

A survey questionnaire was used to collect information on the biographical details of the managers and on eleven coaching competencies. A five point Likert scale was used to measure the perceived importance and frequency of use of the competencies.

In the sections that follow, the descriptive techniques used in the previous chapter will be used to interpret the biographical details and to assess the research propositions. With regards to reliability, the measuring instrument obtained a Cronbach alpha of 0,86, which confirms the high internal consistency of the responses of the scale. This suggests that the instrument is capable of consistently reflecting the same underlying constructs.

With regards to the spread of scores on the five point scale, the importance ratings are skewed to the left with that most of the respondents giving relatively important and critically important ratings. Conversely, the frequencies of use ratings are skewed to the right with most of the respondents giving daily or weekly frequency of use ratings. At this early stage of interpretation, the results seem to suggest that there is support for research proposition one and two (the value and knowledge/skill competencies are both important and are used frequently by the respondents).

5.3 INFLUENCE OF BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

In terms of selecting a unit of analysis, the research was conducted in a leading public utility organisation in the Eastern Cape that has progressive human resources and HRD policies and practices. The biographical profiles of the respondents suggest that the organisation is fairly heterogeneous in terms of gender, age, race, experience, etc.

Traditionally male managers in South Africa dominate the business environment. In terms of the gender breakdown, Figure 4.1 reflects that 40% of the respondents are female managers, which is a considerable improvement on the national norm.

In terms of the age profile of managers, Table 4.1 suggests a fairly even spread of respondents across the different age categories. Of significance is that most of the managers (55%) are younger than 40 years. Younger workers tend to be more flexible and adaptable to change than older workers. Further, more than half of the managers (52.5%) have less than ten years service. There appears to be an organisational strategy to recruit younger and less experienced managers in recent years. Also of significance is a large pool of potential mentors (22.5%) who have more than 20 years of experience to offer younger, less experienced workers.

The population groupings reflected in Table 4.2 are relatively diverse by South African work standards. These findings suggest that the organisation is implementing employment equity policies to correct the racial imbalances of the past and is moving towards reflecting the racial groupings of the country.

In terms of the qualifications of managers, Table 4.3 suggests that the respondents are well qualified with 85% of the respondents having a tertiary qualification. Since the majority of managers are relatively young and well qualified, this would suggest that the organisation has a large pool of managers who have the potential to learn and to adapt to new management practices.

In terms of number of subordinates reporting to managers, the information contained in Table 4.5 suggests that the span of control is low and is conducive to coaching. Sixty percent of the managers have five or less employees reporting to them.

With regards to time spent coaching employees, Table 4.32 suggests that the average manager spends a third of their time coaching employees. One of the barriers to coaching in section 2.4 was that managers do not want to make time to coach. In the absence of any comparative data, this figure would appear to be very encouraging.

In terms of the biographical variables and workforce diversity, the results suggest that the organisation is moving away from the norm of white elderly males occupying management positions. It would seem that the organisation is fairly heterogeneous in terms of gender, age, race, etc. The unit of analysis appears to be a worthy organisation to benchmark coaching competencies. These observations will enhance the main findings of the research project.

5.4 PROPOSITION ONE

The following five value competencies are both important and are used more frequently by managers for the on-the-job coaching: building trust, collaborating, helping, empathy, and learning

5.4.1 Evidence resulting from the research findings

Part of the findings from Table 4.30 are reproduced in Table 5.1 to reflect the rank ordering of the value competencies in terms of the importance and frequency of use ratings.

Table 5.1 Ranking of value competencies in terms of importance and frequency of use ratings.

Value Competency	Importance		Frequency of use		Difference in Ranking
	Frequency %	Ranking	Frequency %	Ranking	
Collaborating	91.5	1	79.0	6	5
Learning	91.0	2	68.0	10	8
Building trust	89.5	3	87.5	2	1
Helping	88.0	5	80.5	5	0
Empathy	84.0	8	82.5	4	4

In terms of the importance ratings, all five-value competencies received very high percentage scores. There is only a 7.5% range in scores with the maximum importance score being 91.5% (collaborating) and the minimum score being 84.0% (empathy). Further, out of the eleven coaching competencies surveyed, value competencies occupy the first three ranking positions. It is evident from these findings that the five value competencies are considered by the respondents to be very important to their job.

In a qualitative analysis of mentor competencies, Lane (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004:67) used the questionnaire method to survey functional (skills) and

personal (value) competencies of managers involved in mentoring relationships. Respondents were invited to rate the level of importance to effective mentoring. The range was a standard set from very important to no importance. Competencies that scored 70% or above at the “important” and “very important” rating were included in the model of mentor competence. For the purpose of interpreting the rating scores in this study, 70% and above will be used as a guide or frequency standard of acceptance. Since the lowest importance frequency score is 84% for empathy, the results can be accepted with confidence.

With regards to the frequency of use ratings of the value competencies, the findings suggest that the coaching values are used frequently on a daily or weekly basis. All five-value competencies also received relatively high percentage scores with building trust receiving the highest score of 87.5% and learning obtaining the lowest score of 68.0%. There is a wider range in scores (19.5%), which is mainly due to the lower score obtained for learning values (68.0%). Thus learning was the only competence that obtained a rating score slightly below the 70% level. The results can be accepted with confidence. Four of the value competencies are ranked in the top six positions and learning occupies tenth position.

In terms of the comparisons of ranking scores, building trust and helping are the only competencies where the importance and frequency of use rankings are fairly similar. There are significant differences in ranking positions of the other three competencies.

Collaborating and learning obtained a very high importance ranking but received a much lower frequency of use ranking. Collaborating seems to be highly valued by the managers (1st) yet the frequency of use on-the-job is lower (6th). One of the reasons for this ranking gap could be the different management style used by White and African managers respectively. In her research into

racial influences on leadership of attributes in South African managers, Booysen (2002:20) found considerable differences between black and white managers. Her investigation revealed that white South African managers are largely congruent with a Western management style, (assertive, individual, self sufficiency) and black managers are comparable to Afrocentric management (collectivism, collaboration, consensus). The fact that 53% of the unit of analysis are white managers could account the lower rating given to participative management.

With regards to the high importance ranking given to learning (2nd), the unit of analysis attaches a lot of importance to the training and development of their employees. Training and management development courses are conducted by internal facilitators and by external consultants. Further, many of the managers are sponsored to further their tertiary studies. It would seem that, while classroom training is highly valued, not enough theory is being transferred and applied to the work area. Coaching would be able to bridge this gap and provide on-the-job experiential learning opportunities.

Empathy also reflects a disparity in ranking positions. Empathy was considered less important (ranked 8th) by the respondents yet the frequency of use was ranked higher (4th). It would seem that the managers are responding to the employees' needs and concerns on-the-job yet they are not being acknowledged as being very important. Managers need to be made aware that leadership and emotional competency theories promote the importance of management concern for their employees.

All five-value competencies were considered to be important and are used frequently by managers for on-the-job coaching. Proposition one is therefore very well supported by the research findings.

5.4.2 Comparison with the literature review

The importance of value-centered leadership, learning organisation characteristics, emotional intelligence elements and ubuntu values were highlighted throughout the literature review. Effective leaders make choices based on core fundamental values or principles. According to Kinlaw (1996:24), coaching begins with a manager's values and not behaviour or skill.

The research findings reflect the main themes found in the literature review. Based on the value rankings in Table 2.12 of the literature review, a comparison is made with the value rankings as reflected in Table 4.31 of the research findings. Table 5.2 compares the ranking of the value competencies as reflected in the literature review and research findings.

Table 5.2 Ranking of values in terms of the literature review and research findings

Value Competency	Literature Review Ranking	Research Finding Ranking	Difference in ranking
Building trust	1	1	0
Collaborating	2	1	1
Helping	3	4	1
Empathy	4	5	1
Learning	5	3	2

At the outset, may it be acknowledged that it is difficult to quantify the frequency with which coaching values occur in the literature search. The literature review rankings above are based on the values proposed by the authors in section 2.3 of the literature review and thus do not reflect the full scope of the literature review. Nevertheless, four of the five values received fairly similar rankings.

Building trust and collaborating were deemed to be the most critical values in both the literature review and research finding. The high rating given to building trust is indeed an encouraging finding considering the general mistrust among the different races in the South Africa. Managerial effectiveness depends on the

ability to gain the trust of followers. Part of the coaching managers' task is working with the employees to find and solve problems. However, whether managers gain access to the knowledge and cooperation they need to solve problems depends on how much people trust them (Zand, 1997:89). Studies undertaken in Holland by Den Hartog, Schippers and Koopman (Bews, 2002:34) alert us to the relationship between trust and transformational leadership. In this respect they demonstrate a strong relationship between trust and two aspects of transformational leadership (individual consideration and idealised influence). In the earlier literature review, Meyer and Botha (2000:73) equate transformational leadership to coaching. Thus one of the core outcomes of the transformational leadership style is trust and personal understanding.

Since the main focus of on-the-job coaching is to solve performance problems, the coaching manager and employee collaborate and form a partnership during the problem solving process. According to Blanchard (2005:6), partnering for performance is one of three skills required for effective leadership. Developing a partnership between managers and employees to help improve performance is also a primary objective of coaching. Collaborative partnering means that the coaching manager and employee must work together to understand what needs to be changed (performance gap) and to set goals for change and follow up (Hunt & Weintraub, 2002:20). The outcome of an effective coaching relationship is better performing employees producing better results for the organisation.

The value of helping was ranked in the average range in both the literature review and in the research findings. By way of definition of coaching in section 2.2.1 of the literature review, central to the coaching process is the helping relationship between the manager and the employee. We also noted that the manager should have an overriding attitude of helpfulness (Hunt & Weintraub, 2002:42).

The surprise research finding was the higher ranking given to learning (3rd). In the previous section we noted that training and development opportunities are highly valued by the respondents. We have observed in the literature review that learning is central to the coaching and management process. Commitment to continuous growth and development is a high priority for coaching managers as it is viewed as a method of enhancing employee and organisational performance. The unit of analysis, in which the research was conducted, has made it a priority to implement diversity training and management development interventions. As an example, the organisation uses the ABC facilitation model to empower subordinates:

- A Build a trust relationship with your subordinates.
- B Help your employee to discover what the problem is.
- C Encourage and challenge the employee to choose a line of action.

Thus the facilitation process is built on the foundation of most of the values discussed in this section. In a cross-cultural analysis of work values, Hugo and van Vuuren (1996:18) found that black respondents placed greater emphasis than white respondents on development and growth. With regards to this study, 47.5% of the respondents were black managers who probably place a very high priority on growth and development.

Empathy received a relatively low ranking in both the literature review and research findings. This is understandable since we come from a management culture of over control and autocratic leadership with more concern for production than for people. As the work arena becomes more democratised, the empathy and ubuntu values will increasingly take root and become part of organisations' value statement and culture.

Since the research findings tend to support the main theme found in the literature review, one can make the assumption that the five value competencies are likely to be both important and used frequently by managers in the other leading organisations in the Eastern Cape who have progressive HRD practices.

It is recommended that organisations should have vision, mission, and value statements that reflect these core values. Since values are the foundation of organisational culture (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998:76), it would also be important for an organisation’s culture to be inclusive of these core values so as to promote a coaching friendly context.

5.5 PROPOSITION TWO

The following six knowledge and skills competencies are both important and used frequently by managers for on-the-job coaching: active listening, effective questioning, reflecting, giving feedback, motivating and problem solving.

5.5.1 Evidence resulting from the research findings

Some of the findings from Table 4.30 are reproduced in Table 5.3 to reflect the ranking of the knowledge and skill competencies based on the frequency percentage obtained for the importance and frequency of use ratings.

Table 5.3 Ranking of knowledge and skill competencies in terms of the importance and frequency of use ratings.

Knowledge and Skill Competency	Importance		Frequency of Use		Difference in Ranking
	Combined Frequency %	Ranking	Combined Frequency %	Ranking	
Problem solving	88.8	4	64.6	11	7
Motivating	87.5	6	69.2	9	3
Feedback	84.6	7	77.5	7	0
Questioning	80.4	9	88.3	1	8
Active listening	76.6	10	84.2	3	7
Reflecting	75.5	11	76.3	8	3

In terms of the important ratings, all six knowledge and skill competencies received high percentage scores in excess of 75%. There is a 13.3% range in

scores with the maximum combined score being 88.8% (problem solving) and the minimum score being 75.5% (reflecting). In terms of the overall ranking, the knowledge and skill competencies were ranked much lower than the value competencies. Even though the knowledge and skills competencies appear to be less important than the value competencies in terms of their ranking positions, cognisance should be taken of their relatively high frequency percentage scores (in excess of 75%). Since all the importance ratings are above the 70% standard of acceptance, the results can be accepted with confidence.

With regards to the frequency of use ratings of the knowledge and skills competencies, the findings suggest that these competencies are used frequently on a daily or weekly basis. All six knowledge and skills competencies received relatively high percentage scores with effective questioning receiving the highest score of 88.3% and problem solving receiving the lowest score of 64.6%. There is a much wider range in scores (23.7%), which is mainly due to the lower scores obtained for problem solving (64.6%) and motivating (69.2%). Thus problem solving was the only competence that obtained a rating score well below the 70% frequency standard. The results can be accepted with confidence except for the problem solving where further analysis is required. One of the strengths of this study is that two rating scales have been used to analyse the responses. Since problem solving obtained the highest importance rating (88.8%), the combined importance and frequency of use ratings in the coaching profile (proposition three) should give a more realistic interpretation of the strength of problem solving.

In terms of the comparison of ranking scores in Table 5.3, feedback (7th) is the only competency where the importance and frequency of use rankings are similar. There are significant differences in the ranking positions of the other five competencies.

Problem solving was considered to be important (4th) but the frequency of use was ranked much lower (11th). Thus there seems to be a high awareness of the importance of solving performance problems. However, this occurs less frequently on-the-job (daily, weekly and monthly ratings are similar). This could be a reflection of traditional performance appraisal practices of only formally assessing employee performance once or twice a year. Performance coaching is a much more “hands-on” approach of managing employee performance.

Motivating was ranked sixth in terms of importance and 9th in terms of frequency of use. With reference to the lower ratings given to problem solving and motivating on-the-job, one possible explanation is that the managers may consider their subordinates to be a fairly mature group who are both competent and committed to their work. In terms of situational leadership theory, a delegating, hands-off style will be used. Of course another explanation is that the respondents are not very helpful managers!

Conversely, effective questioning (9th) and active listening (10th) were considered less important but there is a very high frequency of use of these two factors (ranked 1st and 3rd respectively). It would appear that these two facilitation skills are well embedded in the respondent’s behaviour but they are not being acknowledged as being critically important. Similarly, reflecting obtained a higher frequency of use rating (8th) than importance rating (11th). It would seem then that the skill of reflecting is starting to take root in the respondents’ behaviour.

The evidence from the research findings suggests that five knowledge and skills competencies are both important and are used frequently by managers for on-the-job coaching. Proposition two is therefore well supported by the findings except for the problem solving frequency of use rating which required further analysis.

5.5.2 Comparisons with the literature review

The research findings reflect the main themes found in the literature review. Effective coaches need to have a sound understanding of the process of solving performance problems using key facilitation skills. In order to act on their values and knowledge, effective coaching managers must convert their understanding of coaching values and knowledge into practical coaching skills.

Based on the knowledge and skills ranking in Table 2.8 of the literature review, a comparison can be made with Table 4.31 of the research findings. Table 5.4 compares the ranking of the knowledge and skills competencies as reflected in the literature review and research findings.

Table 5.4 Ranking of knowledge and skills competencies in terms of the literature review and research findings

Knowledge and Skill Competency	Literature Review Ranking	Research Findings Ranking	Difference in Ranking
Solving problems	1	3	2
Active listening	2	2	0
Giving feedback	3	4	1
Effective questioning	4	1	3
Motivating	5	5	0
Reflecting	6	6	0

It was acknowledged earlier that it is difficult to quantify the frequency with which coaching knowledge and skills occur in the literature search. The literature review rankings are based on the frequency with which the knowledge and skill competencies were identified in section 2.3 of the literature review and thus do not reflect the full scope of the literature review.

Listening (2nd), giving feedback (3rd and 4th), motivating (5th) and reflecting (6th) received similar ratings. It would seem that one of the most critical competencies of a good coaching manager is the ability to listen to what others say. Eleven of

the twelve authors identified the skill of listening as a core competency in section 2.3.3 of the literature review. Listening leads to quality questions. Listening is the power behind coaching and gives the coaching manager the ability to ask powerful questions (Buys, 2007: 155). Further, Buys suggests that coaching managers should be trying to listen eighty percent of the time.

Giving feedback also received strong support from both the literature review and research findings. Providing feedback is a confrontation skill that is aimed at communicating to the employee what they did in a specific situation. According to Berry et al (1995:58), eighty percent of all performance problems that occur in the workplace could be solved through the better use of feedback. Providing accurate and helpful feedback helps the employee assess the gap between the desired and current performance and helps initiate corrective measures.

Motivating was ranked 5th out of six competencies. Motivational concepts (reinforce, affirm, challenging goals, inspire, reward, collaborate, delegate, empower, etc.) spans all sections of the literature review. With regards to the definition of coaching, both Holiday (2001:1) and Robbins and De Cenzo (2005:78) describe a coach as a manager who motivates, inspires and encourage their employees to improve their performance.

Reflecting was the lowest ranked knowledge and skills competency in both the literature review and in the research findings. In terms of Kolb's cycle of learning in section 2.8 of the literature review, reflective observation is used during the experiential learning process. This skill consists of watching, listening, asking questions and reviewing what has been done and experienced. It would appear then that the skill of listening, asking questions and giving feedback are part of the reflective process. All three of these competencies were ranked highly in both the literature review and the research findings.

Table 5.4 reflects that there are two knowledge and skill competencies where there is a discrepancy in ranking positions between the literature review and research findings. Problem solving was ranked first in the literature review and third in the research findings. The main reason for the high literature ranking is that problem solving is a generic competency that is composed of a number of micro competencies. Solving performance problems is a process that consists of a number of sequential steps. This is reflected in Table 2.8 of the literature review where problem solving received a very high frequency count (73). Using the problem-solving model enables a coaching manager to structure the coaching conversation and facilitate meaningful results.

Effective questioning has the biggest ranking discrepancy. Eight of the twelve writers in Table 2.3.3 of the literature review listed the specific skill of asking effective questions as a critical competency. Further, three of the other authors referred to the broader skills category of facilitating and communicating effectively. Since coaching is essentially a conversation between the manager and employee, the higher ranking obtained for effective questioning in the research finding would seem to be a more realistic ranking. Questioning is a competency whereby the coach directs the coaching dialogue through probing and reflective questions.

Thus the research findings tend to reflect the main focus in the literature review. In particular, there was alignment between the research findings and literature review rankings for listening, giving feedback, motivating and reflecting. One can make the assumption that these coaching competencies are likely to be both important and used frequently by managers in other leading organisations in the Eastern Cape area who have progressive HRD practices.

5.6 PROPOSITION THREE

An overall coaching effectiveness profile can be constructed from the validation of proposition one and two.

5.6.1 Evidence resulting from the research findings.

Proposition one was well supported by the findings. All five value competencies were considered to be important and are used frequently by managers. Proposition two was also well supported by the findings. All six knowledge and skills competencies were considered to be important and are used frequently by the respondents.

With regards to the overall ranking of the coaching competencies, the results from Table 4.31 of the research findings are reproduced in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Overall ranking of coaching competencies

Ranking	Coaching Competency	Values, Knowledge & Skill
1	Building trust	Value
2	Collaborating	Value
3	Effective questioning	Knowledge and skill
4	Learning	Value
5	Helping	Value
6	Active listening	Knowledge and skill
7	Empathy	Value
8	Problem solving	Knowledge and skill
9	Feedback	Knowledge and skill
10	Motivating	Knowledge and skill
11	Reflecting	Knowledge and skill

It was evident from Table 5.5 that the value competencies were ranked higher than the knowledge and skills competencies. All five of the value competencies are ranked in top seven positions. Conversely, knowledge and skills competencies occupy the last four ranking positions. This would seem to suggest that the core values are critical in developing rapport and a coaching

friendly environment so that the coaching skills can be used more effectively. A supportive coaching environment is necessary to promote the coaching process.

Since proposition one and two has been well supported by the findings, the eleven coaching competencies (five values, six knowledge and skills competencies) can be used to construct an overall coaching effectiveness framework. Proposition three is therefore accepted with confidence.

5.6.2 Comparison with literature review

We saw in sections 5.4.2 and 5.5.2 that the research findings tend to reflect the main themes found in the literature review. Some of the researchers who identified similar competency profiles will be reviewed.

The first three steps in Hunt and Weintraub's (2002:20) developmental model are value orientated. Managers are encouraged to create a coaching friendly context and instill values of helpfulness, trust, interest in learning and value their employees. Further, dialogue is started when the manager observes a coachable opportunity. The dialogue is enhanced through the skill of listening for understanding, asking questions, collaborating to solve the performance problem, reflecting and providing helpful feedback. Hunt and Weintraub's (2002: xviii) coaching model has been developed from feedback received from more than 2000 managers and executives who attended leadership and coaching programmes at Babson College in Wellesley, Massachusetts over a seven-year period.

For Hart (2003:5), rapport first must be established between the coach and coachee heart through the values of respect, openness (trust), caring, empathy and collaboration. Thereafter he identifies observable behaviours that promote these values (listening, questioning, reflecting, problem solving, affirming). In a similar vein, Chen (2004:3) identified the value of building trust and rapport and

using the skill of listening for understanding, giving effective feedback and motivating the employee to succeed.

Further, Warner (2003:8) has developed a coaching effectiveness profile which consists of seven competencies. Five of these competencies have been used in this research project (empathising ability, capacity to empower, listening skills, problem-solving ability and feedback skills).

In South Africa, there has been limited research on management coaching. The work of four authors will be reviewed. In her research into establishing the characteristics of an effective coaching relationship for managers, Robertson (2001:86) found that trust and openness were important in establishing the coaching relationship. Further, the skill of empowering, listening, questioning, and giving feedback were found to be important coaching competencies. In her research into executive coaching, Lester (2002:90) established that the characteristics of a good coach were establishing a trusting relationship (trust, competence and credibility), active listening, showing empathy and giving honest feedback.

Based on research, visits to international companies and their experience in South African organisations, Meyer and Fourie (2004) have compiled a competency profile for a mentor and a coach. The profile consists of three competency areas and fifty-one related micro competencies. The three competency areas and their related micro competencies, which are similar to this research project, are as follows:

- Values – behaviour guided by trust (honesty, integrity, openness, confidentiality), collaboration (co-operation, inclusiveness), empathy and learning
- Knowledge – understanding of leadership and the coaching process

- Skills – ability to listen actively, solve problems (analyse needs, compile action plans, facilitate improvement, evaluate performance), ask questions (confront, communicate effectively, interview) and give feedback

Meyer's three dimensions of competence were used as a basis for this research project to launch the literature review and construct the survey questionnaire.

Based on research and consulting experience in South Africa organisations since 2002, Buys (2007:i-iv) has developed seven basic keys for effective coaching managers. All seven of these competencies were identified in this research study:

- Building rapport and trust
- Models and structures (e.g. problem solving)
- Listening
- Effective questioning
- Confronting (giving feedback)
- Goal setting (problem solving)
- Developing an action plan (problem solving)

The competency profiles reviewed in this section and the research findings concur that there are three basic elements necessary for performance coaching:

- Values that promote rapport and a coaching friendly environment
- Knowledge and understanding of a coaching model or problem solving process
- Facilitation skills that are necessary to solve performance problems

These three elements will be used to construct a coaching model in the next chapter.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The biographical profiles of the respondents suggest that the organisation is fairly heterogeneous and progressive in terms of employment equity measures. The unit of analysis appears to be a worthy organisation to benchmark coaching competencies. Thus the findings surrounding the biographical profiles of the respondents have enhanced the main findings of the research.

Each proposition was examined in turn and compared with the evidence resulting from the research findings. Proposition one, two and three have been well supported by the research finding and literature review. The three propositions are therefore accepted with confidence.

Proposition one established that the values of building trust, collaborating, learning, helping and empathy are both important and are used frequently by coaching managers. It is recommended that these core values be aligned to the organisation's mission and value statements.

Proposition two confirmed that coaching managers must have both the knowledge and the ability to listen actively, ask effective questions, give feedback, motivate employees, reflect and solve performance problems.

Since proposition one and two were confirmed, an overall coaching profile was constructed from the five value competencies from proposition one and from the six knowledge and skills competencies from proposition two.

Based on the research findings from this chapter, the next chapter will make recommendations for a coaching model for managers and focus on the value of the study.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to address four matters. The first is to summarise the key findings from the literature review and the research findings. The findings from the previous chapter confirmed that the eleven coaching competencies benchmarked in the literature review also underpin the management practices amongst a sample of Eastern Cape managers. The second aspect is to develop a coaching competency model for managers from the eleven coaching competencies. The third matter focuses on the value of the research study and the last section assesses the limitations of the study and presents suggestions for future research.

Thus this chapter will present an overview of the research study. It is envisaged that these research findings and recommendations will add to the body of knowledge surrounding performance coaching in the workplace.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The first observation from the literature review and research findings is the importance and use of simple traditional values and basic communication skills in the coaching process. The traditional values (religious, family, ubuntu) of trust, caring, helping and collaborating were identified as core competencies that promote rapport and a coaching friendly environment. Likewise, the basic communication skills of active listening, asking questions and giving feedback are central to the facilitation process. Coaching is good communication.

Further, the literature review revealed that the models of coaching all adopt a problem solving approach to resolving performance deficits. This enables the coaching manager to structure the coaching conversation by working with the

employee through a number of predetermined problem solving steps. Practical work problems serve as the learning medium for solving performance problems.

One of the surprise findings was the difference between the importance and frequency of use ratings. Competencies that received high importance rankings tended to receive low frequency of use rankings and vice versa (almost an inverse relationship). If one adopts a practical approach to this dilemma, it would seem that competencies used on a daily or weekly basis would be more applicable to the work situation than very important competencies that are used less frequently on a monthly or yearly basis. Hence the combined importance and frequency of use rankings provides a good indication of which competencies are most critical for on-the-job coaching. The rank ordering of the critical competencies are listed under proposition three.

All three research propositions were confirmed by the research findings and accepted. Proposition one indicated that the five values competencies were important and were being used frequently by the respondents. The values were ranked in the following order: Building trust, collaborating, learning, helping and empathy.

Proposition two found that the six knowledge and skills competencies were also important and were used frequently by the respondents. The competencies were ranked in the following order: effective questioning, active listening, problem solving, giving feedback, motivating and reflecting.

Proposition three established a competency profile for coaching managers. The eleven competencies were ranked from most critical to least critical as follows: building trust, collaborating, effective questioning, learning, helping, active listening, empathy, problem solving, feedback, motivating and reflecting.

The results indicate that the value competencies were ranked higher than the knowledge and skills competencies. Establishing trust and collaborating were ranked 1st and 2nd respectively. All five value competencies were ranked in the first seven positions. This is encouraging in the sense that the coaching process is value driven. Respondents are using value based leadership principles and are not performing their jobs on a mechanical basis with little concern for people. The top three ranked knowledge and skill competencies were asking effective questions, listening and problem solving. Asking questions and active listening form the basis for facilitating dialogue between the coaching manager and the employee. Performance coaching is essentially a conversation within a problem solving or results-orientated context.

Many of the coaching competencies incorporate the characteristics of effective leadership (goal setting, change, collaborating, motivating, concern for people, empowering employees to make decisions, etc.). It would seem that coaching can be used as a catalyst to help managers to move away from the traditional command-and-control style of management towards a more participative leadership style. Since leadership contains many coaching characteristics, the challenge for managers is to make the transition to become coaching managers. Coaching is about change and transformation.

An encouraging finding was the high importance ranking given to learning (2nd). Most of the respondents value formal training but their frequency of use ranking (10th) suggests that learning is not taking place on daily or weekly basis on-the-job. One of the benefits of coaching is that learning takes place on-the-job. Since coaching is about learning, the challenge is to move the classroom into the work area where the experiential learning can take place on-the-job.

The lowest ranked value and knowledge / skill competencies were empathy and reflection. These concepts originated in counseling and learning theory (Kolb)

respectively and are not as well established in the respondents belief system and behaviour as the other competencies.

The finding that the respondents spend a third of their time coaching employees suggest that the coaching competencies are well established. This was confirmed by the high importance and frequency of use ratings given to all the competencies.

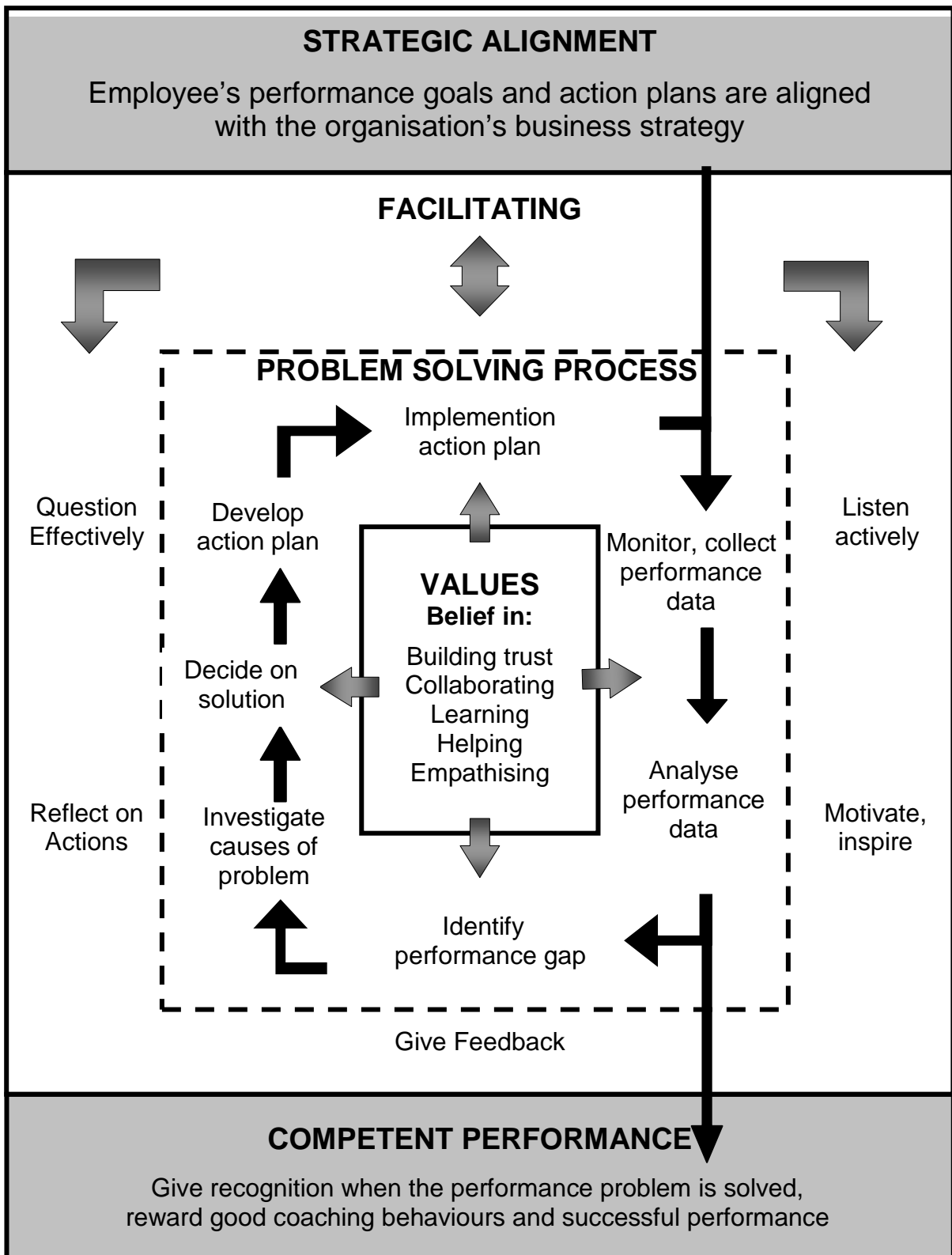
With regards to answering the research question posed in chapter one, three research propositions were formulated to find a solution to the problem. The three propositions were tested in chapter five and were very well supported by the research findings. The three propositions were therefore accepted with confidence.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR A COACHING COMPETENCY MODEL

We noted in the literature review that workplace coaching is a systematic process that should form part of the performance management system. The performance management process commences with the strategic alignment of the departmental and employee action plans (objectives, activities, performance standards) with the organisation's strategic goals and business plans. The coaching process commences with the manager monitoring the employee's performance.

Based on the literature review and research results, a tentative competency framework can be compiled for coaching managers. The coaching framework or performance coaching model consists of three broad competency areas and their related competencies as indicated in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: A performance coaching model for managers



The coaching model depicts that workplace coaching is integrated into the organisation's performance management system. The coaching model is aligned with the organisation's strategic plans and values. At the core of the model are five values that promote rapport and a coaching friendly environment. The foundation of all coaching conversations is the feeling of comfort and support felt between the coach and coachee. The five values depicted in the framework help create an environment where both the coaching manager and the employee feel safe enough and have the freedom to express themselves in ways that do not harm but promote an effective working relationship.

Problem solving is a broad competency category that consists of a number of micro competencies. The literature survey revealed that problem solving underscores most coaching interventions and that solving performance problems is a process that consists of a number of sequential steps. The coaching manager is able to structure the coaching conversation by using the seven problem solving steps beginning with collecting performance data. The problem solving cycle is worked through until the performance problem is solved. However, by using the problem-solving process on its own does not amount to coaching. In order to be coaching, an effective working relationship (promoted by the core values) needs to exist between the coaching manager and employee. Further, the coaching manager uses facilitation skills to help the employee to progress through the problem solving stages.

Facilitation skills are interwoven with the problem solving process as reflected by the porous dotted line and two-way arrow in the model. The coaching manager helps the employee to solve a performance problem by using such competencies as asking effective questions, listening actively, reflecting on actions, giving helpful and constructive feedback. Through a facilitative focus, employees learn how to identify and correct performance problems on their own. The ultimate goal of performance coaching is to help the employee to learn to self-coach or self-regulate.

Reinforcement theory should be used to give employees recognition when performance problems are solved. Further, coaching managers should be rewarded for using appropriate coaching behaviours so as to encourage further use.

In summary, the organisation must first create a coaching friendly environment in order to build rapport. Published strategic value statements that reflect some of the values in this model would help promote an organisation culture that is conducive to coaching. When coaching opportunities arise, the coaching manager engages with the employee and uses facilitation skills to help the employee to work through the problem solving process. Thus performance coaching is a systematic, solution-focused process in which the coach facilitates the enhancement of the work performance of the employee. This model can be used in both an informal and formal settings.

The benefits of coaching should serve as a strong motivational factor for managers to make the transition to becoming coaching managers. Since coaching is synonymous with managing and is a competency that can be learned, managers should receive the appropriate training and coaching that would give them the necessary values, knowledge and skills to help them function effectively in this new role of coaching manager.

6.4 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

Workplace coaching is only beginning to gain recognition as a significant method of empowering employees and developing skills in South African organisations. Consultants are claiming ownership of coaching because managers have abdicated their coaching responsibilities. Performance management is part of a manager's job description. The literature review revealed that coaching is imperative for the future success of an organisation because it helps employees build their competence and results in improved performance. Coaching is

evolving as a natural form of leadership and the benefits of coaching are impressive.

The main value of this study is that it proposes a tentative coaching competency model that can be used by managers to help them function effectively in their new role of coaching manager. Since the research findings tend to support the main theme found in the literature review, one can make the assumption that the core coaching competencies are likely to be both important and used frequently by managers in other leading organisations in the Eastern Cape region who have progressive HRD practices. With further use, this model can be refined to suit the needs of a particular organisation. However, it is the researcher's contention that the three broad competency areas (values, problem solving and facilitating) remain sound foundation principles for the construction of a coaching model.

The findings will be used to make recommendations. HRD practitioners, coaching managers and researchers could use the performance coaching model as:

- A generic or core set of coaching standards which will apply to most on-the-job coaching situations
- A job specification for recruiting prospective coaching managers
- An objective, independent measure to assess the coaching needs of managers in terms of identifying coaching competency gaps
- A basis to design and develop a curriculum for coaching programmes. Training and development interventions could focus on the core competencies that help managers function effectively in their new role of coaching manager.
- A starting point for continued research to refine the concept of coaching competencies

On-the-job coaching can play an important role in alleviating the skill shortage in the management ranks in South Africa since it enables employees to learn through real-time problem solving. Price (2006:60) confirms that there is a shift towards coaching manager programmes to empower and develop the skills in South African organisations.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Since the research project is exploratory in nature, the generalisations of the research results of this nature are limited. The small sample size (40), lack of cross-industry reference and need for qualitative interviews with coaching managers are acknowledged as limitations in the study.

Suggestions for further research are numerous since research into workplace performance coaching is still in its infancy:

- Utilising bigger sample sizes so that the findings may be generalised to the wider population
- Extending the scope of study by conducting cross-industry studies
- Using qualitative interviews and focus groups to extract more detailed information
- Using the coaching framework proposed in this research study as a basis to design and develop a coaching model for managers
- Developing a normative instrument for assessing coaching competencies. The survey questionnaire used in this research study can be used as a template.
- Assessing whether the workplace climate is conducive to performance coaching
- Establishing how to overcome the resistance of line managers to become coaching managers
- Surveying how line managers experience the benefits of coaching

- Identifying on-the-job coaching opportunities. Compare the use of formal coaching sessions and the greater opportunities offered by informal on-the-job coaching.
- Evaluating the effectiveness of a coaching programme for managers
- Measuring the return on investment of a coaching programme for managers

Future research into these topics would improve our knowledge and understanding of performance coaching in the workplace.

6.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The nature of the research project was exploratory and has provided insights into a competency model for South African coaching managers. The research study has highlighted three broad competency areas and their related competencies. At the core of the coaching model are five core values that promote rapport and a coaching friendly environment. The model advocates a systematic problem solving process in which the coaching manager facilitates the enhancement of work performance. When coaching opportunities arise on-the-job, the coaching manager uses facilitation skills to engage the employee in the problem solving process.

The research findings have added to the body of knowledge surrounding performance coaching in the workplace by highlighting the core coaching competencies that are most likely to promote a successful coaching outcome. The challenge that lies ahead is for managers to acquire these coaching competencies so that they can make the transition to become a coaching manager. Finally, areas for future research have been recommended to help improve our understanding and knowledge of performance coaching.

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