THE PROPENSITY TO PURSUE EXECUTIVE COACHING: VARIABLES OF SELF-EFFICACY AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

by

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**Abstract**

Leaders of corporations existing in this global economy endure and face complexities of uncharted precedents and leadership is foundational to the success and sustainability of this navigational process. Transformational leadership and self-efficacy are primary constructs, which profile successful leadership and executive coaching is instrumental in defining the development of these constructs. This research project added empirical data to the inventory of knowledge of these three constructs transformational leadership, self-efficacy, and executive coaching through a quantitative study with a descriptive correlational design. The relationship was studied between transformational leadership, self-efficacy, and the propensity to pursue executive coaching. One-hundred and eighty-six respondents were surveyed with 110 respondents completing the survey. The MLQ5x and the NGSES assessment tools were utilized to assess and have respondents self-rate their transformational leadership and self-efficacy. Four research questions and alternative hypotheses were formulated to ascertain the relationships and links between the independent variables transformational leadership and self-efficacy, and the dependent variables executive coaching. The results demonstrated relationships between transformational leadership and self-efficacy, and transformational leadership and executive coaching. Evidence was produced to support further research into these variables and their correlated relationships. Finally, the results produced original information and knowledge into understanding the variables on the propensity to pursue executive coaching. Recommendations for continued research based on this foundational study were provided.

**Dedication**

This is dedicated to my children, Alex and Aiden, whom endured, for five years, a single working mom, who is an Executive Director of a small nonprofit foster and adoption agency, with a goal of obtaining this monumental milestone. Many weekends my children entertained themselves while I typed away. Even though my parents and my younger brother passed many years ago, mom (Donna), dad (Roger) and brother, Lance, they would have been proud of this accomplishment, kisses to you. My employees who held down the fort many times as my focus was on my schooling and who became the recipients of my excitement as I learned new concepts and directed them to read articles and have homework—they are much appreciative this journey is over for me! I specifically need to thank Russ Crouch, who encouraged me to take this plunge and who showed up on my front door step one day with a care package, when I was at an all time low and quitting looked pretty darn good. My friends, who heard many times, “I cannot attend this event or participate in this activity because I am doing one of my cave dissertation weekends,” as I called them. My next project is to formulate a re-entry plan back into society and hopefully those who love me will help me readjust to life without studying and researching. I also need to thank Robert Gollhofer, for the many laughs those last few weeks—I sincerely would not have made it without you. Finally, and just as important, I dedicate this to a young girl who grew up on welfare with a father who was a heroin addict and overdosed when she was 17 years of age—you did it!

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**CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION**

According to Gumusluoğlu and Ilsev (2009), leaders of organizations face many challenges such as rapidly changing technology, shorter product life, and globalization. Modern organizations must be innovative to survive, to compete, and to grow. Leadership is deemed a primary variable, specifically transformational leadership, in effective innovation, positive employee behavior, performance, and to the success of businesses in a global market (Enescu & Popescue, 2012; Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2010; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Moen & Federici 2012; Mukherjee, 2012; Shanker, Bhanugopan, & Fish, 2012). Additional to transformational leadership deemed as a primary projector to success, Mukherjee (2012) further stated attracting and the retention of effective leaders is in short supply for successful organizations. Leadership coaching is specifically designed to enhance, grow, and develop successful leaders’ skills, and is a strategy to address the deficit of the short supply of effective leaders, as well as forecast and preserve an organization’s success and competitive advantage (Bono, Purvanova, Towlder, & Peterson, 2009; Ely et al., 2010; Gregory, Beck & Carr, 2011; Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Moen & Federici, 2012).

**Introduction to the Problem**

Leaders of companies in global economies address a myriad of threats from (a) rapidly changing technology; (b) disruptive innovations to newly developed products; to (c) being socially and ethically responsible to their communities and customers (Gumusluoğlu & Ilsev, 2009). These reasons perpetuate the need for leaders to be innovative and strategic for competitive advantage, sustainability, and to increase their range of operations. A dominate variable, which has been linked to successful, sustainable, and innovative businesses is leaders and their leadership style, specifically transformational leadership (Enescu & Popescue, 2012; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Moen & Federici 2012; Mukherjee, 2012; Shanker et al., 2012). The general business problem is organizations need to develop and cultivate effective leaders and a strategy to address the deficit and short supply of effective leaders is leadership coaching (Mukherjee, 2012). Addressing this deficit and short supply of leaders may project and sustain a firm’s success (Bono et al., 2009; Ely et al., 2010; Gregory et al., 2011; Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Moen & Federici, 2012).

**Background of the Study**

In 2012, the International Coaching Federation (ICF) stated, despite difficult economic times, the coaching industry continues to grow in coach and client numbers and generates about $2 billion in revenue annually. According to the research literature and theorists, leadership coaching provides a new path for learning and self-awareness to an individual’s growth and development (Ely et al., 2010; Kay, 2013; Moen & Allgood, 2009, Moen & Federici, 2012). Moen and Allgood (2009) supported by other researchers (Day, 2000; De Haan, Bertie, Day, & Sills, 2010, Paglis, 2010), stated coaching is highly effective, where research demonstrates coaching has an immediate, healthy, and positive return on investment (ROI) (Atkinson, 2012; Bower, 2012). atkinson (2012) stated the tripartite commitment (changed behavior, what the client commits to master, and the new behavior identified) between the *coach* and the coachee is what gives an immediate ROI. Crompton, Smyrnios, and Bi (2012) espoused coaching is a non-direct cause of firm growth and Bower (2012) postulated coaching accelerated leaders’ effectiveness, which benefits the employees and the organization.

Moen and Federici (2012) recommended to businesses, which are investing in coaching, should invest in leaders increasing their self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) stated self-efficacy refers to

a judgment of one’s own ability to perform a specific task within a specific domain. Thus, self-efficacy is the aspect of self, which refers to how sure (or how confident) the individual is that he or she can successfully perform requisite tasks in specific situations, given one’s unique and specific capabilities. (Bandura, 1997, p. 4)

According to Paglis (2010), self-efficacy links to the domain of leadership and referred to as Leadership Self-Efficacy (LSE). The propensity for self-efficacy and high self-efficacy links to successful leadership and attaining superior individual results, as well as inspiring constituents, followers, and employees to perform higher and better (Crompton et al., 2012; McCormick, Tanguma, Lopez-Forment, 2002; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Moen & Federici, 2012; Paglis, 2010). Leaders high in self-efficacy have (a) better cognitive flexibility, (b) try more challenging tasks, (c) resist negative feedback, (d) are better at goal setting, (e) exert more effort toward accomplishing their goals, (f) are more determined to overcome obstacles, and (g) exude behaviors that comprise a leader’s role (Moen & Federici, 2012; Paglis, 2010). Bandura and Locke (2003) posited that self-efficacy provides the staying power and resilience necessary for the continuous pursuit of innovation and excellence.

**Statement of the Problem**

Nearly 60% of companies face leadership talent shortages (Crainer, 2011). Within the United States, 30% of personnel in corporations attribute a lack of effective leadership with the right capabilities is failing to exploit international markets and opportunities and only 7% of senior managers believe their organizations develop and foster successful global leaders (Gurdjian, Halbeisen, & Lane, 2014). Leadership coaching is a possible strategy to address the deficit of effective leaders (Bono et al., 2009; Ely et al., 2010; Gregory et al., 2011; Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Moen & Federici, 2012). Unfortunately, a paucity of information exists about leaders who take responsibility for their own development, and McCall (2010) posited no substitutes exist for teaching evolving leaders how to take charge of their own development. Self-efficacy is a prominent domain characteristic to predict successful leadership and leaders who seek coaching indicate improved self-efficacy (Moen & Allgood, 2009). The specific problem is do leaders assess their self-efficacy and leadership style actually pursue coaching based on his or her assessment of these variables to improve these domain skills. By understanding if a relationship exists between the variables self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and executive coaching, this may address the deficit of the short supply of effective leaders for global and complex organizations (Gurdjian et al., 2014).

**Purpose of the Study**

McCall (2010) recommended the goal of useful research for leadership development should explore reflection, learning promotion, and insight, as the understanding of leadership potential is rudimentary. Gregory et al. (2008) discussed how feedback influences the coachee’s attitude toward coaching. The objective of this research study was to enrich the substantive theory building and empirical research on self-efficacy and transformational leadership by assessing the leaders’ self-efficacy and transformational leadership to ascertain if a relationship exists between these variables and the propensity to pursue executive coaching. Additionally, this knowledge may benefit executives and boards in guiding and recommending coaching for leaders based on their self-efficacy and transformational assessments.

**Rationale**

According to Baek-Kyoo, Sushko, and McLean (2012), a need exists for rigorous research regarding executive coaching and its outcomes. Baek-kyoo et al. recommended evaluating the effectiveness of coaching needs, as well as the coach-coachee dyad. Sherman and Freas (2004) underpinned the value of self-awareness for executives, and why executive coaching has become popular particularly since 2000. Enescu and Popescue (2012) stated raising awareness is an essential precursor to producing change. Moen and Allgood (2009) stated individuals who know how to learn and implement strategies to enhance valued skills differentiate these individuals from novice learners to expert learners. Moen and Allgood further stated if individuals can assess and improve their self-efficacy through executive coaching, professional growth and performance enhancement will be experienced. Along with self-efficacy, which is deemed a prominent variable to leadership success, transformational leadership is considered a pillar for powerful leadership behavior. Transformational leadership, which is linked to positive performance and employees’ behaviors, effective innovation, and to the success of businesses in a global market, is the recommended leadership style for businesses facing the 21st century’s myriad of complexities for continued success (Abrell, Rowold, Weibler, & Moenninghoff, 2011). To address the deficit of effective leadership and organizational sustainability, assessing self-efficacy and transformational leadership and understanding if a propensity to pursue executive coaching exists is a viable action.

**Research Questions**

This study introduces the following research questions.

1. Does a relationship exist between self-efficacy and transformational leadership?
2. To what extent does self-efficacy predict the propensity to pursue coaching?
3. To what extent does transformational leadership predict the propensity to pursue coaching?
4. What is the relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and the proclivity to pursue executive coaching?

**Significance of the Study**

The ascertained knowledge produced contributes to the growing field of understanding the relationship between assessing self-efficacy and transformational leadership and if coaching is pursued based on this information. This knowledge may help a leader to decide if he or she should pursue coaching, and encourage executives to pursue coaching to improve self-efficacy, transformational leadership skills, and behaviors. Additionally, the information may help boards of directors understand if or when a leader should pursue coaching. Other contributions this research addressed, is the business problem of too few effective leaders, which are needed to sustain and grow an organization in the challenging global markets of the 21st century.

**Definition of Terms**

The following definitions are implemented in this study:

*Coaching.* “Professional coaching is an ongoing professional relationship that helps people produce extraordinary results in their lives, careers, businesses, or organizations. Through the process of coaching, clients deepen their learning, improve their performance, and enhance their quality of life” (Brown & Rusnak, 2010, p. 15).

*Coach.* A coach is an individual who assists someone else in getting to a desired place, reaching, and obtaining goals (Moen & Allgood, 2009).

*Coachee.* A coachee is an individual engaged in an assisted process and helping relationship from a coach (Moen & Allgood, 2009).

*Consulting.* “One hired by an organization as one holding “expertise’, and a person who can analyse, identify, recommend, and implement the desired changes required by the enterprise” (Van Genderen, 2014, p. 4).

*Counseling.* “Counseling involves professional relationships designed to assist individuals, families, and groups toward mental health, wellness, educational, and career goals” (Kaplan, Tarvydas, & Gladding, 2014, p. 370).

*Self-efficacy.*  Self-efficacy refers “to beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p. 3).

*Transformational leadership.*  Transformational leadership is a “relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003, p. 14).

**Assumptions and Limitations**

Assumptions regarding this research include participants in this study were honest and ethical. A random sampling of chief executive officers (CEO) and upper management was selected. Participants were from an even distribution of this targeted group and were a true representation of this segmented group.

Empirical studies contain a number of limitations and have an effect on the reliability and validity of results such as (a) this study was limited to the United States and may not be applicable to other countries and cultures, (b) analysis was limited to a short-time limited quantitative study only and a qualitative study may produce different results. Another limitation is this study included males and females, but results may vary if the variables male and female were isolated in future research.

**Nature of the Study**

Gregory et al. (2011) recommended future research to help coaches set, adjust, and pursue goals for leaders seeking coaching. Coaching continues to grow faster than research, where Gregory et al. recommended an integration of theory and practical application of organizing frameworks. The central premise of control theory (CT) is a modality for self-regulation, which is advantageous when analyzing human behavior regarding goals and feedback (Gregory et al., 2011). Glasser (1985) attributed the development of CT from the book *Behavior: The Control of Perception* (1973) by William T. Powers, who provided an entirely new modality to understanding human behavior, referred to as perceptual control theory or PCT. This conceptual framework proposed a specific mechanism by which overt behaviors serve to keep a person’s countless perceptions near internally determined reference levels (Powers, 1973).

However, CT posited that humans take an active role, or responsibility toward one’s behavior, where CT attempts to control the state of some variable, often the pursuit of accomplishing a task by controlling their behavior (Gregory et al., 2011). According to Gregory et al. (2011), “This process of behavioral regulation begins with the comparison of some referent level of performance (i.e. goal) to information collected from an individual’s surrounding (e.g. feedback about current performance)” (p. 27). Johnson, Change, and Lord (2006) demonstrated empirical evidence supporting when incongruities are discovered between goals and feedback, effort is put out to reduce the discrepancy.

Empirical studies on the propensity to seek out coaching for the betterment of leadership skills and behaviors after assessing self-efficacy and transformational leadership characteristics do not exist. Based on the framework of CT theory, when leaders want to improve their self-efficacy and transformational leadership (goal), and after assessment and finding a disparity (feedback), it would appear coaching will be sought to improve their self-efficacy and transformational leadership skills. Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework used in this study, showing how the variables relate to and underpin the problem, which were used for this research study.

*Figure 1.* Conceptual Framework. The relationship of variables is visually displayed to provide clarity and insight into the problem for this study in this figure.

**Organization of the Remainder of the Study**

The study is organized into five chapters, where each chapter includes a discussion regarding a certain phase in the research. Chapter I includes the introduction, background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, rationale, research questions, significance of the study, definition of terms, assumptions and limitations, and the nature of the study. Chapter II includes a discussion of current trends, literature, and dissertation reviews. Chapter III focuses on methodology, which includes research procedures, designs, instruments and data collection, analysis, validity and reliability, and ethical considerations. Chapter IV presents the results of this research project and Chapter V discusses the findings of the research, implications, and recommendations for future research studies.

**CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

A review of seminal and current literature of the three variables, executive coaching, self-efficacy, and transformational leadership offers insight into providing information regarding the critical dynamic where nearly 60% of companies face leadership talent shortages (Crainer, 2011). Understanding if a relationship exists between coaching, self-efficacy, and transformational leadership may shed some light to address this deficit. The goal or purpose of this literature review is to present the theoretical construct definitions of coaching, self-efficacy, and transformational leadership, as well as a focus on understanding the relationship between the three variables through the lens of the theoretical framework control theory.

**Executive and Leadership Coaching**

**History, Purpose of Executive Coaching, and Demand**

In a comprehensive literature review by Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson (2001), the history of executive coaching is noted as barely traceable and a hard date for the commencement of executive coaching does not appear to exist. The origins of the word coaching stem from the Hungarian village of Kocs and the covered wheeled wagon (Stern, 2004). The word *coach* emerged in the 1500s into the English language to describe a particular horse drawn carriage. The origin of the verb *to coach* refers to a highly regarded person getting from where he or she was to where they wanted to go (Witherspoon & White, 1996). Over the centuries, the term moved through several avenues from sports coaching to academic coaching and to the evolution of executive coaching (Stern, 2004).

Tobias (1996) posited the term executive coaching commenced in the 1950s. Additionally, Hamlin, Ellinger, and Beatie (2009) stated that the concept of executive and leadership coaching first emerged in the 1950s within management literature for the development under the master-apprentice type relationship. In the early 1980s, leadership development programs became popular, which prompted the development of executive coaching in the 1990s.

Tobias (1996) presented three phases of development that emerged. Between the years 1950 and 1979, scholars used a blend of organizational development and psychological techniques. Between 1980–1994, the use of standardized assessments was common, where services and professionalism started to appear. From 1995 forward, emergence of the efficacy of executive coaching was called for through continued empirical studies (Crompton et al., 2012; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Levenson, 2009), which would address increased concerns regarding a standardized definition, qualifications and credentials, as well as the continued establishment of an agreed upon conceptual working framework. These conceptual frameworks of development continued to be supported by current researchers (Jowett, Kanakoglou, & Passmore, 2012). The International Coaching Federation (ICF) included establishment during this period, which continues to streamline and bring professionalism to the industry of executive coaching (Jowett et al., 2012; Tobias, 1996).

Predominately, western societies implement executive coaching. The United Kingdom reports 70% of companies use coaching, where 44% of employees report using coaching (Sergers, Vloeberghs, Henderickx, & Inceoglu, 2011), and 93% of companies in the United States (Jowett et al., 2012). In 2006, Strober and Grant noted an increase in publications in academia by 266% from 2001-2005, in contrast with 1996-2000. The ICF reported an increase in membership from 1,500 in 1999 to 10,000 members in 2006 across 80 different countries (Jowett et al., 2012). In 2006, Boyatzis, Smith, and Blaise underpinned ensuring successful leaders through coaching and since this time coaching appears to have become an integral part of leadership development programs (Segers et al., 2011).

According to the research literature and theorists, leadership coaching includes the definition as a new path for learning and self-awareness to an individual’s growth and development (Ely et al., 2010; Kay, 2013; Moen & Allgood, 2009, Moen & Federici, 2012). The objective of coaching is to address a wide variety of human growth and development categories such as human change, behavior modification, solutions and goals, self-directed learning, stimulation of cognitive awareness, personal effectiveness, and performance, learning growth through facing challenges, and system-based initiatives, to name just a few (Day, 2000; Van Genderen, 2014). Leaders of corporations realize the rewards and benefits of coaching with rising stars, high potential executives, and CEOs, which will either strengthen specific skills or address deficits within performance, growth, and development (Baek-Kyoo et al., 2012).

In 2006, coaching was a $2 billion per year business (Moen & Federici, 2012), and continues to remain a 2 billion a year business (Kalman, 2014; Segers et al., 2011). Van Genderen (2014) asserted executive coaching is the fastest growing profession for the development of corporate success. Gregory et al. (2011) stated coaching grows faster than the rate of which research can validate coaching practices and efficacy.

**Definition of Executive Coaching**

Van Genderen, (2014) stated coaching is a newly recognized profession, and newly developed professions, researchers include many variations regarding agreement for a theoretical construct definition of coaching. Examples highlighting the diversity of definitions follows. Leadership coaching, broadly defined, is a process for a one-to-one conversation and relationship building process between the *coach* and the *coachee* to enhance the client (coachee) and their development into a more effective leader (Baek-Kyooet al., 2012; De Haan, et al., 2010; Ely et al., 2010). Hicks and McCracken (2014) defined coaching more specifically as,

A collaborative process designed to help people alter perceptions and behavioral patterns in a way that increases their effectiveness and ability to adapt to change. It requires the ability to facilitate self-discovery, help people surface their true feelings and commit to action based on their own conclusions. (p. 78)

A seminal perspective developed by Gallway (2000) stated,

coaching can be defined as the facilitation of mobility. It is the art of creating an environment, through conversation and a way of being, that facilitates the process by which a person can move toward desired goals in a fulfilling manner. (p. 176)

By contrast, Whitmore (2009) defined coaching as,

. . . unlocking people’s potential to maximise their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them. After all, how did you learn to walk? Did your mother instruct you? We all have a built-in, naturally learning capability that is actually disrupted by instruction. (p. 10)

According to the ICF, coaching offers the definition as

an ongoing professional relationship that helps people produce extraordinary results in their lives, careers, businesses, or organizations. Through the process of coaching, clients deepen their learning, improve their performance, and enhance their quality of life. (Brown & Rusnak, 2010, p. 15)

For the purpose of this research study, the definition defined by the ICF will be adapted and referred to when using the term executive coaching.

**Themes**

Seminal themes of writing and researching executive coaching encompass three main categories: (a) the psychological; (b) training and development; and (c) management. Research articles on executive coaching are bifurcated into practice writings and empirical research studies. A bulk of the research literature includes practice-based literature with five categories; (a) definitions; (b) purpose; (c) techniques and methods; (d) executive coaching and psychotherapy; and (e) credentials (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001). Empirical research themes delve into purpose, demographics of coaches and recipients, techniques and methods, efficacy and effectiveness (Kampa-Koikesch & Anderson, 2001; Wasylyshyn, 2003). The following literature review includes organization under these themes.

**Practice-based Literature on Executive Coaching**

Practice-based research literature is profuse and comprehensive within the six themes stated by Kampa-Koesch and Anderson (2001). According to Candy (2006), practice-based research “is an original investigation undertaken in order to gain new

knowledge partly by means of practice” (p. 1). Following is a comprehensive overview of practice-based research in each category.

**Purpose.** The purpose of coaching was to address the performance for athletes, performers, public speakers, and since 2000 for executives. Executives must address an array of domains to lead a successful organization, and the global economy only adds to their heavy burden (Kampa-Koesch & Anderson, 2001). Issues such as the rapidly changing global economy, skills needed to further an organization and understanding the power of developing interpersonal skills are fundamental variables to understanding the purpose of executive coaching (Kilbug, 1996; Levenson, 2009). Moen and Allgood (2009), supported by researchers Day (2000), De Haan et al. (2010), Levenson (2009), and Paglis (2010), stated coaching has an immediate and healthy ROI on a corporation’s bottom line.

O’Neill (2000) and Levenson (2009) highlighted the purpose of coaching for the ability for executives to use coaches as sounding boards who give feedback to improve (a) self-awareness: (b) self-esteem; (c) communication within the organization and outside the organization; (d) organizational issues or change; (e) enhance a career; (f) or prevent derailment. Executives are in positions of leadership and by nature are in isolated positions, where employees can bounce ideas off of other colleagues for these same needed improvements in skill sets. Executives are not implementing executive coaching and need to reach out to executive coaches for these improvements in skill sets to further the objective and mission of the business. Understanding the purpose of executive coaching is critical to address the deficit of leadership presented in the 21st century global economy and consequently to this research project.

**Techniques and methods.** Techniques and methods come from the psychological literature, which is instrumental to develop contextual frameworks. Deidrich (1996), Katz and Miller (1996), Tobias (1996), Kiel, Rimmer, Williams, and Doyle (1996), and Peterson (1996) are seminal authors regarding techniques and method frameworks. Models used for implementation include: (a) systems-oriented approaches; (b) psychological skills and insight; (c) cognitive-behavioral; (d) mixed integrative approaches; (e) integrated model of development; (f) critical competencies; (g) diversity and inclusion; (h) feedback; (i) process feedback models; and (f) language and behavior profiles (LAB) (De Haan, 2008; De Haan & Nieb, 2012; Deidrich, 1996; Ducharme, 2004; Gregory et al., 2008; Katz & Miller, 1996; Kay, 2013; Kiel et al., 1996; Laske, 1999; Passmore & Gibbes, 2007; Saporito, 1996; Tobias, 1996).

**Executive coaching and psychotherapy.** The ongoing conversation among authors and researches lies within asking the question whether a difference exists between *coaching* interventions and *therapeutic* interventions. A unified voice does appear to resonate around the differences, and at the same time acknowledges the robust contribution of the psychology world (*therapeutic interventions)* to executive coaching. Authors, which demonstrate the differences between the two theoretical fields of study (*coaching versus therapeutic)* are Killburg (1996), Tobias (1996), Baek-Kyoo et al., (2012), McKelley and Rochlen, (2007), and Berman and Bradt (2006). *Coaching* addresses--which *therapeutic interventions* do not--: (a) areas of deficiencies to improve certain skill sets; (b) is more issued focused; (c) has the option of occurring within the working site and in real time; and where (d) individuals find the term executive coaching less intimidating (Baek-Kyoo et al., 2012; Killburg, 1996; McKelley & Rochlen, 2007; Tobias, 1996). Ely et al. (2010) stated leadership coaching encompasses concentrating on the client’s needs and the needs of the organization, demands process flexibility, and the value of the coach and the coachee relationship. In approximately 2001, research authors demonstrated a development of debate regarding the most suitable person to further this coaching, identified as the psychologist, who appeared to be most suited for executive coaching, where they must have an understanding of business concepts and dynamics (Berman & Bradt, 2006; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Soporito, 1996).

**Credentials, experience, and background.**  A main criticism of executive coaching surrounds the vast array of education or lack thereof, and experience or lack thereof, and no unifying guidelines or regulations requiring either degree or experience. Killburg (1996) and Orienstein (2006) discussed the need for unifying guidelines. Kampa-Kokesch and Anderon (2001) stated the psychological literature appears to review this issue more than other areas of literature.

Unqualified professionals, according to Kampa-Kokesch and Anderon (2001), such as professionals from businesses, law, sports, and teaching industry are claiming stakes as executive coaches. Most attitudes appear to support licensed professionals, such as psychologists and therapists because of acquiring and developing the best-suited education and skills to be executive coaches (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderon, 2001). According to Wasylynshyn’s (2003) study, 82% preferred graduate training in psychology. Killburg (1996) agreed professional psychologists or therapist are the most qualified, because of their training in confidentiality, feedback, and reflective listening, where the coach can challenge the coachee, and create vignettes and scenarios of the executive’s world.

According to Banning (1997), the business literature and research authors addressed and discussed important characteristics a coach deciding they should have: trustworthiness, compatible chemistry with the coachee, and a credible reputation. Ely et al. (2010) generically stated coaches need to have a unique skill set. Another variable, which appears important in the business literature discussed by the research authors, was the process of finding a coach (Banning, 1997).

**Empirical Research Studies about Executive Coaching**

Bob Nardelli, former CEO of The Home Depot, stated, “I absolutely believe that people, unless coached, never reach their full potential” (as cited in Brown & Rusnak, 2010, p. 17). Despite this sentiment, executive coaching started to mushroom in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Kampa-Kokesch and Anderson (2001) stated only seven empirical research studies, of which one was a dissertation and the other a master thesis, on executive coaching, appeared prior to 2001. Wasylyshyn (2003) supported this stance and stated minimal empirical research has been done, which was outcome oriented prior to 2001. Elven empirical research studies were found to exist from 2001 – 2015, which will be discussed under the heading current empirical research studies.

**A Review of the Seminal Empirical Research Studies**

The aforementioned section reviewed and summarized the practice-based literature. This section includes five of the seven seminal research articles prior to 2001, which fall under the themes of effectiveness, demographics and perceptions, techniques and methods. The last section includes review of research on executive coaching from 2001 forward.

**Effectiveness.** Hall, Otazo, and Hollenbeck (1999) conducted a qualitative study of the effectiveness of good coaching by interviewing 75 executives from *Fortune 100* companies, as well as another 15 executives who were referred to the researchers as leaders in their fields. Names included random selection from a list provided to Hall et al. (1999) by the company’s human resources (HR) department. The analysis and interpretation of the interviews was viewed through the lens of the author’s own experience. No other information regarding method was provided on this study.

Discerning between results, or the heuristic knowledge of the authors at time was difficult, results of this research should be viewed as tentative. These authors (Hall et al., 1999) viewed effectiveness as results oriented. Recipients of coaching did rate coaching on a Likert-type scale with appropriate variables; variables, which were rated highly effective, were: (a) honesty; (b) constructive feedback; (c) and helpful recommendations. Recipients did include results, which were not viewed as helpful, as: (a) coaches who exerted their own hidden agenda; (b) negative feedback not based on actual data but from feedback from others and; (c) if the coach had a salesmen mentally of the recipient needing more coaching time. Other demographics of coaches included reviews regarding cultural diversity and gender issues, were discussed as limitations to the current executive coaching field.

**Demographics and perceptions of executive coaches and recipients.** Judge and Cowell (1997) surveyed executive coaches through a quantitative study and found coaches had expansive backgrounds --most had a bachelor’s degree that varied from drama to psychology. About 45% did have Ph.Ds., where about 90% had master’s degree grouped in either business or social sciences. Many did belong to some type of professional association. Sixty percent were male, where approximately is a more scholarly word choice; 80% were between the ages of 35-55; averaging about 24 years of work experience. Most coaches worked for big firms and charged anywhere from $75 - $400 an hour. Most recipients were executives and upper level management. Reasons a coachee sought the services of a coach fell into three categories: (a) Individuals who were valuable, but needing improvements; (b) individuals who sought to improve their leadership abilities, seeking change, building trusting relationships, modify their interactions with others, and; (c) other professionals other than executives desiring to improve their abilities.

Garmen, Whiston, and Zlatoper (2000) reviewed 72 articles on executive coaching through a content analysis method to determine perception of the general opinion of how executive coaching is perceived in mainstream and general management literature. The results demonstrated interrater reliabilities averaging .82; reliabilities ranged from .76 (for author type and general favorability) to .90 (for mentions of psychologist). Forty of the articles favored external coaches to internal coaches of these articles; 67% of these articles were authored by freelance journalists; the other 33% rated themselves as executive coaches. Fifteen percent had psychological experience, 15% had business experience, and 70% did not report their experience or education. Forty percent of these articles were reported in non-human resources publications, 23% were from general monthly business publications. Eighty-eight percent of these articles viewed coaching as very favorable. Forty-five percent of the articles viewed possessing a psychological background as a unique skill set to the industry of executive coaching (see Table 1).

Table 1

*A Synopsis of the 72 Articles Reviewed by the Above Research Study*

% of Articles Characteristics of the Articles

55% favored external coaches over internal coaches

67% written by free-lance writers

33% written by executive coaches

15% had psychological experience

15% had business experience

70% did not report their experience or education

40% were published in non-human resource publications

23% were published in a general monthly business publication

88% viewed executive coaching as favorable

45% shared a view that executive coaches possessing a psychological background is a unique and crucial skill to have.

**Technique and methods.** Foster and Lendl (1996) and Olivero, Bane, and Kopelman (1997) conducted research about techniques of executive coaching. Foster and Lendl used a very controversial method of eye movement desensitization and reprocessing (EMDR) to determine if workplace performance could be enhanced. Only four participants experienced workplace anxieties. A series of questions were asked related to their current situation and the anxieties, which surrounded the dynamics. The series of questions were provided through 10 hours of applied EMDR coaching techniques used to breakdown the disruptive event, which impaired their workability issues.

Data was gathered by assessing physical symptoms and negative emotions. Work performance was reported to be improved and EMDR was reported to be a promising adjunct method for coaching. Olivero et al. (1997) investigated a behavioral method approach, which emphasized practice, collaborative problems solving, goal setting, supervisory involvement, feedback, evaluation of results, and presentation. This study was conducted in two phases. Thirty-one managers from a public sector agency attended a supervisory educational program with eight weeks of coaching afterwards. Results of the educational program demonstrated an increased by 22.4% in productivity, where coaching results demonstrated an increase in productivity by 88%, a comparatively larger gain than results produced by the training program.

**Current Empirical Research Studies on Executive Coaching**

A paucity ofcurrent (2001 and forward) empirical studies on executive coaching exists, but continue to focus on practice-based writings. Eleven research articles will be reviewed to address the theoretical constructs of methods and techniques, effectiveness, and efficacy. One research article, which counters the argument that executive coaching is effective will be reviewed

**Methods and Techniques for Conducting Executive Coaching**

Since 2001, literature focused on the value of synthesizing a clearer conceptual understanding and working framework for the models used for executive coaching and to better understand the process of executive coaching (Gregory et al., 2008). Models and techniques range and are based mostly upon the psychological world of theories and models. Ducharme (2004) summarized the different approaches that have emerged since 1980. The models include: (a) a systems perspective; (b) feedback models; multimodal therapy, rational-emotive behavior therapy, transformative-development model, constructiveness-developmental theory, and action frame theory, existential theory. Passmore and Gibbes (2007) reiterated the lack of sophisticated and empirical approaches to this field, where they suggested an integrative model. The documented empirical research on methods and techniques continues to remain vast because of the many different models with a paucity of overlap (Passmore & Gibbes, 2007). Empirical studies conducted to demonstrate methods and techniques include the following articles.

Wasylynshyn (2003) conducted a study, including such factors and variables of executive coaching as: (a) pros and cons of working with an internal versus external coach; (b) choosing a coach; (c) reactions of executives working with a coach; (d) which coaches were favored by executives; (e) indicators of successful coaching, and; (f) the long-term behavioral and learning changes. Additionally, Wasylynshyn raised the question and gave a typology for gauging which executives were ostensibly benefiting from executive coaching.

The study included an 82% response rate composed of 85% male (where 85% of these respondents were white), and 15% female, with a majority of the executive participants ranging in the 40-50 year old range. Seventy-nine percent of the companies were Fortune 500 companies, 19% mid-sized, and 2% entrepreneurial. Regarding the question asked on the topic of participant’s reaction to the idea of coaching, 76% perceived coaching would be a positive experience, 31% experienced being guarded and did not know what to expect, 6% reported a negative response, and 3% responded as other. Criteria for choosing a coach, which appeared to be significant for executives, is 82% stated graduate training in psychology, 78% in possessing a framework and understanding of business, and 25% wanted an established reputation in coaching (Wasylynshyn, 2003).

Personal characteristics of an effective coach, which were perceived as important, where 82% of respondents wanted to experience a strong connection and relationship with their coach, 82% wanted to experience professionalism, and 35% indicated that a clear coaching method was significant. Juxtaposing an external coach versus an internal coach, 100% had a positive response to external coaching with the 76% stating the downside for an external coach would be the lack of understanding the business and its specific characteristics. However, 70% of respondents were in favor of internal coaches, with 79% conveying a significant negative response to internal coaches for reasons such as conflicts of interest, trust, and confidentiality (Wasylynshyn, 2003).

The areas of focus for executives and seeking change for growth and development was 56%, where this result indicated coaches wanting behavioral change, 43% sought enriching leader effectiveness, and 40% wanted to develop stronger relationships. Seventeen percent sought coaching for personal development such as integrating and balancing family and work. To address the disparities between methodologies, approaches, tools, and durations for coaching engagements a rating scale of 1-10 was provided regarding which tools were perceived as most effective. Results indicated coaching sessions lasting about 9.2 sessions, 360 feedback, and experiencing a relationship with the coach as the most beneficial tools. Additionally, 50% of the respondents indicated reading about leadership was helpful (Wasylynshyn, 2003).

Indicators of successful coaching, falling into three categories, was 63% needed to experience sustained behavior change, 48% self-awareness and understanding, and 45% enhanced effective leadership. Sustainability of long-term behavioral and interpersonal change on a scale of 1-10 found respondents recorded a sustainability level between 6-8, over one-third indicated between a 9-10. These results appeared to be biasedly reported as supporting data to interpret meaning. A heuristic knowledge format presented typologies for the best candidates who were successful from coaching which are high-performing executives and employees, highly motivated to change, absence of performance problems, and positive and trusting reception to coaching with 360-degree feedback data (Wasylynshyn, 2003).

The next two studies report on the importance of feedback and critical moments in executive coaching, as feedback is a variable for this study. De Haan (2008a, 2008b, 2010, & 2012) is the lead researcher of this theoretical construct. The literature is reviewed in chronological order.

Gregory et al. (2008) explored variable feedback, and even though prior authors indicated the importance of feedback (Feldman & Lankau, 2005), none specifically addressed the role and function of feedback. Based upon the feedback model of London and Smither (2002), Gregory et al. explored the relationship between coaching and feedback. The moderating variable was critical moments in which feedback is given for the desired outcomes to be achieved. Outcomes may encompass improved performance and self-efficacy, behavioral change, and increased self-awareness. Please see Figure 2 for the feedback model developed by Gregory et al. (2008, p. 49).

Executives

Feedback Orientation

Coach as “Source” Characteristics

**Stage 2:**

*Establishing the Relationship*

-Client introduces relevant issues to coach

-Coach provides initial feedback

-Client anticipation & reactions to feedback

-Focus on building relationship

**Stage 3:**

*Data Gathering*

-Coach reviews and interprets exiting data

-Gather additional data (assessments) Coach provides feedback based on assessments

-Nature of relationship solidified.

**Stage 4:**

*Utilizing Feedback*

-Coach and client use feedback to set goals and identify areas for behavior change

-Refer to feedback as benchmark

-Ongoing feedback based on progress

**Stage 5:**

*Outcomes*

-Observable changes in behavior and performance

-Coach and client evaluate intervention as effective

-Organization satisfied with results

-Continued support

**Stage 1:**

*Catalyst for Coaching*

-Some event occurs that signals the need for coaching

-Decision to use coaching intervention

-Coach selected based on ‘match’

Organizational Support

Organizational Feedback Environment

*Figure 2*. Feedback model developed by Gregory et al. (2008, p. 49). Note1. Copyrighted 2008 by Gregory. Reprinted with permission. See Appendix C.

De Haan et al. (2010) conducted a research on client’s critical moments in coaching to develop a client model of executive coaching. This study appears to have moved into new territory of uncharted waters of understanding critical moments of change for executives through coaching. The method was a mixed approach of gleaning information of client’s experiences through a survey of asking clients if they had experienced critical moments as a coachee. Follow-up was provided through interviews with respondents who indicated critical moments. Data was collected from 3,015 members of the Ashridge Business School alumni encompassing a wide range of industries from professional, consulting, and business services (13%), financial services (16%), pharmaceuticals, chemicals, and biotech (9%). Twenty-five percent were females. Questions were asked through the monthly alumni newsletter and personal email. Using a grounded theory approach, 40 short codes were developed for descriptions of critical moments to identity themes and significant comments. Themes developed around directiveness and non-directiveness, distinctions between challenges and support, content versus process, and between past and future. Results indicated that many clients do experience critical moments of change through a process of realization, and finding new insight into old questions with feelings of elation and heightened confidence.

Seger et al. (2011) offered a theoretical coaching cube, which conceptually helps to understand the coaching profession. Results from the nature of the rapid growth and development of coaching, the practitioner and academic world is ending up in chaos, lacks transparency, and is experiencing a drop in quality. The cube addresses, through a literature summation, what—coaching agenda, who—coaching characteristics, and how—schools of thought and approaches. By drawing upon the psychological literature, which empirically demonstrates and investigates how coaching works, three studies were reported in one research article and were presented to address the what, who, and how to understand which coaching cube was more frequently used in corporations (Seger at al., 2011). Details from these three studies are provided below.

Study 1: Coaching Agenda: Through a self-developed questionnaire administered on the website of HR Practitioners and through an invite to participate in HR Practitioners’ weekly newsletter, two-hundred and two organizations participated with more than 1,000 employees. This study validated coaching was on the rise in Belgium and coaching has yet to reach its full potential. Managers’ report being aware of coaching for organizational learning and performance improvements, but the resource of coaching was not accessed sufficiently. An ANOVA and post hoc Scheffe test showed no significant effects for industry, type of respondent, and size of the company (Seger et al., 2011).

Study 2: Coaching Characteristics: Seger at al.’s (2011) self-developed questionnaire was emailed to 203 coaches who were personal contacts of the researchers and through Internet searches of coaches. Eighty-three coaches responded of which 55% where male, 68% were external coaches and 52% focused on skill and performance coaching and on averaged used a coaching approach. Coaching characteristics includes implementing a solution-focus, goal-focus, neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), behavioral coaching, cognitive-behavioral, action coaching, system coaching, humanistic coaching, problem focus, transformational, transpersonal, and transactional coaching, integrative coaching, gestalt coaching, inner game and multi-model coaching, rational emotive behavioral coaching, no idea, and other. Approaches most used in Belgium were solution focused, goal focused, behavioral, person centered, cognitive-behavioral. Coaches who used more of cognitive and solution focused approaches tended to implement skill coaching marginally morewhile other coaches who tended to use action and goal focused coaching focused more on performance. These results can be understood on how coaching works where HR managers are more inclined to select the cognitive and solution focused coaching for skill improvement (Seger et al., 2011).

Study 3: School of thought and approaches to how: Five training institutes in Belgium were contacted which provided short trainings and information was retrieved about their training curriculums. The five schools targeted their programs at future line managers, internal, and external coaches and targeted 11 core competencies as defined by the ICF. Thirty-one techniques (how) were demonstrated to be taught implying the training institutes, which adhered to offering techniques from all the schools of thought explained why coaches reported to be eclectic in their approaches. Additional information assessed was if coaches learn different approaches for different agendas. For performance and skills coaching, emotionality (52%), rationality (36%), and activity (45%) were utilized more than techniques from awareness (8%), and context (13%). The final research question, for this study, investigated if content differed between line managers, internal and external coaches, and if learning differed from what research institutes taught of which was not supported. Limitations of this study was relying on self-reports and preferences (Seger et al., 2011).

In summary, the three studies revealed a coaching cube as useful as a conceptual tool to provide a framework for understanding the coaching market.

**Effectiveness and efficacy.** Empirical research, which links a relationship between coaching and the company’s bottom line would seem necessary to validate the effectiveness and efficacy of executive coaching, and establishing a link is fundamental to this research project (Levenson, 2009). Most research conducted on effectiveness and measurements are classified into three categories: (a) changes in perceived effectiveness; (b) changes in executive’s conduct him or herself, and; (c) changes in hard performance measures (Levenson, 2009). Levenson (2009) and Crompton et al. (2012) conducted research to establish a clear relationship between executive coaching and a company’s bottom line.

Levenson (2009) conducted an exploratory case study on 12 coaching engagements to provide a framework and method for evaluating executive coaching and the influence on business. The assumption was if coaching improves an executive’s behaviors, business is improved through subsequent applique of those changes. The findings indicated preliminary evidence linking coaching to business outcomes. This study is perceived to have been successful because of the small nature of the sample size, no statistical analysis was conducted or presented to support the preliminary findings.

Crompton et al. (2012) conducted a study to bridge this apparent gap in existing literature of connecting coaching, directly or indirectly, to a company’s growth. Seventeen hypotheses were created to test the relationship between the coach’s *roles*, coach’s *focus* for sessions, perceived coaching results, coaching satisfaction, and entrepreneur locus-of-control (Crompton et al., 2012). A predictive, quantitative method to predict firm growth rate included two cohorts—those who had taken coaching and those who had not engaged in coaching. The Structural equation modelling (SEM) method revealed the effect of coaching had on a company’s growth and performance. Participants were self-declared business owners and entrepreneurs of 200 private companies (n = 190). Of the 200 business, 50% (n = 100) had used a coach and 50% (n = 100) had not engaged in coaching. A cross section of industry regions was represented with a chi-square cross-tabulation test demonstrating no significant differences on industry regions across both cohorts c2 (15, n = 200) =.287, p < .05.

Organizational demographics encompassing percent of growth rate, revenue turnover, number of personnel, and age of participants were tested through a *t-*test, with non-significant results between cohorts on size of firm and company age. However, cohorts differed significantly on revenue turnover. In Australian dollars, the range was $.9 million to $161 million, the mean was $9,010,687 and the median was $5,647, 915 for companies that used a business coach. For companies that did not use a business coach, the range was $5 million to $1,160 million, the mean was $32,233,387, and the median was $10,438,735 (Crompton et al.,2012).

Surprisingly, 81% of business owners reported and attributed that 30% of growth was a direct result of implementing coaching. An independent t-test revealed insignificant differences on self-efficacy and locus-of-control of participants who participated in coaching and those who did not participate. Results of this study indicated business coaching is a mediating variable of organizational success and growth through the vein of self-efficacy or confidence in the businesses’ bottom line (Crompton et al., 2012).

Ely et al. (2010) presented a summative and integrative framework of coaching evaluation to establish a unifying theme. Through a quantitative blend of examining evaluation methodologies in 49 different coaching studies on leadership was presented. For the summative evaluation, Kirpatirck’s four-level taxonomy provided the theoretical framework for revealing and the evaluation criteria for leadership coaching. The quantitative synthesis of evaluating leadership coaching focused on procedure, analysis approaches, data sources, and evaluation standards. Forty-nine research studies evaluating leadership coaching were identified of which 20 were peer reviewed, six non-peer reviewed, 22 dissertations, and one conference presentation. Sample size ranges from 1-404 with an average of 52. Ely et al. argued a summative finding of leadership coaching evaluation is necessary to document the effectiveness of coaching and a common framework. Ely et al. findings stated, despite a general agreement, the importance of a unifying framework for evaluation does not exist, especially, because the coaching process is organic and ongoing. Findings indicated practitioners and researchers have made strides to conduct and report summative conclusions through self-reports of behavior change.

Predominately, research studies conducted on effectiveness and efficacy surround behavioral changes in an executive and leadership improvements (Levenson, 2009). Many argued the necessity of these changes for leaders who can effectively lead global organizations (Crainer, 2011; Gurdjian et al., 2014). This link is important to the theoretical and practical applications for this proposed research study by underpinning the value of coaching for the success of businesses in the 21st century global economy.

**Executive coaching not effective.** In contradiction to the literature reviews of research, which highlight and underpin the effectiveness of coaching on businesses and leadership, McComb (2013) published an exploratory case study, which indicated coaching is perceived as ineffective. From McComb’s research, this study appears to be the first of its kind. An organizational level of sampling through snowball technique and an individual participant sample level was employed. One independent coach, three coaching participants (senior management), and two administrators were selected from the Australian firm, ABC Manufacturing, a $3 billion company with 7,400 employees. Data collection entailed seven in-depth interviews using a qualitative method. Data was analyzed and interpreted -- a systematic set of procedures to code and classify the data to ensure patterns, important constructs, and themes emerged.

The strategic goal of ABC Manufacturing implementing coaching was for organizational effectiveness, according to McComb (2013). The main and overwhelming theme in this study was coaching did not deliver the expected return; ABC Manufacturing quit using coaching as an effective organizational tool for performance and growth. Limitations of coaching were explored such as no matter how skilled the coach is he or she cannot address issues which are a resultant of structural deficiencies such as, a lack of leadership development programs, annual reviews, and poor leadership supervisory policies. Coaches cannot address issues of employees who are a result of a dysfunctional system and according to McComb, short cuts do not exist for developing systems and procedures, which support healthy growth and development of a company’s success. At best, the results are suggestive only. Juxtaposing this research is valid to this study regarding the effectiveness of coaching. Despite this research by McCombs (2013), viewing coaching in a negative light, the countermanding evidence indicates and supports coaching is effective.

These research studies about executive coaching demonstrate the significance of understanding coaching and the potential influence coaching has on the variables of self-efficacy and transformational leadership. Reviewing the different subdomains of executive coaching dissects and underpins what works and what approaches, and other variables which may not be effective. Understanding this relationship can illuminate what effects change, what promotes change, and whether coaching enhances self-efficacy and transformational leadership skills and behaviors.

Additionally, reviewing the seminal and current literature of the three variables, executive coaching, self-efficacy, and transformational leadership provides information to help understand the critical dynamic that nearly 60% of companies face leadership talent shortages (Crainer, 2011). Understanding the relationship, which exists between coaching, self-efficacy, and transformational leadership may provide knowledge and information to address this deficit. These conceptual comprehensions were fundamental to this research study proposed by this author.

**Self-Efficacy**

**Construct Definition of Self-Efficacy and LSE**

Bandura (1986), a social cognitive theorist, first introduced the concept of self-efficacy. Social cognitive theory includes grounding in the conceptual understanding that human beings are vigorously committing to their development and actions (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy supports this theoretical framework as an essential construct to social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy “influences the initiation, intensity, and persistence of behavior” (Paglis, 2010, p. 771). Bandura (1997) postulated self-efficacy refers

to a judgment of one’s own ability to perform a specific task within a specific domain. Thus, self-efficacy is the aspect of self, which refers to how sure (or how confident), the individual is that he or she can successfully perform requisite tasks in specific situations, given one’s unique, and specific capabilities. (p. 4)

Quigley (2013) purported LSE “is their belief in their capability to lead others and fulfill whatever roles are necessary in that capacity” (p. 580). Norris (2008) defined LSE as “active shapers of their environment, not merely passive reactors” (p. 46).

Anderson, Krajewski, Goffin, and Jackson (2008) suggested self-efficacy scales and measurements have the potential to predict effective leadership, because the self-efficacy domain is an influential contributor, which effects human performance. Self-efficacy should be naturally improved through coaching (Moen & Allgood, 2009), where leaders who sought coaching to enhance and develop their self-efficacy reported healthier and improved self-efficacy (Evers, Brouwers, & Tomic, 2006).

**Empirical Research Studies on Self-Efficacy**

Bandura and Lock (2003) noted “a resilient sense of efficacy provides the necessary staying power in the arduous pursuit of innovation and excellence” (p. 97). Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) posited many cognitive factors have been studied, but the study of self-efficacy receives constant attention to comprehend the value of this cognitive construct. Operationalizing and measuring the construct self-efficacy typically comes in two forms: (a) researchers assess if individuals can perform specific tasks on specific levels; and (b) the level of confidence on each given task (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Self-efficacy includes measurement either in magnitude (number of positive responses) or strength (summing the confidence ratings over all domains of performance). Most published empirical articles are either addressing magnitude or strength, where the popular method appears to fall under strength (Lee & Bobko, 1994).

Many researchers focused on self-efficacy to understand motivation, behavior, and positive relationships in clinical and organizational environments (Carmeli & Schaubroeck, 2007; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Hsiao, Chang, Tu, & Chen, 2011; Nease, Mudgett, & Quinoñes, 1999; Park & John, 2014; Schmidt & DeShon, 2010; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Tierney & Farmer, 2011; Vancouver & Kendall, 2006). These researches were the impetus for studying the link between self-efficacy and work achievements. Many subsets of work performance have been and continue to be researched such as adaptability, coping, idea generating, managerial performance, skill development, and adjustment issues to a new job or duty are a small window into this vase domain (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). For the focus of this literature review and the applicability to this research project, only empirical studies teasing out the relationship between self-efficacy and work performance are reviewed and synthesized.

Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) stated their research was the first of its type to quantitatively synthesize, test, and compare research discoveries addressing the correlation between self-efficacy and work achievements through aggregated meta-analysis. The theoretical lens applied was social cognitive theory. Results included the magnitude of the relationship between self-efficacy and achievements with a significantly weighted correlation of .38. The moderating variable of task difficulty is a strong moderator on the link between self-efficacy and work performance (N = 16,441). Nease et al. (1999) studied work performance and self-efficacy with feedback as the moderator on future self-efficacy. Design for this study was a 2 X 2 X 3 mixed factor with self-efficacy (high versus low), feedback (negative versus positive), and time (three trials). Standard deviations (SD), intercorrelations, and means were presented. The conclusions of this research study demonstrated and supported the argument that continuous feedback (versus one time only feedback) effects performance depending upon their self-efficacy to perform the task (Nease et al., 1999). The hypothesis, which postulated environments of negative feedback, levels of self-efficacy (high and low) would affect the participants’ acceptance of the negative feedback on job performance, was supported. Participants with robust self-efficacy would exhibit decreases in feedback acceptance. The second hypothesis, which received some support, predicted participants’ acceptance would moderate the link between future self-efficacy and feedback (Nease et al., 1999).

Juxtaposing the above research, Vancouver and Kendall’s (2006) study found a strong negative link between self-efficacy, performance, and motivation. Through the theoretical lens of self-regulation, which proposes motivation plays a role in goal attainment and self-efficacy depends upon the involved process, 63 students participated in this study (79% females and a mean age was 21 years). Through a repeated-measure approach to study the effect of the variables --goal level, self-efficacy, and planned study time, over time were measured. Results confirmed self-efficacy was negatively correlated to reported and planned study time, and performance on a within-person level. However, a positive correlation was determined between performance and self-efficacy at the between-person level (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006). Means, SD, standard errors were reported through an intraclass correlation with a one-way random effects. For the between-persons, data was aggregated to the individual level and the within-persons analysis, a hierarchical linear modeling was used. The take away from this research indicated that trainers might want to reduce self-efficacy to improve learning and use motivation to prepare (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006).

Countermanding Vancouver and Kendall’s (2006) results, Schmidt and DeShon (2010) conducted research to elucidate and comprehend the dynamics of the correlated link between self-efficacy and a negative link. Schmidt and DeShon (2010) proposed performance ambiguity could be the mitigating variable for the negative self-efficacy effect. The conclusions of this study assisted to establish the scope of the dynamic and suggested potential avenues for constraining negative self-efficacy. In line with this thought, Cordova et al. (2014) conducted a research project regarding how confidence in self-efficacy, previous knowledge, and interest in previous knowledge interact in the conceptual concept of learning from change.

One-hundred and sixteen college students were assessed and polled for this research project. Results formulated into three categories: (a) Low self-efficacy and confidence, interest, previous scientific knowledge, and high previous misunderstanding; (b) High self-efficacy and confidence, interest, and prior scientific understanding and low previous misunderstanding; and (c) mixed high self-efficacy and confidence, interest, but low previous scientific knowledge and high previous misunderstanding. The mixed profile appeared to be the most productive for conceptual change along with learner characteristics, but this profile may differ from those in other learning environments (Cordova et al., 2014).

Method of study, by Cordova et al. (2014), assessed demographics of sex, age, ethnicity, educational level, and general grade point average (GPA). A six item researched created questionnaire followed the recommendations of Bandura (2006) to measure students’ self-efficacy. An external self-efficacy professional reviewed the measuring tool for validity of content and the recommendations were integrated. Instruments used was a self-efficacy scale and an interest measure to assess seasonal change. Variables were understanding of seasonal change, confidence in previous knowledge rating, seasonal change, and surprise measure. The procedure used an online survey tool, where respondents engaged in two on-line survey times. After assessment, students read a rebuttal text presenting the facts regarding how seasons change. Following, participants were asked to measure their level of surprise and complete the measures again. A 2-week period elapsed between session 1 and session 2 to orchestrate a delayed post-test of permanent conceptual change (Cordova et al., 2014).

Results factored in only participants, who participated in both sessions, outliers, and normality (Cordova et al., 2014). A clustered test using Ward’s method with squared Euclidean distance included examination of student’s profiles. The three-cluster solution demonstrated distinct, non-redundant profiles with an appropriate number of respondents in each cluster (21.6-40.5%). A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was implemented to test the independent variable of group profile (low, mixed, and high) and uniformed learner characteristics to create profiles (topic of interest, self-efficacy, previous misunderstandings, confidence in previous understanding, and previous scientific knowledge). Additionally, an ANOVA with post hoc comparisons using Bonferroni correction was used to ensure validity of the clustering of the independent variable of surprise after reading the rebuttal text. A statistically significant difference between profiles after reading the text *F*( 2,133) = 12.86, p < .001. The students in the mixed group, through a post hoc comparison, revealed more surprise after reading the rebuttal text than low profiles or high profiles. A statistical difference of surprise did not exist between the low and high profile groups (Cordova et al., 2014).

Cordova et al. (2014) conveyed the importance of understanding the concept of change based interventions, such as a rebuttal text, to capture the relationship between a learner’s attention and professing to be highly confident in their misunderstanding. This study demonstrates the importance of understanding the learner’s characteristics in conceptual change. Significantly and relevant to this author’s research is to understand how a high misconception (high confidence and self-efficacy about the misconception) about a belief will flat line change and learning new concepts.

Tierney and Farmer (2011) researched creativity in the work place with the variable self-efficacy. A creative self-efficacy model was formulated around Gist and Mitchell’s (1992) model of self-efficacy, which provides a dynamic view of how individuals fluidly progress and change self-efficacy over time in the workplace. A state sponsored organization was studied for this research. Initially, Tierney and Farmer studied the organization, its capacities, and developed a working knowledge of the culture and its employees. Second, a procedural step of implementing a survey at two different times to provide a longitudinal study was implemented. Measures of the test surrounded, creative role identity, job creativity requirement, supervisor creative expectation, creative self-efficacy, employee creativity, and control variables such as: educational level, job self-efficacy, and complexity were included. Random coefficient modeling was performed to examine prediction of creative self-efficacy and creative performance. Results from Tierney and Farmer’s research indicated increments in employee’s perceptions of administration expectancy, where creative role identity lead to an increase in employee innovative self-efficacy over time and innovative performance increased as their creative self-efficacy increased over a month time frame. As the employee’s creative role perception increased, so did their creative self-efficacy.

Another study by Hsiao et al. (2011) sought to comprehend the link between self-efficacy and innovative work performance for teachers in Taiwan. A strong positive correlation was verified between teacher’s self-efficacy (TSE) and innovative work performance (IWP). However, a statistical correlation was not established between self-efficacy and IWP scales and using innovations. Individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to undertake more challenging tasks encompassing more creative practices (Carmeli & Schaubroeck, 2007). Hsiao et al. indicated teachers with high self-efficacy demonstrated better IWB. Their method was a random sample of 20 secondary schools, with 546 participants of which 64.5% were female, where the average age was 35.2 years with 12 years tenure. Data was analyzed through Pearson’s correlation coefficients, regression analysis, and descriptive statistics.

Lack of confidence strongly correlated to an inability to complete tasks, undermining determination to work through challenges (Park & John, 2014). Park and John (2014) posited that consumers develop more self-efficacy when using a brand that promises benefits to enhance their performance. An example includes that if consumers used Gatorade or Under Armour during a rigorous exercise, their belief system of confidence about their performance would enhance their ability to perform better. The goal of this study was to explore the concept regarding individuals who believe their personal qualities and abilities cannot be improved through their own efforts (entity theorists), but experience improved self-efficacy and performance when using a brand during a difficult task. Park and John’s study is relevant to this author’s research by demonstrating self-efficacy is improved using a brand, i.e., executive coaching with high education, highly recommended, and very experienced could be considered the brand.

The method for this study conducted by Park and John (2014) included 80 undergraduate learners (42 men and 38 women) who took the graduate record examination (GRE) math test, using either a pen engraved with MIT or a regular pen. Students who did not complete the study (n = 2) or within the time limit (n = 2) were removed from the final sample. The first study was a survey to measure implicit self-theory, background questions, and demographics. The second study students were told the university bookstore needing help in evaluating which pens individuals liked the most. Respondents were randomly assigned either the MIT pen (n = 40) or a generic pen (n = 36). In the third research project, learners were told the university was assessing the readiness of undergraduate students for graduate level work. To measure readiness, 30 math questions were administered from the GRE.

Park and John’s (2014) first study used a mixed model analysis to test the prediction that entity theorists would perform better on the GRE when using a MIT pen versus a non-MIT pen. As predicted, the three-way interaction, implicit self-theory, pen condition, where GRE was significant (β = -.17, t(72) = 2.01, p < .05). Park and John’s findings demonstrated using an MIT pen increased test scores for some, but not all, students. Entity theorist (believing one’s abilities only come in a fixed quantity that cannot be changed) results in those who performed better on difficult GRE math questions when using the MIT pen. This study answered the question of a person who struggles with a difficult task whether self-efficacy would increase to perform better and the answer is yes (Park & John, 2014).

Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, and Rich (2007), and Stajkovic, Lee, and Nyberg, (2009) studied self-efficacy and work performance with moderating variables such as, collective efficacy, group potency, and individual differences. Both research articles used the definition of Bandura (1997) for self-efficacy and implemented theoretical construct of social cognitive theory for the framework of their studies. Both studies used a meta-analysis method to analyze self-efficacy, work performance, and the mediating variables. Stajkovic et al. (2009) found that cumulative efficacy completely mediated the link between group performance and group potency. Judge et al. (2007) found that self-efficacy predicted job performance with low complexity, but not those with average or high complexity. Additionally, self-efficacy predicted performance for job duty, but not job performance. In the presences of individual differences, predicted validity of self-efficacy is titrated.

These studies contribute information to the effects of self-efficacy on motivation and confidence, while incorporating feedback to ascertain how these variables effect self-efficacy. These studies underpin how self-efficacy is a domain of effective leadership and the ability to seek coaching to improve leadership skills and behaviors. Understanding the relationship and effects of these domains support the proposed research project.

**Self- Efficacy, Executive Coaching, and Leadership**

Scholars and researchers discussed the importance of executive coaching, along with the domain self-efficacy as a primary variable for the 21st century’s successful leader’s researchers (Anderson et al., 2008; Baron & Morin, 2010; Everset al., 2006; Moen & Allgood, 2009; Moen & Federici, 2012). Accordingly, reviewing research, that increased the understanding of the relationship between self-efficacy and coaching, is critical to the research proposal.

In addition to executive coaching being new, Moen and Skaalvik (2009) stated insufficient research regarding the psychological performance variable of self-efficacy, and how this domain relates to executive coaching exists. A thorough review of the literature (Google Scholar, Business Source Select, and EBSCOHost) indicated research regarding the relationship between coaching and self-efficacy is lacking. Chemers, Watson, and May (2000) built a premise of demonstrating empirical research on leadership, which studied the domains of self-confidence, self-esteem, and self-efficacy did not differentiate between constructs, nor did literature reflect many interests in these areas. The purported reasons by Chemers et al. (2000) indicated why finding seminal works on self-efficacy and executive coaching is challenging. The empirical studies, found appeared to fall into two different researched fields: (a) the effect of executive coaching on self-efficacy; and (b) executive coaching with the variable of self-efficacy on leadership effectiveness.

**Effect of Coaching on Self-Efficacy**

Baron and Morin (2010), Moen and Allgood (2009), and Bozer, Sarros, and Santora (2013) researched the effects of coaching on self-efficacy. Baron and Morin had a mediating variable relating to the management soft-skills, Moen and Allgood to critical leadership capabilities, and Bozer et al. (2013) on job performance. Boran and Morin established five-hypotheses to include: (a) executive coaching has a positive correlation with self-efficacy; (b) learning goal orientation has a positive correlation with self-efficacy; (c) utility judgment has a positive correlation with self-efficacy; (d) work-environment support has a positive correlation with self-efficacy; and (e) affective organizational commitment has a positive correlation with self-efficacy. Only the first hypothesis will be reviewed.

Boran and Morin’s (2010) study took place in a large multinational manufacturing business, which offered a leadership enhancement program with three different educational methods; (a) classroom workshops with eight modules; (b) action learning groups with seven modules, and; (c) executive coaching up to 14 times. Respondents were supervisors who voluntarily signed up and were administered three different questionnaires with a time lapse between the questionnaires. Research design entailed a one-group pretest-posttest design. Descriptive statistics demonstrated the respondents attended seven or eight classroom workshops, where 96% of the respondents partook in more than five of the seven planned action-learning modules; and coaching sessions received range from 1 to 11 sessions. A paired *t*-test analysis revealed a significant development from pre-educating on self-efficacy and post-educating on self-efficacy. Multiple regression analysis demonstrated support and confirmed Boran and Morin’s H1. Additionally, learning action did not have a significant relationship with post-training self-efficacy, and the variance of the classroom workshop was almost zero proposes the unique effect coaching does have on the development of self-efficacy (Boran & Morin, 2010).

Moen and Allgood (2009) studied 144 middle managers, through an on-line questionnaire, from Norwegian Fortune 500 companies to ascertain the link between coaching and self-efficacy. One-hundred and twenty-seven participants responded with 56.5% male and 43.5% female with 61.3% between the ages of 30-45. The findings from a paired *t-*test supported the premise executive coaching indeeds increases self-efficacy. The results from this research project suggested executive performances are improved as self-efficacy is improved. An important factor is executives in this study possessed high self-efficacy and believed they could already achieve their most important tasks as a leader.

Bozer et al. (2013) explored the relationship between the (a) coachee’s receptivity to feedback; (b) pre-instruction motivation; (c) developmental self-efficacy; (d) learning goal orientation; (e) self-awareness; (f) self-analyzed job performance improvement; (g) task achievements; and (h) affective commitments within the confines of executive coaching. Design and method was a non-randomized controlled trial setting. Findings indicated a positive and significant relationship between learning goal orientation and pre-instruction motivation, and improvement in job self-analysis performance. A positive correlation between job performance and self-efficacy was demonstrated. This research highlighted the individual outcomes, which can be achieved with executive coaching. In summation, these studies demonstrate the strong relationship between improved self-efficacy coupled with executive coaching and are critical constructs to this study.

**Self-Efficacy, Coaching, and Effectiveness**

Evers et al. (2006) indicated despite the importance of the growing understanding of coaching, a paucity of research was apparent on the success of coaching. These authors conducted a quasi-experimental study to establish a relationship between coaching and presupposed individual goals. This study included 60 administrators of the U.S. federal government put into two different groups. One group was in a coaching group and the other group was not in a coaching group. Initially (Time 1), self-efficacy perceptions and outcomes expectations were assessed under four domains; (a) setting goals; (b) behaving in a balanced matter; (c) cognizant living, and; (d) workplace. After a 4-month lapse (Time 2), the exact variables were reassessed. Results demonstrated the coached group scored better than did the control group on the two variables (Evers et al., 2006).

The method and instruments used for this study conducted by Evers et al. (2006) encompassed a constructed Likert-type scale questionnaire, which measured outcome expectancy and self-efficacy perceptions on both sets of groups. These questionnaires were distributed by either email or internal mail within the organization. The experimental group were involved in 1-8 different coaching sessions (M 5 3.67, SD 5 1.45). ANOVA was performed, which validated the relationship between the variable outcome expectations with respect to behaving in a balanced matter, and self-efficacy with the perception of setting his or her own goals. The findings indicated a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group. The control group scored 6.96 and 7.09, and the experimental group 7.28 and 7.67 at Time 1 and Time 2 respectively. Summation of this study indicates a relationship was established between outcome expectations with respect to behaving in a stable manner, and on self-efficacy perceptions with respect to setting his or her own goals (Evers et al., 2006).

The next four studies, Anderson et al. (2008), Baron, Morin, and Morin (2011), Moen and Skaalvik (2009), and de Haan, Duckworth, Birch, and Jones (2013) studied self-efficacy in relation to effective coaching and effective leadership. A prominent outcome in leadership development and effectiveness, according to Baron et al. (2011), is the development of self-efficacy for the coachee in relation to the working relationship between the coach and the coachee. Through a pre and post-test study of a leadership enhancement program, the collection of data included the analysis of 30 coach-coachee dyads. A one-way analysis covariance did not uphold the researcher’s hypothesis. The results indicated coaches who overemphasized the degree of the working relationship of the coachee perceived less growth in self-efficacy versus coaches that worked with coachees who underestimated the working relationship. A coach who underestimates the working relationship is the best forecaster of post-coaching improved self-efficacy (Baron et al., 2011).

Moen and Skaalvik (2009) studied executive coaching through the lens of performance psychology regarding the variables self-efficacy, self-determination, goal setting, and casual attribution. One-hundred and forty-four executives participated in a one-year study. Twenty executives engaged in coaching from an external coach and 124 executives engaged in a coaching based leadership program. Findings through a paired *t-*test supported effective executive coaching increased self-efficacy. However, all other variables measured decreased during the study. Self-efficacy is a fundamental domain affecting human performance (Bandura, 1997), where leadership self-efficacy correlated to predicting, understanding, and developing effective leaders (Anderson et al., 2008). These finding indicated both executive coaching and coaching based leadership is one variable to increasing performance.

Stewart, Palmer, Wilkin, and Kerrin (2008) explored the relationship between the personality of the coachee (using the Five Factor Model) and the effectiveness of coaching with general self-efficacy (GSE) as a variables. Through a convenience sample and an on-line questionnaire sent to 110 participants, recruited via email sent to coaches. An average of seven sessions and ranging from 3 to 8 months, three measures were employed: one related to coaching transfer and two related to personality. Participants who did not score high on conscientiousness, openness, emotional stability, and GSE may find learning tools or interventions in assisting them to help transfer their learning from being coached to the work place useful.

De Haan et al. (2013) demonstrated an ingredient fundamental principle for effective coaching is the self-efficacy of the client. Other active ingredients studied were the working alliance, the character of the client, and personality match between coach and coachee. Results demonstrated how the client perceived the outcomes were closely associated with the perceptions of the working relationship, self-efficacy, and the range of techniques used by the coach. A significant established relationship between self-efficacy and perceived outcome was strong *r =* .61. Additionally, strongly correlated was the client’s self-efficacy, the perceived range of coaching technique, and coaching outcome. This study was conducted through an online survey of 156 client-coach pairs with a response rate of 78.6% for coaches and 58.4% for clients. Figure 3 depicts a graph, which demonstrates the common factors that were hypothesized to have a positive effect on the outcome of coaching (de Haan et al., 2013, p. 47).

*Figure 3*. Common factors, which have a positive outcome on coaching (de Haan et al., 2013, p. 47). ). Note 2. Copyrighted 2013 by de Haan. Reprinted with permission. See Appendix C.

Executive coaching is used as a multisource rating and feedback (MSF) strategy for the improvement of development for leaders. Nieminen, Smerek, Kotrba, and Denison (2013) performed a quasi-experiment, which followed 469 managers in a 15-month leader enhancement program that included two groups. Two groups were formed. The second group actively engaged in the feedback workshop, and afterwards had sessions with an executive coach, where the first group did not. The executive coaching variable had a positive outcome on supervisors’ leadership behavior, self-rated involvement, and consistency. The written findings were viewed through the lens of self-efficacy and the validity of self-rating scales. The speculation stated was that an increase in self-efficacy accompanied or mediated developments in self-rated behaviors accompanied or mediated by an increase in self-efficacy. Through an exploratory regression analysis, a tentative suggestion included perceived changes in self-analyzed leadership behaviors are predictive of others’ analysis of leader performance. In other words, positive self-growth, which occurs through executive coaching, may cultivate others’ perceptions of a leader’s performance over time when factoring in self-efficacy (Nieminem et al., 2013).

**Self-Efficacy and Transformational Leadership**

Since the inception of the theoretical concept of self-efficacy introduced by Bandura (1977) scholars studied self-efficacy through a variety of lenses, playing a significant role regarding understanding organizational behavior (Paglis, 2010). Domains such as employee creativity (Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009), work performance (Cavazotta, Moreno, & Bernardo, 2013; Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011), group cohesiveness (Pillai &Williams, 2004), employee well-being (Lui, Sui, & Shi, 2010), and work-related attitudes (Walumbwa, Lawler, Avolio, Wang, & Shi, 2005) have been studied. A strong and relevant theme, which is conducive to this study, is understanding the interplay between self-efficacy and leadership and how the interplay relates to sustainable and successful business.

To underpin the importance of the parameters of this study, understanding the interplay between self-efficacy and transformational leadership will be reviewed. Even though the construct self-efficacy has existed since 2000 (Paglis, 2010), and transformational leadership about the same time frame (Given, 2008), the pairing of the two constructs is very embryonic (Walumbwa et al., 2005). Walumbwa et al. (2005), despite the study of the independent effects of self-efficacy and transformational leadership, Mesterova, Prochazka, and Vaculik (2014) stated a lack of research continues to exist on these variables and their potential interactive effects on each other. A thorough review of transformational leadership and self-efficacy found self-efficacy to be a mediating variable in most studies on transformational leadership. Only two studies by Fitzgerald and Schutte (2010) and Mesterova et al. (2014) were found which dealt directly with self-efficacy and transformational leadership, although there appears to be ample amount of research done on self-efficacy and leadership.

Fitzgerald and Schutte (2010) offered the first study on transformational leadership and self-efficacy. The purpose of the research project was to understand whether an intervention created to enhance self-efficacy for transformational leadership had a positive relationship to further transformational leadership self-efficacy and produce a stronger level of transformational leadership. The goal of the Mesterova et al. (2014) study was to assess the link between a leader’s self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and leadership performance, specifically if transformational leadership traits contributes to self-efficacy with leader performance.

In 2010, Fitzgerald and Schutte conducted their research through an experimental design, which randomly assigned participants to either an intervention or control condition, and examined the outcome of a program designed to develop transformational leadership self-efficacy. The goal of the study was to measure outcomes of transformational leadership self-efficacy and transformational leadership outcomes Emotional intelligence was added as a variable to understand if higher emotional intelligence, which was assessed prior, would reveal a stronger increase in transformational leadership. One-hundred and eighteen managers from a retail travel business were recruited, which included 41 males and 77 females with a mean age of 27.93. Two groups were established with one group assigned to the self-efficacy creative writing intervention condition and the other group did not include the writing intervention. Between groups, a *t*-test found no significant differences between groups at pre-interventions in transformational leadership self-efficacy, transformational leadership results, or emotional intelligence. Executives assigned to the writing intervention group produced significantly higher transformational leadership self-efficacy and transformational leadership results than the control group. These finding suggest self-efficacy is a prominent domain to transformational leadership (Fitzgerald & Schutte, 2010).

Juxtaposing Fitzgerald and Schutte’s (2010) research, Masterova et al. (2014) constructed three hypotheses “(1) Leader’s self-efficacy is related to the extent which the leader exhibits transformational leadership (2) Leader’s self-efficacy is related to leader effectiveness and (3) Transformational leadership mediates relationship between self-efficacy and leader effectiveness” (p. 114). Masterova et al. conducted research through a standardized management computer game. Thirty-two CEO and leaders participated who were students, and were evaluated by 604 respondents who were their subordinates and students at the same time. The simulation game was chosen to help eliminate the effect of external variables. A self-efficacy scale was administered with 17 items with a five-point Likert-type scale response. For the assessment of leadership effectiveness, the same five-point Likert-type scale was used to analyze the perceived performance of leadership, two items were implemented. Performance was measured by the profitability of each fictitious organization during the entire management computerized game. The leadership style questionnaire was implemented to measure leadership traits. Data was collected over two consecutive semesters.

Masterova et al. (2014) findings did not support hypothesis one, two, and three through correlation testing. The assumption of self-efficacy might be an antecedent to transformational leadership was not supported. Reasons for these findings encompassed a philosophical conversation around leaders with high self-efficacy might stipulate unrealistic an unobtainable goals. Followers may perceive leaders as ineffective because the goals were set too high.

**Transformational Leadership, Self-Efficacy, and other Variables.**

Scholars studied transformational leadership and self-efficacy, but with other variables. The following scholars conducted studies that included variables as employee performance links, influence followers well-being, group cohesiveness, commitment and performance, employee creativity, and work related attitudes (Cavazotte et al., 2013; Gong et al., 2009; Kark & Sharmir,2002; Liu et al., 2010; Nielsen & Munir, 2009; Pillai & Williams, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2005; Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011). Research will be presented in chronological order.

Walumbwa et al. (2005) examined how self-efficacy moderated the employee’s work-related attitude under the influence of transformational leadership. Using a hierarchical linear model, data included collection from 37 banks and 644 people in China and the United States via questionnaires rating leadership and self-efficacy, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The results extended the literature on leadership and motivation by demonstrating transformational leadership and self-efficacy are contingently (depending upon each individual’s level of self-efficacy) related to followers’ attitudes at work.

Nielsen and Munir (2009) and Liu et al. (2010) conducted research on transformational leadership, their followers, and employees’ well-being with self-efficacy as a mediating role. Nielsen and Munir studied research that implies transformational leadership linked to employee burnout and proposed that transformational leaders effect their followers’ self-efficacy. The study extended previous works examining the relationship between leadership and well-being carried out in Denmark. The SEM was used to analyze a theory-driven modality of links between leadership, affective well-being, and self-efficacy. Results of this study revealed that followers’ self- reported ratings on self-efficacy mediated the correlation between transformational leadership traits and positive living, and upheld the reciprocal nature of the correlation between administrators’ perceived transformational leadership traits and self-efficacy. The findings of this research project implied how companies can promote well-being through transformational leadership interventions.

In a similar vein to Nielsen and Munir’s (2009) study, Liu et al. (2010) conducted research on how transformational leadership effects employee well-being with the mediating variable of trust in the leader and their self-efficacy. Through a self-administered questionnaire, researchers analyzed questions to gather data from employees in Beijing and Hong Kong with a response rate of 92.81%. To analyze the data, researchers, Nielsen and Muniur, used a CFA to compare the fit of their hypothesized measurement model to other plausible alternative models. Results demonstrated that transformational leadership correlated to perceived signs of work stress, trust in the leader, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction. This study confirmed a significant link between transformational leadership, self-efficacy, and employee well-being.

Gong et al. (2009), Walumbwa and Hartnell (2011), and Cavazotte et al. (2013), studied transformational leadership and work performance, employee performance, creativity, and work-related attitudes with the moderating effects of self-efficacy. Cavazotte et al., wanted to ascertain if a link existed between transformational leadership and performance among Brazilian employees. Through a sample of 107 administrators from a multinational corporation, researchers asked participants regarding self-efficacy and identification with their leader. A response rate of 86%, with 61.7% women and 53.3% men. The proposed SEM analyzed with a Partial Least Squares (PLS) tool, where the results suggested perceived transformational leadership is correlated with stronger levels of task efficiency and assisting behaviors.

Walumbwa and Hartnell (2011) examined a possible link between transformational leadership, supervisor-rated performance, how employees’ perceived their relationship with their supervisor, and self-efficacy. The domain, performance was defined as creative, innovative, inspiring, and taking on duties to reach company goals. A sample of 426 employees and 75 of their direct managers from a large car dealership and data included collection in four waves. Time 1 collected data on transformational leadership, Time 2, collected data on relationship identification, and time 3, collected data on self-efficacy with a 3-week lapse of time between data collection periods. Results indicated, through a hierarchical linear model, that transformational leadership behavior positively correlated to relational identification with their managers. Walumbwa and Hartnell stated that these findings supported Bass (1985), which was later expanded upon by Kark and Sharmir (2002). A suggested reason why transformational leaders are successful in developing self-efficacy is transformational leaders promote developing relationships with their supervisors.

Researchers examined job performance and creativity through the lens of transformational leadership with the mediating role of self-efficacy (Gong et al., 2009). This research included four different goals: (a) to empirically test the link between employee innovativeness and job effectiveness; (b) to investigate the effect of transformational leadership and employee learning on employee innovativeness; (c) to assess innovative self-efficacy as a mediating variable of transformational leadership; and (d) to assess these relationships with the Taiwan culture (Gong et al., 2009). The study demonstrated, through regression analysis, innovation positively correlated with employee sales and job effectiveness, which was mediated by the employee’s innovative self-efficacy.

Pillai and Williams (2004) conducted a research study on transformational leadership, self-efficacy, group synergy, commitment, and effectiveness to uphold the hypotheses that transformational leaders build committed, high performing work teams by enhancing self-efficacy and synergy. This study included interest in the process, which could elucidate how transformational leadership affects outcomes within the confines of the fire department organizational culture. Surveys were completed by 303 fire department employees of whom 271 responses were included in the data collection and analysis. Eighty-five point five percent were male. Transformational leadership included assessment with a measurement tool developed by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Bommer (1996). The purpose was to assess group synergy as individual perceptions of synergy, once again using Podsakoff et al. (1996) measurement tool. Self-efficacy was assessed by implementing the 17-item scale developed by Sherer et al. (1982), where researchers measured organizational commitment by using the scale created by O’Reilly and Chatmen (1986). SEM with the LISREL 8 program was used to determine statistical significance. The results supported the hypothesis proposed. Transformational leadership linked to perceived unit performance and commitment through self-efficacy and synergy. Additionally, transformational leadership effected commitment and perceived unit performance. Following is a graph that visually portray the results of this study in Figure 4.

.15

.14

.44 .29

.17 .42

.19

.18

*Figure 4*. All paths coefficients are statistically significant at p < 0.05 (Pillai & Williams, 2004, p. 153). Note 3. Copyrighted 2004 byEmerald Group Publishing Limited. Reprinted with permission. See Appendix C.

**Transformational Leadership**

Transformational leadership is a leadership style, which incorporates relationships and the dynamic interplay between the followers and the leader of a group. Transformational leadership inspires followers to be the best they can be, to accomplish their goals, and values what followers need and want. By focusing on the follower’s values and aligning those values with an organization’s value this outcome may further the mission of a corporation, company, business, or organization (Givens, 2008). The intended purpose of this literature review is to dig deep into the theoretical understanding of the effect of transformational leadership on an organization and personal outcomes. By understanding the effects of transformational leadership, leaders can influence follower’s behaviors, which will have a positive influence on the organization (Givens, 2008).

**History of Transformational Leadership**

This theory evolved from a book written by James MacGregor Burns (1978) who developed the conceptual construct of transformational leadership (as cited in Bolden et al., 2003). The definition of transformational leadership developed by Burns is “a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (Bolden et al., 2003, p. 14). According to Bolden et al. (2003), Bass (1985) expanded Burn’s definition of transformational leadership to include, “one who motivates us to do more than we originally expected to do” (Givens, 2008, p. 5). Bass viewed transformational leadership where leaders change and transform followers, more of a one-way direction. By contrast, Burns viewed transformational leadership more of a two-way process. However, Bass does incorporate social exchange, which is not apparent in Burn’s work (Bolden et al., 2003). Additionally, Bass included that transformational leaders should elevate the follower from a lower level of functioning to the next higher level of functioning of needs, values, and morals. Since the 1980s, organizations had been implementing a more polished and enlarged version of Burn’s transformational leadership theory, which concentrates on the interplay between leaders and followers within social systems (Givens, 2008).

**Transformational Leadership and Organizations**

Shanker et al. (2012) stated organizations should give leadership styles, specifically transformational leadership, added weight because evidence indicated transformational domains influence innovation within the organization. Boerner, Eisenbeiss, and Griesser (2007) stated transformational leadership influences employees’ performance and innovation, where Gumusloğlu and Ilsev (2009) supported transformational leadership influences innovation. Research about transformational leadership lies heavily within quantitative research and focuses on the influences of innovation and creativity and employee’s behaviors. Ten articles (Boerner et al. 2007; Gumusloğlu & Ilsev, 2009; Jung, 2001; Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003; Michaelis, Stegmaier, & Sonntag, 2010; Pieterse, Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010; Sarros, Cooper, & Santora, 2008; Shin and Zhou, 2003; Sosik, Kahai, and Avolio , 1998) were reviewed which address innovation and creativity, five articles which addresses transformational leadership and the effects on employee’s behaviors, three articles about teams, and two articles, which addresses transformational leadership and variables which enhance transformational leadership.

**Innovation and creativity.** Sosik et al. (1998) conducted research under digital brainstorming conditions, groups (159 students included random distribution to either a four person team or a five person team of which 49% were men) were tested, through a 2 x 2 (low-high transformational leadership x identified-anonymous group decision support system [GDSS] setting), factorial design, on their levels of creativity under transformational leadership. Researchers tested four variables of creativity to include: (a) fluency; (b) flexibility; (c) originality; and (e) elaboration. Results demonstrated the teams that operated under the stronger levels of transformational leadership produced more creativity around idea generation (Sosik et al., 1998). In 2003, Shin and Zhou conducted a quantitative research study on 290 employees, which held research and development (R&D) positions, and their supervisors in 46 different Korean companies. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was distributed to the participants, and through statistical analysis, hierarchical regression analysis, the findings indicated a positive correlation between transformational leadership, intrinsic motivation, and creativity.

Jung et al. (2003) stated leadership style is a factor, which affects outcomes, considered the most important factor regarding organizational innovation. An empirical research study assessed the link between the two variables; leadership style and organizational innovation, where researchers used a multisource approach to collect and analyze survey data from 32 Taiwanese companies using the MLQ questionnaire. A PLS analysis was implemented, which produced descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among the scales and demonstrated a positive correlation between transformational leadership and organizational innovation. Additionally, a positive correlation was found between transformational leadership and empowerment for innovation.

Boerner et al. (2007) took the interesting approach of assessing the mediating variables of organizational citizen behavior (OCB) or debate on organizational innovation and transformational leadership. OCB partially indicated a mediating role to the relationship between employee’s performance and transformational leadership, whereas debate (the active and open discussion of innovation) demonstrated a strong and positive relationship on employee’s innovative behavior. A CFA in AMOS was implemented to produce the results of this study.

Sarros et al. (2008) added to the research on transformational leadership and organizational innovation by testing the theoretical relationship between the two variables. Through SEM analysis based on responses of 1,158 managers on Australian private sector organizations, researchers found the variables of performance orientation, competitiveness, and 26% of the variance for climate in organizational innovation highly correlated to transformational leadership. A CFA of the measurement model yielded the data to be a good fit. Organizational culture included analysis as a mediating factor of transformational leadership and the culture for innovation within the organization. Findings demonstrated a good fit of data and the domain, where articulates visions, had the strongest correlation to producing a competitive and performance culture (p < .05). Jung et al. (2008), added to the growing conversation of transformational leadership, encouraging a positive relationship with organizational innovation by conducting a quantitative research study on 50 Taiwanese electronic and telecommunications companies. A PLS analysis confirmed a direct and positive link exists between transformational leadership and organizational innovation.

In 2009, Gumusloğlu and Ilsev stated a number of research studies underpin the positive relationship between transformational leadership and innovation, however, a lack of studies exists which examined the contextual environments under which this dynamic either happens or is augmented. The purpose of the study was to examine moderating variables and the influence of either internal or external support for innovation as a contextual condition, which influenced the correlation between transformational leadership and organizational creativity. To test the hypothesis that transformational leadership effected organizational creativity through internal and external support, researchers gathered data from 163 R&D employees from 43 micro-Turkish self-starter software design companies.

Through a questionnaire method, a hierarchical regression analysis tested the data, where the findings indicated a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and organizational innovation significant because this study took place in small organizations. Previous studies, which confirmed the positive relationship, took place in large corporate organizations. Additionally, external support of innovation had a positive moderating effect especially when high levels of external support were present versus no support at all, however, the moderating effects of internal support of innovation was not significantly correlated to transformational leadership and innovation Gumusloğlu & Ilsev, 2009).

Along this same theme, Michaelis et al. (2010) explored deeper into the moderating variable of the psychological mechanisms of employee’s innovative behavior and transformational leadership. Michaelis et al. collected perceptual data from 198 employees from a multi-national automotive corporation. Through perceptual data, researchers test the relationship through a hierarchical regression analysis. Results indicated a strong and positive relationship between employee’s creative behavior and their perceptions of organizational culture, which promoted innovative behavior. Another variable, which demonstrated a strong relationship between transformational leadership and innovative behavior, was commitment to change.

Two studies conducted, one in 2001 by Jung and the other in 2010 by Pieterse, Knippenberg, Schippers, and Stam juxtaposed transformational and transactional leadership on creativity and innovation. Jung (2001) used a 2 X 2 factorial design experiment (transformational versus transactional and real versus nominal group) to assess the different leadership styles on creativity. One-hundred and ninety-four participants, of whom 52% were men, took place in a brainstorming activity, randomly appointed to either a 3 or 4 member team (70% of the groups were four member groups). The MLQ was implemented to assess leadership style and creativity measured through fluency and flexibility. MONOVA was used to assess the influence of leadership traits and style (p < .001), in which results indicated participants in the transformational and nominal groups had a higher performance than peers, which were in the transactional leadership and real group conditions. The pattern was consistently demonstrated across the two measures of creativity --fluency, and flexibility (Jung, 2001).

Pieterse et al. (2010) accepted the challenge of understanding the moderating effect of psychological empowerment on innovative behaviors of employees through transformational versus transactional leadership. The results, from a field research project consisting of 230 employees from a government agency in the Netherlands through multi-sourcing ratings, demonstrated transformational leadership positively correlated to innovative behavior. The positive correlation was isolated to when psychological empowerment was strong. Transactional leadership had a negative correlation with innovative behavior conducted in the same conditions.

The aforementioned studies in this section demonstrated the powerful influence of transformational leadership on innovative behavior. The organizational climate of transformational leadership underpins the value of cultivating and enhancing transformational leadership behaviors and skills for global and complex organization. Demonstrating the importance of transformational leadership is fundamental to this research project.

**Employee behaviors.** Transformational leadership studies on employees’ behaviors include studying such variables as (a) health, (b) performance evaluations of supervisors, and (c) self-efficacy for employees to set self-concordant goals, and (e) if transformational leadership has a domino effect on lower levels of management. A seminal study on how transformational leadership affects employee’s behaviors, Bass, Waldman, Avolio, and Bebb (1987) conducted a research on top executives, and if a domino effect of leadership style effects lower management employees. Fifty-six supervisors from a New Zealand government agency participated in this study. The MLQ questionnaire was implemented, where a .35 correlation was established through a multiple regression analysis between charisma (a domain of transformational leadership) observed in first level management to their second level management reinforcing a domino effect does take place from higher levels of management to lower levels of management.

In a study conducted in 16 different nations entailing 93,576 subordinates and 11, 177 teams of large MNCs through a multilevel analysis method sought to establish a relationship between employee’s health and transformational leadership (Zwingmann et al., 2014). Included in this research project, national power distance was an added variable to understand if there was a moderating link between health and transformational leadership. Zwingmann et al. (2014) established a positive relationship (r = .16 to r = .50) between transformational leadership and employees’ health and a strong perceived relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ health in eight countries. Additionally, as predicted by Zwingmann et al. a high power distance strengthened the health promoting effects of transformational leadership.

Walumbwa and Hartnell (2011) studied employees’ perceptions of transformational leadership and supervisor-rated performance. Relational identification and self-efficacy were analyzed to determine if these variables were mediating variables. Performance in this study referred to the supervisor’s innovative effectiveness, creating inspiration to reach organizational goals by taking on challenging tasks. Data from 426 employees and 75 of their immediate managers from a large car dealership included collection in three different time samples (from the presumed causal sequence of (a) transformational leadership; (b) relational identification with the manager; (c) self-efficacy) and was collected in four waves. Through a hierarchical linear modelling, transformational leadership and self-efficacy were demonstrated to be mediated by the relational identification with the manager, positively linked to employee effectiveness.

Employees’ tendencies to establish self-concordance goals was more important and more congruent under transformational leadership skills. Bono and Judge (2003), through a study conducted on 247 leaders and 954 subordinates, who reported directly to those leaders, participated in a survey with a response rate of 70% for the leaders and 57% response rate for the followers. The MLQ was used as the assessment tool to measure transformational leadership and the SEM test was the method used to analyze the data. The results demonstrated a positive job attitude, performance, and the relationship between transformational leadership and self-concordance was positive and significant though not large (r = .13).

Felfe and Schyns (2004) studied whether supervisors considered themselves similar in personality, character, and style, if would they also perceive their leaders as more effective and successful. Through a study of 213 supervisors solicited from two different public agencies, participants rated their own leadership skills by using the MLQ assessment tool. Researchers examined the relationship between *self-rated* and *perceived* transformational leadership, along with the relationship between perceived similarities between supervisors and their leaders. A correlational analysis revealed the relationship between self-rating and perceived leadership ranged from r = .16 to r -.38, which upheld the hypothesis of expecting a positive correlation between similarity and transformational leadership and perceiving their leaders as more successful. These studies signify and underpin the value of transformational leadership and the effects on employee’s behaviors, demonstrating the need for effective leadership to create sustainability for organizations.

**Transformational leadership and teams.** Three studies conducted by Butler, Cantrell, and Flick (1999), Esenbeiss, van Knippenberg, and Boerner (2008), and Purvanova and Bono (2009) demonstrated the positive effect of transformational leadership on teams within organizations. Butler et al. (1999) collected data from 78 members of self-directed teams to study the possible link between transformational leadership behaviors, upward trust, and job satisfaction. The team members’ trust in their leaders mediated the relationship for 4 of 6 of the transformational leadership behaviors (TLB), which are: (a) verbalizing a vision; (b) living a healthy role model; (c) setting high expectations surrounding performance; (d) foster acceptance of group goals; (e) demonstrating support for individual employees; and (f) to prevent boredom by providing stimulating and challenging intellect to the members. Six leadership behaviors moderated the correlation between job satisfaction and trust in their leader. However, the results of this study did not support the mediated or the moderated model of members’ satisfaction with their supervisor. To obtain these results, researchers used a multiple regression method (Butler et al., 1999).

Eisenbeiss et al. (2008) studied fostering team innovation and the importance to leadership. Transformational leadership included a link to the concepts of West’s team climate theory (team culture for innovation), to propose an integrated model of the significance between transformational leadership and team innovation. Through the mediating process of innovation and a culture for excellence as the moderator, conclusions from research conducted on 33 R&D teams demonstrated transformational leadership supports innovation and in turn stimulates a climate for excellence, which enhances team innovation. Method used to collect and analyze the data was a factor analysis using AMOS 5.0.

Another variable regarding teams, pertinent to complex organizations, includes the concept of virtual teams. Purvanova and Bono (2009) conducted such a research study, juxtaposing face-to-face versus virtual teams with transformational leadership. Thirty-nine leaders led both sets of teams, virtual and face-to-face. A duplicated analyses uncovered comparable veins of transformational leadership in either type of teams. Post hoc analyses highlighted those leaders who demonstrated robust levels of transformational leadership were the most influential on virtual teams. Team performance appeared to be stronger in the virtual teams, but transformational leadership linked equally to project satisfaction in both types of teams. The results of this research seem to indicate transformational leadership had a stronger effect on virtual teams and leaders who made a strong and concerted effort to develop their transformational leadership skills achieved higher levels of team performance. Transformational leadership on teams is a dominant variable to understand, especially virtual teams. These researches add to growing body of understanding the effects of transformational leadership on teams, which helps to address the deficit of ineffective leaders.

**Training to enhance transformational leadership.** In two different studies, Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996), and Dvir, Eden, Avolio, Shamir (2002) demonstrated the effects of training on transformational leadership. Barling et al. (1996) used a pretest and posttest control group design to ascertain the effects of training on transformational leadership. Training was a one-day group workshop followed by four individual meetings. A multivariate analysis of covariance demonstrated that training had profound effects on how followers perceived leaders and their transformational leadership skills and behaviors. Through a longitudinal randomized field study, Dvir et al. assessed the effects of transformational leadership, enhanced through training on employee’s performance and development. Fifty-four military leaders, 90 direct followers, and 724 indirect followers were in either a control group or the experimental group, which received transformational leadership training. Researchers used a MONOVA method to assess the data, which linked a correlation between the leaders in the experimental group with a positive effect on direct and indirect followers and their effectiveness and development. These two studies are significant and support how training can enhance transformational leadership and underpin the importance of executive coaching for leaders.

**Transformational Leadership and Executive Coaching**

Coaching is an established method for developing leaders for dynamic, complex organizations, and contemporary leadership (MacKie, 2014). Executive management chose to add value to their leaders by implementing coaching (Harper, 2012). Coaching of transformational leadership includes relevance and application to address this dynamic, however, coaching to enhance or develop transformational leaders appears to be embryonic and established research to link a relationship is nascent. Thorough analysis of the databases, Google Scholar, Business Source Complete, Academic Search Premier, and ABI / Inform Global produced five research articles with the first one appearing in 2010.

Harper (2012), through a literature review of coaching different styles of leadership, discussed transformational coaching as a focus on the client, permitting learning and personal development based on organizational and personal goals of the client, while providing authentic support toward the established goals. Cerni, Curtis, and Colmar (2010) demonstrated that an increase in transformational leadership through a 10-week coaching framework based on the cognitive-experiential self-theory (CEST) guides behaviors through two information-processing systems, the experiential and the rational system. Another study conducted by Shannahan, Bush, and Shannahan (2013) demonstrated salespeople were highly coachable under transformational leadership.

MacKie (2014) and Abrell et al. (2011) revealed transformational leadership statistically increased through coaching and development programs. Mackie investigated the effectiveness of strength-based coaching to improve transformational leadership through a 360-degree feedback process on 37 executives, nonrandomly appointed to a control group or a coaching group. The coached group received six sessions of leadership coaching involving feedback. Abrell et al. used a multi-source, multi-method, and longitudinal evaluation of a leadership enhancement-training program, which included feedback, training, and coaching. The influence of this program included assessment at 3, 6, and 12 months after the training program. Twenty-five leaders actively engaged, where results demonstrated improvements in transformational leadership after 6 months in the leadership development program. These studies are important to this research project in supporting the value of executive coaching and the enhancement of transformational leadership.

**Theoretical Framework - Control Theory**

Control theory dates back to 1948 from Wiener’s book, *Cybernectics; Control and Communication in the Animal and the Machine* (Carver & Scheier, 1982; Klein, 1989), aligned with the cybernetic hypothesis feedback loop, which is the cornerstone and building block for action. The feedback loop consists of four elements: (a) a goal; (b) input function; (c) a comparator; and (c) an output function (Klein, 1989). The common analogy for this dynamic is a thermostat, which controls a room and temperature. The goal is the temperature of which the thermostat is set where the input sensor is the monitor, designed to evaluate the current temperature of the room. The comparator is the mechanism that compares the *set* temperature with the *actual* temperature of the room, where the effector is the source for which change can happen, such as the furnace. The goal of the feedback loop analogy is to address issues of concern or discrepancies within the system for this framework. A discrepancy exists when the error system takes action to correct or reduce the discrepancy. The process of sensing, comparing, and changing includes duplication until change happens or the system is back in homeostasis (Klein, 1989).

Control theory with human mechanisms is obviously not so cut and dry and entails more complex problem solving processes. Conceptually, control theory can represent a flexible approach to behavior, allowing feedback to facilitate reaching goals (Klein, 1989). An example given of applying the control theory to human behavior by Carver and Scheier (1982) equated a person driving a car down a road. The driver constantly, through visual analysis, watches car placement on the road. If the car swings too far left, visually the driver perceives this maneuver and turns the steering wheel to the right, to center the car back on the road.

Discrepancies of driving are usually small and go unnoticed. Humans perceive, compare the perception with a standard or goal, and change the behavior to reach the desired goal. The feedback loop is a construct, which theorists indicated application to self-regulation of behavior (Carver & Scheier, 1982). Gregory et al. (2011) specifically recommended control theory, goals, feedback, and self-regulation as a theoretical framework for executive coaching. By setting goals and implementing feedback, leaders who pursue coaching can improve their self-regulatory abilities, personal development, and job performance. Figure 5 demonstrates visually a control feedback look.

Goal

Compare

Output

Behavior

Input

Feedback

Variable

e.g., performance

Disturbance

*Figure 5*. A simple control loop (Gregory et al., 2011, p. 27). Note 4. Copyrighted 2011 by Gregory. Reprinted with permission. See Appendix C.

VandeWalle (1997) posited that goal orientation influences how humans process the effect of feedback opportunities defining six domains of feedback to include: (a) frequency; (b) type; (c) source; (d) method; (e) timing; and (f) sign preference, where this will in turn enhance task performance. VandeWalle stated when individuals seek feedback, a cognitive dissonance will exist between seeking *assessment* of the self and seeking *enhancement* of the self. The difference lies within the motivation of the goal seeking, for either to improve performance or learning. Performance goal seeking individuals will focus more on the cost of feedback and learning goal seeking individuals will focus on more of the value of the feedback. This conceptual framework adds to this research study to understanding motivations for executives who are seeking feedback to enhance their leadership skills and behaviors and is important to understanding a domain to control theory (Vandewalle, 1997).

**Empirical Support for Control Theory**

Bandura and Cervone (1986) tested a hypothesis which postulated self-efficacy and self-evaluation mediate the reluctance of goals on performance motivation. Through a quantitative study, which encompassed 45 men and 45 women randomly assigned to four different treatment scenarios, and 10 participants randomly assigned to a self-judgment control conditions, the goal was to assess if self-recording of satisfaction and percepts of efficacy had any results on performance. The three conditions were: (a) goal setting and feedback variables; (b) measurement of self-evaluation and perceived self-efficacy; and (c) performance test variable. Results of the self-judgment group revealed no significant difference between the two groups *t*(28), where recording of self-judgment did not have a reactive result. Through a linear contrast, the test group, which benefited from implementing goals and feedback, more than doubled their performance levels over those who just received either the goal or the feedback alone, or neither. Bandura and Cervone study supported the conceptual theory of goal setting with motivational power through feedback (self-efficacy and self-evaluation mechanisms) when activated through cognitive comparisons. Goals augment performance when combined with feedback and progress toward the personal set standard of improvement. Performance feedback alone or goal feedback alone did not effect change toward motivation.

Jacobs, Prentice-Dunn, and Rogers (1984) tested control theory and self-efficacy in a 2 X 2 X 2 factorial design. The study included testing three between-subject variables of: (a) degree of self-awareness; (b) self-efficacy expectancy; and (c) outcome expectancy on 96 undergraduate students within low and high levels. Results demonstrated the self-efficacy variable to be the best predictor for determination and persistence.

Unexpectedly, as control theory would predict, self-awareness, in this case, did not enhance self-efficacy or outcome expectancies. The study revealed that when participants were not self-aware, this awareness effected persistence, high and low outcome expectancies. The suggested premise, because of this dynamic, was heightened passive self-awareness leads to a deeper perception of negative affect than to a realistic expectancy of performance. Negative affect precludes a positive formation of expectancy, which in turn effects behavior. Increased self-awareness will enhance the depth of expectancy and its subsequent behaviors, however, in situations with a strong emotional domain, increased self-focus may result more of an awareness of the emotion than the self-directed goal. The findings of this study includes the recommendation of the importance of highlighting perceptions of self-efficacy in situations, which will require persistence and self-awareness should be highlighted when behavior change is successful and lowlighted during experiences of failure. Additionally, reinforcing the positive affect after success can be used to reinforce new behaviors and to minimize the undermining effect of negative affect (Jacobs, 1984).

Kane, Marks, Zaccaro, and Blair (1996) tested two hypothesis on 216 wrestler’s performance, based on goal setting and self-regulatory processes combined with social cognitive theory. First, hypotheses indicated general support should be expected for the self-regulatory model. Second, performance includes ties to self-efficacy under extreme competing conditions. The study findings supported both hypotheses were supported through an analyses using LISREL VI, which supported the positive correlations between variables. Additionally, self-efficacy was linked to be the only predicting variable to wrestler’s performance in matches that went overtime. Committing and setting a goal, along with self-efficacy coupled with providing appropriate feedback, will enhance athletes’ perceptions of control over their outcomes, performance, and environment.

Bandura and Locke (2003) revisited the conceptual construct of negative self-efficacy and goal setting. Through a nine meta-analyses on the effect sizes of self-efficacy and through the immense scope of research on goal setting, this study contradicted the findings that believing in one’s capacities and goals is destructive. Findings from this study supported ontological and epistemological foundations of social cognitive theory, and bringing into thought the weight given to control theory. Individuals form trajectories of thoughts and behaviors, which include goals and ways to attaining the goals. By setting goals, individuals anticipate outcomes, which will motivate their behaviors and guide them. Cybernetic regulation is devoid of consciousness and self-awareness according to Bandura and Locke (2003), was given a sundry of human attributes, such as self-esteem, self-consciousness with different types of selves, egotism, outcome expectancies, and judgments.

Two studies designed by DeShon, Kozlowski, Schmidt, Milner, and Wiechmann (2004), and Park, Schmidt, Scheu, and DeShon (2007), focused on the influence of goal orientation and feedback. DeShon et al. (2004) studied teams and team goals in performance feedback to comprehend the effects of feedback on resource allocation and regulatory processes. Two-hundred and thirty-seven undergraduate psychology students were randomly assigned into 79 groups with three in a group. Multiple levels of analysis, team and individual, was able to establish and extend the model of self-regulation to individuals in teams as well as effects for feedback, interactions, and goal orientation on the two levels of analysis. Park et al. (2007) explored the antecedents for seeking different types of feedback such as individual differences in goals, cost, and value perceptions. Two-hundred and forty students participated in the study of a computer generated mock work setting. Through hierarchical linear testing, results revealed each goal had a unique pattern to the orientation of cost and value, which in turn influenced preference and type of feedback chosen (Park et al., 2007).

Donovan and Hafsteinsson (2006) and Tolli and Schmidt (2008), included the focus of self-efficacy, goal orientation, and goal performance. With 129 Icelandic job applications, Donovan and Hafsteinsson examined the role of positive goal performance discrepancies (GPCs), dispositional goal orientation, self-efficacy, and how these variables relates to goal revisions following performance feedback. Results indicated, through a hierarchical regression analysis, that goal revision happened primarily because of GPD, however, self-efficacy, performance goals, and learning goal orientation were moderating variables (Donovan & Hafsteinsson, 2006). Tolli and Schmidt delved into understanding how, why, and when employees revise their goals either up or down and over time. Tolli and Schmidt stated self-efficacy is a pertinent variable in the revision of goal revision. By experimentally manipulating goal progress through performance feedback and tracking how this effected self-efficacy and goal revision, this research included findings where performance feedback and attribution together effected self-efficacy, which influenced the goal reexamination. Data was assessed through a multilevel repeated measures approach using SAS Proc Mixed.

Johnson, Garrison, Hernez-Bromme, Fleenor, and Steed (2012) examined the correlation between the transfer of training and goal setting. Personal goals for leaders included development during a 5-day leadership development program and through a 360 degree survey collected over 3-months of goal setting were viewed as improved. The leaders, who established more than one goal for improvement, were perceived to have improved more than those who only set one goal. ANOVAs were conducted to analyze the data.

The theoretical framework of control theory uses such constructs as goal setting, feedback, and self-regulation. These constructs are a good fit with a lens to establish the foundational premise of this research project. This research project explores leaders who have a goal to improve their transformational leadership, through self-assessment (feedback), and leaders will self-regulate toward achieving goals established through executive coaching.

**CHAPTER 3.** **METHODOLOGY**

Chapter 3 includes the research design for this research project, presented, and explained with a comprehensive justification for each of these components. The study’s research questions and quantitative approach are presented to include the theoretical framework used. The experimental design, population, sample, and sampling method is defined next. Following is a discussion of the measurement procedure and analysis used to collect and process the data. Also included is a discussion regarding validity and reliability issues and concerns. Finally, ethical concerns, considerations, and the steps used to minimize risks to the participants are addressed in this chapter.

Based on the gap identified in the extensive literature review for Chapter 2, the purpose of this quantitative-based research study was to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and the propensity to pursue executive coaching to address the deficit of effective leaders. With most of the primary focus of research on executive coaching concentrating on outcomes, the need exists for more in-depth research to elucidate self-awareness for leaders (McCall, 2010; Sherman & Freas, 2004), and is an essential precursor to change (Ensue & Popescue, 2012). Specifically stated by Moen and Allgood (2009), the goal of assessing an executive’s self-efficacy is the ability to improve their self-efficacy through coaching to enhance a leader’s professional growth and performance.

R**esearch Questions**

The goal of the development of quantitative research questions were to form the purpose of this study (Creswell, 2009). The objective of this correlational study was to understand if a relationship exists between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and the propensity to pursue coaching. The purpose of the following research questions was to determine a possible relationship between the three variables.

RQ1. Does a relationship exist between self-efficacy and transformational leadership?

RQ2. To what extent does self-efficacy predict the propensity to pursue coaching?

RQ3. To what extent does transformational leadership predict the propensity to pursue coaching?

RQ4. What is the relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and the proclivity to pursue executive coaching?

**Research Design**

The research design is the plan and method about how data were collected and analyzed. The goal of the research method and design, which was developed and defined in the section the nature of the study, developed from the problem statement and purpose of the study as outlined in Chapter 1, was to answer the research questions. A quantitative study with a descriptive correlational design with linear regression analysis was used for this study with established self-efficacy and leadership instruments, which contain quantitative data to assess if a relationship exists between the variables. Applying a correlational design approach suits the needs of this study because the purpose is to examine if significant relationships exist between three sets of identified variables. Creswell (2009) recommended implementing a quantitative method when identifying different variables and their relationship or degree of association using statistical correlational analysis. Salkind (2008) supported the use of this method when the objective of the study is to demonstrate if a relationship exists (or not), between identified research variables.

**Population and Sample**

A population was defined for this research project with common characteristics and sample size determined to answer the research questions. The target population for this research study was executives in leadership positions (CEOs, COOs, VPs, CFOs, and executive management), which was accessed through SurveyMonkey®’s database. To avoid social and research exclusion, this study did not exclude gender or industry, but was limited to the United State since SurveyMonkey®’s reach is limited to the United States. Additionally, the framework of this study was not weighted to address conformity of standards for research involving human subjects in other countries. The study used a purposive sampling of executives. Purposive sampling is utilized and effective when the researcher needs to examine a particular and specific cultural domain of knowledgeable experts within a segmented group. The researcher determines what needs to be discovered and then finds the individuals who can provide the information either through experience or knowledge (Tongco, 2007). A random sample of 428 executives were reached through SurveyMonkey®. A power analysis determined with a 10+ error the need for 107 executives to respond to the survey for an alpha of .05, and a power of .95. Button et al. (2013) stated a research study with a low statistical power has a diminished chance of ascertaining a true effect. Established self-efficacy and transformational leadership assessment tools were utilized.

**Setting**

Recruitment of participants were solicited through Survey Monkey who recruited survey takers through their member site, SurveyMonkey® Contribute (<https://contribute.surveymonkey.com>). The respondent population was incentivized by SurveyMonkey®’s contributing to a charity of the member’s choice, plus the member may elect to participate in a sweepstakes.

Recruitment and demographics through SurveyMonkey®’s ensured a diverse group of respondents was reflective of the United States population. A standard email notification was used to notify respondents, that he or she had a new survey to take and the invite was a random group selected through an algorithm process. The algorithm process targeted the intended population, which was gleaned from the information provided by the members from their profile information. SurveyMonkey®’s turnaround timeline was 24 hours and solicited 186 responses with 110 of those responses being fully completed.

**Instrumentation / Measures**

The instruments used in this research study were selected because of their established reliability and validity measurements. The new general self-efficacy scale (NGSES) and the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) are established instruments (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). Participants received a survey which incorporated the assessments NGSES and MLQ, to include, a follow-up Likert-type scale question to ask how he or she self-rated their self-efficacy and transformational leadership (low, neutral or high), and then how likely he or she was to pursue executive coaching (Strongly disagree-Will not pursue executive coaching, Disagree – Might consider pursuing executive coaching within the next 3 months, Neutral, Agree, will definitely pursue executive coaching within the next 3 months, Strongly agree – will pursue executive coaching immediately) after his or her’s self-rated self-efficacy and transformational leadership style (see Appendix B).

**New General Self-Efficacy Scale**

Chen et al. (2001) created the new general self-efficacy scale (NGSES). The NGSES is designed to address certain constructs pertinent to organizational research. The constructs are: (a) predict specific self-efficacy (SSE) across tasks and settings; (b) anticipate general and in-depth performance; (c) and shield against negative experiences on future SSE. Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern (2006) posited the NGSES has an advantage over other instruments because the psychometric evidence for the NGSES is positive, the internal consistency is above the generally accepted cutoff of 0.70 as the NGSES ranged from 0.85 to 0.90. The NGSES stability coefficients ranged from *r =* 0.62 to *r=*0*.*65 and the evidence suggesting the NGSES is unidimensional with both exploratory and CFA analysis techniques used to replicate the data. The NGSES developed by Chen et al. consists of eight items (see Appendix B).

**Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)**

Burns (1978) created and coined the concept of transformational leadership and Bass and Avolio (1997) postulated three major leadership behaviors, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. Bass and Avolio developed The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x) to encompass 45 items ascertaining nine conceptually leadership factors and three distinct leadership styles. The instrument uses five scales identify transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence attributed and behavior). Transactional leadership includes definition by three scales (contingent reward, management by exception-active, and management by exception-passive), using one scale to assess laissez-faire leadership, which is non-leadership. According to Kirkbride (2006) and Ozaralli (2003), the MLQ is the best validated instrument and measurement and the most widely used instrument to assess transformational leadership (see Appendix B).

**Data Collection**

This quantitative study used the NGSES, MLQ, and a follow-up Likert-type scale question asking the leader to rate how they thought of felt their level of self-efficacy or transformational leadership (low, neutral, or high) and then based on their self-rated level would he or she pursue coaching. SurveyMonkey® distributed the assessment tools, and was responsible for the collection of data through the identified targeted population of executives in leadership positions. Additionally, SurveyMonkey® provided the raw data from the survey to this researcher for subsequent data analysis through their secure website via downloads in Excel, PowerPoint, and pdf files.

**Hypotheses**

The purpose to create a quantitative hypothesis is to help determine and predict relationship between variables (Creswell, 2009). A null and alternative hypothesis is germane to quantitative research studies. A null hypothesis (Hο) states that between variables no significant relationship exists, where an alternative hypothesis (Ha) predicts and supports that a relationship exists between the variables. The independent variables in this research study were self-efficacy and transformational leadership. The dependent variable was executive coaching.

Q1. Is there a relationship between self-efficacy and transformational leadership?

H01: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and transformational leadership.

Ha1: There is a relationship between self-efficacy and transformational leadership.

Q2. To what extent does self-efficacy predict the propensity to pursue executive coaching?

H02: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

Ha2: There is a relationship between self-efficacy and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

Q3. To what extent does transformational leadership predict the propensity to pursue executive coaching?

H03: There is no relationship between transformational leadership and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

Ha3: There is a relationship between transformational leadership and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

Q4. What is the relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and proclivity to pursue executive coaching?

H04: There is no relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and a proclivity to pursue executive coaching.

Ha4: There is a positive or negative relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and a proclivity to pursue executive coaching.

**Data Analysis**

This quantitative correlational study used SigmaXL to run the descriptive statistics, correlations, linear regression analysis. Minitab software was utilized to run the Cronbach Alpha scores for the validity testing and factor analysis to reduce the risk of Type I and Type II errors of the instruments for this research project. A correlational analysis was implemented to address research Q1. For research Q2 and research Q3, the Person’s correlcation was used to analyze the relationship between two variables. A linear regression analysis was applied to address research Q4 because this research question addresses the relationship between three variables.

**Validity and Reliability**

Validity and reliability need to be established and the theoretical framework, positivistic, attempts to establish reliability and validity through statistical testing (York & Clark 2006). The data measurements instituted for this research project included the NGSES and the MLQ, previously evaluated for validity and reliability.

**NGSES**

To establish reliability and validity of the NGSES, Chen et al. (2001) established a baseline for the NGSES, which consisted of 14 items and included scoring on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The test and retest reliability coefficients for the eight item scale were high 0.65, 0.66, and 0.62. Chen et al. (2001) concluded that the eight item NGSES was theory based, one-dimensional, stable, and internally consistent.

Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern (2006) additionally reported on the NGSES and stated the psychometric evidence for the NGSES is positive; the internal consistency is above the accepted cutoff of .70 as the NGSES ranged from .85 to .90. The NGSES stability coefficients ranged from *r =* 0.62 to *r=*0*.*65 and the evidence suggesting the NGSES is unidimensional with both exploratory and CFA analysis techniques used to replicate the data from Chen et al. (2001). Additionally, the reliability of the NGSES is discussed in chapter 4.

**MLQ**

The MLQ is the most widely used and tested leadership questionnaires, which measures transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership qualities (Hemsworth, Muterera, & Baregheh, 2013; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2000). For the validity and reliability of the MLQ, this researcher will use the work of Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008). Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) conducted a reliability check on the MLQ to ascertain if the MLQ produces the data for which the assessment tool was designed. The Cronback Alpha produced an alpha of = 0.86 and reliability values were greater than 0.70. A CFA was conducted using analysis of moment structures (AMOS) to test the construct validity of the MLQ (5x). Through a nine factor model, through a chi-square test was statistically significant p < 0.01, the ratio of the chi-square was 1.14, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was 0.03, goodness of fit index (GFI) was 0.84 and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) was 0.78, the results indicate that the nine factor model can be regarded as a reasonable fit to the data. The MLQ includes extensive testing establishing reliability and validity (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008). Additionally, the reliability of the MLQ (5x) is discussed in Chapter 4.

**Ethical Considerations**

This quantitative correlational study followed sound and proven ethical standards outlined by the Belmont Report. The three principles of respect for others, beneficence, and justice were ensured throughout this research project. Individuals who participated in this research project were not exposed to any inherent level of risk.

A consent statement was provided by this researcher as the first question on the survey and stated, “By clicking next, you consent that you are willing to answer the questions in this survey.” Conflict of interests were not present. Data will be stored for seven years, at which time this researcher will destroy all identifiers connected to the data. All data collected will be stored off line and will only be available to this researcher. Ethical standards follow the guidelines of the Belmont report and its principles and these principles were implemented throughout the entire study.

**CHAPTER 4. RESULTS**

The data are statistically analyzed in chapter four to explore if there is a relationship, if any, between the variables (a) transformational leadership; (b) self-efficacy; and (c) the propensity to pursue executive coaching. This chapter provides a review of the data analysis and the results obtained in this study, and is divided into four different sections: (a) the descriptive statistics of the respondents were captured and presented for each of the variables assessed; (b) the psychometric properties of each assessment tool is reviewed; (c) the hypotheses were tested and the results presented; and (d) conclusion, which is a brief summary of the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variables. For the alternative hypotheses testing, the Minitab and SigmaXL system tools were utilized to run the Pearson Correlation, Anderson Darling, and the Regression Statistical testing.

The MLQ and the NGSES assessment tools were distributed via SurveyMonkey®, to a targeted group of high-level executives (CEOs, COOs, CFOs, and VPs) with a follow-up Likert-type scale asking the respondents if based on their perceived results would he or she pursue executive coaching. Due to the limitations of SurveyMonkey®, the actual results and scores of the MLQ and the NGSES could not be provided to the respondents, therefore, to give a frame of context, the respondents were asked to self-rate their transformational leadership and self-efficacy scores. However, for the data analysis, the actual scores of transformational leadership and self-efficacy were utilized, which could be calculated by this researcher.

**Survey Distribution and Return Rates**

One hundred and eighty-six respondents were surveyed with 110 respondents (N = 110) completing the survey. The survey was distributed through SurveyMonkey’s® database and within a 24 hour timeframe 186 respondents were solicited; therefore, the survey was closed. A power analysis, as described in Chapter 3, determined 107 respondents were needed for this study to be significant. The survey was evenly distributed throughout the United Stated for solicited respondents, which held the position of CEO, COO, CFO, Executive Management, or VP within their organization, fulling the requirements of a purposive sampling. One-hundred and ten responses were completed out of the 186 for an aggregate response rate of 59.1%. Collected data was made available to this researcher via the SurveyMonkey’s® website with data provided in an Excel spreadsheet format.

**Demographics**

Descriptive statistics were used to portray the basic constructs, from which the data was collected to provide a simple survey about the sample and the measures. All demographic questions were answered completely. The demographic statistics were provided to this researcher by SurveyMonkey®. For the demographic question of gender, 56.76% self-reported as male (*N* = 63), and 43.24% respondents self-reported as female (*N* = 48) (see Table 2).

Table 2

*A Synopsis of the Respondents’ Gender*

Gender % of response Response Count

Male 56.8% 63

Female 43.2% 48

Twenty-five respondents (*N* = 25) were between the ages of 18-30 (22.52%), 37 respondents between the age of 31-40 (33.3%), 22 respondents between the ages of 41-50 (19.8%), 24 respondents between the ages 51-60 (21.6%), and 3 respondents between the ages 61-70 (2.7%) (see Table 3).

Table 3

*A Synopsis of the Respondents’ Age Categories*

Age Category % of response Response Count

18-30 22.5% 25

31-40 33.3% 37

41-50 19.8% 22

51-60 21.6% 24

61-70 2.7% 3

The choices for which position the respondent holds within the organization were CFO, COO, Executive Management, CFO, or a VP position. Fifty-three respondents (*N* = 53) were CEOs (47.7%), 17 respondents were COOs (15.3%), 25 respondents were in executive managements positions (22.5%), 8 respondents were CFOs (7.2%), and 8 respondents were VPs (7.2%)(see Table 4).

Table 4

*A Synopsis of the Positions Held within the Organization*

Position % of response Response Count

CEO 47.7% 53

COO 15.3% 17

Executive Management 22.5% 25

CFO 7.2% 8

Vice President 7.2% 8

Fifty-two respondents (*N* = 52) or 46.85% worked for businesses with less than 100 employees, 34 respondents worked for companies with employees between 100 – 1,000 employees (30. 63%), 22 respondents worked for companies with employees between 1,000 – 10,000 (19.82%), and 3 respondents work for corporations with more than 10,000 employees (2.7%)(see Table 5).

Table 5

*A Synopsis of the Organizations’ Number of Employees*

Position % of response Response Count

Less than 100 46.85% 52

101-1,000 30.63% 34

1,001 – 10,000 19.82% 22

More than 10,000 2.7% 3

**Survey Reliability**

The survey assessment tools included two previously authored scales the MLQ (5x) and the NGSES (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Chen et al., 2001). The MLQ scale measures characteristic constructs associated with transformational leadership and the NGSES assesses an individual’s self-efficacy. These scales have been individually measured for reliability in previously published research and reliability was performed again for this research study.

**MLQ**

For the aggregate data set, the 45-item questionnaire for leadership styles demonstrated a strong level of reliability with an overall Cronbach alpha (a= 0.93), which is slightly higher and upholds the previously tested Cronbach alpha (a = 0.86). The aggregate data for the four constructs, which are associated with transformational leadership, had an Cronbach Alpha value for each construct; (a) Idealized Attributes (IA) 0.73; (b) Idealized Behavior (IB) 0.73; (c) Inspiration Motivation (IM) 0.79; (d) Intellectual Stimulation (IS) 0.71). Therefore, this research study meets previously required standards for reliability.

**NGSES**

For the aggregate data set, an 8-item questionnaire on self-efficacy scale demonstrated a strong Cronbach alpha (a= .73). Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern (2006) reported on the NGSES and stated the psychometric evidence for the NGSES is positive; the internal consistency is above the accepted cutoff of .70 as the Chronback alpha scores for individual items on the NGSES ranged from .85 to .90. Therefore, this research study upholds and meets previously required standards for reliability.

**Normality Testing**

Normality testing was performed on the MLQ5x and the NGSES to test the aggregate data. The Anderson Darling, histograms, and boxplots were performed using the SigmaXL to determine normality. Additionally, skewness was generated for the each scale. The results of these tests are discussed next.

**MLQ**

Normality testing was performed on the MLQ for each individual question and the four constructs, which are associated with transformational leadership:

IA (Idealized Attributes) 10, 18, 21, 25

IB (Idealized behavior) 6,14,23,24

IM (inspirational motivation) 9, 13, 26, 36

IS (Intellectual stimulation) 10, 18, 21, 25

Without exception, all independent variable scales on the Anderson Darling test indicated non-normality with a significance level of p <.001. A visual examination of the histograms demonstrated most variables indicated only moderate negative (J-shaped) skewness. Minimal positive (L-shaped) skewness was indicated for questions 3, 5, 7, 12, 20, 28. The four constructs, IA, IB, IS, and IM indicated non-normality with a significance level of p < .05. A visual examination of the histogram demonstrated only moderate negative (J-shaped) skewness. For the purpose of this research, only the constructs of transformational leadership are visually displayed (see Table 6).

Table 6

*Descriptive Statistics for the Four Constructs, IA, IB, IS, and IM (N=110)*

IS IB IM IS

Mean 3.923 3.9 4.09 3.98

St. Deviation .718 .729 .703 .707

Minimum 1.5 1.2 1.75 1.75

Maximum 5 5 5 5

Median 4 4 4.25 4

Range 3.5 3.75 3.25 3.25

Anderson Darling 1.205 1.4 1.826 1.373

**NGSES**

Normality testing was performed on the NGSES and without exception, all independent variable scales on the Anderson Darling test indicated non-normality with a significance level of p <.001. A visual examination of the histograms demonstrated all variables indicated only moderate negative (J-shaped) skewness (see Table 7).

Table 7

*Descriptive Statistics for the NGSES Scale (N= 110 except for Q1 and Q6 N = 109)*

Q1 Q2 Q3 Q4 Q5 Q6 Q7 Q8

Mean 4.30 4.2 4.25 4.36 4.30 4.33 4.13 4.25

St. Deviation .65 .71 .79 .72 .72 .72 .74 .73

Minimum 3 2 1 2 2 2 2 2

Maximum 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5

Median 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4

Range 2 3 4 3 3 3 3 3

Anderson Darling 10.921 9.388 9.210 10.902 10.158 10.399 8.599 9.529

Although there is evidence the variables in this research study are not normally distributed, strong evidence exists which demonstrates the data for this research should be treated as normally distributed. First, the sample size of 110 out of 186 respondents is large. This sample size is ample enough to demonstrate results no lower than a confidence level of 95%, which was calculated in advance to be considered as significant. Additionally, precepts of Central Limit Theorem sample frames, which are larger than 30 respondents, will tend to have sample means that are normally distributed around the population mean even if the population is not normally distributed (Cooper & Schindler, 2000). The distance between the mean and median values on both variable scales are minimal (see Table 6 and 7 for full descriptive details of the two independent variables), which underpins and strengthens the argument the sample is in all probability a normally distributed representation of the population. True normality occurs when the distance between the mean and the median is zero. Therefore, the results of the normality testing uphold the decision, which was decided upon in the design phase of this research project, to utilize parametric tests to analyze the data.

**Hypothesis Testing**

The purpose of this research project was to determine the relationship between two independent variables, transformational leadership and self-efficacy, and the dependent variable, executive coaching. The testing of the alternative hypotheses, which are reiterated in this section, were analyzed by using the SigmXL system.

**Hypothesis 1**

To assess and analyze the null hypothesis, Pearson’s correlation was conducted.

H01: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and transformational leadership.

Ha1: There is a relationship between self-efficacy and transformational leadership.

The Pearson’s correlation tests the strength of a linear relationship between random variables and strength levels are indicated by a +1, 0, or -1 (Benesty, Chen, Huang & Cohen, 2009). The Pearson correlation is .691 with p < 0.000 therefore the null hypotheses must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted demonstrating a significant relationship between transformational leadership and self-efficacy (see Table 8).

Table 8

*Pearson Correlation p values for Transformational Leadership and Self-Efficacy*

Pearson Correlation Pearson Probability

Average Transformational Score .6991 0.000\*\*

Average Self-Efficacy Score 1.000

*Note.* Significance level: \* 0.05, preset level of significance=0.05.

**Hypothesis 2**

Only one dependent variable (executive coaching) is present to assess the null hypothesis, therefore a Pearson’s correlation analysis was utilized to analyze the relationship between the two variables, self-efficacy and executive coaching. A scatter plot is presented, which is useful when wanting to see how two comparable data sets agree with each. The assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity were evaluated through examination of the residual scatter plot, showing no outliers present in the composite scores.

H02: There is no relationship between self-efficacy and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

Ha2: There is a relationship between self-efficacy and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

The Pearson correlation is .167 with p < 0.08 therefore the null hypotheses must be retained and the alternative hypothesis rejected demonstrating no significant relationship between self-efficacy and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

**Hypothesis 3**

Only one dependent variable (executive coaching) is present for the assessment of this null hypotheses, therefore a Pearson’s correlation analysis was utilized to analyze the relationship between the two variables --transformational leadership and executive coaching. Pearson’s correlation was utilized to test the strength of the linear relationship between transformational leadership and executive coaching.

H03: There is no relationship between transformational leadership and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

Ha3: There is a relationship between transformational leadership and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

The Pearson correlation is .362 with p < 0.0001 therefore the null hypotheses must be rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted demonstrating a positive relationship between transformational leadership and the propensity to pursue executive coaching (See Table 9).

Table 9

*Visual Display of Pearson Correlation p values for Transformational Leadership and the Propensity to Pursue Executive Coaching.*

Pearson Correlation Pearson Probability

Average Transformational Score .362 0.0001\*\*

Average Self-Efficacy Score 1.000

*Note.* Significance level: \*\* 0.001, preset level of significance=0.05.

**Hypothesis 4**

The intent of this hypothesis was to understand if a relationship between transformational leadership and self-efficacy, and the synergetic interplay between the two variables, had a significant impact on a respondent to pursue executive coaching. The hypothesis was addressed through a regression analysis, which was used to analyze the likelihood to predict the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

H04: There is no relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and a proclivity to pursue executive coaching.

Ha4: There is a positive or negative relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and a proclivity to pursue executive coaching.

A linear regression model was calculated to predict likeliness to pursue coaching based on transformational leadership and self-efficacy.  A significant regression equations was found (*F*= 11.8488, p < 0.000), with an R-square adjusted of 0.0905.  The regression model was significant, but explains only 10% of the variations in likeliness to pursue coaching when both variables are present (see Table 10).

Table 10

*Regression with Transformational Leadership and Self-Efficacy Average Score Predicting the Propensity to Pursue Executive Coaching*

Variable *F* p

Transformational Leadership

and

Self –Efficacy average score 11.8488 0.000822

Note.*R2* = .0989, Adjusted *R2* = .090511

The regression analysis demonstrated a small, but significant prediction of the interaction between transformational leadership and self-efficacy and the propensity to pursue executive coaching, therefore the null hypotheses must be rejected, and the alternative hypothesis accepted demonstrating a positive interplay between transformational leadership, self-efficacy, and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

**CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS**

Chapter 5 is a summary of the collected data for this study, which focused on the relationship between transformational leadership, self-efficacy, and executive coaching. Leaders of corporations operating in this global economy endure and face complexities of uncharted precedents and leadership is foundational to the success and sustainability of this navigational process. Transformational leadership and self-efficacy are primary characteristics, which profile successful leadership, while executive coaching is instrumental in the development of these constructs. This research project added empirical data to the inventory of knowledge of these three constructs (a) transformational leadership, (b) self-efficacy, and (c) executive coaching through a quantitative study with a descriptive correlational design. The relationship was studied between transformational leadership, self-efficacy, and the propensity to pursue executive coaching. One-hundred and eighty-six respondents were surveyed with 110 respondents completing the survey. The MLQ (5x) and the NGSES assessment tools were utilized to assess and have respondents self-rate their transformational leadership and self-efficacy. This chapter discusses the findings of this research in detail adding to the body of theoretical knowledge, the implications for practitioners, and then concludes with recommendations for future research.

**Research Questions**

**Research Question 1**

The first research question asked in this study is as follows:

1. Does a relationship exist between self-efficacy and transformational leadership?

One alternative hypothesis was tested in this study to answer this first research question and this researcher projected a positive relationship would exist between transformational leadership and self-efficacy. To underpin the importance of this study, understanding the interplay between self-efficacy and transformational leadership in research literature is nascent (Walumbwa et al., 2005). Vaculik (2014) stated a lack of research continues to exist on these two-paired variables. However, despite the paucity of existing research, this research question and the findings do support Fitzgerald and Schutte (2010) and Mesterova (2014), which state the two variables are positively paired and contribute to each other and contribute significantly to effective leadership.

**Research Question 2**

The second research question asked in this study is as follows:

1. To what extent does self-efficacy predict the propensity to pursue coaching?

One alternative hypothesis was tested in this research project to answer this second research question, which was projected, based on the literature review of empirical evidence demonstrating a correlation between self-efficacy and executive coaching, as having a positive relationship between self-efficacy and the propensity to pursue executive coaching. However, no significant relationship was found between the independent variable, self-efficacy, and the dependent variable, executive coaching. This was a surprising result to this researcher. A possible explanation for this finding is that the purposive sampling of just high-level executives and their self-efficacy was assessed. Initially, the respondents were asked to self-rate their level of self-efficacy and the average was a 4 and the composite variable for actual self-efficacy was 4.5 indicating a high-level of self-efficacy as self-reported by the respondents. Possible mediating variables, which were not assessed in this study, which may have added to the overall high-level of self-efficacy could have been education level and experience or length of time in their position. The non-significant relationship between self-efficacy and executive coaching may indicate high-level executives feel quite confident, secure in their abilities, and do not feel the need to pursue coaching to enhance or develop their already existing level of self-efficacy. Additionally, the results of this research underpin Nease et al.’s (1999) research study where participants with robust self-efficacy would exhibit decreases in feedback acceptance. Several possibilities for future research can be derived from the results and findings of this research question and will be addressed in the section of future research recommendations.

**Research Question 3**

The third research question asked in this study is as follows:

1. To what extent does transformational leadership predict the propensity to pursue coaching?

One alternative hypothesis was tested in this research project to answer this third research question, which was projected, due to the countermanding empirical evidence demonstrating a correlation between transformational leadership and executive coaching, as having a positive relationship between transformational leadership and the propensity to pursue executive coaching. The alternative hypothesis was supported demonstrating a strong relationship between transformational leadership and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

McCall (2010) stated a paucity of information exits about leaders who take responsibility for this own development and posited no substitute exists for teaching evolving leaders how to take charge of their own development. From the results of this tested hypothesis, leaders who assess their transformational leadership are inclined to pursue executive coaching and to take charge of their own development.

Additionally, the overall composite combined variable score for transformational leadership was high; however, transformational leaders may always feel a need to improve their abilities, promoting relationships, and enhancing their followers’ abilities. Transformational leadership, in definition, is a continuous growth path and one actually never arrives at full transformational leadership. Transformational leadership inspires followers to be the best they can be, to accomplish their goals, and values what followers need and want (Givens, 2008). Therefore, the results of this study support the characteristic domains of transformational leadership and the desire to pursue executive coaching to possibly enhance transformational leadership levels.

**Research Question 4**

The fourth research question asked in this study is as follows:

1. What is the relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and the proclivity to pursue executive coaching?

One alternative hypothesis was tested in this research project to answer this fourth research question, which was projected, due to the countermanding empirical evidence demonstrating a positive relationship between these two variables, to be either a relationship between self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and a proclivity to pursue executive coaching. The alternative hypothesis was supported indicating a small, but significant likelihood when combining transformational leadership and self-efficacy, that an individual will be inclined to pursue executive coaching. The results support the results of research question 1 as this research question demonstrated a significant correlation between self-efficacy and transformational leadership. Additionally, this result indicates transformational leadership is a possible moderator on the variable self-efficacy, as self-efficacy as a standalone variable will not propel an individual to pursue executive coaching. Additionally, the results of this research question support the statement of McCall (2010) in teaching leaders to take charge of their own development. By assessing a leader’s transformational leadership and self-efficacy combined, giving the leader feedback about their leadership characteristics and goals, this will have an influence on leaders’ willingness to pursue executive coaching. Control theory, which is the theoretical framework for this research project, supports these actions and results.

**Practical Implications**

This research study provides insight to organizations, individuals, leaders, HR departments, Board of Directors, and to the executive coaching industry. First, to the industry of executive coaching when soliciting possible clients, transformational leadership is a construct which leaders may be willing to explore, enhance, and develop continuously. Additionally, combining the assessments of transformational leadership and self-efficacy may influence a leader to pursue executive coaching. Furthermore, organizations, HR departments, and Board of Directors can administer the MLQ (5x) separately or combined with the NGSES and may see a willingness for the leader to pursue coaching to develop and enhance these skills on a deeper level.

Leaders do appear to want to take charge of their own development if given the opportunity to assess their transformational leadership and self-efficacy skills. As stated in Cchapter 1, effective leaders are in short supply and transformational leadership and self-efficacy are primary variables to leadership. By enabling leaders to assess their transformational leadership and self-efficacy and recommending executive coaching -- this is an easy step to addressing this gap.

**Limitations, Assumptions, and Future Research**

A limitation to this research study was with SurveyMonkey® and their technical inability to produce actual scores to the respondents on their transformational leadership (above the norm or below the norm) and self-efficacy (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree), therefore a self-rating Likert-type scale was implemented to give a framework to the respondents to rate their perceived transformational leadership and self-efficacy scores. Another limitation of the study could have been not asking the demographic questions of education, length of time in position, and experience of the executives as this might helped explain the insignificance of self-efficacy (as the self-rated and actual scores where either a composite score of 4 or 5), and the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

*Generalizability* is defined as to the degree to which the findings of this research project can be generalized from the study’s sample size to the entire population (Polit & Hungler, 1991). An inherent risk with the quantitative paradigm is this paradigm is based upon positivism, meaning all phenomena can be reduced to empirical indicators, which represent the truth and only one truth exists independent of human perception (Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002). Therefore, the generalizability of these research findings may or may not be applicable to the general population and further research is needed for continued verification of consistent results. Assumptions regarding this research include participants in this study were honest and ethical. A random sampling of chief executive officers (CEO) and upper management was selected.

The findings of this correlational quantitative study are important as these findings add to the body of existing knowledge on transformational leadership, self-efficacy, and executive coaching. However, despite the new information, which has been revealed through this research study, further research is needed. A limitation to this current research study was the limitation of SurveyMonkey® to give the respondents in real-time their results of their assessed transformational leadership characteristics and scores of self-efficacy. This known variable may or may not have a different correlational relationship on the propensity to pursue executive coaching.

Understanding the demographic variables of education, experience, or length in the executives’ current position may also help to elucidate the non-significant relationship between self-efficacy and executive coaching. Additionally, the industry of executive coaching is an established international industry and this research study was isolated to the United States. Replicating this same study in other geographic international locations may yield different results as well as for global companies or organizations in other countries.

**Conclusion**

This study set out to elucidate the relationship between transformational leadership, self-efficacy, and the propensity to pursue executive coaching and to add to the growing body of theoretical and empirical knowledge to these growing constructs. Through a quantitative purposive sampling design study, results were obtained which revealed new information about these variables and the strength of their relationships. Indeed this new information opens new paths for continued exploratory research. These findings are an added layer to an existing thin foundation, but for which continued robust and broader theoretical research should be built. Continued understanding of these primary variables, and their influences on each other, may assist leaders to take charge of their own development, hence fostering successful and global leaders.

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**APPENDIX A. STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL WORK**

Academic Honesty Policy

Capella University’s Academic Honesty Policy ([3.01.01](http://www.capella.edu/assets/pdf/policies/academic_honesty.pdf)) holds learners accountable for the integrity of work they submit, which includes but is not limited to discussion postings, assignments, comprehensive exams, and the dissertation or capstone project.

Established in the Policy are the expectations for original work, rationale for the policy, definition of terms that pertain to academic honesty and original work, and disciplinary consequences of academic dishonesty. Also stated in the Policy is the expectation that learners will follow APA rules for citing another person’s ideas or works.

The following standards for original work and definition of *plagiarism* are discussed in the Policy:

Learners are expected to be the sole authors of their work and to acknowledge the authorship of others’ work through proper citation and reference. Use of another person’s ideas, including another learner’s, without proper reference or citation constitutes plagiarism and academic dishonesty and is prohibited conduct. (p. 1)

Plagiarism is one example of academic dishonesty. Plagiarism is presenting someone else’s ideas or work as your own. Plagiarism also includes copying verbatim or rephrasing ideas without properly acknowledging the source by author, date, and publication medium. (p. 2)

Capella University’s Research Misconduct Policy ([3.03.06](http://www.capella.edu/assets/pdf/policies/research_misconduct.pdf)) holds learners accountable for research integrity. What constitutes research misconduct is discussed in the Policy:

Research misconduct includes but is not limited to falsification, fabrication, plagiarism, misappropriation, or other practices that seriously deviate from those that are commonly accepted within the academic community for proposing, conducting, or reviewing research, or in reporting research results. (p. 1)

Learners failing to abide by these policies are subject to consequences, including but not limited to dismissal or revocation of the degree.

**Statement of Original Work and Signature**

I have read, understood, and abided by Capella University’s Academic Honesty Policy ([3.01.01](http://www.capella.edu/assets/pdf/policies/academic_honesty.pdf)) and Research Misconduct Policy ([3.03.06](http://www.capella.edu/assets/pdf/policies/research_misconduct.pdf)), including the Policy Statements, Rationale, and Definitions.

I attest that this dissertation or capstone project is my own work. Where I have used the ideas or words of others, I have paraphrased, summarized, or used direct quotes following the guidelines set forth in the APA *Publication Manual*.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Learner name  and date | Shauna Rossington May 31, 2015 |
| Mentor name and school | Dr. Adrienne A. Isakovic, School of Business and Technology |

**APPENDIX B. Instruments MLQ and NGSES Tools**

**NGSES**

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.

2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.

3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.

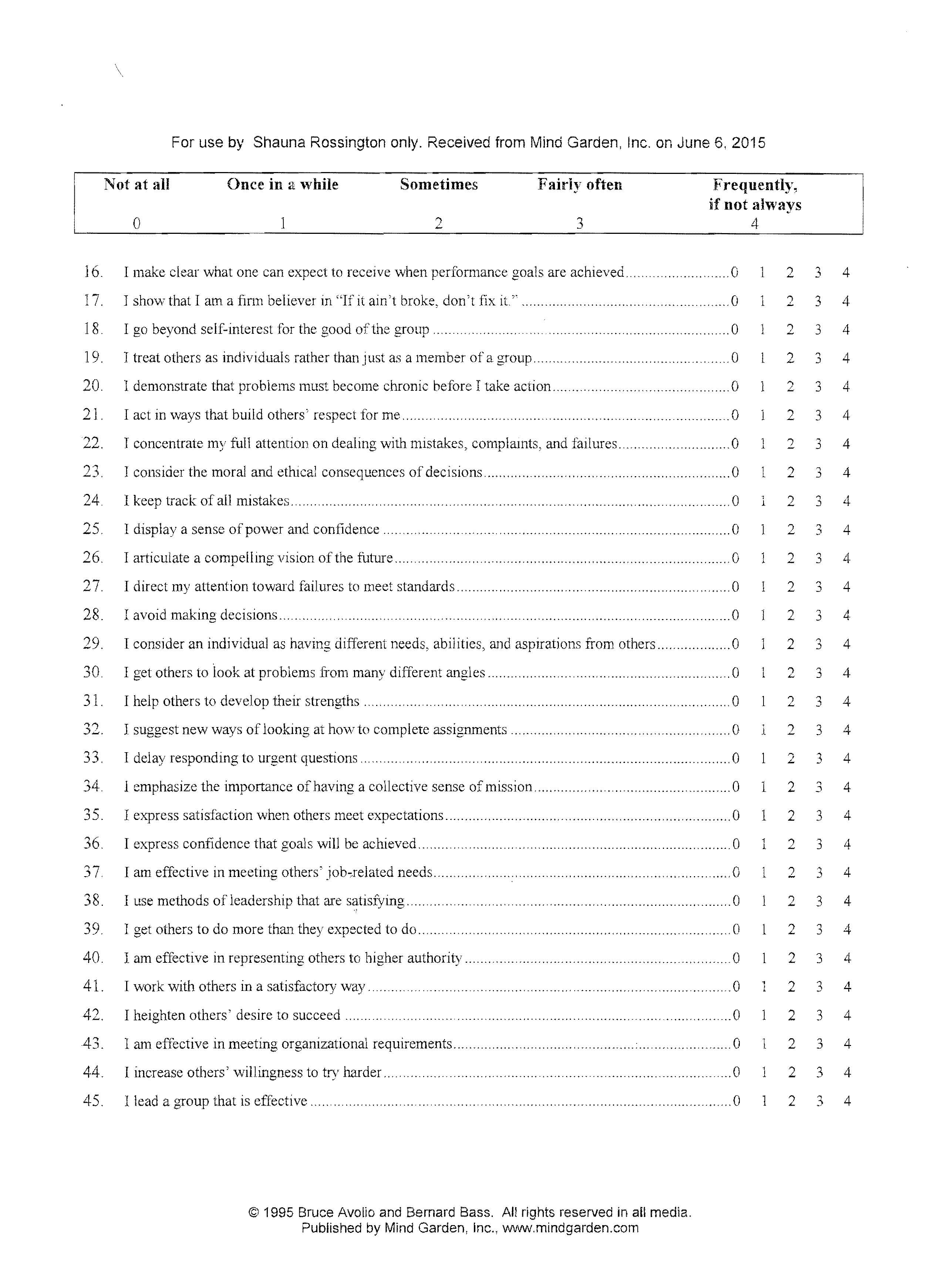
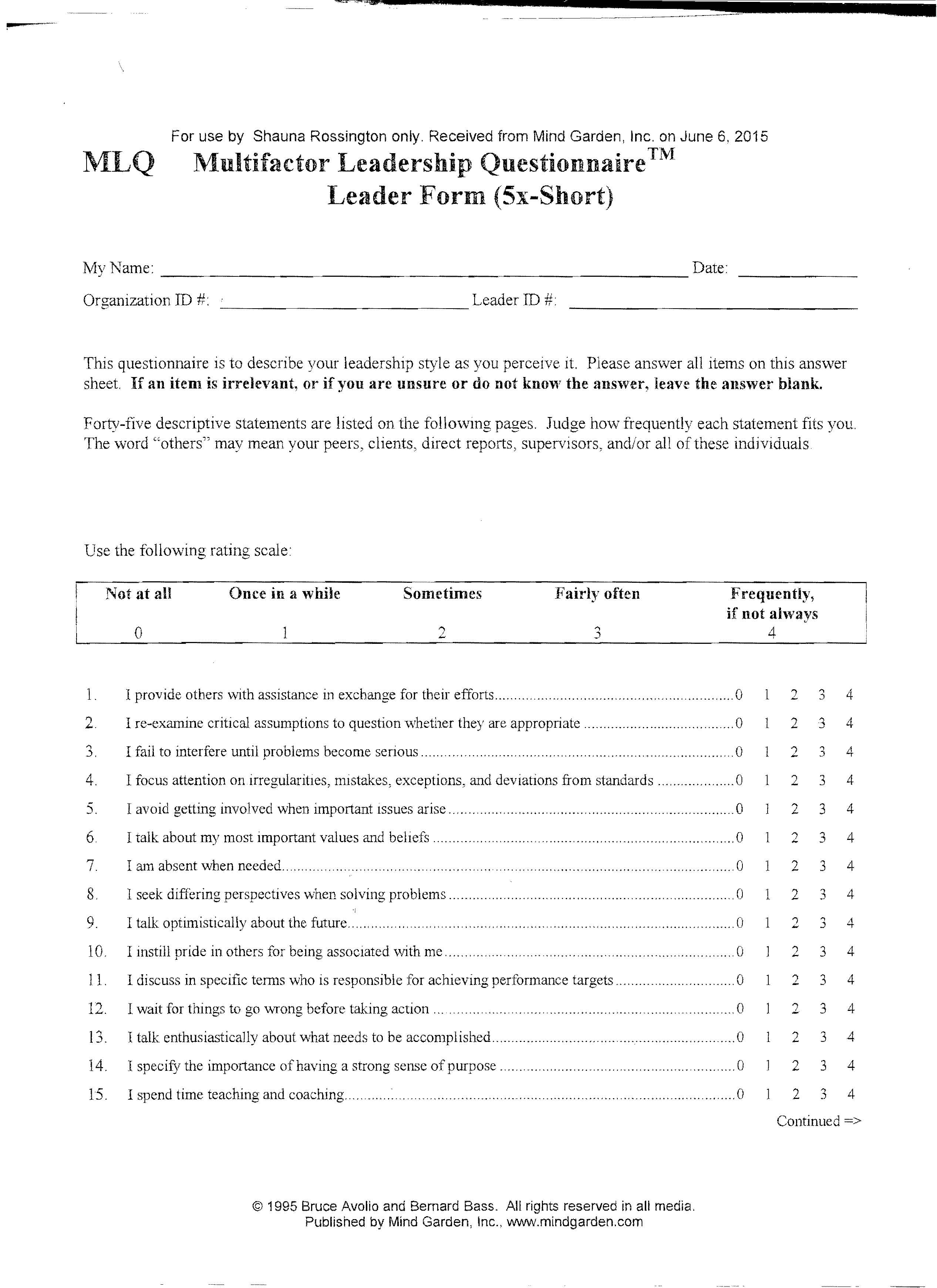
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.

5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.

6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.

7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.

8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well. (Chen et al., 2001, p. 79)

**MLQ** 

**Follow-up Likert Scale Question and Demographics**

**Transformational Leadership Definition:**

Transformational leadership is a leadership style, which incorporates relationships and the dynamic interplay between the followers and the leader of a group. Transformational leadership inspires followers to be the best they can be, to accomplish their goals, and values what followers need and want. By focusing on the follower’s values and aligning those values with an organization’s value this outcome may further the mission of a corporation, company, business, or organization

**Self-Efficacy Definition:**

A judgment of one’s own ability to perform a specific task within a specific domain. Thus, self-efficacy is the aspect of self, which refers to how sure (or how confident) the individual is that he or she can successfully perform requisite tasks in specific situations, given one’s unique and specific capabilities. (Bandura, 1997, p. 4)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Question** | **Low** | **Do Not Know** | **High** |  |  |
| 1. After completing this 45 questionnaire on leadership style, do you feel or think you rated low, do not know, or high on transformational leadership style? |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | **Strongly Disagree**  Will not pursue executive coaching | **Disagree**  Might consider pursuing executive coaching within the next 3 months | **Neutral** | **Agree**  Will definitely pursue executive coaching within the next 3 months | **Strongly Agree**  Will pursue executive coaching immediately |
| 2. Based on how you think or feel you rated on transformational leadership style (low, do not know or high), how likely are you to pursue executive coaching? |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Low | Do Not Know | High |  |  |
| 3. After completing the 8 questionnaire on self-efficacy, do you feel or think you rated low, do not know, or high on self-efficacy? |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4. Based on how you think or feel you rated on self-efficacy (low, do not know, or high), how likely are you to pursue executive coaching? |  |  |  |  |  |

2. What is your gender: Male or Female?

3. What is your age category? 20-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, 61-70

4. What position do you hold within the organization?

A Chief Executive Officer

B. Chief Operation Officer

C. Executive Management (Supervise managers)

D. Supervisory Management (Supervise employees)

5. How many employees are within your organization?

A. Less than 100

B. 100-1,000

C. 1,000 – 10,000

D. 10,000+

**APPENDIX C. Copyright Reprint Permission**

**Note 1 and 4.**

My pleasure - happy to help! Let me know if there's anything else I can do to help you out as you move forward!

On Thu, Apr 2, 2015 at 5:08 PM, Shauna Rossington <srossington@mountaincircle.org> wrote:

Ah, you are right! It was a couple of months ago that I did this for chapter 2 and it is figure 4 I used which is yours. Awesome, thank you so much! As you can imagine—I am sincerely grateful! Thanks for your great work in this area as it really helped support my position in my research project!

Respectfully,

Shauna

From: Brodie Gregory

Sent: Thursday, April 02, 2015 2:05 PM

To: Shauna Rossington

Subject: Re: Permission to reprint figure

We based our model on London and Smithers. There are two similar models in that article - one is theirs and one is ours. I don't have the article in front of me, so I don't know what figure number / page corresponds to each, but it should be in the figure label. Feel free to use ours!

On Thu, Apr 2, 2015 at 4:50 PM, Shauna Rossington <srossington@mountaincircle.org> wrote:

Yay! I also realized that I used another figure from you too! Gregory, J. B., Levy, P. E., & Jeffers, M. (2008). Development of a model of the feedback process within executive coaching. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 60(1), 42.Figure 1 on p. 45, but I think I am realizing (As I am typing this) that you copied this from London and Smither’s 2002 model of the feedback process, yes?

From: Brodie Gregory

Sent: Thursday, April 02, 2015 1:44 PM

To: Shauna Rossington

Subject: Re: Permission to reprint figure

Hi Shauna - absolutely - go for it!

On Thu, Apr 2, 2015 at 4:33 PM, Shauna Rossington <srossington@mountaincircle.org> wrote:

Dear Mr. Gregory ,

My name is Shauna Rossington and I am in IRB approval for my dissertation on self-efficacy, transformational leadership, and executive coaching, and I am using control theory as my theoretical framework . I am therefore asking permission to reprint your figure 1 from your article Gregory, J., Beck, J. W., & Carr, A. E. (2011). Goals, feedback, and self-regulation:Control theory as a natural framework for executive coaching. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice & Research, 63(1), 26-38. doi:10.1037/a0023398 p. 27.

Thank you for your consideration in this matter!

Sincerely,

Shauna Rossington, MFT (Nevada & Oregon)

Doctoral Student Business Administration

Executive Director

Mountain Circle Family Services, Inc

www.mountaincircle.org

www.runningwiththebears.org

https://youtu.be/67X2BM1haew

Foster Parent Vacancy Website http://mountaincirclefamilies.org/.

www.facebook.com/runningwiththebears

www.linkedin.com/pub/shauna-rossington-executive-coaching/19/168/8b6/

(530) 284 7007

Mailing Address: P.O. Box 554 Greenville CA 95947

Our Mission: Mountain Circle Family Services is a non-profit community based organization, committed to ensuring stability and life sustaining changes for foster and adoptive children.

**Note 2.**

Dear Shauna,

Is this the picture you would like to reprint?

If so, you have my permission provided of course that you refer to the source, as you will do.

Keep well!

Best wishes,

Erik

Erik de Haan

Professor of Organisation Development

Director of Ashridge Centre for Coaching

Mobile: +44 (0)7789 698633

Work: +44 (0)1442 841163

Website: www.ashridge.org.uk/erikdehaan

Address: Ashridge, Berkhamsted, Herts HP4 1NS

From: Shauna Rossington [mailto:srossington@mountaincircle.org]

Sent: 01 June 2015 18:57

To: Erik de Haan

Subject: Permission needed for reprinting a figure :)

Good Morning Dr. de Haan!

We exchanged emails about a year ago . I am finalizing chapt 1-3 of my dissertation and I’ve used a lot of your work, specifically in Chapt 2—thank you!

I am doing a research project on Executive coaching, self-efficacy, and transformational leadership. After assessing self-efficacy (using the NGSES assessment tool), and transformational leadership (using the MLQ assessment tool), I want to see if there is a link to pursue executive coaching based on an executive’s assessment of those domains by using a 5 point Likert-type scale follow-up question.

Anyhow, I am wanting permission to reprint a figure I used from your research article:

Figure 3. Common factors, which have a positive outcome on coaching (de Haan et al., 2013, p. 47).

de Haan, E., Duckworth, A., Birch, D., & Jones, C. (2013). Executive coaching outcome research: The contribution of common factors such as relationship, personality match, and self-efficacy. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 65(1), 40.

Thank you for this consideration as I know you are busy!

If you would like a copy of my dissertation when I am done, I’d love to send it to you

Thanks

Shauna Rossington, MFT (Nevada & Oregon)

Doctoral Student Business Administration

Executive Director

Mountain Circle Family Services, Inc

www.mountaincircle.org

www.runningwiththebears.org

https://youtu.be/67X2BM1haew

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**Note 3.**

Dear Shauna,

Thank you for your email.

Please allow me to introduce myself, my name is Chris Tutill and I am the Rights Assistant here at Emerald.

With regards to your request, providing that the figures are fully referenced and give credit to the original publication, Emerald is happy for you to include them in your dissertation.

Please note that should you wish to republish the figures elsewhere (i.e. for commercial purposes/in a journal, etc.), you will need to clear permission once more.

I wish you the best of luck with your dissertation.

Kind Regards,

Chris Tutill

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CTutill@emeraldinsight.com| www.emeraldinsight.com

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 Please consider the environment before printing this email

From: Shauna Rossington [mailto:srossington@mountaincircle.org]

Sent: 02 April 2015 22:05

To: Editorial

Subject: Permission to reprint a figure for my dissertation

To Whom it May Concern:

My name is Shauna Rossington and I am writing a dissertation on Self-Efficacy, Transformational Leadership, and Executive Coaching. I am wanting permission to reprint a figure from the article by Pillai, R., & Willaims, E. A. (2004). Transformational leadership, self-efficacy, group cohesiveness, commitment, and performance. Journal of Organizational Change Management, 17(2), 144-159, specifically on page 153.

Thank you for your assistance in this matter!

Sincerely,

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